SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF CORRECTIONAL REHABILITATION FOR THE POST-RELEASE WELLBEING OF PRISONERS IN UASIN GISHU COUNTY, KENYA

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family and children for their unwavering moral support and encouragement.

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ABSTRACT

After serving their terms in prison, inmates return to society. Following imprisonment, the prisoner and his family are adversely affected and society faces the challenge of how to deal with them as they return home. This touches on the obligations of the ex-offender, his or her family, the victim, the community, and the state. The purpose of this study was to investigate the social implications of correctional rehabilitation for prisoner' post-incarceration wellbeing with specific reference to Uasin Gishu County. The objectives of the study were: to examine the types of correctional rehabilitation services available to prisoners'; to assess the influence of prison social support services and training programmes on prisoners' post release wellbeing; to evaluate the effects of social relations on prisoners' post release wellbeing and to analyze the impact of prisoners' livelihood strategies on their post-release wellbeing. The study was limited to individuals who had been convicted and imprisoned for over two years. This study was grounded on the Rehabilitation Model, Labelling Theory and Rational Choice Theory. The study targeted ex-prisoners, prison officers, probation officers and; local leaders from Uasin Gishu County. A sample of 160 was drawn from 462 ex-prisoners released between 2010 and 2021 from Ngeria farm prison, Eldoret women's prison and Eldoret main prison. Purposive sampling was used to select Uasin Gishu County and its six sub-counties: Ainabkoi, Moiben, Kesses, Kapseret, Turbo and Soy. Snowball sampling was used to select ex-prisoners. Interview guides were used to gather information. The content validity of the instrument was determined by the researcher discussing the items in the instrument with the supervisors, lecturers from the department and colleagues. The interview schedule data was first subjected to preliminary processing through validation, coding and editing and tabulated before its readiness for analysis with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS V. 20) computer package as a 'toolbox' to analyze data related to objectives. Findings revealed that rehabilitation services were not enhancing the wellbeing of ex- prisoners. Prisoners abused drugs and avoidance to cope with hardships such as unemployment, illness and stigma from communities after being released. The study concluded that post-release rehabilitation was key in ensuring that ex-convicts adjusted to the communities' environment without resorting to aggression and drug abuse which would eventually land them back to prison. Released prisoners wellbeing could further be improved through improved social relations before release, economic and psychological empowerment. Adoption of ex-prisoners to the community was important and a requirement for post release rehabilitation services. The study recommends that the prison department with support from the government should develop a multiagency collaboration and develop comprehensive post release care for ex-convicts to ensure continuity of care, and to provide consistent assistance to offenders beyond the prison environment.

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ACRONYMNS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BBC	-	British Broadcasting Corporation
BJS	-	Bureau of Justice Statistics
GED	-	General Equivalence Diploma
KNHCR	-	Kenya National Commission of Human Rights
NACOSTI	-	National Commission for Science and Technology Innovation
NGOs	-	Non Governmental Organizations
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Science
UK	-	United Kingdom
US	-	United States

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Any country that wants to reduce crime and instability and help lawbreakers with their abnormal behaviour must imprison those who break the law. Nonetheless, any nation should be concerned about the societal damage that comes from incarcerating its citizens. Numerous studies have looked into how well-prepared prisoners are (McKean and Ransford, 2004). Research on the effects of imprisonment on the labour market has gained more attention as a result of the dramatic increase in incarceration rates in the United States. According to theory, being incarcerated may negatively impact one's chances of finding work due to the loss of possible labour market experience while incarcerated, the devaluation of one's current human resources, or the stigma or signal that being incarcerated sends to hiring managers (Western, Kling & Weiman, 2001).

The Commission Upon Protection and Torture in America's Prisons (2006) reported that many times, mental health issues among inmates go undetected. They also have long-term health issues including diabetes and high blood pressure. The panel also noted that, frequently, incarceration exacerbates rather than resolves inmates' health issues due to overcrowding and a lack of support. According to (Anno, Graham, Lawrence & Shansky, 2004), lengthier jail terms have led to an increase in the number of elderly inmates who are hospitalised with diseases related to their disease profile, such as arthritis, heart disease, respiratory disorders, and Alzheimer's disease. The elderly jail population is particularly concentrated under these conditions.

Jail continues to limit inmates' ability to make healthy decisions and, in certain situations, deliberately prevents inmates from making the healthy decisions they want to make, even while policy supports jail as a healthy place (Internationally Centres for Prison Service, 2009).

Prisoner rehabilitation initiatives are becoming an essential component of prison life in Wales and Britain (Glaze & Palla, 2004). Some are often outsourced out to establishments like the Staff College, universities, and private training institutes, and they function as a control mechanism. Programmes include literacy training and postgraduate studies for students between the ages of 15 and over 65, with a primary concentration on life and social skills. The percentage of those who reoffend and return to jail is notably high, despite the effort. This raises concerns about the effectiveness of the rehabilitative rehabilitation programmes used in jails. According to Stephen and Hillary (2012), all federal correctional facilities and prisons in Canada provide a range of rehabilitation programmes, including adult basic education (grades 1–10), secondary education (grades 11–12), vocational college, and university-level courses. These programmes, which are provided by Canadian correctional agencies (CCS) to serving inmates, have as their goal helping them successfully reintegrate into society as law-abiding citizens by offering them provincially recognised or certified programmes that address their recognised educational and training needs.

The majority of inmates worldwide originate from the most marginalised segments of society, frequently exhibiting poor levels of educational achievement and access. This is more noticeable in several African nations in particular. In actuality, prison-based programmes for rehabilitation are extremely scarce and only accessible to a small

portion of the convicted population in the majority of African nations. This has grave repercussions as often of the prisoners depart from these institutions in worse shape than when they arrived. The primary cause of this is that the convicts either refuse to get training when it is offered, choose to ignore it, or take advantage of it completely. Warren (2009) asserts that this may be the prisoner's sole chance to acquire skills that will improve his or her life outside of prison.

Section 19 in the Correctional Service Act, No. 111 of 1998 requires prison services to offer programmes for rehabilitation to all child imprisoned individuals who are at the age where they may be required to attend compulsory education. In addition to older children should also be given entry to these training programmes. South Africa is the country with the largest economy on the continent. According to Section 41(2) under the same Act, persons serving sentences are required to complete literacy instruction and are entitled to take part in additional training courses. The courses on offer are designed to specifically address the requirements of the prisoners, ensuring that they are thoroughly rehabilitated and equipped with the fundamental skills needed for self-sufficiency after their release. Nevertheless, a study indicates that the goals not met by the inmates' use of these services are not met. According to the Institute of Studies in Security (2007), the survey revealed that just 5% of prisoners participated in adult fundamental education programmes along with 7% in career development programmes. The Ministry of Labour allocated USD 850,000 for vocational skills training in 2003, supplying 9% of the jail population in this nation where developing skills is a national priority. A portion of the monies went towards teaching inmates who were evaluated by the sector Educational teaching Authority

and awarded qualification certificates (The Institute of safety Studies, 2007). Although the influence of the instruction on the offenders has not yet been thoroughly evaluated, the incidence of recidivism, which stands at 40%, is still rather high.

In Tanzania, a prison education college offers vocational instruction to prisoners serving lengthy terms. Over 15,000 inmates have passed various trade examinations in the last 25 years, according to the nation. Furthermore, 24% of the sentenced inmates work in industries, and 52% of them receive training in agriculture. Sadly, however, female inmates, those imprisoned and serving life sentences, and those expecting the execution of the death penalty are not included in these training sessions (UNODC, 2012). The Kenyan prison authorities have a 20-year plan in place, which includes a number of inmate training courses designed to fully rehabilitate inmates— if not to prevent reoffending and curtail their criminal activities. The Internal Affairs Ministry claims that this is an attempt to enhance the security conditions in the nation (Prisons Strategic Set up, 2005-2009). However, recent data presents an unfavourable image of the rise in crime and high recidivism rate. Nonetheless, the 20-year training estimates could offer a solution to this issue.

Offering rehabilitation services to all prisoners serving long- and short-term sentences is a primary goal of the Kenya Prison Service. The intention is to ensure that all convicts receive the fullest possible rehabilitation and are reintegrated into their loved ones and the larger society. The goal of the training programme is to enable the prisoners to become self-sufficient and support their immediate families after they are released. Additionally, the programme allows the prisoners to continue their education and develop new skills while the secondary school students finish their coursework

and even go on to the university for their higher education. In addition, the former prisoners can avoid committing new crimes and returning to jail by reintegrating into society, finding employment, and lessening the stigma they face from their neighbours. To achieve complete rehabilitation and reintegration into society, jail convicts must receive training relevant to current culture. Research conducted thus far has not demonstrated whether this important goal has been accomplished globally.

In Kenya, the prison department as a service though not well funded subjects inmates to various rehabilitation programmes with their vision being: "A correctional Service of excellence in Africa and beyond" and mission statement: "To contain offenders in humane safe conditions in order to facilitate responsive administration of justice, rehabilitation, social reintegration and community protection". Whether they have succeeded in preparing them for post-prison life and experience, it is yet to be established (Kenya National Commission of Human Rights, 2005).

Due to a variety of socioeconomic factors, the number of people found guilty under Kenya's criminal justice system has dramatically grown (Omboto, 2013). In addition to punishing the criminal and discouraging others, the ultimate goals of sentence and confinement in prisons are also to support rehabilitation, denunciation, community protection, or an amalgamation of two or more of the aforementioned objectives (Gelb & Hoel, 2008). The Prisons Act (Cap 90), the Borstal Act (Cap 92, 2009), and the Prison Act (Cap 90, 2008) all emphasise this. Halsey(2007) points out that while prisoners participate in criminal and deviant conduct while incarcerated and return to criminal activity after release, this strategy has not had much success in changing offenders into reformed individuals. In an effort to assist prisoners in becoming law-

abiding citizens and abstaining from disruptive conduct, Kenyan correctional facility administration has recently placed a great deal of emphasis and funding on offender rehabilitation courses (Omboto, 2013).

Such initiatives are the consequence of realising that interventions like these are probably going to have a bigger effect on recidivism than jail alone (Heseltine, Day & Sarre, 2013). However, (Omboto, 2013) shown that there are several obstacles in the way of this endeavour to rehabilitate people housed in Kenya's rehabilitation centres. According to Gelb & Hoel (2008), the Prisons Act (Cap 90), and the Borstal Act (Cap 92), the purpose of prison institutions nowadays is not limited to containment and punishment alone, but also includes rehabilitation, denunciation, and community protection. Many studies highlight the need for rehabilitation, arguing that such efforts are essential to reducing relapse (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). This goes against the idea that punishment and jail alone are the best options since they may raise the likelihood of repeat offenders (Chen & Shapiro, 2007). A great deal of research has been done on the necessity of reform Kenya's penal system, primarily with regard to the best ways to rehabilitate the inmates. However, very little research has been done on the effects of factors like severing ties with family members and the financial, psychological, physical, and health effects of incarceration on the inmates' ability to rehabilitate and become law-abiding citizens after their release.

However, incarceration has certain impacts on inmates' lives, and these effects influence whether or not inmates may change for the better after being released from jail or revert to a life of crime. Kenya now has 115,700 inmates, according to the most recent study (BBC, 2014). However, this number is rising largely due to ex-offenders

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continuing to live criminal lives rather than since offence is on the rise (Mushanga, 1976). It may be possible to comprehend Kenyan prisons and their effects on inmates by examining how they have changed since the country's independence. The Kenya Prisons were founded in 1962 by an Act of Parliament, and the Prison Act, Chapter 90 and the Borstal Act Chapter 92 serve as its governing bodies. While the nation remained a British colony, the Kenyan government continued to impose harsh, punishing, and racially discriminatory laws and regulations without bothering to alter the prison system to accommodate a free populace (Abreo, 1972).

Despite the initiatives to enhance re-entry, the Kenya prison system maintains its overcrowding problem with occupancy rates of 226% capacity compared to other East African countries like Uganda 214% and Tanzania 145%. Mention how overcrowding is a challenge in the implementation of correctional rehabilitation interventions…The problem being pegged to the tremendous rate of recidivism (UNODC, 2012), thus examination of the Kenya's prisoner re-entry initiatives and identification of alternative approaches that might be more successful becomes an urgent priority. Therefore, until we have a better understanding of what works, policies and programmes are effective there will be minimal lasting impacts (Sumter et al., 2012).

At any given moment, 40,000–50,000 people are housed in Kenyan jails, 50% of them are repeat criminals. Rehabilitation programmes are implemented in prisons to enhance the well-being of inmates both during their incarceration and after they are released from custody following the completion of their terms or after they have been found not guilty by the judicial system (Bureu of Democracy, Rights of the Person, and Labour, 2011). Prisons are expected to do more than just house criminals; they

are also intended to help them become law-abiding citizens. These assumptions give rise to a wide range of strategies that might revolutionise the prison system. Programmes for spiritual wellness, formal education, mentoring and counselling, and vocational training are all included in the rehabilitation efforts. For inmates who were enrolled in the curriculum at the time of their incarceration and choose to continue after they are released from jail, formal education is intended. When prisons opened their doors in the late 1990s to public observation and during the human rights movement within our institutions, formal education became essential for inmates aged 25 and under. Reentry from prison into society as a whole is a dynamic process that involves the ex-offender as well as a number of community stakeholders, including employers, family, pro-social peers, and religious leaders.

After serving their sentences in jail, communities that receive back criminals may not be able to adequately provide their requirements for housing, counselling, jobs, health care, and drug addiction treatment. New inquiries concerning the best approaches to handle restoration and recovery into the society have been raised by this removal and return. The focus is on how community-based social service organisations, companies, neighbourhood groups, faith-based organisations, and families may collaborate with the prisons and probation agencies to improve reintegration chances, prepare for prisoner returns, and discourage misbehaviour.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Prisons are institutions that rehabilitate and reform the prisoners from a life of crime to one of being law-abiding citizens. A large number of prisoners are released back into the community every year after correctional rehabilitation. The percentage of

people returning to prisons after three years of release has also remained steady questioning the effectiveness of prison in rehabilitation. A study by Visher, (2006) showed a 58.2% rate of recidivism and questions why prisoners quickly get back to crime. The researcher further notes that criminals continue associating with other offenders owing to rejection by the society. In Kenya, a recidivism rate of 50% was reported in 2011 (Government of Kenya prison data base, 2011Although some offenders are well educated, the prison administration empowers the inmates by enrolling them for different vocational training courses to teach skills that would help the prisoners make an honest life following their release (Kenya National Commission of Human Rights, 2005). Numerous studies have been carried out to reform the Kenya penal system especially on how to rehabilitate offenders but few have explored the social impact of imprisonment touching on family stability, health and economic issues (BBC News, 2014)

The knowledge about the impact of imprisonment on inmates' lives comes from studies in the developed world in countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Western Europe, Australia among others hence the importance of the current study on the Kenyan situation which is scanty. Not much research has been done to find out the social effects of imprisonment on inmates beyond prison walls. The consequences highlighted so far include: the social disorganization of communities Clear, Bruce, Harold & Carol (2002); reduced job opportunities for ex-prisoners (Holzer, Raphael, & Stoll, 2004), and psychological and financial burdens of families. Prisoners returning back to the community may be afflicted with many difficulties which occurred while they were serving prison terms. These range from

aging to failing health. The poor conditions in overcrowded prison cells, hard labour, poor nutrition and inadequate healthcare are some of the factors responsible for this. Many of the former inmates may therefore find themselves unable to engage in any meaningful economic activities to support themselves and their families. The situation is likely to determine the degree of their acceptance and integration into the community. The foregoing information underscored the need for a study on the social effects of correctional rehabilitation on ex-prisoner's post-release lives in Kenya and specifically in Uasin Gishu County. This study, therefore, was an attempt to examine the social implications of correctional rehabilitation for prisoners' and their families' post incarceration lives.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The investigation's goal was to look at the social impact of correctional rehabilitation on -prisoners' post incarceration wellbeing with a specific reference to Uasin Gishu County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the types of correctional rehabilitation services utilized by ex-prisoners while in prison in Uasin Gishu County.

2. To analyze the influence of prison social support services and training programmes on prisoners' post release wellbeing in Uasin Gishu County.

3. To evaluate the effects of social relations on prisoners' post release wellbeing in Uasin Gishu County.

4. To assess the effects of prisoners' livelihood strategies on their post release wellbeing in Uasin Gishu County.

1.5 Research Questions

  i.   What are the types of correctional rehabilitation services utilized by ex-prisoners while in prison in Uasin Gishu County?

 ii.   How do prison social support services and training programmes influence prisoners' post release wellbeing?

iii.   In what ways do social relations affect prisoners' post release wellbeing?

 iv.   How do prisoners' livelihood strategies affect their post release wellbeing?

1.6 Justification of the Study

As evidenced in the problem statement there were adequate grounds for concern on the impact of imprisonment on former prisoners' lives. The scant material that did exist regarding African jails was primarily comprised of accounts of cruelty, misery, and filthy, cramped circumstances. It was not unexpected that there was little conversation on what prisons might do to help inmates undergo change in order to enable them lead law-abiding lives after their release, because many jails throughout the globe did in fact experience similar issues. It was therefore important to establish the level of prisoners' preparation for release and reintegration into the society by looking at the social support services and rehabilitation programmes that were offered in Kenyan prisons. It was possible that a sheer number of them were released without adequate preparation leaving them to face severe challenges yet rehabilitation and reintegration of prisoners was acknowledged as one of the key functions of the prison system, even in Kenya. It was, therefore, important to understand pre-release

reintegration efforts by Kenyan correction service and the influence they had on prisoners 'post release wellbeing.

This study was necessitated by a wide range of likely devastating psychological, social and economic effects of imprisonment as indicated by studies done elsewhere. First the problem was likely to affect prisoners' employment and re-employment chances and lead to increased poverty levels in the country. The present investigation was significant since it was one of the few that looked at the lives of people who had been released from jail. These investigations were carried out a lengthy time ago (Sampson & Laub, 1993) or had been conducted using small or not reflective sets (Maruna, 2001; Solomon et al., 2001). Thus, studies done in the past might not apply to the problems facing offenders being released today. The majority of writing about criminal offenders concentrates on recidivism, or the inability to stop committing crimes. Studies on recidivism have focused on figuring out what variables might indicate when criminal conduct will occur.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The government, planners, policy makers, and various other interested parties might benefit from the study's findings when creating policies and programmes that improve inmates' reintegration into society. It was also anticipated that the study will further our understanding of the effects of incarceration and the difficulties faced by ex-offenders upon their release. It was envisaged that effective reintegration would increase coexistence between the law-abiding members of society and ex-offenders. This study would shade light on the general problems facing prisoners on release recognizing that only limited information exists about the implications of

imprisonment for ex-convicts' welfare in Africa and Kenya in particular. Legislators found the research to be significant because it would serve as a roadmap for developing rehabilitation plans and allocating funds for the Kenyan Prisons service. The present framework was heavily impacted by issues with insufficient funding and inexperienced prison staff.

The public's comprehension of the Kenyan Prisons Service's mission in criminal rehabilitation programmes and how prison circumstances significantly influence the degree of reformation experienced by convicts would also be enhanced by this study. The study's conclusions about the effects of recidivism on development would have an effect on the economy. Savvy investments were often made in a safe setting. Economic expansion was endangered by a criminal atmosphere. Therefore, rehabilitation of offenders was necessary for growth to take place since it would lower the rate of reoffending and help gain the confidence of investors. It was envisaged that the research will contribute to a decrease in crime by preventing formerly incarcerated individuals from reoffending by developing tactics that target their unique rehabilitation requirements both inside and outside of prisons.

Creation of organised courses in trades like plumbing, mechanical engineering, carpentry, and masonry, or the use of specialised rehabilitation to address the needs of particular offenders in place of generalised rehabilitation programmes. The basic goals of imprisonment for correction were lost when more formerly incarcerated individuals committed crimes. The government spent a large amount of tax dollars on the care of convicts, which was not profitable. The funds utilised to house a large number of criminals may be utilised to educate them, which would help the economy

of the nation. Both domestic and international investment were significantly hampered by insecurity, and their recurrence could not be disregarded. The government should implement the appropriate rehabilitative mechanisms that address the unique needs of each offender and build appropriate follow-up programmes that track their successful reintegration into society, according to the present study's recommendations.

1.8 Assumptions of the Study

The study assumes that prisoners who participate in correctional rehabilitation programs have better post-incarceration wellbeing than those who do not participate. The physical and human environment in prison has an impact on inmates. Rehabilitation programs can help ex-prisoners become self-sustainable and reduce recidivism rates. There are factors that influence the performance of rehabilitation programs and recidivism rates, such as policies and legislation, technology advancement, overcrowding, and inadequate resources.

1.9 Scope of the Study

The study's scope focused on former adult prisoners residing in Uasin Gishu County who had served sentences exceeding two years. The research encompassed 160 former inmates and various key informants, including prison officials, police officers, probation officers, family members, provincial administration representatives, and religious leaders. Data collection occurred across six sub-counties: Ainabkoi, Moiben, Kesses, Kapseret, Turbo, and Soy, during April 2022.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

A potential limitation lay in the possibility of respondents providing inaccurate information due to concerns about re-arrest. To address this, participants were informed of the study's purpose, consent was obtained, and confidentiality assured. The study also faced constraints in available data on the post-release experiences of ex-prisoners in Kenya, necessitating reference to international research. Tracing ex-prisoners was challenging, potentially impacting the representativeness of the sample. The use of interview schedules, rather than questionnaires, may have influenced response limitations due to resource and time constraints.

1.11 Theoretical Framework

In this section, three sociological theories which guided the study are reviewed. They are: Rational Choice Theory, Labelling Theory and the Rehabilitation Model.

1.11.1 Rational Choice Theory

The Theory of Rational Choice is one of the main foundations of exchange theory. The premise of the rational choice method, which is applied to trade theory, game theory, and economics, is that mankind have inherent desires, objectives, values, or "utility functions." It thus presupposes that these objectives cannot be achieved evenly. Men make decisions based on limited resources and must choose between several options. It is presumed that they will act sensibly and choose a path of action that will get them closer to their objective (Heath, 1976). According to (Heath, 1976), social life just like economic life is characterized by scarcity and because we cannot have all wants, men must choose and make decisions. To choose the most preferred alternative is to choose the one that yields most utility and to maximize utility is

therefore to select the alternative that rewards most. According to this theory, the individual should calculate the expected value of the different courses of action. He should weigh the possible money gains or losses by the probability of their occurrence.

This study views imprisonment as a rational way by the criminal justice system of punishing offenders by taking them away from the law-abiding members of the society and to instil pain as retribution for law breaking. Courts have many sentencing alternatives it considers based on the merits and demerits of each course of action. Imprisonment is the most preferred owing to its ability to isolate prisoners from the rest of the society as it curtails freedom. Imprisonment causes physical discomfort, psychological pain, indignity and general unhappiness.

For individual prisoners, release from prison is a turning point in their lives where one has to chart out his/her future by carefully evaluating all options available to him or her. At the heart of successful transition from prison to community is the personal decision to change. The post release choices depend largely on one's goals and priorities. Release from prison may be an opportunity for some to re-evaluate their criminal history. To some, leading crime free life and seeking reconciliation with their victims and community members is a course of action that could help them fully reintegrate to the society. Usually, such individuals may gain social and economic support from their families and the community. It is likely that such individuals' socio-economic wellbeing would be enhanced. Some released prisoners may choose to continue engaging in crime as they may find it hard to cope with life outside prison walls. In this category could be those persons who have served long sentences to the

extent of getting prisonized and therefore finding it difficult to adjust to the free world.

Those who are labelled and rejected by family and community members also fall in this category. They are therefore likely to experience dire socio-economic strains and would most likely associate with other ex-prisoners who could influence them to reoffend and go back to prison. Others still, could decide to engage in all manner of odd job engagements just to sustain their alcohol and drug abuse behaviours. These are those who never bother to save anything for the future.

Whichever move one chooses to take will depend on personal calculations and weighing of options and these would determine whether one succeeds or fails in his/her post release life. The Rational Choice approach also applies to ex-prisoners' families and communities as they have to decide on the options of handling and treating offenders on their release. As prisoners return home on release they need psychological, social and economic support for them to successfully reintegrate in the community. In situations where ex-prisoners were accepted and embraced they were likely to fit well to families and communities and therefore their social wellbeing was enhanced unlike situations where they were labelled and rejected as this would most likely push them back to crime and eventually jail.

1.11.2 Labeling Theory

The problem in labelling anything a crime is calling it a criminal, and those who adhere to the Labelling Theory of criminology believe that a person will turn into what he is labelled or what others anticipate him to become. According to the

Labelling Theory, minorities and persons seen to be outside the mainstream of culture are more likely to be adversely labelled by majorities than acts themselves. The idea gained popularity in both the 1960s and the 1970s, and various updated versions have since evolved and are still widely used today. Terms pertaining to deviance, disability, or mental illness diagnosis are examples of unwanted descriptor or categorizations that might be rejected on the grounds that they are only "labels," frequently with an attempt to replace them with more positive terminology. Social construction and interactionism are similar to labelling theory. Labelling Theory, commonly referred to as Social Reaction Theory, has its roots in criminology and sociology and was created through sociologists Becker, Tannenbaum, Lemert, and Goffman, among others. Labelling theory (also known as "identifying against") maintains that behaviour is not inherently deviant; rather, it centres on the linguistic propensity of majority groups to stigmatise minorities or those who are seen to be straying from accepted social standards. This theory, which is linked to the ideas of self-fulfilling prophecy and stereotyping, examines how the words used to characterise or categorise someone might affect their actions and sense of self.

People are influenced by other people's emotions, whether they be "good" or "bad." According to the labelling hypothesis, criminals who have labels applied to them by society stigmatise them and develop a poor self-image. The negative implications associated with labels are more likely to encourage abnormal behaviour. Those who are classified as deviants often start hanging out with other people who share their classification and lose touch with their conformist buddies.

A person becomes what they are described as. Labels can be employed formally by social organisations (prisons, courts, educational institutions, etc.) or unofficially by youth, acquaintances, peers, and families. A person who has been labelled may end up rejecting social norms because they believe that is what bad people do. For instance, a man caught stealing once may be found guilty and sentenced to prison, whereupon he will be labelled as a "criminal" and subsequently a "ex-convict." The guy may start to regard himself mostly as an offenders, especially because he recognises many other "ex-convicts" through his time in jail. Associates might choose not to hang out with him, and employers may not hire him because of his criminal past. He may eventually turn to burglary as a way to survive as everyone views him as an offender regardless and he is unable to get employment. He has entered a profession of deviance if this occurs.

This study considered labeling of individuals as driving them into a life of crime and recidivism. Those involved in simple anti-social behavior could be pushed into criminal career if they were labeled as such. Those who have been convicted, imprisoned and released were likely to recidivate if family members, friends, peers and neighbors labelled them as ex-prisoners. This did not help to integrate them fully into the law abiding section of society. It instead leads to isolation forcing them to associate with fellow criminal elements further entrenching their participation in criminal activity. Their employment and re-employment chances also diminished as employers were reluctant to employ individuals with criminal records. The situation would be worse for those with low educational and skill levels. Many of those released from prison may be afflicted with ill health and aging further making them

unable to engage in any meaningful income earning activities. This could affect other spheres of family life including straining relationships.

Labeling does not always present negative implications for criminals and ex-prisoners. It sometimes has positive psychological effects. A label can function as a justification of socially unacceptable behavior, making it possible for an individual to blame his disorder, rather than his character flaws, for his behavior. From literature about self-serving bias, it is known that blaming outside factors for our negative behavior and taking personal credit for our positive behavior is associated with higher self-esteem (Gazzaniga, Ivry, Magnun & Hustler, 2009). Thus, it would be expected that blaming a mental illness or label for deviant behavior is good for self-esteem. Labeling also helps a criminal to get the right treatment and rehabilitation or a wrong doer to mend his ways. This is quite possible in countries with elaborate rehabilitation programmes for released prisoners. Psychotherapy has positive consequences for self-concept (Ashcraft and Radvansky, 2010). Those who are able to pursue community based rehabilitation successfully are likely to fully integrate into society and become law abiding citizens.

Furthermore, individuals may enrol in programmes for psychological, occupational, and financial assistance while undergoing therapy (Rosenfield, 1997). There are significant effects on wellbeing from this. Self-concept also acts as a mediating factor for these specific labelling effects. People's self-esteem and self-efficacy are raised when they are given the chance to overcome prejudice and rehabilitate themselves; this has been shown to improve well-being. Knowing someone's label helps others understand them better and may even make them more tolerant of socially undesirable

behaviour. In this sense, a label may serve to avoid rejection rather than to increase it.

It has long been understood that one of the most significant factors influencing one's self-esteem is acceptance from others (Croker, Luhtanen, Cooper & Bouvrette, 2003). Given that labels are linked to increased comprehension and acceptance, they may be good for one's self-esteem.

1.11.3 Rehabilitation Model

The underlying premise of this concept is that certain conditions lead to criminal behaviour. According to Hudson (2002), the primary goal of rehabilitation or reform is to successfully reintegrate the perpetrator into society following a time of discipline, and to craft the terms of the sentence to accomplish this goal. Although this viewpoint acknowledges that people choose to breach the law, it contends that this choice is not solely the result of free will. The choice to commit a crime is believed to be predetermined, or at the very least greatly impacted, by an individual's upbringing, psychological development, or biological composition. People show their will differently since they are not all the same. These individual variances influence how people act and their propensity to breach the law. Individuals who possess criminogenic risk factors, such as inadequate parental love as well as monitoring, being exposed to delinquent peers, internalisation of anti-social values, or an impulsive temperament, are at a higher risk of engaging in criminal activities compared to those who lack these experiences and characteristics (Zuckerman, 1991).

Supporters of this paradigm claim that if violence were a result of free will, then there might be nothing that could be altered about certain people. On the other hand, if criminogenic risk factors are what lead to criminal activity, then modifying these variables and the way they have affected offenders can lower the likelihood of reoffending. Any social or psychological intervention meant to lessen the offender's likelihood of committing new crimes is referred to as rehabilitation (Sechrest, West, Phillips,Redner & Yeaton, 1979). The medical model and the rehabilitation model are comparable. When someone is physically sick, the illness's causes are identified and treated. The medical issues that each person faces may vary, and so will the treatments. The same principles apply to correctional rehabilitation: causes must be identified, and remedies must be customised. Because rehabilitation helps the criminal change and facilitates his reintegration into society, it is also referred to as therapy (Harris & Rice, 2006).

The assumption of rehabilitation is that people are not permanently criminal and that it is possible to restore a criminal to a useful life, to a life in which they contribute to themselves and to society. The goal of rehabilitation is to prevent recidivism and rather than punishing them means should be sought to provide education or therapy to bring a criminal into a more normal state of mind or into an attitude which would be helpful to society rather than be harmful (Zuckerman, 1991).

Critiques of the rehabilitation model such as Martinson, (1974) assert that there was no sound scientific research to determine how different individuals react to the same rehabilitating methods since rehabilitation may depend more decisively on the individual psychological background, personal motives to commit crimes than on the

rehabilitating methods or philosophy. Furthermore, a rehabilitation programme that is adequate and efficient may prove to be too costly and complex to be successfully implemented in most countries. For countries that have finances, Huclesby & Worrall, (2007) asserts that crime rates have continued to rapidly increase despite the money being spent on the rehabilitation of offenders.

1.11.4 Synthesis of the Theories in Relation to Imprisonment

Having reviewed the theories in relation to the research problem, it was important to point out how they converged in explaining the issues in the study. It is notable from the foregoing discussion that the Theory of Rational Choice assumes that people have a range of course(s) of action to select from after release from prison. It does not consider the possibility that some released prisoners may have very slim or no options to choose from as they exited prison for the free world. Some ex-prisoners, for example, may not have any permanent places of aboard nor family ties to turn to.

Even in situations where released prisoners had family and social networks which were expected to reintegrate them, there were many situations where they were labeled and rejected as criminals and ex-convicts hence the choice of Labeling Theory. The Social Reaction Theory, sometimes referred to as Labelling Theory, asserts that a person will develop into what people anticipate him to or what his labels are. This idea holds that majorities have a propensity to stigmatise minorities especially those who don't fit the mould of accepted cultural standards.

Accordingly, when individuals returning to the community after serving terms in prison were labeled by community members as ex-criminals or convicts, they tended

to associate with similarly labeled deviants and would most likely return to crime and prison. The failure by this theory to consider how ex-prisoners could be molded into law abiding members of the community called for the Rehabilitation Model. Rehabilitation Model comes in handy to address the issue of criminal behavior as prisoners returned to the community after release from prison. It assumes that individuals are driven into crime by factors which can be corrected through treatment just like in the Medical Model to change criminal behaviour. According to this theory, social or psychological intervention could reduce offender's further criminal behaviour and that such interventions should be individualized to suit specific person's needs. The main goal of this theory is to reduce recidivism which is yearned by any society.

1.12 Conceptual Framework

The independent variables are: Types of correctional services, social support services & training programmes, social relations and livelihood strategies. The dependent variable is post- release wellbeing.

Independent variables   **Dependent variable**

Correctional rehabilitation services
- Vocational training
- Counseling
- Religious nourishment

Social support and training programmes
- Recreational programmes
- Counselling and Therapy
- Spiritual welfare
  Training programmes
-Educational provision
-Vocational training
-Employment

Livelihood strategies
- Occupation/source of income
- Leisure activities
- Dependency
- Crime
- Avoiding people
- Relocating to other places
- Drugs and alcohol abuse

Social relations
- Contact with family and friends
- Status of relationships
- Family stability

Ex-Prisoner's Post release wellbeing
Positive Impact
- Acceptance and Reintegration
- Employment/Income
- Re-establishment of social networks/ties
- Housing provision

  Negative Impact
-Rejection//Labeling
-Unemployment
-Dispossession/Relocation
-Social isolation
-Ill health/Aging
-Alcohol and substance abuse
-Recidivism

Intervening Variables
- Family
- Religion
- Civil Society
- Community
- Culture

Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher (2023)

The above conceptual framework at a glance provides the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables for the four objectives of this study. The first objective links the types of correctional services and the post-release wellbeing of ex-prisoners. Independent variables like vocational training, counseling services and religious nourishment and their effects on the dependent variables like acceptance and reintegration back to the community are clearly displayed. Closely related to the first objective is the second one which relates social support and the training programmes provided in prison to ex-prisoners'' post-release wellbeing. The framework shows how ex-prisoners are positively and negatively impacted by imprisonment. The third objective on the livelihood strategies adopted by ex-prisoners as they get out of prison and the fourth one on the impact of social relations on ex-prisoners post=release lives are also displayed and linked to the dependent variable. As prisoners transit to the community, institutions like the family, religion, the civil society and community members play important positive or negative roles in their reintegration to the free world as shown on the conceptual framework.

1.13 Operational Definition of Key Terms

Adult prisoner: is an individual who has been convicted of a crime and is incarcerated in a correctional facility or prison, typically after reaching the age of majority, which is 18 or older in most jurisdictions.

Community: In this study refers to a group of people who live in the same area or neighborhood.

Employment: in this study refers to work done to earn money.

Incarceration as used in this study refers to the act of confining or state of being confined in a prison.

Imprisonment is defined as confinement of a person in a prison facility from which they cannot escape.

Inmate as used in this study refers to a person confined to a prison.

Institutionalization refers to a situation where prisoners become part of prison culture to the extent of lacking the ability to live and think independently when released because they have spent so long in prison.

Labeling in this study refers to description of ex-offenders by the law-abiding section of the society using negative connotations that are likely to bring about negative behavior.

Livelihood Strategies in this study refers to the skillful means or mechanisms adopted by ex-prisoners to earn money in order to make a living.

Prison refers to an institution where people are kept as a punishment for crimes, they have committed.

Prisoner is person incarcerated in a prison after being convicted of a crime.

Post-Release in this study refers to the period a person released from prison is in the community.

Re-employment refers one getting back a job after losing it for some time.

Recidivism refers to the act of an ex-offender engaging in further criminal activities.

Rehabilitation as used this study refers to social intervention aimed at transforming offenders from a life of crime to law abiding members of society.

Reintegration as used in this study is the support and acceptance accorded to ex-prisoners as they re-enter the community from prison.

Social implications of correctional rehabilitation refer to the potential effects and consequences on the reintegration, social acceptance, and overall well-being of formerly incarcerated individuals within the local community.

Social relations refers to any interaction between two or more people.

Retribution refers punishment inflicted on someone as vengeance for a wrong or criminal act.

Wellbeing as used in this study refers to the general health; physically, spiritually, emotionally, social and intellectual comfort, safety and satisfactory way of life of a person.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature relating to the problem of imprisonment. This was done to provide an understanding of the issues involved in the study. The literature was sourced from books, research papers, publications, government documents, manuals, pamphlets and newspapers. Also presented in this chapter are the theories relevant to the research problem.

2.1 Types of Correctional Rehabilitation Services Utilized by Ex-Prisoners While in Prison

There are a variety of correctional rehabilitation services that ex-prisoners can utilize while in prison. These services can be divided into three main categories: training and employment programs, educational programs, counseling services, aftercare support recreational programs.

The Department of Corrections sponsors programs for restoring offenders to useful citizenship. These programs provide vocational and employment placement services stressing re-socialization and successful community living. They have also offers workforce training services for ex-offenders.

Correctional education programs have been shown to reduce post-release recidivism and improve post-release employment outcomes. Formal education programs in prison have also been found to have a positive impact on the self-sustainability of ex-convicts. Counseling services are provided to develop and enhance skills in relation to the social, educational, vocational, and recreational aspects of adult and youth ex-

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offenders. Aftercare support programs have been found to have a positive impact on the self-sustainability of ex-convicts. The City of Chicago's Reentry Support Centers offer dedicated staff who can help individuals obtain housing assistance, health services, food, and other resources. Recreational programs are also provided to develop and enhance skills in relation to the social, educational, vocational, and recreational aspects of adult and youth ex-offenders.

Attention was drawn to the complicated and dynamic moment of release in order to comprehend each person's journey of reintegration following release from jail (Lynch & Sabol, 2001; Solomon, Roman & Wail, 2001; Travis, Solomon, & Waul, 2001). The process of reestablishing their lives after prison is extremely complicated and may involve the following: locating housing; acquiring identification; mending relationships with family; staying away from or going back to high-risk locations and circumstances; and the daunting and often depressing task of locating employment, which is frequently made more difficult by a criminal record combined with an unsatisfactory work history. Few prison systems take any action to help inmates transfer from jail to the community. In Illinois, a bus ticket, clothing, and fifty dollars are given to freed inmates (Economist Magazine, 2002).

According to a third of state departments of prisons, they don't give money to prisoners when they are released (Solomon et al., 2001; Travis et al., 2001; Visher & Travis, 2003). In addition to the general worry that many inmates express before being released, many also report having high hopes about how their lives would be different "that a period of time (Uggen, 2003; Travis & Waul, 2003). It's unclear if a prisoner's outlook on their future or willingness to adapt may be used to predict their

results after being released. The long-term trajectory of a person's transfer from prison to the community may be explained by acknowledging the many obstacles encountered in the short post-release phase and comprehending how ex-offenders are successful or unsuccessful in addressing them (Ripley, 2002).

In the same vein, there is still a dearth of empirical data indicating the specific programme kinds and environmental factors that are most effective for formerly incarcerated individuals. Wilson et al. (2020) and Davis et al. (2019) both come to the same conclusion in their meta-analysis of adult offenders' correctional rehabilitation programmes: despite evidence suggesting that participation lowers recidivism and boosts employment, the research designs are judged too subpar to yield accurate estimates of their impact. The main limitation of most research is that selection into participation is not given enough thought. If (self-)selected participants diverge systematically from non-participants, selection problems could arise. The programmes' causal effects may be skewed by recognised and undiscovered variances among the two groups, which might account for some of the variations in post-release outcomes.

Recent studies have demonstrated the potential benefits of imprisonment in facilities that support rehabilitation. According to Landersø's (2019) analysis, a Danish reform that imposed longer penalties on violent criminals resulted in higher employment and incomes. Using a judge leniency design, Bhuller et al. (2020) show causal evidence that Norwegian prisoners serving lengthier sentences have lower recidivism rates. Offenders who have never held a job before are the ones driving this effect since they stand to benefit from job training programmes. Nonetheless, studies that use randomly

assigned judges and concentrate on the US show no correlation between incarceration and either recidivism or economic consequences (Kling, 2006; Green and Winik, 2018).

A parallel body of literature contrasts rehabilitation-focused prisons with those that administer harsh punishment. Lotti (2020) takes advantage of an important improvement in England as well as Whales that signalled a change from the rigorous warehousing of juvenile criminals to their rehabilitation. The change is shown to have significantly reduced recidivism. The effects of (severe) closed and (rehabilitation-focused) open jail regimes on recidivism are compared by Mastrobuoni and Terlizzese (2019). They discover that open prisons have lower recidivism rates when they use differences in the overcrowding of neighbouring prisons to account for the endogeneity of assignment. According to Tobón (2020), recidivism is significantly decreased when offenders are exogenously assigned from older, overcrowded Colombian jails to newer facilities that provide greater amenities, services, and rehabilitation programmes. Lastly, Hjalmarsson and Lindquist (2020) investigate the results of sentence-lengthening reforms in Sweden. They demonstrate how participation in various programmes and treatment while incarceration may help prisoners with mental health concerns maintain their mental health over time, which lowers their recidivism rate and has long-term health advantages. These studies offer circumstantial evidence that the apparent relationship between imprisonment and post-release results may be due to rehabilitation programmes.

Behavioural treatments have been shown to potentially lower recidivism rates in this cohort (Heller et al., 2017). They take use of three RCTs conducted in Chicago, where

programmes were implemented for at-risk kids and juvenile offenders, and they discover a notable decline in prosecutions and re-incarcerations. An RCT for a comparable programme is also studied by Seroczynski et al. (2016), who discover that it greatly reduces recidivism. However, Armstrong (2018) studies comparable treatments aimed at juvenile offenders using a randomised controlled trial (RCT) and discovers no effect of involvement.

There are two types of studies on programmes for adult offenders: those conducted within prisons and those conducted outside of them. Doleac et al. (2020) examine three external reentry programme randomised controlled trials and find, at most, conflicting data on their efficacy. According to Blattman et al. (2017), behavioural treatment has been shown to have a positive impact on reducing violent crimes. Numerous research have attempted to quantify the impact of programmes located in prisons; however, as was previously shown, selection problems present difficulties for this body of work. Recent research, however, has shown promising findings. By asking prisoners at random to consider their confinement, Balafoutas et al. (2020) demonstrated that this straightforward intervention improved the prisoners' social aptitudes. Kuziemko (2018) takes advantage of a 1998 legislative change that denied Georgian prisoners the right to parole. She provides research showing that prisoners' response to this is a decrease in their efforts towards rehabilitation, including a reduction in their involvement in programmes while jailed, which raises the risk of recidivism. Macdonald (2020) takes advantage of an Arizona law that removed judges' discretion in deciding whether to release prisoners early. He demonstrates how removing early release options lowers recidivism, most likely as a result of fewer

educational programmes' attempts at rehabilitation. Overall, there is some, if limited, compelling evidence that programmes may assist prisoners. Our study closes a gap in the research by demonstrating the influence that prison-based treatments may have on adult offenders' reintegration and by indicating that various programs—such as therapeutic, vocational, and educational—may be helpful if they are properly targeted.

Most jurisdictions currently employ assessment methods to predict recidivism: the results from the assessments are used to evaluate the risk level by probation officers (Kopf, 2014), parole board members (Berk, 2017), and judges who calculate bail and punishment (Stevenson and Doleac, 2019; Albright, 2019). Less is known, though, about the potential of risk assessments to deliver specialised rehabilitation treatments (Long et al., 2019). Targeting, according to Mastrobuoni and Terlizzese (2019), may be a significant factor since high-risk offenders do not, in comparison to their lower-risk counterparts, gain from being transferred from closed to open prisons.

Prison education, often known as correctional education or academic teaching, is a type of rehabilitation course offered to inmates. These educational initiatives can aid in the rehabilitation of convicts and help them get ready for life after release. institution education may be supplied by outside organisations, such as colleges, universities, or vocational schools, or it may be delivered inside the institution (Visher & Coggeshall, 2018). Research have demonstrated that the benefits of correctional education extend beyond the inmates and can enhance society at large. Region and facility-specific differences exist in the educational programmes provided by correctional facilities. Prison education programmes are quite well-liked. According to estimates, 50% of inmates in most prisons participate in educational programmes,

while the other 50% have enrolled in waiting lists in order to accomplish so (Ward, 2020).

Prison administrators have worked to create prison programmes that assist offenders in effectively reentering society following their release from jail, despite a lack of funds and frequent public opposition. According to Steurer and Smith (2018), these initiatives include adult basic education, secondary education, vocational training, life skills training including anger management, and drug misuse therapy. These initiatives assist society as a whole by lowering crime and bolstering communities by enhancing the emotional, physical, and social health of convicts and giving them job instruction and other skills (Visher et al., 2017).

The jail rule states that prisoners must be led or supervised in rehabilitation programmes, which include classes on prisoner education and treatment. Thus, the success of the inmates in life after incarceration would depend on the quality of supervision—that is, training and treatment—that they get both within and outside of prisons. The 1930s saw the widespread adoption of learning and instruction in prison courses; since then, its usage has changed in tandem with society's shifting focus on punishment and rehabilitation. Despite this lengthy past, thorough research on the results of these initiatives was only just beginning to appear (Linton and Wilks, 2019). However, since a move away from rehabilitation via education started in the 1970s, there have been a significant number of studies and indications of effectiveness. The subsequent summary and conclusion were reached by Linton, Martinson, and Wilks in their influential and well-known 1975 review of attempts at rehabilitation through instruction and training (Linton et al., 2018).

Rehabilitation programmes have been tested in Kenyan jails more recently than they were in the early years, that is, before and just after independence. Organisations like Resources Oriented Development Initiatives (RODI) Kenya assist in the administration of these restoration programmes (Kayeke, 2011: 28). Established in 1989 as a Community Based Organisation (CBO), this Kenyan development organisation aims to bring alternative agricultural practises within the grasp of low-income farmers. The Organic Farming Outreach Programme (OFOP) was its original name. RODI is registered as a charity in the UK and as an NGO with the NGO Coordination Bureau in Kenya.

The goal of RODI is to decrease poverty, crime, and reoffending by providing education to schoolchildren and inmates on organic farming, agroprocessing, value-adding, natural resource management, HIV/AIDS prevention, and drug and substance misuse awareness. Two key initiatives are used to carry out this work: the Schools Organic Agriculture Programme (SOAP), in which students collaborate to support organic farming and prevent the spread of drug and alcohol addiction, HIV/AIDS, and other diseases. Due to the high rate of drug usage and HIV/AIDS in the nation of Kenya, children have been targeted for drug use and trafficking, as well as for intercourse with the false notion of believing they are not contaminated. Targeting students is strategically important since they are still developing as individuals and have not yet reached puberty. Additionally, students excel in educating their peers and disseminating knowledge to guardians and the larger community.

By providing inmates with the knowledge and tools they need to become independent and earn a living after they are released from jail, the programme increases their

ability. Following their release from jail, we have an ex-prisoner's follow-up component where we keep an eye on their performance and development, provide them with further training, evaluate the impact of the initiative, and assist them in reintegrating into society. In order to promote their acceptability and combat poverty on a local level, ex-offenders are urged to establish Community Livelihood Improvement Groups (CLIGs) and teach the community members the skills they learned while incarcerated. Furthermore, ex-offenders receive assistance in starting businesses that generate revenue (Kayeke, 2019).

A well-defined training curriculum for inmates, guards, and community members serves as a solid foundation for the programme. The curriculum is distributed to the intended recipients in order to maximize the effectiveness of the training's execution. Following graduation, both inmates and prison guards are expected to use the knowledge and skills they have gained in their own prisons and communities, allowing RODI to expand the programme significantly. In addition to raising community awareness to improve prisoner re-integration as well as poverty reduction, RODI works with the jails department to promote effective prisoner rehabilitation (Onunga, 2019).

RODI conducts farmer-to-farmer training in Kenyan jails and at the community level. Based on appropriate protocols, the organisation hopes to expand the experience to prisons in the Eastern Africa Region. Appropriate action plans are created and carried out by community organisations and prisons. To exchange best practises, prisons and community organisations put up exhibition farms and plan exchange trips. The extension programme benefits from the proper documenting of best practises through

farmer-led documentation. In order to provide additional beneficiaries with training, the programme establishes model display farms in jails and the community, serving as farmer field schools. Community members and formerly incarcerated individuals possess competencies in group mobilisation and dynamics, enabling them to establish several groups and expedite the process of reintegration. In order to help them establish revenue-generating ventures, RODI encourages former inmates and community people to apply for the government's current funding (Kayeke, 2019).

In most cases, basic education programming is provided by state jails and juvenile institutions, enabling offenders to pursue an academic equivalency certificate or a high school diploma. Certain community universities and colleges may provide free educational programmes for prisoners as a public service. By improving prisoners' work opportunities, these initiatives lower the risk of recidivism. It's possible for prisoners to acquire important employability skills that will help them find jobs once they're released. It has been demonstrated that increasing positive prisoner programming reduces institutional violence because it reduces idleness. Prisoners engage in meaningful activities that help them feel like members of the community (Nyauchi, 2019). These kinds of programmes have the ability to successfully reintegrate incarcerated individuals into the workforce. It could be necessary to alter the way that prison culture is permitted to dominate interactions at all levels of institutional life in order to support the success of prisoners. As the punitive strategy has proven ineffective, many jails are shifting towards a therapeutic paradigm (Oundo, 2018).

The primary goals of setting up prison farms were to teach inmates in field crop cultivation, horticulture, and animal management in order to aid in their rehabilitation. In addition to helping the inmates get back on their feet, it was anticipated that landowners would increase Treasury's funding for the department's training expenses by selling agricultural products. Ecological factors and potential market share have a major role in determining the kind of businesses that operate on each prison farm (CIS, 2019). The horticulture industry is diverse and includes the following industries: floral production, fruit and vegetable production, silk production, pomology, and the production of spices and herbs. Cattle, goats, pigs, poultry, rabbits, apiculture, fisheries, and sericulture are all considered livestock operations. Additionally, produced are field crops such finger millet, sorghum, beans and maize. The Western, Nyanza, and Rift Valley provinces are home to the principal agricultural production centers for these crops (CIS, 2020). A Community Engagement Order is a court order that mandates the offender to carry out unpaid community service for a predetermined amount of time. Those who have been found guilty of a crime are subject to Community Service Orders under Section 3(a) of the Community Service Orders Act No. of 1998. Penalties include imprisonment for a maximum of three years, with or without the opportunity to pay a fine, as well as additional offences that carry a three-year jail term but in which a court of law would have given a punishment of no more than three years in custody (Flanagan, 2018).

Therefore, community service is intended for criminals who have committed less serious offences. The goal of Kenya's Community Service Orders Programme is to reduce the number of inmates in the country's already overcrowded prisons,

rehabilitate the offender to help him become a better member of society, and allow offenders to make up for their wrongs by performing unpaid community service. Additionally, it lowers crime rates, separates less severe offenders from more serious ones who would otherwise teach them how to commit even more crimes, and allows offenders to keep their family relationships intact. In addition, this programme gives counselling to individuals who need to find themselves in order to give up aberrant behaviour, as well as support for the offenders' families while the sentence is being served. The judiciary, probation, police, prisons, NGOs, civil society, and community-representing religious leaders are among the stakeholders in this programme. There are seventeen members in all. A smaller group called the Executive Committee is established from the members of the National Committee and consists of the Chairman, Vice Chairman, National Coordinator, and three more members. This committee oversees the secretariat's operations and submits suggestions for consideration by the national committee during its monthly meetings (CIS, 2018).

The entire spectrum of services that may be offered to help men, women, and young offenders transition back into society after being released from different types of prisons is known as aftercare (Onunga, 2019). The reduction of recidivism—the act of reoffending—is the ultimate goal of aftercare programmes. Therefore, a decrease in criminal behaviour by released criminals should be a sign that the supervision recovery and reintegration efforts of the service providers were successful. Therefore, the primary goal of aftercare should be to raise the standard of living for criminals who have been released from prison and their families. This might be by assisting

them in locating housing, jobs, education, training, and the development of social skills that are acceptable. Released offenders are a varied collection of people from a range of socioeconomic, cultural, and economic backgrounds, comprising an array of sectors of the population (Onunga, 2019).

Mack (2020) argues that rehabilitation itself ought to be the main objective. Since finding work is essential to success after release, the majority of jails offer programmes that concentrate on job outcomes. According to a research conducted in Australia, 13 correctional programmes priorities vocational education and training as a means of rehabilitation as many ex-offenders depend on these services for a successful reintegration into society (Mack, 2020). Similarly, Cunnington (2020) suggests that effective financial and social flexibility may be attained through employment and education initiatives. According to the author, education and vocational training lower recidivism rates by equipping offenders with the necessary skill sets for a smooth transition back into society (Cunnington, 2020). Because of this, the ability to support oneself financially helps offenders become more motivated to reform. Moreover, not all prisoners can benefit from the therapeutic programmes offered by correctional facilities, which makes it challenging to ensure that all criminals undergo rehabilitation after completing their time and prior to reintegrating into society. In order to guarantee that prisoners receive assistance based on emotional, cognitive, and physical issues, the legal system must be continuous in the conviction process in order to address the issue of an increasing recidivism rate. Rehabilitation and restorative initiatives should guarantee that rehabilitated individuals have the skills and knowledge needed to reintegrate into society following

their release. Since various rehabilitation programmes have demonstrated to reduce the rising rate of recidivism, a variety of elements should be taken into account while tackling the issue of recurrence (Yukhnenko et al., 2019). As a result, in order to comprehend and reduce recidivism and improve society, attention must be paid to each of the criminological and penological perspectives.

Concerns over the efficacy of remedial measures are frequently voiced. State and federal resources for housing and feeding the jailed are under pressure due to rising recidivism rates (Cunnington, 2020). Individuals who reenter the criminal justice system are less likely to receive the support they need to address the underlying problems that led to their criminal behaviour, and their conditions may worsen while they are incarcerated. For example, the likelihood of criminals becoming criminalised in jail increases with lengthier terms and inadequate therapy or programming (Cunnington, 2020). An individual's ability to get and retain work is also hampered by prior incarceration, which is essential for a smooth transition back into society. Furthermore, anti-social behaviour and hostility towards society are increased when someone is imprisoned, completely cut off from family, has little opportunity for socialisation, and interacts primarily with specific social groupings (Hodgkinson et al., 2020). It is also important to educate the public about the potential effects of severe penalties in general and long prison sentences, especially with regard to the risk of recidivism.

Numerous jails supported initiatives aimed at rehabilitating inmates, which in turn reduced crime and, consequently, the number of inmates in need of accommodation in correctional facilities. Prison initiatives aimed at reducing recidivism rates in the

United States and enhancing inmate welfare can be roughly classified as (a) vocational training, (b) education, or (c) rehabilitation (Dick, 2018). Recidivism has been demonstrated to drop in response to effective jail programmes, which has lowered prison expenses (Dick, 2018). However, there was little information available about the efficacy of recidivism reduction initiatives in the United States, especially when it came to programmes targeted at particular prison populations (such as women, those serving time for particular crimes, or those struggling with substance abuse) (Dick, 2018). Furthermore, the number of inmates imprisoned at a correctional facility determined its revenues, therefore certain private jails and correctional facilities had a financial incentive to prevent rehabilitation programmes from being extremely effective (Green & Jackson, 2017).

2.2 Social Support Services for Rehabilitation of Offenders in Prison

Many factors, including incarceration, can influence an inmate's criminal behaviour. If prison fosters the growth of criminal networks or expertise, or if social stigma or a decline in human capital hinders an inmate's ability to reintegrate into society, prison may prove to be criminogenic. Notwithstanding, there is mounting evidence to imply that rehabilitation-focused prisons can lower recidivism rates (Landersø, 2015; Mastrobuoni and Terlizzese, 2019; Bhuller et al., 2020; Lotti, 2020; Hjalmarsson and Lindquist, 2020). Although there is compelling evidence in this emerging body of research suggesting that a positive prison environment may lower recurrence it is still uncertain whether particular elements are actually helpful. Rehabilitation initiatives emphasising education, improving vocational skills, or offering specialised psychological support are frequently put out as possible explanations for these results.

Such initiatives could be advantageous from a private standpoint as well as economically advantageous from the standpoint of society if they lessen the need for social assistance programmes and expensive incarcerations in the future.

Hart, (1995) defined social support as "interpersonal ties that are rewarding and protective of an individual". However, (Abagail et al., 2006) refer to social support as the "existence or availability of people on whom we can rely, people who let us know that they care about, value and love us." Imprisonment indicates a significant break in the individual's contact with the outside world. Even though social bonds can be maintained to some extent with visits and telephone access, imprisonment might significantly alter an individual's perception of important relationships and the capacity of those relationships to give and receive support. Maintaining these relationships is also shaped by the prison environment. Separation from family, friends and relatives is considered one of the hardest factors to endure in prison (Adams, 1992). Carlson and Cervera (1991) suggested that maintaining contact with spouses, children, friends and extended family can help the prisoner to adjust to prison. Family solidarity and Supportive Relationships which bring feelings of closeness may be maintained during imprisonment by the prisoner having frequent contact with family and friends on the outside. Telephone contact is one of the social supports where the prisoner communicates directly with others.

Correctional staff have the right to provide social welfare services to convicts in Kenya. They have the right to counselling, medical care, leisure activities, and religion. "Social engineering" is seen to be one of the most effective methods for reforming prisoners. The tool uses the group counselling approach, which entails

using non-medical workers to facilitate discussion groups with convicts within predetermined boundaries. With this method, a jail staff member serves as a counsellor, and inmates are urged to confront their personal issues via group interaction and self-criticism. According to Hall-Williams (2018), the most important aspect in rehabilitation is the duration of time and care given to listening to each prisoner individually and resolving his or her issues. The dearth of licenced social workers, criminologists, sociologists, and social psychologists in Kenya makes this compassionate approach ineffective. According to MOHA (1998), as of June 1998, the number of degree-holding civilian welfare specialists and counsellors at the headquarters was limited to five. After serving their time, inmates often struggle with social maladjustment.

Extended detentions are seen to be necessary for effective security protocols. However, contemporary scholars and decision-makers take into account a number of hazards that were previously unknown. When someone is imprisoned, they are placed in a certain atmosphere that may exacerbate their trauma (Hodgkinson et al., 2020). The world beyond the prison gates differs from that of the outside community. Moreover, this is the setting in which the recently imprisoned individual learns how to survive. They acquire the skills necessary to live among criminals and strictly adhere to the rules set out by the jail. It becomes apparent that they are incapable of adjusting to life outside of jail.

According to Hodgkinson et al. (2020), individual therapies with a psychological focus have been found to be reasonably successful in decreasing recidivism. As a result, psychological adjustments brought about by intervention guarantee better

emotional identification, more coherence, less defiance, and more hopeful decision-making. Recidivism rates therefore decline as a result of this. However, Mack (2020) shown that while jail is successful in discouraging criminal activity, recidivism cannot be decreased by it. Programmes for prerelease and reentry are essential to ensuring that criminals are successfully reintegrated into society. The programmes assist people in leaving prison and becoming a contributing member of society. As a result, both studies show how important rehabilitation programmes are to lowering recidivism. According to Gisler et al. (2018), punishment is a workable kind of rehabilitation to lower recidivism, and community agencies are crucial to the reintegration efforts and rehabilitation programmes inside the prison environments. The authors' findings also showed that cognitive behavioural therapy and some types of prison-based vocational education programmes are useful in reducing the likelihood of recidivism in the United States. The programmes give the offenders essential skills for the job market. Furthermore, according to Hodgkinson et al. (2020), boosting psychological resources enhanced coping and good affect while lowering aggressiveness and negative effects, which reduced reoffending. Rehabilitation programmes are therefore essential in lowering recidivism rates.

Just with Kenya, not much evidence is availed of the effect of Vocational Education and Training (VET) education on re-offending in most countries of the world like Australia for example. Giles and Wade (2016) found that 'the more classes that were successfully completed or involved up-skilling, the shorter time the ex-prisoners spent on welfare in the immediate post-release period' (p.xiii). Research from the US indicates that initiatives for education and job assistance have a greater effect on

recidivism among incarcerated individuals who are older. According to an Australian research, the chance that an offender would not be back in jail after two years increased by 5% for every year of age (Cale et al., 2018, p.7). Participants who successfully completed a Vocational Education and Training (VET) course were "2.12 times more probable to remain detention free at a period of five years post-release" (p.7), meaning that 78.23% of inmates who finished the VET study were still out of jail. When age-appropriate behavioural interventions were added to schooling, the probability that female inmates would remain out of detention increased, and it declined with increasing risk (Cale et al., 2018: 7).

A 2017 meta-analysis found 'five employment studies identified that education in prison settings has a positive impact on employment. Overall, odds ratios indicated a 24 per cent increase in likelihood of gaining employment if the prisoner engages in prison education' (Ellison et al. 2017: 108). Nevertheless, neither the best practises for schooling in prison environments nor the characteristics that contribute to effective job outcomes are examined in the meta-study. According to Ellison et al. (2017), it is impossible to determine if education promotes or facilitates transformation. Regarding employment, it is unclear which factors—skills, credentials, or intangible educational benefits—have the most impact (e.g., increased confidence and articulacy via schooling that obtained job) (2017: 124). A qualitative study in Spain argued that digital literacy education in particular is a 'powerful tool for social-educative integration and personal transformation' but that they were uncomfortable generalizing this to the entire prison population (Paloma and Ignacio, 2019: 105).

2.2.1 Recreational and Social Welfare Programmes

They keep prisoners occupied who have a wide range of interests. Given the length of time the prisoners have, they keep them occupied. They maintain the smooth and productive operation of institutions. However, other institutions contend that because leisure gives prisoners the chance to socialise and pick up criminal attitudes from one another, it fosters insecurity within the institutional order. These assertions use differential association learning (Sutherland, 1970). Sports tournaments, games of cards, board games and films are among the often scheduled activities found in American prisons (Bohm, 1999). Since 2003, one of the sectors in Kenya that has greatly profited from the country's open door policy is recreation. The public sector has contributed radios, televisions, and sporting goods.

Certain institutions, such as Naivasha and Langata, have organised athletic and cultural events. Langata is a leader in beauty pageants, while Naivasha organises interstation ball competitions. The government provides very little financing, and officers' complaints that donors prefer to support prisoners alone cause recreation to compete with security duties for staff time (KNHCR, 2005). Many prisoners find purpose and clarity during their sentences when they are in good physical and mental health. An inmate may be able to take part in courses like yoga or meditation, depending on what is offered at that particular institution. These kind of physical and mental activities have been shown to have long-term advantages, including the management of stress and anger. Maintaining positivity while serving a jail term can be challenging, but some prisons provide programmes to assist inmates in finding the good things in life. Programmes that teach convicts useful skills that have a

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demonstrable impact include dog training, cooking workshops, gardening, and more. While choosing a nutritious food while incarcerated might be challenging, it is possible to maintain a healthy diet with effort.

2.2.2 Counseling and Therapy Programmes

Bohm (1999) states that social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, caseworkers, and religious counsellors provide counselling and therapy services. Typically, the team offers individual or group counselling. Group counselling is common in prison environments since it is less expensive and there are many prisoners with comparable experiences and issues. This is especially true for cases involving prisoners who are evasive, manipulative, or inclined to downplay their issues. A prisoner and a counsellor converse one-on-one during individual counselling. This is suitable for prisoners who have chronic issues and will need ongoing assistance. Crisis intervention and milieu therapy are further methods.

A type of group therapy called milieu therapy takes into account the entirety of the living space in order to continuously promote good behavioural change. A counselor's attempt to handle a crisis in an inmate's life and soothe them is known as crisis intervention (Robert et al., 2017). For a very long time, churchgoers in the United States and England believed it was their duty to visit prisoners and provide social treatment and counselling, as well as comfort those who were given death sentences—a practise that is still in place today. The initial prison chaplains faced difficult working conditions and frequent obstructions from jail officials who saw

them as an impediment to prison operations. Accordingly, early jails typically did not draw in chaplains of the highest calibre (KPSP, 2005-2009). The availability of counselling services to the general population and non-governmental organisations in Zimbabwe has helped to lower the country's recidivism and jail overcrowding rates (Ira & Manuel, 1996).

Due to a lack of finance, Kenya does not offer structured counselling sessions for the jail system. While social services and prison chaplaincy are meant to fulfil this function, a lack of staff has restricted the ability to provide counselling services (Kenya National Commission of Human Rights- KNCHR, 2005; KPSP 2005-2009). Prison counsellors are crucial to an inmate's rehabilitation. Throughout their sentences, these criminal justice and mental health specialists offer counsel to prisoners. Each prisoner will receive help from a counsellor in a different way.Most counselors can offer hands on counseling cover personal, social, academic and vocational issues. The goal is to provide rehabilitation for inmates that will help them consider new skills and new insight into their goals and motivations.

Inmates can also get counselling for problems including substance misuse, depression, and stress. This can sometimes be given one-on-one or in a group setting. Many non-profit organisations offer counselling to prisoners in addition to the care offered by the personnel. For example, The Lion heart Foundation programme offers prison inmates "encouragement and the necessary support to take stock of the life experiences that have propelled them into criminal activity, take responsibility for their criminal behavior, change lifelong patterns of violence and addiction, and build productive lives." This group offers counselling services to inmates by training

volunteers, chaplains, counsellors, and other staff members. Their mission also include the community and juvenile detention facilities. Utilising the counselling services provided while incarcerated is a step in the right direction towards recovery.

Over the last few decades, a substantial body of research has emerged demonstrating the beneficial and causal relationships between social support and connections and enhanced mental and physical health as well as longer life (Thoits, 1995; Uchino, 2004). Reentry into society following incarceration is one stressor that may be mitigated by social support, as shown by the positive effects it has on both mental and physical health (Thoits, 1995; Uchino, 2004; Cohen et al., 2000). (Western et al., 2015). The real or perceived provision of emotional, practical, or informational support by close companions and significant others is known as social support (Cohen, 2014; Thoits, 2015). It is a powerful and affordable tool that can help people cope with the challenges of reintegration (Berg & Huebner, 2018), and research suggests that it has a negative correlation with substance abuse, criminal risk, and risky sexual behaviour (Spohr et al., 2016). Social support can take many different forms. Some examples are offering counsel or expressing affection and encouragement. While instrumental support is seen to be more concrete and includes things like giving monetary assistance or direct help with practical challenges, emotional support may be thought of as empathetic communication, sharing of joys and sorrows, and problem-solving (Thoits, 2011). Though separating the categories allows for a greater comprehension of the relative benefits of each form of assistance, both types of support work together to explain favourable mental and physical health results (Thoits, 2015). (Pettus-Davis et al., 2017).

Social cohesiveness, as well as the number and quality of interactions with others, have an impact on mortality risk, health behaviour, mental and physical well-being, and self-rated health (Cohen, 1988; Umberson & Montez, 2010). (Rodgers et al., 2019). A person's health and well-being are significantly impacted by a social identity that is characterised by positive interactions and group participation (Jetten et al., 2019, 2017). In particular, belonging to a group may be fulfilling in that it gives the individual a feeling of purpose, self-worth, and belonging, all of which have positive effects on their health (Jetten et al., 2019). A sense of belonging within both old and new groups is particularly important for coping with the challenges ahead, especially during stressful times like reentering society after a lengthy prison sentence. It also improves the ways in which assistance from others is perceived (Best et al., 2014; Jetten et al., 2019). According to Jetten et al. (2018), belonging to a group enhances an individual's social capital and serves as a "social remedy" for addressing the difficulties caused by stressful circumstances. It is crucial to understand that not all individuals who are released have access to supporting networks, which is in keeping with the most current definition of homelessness, which is, "somewhere to participate in social relations" (Johnstone et al., 2016). Stated differently, an individual's social connections and relationships are a direct result of their status in society, with marginalised groups receiving less supports and benefits in terms of health and wellbeing (Jetten et al., 2018; Johnstone et al., 2016). In fact, social connections, particularly those that provide social support, have an impact on health in the short and long terms. These impacts can start in childhood and build throughout life to provide a cumulative benefit or disadvantage in terms of wellness results (Umberson & Montez, 2020). Cumulative health-related disadvantage is exacerbated throughout

the course of a person's life, leading to more detrimental health impacts. This is especially the case for those who have been incarcerated, who are already regarded as a health-risky group.

Due to decades of widespread imprisonment, America is presently experiencing a "mass reentry" period, with some 610,000 individuals getting out from federal and state prisons each year (Carson, 2020). The percentage of those released from prison is declining, but most of them—79%—will be back behind bars in a few years (Alper et al., 2018). Reintegration is seen to be a critical transitional phase during which the newly released's health has a significant influence; ill health makes reentry more difficult (Semenza & Link, 2019; Wallace & Wang, 2020). It is crucial to address the health of those who have recently been released, as many returning individuals attribute their failure in the community and subsequent re-incarceration to health-related issues (with a few notable exceptions; refer to Link et al., 2019; Semenza & Link, 2019; Wallace & Wang, 2020).

Folk et al. (2016) discovered evidence of a connection between mental health and criminal thinking. More precisely, the researchers evaluated the efficacy of a cognitive-behavioral criminal thought intervention designed for prisoners residing in segregated housing to self-administer. Participating alongside the Taking a Chance on Change (TCC) initiative were 273 prisoners in total. The majority of participants had much less criminal thought, according to an analysis of the intervention data; also, 48 individuals had significantly less disciplinary violations after finishing the TCC programme. This result was in line with another discovery, which showed that fewer disciplinary offences were predicted by less reactive criminal thinking. The results of

Folk et al.'s (2016) study demonstrated how criminal thinking-focused treatments and programmes might also successfully lower violent outbursts, criminal behaviour, and other undesirable conduct among both current and past convicts.

Link and Oser (2017) conducted a follow-up research to examine the impact of life stresses and cultural norms on criminal thoughts across 418 African American women who were included in the B-WISE project. Based on specific situations and groups, the results suggested that criminal thinking could be a maladaptive coping mechanism for stress. Specifically, African American women may develop criminal thinking just like a coping mechanism for dealing with gendered racism, social network loss, financial hardships, and other stressors brought on by incarceration or probation (Link & Oser, 2017). This could ultimately result in recidivism.

According to Wallace and Wang (2020), people who are reentering society frequently leave jail with their health issues unaffected or, more likely, worsened. jail is seen as a "catalyst for deteriorating wellness" (Brinkley-Rubinstein, 2013: 3). It is possible to lessen the severity of the stress reaction and promote long-term coping by surrounding the reintroducing person with others who can offer them support (Uchino, 2004). Similar to reentry, social contact provides all forms of social support (instrumental, informational, and emotional) that mitigate the influence of stressful life experiences along the link among traumatic events and health consequences (Brown & Gary, 1987). Family members are really crucial throughout the reintegration process (Fahmy & Wallace, 2019; Mowen et al., 2019; Naser & La Vigne, 2006; Western et al., 2015). In fact, up to 92% of people who have served time in prison or prison depend on their family for both practical and emotional assistance, including

accommodation (Nelson et al., 1999; Pettus-Davis et al., 2017). According to studies comparing the impact of social support from family members to that of other people, family plays the biggest role in reintegration (Martinez & Christian, 2009; Pettus-Davis et al., 2017).

Numerous studies show that those who stay in touch with family members while incarcerated and are coming out of jail have a higher chance of succeeding upon their release (Berg & Huebner, 2017; Hairston, 2018; Naser & La Vigne, 2016). In general, family contact (phone calls, letters, etc.) provides social support to inmates, but in-person visits are especially beneficial (Folk et al., 2019). According to Meyers et al. (2017), visitation is the sole in-person interaction that family members have with their imprisoned loved ones until they are released from jail and a source of social support from "outside the walls." Positive effects from social support, however, are lessened if there is stress or little opportunity to spend time with loved ones (Meyers et al., 2017; Western et al., 2015). A prisoner's capacity to rely on their social network upon release is severely hampered by weakening ties with family members brought on by non-contact (Fahmy et al., 2021), which lowers hopes for a smooth reintegration. Regardless of whether social assistance is actually available, the mere idea of receiving it has significant ramifications for those who are reentering society (Listwan et al., 2018).

Numerous variables were either directly related to recidivism or have been investigated in order to ascertain their relationship (Agan & Makowsky, 2018; Reagan, 2017; Zgoba & Salemo, 2017). Recidivism has been directly associated with a number of mental health issues, including drug misuse and antisocial personality

disorder (Gemeda, 2017; Westerberg et al., 2016). Financial or emotional hardship may have contributed to desperation and further criminal activity after release from jail. Recidivism may also result from not having access to services or employment prospects due to one's criminal history. Recidivism experiences were intricate, multifaceted, and, despite a substantial amount of study on the topic, remained poorly understood.

Existing research on the prison system in the United States has frequently addressed the psychological health and well-being of inmates (Bar-on, 1988; Franke et al., 2019; Keogh et al., 2017). For years, there have been serious concerns expressed about the high rate of mental health illnesses among prisoners and the dearth of resources and assistance available for psychological counselling within prisons. Within prison populations, some cognitive and mental health issues were more prevalent than others. These diseases included learning difficulties, antisocial personality disorder, attention deficit disorder with hyperactivity, and posttraumatic stress disorder (Stanford & Muhammad, 2017). among addition to particular ailments, drug abuse problems and episodes, self-harming behaviours and suicide were additionally more common among those in prison than in the general public (Franke et al., 2019).

Shortly after release, some of the most severe detrimental impacts of imprisonment on health become apparent (Link et al., 2019; Schnittker et al., 2018). When it comes to reintegration planning and becoming ready for community health care arrangements, the period of time between the weeks prior to and following release is crucial. People go through a difficult adjustment when being released from jail, swiftly transitioning from incarceration to freedom. Many people currently face discrimination in the job

market due to their criminal record, as well as a lack of housing and employment opportunities (Pager et al., 2019). Furthermore, stigmatising actions by medical professionals, such as critical views or a cursory examination of the intricate medical and social issues reentering individuals present, worsen their obstacles to wellbeing (Vail et al., 2017). After discharge, more pressing issues that require immediate attention, such repairing damaged relationships, become more important (Binswanger et al., 2018; Vail et al., 2017). When you combine this with the need to manage their health conditions, it is almost a given that many of them will fail shortly after being released from treatment (Link et al., 2019; Wakefield & Uggen, 2019; Wildeman & Wang, 2017). According to Massoglia and Schnittker (2019), "reintegration retains the [emphasis added] crucial to recognising the incarceration-health link." This is not surprising.

Both male and female prisoners are more prone to have several incarcerations due to certain mental health problems and disorders (Gemeda, 2017). Gemeda (2017) investigated the possibility that recidivism among ex-offenders was mediated by psychopathic personality disorder, an illness marked by aggressive and/or antisocial behaviour. A collection of 196 adult offenders who had been found guilty of many offences and imprisoned was used by the researcher. The data collection methods employed were semi-structured interviews. Using structural equation modelling, the author also took into account the effects of drug misuse, peer pressure, and social marginalisation. Data analysis showed that drug misuse, friends' influence, and social marginalisation due to psychopathic personality disorder all had an indirect impact on recidivism (Gemeda, 2017). Consequently, drug misuse, peer pressure, and social

isolation were not shown to have a direct impact on recidivism in this particular setting; nevertheless, an evaluation of psychopathic personality disorders and one or more of these problems were strongly associated with recidivism. Gemeda's (2017) study's conclusions emphasised the intricate interactions between several variables that may lead to recidivism.

Regrettably, research on the relationship among social support, mental health, and reintegration stresses is still lacking since reentering citizens are rarely the focus of studies concerning social support and health (with some notable exceptions noted in Fahmy & Wallace, 2019; Valera & Boyas, 2019). Furthermore, evidence indicates that instability and a sudden shift in support may have a greater impact on wellness in the weeks after release. Research has undervalued the influence of social support on successful and long-lasting reintegration as an outcome of this information gap. Three areas exist in the present knowledge base: The potential for a more nuanced understanding of the type of support (i.e., instrumental or emotional) and the support contributor(s) (i.e., family or friends) on physical and mental health is (1) usually overlooked in research on the promising value of social support as a stable resource during the first weeks out; (2) and (3) the development of a line of research specifically looking at the health of reentering persons as a dependent variable in criminal justice literature is frequently disregarded

Interpersonal relationships and social support have an impact on well-being and health (Thoits, 2011). However, in light of the unstable conditions associated with reentry and the first few weeks after release from prison, the impact of social support stability on health may be greater than the impact of social support alone at the same

time (Mowen & Visher, 2015). The degree to which social assistance obtained while incarcerated endures steady and maintains continuity at a comparable level of assistance without any sudden shifts is referred to in this context as social support stability. Therefore, the following research questions are addressed: (1) Does stability in relationships after release affect the physical and mental health of formerly imprisoned individuals?; (2) Does this impact vary depending on the kind of social support (i.e., instrumental or emotional); and (3) Does this effect vary depending on the source of social assistance (i.e., family or friends)? The current study examines how social support consistency between jail and weeks following release is potentially more significant for reentry outcomes, such health, than social support evaluated at a single time point. The study includes a sample of males who have been released from prison.

It is important to take into account the returning prisoner's family background while examining the connection between social support, health, and returning convicts. Strong family support increased the likelihood of successful reintegration (i.e., not recidivating) compared to weak or fragmented support from family members (Graffam et al., 2017; Martinez & Christian, 2019; Nelson et al., 2019; Western et al., 2016). Furthermore, the possibility of recidivism is decreased for inmates who get family assistance throughout their incarceration (Hairston, 2018; Martinez & Christian, 2019). During imprisonment, this support may manifest as visits (Meyers et al., 2017). Regretfully, people in their own circles have probably been irritated by returning inmates in a number of methods (Clear et al., 2017). The expense of having a loved one in prison is high for families, and wives of inmates are frequently

burdened by their partner's credit issues and legal bills (Wildeman, 2018). In addition, families that have loved ones in prison frequently stop participating in community activities and life, such going to church or other social gatherings in the neighbourhood (Clear et al., 2021). Therefore, the presence of an imprisoned relative or close friend affects an individual's capacity to obtain financial and social assistance. Because of this, families are frequently less able to offer different kinds of social assistance, such as instrumental social assistance, particularly after they have been accustomed to living without the ex-prisoner for a while (Martinez & Christian, 2019).

Friends and family play a crucial role in the reintegration process (Naser & La Vigne, 2006; Western et al., 2018). They can be an essential source of financial assistance, as well as practical (such housing) and psychological assistance (Mallik-Kane & Visher, 2018; Nelson et al., 2019). Family has the most significant impact on health behaviours, according to research comparing the relative effects of familial social support with other forms of social support (Franks et al., 2017; Martinez & Christian, 2019). According to Western et al. (2018), ex-offenders who lack close companions and relatives, have a past of addiction, and find it extremely difficult to reintegrate into their former communities without a strong support system.

Individuals, especially ex-offenders, perform optimally in a supportive setting (Hale et al., 2017; Heller & Rook, 2018). In order to lessen the severity of the stress reaction and promote long-term coping, it is beneficial to have people who can offer the reintroducing ex-prisoner with assistance after their release (Uchino, 2018). This should help to lower the rate of recidivism for each individual. "The essential,

informative, and social emotional assistance provided through social interaction assists to mediate the effect of stressful life events," such as reentry, along the pathway between difficult life conditions and health consequences. Unfortunately, returning prisoners are often not the subject in studies about social support (for exceptions, see Berg and Huebner 2019; Duwe and Clark 2018; Listwan et al. 2018; Spohr et al. 2016) or health, leaving much information and research about the link between social support and health for prisoners underdeveloped.

Social support has an impact on a number of outcomes related to prisoner reentry, including the capacity to mitigate and mediate other criminological risk variables (Hochstetler et al., 20018; Spohr et al., 2016). Crucially, pro-social coping with the enormous and demanding hurdles of reintegration is essential for achievement (Berg & Huebner, 2019). However, the majority of this field's research ignores the connections that exist between reentry stress, health, and social support (Wallace et al., 2016 is an exception).

In addition to the fact that incarceration has a significant, long-lasting impact on a person's social support networks, physical and mental health, and overall well-being (Brinkley-Rubinstein, 2019), research also shows that some of the worst consequences of incarceration manifest themselves after discharge (Schnittker et al., 2018, 2017; Western et al., 2019). Both the time spent behind bars and the time spent outside must be taken into account in order to determine the overall impact of incarceration on health. Since most prisoners are incarcerated for the first time before they are thirty-nine, the majority of them spend longer time in the outside world following their release from prison (Wildeman & Wang, 2017). Stated differently, the

period after imprisonment plays a critical role in determining an individual's future prospects with respect to readmission and health results (Western et al., 2018).

Inmates have a difficult adjustment upon release from jail, swiftly transitioning from incarceration to freedom (Hawken & Kleiman, 2016). Many people now struggle to find work, housing, family assistance, and legal representation due to discrimination against their felon record (Pager, Western, & Bonikowski, 2019; Western, 2016). Failure is guaranteed by their significantly higher rate of disease and illness, poorer socioeconomic standing, and lower educational attainment—all of which are "overlapping and mutually strengthening features [that] are each stigmatising conditions irrespective of criminal justice involvement" (Tyler & Brockmann, 2017). The social components of population well-being and personal successful reintegration are significantly impacted by stigma, in addition to all the other person- and structural-level obstacles (Hatzenbuehler et al., 2018).

Visher & Mallik-Kane (2017), Vail et al. (2017), Marlow, White, & Chesla (2018), and other stigmatising behaviours from health care providers—such as a lack of empathy, judging attitudes, or superficial tackles to the complex medical and social issues displayed by reentering people—further exacerbate the barriers to health felt by this population with regard to health and health care specifically. After serving years in jail, repairing broken relationships and overcoming the difficulty in acquiring new technologies become the main concerns for ex-prisoners upon release. For ex-prisoners, these problems are particularly upsetting and time-sensitive, and they provide yet another barrier to bettering their own health because so many other difficulties take priority (Binswanger et al., 2018; Vail et al., 2017). It is almost

predicted that many of them will "fail" shortly after being released from the hospital when you consider the additional burden of managing their health conditions (Wakefield & Uggen, 2018; Wildeman & Wang, 2017). That "reintegration retains the key to comprehending the incarceration-health link" (Massoglia & Schnittker, 2019) is therefore not unexpected.

The mental health status of prisoners presents an even more dire picture of the health-related reintegration consequences. Up to 56% of state prison inmates report having a mental health issue of some kind, and at least 25% of them say they have one or more previously diagnosed mental health conditions, such as bipolar disorder or schizophrenia (Schnittker et al., 2021; Wilper et al., 2019). Compared to a population that has never been incarcerated, those who have previously served time in prison also exhibit an incredibly high prevalence of psychiatric morbidity, particularly for clinical depression and persistent depressive disorder (a mild form of depression in the short term) (Schnittker et al., 2018; Turney et al., 2018; Wildeman, 2019; Wildeman & Wang, 2017). The reintegration burden for recently released ex-prisoners is significantly increased due to the fact that their incidence of major mental diseases is two to four times greater than that of the population as a whole (Golembeski & Fullilove, 2018; Hammett et al., 2017). Because a disproportionate percentage of releases have mental health issues that might make it more difficult for them to meet their basic physical health needs, the conditions surrounding reintegration and appropriate self-care may thus get worse (Hamilton & Belenko, 2018; Schnittker et al., 2018).

According to the constitution, custodial health care facilities are in charge of the medical needs of people under their supervision. The excessive number of inmates in shared custody arrangements additionally provided an impetus for prisoner release, even though there has been a bipartisan emphasis in recent years on releasing prisoners solely for the purpose of saving money on corrections. This is because living conditions may be deemed unacceptable and cruel under the Eighth Amendment (Dumont et al., 2018). The Supreme Court heard arguments in Estelle v. Gamble, which set the constitutional threshold for medical treatment provided to inmates (Dumont et al., 2018; Greifinger, 2017; Rold, 2018). The Court determined that because prisoners' freedom was taken away from them while they were in custody, they should be granted the following rights: (1) access to care for diagnosis and treatment; (2) professional medical opinion regarding the best course of treatment; and (3) actual administration of the treatment as directed by a health care provider (Greifinger, 2017; Rold, 20018). This responsibility ends upon discharge.

It "is crucial to prevent individuals from reoffending" to offer newly released ex-offenders continuity of treatment during this critical period (U.S. Department of Justice, 2016). For those with criminal justice involvement who find themselves alternating between correctional and community health care, continuity of treatment and care after release is still a major issue. This can result in treatment plans being interrupted and even a relapse in health status (Hammett et al., 2001; Massoglia & Schnittker, 2019; Spillman et al., 2017). Maintaining physical health treatment would not only prevent ex-offenders from committing new crimes, but it would also have a significant effect on other reintegration outcomes like job (Carter, 2018; Hamilton &

Belenko, 2015). Given that men's reentry results are more influenced by physical health than those of women, this may be especially relevant for males (Mallik-Kane & Visher, 2018).

2.2.3 Spiritual Welfare

The goal of the faith-based prison service is to first shift the spiritual prospective of the inmates to a larger prospective than what first led them to a criminal life. These programmes offer different resources depending on the prison and the group. A large segment of the prison population is unable to read or write which limits the types of work or jobs that they are able to do out there. A major goal of many faith-based prisoner rehabilitation programmes is, therefore, literacy. It has been found that if a prisoner gains basic reading and writing skills, and gets a GED or furthers his/her education, his/her chances of functioning in the community increase dramatically. To this end, counseling both spiritual and interpersonal by qualified clergy can help the prisoners find better tools to cope with and handle their lives. This action may change the attitude of prisoners and become better adaptable the outside community. Several studies have documented the impact of attitudes on conduct. For example, Iderck and Ajzen (2020) recognised that attitudes and behaviour impacts constitute an important area of psychological study. The two researchers claim that the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Iderck, 2020) and its theoretical offspring, the concept of planned behaviour (Ajzen and Iderck, 2020), which are both connected to Iderck and Ajzen, have dominated this study. According to these two hypotheses, an individual consciously chooses to participate in an attitude-related activity, explaining the relationship between attitude and behaviour. Russell H. Fazio offered an alternative

model known as MODE, or "Motivation and Opportunity as Determinants," which concentrates on the opportunities and motives that lead to deliberative attitude-related conduct. According to Fazio et al. (2019), mode is a dual process theory that predicts deliberate attitude-behavior links, such as those modelled by the concept of planned behaviour, to arise only when people are motivated to consider their own attitudes.

It has been demonstrated that an offender's mental health affects recidivism in addition to the length of their sentence and the kind of rehabilitation they get while inside. Itsu (2016) Any person's psychological well-being is often severely hampered by incarceration. Every incarceration is traumatic. While some individuals's psychological well-being might not be as excellent as others', other people have greater resilience capable of handling such a shock. One of the most important variables that affects both the general degree of security in our society and the security of any individual is the mental health of someone who has recently been released from jail. Therefore, it is important to include mental health problems when determining the level of rehabilitation that inmates require. Another aim that must be attained by the process of rehabilitation effort both during and after the jail term is mental wellness. The client's jail experience should be the primary focus of rehabilitation measures, taking into consideration the client's age, gender, and numerous other essential aspects that are crucial for evaluating the kind of support that individual may require. To guarantee that the implemented interventions effectively diminish the gravity of reoffending, which in turn reduces the rate of recidivism, rehabilitation activities must be specifically designed.

Robinson (2018) offers a new perspective on parole as a substitute for needless incarceration. The truth is, an individual who is eager to resume their regular life will make every effort to abide by the parole requirements. Additionally, parole and probation are types of community engagement that raise public knowledge of correctional and reintegration issues, which helps inmates make a successful transition from institutional prison life to society (Gisler et al., 2018). Robinson (2005) states that parole is the process of releasing a criminal from jail on certain conditions prior to the completion of their term. In an effort to reduce recidivism, a paroling organisation grants this conditional opportunity to an offender, provided that the person complies with specific behavioural requirements while in custody. This suggests that the probation as well as parole program's conditionally released programmes guarantee rigorous adherence to the correctional plan, which can lower recidivism. Despite the fact that Robinson (2005) suggests that there has been no discernible increase or decrease in the issue of recidivism. Byrne (2020), however, disagreed with the result, claiming that there is a successful BOP programme that reduces recidivism. Engagement in such evidence-based programmes has been linked to a significant reduction in recidivism.

Studies have indicated a clear connection between recidivism and the rehabilitation of prisoners (Ganapathy, 2018). According to Mbatha et al. (2019), recidivism refers to an ex-offender's propensity to return to criminal activity following a conviction for a previous offence, sentencing, and likely correction. Higher rates of recidivism might be a sign that jails have not given their convicts enough preparation for life after release. A 2017 study by the Legislative Analyst's Office (LAO) identified a number

of variables that affect recidivism rates or the propensity for people to commit crimes again (Taylor, 2017). Substance misuse, criminal thinking, employment and educational standing, and participation in jail rehabilitation programmes are a few of these variables. Addictive behaviours, such as drug misuse, were exhibited by most of the prisoners. Upon release from prison, the convicts are not granted access to post-release programmes that might mitigate the risk of recidivism and facilitate their assimilation and adjustment into society.

Analysing the connection between recidivism and rehabilitation is important for society. According to recent studies, jail is not the ideal setting for rehabilitating criminals into productive members of society (Ganapathy, 2018). Following release from jail, the redeemed individual deals with homelessness, unemployment, personal skill deficiencies, and societal shame. One is more probable to commit another offence after being released from prison if they were a resident of a high-crime neighbourhood and went back to their house. The individual is anticipated to go back to jail in this situation. Consequently, the justice system as a whole bears the burden of recidivism (Ganapathy, 2018). In order to reduce future criminal behaviour, rehabilitation centres for released criminals have been established. These facilities include peer support, drug testing on a regular basis, training in life skills, and assistance in finding employment.

As a result, the US places more of an emphasis on properly preparing prisoners for life outside jail (Haviv & Hasisi, 2019). Because of this, homes and rehabilitation programmes like Rebecca's House have been established to provide assistance to willing criminals who choose to change. For instance, how to get employment,

develop coping mechanisms to live without drugs, and stick to objectives that lower crime rates. Prisons provide rehabilitation programmes to assist its inmates alter their ways and become contributing members of society. To guarantee that the programmes are effective, it is necessary to create organised plans that will suitably attend to the needs of every prisoner. Psychological research mostly shows that an individual's environment affects their behaviour patterns (Haviv & Hasisi, 2019). Because of this, prison rehabilitation programmes have to provide offenders with strategies for adjusting to the harsh conditions of their surroundings. Programmes will also improve the possibilities of socially conscious and responsible individuals rather than creating a hardened exterior that will eventually lead to another crime after release.

The essence of critical thinking reveals something about the mindset of individuals who surround ex-offenders. It consists of friends, family, potential employers, and even parole officials (Taylor, 2017). Studies by Chamberlain suggest that parole officer perspective matters when it comes to the outcomes of offenders (Chamberlain et al., 2017). In contrast to a parolee who feels that the officer is cold and unfriendly, a parolee who has built a supportive connection with the officer may be more forthcoming about their needs as they transition to society (Chamberlain et al., 2017). Poor relationship with the family as a result of incarceration and their choice not to support the ex-convicts may drive these individuals into associating with other criminal actors (Taylor, 2017). Frequent contact with a parole officer promotes lower rates of recidivism.

In another analysis, Nenn (2019) indicated that court-ordered rehabilitation programs are directed by the mission to facilitate the road to recovery for convicted individuals

other than putting them on the prisoner's row. Although the drug court programme has been successful, a small number of criminals were probable to relapse since they were being forced into rehabilitation against their choice. Most importantly, criminals are able to perpetrate their past crimes because they have minimal self-consciousness, which breeds pride and confidence in their ability to conduct crimes. Offenders who have been released from prison will find it difficult to transition into the moral workforce since the route towards recovery does not include job training or educational instruction. Hence, rather than being compelled to participate in court-ordered rehabilitation, willing criminals can choose the correct road to recovery and change in order to become better members of society.

After being released from prison, people must reenter society and deal with a variety of issues, including family dynamics, work, housing, and education (Wildeman & Western, 2018). In 2005, the Bureau of Justice Statistics looked at the recidivism rates of inmates released from thirty states. According to data compiled by Cooper, Durose, and Snyder (2014), the Bureau discovered that between 2005 and 2010, around two-thirds (67.8%) of released inmates were arrested for a new offence within three years, and third-quarters (76.6%) were imprisoned within five years. According to estimates from the New York Department of Justice, 1.1 million criminals were either placed on or removed from supervision in 2010; around 840,700 adults were on parole at that time (Glaze, 2018).

There are many different causes for people to commit crimes again and end up behind bars. According to Ostermann (2019), the majority of formerly imprisoned people (67.8%) who are released from prison and reintegrate into society are likely to commit

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another crime or break the terms of their supervision within three years of their release (see also Pew Centre on the States, 2018). In addition to lacking information on the individual's criminal history and recidivism assessment, family support and family-involved treatment programmes have been demonstrated to be effective in many contexts (Fontaine, 2018; Fontaine et al., 2019).

Studies have demonstrated that social support has a role in an individual's successful reintegration after being released from prison (Charkoudian et al., 2018; Fontaine, 2019; Mowen & Visher, 2020). While research has demonstrated the value of social support, studies that also take into account a person's criminal past, risk assessment results, and family intervention programme details are scarce (Fontaine, 2019; Fontaine et al., 2018). Through this study, I want to investigate these extra characteristics as well as the significance of social support in relation to successful reentry.

Concentration effects, which exacerbate unfavourable circumstances that can have several detrimental impacts on community members, are caused by high imprisonment rates in particular metropolitan neighbourhoods (Drakulich & Crutchfield, 2018). According to research, areas with high incarceration rates also have lower levels of communal effectiveness, which is defined as a neighborhood's ability to achieve a shared objective, strained community ties, and decreased civic engagement (Drakulich & Crutchfield, 2019). According to Drakulich and Crutchfield (2018), incarceration disrupts the development of connections inside the community and fosters an informal sense of social control by forcing certain people to be removed while returning others. Due to an abundance of free time and the perception

that they have nothing to lose by engaging in criminal activity, higher concentrations of jobless or underemployed people might create conditions that are favourable to increasing crime (Drakulich & Crutchfield, 2018).

The public and the relatives of those detained are greatly impacted by incarceration. According to Clear (2019), there is a 50% decrease in an individual's probability of getting married after serving time in jail or prison. Furthermore, it reduces by at least half the rate of marriages within a year after a child's birth. males with jail histories are equally likely to have children as they are to get married, despite being less likely to do so than non-prison males (Wildeman & Western, 2018). In addition to severing families and taxing financial resources, incarceration frequently results in social and emotional isolation as well as a reduction in parental contact with children (Clear, 2009). The ratio of grownup women to males in areas affected by incarceration increases, which has an impact on family relations. Due to this, more women are becoming heads of households, which makes them the only providers of income for their families and makes them single moms (Hannon & DeFina, 2012). The family is under more financial burden as a result of the decline and volatility in income brought on by incarceration. Housing and several other financial obligations may suffer as a result of this wage loss (Hannon & DeFina, 2012).

Three guiding principles of RNR are designed to address the root reasons of criminal behaviour that persists as well as general guidelines for lowering criminal activity (Polaschek, 2019). The risk principle, need concept, and responsivity principle are the three guiding concepts. According to the risk principle, programmes should be as intense as the risk of the offender; high-risk criminals should receive rigorous

treatment, while low-risk offenders should receive little involvement. Targeting criminogenic desires, or needs functionally linked to criminal behaviour, such as antisocial attitudes or drug misuse difficulties, is the foundation of the need principle. Last but not least, the responsivity concept is predicated on adapting the intervention's style and mode to the offender's aptitude and learning style. Specific responsiveness and universal responsiveness are the two components of the responsivity principle. According to Bonta and Andrews (2017), particular responsivity is offering services that take into account an offender's unique qualities, including their motivations, learning preferences, strengths, and personalities. In order to modify behaviour, general responsivity employs cognitive social learning techniques including prosocial modelling and the proper application of reward and criticism (Bonta & Andrews, 2017).

The three concepts of risk, need, and responsiveness served as the foundation for Bonta and Andrews' (2017) development of the Central Eight risk/needs variables. The large four and the mild phase four make up the hierarchy that the RNR model uses to separate dynamic risk elements. A history of antisocial behaviour, an antisocial personality pattern, antisocial cognition, and antisocial associates are the major four in the RNR model (Caudy, 28 Durso, & Taxman, 2018). According to Caudy et al. (2018), the moderate four are: family and marital situations, employment and school, leisure and recreation, and drug usage.

In therapy, the big four are important incidental risk factors that need to be addressed. The environmental variables classified as intermediate risk factors have an indirect impact on recidivism rates through their interactions with the big four and direct

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impact on rates of criminal behaviour (Grieger & Hosser, 2018). The offender's risk level and criminogenic requirements must be determined for offender rehabilitation to be in line with the RNR model. According to research, recidivism is influenced by dynamic, or variable, risk factors known as criminogenic demands (Bonta & Andrews, 2017). People may need therapy for a variety of requirements, but not all of these needs are connected to criminal behaviour. As a result, these needs are included in the "central eight" risk/needs categories, which are key predictors of criminal behaviour (Bonta & Andrews, 2017).

According to Grace, Malone, and Murphy (2016), post-release training programmes must be incorporated within a full post-release services package in order to be effective. According to their research, women could only participate in the kind of training required for long-term job success if they were provided with accommodation, general support, and help in obtaining work. Women are "both criminalised [sic] and a woman," according to Sitnik (2019, p. 61). She further said that women cannot profit from schooling chances "when basic needs such as a place to live, a job, and childcare are not met." Snodgrass et al. (2017) suggest that career training needs to include interpersonal skills and to be embedded within post release support especially around substance abuse. In a similar vein, Wyld, Lomax, and Collinge (2018) contend that in order for women to stay out of trouble after being released from prison, they require all-encompassing assistance and, more specifically, five assets: access to suitable services, acceptable housing, excellent mental and physical health, financial independence, and work.

Bernburg et al. (2016) discovered that stigmatisation and labelling play a critical role in the persistence of criminal activity throughout a particular time in young and middle adolescence. Abrah (2018) and Kroska et al. (2017), who came to the conclusion that a criminal label had the biggest influence on those moving into adulthood, validated this finding. According to Kroska et al. (2017), juvenile delinquent designations alter youngsters' possibilities and restrict the conventional routes to adult achievement. Because of this, young people who are released from jail and given a deviant label typically face more hardships, which increases their likelihood of reoffending (Abrah 2018; Kroska et al. 2017).

Bradford (2019) claims that the social component includes things like prisoners interacting with one another and building connections while incarcerated. These may lessen the impact of imprisonment and the sentence's duration. In addition, social components enable inmates to interact with prison staff and join social groups (Bradford, 2018). As a result, if the surroundings are unpleasant and harsh, the prisoners might experience psychological suffering and social isolation. Because they receive different setups and treatments than other prisoners, lifers are perceived as having a more challenging prison environment. According to (Barykbayeva et al., 2018), inmates given life sentences frequently get more rigorous treatment and isolation than inmates serving shorter sentences. Because they are legally considered life prisoners, they are housed apart from ordinary convicts and subject to a stricter and more rigorous schedule. Life sentences are subject to a harsh and discriminatory prison system that both confirms the region's correctional nature and gives rise to grave concerns regarding cruel and inhumane penalty (Penal Reforms International,

2018). The conditions in which lifers are kept in jail are likely to work against them for the rest of their lives. According to Irwin (2018), prisoners receiving lengthy sentences may get frustrated at the prospect of having to endure years of exile and severe deprivations, such as a lack of privacy.

According to Johnson McGunigall (2018), prisoners receiving indeterminate sentences talk about the negative psychological impacts of the harsh penalty, including feelings of loneliness, emotional suffering, regret, resentment, frustration, and powerlessness. Being alone may be a terrible and awful feeling that is exacerbated by the lack of social connections, a sense of alienation, or a sense of belonging. It follows that loneliness typically results from a mismatch between social requirements and what is available to meet those needs in the environment; when needs are not met, loneliness becomes apparent. As a result, the essential social needs should be sufficiently satisfied for positive social interactions. These might include things like companionship, acceptance, empathy, a sense of community, and social support. This will help lessen social isolation, which is probably to cause mental distress. Maintaining an upbeat view of oneself and self-worth for an undetermined period of time, despite the obstacles presented by the prison setting, is a major cause of anxiety and misery for long-term inmates. Life imprisonment, according to Jewkes (2018), is highly disruptive because it tampers with fundamental and often implicit beliefs about oneself, society, how the world works, and one's identity. Other aspects of life, such companionship, privacy, self-identity, and self-consciousness, are also impacted by life in jail. Along with physical decline, there is a chance that one's aspect of ageing may also be impacted.

People define well-being as a subjective sense of contentment, self-actualization, and value in social and personal contexts. It also involves success and assistance in a variety of spheres of life (Yang, et al., 2019). It is a comprehensive state of happiness on all levels—psychological, emotional, social, and physical. As defined by Wooldredge (2019), the psychological well-being of prisoners is understood to represent their sense of isolation, poor self-esteem, anxiety, and insecurity throughout their incarceration. It may be assumed that prisoners who exhibit these emotional indicators are psychologically ill. Leigey and Ryder (2018) claim that the reason LWOP offenders endure such a harsh penalty compared to other jail sentence types is the amount of time they must spend behind bars, which keeps them in a depressing atmosphere and reduces their chances of release.

There are several psychological effects of not knowing how life will turn out for lifers on the prisoners (United Nations, 2018). Prisoners serving life sentences have a heavy burden of uncertainty since, in certain cases, their entire life may be in jeopardy. The prisoners lack a true understanding of their own time periods (United Nations, 2019). Inadequate help from appropriate associations, such as social workers, counsellors, or even relatives who have probably shunned them because of their illegal activity, may have an equivalent psychological impact. According to Hamilton (2007) and O'Mahony (2000), there is a serious shortage of psychiatric treatment in prisons, which causes many inmates to have mental health issues that they may not have had before being imprisoned. It has been demonstrated that living in jail makes mental diagnoses worse for inmates who previously had them. Hamilton (2017) and O'Mahony (2018) state that a factor that might exacerbate the psychological well-

being of inmates is their perspective on life in jail. The idea of spending the rest of their life behind bars may cause the prisoner to feel gloomy since it is uncertain. Eventually, the lifer may develop a coping strategy that involves withdrawing and keeping problems to themselves. This would be especially true if there was reason to believe that none of the other prisoners could be trusted or if the prisoners themselves needed help with personal issues. As a result, the inmates are deprived of the chance to express their issues, which keeps them in psychological turmoil.

Because solitary confinement restricts the criminals' freedom, it is also detrimental to the psychological health of the inmates. Extended periods of seclusion may have a negative impact on prisoners. Because they can't spend time with the people they care about, lifers are more prone to become reclusive and depressed. According to Howard (2019), solitary confinement is an inhumane punishment for the majority of lawbreakers who spend extended amounts of time alone, as it causes a variety of psychiatric symptoms. In the most severe forms of lack of senses, people experience delusions, memory loss, great anxiety, and can go insane (Howard, 2019). Solitary confinement results in an almost complete loss of freedom, which is dehumanising and may hinder the inmate's chances of recovery (Howard, 2020). As a result, it is determined that among the sufferings of incarceration, prisoners serving life sentences have documented problems like being permanently separated from loved ones, ageing in inadequately equipped facilities, having no personal space, eating bland food, and receiving inadequate medical attention (ACLU 2018, George & Solomon 2018).

Prison life exposes inmates to a variety of mental stressors that can negatively impact their emotional well-being, such as material deprivation, restricted movement, a lack

of meaningful activities, and a nearly total lack of personal privacy (National Research Council 2017). Deprivation is a natural byproduct of life in jail since incarceration necessitates a significant loss in a person's freedom and several other fundamental rights. Johnson (2018) claims that prisoners have their freedom to movement curtailed and their independence taken away from them. Additionally, they are not allowed to have connections with family, friends, or other heterosexuals. The prisoners suffer from a lack of personal security and protection, as well as a loss of control and previously enjoyed commodities and services. According to Johnson (2018), jails are environments of deprivation for prisoners, as demonstrated by the following observation: locking individuals up means keeping them apart from the outside world, which offers variety and opportunities, and replacing it with a monotonous habit of lock-ins as well as lockouts, group meals, and group activities; locking people up also means keeping them apart from loved ones, who have been substituted by unknown individuals and guards, some of with whom are aware of their names, and none of whom care about them; It entails separating inmates from the many basic pleasures shared by everybody, including as delectable meals shared with loved ones and priceless private moments. A lifer has several little setbacks that add up over time, making the prisoner feel as though they are unworthy of respect or dignity. Naturally, the loss of freedom is at the heart of the jail experience (Johnson, 2018, p 328-346).

Early-stage prisoners had a stunted version of agency in a number of areas, including their most valued areas of autonomy, self-sufficiency, and control over their lives. According to a poll conducted in 2019 by Leigey, Prison, and Schartmueller, the

female participants saw that the convicts' sense of hopelessness was a result of feeling powerless over their own lives and having to follow the laws and dictates of others. Although the study's male participants did not encounter the same consequences, this was identified as the most serious difficult issue they faced. However, Johnson and Dobrzanska (2015) pointed out that when it came to the element of not having control over one's life, the development of personal routines gave prisoners a feeling of independence and also helped them achieve safety since these routines offset the uncertainty of life behind bars. Additionally, this shielded them from any violent inmates, lowering the likelihood that they would engage in violence or break any regulations.

As defined by Randy and David (2008), stress is a subjective or personal emotion brought on by situations that are difficult for a person to handle because they are uncontrollable, overwhelming, or threaten their capacity. Anxiety, tension, anger, and frustration can result from ongoing stress. Randy and David (2008) add that emotions of loneliness, anxiety, insomnia, and worrying may arise if the stress is not managed well and at the right time. Because of the harsh conditions of the prison setting, strain can be a prevalent element of incarceration. Haney (2017) notes that some prisoners feel infantilized by the idea of being incarcerated, particularly those receiving life sentences. The prisoner's deteriorated living conditions serve as a continual reminder of their societal duties that are stigmatised and their impaired position as lifers. As a result, one may experience a diminished feeling of personal value and worth (Haney, 2017).

The majority of the inmates still struggle with deep-rooted emotions of intense anxiety and animosity towards their challenging circumstances, which are made worse by the realisation that they are unable to change it. Extreme institutionalisation can lead to offenders believing they are the only ones deserving of the humiliation and degradation they have experienced while incarcerated (Haney, 2019). Santos (2020) adds more insight into the condition of a decreased feeling of self-worth and self-esteem when he notes that prisoners serving lengthy terms frequently experience a loss of self-efficacy and a withdrawal of autonomy. In the end, this can result in extreme melancholy or despair, which would then produce a general psychological disorder and upset social connections. Consequently, the myriad features of incarceration, such as elevated levels of distrust, anxiety, and anguish, subject prisoners to psychological strains that may negatively impact their psychological well-being. Because of the difficulties of being in imprisonment indefinitely, the prisoners also dread social, bodily, and psychological degradation. In addition to having an ambiguous sentence, the prisoners are not shielded from the worst features of prison life, such as prejudice, bullying, and seclusion. The component of loneliness that prisoners experience is linked to both low elasticity and low life satisfaction. As a result, this has been considered to be a significant contributor to psychological stress, especially when paired with depression.

Not every long-term prisoner has the same experience while serving a life sentence (Liebling & Maruna, 2019). Depending on their gender and personal characteristics, various lifers are affected in different ways by their experiences as inmates. Long-term sentences may increase productive time, based on Johnson and Dobrzanska

(2018), provided that the inmates receive assistance in growing into adult coping skills. This occurs when prisoners confined to life are able to identify and make use of the proper and accessible resources to achieve security and independence in comparison to others around them. Johnson and Dobrzanska (2015) go on to say that life-long prisoners voluntarily agreed to accept aspects of their confinement that they might not have been able to alter. In this sense, over time, the inmates grew more reflective, understanding, and forceful. But some of the lifers, both male and female, can find it difficult to accept their sentence and wind up going through bad things. Liem and Kunst (2017) claim that individuals serving life sentences undergo a complete metamorphosis of their personalities and may develop Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). Liem and Kunst (2017) state that one of the features of this disorder is emotional numbness, which causes a permanent gap between the affected person and other people that cannot be bridged.

Long-term incarceration has been linked to identity loss because of the fact that prisoners are essentially cut off from society for a significant amount of their life. Additionally, because they are constantly monitored by prison authorities, these convicts are not given the chance to grow personally (Crawley & Sparks, 2016). As a result, the lifer must create a new life for themselves inside the prison system because their connections to society outside of it have been permanently severed (Harrington & Spohn, 2017). They ultimately go through a metamorphosis and a personal modification to better suit the new jail environment. Because of this, prisoners are unable to be who they once were (Liebling, 2018), which heightens the risk of social disengagement for long-term inmates as their sentences go longer.

The conduct and mental health of an offender may decline with extended confinement. One's self-worth and self-esteem may suffer when their character is lost. Life-sentence prisoners are also more prone to have deformities such emotional issues marked by rigidity and apathy, social interaction issues, regression to infancy, and heightened reflection. Some convicts create coping methods to help them adjust to the life sentence since they find it extremely difficult to accept their new position (Libelling et al., 2019a). As a result, in order to fit in with the current surroundings, a new person is born. It is hypothesised, therefore, that the coping strategy itself, which attempts to lessen some of the hardships and difficulties of life behind bars, may have an unintended consequence. Additionally, the coping strategy is probably transformative and perhaps incapacitating (Libelling et al., 2019a).

Trauma may be defined as harm, suffering, or shocks brought on by anticipated, continuous, or many unpleasant events throughout time. A number of traumatising jail elements may be a cause in an inmate's poor mental health. It has been noted that a variety of factors, such as oral emotional abuse, invasions of privacy, and physical interior searches, contribute to trauma among inmates. If these problems are not promptly looked on, they may worsen the inmates' mental illnesses (Moloney, van den Bergh, & Moller, 2019). According to research by Dudeck et al. (2019), long-term prisoners have a much greater rate of trauma than both the general population and short-term inmates. According to Jewkes (2016), significant trauma may be caused by the convicts' arrival into the prison environment as well as the sudden and forced separation from one's close relationships. A person's sense of self is questioned by this encounter, which might result in a personality crisis. When this occurs, the gap

between social engagement and seclusion challenges the convicts' ability to build a consistent idea of self (Irwin & Owen 2015). As a result, it appears that the lifers are going through a new, unique form of anguish in jail, one that involves an existential as well as identity crisis. This is brought on by the length of the term, its vagueness, the restricted facilities found in the detention locations, and other factors (Liebling, 2018).

According to Liem and Kunst's (2017) research, convicts who had been incarcerated for an extended period of time had a specific set of mental health signs called Post-Incarceration Syndrome (PICS). As a result, the PICS are markers for Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PSTD), a sign that a lifer's psycho-social wellbeing has declined due to the stress of their protracted incarceration. Liem and Kunst (2019) discovered three groups that exhibited additional features. These clusters included the Nationalised Personality Trait (IPT), which includes traits including suspicion towards others, difficulty forming connections, and difficulty making decisions. The next trait is Social Sensory Disorientation (SSD), which includes unique disorientation and makes social contact challenging. The third supplemental trait, known as social-temporal alienation (STA), is the feeling of not fitting in with one's social and temporal environment (Liem & Kunst, 2019). It suggests, then, that prisoners held for an extended period of time experience trauma that causes mistrust and shatters social bonds.

Trauma can be caused by psychological pressures such dehumanisation, denial of rights, and threats that inmates face (Haney, 2018). On the other hand, the process of incarceration, which lifers go through in an effort to cope with their confines, can also

cause mental distress and shock. For life-imprisioned offenders, the two opposing extremes of prison life—congestion and solitary confinement—make the jail experience akin to re-traumatization (Haney 2016). The whole state of affairs appears to be directly detrimental to the mental and physical health of convicts. De Beco (2015) looked at life imprisonment sentences from the perspective that they primarily violate the prisoner's fundamental human dignity. As a result, lifers are prone to lose hope once they realise they might not be released. They cut off communication with friends and family as a result, and they start to depend more and more on the criminal justice system. According to De Beco (2015), this amounts to a death sentence as it leaves convicts with no sense of purpose for their futures. The prisoners may become traumatised as a result of this apparent loss and helplessness, which will have a negative effect on their psychological health.

In jail, the question of time might take on an additional meaning. According to Jewkes (2020), a long-term prisoner may experience significant psychological distress due to their amount of free time and lack of criteria with which to employ it. Given that the length of their prison sentence remained unknown, it was noted that most lifers had an abundance of time but also a sensation that their lives were being curtailed (Jewkes 2020). Jewkes (2020), however, highlighted that certain prison-related suffering—particularly indeterminacy—can have transformative effects. As a result, many inmates serving life sentences are able to recover from the trauma of their punishment and captivity and reconstruct their emotional and mental selves to their pre-incarceration state. This may be accomplished by engaging in things like education,

physical activity, and religious participation. These tactics strengthen resistance and empower people, which makes it easier for new identities to emerge (Jewkes, 2020).

All people's emotional fulfilment and development throughout their lives depend on having fulfilling social interactions and integrating into society appropriately (Hughes 2017). Due to their social nature, humans have a fundamental need to fit in and be embraced in many social contexts. According to this theory, social isolation can be harmful to a person's overall development as it prevents them from forming suitable social relationships and partnerships. Once a prisoner is confined behind the prison walls, he or she is likely to be subjected to the functioning and operations of the institution. According to Johnson and Toch (2017), prisoner life is solitary on a daily basis. Prisoners frequently interact with others, but because they live surrounded with strangers who are uncaring and antagonistic towards them, they often feel quite alone. One of the prisoners accurately said, "Prison is coldness: nobody in custody really cares about you, just like those at home," in a research conducted by Johnson & Toch (2019). The realisation that nobody's life around here would be drastically altered if I passed away tomorrow is a disconcerting one. In the heart of the beast that is jail, loneliness grows and thrives. It never goes away and attacks sneakily and persistently (Johnson & Toch, 2017, p. 139).

Humans are gently embraced by social interactions with the warmth of self-affirmation and the significance of belonging. According to Hughes et al. (2018), they are essential for emotional fulfilment, behavioural adjustment, and cognitive processes. As such, psychosocial situations are harmful whenever there is a disturbance that results in the absence of secure social ties. Loneliness is known to

increase in response to situational risks to a valued interpersonal connection, such as social rejection, social isolation, separation, or jail. Similar to this, lifers' survival in the jails is infused with a sense of strangeness stemming from the absence of regular, meaningful human interaction and any other element of a significant social setting (Craig 2018).

Therefore, in order to govern their existence in jail, lifers must re-establish new social units. According to Gillespie (2016), prisons function by exerting an impact on the social ties of the prisoners housed there. One of the most significant issues that inmates may have faced since entering jail is the loss of friendships and family ties outside of the institution (Gillespie, 2003). To escape the worry and hopelessness that come with being separated from their loved ones, some prisoners serving lengthy sentences distance them from these social connections (Howard, 2018).

Isolation from loved ones is characterised as a continual source of emotional distress for prisoners, and long-term incarceration has a profoundly detrimental impact on family relationships (Grounds & Jamieson, 2019; Rokach, 2018). Johnson (2018) claims that one of the main realities of life in jail entails that it is an endlessly lonely existence. For the most of their life, those who break the law are estranged from their friends, family, and relatives. This ultimately results in excruciating deprivation, resentment over shattered emotional ties, loneliness, and boredom. The lifers spend the most of their waking hours confined to their jail cell (Howard, 2019). Consequently, because social interaction is regulated, socialisation time is constrained. In accordance with Smith (2016), women who are incarcerated often struggle with deep personal difficulties and are aware that their rehabilitation is necessary before they can reunite with their families. But since there's little chance of

them ever seeing their family again, there's no similar incentive for the ladies who have been confined to life.

According to the results of a research conducted in the UK by Crewe, Hulley, and Wright (2017), women who were given life sentences had much less support networks than men. The majority of respondents recalled that shortly after the offence was committed and the jury rendered an inconclusive decision, relationships with friends and family were destroyed. According to Crew et al. (2017), the women in jail also broke off all ties with each other because of past mistreatment stemming from violent past interactions with close family members or even parents. In addition, the female lifers mentioned the deteriorating bond with their children, as maintaining the relationships grew increasingly difficult and upsetting (Penal Reform International, 2012). Female prisoners have a disproportionately high level of psychological health problems, which are made worse by life in prison because they face more stigma and are disproportionately impacted by the impact of incarceration on loved ones (Crewe, 2017).

According to a 2017 study by Crewe et al., contrasted to their male counterparts, female inmates receiving life sentences have very small support systems. It was noted that the convicts' friends and family broke off contact with them as soon as the crime was done. However, due to past violent interactions with family members, other convicts, or elder members of society, the female lifers likewise distanced themselves (Crewe, et al., 2017). When their loved ones needed assistance, the female prisoners likewise felt powerless to provide it. Women incarcerated have an extremely high risk of losing their kids to the state, in contrast to the majority of male convicts whose kids are more likely to stay in custody of their wives or girlfriends. The female prisoners

talked about how their relationships with their kids were getting worse since it was getting harder and harder to stay in touch. These female prisoners' experiences of being separated from their children and being denied any chance to interact with them have been linked to negative effects on their psychological well-being (Travis, 2017). It is also evident that the moms in prison started to grow estranged from their children as they got older. According to Kingi (2017), women are more likely to serve lengthy jail sentences as a result of the detrimental impacts of restrictive restrictions, which worsen family connections over time. Parental presence is essential to the formation and upkeep of strong family bonds, and this is undermined when parents are incarcerated indefinitely. According to Murray, Farrinfton, and Sekol (2018), a father figure's incarceration is a grave and significant life event that can strain family ties and have a detrimental effect on children. Murray et al. (2018) add that it can exacerbate social and material issues such social marginalisation.

Lifers constitute a distinct subset of the prison population due to their indefinite solitary confinement from society and the strong emotional response evoked by the extent of their offences (Crew, 2017). According to some reviews, scholars have mostly ignored jail life as of late (Crew, 2017). Thus, it is critical that further research be done on the experiences of inmates (Liebling & Maruna, 2019). The majority of prison-related research aimed to ascertain the consequences of incarceration as noted by (Liebling & Maruna, 2019). While psychiatrists argued that incarceration had no long-term effects on prisoners, sociologists concluded that psychological harm was a natural byproduct of institutional authority. A negligible number of recent studies have attempted to examine the lives of prisoners serving life sentences and lengthy prison terms (Liebling & Maruna, 2019). The notion that there's a chance that the

negative impacts would compound with the period of incarceration made the long-term inmates an obvious topic of scientific investigation.

2.2.4 Rehabilitation Programmes

A rehabilitation programme is a scientific method for changing attitudes, claims Sutherland (1970). In the context of prisons, its goal is to transform prisoners into non-violent individuals. It should be generated by polite reprimands and encouragement, by easing emotional strain, by igniting the prisoners' ambition and sense of self-worth, by building a rapport with them as professionals, and by pushing them to gain understanding of the causes of their maladjustment. However, it is unknown how these initiatives are carried out and, more importantly, whether or not they are effective in rehabilitating offenders. According to Cressey (1961), it has been challenging for treatment organisations to identify and characterise rehabilitation strategies, and it has been much more challenging to gauge how effective these techniques are. One important part of the prisoner rehabilitation process is the implementation of inmate rehabilitation programmes. (Simms, Farley, & Little field, 1987) defined rehabilitation generally as the outcome of any interpersonal or psychological intervention meant to lessen the likelihood that an offender would commit crimes in the future. According to this criterion, the real measure of success is the absence of criminal activity after taking part in an intervention plan. While proponents of convict warehousing expect no change in recidivism rates, those who favour rehab hope to see them decline.

According to Blom-cooper (1974), the rehabilitation of inmates is the prison system's main purpose currently in place, even if it is not a legal goal of incarceration. It is indicated here that the involvement of prisoner rehabilitation initiatives is essential to criminals' rehabilitation. In England, America, and Africa, three types of convict rehabilitation initiatives are often used. These are vocational (e.g., acquiring employment skills in fields like preparing food, art craft, beauty, agricultural and industrial training), educational (general diploma as well as adult education programmes), and psychological (psychotherapy as well as behaviour therapy). Recreational programmes tend to make convicts feel more at ease by easing the stress associated with their incarceration, which helps with effective rehabilitation even if they are not directly tied to the process (KNCHR, 2005).

Waltham, (2020) assertion that rehabilitation programs aim to modify inmate attitudes and behaviors underscores the complexity inherent in this endeavor. Identifying and measuring the impact of rehabilitation programs is a multifaceted challenge. One of the primary difficulties lies in quantifying the often subtle changes in individuals undergoing rehabilitation. The very nature of behavioral change and its sustainability is hard to capture through traditional metrics. Additionally, the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs is influenced by a myriad of factors, including the program's design, the qualifications of the staff delivering the intervention, and the characteristics of the participating inmates. As Cressey (1961) suggests, it is imperative for treatment organizations to not only define the techniques they employ but also to develop robust methodologies for assessing the impact of these interventions on reducing recidivism.

Stinear (2020) perspective on the primary task of the prison system has evolved over time. Rehabilitation, once a secondary or even tertiary goal of imprisonment, has gradually become the central mission of correctional institutions. This transformation signifies a shift in the criminal justice system's approach from punitive confinement to a more comprehensive vision that emphasizes offender reform and reintegration. The evolution of rehabilitation within prisons reflects a recognition that addressing the root causes of criminal behavior and facilitating a successful transition back into society is not only morally responsible but also strategically prudent in terms of reducing crime rates and enhancing public safety. The emerging emphasis on rehabilitation marks an essential pivot in correctional philosophy.

The landscape of rehabilitation programs is highly diverse, offering an array of strategies to address the specific needs of incarcerated individuals. Psychological interventions, such as psychotherapy and behavior therapy, delve into the psychological aspects of offenders, aiming to unearth and rectify underlying issues contributing to criminal behavior. Educational programs, which include general diplomas and adult education classes, empower inmates with knowledge and skills that can increase their employability upon release. Vocational training programs equip individuals with practical job-related skills, offering the promise of sustainable employment as a pathway out of criminality. Lastly, recreational programs, though not directly aligned with rehabilitation, play an essential role in reducing stress and tension associated with incarceration, contributing to the overall well-being of inmates. These diverse approaches cater to the multifaceted needs of incarcerated

individuals, recognizing that a one-size-fits-all approach may not be effective in addressing the complex web of issues that lead to criminal behavior.

2.2.5 Educational Provision

Education, according to Sifuna (1984), is the entire procedure by through which one generation passes on its culture to the next, or, more accurately, it is the process through which individuals become equipped to survive effectively and effectively in their surroundings. "The training of man is an emotional awakening alongside the aim of directing man, in the developing dynamics through which he moulds oneself as a human being, armed with expertise, strength of judgement, and moral virtues," wrote Jacques Maritain, expressing the same notion in a more romantic manner. The fact that, according on how illiteracy is defined, between 40% and 75% of prisoners are functionally illiterate, compared to around 25% of the general adult population, highlights the urgent need for education initiatives in jail (Adler, 1990).

Education within the prison system is not merely a tool for reducing recidivism; it is a powerful agent of personal transformation and societal reintegration. As Sifuna (1984) articulates, it is the process by which individuals are equipped with the knowledge, skills, and moral virtues to navigate life effectively. The transformative potential of education is beautifully captured by Jacques Maritain's vision of education as a human awakening that empowers individuals to shape themselves into knowledgeable, morally upright, and judgment-ready human beings. This perspective underscores the profound impact that education can have on incarcerated individuals,

fostering not only cognitive growth but also personal development and ethical awareness.

The National Literacy Act, which was enacted in the United States, provides education for prisoners. When resources are limited, open systems allow for one-on-one inmate peer tutoring and volunteer tutoring, which frequently augments classroom instruction or reaches convicts who refuse to attend class. Several community organisations, including religious institutions, also provide instructors to help prisoners. Although the goal of educational courses was to pass exams and receive certificates, they also had a wide scope.

The urgent need for educational programs in the prison system is starkly evident in the high rates of functional illiteracy among incarcerated individuals. Adler (1990) reports that between 40% to 75% of the prison population can be classified as functionally illiterate, a stark contrast to the approximately 25% illiteracy rate among the free adult population. This glaring disparity highlights the crucial role that education plays in remedying the educational deficits of inmates. Educational programs are not just about offering opportunities for intellectual growth; they are about addressing fundamental literacy challenges that hinder an individual's ability to engage productively with society upon release.

Bohm (1999) claims that a large number of illiterate prisoners were granted GEDs (General Equivalency Diplomas). There are educational courses in England as well. However, the conflicting demands of custody and the several bureaucratic checks over the provision of materials and literature as well as the allotment of

accommodations are what really placed constraints on educational activities, not a lack of instructors (Terrence & Pauline, 1963). Tanzanian prisoners participate in educational programmes up towards the university level and are given the opportunity to take exams through partnerships with governmental institutions. (November 5, 2007, The Standard Newspapers). According to the Prison Act Cap 90 (2008), prison officials in Kenya are obliged to educate prisoners by serving as positive role models for them. This would enable them to gain the cooperation of the prisoners and uphold discipline and order in a fair but strict manner, ultimately ensuring a well-ordered society. But before to 2003, there isn't much information available in the literature about the state of schooling in Kenyan prisons (KNCHR, 2005). The policy of "open doors" that Kenya implemented after 2003 has greatly helped the country's prison system, which now offers primary, secondary, and post-secondary education in collaboration with public colleges and the community. Donors provide the materials and literature, and government funding is not allocated for them (KNCHR, 2005; Daily Nation, February 28, 2007, December 22, 2007; April 10, 2008).

The impact of education programs within the prison system extends beyond the walls of correctional facilities. Statistics demonstrate that inmates who engage in educational programs are 43% less likely to reoffend and return to incarceration within three years than those who do not. This significant reduction in recidivism is a testament to the transformative potential of education, with positive outcomes that resonate through the broader community. The benefits encompass extended families, the local economy, and taxpayers, as a more educated and rehabilitated population translates into a more productive and law-abiding society. Education within the prison

system is not just about offender rehabilitation; it is a strategic investment in the welfare and security of the larger community.

When prisoners leave jail with a higher level of education than when they arrived, positive effects cascade into the society. Education initiatives in jail have been shown time and time again to assist in giving prisoners a second chance. In fact, compared to people who did not participate in educational courses, prisoners who did so had a 43% lower chance of committing a crime and ending up back in jail after three years. The data demonstrating the benefits of delivering educational courses to prisoners has influenced changes in the range of educational options available to prisoners. When prisoners leave jail with a higher level of education than when they arrived, positive effects cascade into the society. When an ex-offender returns to the workforce, it benefits the extended family, the local economy, and the taxpayers since fewer individuals are behind bars.

2.2.6 Vocational Training

Correctional Vocational Educational Programmes are seen to be the most effective means of ending the cycle of recidivism, according to Simms et al. (1987). The goal of these courses is to provide prisoners current, employable skills relevant to certain vocations outside of prison. For prisoners who already possess some of the necessary skills, these classes can serve as a refresher or a way to improve their abilities. Unlike academic education, which may take place in a variety of settings, vocational programmes need to be conducted in stores that replicate real-world work environments as much as feasible.

Vocational training within the correctional system is widely regarded as a cornerstone in the effort to break the cycle of recidivism. As Simms et al. (1987) emphasize, these programs play a pivotal role in providing inmates with marketable skills that are directly relevant to job opportunities upon reentry into society. These courses not only serve as a means to equip inmates with new skills but also offer a valuable opportunity for those with pre-existing skills to enhance and refresh their knowledge. Unlike traditional academic instruction, vocational programs necessitate specialized facilities that replicate real workplace environments. The real-world focus of vocational training is instrumental in preparing inmates for the challenges they will face when seeking employment after their release.

Trades and industry, office education, development, farm shops, dry cleaning, shoe maintenance, appliance repair, car repair and bodywork, building trades, and food service are among the fields covered by the basic training course (Adler, 1995). According to Owino (2007), prison industries in Kenya specifically cover the following areas: Agriculture and horticulture; Carpentry and Joinery; Tailoring and Dress making; Metal work; Crocheting; Embroidery; Handicraft; Hair Dressing; Polishing, Painting; Sign Writing; Upholstery; Stone/Wood Carving and Landscaping.

The scope of vocational training programs is diverse, catering to a wide range of skill sets and interests. Adler (1995) outlines various training areas, encompassing trades and industrial skills, office education, construction, farm-related trades, dry-cleaning, shoe repair, appliance repair, auto repair and bodywork, building trades, and food service. This spectrum ensures that inmates have the opportunity to acquire skills that

align with their interests and the demands of the job market. Vocational training transcends traditional boundaries, offering an inclusive approach to rehabilitation by addressing the specific vocational needs of incarcerated individuals.

The overcrowding of the prison population and the surrounding environment made it difficult to accomplish these goals. Prior to 2003, the majority of Kenyan jails were unable to carry out their rehabilitation duties because of a persistent lack of tools and supplies for businesses and agriculture, among other reasons. Since 2003, the majority of jails have benefited from contributions of industrial machinery and raw materials from well-wishers, which has boosted inmate reintegration through vocational training. This is explained by the open door approach, which has brought attention to issues that inmates experience. The principle of open doors has also made prisons more visible to the outside world and reduced the possibility of using force to coerce inmates to labour (KNCHR, 2005).

The effectiveness of vocational training programs in the prison environment has faced challenges rooted in the environment and overcrowding. Prior to 2003 in Kenya, most prisons struggled to fulfill their rehabilitation objectives due to chronic shortages of equipment and raw materials essential for prison industries and farms. This limitation hindered the comprehensive implementation of vocational training initiatives. However, after 2003, rehabilitation through vocational training has improved substantially, primarily driven by the generosity of well-wishers who have donated industrial equipment and raw materials to most prisons (Owino, 2007). The positive shift in the rehabilitation landscape can be attributed to the open-door policy, which not only highlights the issues faced by prisoners but also opens prisons to external

scrutiny regarding the use of force in compelling prisoners to work, in line with international human rights standards (KNCHR, 2005).

Beyond individual rehabilitation, vocational training programs have a broader impact on both incarcerated individuals and society as a whole. The acquisition of marketable skills equips inmates with tools for self-sufficiency upon reentry into the community. This not only enhances their employability but also contributes to their overall well-being. Furthermore, the positive outcomes of vocational training extend to the community at large. Reduced recidivism rates benefit society by fostering a safer environment and reducing the financial burden of incarceration. In sum, vocational training represents an investment in the future, not only for inmates seeking a second chance but also for society, which stands to gain from a rehabilitated and productive citizenry. The role of vocational training in the rehabilitation and reintegration of incarcerated individuals is undeniably profound, with far-reaching benefits for individuals, communities, and the criminal justice system itself.

2.2.7 Employment Rehabilitation

When detained, inmates who participate in prison job training programmes are more likely to find employment after their release. One of the primary causes of recidivism worldwide is the incapacity to get and retain employment. Reentry into society by ex-offenders without employable skills sets off a chain reaction that frequently results in new crimes. Obtaining meaningful job is necessary to break the cycle and become a contributing member of society. Self-sufficiency has psychological and economical benefits. For a person newly re-entering society, the self-esteem and fulfillment that can come from A significant factor in reducing criminal activity is hard effort. Many

prisoners have the option to take part in job programmes while they are incarcerated. These courses provide a dependable method of becoming ready for the workforce. Participation teaches participants qualities like accountability, deadlines, responsibility, and punctuality. Prison employment projects provide many more advantages than only job training.

The foregoing literature on the social support services and rehabilitation programmes provided to prisoners was mainly sourced from studies done in other countries. The main objective of such programmes was to keep prisoners physically and mentally well, offer comfort and consolations as well as preparing them become productive members of society through gainful employment. Having observed that there was an underfunding of prison programmes in Kenya, there was possibility that the overall objective of the same would not be realized. There was also lack of systematic counseling programmes due lack of funding (KNCHR, KPSP, 2005-2009). This coupled with shortage of equipment for industries and farms (KNCHR, 2005) was likely to undermine the ability of released prisoners to reintegrate successfully into the society. Consequently, the current study assessed the social support and rehabilitation programmes offered in Kenyan prisons and how they influenced their post-release lives. An attempt was made to see if the programmes helped ex-prisoners utilize the services and skills acquired to cope with life out of prison. Reduced recidivism would indicate success of the programmes in helping to transform prisoners to be law abiding citizens.

The role of employment in the successful reintegration of former inmates into society cannot be overstated. In many countries, the inability to secure and maintain gainful

employment stands as a significant contributor to recidivism. The absence of marketable skills upon reentry into society creates a precarious situation where individuals may turn to criminal activities as a means of survival. The lack of employment opportunities can trigger a chain reaction, leading to a cycle of reoffending (Zurcher, 2023). Breaking this cycle hinges on the opportunity to transition into productive members of society through gainful employment. Beyond the financial benefits, employment fosters mental well-being and self-esteem. For individuals newly re-entering society, the fulfillment derived from honest work can play a pivotal role in reducing criminal behavior (Becker, 2022).

Paragraph 2: The Role of Prison Work Programs

Prison work programs represent a pivotal component in preparing inmates for gainful employment upon their release. These programs extend beyond mere job training; they provide a structured environment for inmates to acquire essential skills for the workforce. Skills such as punctuality, responsibility, meeting deadlines, and being accountable are instilled through active participation. The benefits of prison work programs transcend the development of practical skills; they nurture a sense of discipline and a strong work ethic. Inmates who engage in these programs are more likely to exhibit the traits that employers seek, thereby enhancing their employability upon reentry into society (Ahalt,, 2020).

Paragraph 3: Challenges in Implementing Rehabilitation Programs in Kenya
The preceding literature has predominantly drawn from international studies on social support services and rehabilitation programs for prisoners. The primary objective of

such programs is to safeguard the physical and mental well-being of prisoners, offer them comfort, and prepare them for productive reintegration into society through gainful employment. However, the assessment of these programs within the context of Kenya reveals challenges. Underfunding of prison programs in the country raises concerns about the effective realization of these programs' overall objectives. There is also a notable absence of systematic counseling programs due to insufficient funding (KNCHR, KPSP, 2005-2009). Furthermore, the shortage of equipment for prison industries and farms (KNCHR, 2005) poses a significant hurdle to the successful reintegration of released prisoners into society. Thus, it becomes imperative to assess the efficacy of these social support and rehabilitation programs in the Kenyan context, evaluating how they influence the post-release lives of inmates and their ability to effectively use the services and skills acquired to cope with life outside of prison. Reduced recidivism rates serve as a key indicator of the success of these programs in the transformation of prisoners into law-abiding citizens (Haviv and Hasisi, 2019).

2.3 Social Relations and Imprisonment

2.3.1 Social Relations during Imprisonment

An overview of the research on how relationships alter while incarcerated and how they fare after release from prison during community reintegration is given in this section. The times of incarceration for spouses may have brought about a variety of changes in relationships. In a study of males jailed, the majority of the men (82%) said that their incarceration caused considerable issues for their loved ones (Day, Acokk & Arditty 2005). In fact, studies have indicated that incarceration lowers the likelihood of marriage among unmarried jailed males (Lopoo & Western, 2005) and

increases the risk that marriages would result in divorce (Western, Lompoo and McLanahan, 2004; Travis & Waul, 2003).

"Incarceration and Men" previously detailed many different psychological changes that men experienced in their roles as dads and partners. Nonetheless, this article covered some of the most typical modifications to partner relationships that occur during jail time. These include fewer interactions, societal stigma and lack of support, diminished relationship trust, and less chances for relationship upkeep. As previously said, losing a family member physically can be one of the more obvious effects of having an inmate, and this also applies to partnerships where the male spouse is detained. The number of visits that partners are allowed is frequently restricted by policies in correctional facilities (Day, Acokk, & Arditty 2005; Hairston, Rolin, & Jo, 2004; Nurse, 2002). For reasons unconnected to the rules of the correctional facility, some spouses, however, could decide not to see their jailed spouse.

Of the 51 prisoners in Day et al. (2005)'s sample, 65 percent said their partners had not visited them while they were incarcerated. This was one among numerous markers in the study that seemed to show a binary relationship between spousal assistance for prisoners and the frequency of spouse visits (Day et al., 2005). Furthermore, 41% of the males in our group said they had little to no communication between their relationship partners by mail or phone. Reduced communication may also happen when prisoners are sent to prisons far from the communities where their spouses live (Nurse, 2002; Clear et al., 2002).

There is no denying that jails keep inmates apart from their loved ones and close

companions. Nearly all incarcerated individuals are a part of some meaningful social network. Strong relationships between convicts and their networks of close friends and family members seem to have a beneficial effect on their success after being released from jail (Solomon et al., 2001; Travis, 2005; Visher & Travis, 2003). Distance is a significant aspect in this equation. Prison acts as a substantial obstacle to maintaining or [re]developing supporting links among the inmate and his or her loved ones or other personal supports (Solomon et al., 2001; Travis, 2005; Visher & Travis, 2003). According to Mumola (2000) and Travis, Mcbride, and Solomon (2005), the majority of state inmates (62%) are housed in institutions that are more than 100 miles from their places of residence. Travis (2005) reports that in a 2003 investigation conducted by the Bureau of Statistics on Justice (BJS), researchers discovered a connection between family visits and distance: the length of time inmates spent away from their homes affected how often they saw friends and family.

The proportion of prisoners without visitors increased with the distance between the jail and the inmate's home; inmates with nearby residences received the greatest number of visits." Many relatives were unable to visit due to geographic distance, and for those who did, the trip may result in additional financial obligations. (Lynch & Sabol, 2001) discovered that as a jail sentence lengthened, so did the number of letters, phone conversations, and inmate visits with loved ones. Unfortunately, in some states, state prisoners are only allowed visits by their biological family members; prisoners are not allowed to define the "family" relationships that matter most to them (Klein, Bartholomew & Hibbert, 2002; Travis, 2005). Unrelated family members are not permitted to visit a prisoner. The true nature of family networks is

overlaid with distinctions based on biology and legality, which restricts meaningful interaction that may have a positive impact on the prisoner and their family (Klein et al., 2002; Travis, 2005).

2.3.2 Lack of Social Support and Stigma

Couples whose spouse is jailed may also experience significant changes in their relationship due to the stigma and diminished social support that frequently accompanies a family member's imprisonment. According to several studies (Arditti, Lambert-Shute & Joest, 2003; Braman & Wood, 2003; Hairston, 2003; Nurse, 2002; Travis & Waul, 2003), stigma is rather widespread among the relatives of those behind bars. However, diminished support and a refusal to see partnerships as valid for couples are two ways that societal rejection might show up (Carson & Cervera, 1992; Nurse, 2002). Maternal family support, or encouragement from the female partner's family, for the pair's relationship considerably declined following the male partner's incarceration, according to a study from Nurse's (2002) sample of young men in prison. According to the women of detained male partners in the (Carson & Cervera, 1992) sample, staff members at correctional facilities frequently saw their relationships as illegitimate, especially if they weren't married. This frequently had a detrimental impact on their visits with their partners.

2.3.3 Lowered Relationship Trust

A prevalent observation among incarcerated couples was a decline in trust during the jail term. A male spouse's incarceration frequently reverses the power dynamics between men and women, which can lead to mistrust in the relationship, particularly towards the female partner. Men in Nurse's (2002) sample, for example, reported

experiencing the "summer shake," wherein women would give up with their male partners who were incarcerated, and men would explain this by saying that the women dressed up for the summer, went out with their female friends, and possibly found new partners. The guys in the same sample (Nurse, 2002) expressed intense sentiments of helplessness over their spouses' actions while they were behind bars. They heard statements about women's behaviour from other prisoners, such as "don't trust your baby's mama" and "all women are identical and they all lie once you're behind bars," which reinforced their sentiments of helplessness and mistrust.

In addition, males stated that throughout their incarceration, they frequently heard reports from friends and relatives about their spouses' alleged infidelity, which also had an impact on their trust (Nurse, 2002). Even though they had no proof that their partners had been lying on them, some men even ended dating relationships with partners in order to shield themselves from the hurt they knew would follow from having their fears verified by messages from other prisoners or rumours from friends and family (Nurse, 2002). It's possible that males used this as a means of regaining some of the authority they believed they had lost because of their incarceration in their marriages. Nurse (2002) noted a "siege mentality," in which many imprisoned males felt that women purposefully caused them emotional suffering and enjoyed doing so, as well as inter-gender hatred. As a result, when a male partner was imprisoned, trust in couple relationships suffered greatly.

2.3.4 Decreased Opportunities for Relationship Maintenance

Even though the hardship of a partner's imprisonment often leads to the breakdown of pair relationships, it might be difficult for those couples who want to keep their

relationship going. Couples are typically denied sexual contact and are unable to participate in the regular exchanges, situations, and sharing that keep marriages and other close adult relationships alive, based on Hairston et al. (2004). Actually, according to Rosen (2001), the majority of governments oppose the concept of allowing conjugal visits between inmates and their lovers. In an interview conducted by Comfortt et al. (2005), women who had male companions jailed shared their experiences of having their visits severely restricted and closely monitored, with many reporting that women's actions and attire were frequently misinterpreted by correctional staff as improper or sexual. Correctional officials occasionally saw basic physical contact, including placing a hand on a partner's knee or massaging their back, as improper and immediately interrupted such interactions.

In a severe instance, a lady said that her companion, a correctional officer, had urged her to eat her Popsicle in a different way since it was purported that her eating habits were sending out sexual signals (Comfort et al., 2005). There were so many restrictions on intimacy that several of the women in our sample stated that the only "place" they and each other could comfortably share intimacy was in their imaginations. In partner relationships where the man is jailed, emotions of pessimism and loneliness develop due to limited opportunities for relationship maintenance (Hairston, 2003; Segrin & Flora, 2001). (Segrin & Flora, 2001) discovered that married convicts experienced higher degrees of loneliness than married spouses who were not detained in their study of 96 married prison inmates. The situation is not entirely hopeless, yet, since this sample of detained spouses' restricted possibilities for

interaction and relationship maintenance were mitigated by their higher quality and more favourable marital histories.

2.3.5 Changes during Re-entry

At some time, at least 95% of all State inmates are expected to be released from prison, according to the U.S. Department of Justice (2004). Almost 600,000 State inmates were freed in 2001 after completing their terms. Numerous studies have demonstrated that males, particularly fathers, may find it extremely difficult to adjust to the process of reentering society (Nurse, 2002; Clear & Rose, 2003; Travis, Solomon, & Waul, 2003). The following section provides a review of reentry changes that have been found to occur for incarcerated people including changes in their roles as partners, as fathers, and changes in other areas as well.

2.3.6 Status of Relationships during Reentry

The state of partner relationships during community reentry is often directly related to many of the changes that take place in couple relationships during periods of incarceration. Owing to these changes in their relationships while serving their sentences, prisoners and their partners frequently have to deal with issues relating to power imbalances, expectations being broken, and problems arising from one or both of them entering new, close relationships upon release.

2.3.6.1 Power Differences

As previously mentioned, the power imbalance amongst men and women is frequently reversed when a male spouse is incarcerated. Women frequently gain greater power after being released from jail, even if males may have had more authority and control over their female companions before to their incarceration

(Nurse, 2002). When their male spouse is incarcerated, women frequently become more self-sufficient and independent out of need. The shifts in their levels of authority and autonomy may come as a surprise to the men when they return home (Nurse, 2002; Roy & Dyson, 2005). In addition, many women have more influence over their male partners since parolees have the ability—and occasionally do—to report parole infractions to law enforcement (Nurse, 2002). The relationships between a male spouse and his children may also be impacted by these power imbalances. When Roy and Dyson (2005) interviewed 40 men serving prison sentences about their life histories, several of them disclosed that their moms had discouraged them from staying in touch with their children after serving time in prison. Children of jailed people frequently exhibit poor mental and behavioural health, greater loneliness and stigma, increased violence and delinquency, and poorer educational performance (Shannon & Uggen, 2020). Families are also exposed to a range of psychological risks. Children may not receive enough supervision when a parent works since that parent is now the family's primary provider of money (Clear, 2019; Hannon & DeFina, 2018). Because childcare requirements can drastically reduce the time and flexibility needed to obtain and maintain a career, the loss of a parent to imprisonment reduces the earning capability of the surviving parent (Hannon & DeFina, 2019). Children's fears of going to prison can be lessened by the high rates of incarceration they witness in their communities, which normalises incarceration (Hannon & DeFina, 2018).

Upon release from prison, a person's housing options may be restricted by their state, family location, income, and the offence for which they were convicted (Pinard, 2018). Following

their release from prison, ex-offenders are subject to additional fines referred to as collateral consequences, or collateral sanctions. These fines can come from the federal, state, or local governments and impose limitations on their ability to vote, work, obtain a licence, or receive public benefits (Ewald, 2017). People with criminal histories frequently have trouble finding work, are paid less than average, and may have inconsistent employment.

According to research, a person's family is crucial to their effective reintegration into the society (Fontaine et al., 2018; Mowen & Visher, 2019). Reentry participants state that family plays a critical role in their success since, when returning home, they rely on their relatives for support services such accommodation, food, money, referrals, and/or job placement information (Fontaine, 2018; Fontaine et al., 2019). Family has the power to influence recidivism rates by giving rehabilitating persons social control and support, both of which can lower recidivism rates (Charkoudian et al., 2018).

The prisoner has a profound and escalating sense of loss of connection with others as a result of their permanent estrangement from their personal relationships, including their biological ties. The fact that the convicts miss out on the routine activities which make up family life, which affects many of them deeply, provides a compelling explanation for the loss (Johnson, 2018). Lifers are deprived of the opportunity to witness their offspring's development. Additionally, they are deprived of the chance to experience these kids' companionship as they navigate different life phases, such as attending school, getting married, and beginning a family (McGunigall-Smith, 2017). Since they are unable to provide for and mentor their children in the way that they would have liked, these prisoners realise that they are not able to be parenting in the

traditional meaning of the word. According to McGunigall-Smith (2017), the parent who is incarcerated will also not be around to give the children advice on important matters like starting a family, to give them a pat on the back, or to pick them up as they fall. The most difficult thing for a lifer to deal with is the act of being present in an unfavourable setting while missing out on the opportunity to connect with family members (McGunigall-Smith, 2017; Johnson & McGunigall-Smith, 2016). Lifers understand that familial ties would probably deteriorate with time and that some family members—most notably, their parents—may pass away while they are nevertheless alive but incarcerated. It may be a devastating blow to lose a parent, and it's likely the toughest thing they've ever had to cope with. This is especially true if the inmate is unable to attend the burial of their parents or any other close family member (McGunigall-Smith, 2017).

The unpleasant reality that the life condemned prisoner could one day find himself entirely alone, without outside assistance or care, must be accepted. This demonstrates that a life sentence results in severe family disruption and, in the worst situations, complete family disintegration. Prisoners are prone to over-involve themselves in the day-to-day activities of prison life and to conceal their weakness and helplessness in order to endure the mental pain brought on by the social collapse. As a result, they are unable to sustain the proper dynamics of regular interpersonal connections, which may have a negative impact on the emotional wellbeing of the prisoners. Gust (2018) asserts that incarceration has a negative effect on living arrangements and family dynamics. It also strains family ties, adds financial hardship, produces significant emotional stress, and breeds stigma that affects both the prisoner and their family.

According to Crewe et al. (2017), compared to their male counterparts, six times more life-imprisioned females reported self-harm or attempted suicide after their conviction.

Complete social disengagement may result from the prisoners' general social isolation. Beyond only physical seclusion, lifers have the ability to withdraw even more inside themselves (Craig 2017). Withdrawal progresses gradually as an outcome of being cut off from social interactions and ultimately feeling lost or alienated. The lifers will probably become nervous and uneasy in the company of other prisoners or outsiders as a result of being afraid of them. According to a research by Bonta and Gendreau (2018), certain prisoners may experience a decline in their self-esteem and job evaluations as well as social introversion and resentment as a result of prolonged incarceration. Additionally, incarceration is likely to undermine community ties over time and result in a reliance on staff workers for guidance.

Long-term incarceration typically has the inevitable consequence of social isolation. When criminals are taken out of their social circles, they frequently lose touch with their previous lives. Grounds and Jamieson (2017) observed in their research on the mental well-being of life-long and life-sentenced inmates in connection to incarceration that distancing from the group and avoiding them were often accepted coping mechanisms in prison. These included withdrawing from others, keeping one's sentiments to oneself, avoiding conversation, repressing future-focused ideas, and masking depressive symptoms. Additionally, their research showed that during visits and other times of engagement, the men who were lifers and their relatives concealed their concerns from one another. The purpose of doing this was to maintain familial

relationships (Grounds, 2003; Grounds and Jamieson, 2016). The males lost understanding and intimacy with their families as a result of their false belief. A decreased connection to society among the prisoners was noted in a research by Zebhauser et al. (2018), and this was a sign of loneliness for both male and female convicts.

One of the most important consequences of long-term incarceration is social isolation and lack of touch with the outside world (Crewe, Hulley, & Wright, 2016). As a component of social isolation, loneliness has been linked to a number of detrimental mental consequences, including depression, suicidal thoughts and feelings, diminished positive emotions, overall illness, and physical alterations (Victor & Yang, 2019; Heinrich & Gullone, 2016). Many inmates learn that they can find safety in interpersonal inconspicuousness by avoiding obtrusive social interaction as much as possible as an outcome of this social loss (Haney, 2019). They may turn inward, trust almost no one, and adapt to jail stress by living solitary, silent lives of despair as a result of their self-inflicted social disengagement and alienation. Haney (2018) goes on to say that because of their lowered sense of value and worth, long-term inmates are particularly susceptible to this type of psychological adaptation. This is via accepting their circumstances as they are, a process known as contextual withdrawal or particular emotional withdrawal. Penal Renewal International (2018) states that compared to other offenders, life sentenced convicts frequently face worse living conditions, little human interaction, and little to no access to significant tasks or rehabilitation programmes. Furthermore, although though communication with the outside world is crucial for supporting life sentence convicts' rehabilitation and

safeguarding their mental health, it is frequently prohibited for them. Consequently, the lifers become psychologically ill due to their emotional instability. However, aloneness has been linked to indicators of social integration such romantic partnerships, perceived social support, and acceptability, according to a study done by Doane (2011).

Liebling, Arnold, and Straub (2017) claim that social relationships among inmates can grow complex and less obvious. There are genuine risks of severe violence within the jail and within some inmate groups, where there is a lot of authority dynamics. High levels of anxiousness are the result in the penitentiary. Crewe (2018a) noted that in terms of relationships between convicts, indeterminate inmates were less likely to form close bonds with those serving different sentences. This helped the lifers become less emotionally vulnerable and less dependent on others, which decreased their chance of being engaged in situations that would jeopardise their progress towards rehabilitation and environment adjustment in jail. As a result, the convicts face the difficulty of managing their tense and fragile relationships with their other inmates, particularly when it comes to ending friendships. According to Crewe (2018a); Johnson and Dobrzanska (2019), lifers keep their distance from most other inmates mainly to avoid becoming involved in actions that may jeopardise their advancement. According to Lerman (2019), incarceration can also teach inmates to embrace or ingrain antisocial norms, which support viewpoints that are detrimental to compliance. In a similar vein, it may cause a wedge between the staff and the inmates or amongst the inmates themselves, making people feel alone and alienated from law enforcement, correctional personnel, or society at large.

2.3.6.2 Violated Expectations

Reentry expectations differ greatly from relationship expectations, which can occasionally make it challenging for couples to connect well to one another. For instance, Nurse (2002) discovered that when men's prison pledges were broken, the female spouses of those men frequently experienced a decline in confidence when the men were released from prison. Males frequently made promises to improve their relationships with women, to stop doing things illegally, and to provide their families better life.

Particularly when the male spouses were arrested or re-imprisioned, the confidence of the female partners declined (Nurse, 2002). The difficulties of even getting used to living together on a daily basis might be another source of contention for couples who made a concerted effort to keep their bonds intact throughout the man's imprisonment. For example, some partners had no choice but to maintain their intimacy with one another in "alternative spaces" such as their imaginations and "when relationships are created and maintained in fictional, imaginative places, release from prison into the hardships of reality [can be] particularly problematic (Comfort *et al*. 2005).

Another way in which expectations for post-prison life can violate expectations and affect partner relationships is the adjustment to psychological changes that many men experience during periods of incarceration. It is clear that for some women these changes violate post-incarceration relationship expectations, as many have reported that they felt they were meeting new people when their partners returned home from prison (Nurse, 2002).

2.3.6.3 New Intimate Relationships

Since some relationship partners develop new partnerships with new partners during periods of incarceration, moving from the category of "romantic partners" to "co-parents" can cause significant problems for many. The terms "intimate partners" and "co-parenting partners" refer to people who have a romantic connection and co-parent children together, respectively; neither term is exclusive of each other. When jailed males rejoined to their hometowns and discovered that their former spouses were in new relationships, Nurse (2002) discovered that three severe concerns emerged. The initial finding was that males frequently had a hard time getting along with their ex-love partners' new spouses. Secondly, males were frequently envious of their new companions. Lastly, a number of males said they felt intimidated by their ex-partners' new companions, particularly if the newlyweds spent a lot of time with their kids. Tensions arose similarly when the guys who were technically imprisoned sought new spouses. These harmful behaviours frequently had detrimental effects on the children, and as a result of the tensions they caused, some men withdrew from their fathering responsibilities.

2.3.6.4 Partner Role Changes

One of the most profound psychological changes that occur for incarcerated men is a process referred to as "institutionalization" (Haney, 2003). It may also be referred to as "prisonization" when it takes place in correctional settings, but in general "it is the shorthand expression for the broad, negative psychological effects of imprisonment" and "involves the incorporation of the norms of prison life into ones habits of thinking, feeling, and acting" (Haney, 2003). Seven of the "psychological

adaptations" of institutionalization were outlined by Haney (2003): …dependence on institutional structure and contingencies; hypervigilance, interpersonal distrust, and suspicion; emotional over control, alienation, and psychological distancing; social withdrawal and isolation; incorporation of exploitative norms of prison culture; diminished sense of self-worth and personal value; posttraumatic stress reactions to the pains of imprisonment.

According to Haney (2003), the institutionalisation process does not always result in pathology because it enables convicts to adjust to and cope with the realities of life behind bars. On the other hand, dysfunctionality may arise when a person is unable to adequately acclimatise to life outside of prison. However, this procedure may cause a rift in the relationships that prisoners have with their spouses during their incarceration long before they are released. For instance, prisoners' intimate sentiments and emotional reactions may be concealed through taught behaviours, which can lead to communication issues between them and their spouses (Haney, 2003).

Segrin and Flora (2001) discovered that married prisoners reported feeling more alone the longer they were detained and the longer the prisonization process took place. They hypothesise that there will be "a greater discrepancy among desired and realised intimacy with that spouse" the longer a person stays in the facility and away from their spouse. As a result, prisonization can alter the roles that males serve as co-parents or intimate partners by limiting the levels of closeness and emotional ties that they are able to share. Men's responsibilities as partners may also be altered by incarceration by the process of "hard timing." Nurse (2002) identified this process

among imprisoned young men in California and described it as a process whereby they intentionally cut themselves off from their family and friends as a psychological coping strategy to manage personal feelings of guilt and absence. Nurse (2002) found that hard timing can block interactions with inmates" children. However, interactions with men's partners are probably just as likely to be blocked by hard timing when it occurs.

Other changes can potentially occur in partner relationships during incarceration due to the prevalence of "misogynistic talk" among male inmates. This term refers to the practice of inmates speaking of women in negative, exploitive ways in order to assert their masculinity and power among fellow inmates and bond with other men in prison (Nurse, 2002). This talk can influence the perceptions of some inmates, particularly if they are highly impressionable, and these changed perceptions may in turn influence the ways that men interact and relate to their partners, leading to decreased relationship functioning.

The author, further noted that upon reentry men often felt tremendous pressure to live up to the high expectations that they set for themselves to be better partners. During their imprisonment and separation from their partners, there may have been promises made to their girlfriends, wives, or the mothers of their children which they find hard to keep during reentry. This could lead to breakups or divorces for couples, or interruptions in contact with co-parents. The association between prison and family dissolution is particularly disturbing given evidence showing that strong family relations may be the key to helping men make a successful transition out of prison"). Thus, men's appraisals of themselves during reentry are especially important to the

maintenance of partner relationships.

2.3.6.5 The Effects of Imprisonment on Partners of Prisoners

Imprisonment of a partner can be emotionally devastating and practically debilitating. Loss of income, social isolation, difficulties of maintaining contact, deterioration in relationships, and extra burdens of childcare can compound a sense of loss and hopelessness for prisoners' partners. Unfortunately, prisoners' families have been studied almost entirely with reference to male prisoners' partners and wives. Limited research suggests that the impact on prisoners' spouses is generally more severe than on parents (Ferraro, Johnson, Jorgensen and Bolton, 1983).

Although parents and other family members can also suffer practical and psychological difficulties (McDermott & King, 1992; Noble, 1995). By far the most comprehensive study of prisoners' wives was conducted by Pauline Morris, who interviewed 825 imprisoned men in England and 469 of their wives (Morris, 1965). Morris found that imprisonment of a husband was generally experienced as a crisis of family dismemberment rather than a crisis of demoralization through stigma or shame. Stigma was experienced almost exclusively by wives whose husbands were imprisoned for the first time, and then only at the initial stages of the separation. Among the most common problems reported, 63 per cent of wives said they experienced deterioration in their financial situation; 81 per cent some deterioration in their work; 46% deterioration in present attitude to marriage and future plans; 63% deterioration in social activity; 60% deterioration in relationships with in-laws; and 57% deterioration in relationships with friends and neighbors.

Since Morris's early work, other studies of prisoners' partners and wives have found remarkably similar themes across the UK, the US, Ireland and Australia. Studies consistently report that loss of income is one of the most important difficulties faced by partners of male prisoners (Anderson, 1966; Ferraro, et al., 1983; (McEvoy, O'Mahony, Horner, and Lyner, 1999; Noble 1995; Richards, McWilliams, Allcock, Enterkin, Owens and Woodrow, 1994; Schneller, 1976). Sharp & Marcus-Mendoza, (2001) found that imprisoning mothers also caused a drastic reduction in family income. Loss of income is compounded by additional expenses of prison visits, mail, telephone calls (especially if prisoners call collects, as in the US) and sending money to imprisoned relatives. As one family member put it, 'it becomes so expensive, and the cost becomes so enormous that it takes away other things that you could be doing with your money ... I have to look out for my well-being and my children's well-being, because I'm the only source of income they have' (Braman and Wood 2003). Imprisonment of a partner can also cause home moves (Noble 1995), divorce and relationship problems (Anderson 1966; Ferraro *et al* 1983; McEvoy *et al* 1999) and medical and health problems (Ferraro *et al* 1983; McEvoy *et al* 1999; Noble 1995). Partners with children face single parenthood at a particularly vulnerable time ((Peart & Asquith, 1992). As well as having to deal with their own problems, partners are expected to support prisoners and to look after children, who are likely to be particularly hard to manage if their parent has been imprisoned. Partners face other difficulties that are more intrinsic to the facts of imprisonment (see Irwin and Owen, this volume). Prisoners' partners can suffer because of a lack of information about the imprisonment, visiting, and contact procedures (Ferraro *et al* 1983). Keeping in touch might be challenging due to things like long wait times for appointments, problematic

visiting hours, lack of transport, and the expense and distance of trip (Hounslow, Stephenson, Stweart and Crancher, 1982). Exacerbating these challenges, jails are plainly not family-friendly locations to visit. Families, particularly those with children, may decide not to come due to unfavourable staff attitudes and subpar amenities (Peart and Asquith, 1992).

Despite the fact that spouses and relatives of prisoners frequently face the same difficulties, there is a growing understanding that these groups are not all the same. Prison consequences on family members are expected to vary depending on past connections, types of offences, social support networks, and other sociodemographic characteristics, among cultural and penal contexts. (Light, 1995) discovered that the English criminal system subjected the relatives of black detainees to extra persecution. According to research by Richards and colleagues, some relatives of foreign nationals incarcerated in British jails have unique challenges since their relative's incarceration provides solace from challenging or violent conduct at home (Richards, et al., 1994). We must determine how the consequences of incarceration on families change over time and among individuals.

McDermott and King (1992) made a distinction between the unique experiences of families dealing with varying sentence durations, the overwhelming insecurity throughout remand particularly trial, and the difficult time of arrest. The long-term repercussions of incarceration on families, however, are little understood. In particular, not much is known about how relationships are affected by a prisoner's release. Studies on prisoners indicate that the fact of reunion can provide significant challenges for inmates and their families. Partners frequently worry about how their

spouse will adjust when a prisoner returns home (Noble 1995). In summary, qualitative accounts have detailed the financial burdens, psychological traumas and practical difficulties that can accompany a relative's imprisonment. However, reliable measurement over time is almost nonexistent in studies of prisoners' families, making it hard to disentangle putative causes and effects.

2.3.6.6 The Effects of Imprisonment on Children of Prisoners

There are no accurate, up-to-date estimates of the numbers of imprisoned parents, or children of imprisoned parents, in the UK. The last National Prison Survey in England and Wales reported that 47 per cent of female prisoners and 32 per cent of male prisoners had children living with them before coming to prison (Dodd and Hunter, 1991. However, information was not collected on parenthood specifically in this survey. By contrast, in the US, inmate surveys have been conducted every five years since 1974, compiling detailed information on prisoners' children ((Johnson & Waldfogel, 2004). Mumola found that there were 1.5 million children with a currently imprisoned parent in the US in 1999; over half a million more than in 1991 (Mumola 2000).

Ninety-two per cent had a father in prison. Parental imprisonment disproportionately affected black children by 7% and Hispanic children by 2.6%, compared to white children with 0.8 %. Prisoners' children have been variously referred to as the 'orphans of justice' (Shaw, 1992), the 'forgotten victims' of crime and the 'Cinderella of penology' (Shaw 1987). During the period of their parent's incarceration, children may experience a variety of issues, including depression, hyperactivity, aggressive behaviour, withdrawal from substances, regression, clinging behaviour, sleep disorders, eating disorders, running away, truancy, and low academic performance

(Boswell & Wedge, 2002; Johnston, 1995; Kampfner, 1995; Sack et al., 1976). It is sometimes stated that, in contrast to 10% of the general population, up to 30% of children incarcerated experience mental health issues (Philbrick, 1996).

There doesn't seem to be any published proof, though, to back up this assertion. According to Morris's research, 49% of wives of prisoners said their husbands' incarceration had negatively impacted their children's conduct (Morris 1965). Despite the fact that the participants' ethnic backgrounds were not well matched, Friedman discovered that offspring of jail convicts frequently scored worse than average on social, psychological, and intellectual traits in the classroom when compared to controls (Friedman & Esselstyn, 1965). These findings point to a link between parental incarceration and a higher likelihood of mental health issues in kids. However, research using representative samples, well-validated instruments, and relevant comparison data is required to ascertain the precise increase in risk for mental health issues linked to parental incarceration.

Whether parental incarceration leads to criminal activity and antisocial conduct in the offspring is a crucial subject for punishment. According to anecdotal data, children who experience parental incarceration may exhibit antisocial behaviours (Johnston 1995; Sack 1977; Sack and Seidler 1978). When a police officer saw one of the boys in Morris's research tinkering with automobile locks, the youngster announced his determination to go to prison alongside his father (Morris, 1965). It's a common misconception that children of inmates have a six-fold higher likelihood of becoming convicts than peers. But this assertion doesn't seem to be backed up by any documentation (Johnston 1995, referenced in Myers, Smarsh, Amlund-Hagen &

Kennon, 1999). The prospective examination of crime in later life among children whose parents were imprisoned has only been done in one research. The literature is replete with assumptions about how parental incarceration affects children's psychological development. While it seems sense to assume that parental incarceration makes kids respond negatively, research hasn't been sophisticated enough methodologically to separate the impacts of parental incarceration from the impact of other factors on kids. Finding the causes of the results that convicts' children experience is essential to creating the best possible remedies for their issues.

A review of the above literature based mainly on studies done in the United States, United Kingdom, Ireland and Australia paint a grim picture of how relationships were negatively affected by the incarceration of a partner. In the absence of literature touching on how social relations affected prisoners' post-release lives in Kenya, it was difficult to understand the situation until facts were established through empirical means hence the importance of the current study. It can only be assumed that where family and social network contacts were maintained with the prisoner during incarceration, there was the likelihood that positive relations would persist after release and ex-prisoners would easily fit into the family and the community.

Considering that African culture is different in many respects to Western culture where studies have revealed dire strains in family and power relations owing to imprisonment of a partner, it was possible that our situation was different. Strong extended family ties would come in handy to support a prisoner's family during his/her absence. Ours being a patrilineal society, there was the likelihood that power status quo would be maintained during the absence and after the release of a partner.

Still, most of the reviewed studies used male only samples therefore not providing a clear picture of how relations were affected when female partners were imprisoned. The current study used a sample comprising both sexes to provide a wider perspective of the issue.

2.4 Ex-Prisoners' Livelihood Strategies and Effect on their Post Release Wellbeing

Due to the obstacles they encounter in obtaining work and the hurdles they had in obtaining and retaining public assistance while jailed, ex-offenders are particularly vulnerable to economic insecurity. Economic security and stability are highly challenging due to the difficulties ex-offenders have in obtaining stable jobs, assistance from the government, and social support, as well as the challenges that this population faces, such as low levels of skilled labour and an elevated incidence of mental health issues and substance abuse. Few ex-offenders have assets, jobs, or additional assets waiting for them to return to the community when they are released from jail, and unemployment increases the likelihood of reoffending (Uggen, 2003). Social welfare policymakers have a dilemma in light of the economic instability of returning inmates, given the possible criticality of public and non-profit services for this population's access and effective usage. We know surprisingly little about how and why some people are able to secure assistance and assistance after being released from prison, which services and supports pave the way for long-term stability and economic independence, and how many economically vulnerable people return to their communities each year.

2.4.1 Employment/Job Market

Offenders released from confinement encounter a myriad of challenges with respect to securing employment. These include personal factors such as low self-esteem, low motivation, skills deficit, lack of training, mental illness, and substance abuse; a lack of stable accommodation; social factors such as negative peer influence, an absence of family support and a poor employment record (Visher, 2006; Graffam, Shinkfield, Lavelle, & McPherson, 2004). Obtaining legal employment is one of the best predictors of the post-release success of ex-prisoners (Winterfield and Coggeshal, 2005). Importantly, offenders have identified employment as a key factor in post-release success (Burke, 1997).

Some ex-prisoners come out and fight with the society which perceives them as unacceptable and try to look for jobs. In addition to institutional obstacles to reintegration, such as disclosing their convictions to numerous state agencies and prospective employers, ex-offenders must contend with discrimination from the community. A jail record frequently leaves an irreversible scar that seriously and profoundly hinders one's capacity to lead a regular life. A lot of convicts say it's hard for them to acquire jobs so they can pay their bills.

Many prisoners have limited education and work experience, which makes it difficult for them to secure employment after they are released. According to several studies, "about 70 percent of offenders and ex-offenders are high school dropouts. As a result of incarceration and involvement in the criminal justice system, many former prisoners are viewed negatively by former employers or by individuals within their former professional networks, if they previously had one. The combination of a limited professional network and a conspicuous résumé gap can make it very difficult

for ex-convicts to get an interview with a prospective employer. Some find it hard to earn a living and therefore depend on their family members.

Research has found that ex-prisoners who are able to secure a legitimate job, particularly higher-quality positions with higher wages are less likely to recidivate than those ex-prisoners without legitimate job opportunities. The utility of holding legitimate jobs has been explained with the application of social control theory, which posits that work operates as an informal mechanism of social control (Sampson and Laub, 1997). The utility of legal employment in reducing the risk of re-offending is supported by research conducted in the UK where an analysis of data gathered in the 2001 Resettlement Survey found that offenders nearing release who had secured paying, post-release jobs, believed that they were less likely to re-offend than offenders nearing release without post-incarceration secured jobs (Niven & Olagundoye, 2002). Similar results have been achieved in the U.S. with employment programmes sponsored by the Safer Foundation (Finn, 1999).

2.4.2 Substance Abuse/Peddling

Other prisoners venture in drug dealing where they consume or/and sell the drugs. Living in an atmosphere of violence and dread encourages drug selling and excessive alcohol use, which makes ex-prisoners hypervigilant and anxious. Following their release from jail, social isolation and severing ties to previous relationships are frequent outcomes of the loss of family and support systems that many convicts endure while incarcerated. Anxiety and despair after a discharge are frequent. Acute brain damage and chronic mental illness in all of its manifestations are other conditions that affect ex-offenders. Drug and alcohol dependence played a significant

role in the economic wellbeing of many ex-prisoners. Some struggle with homelessness and constant economic instability after release. Drug-dependent criminals find themselves in a never-ending cycle. The likelihood is that they will return and start committing crimes to fund their drug use if the addiction therapy they receive in jail is not continued upon their release from prison. Because the cycle of crime is maintained, criminals who do not receive the proper community support programmes may find themselves back in jail or prison repeatedly (Burrows, Clarke, Davidson, Tarling & Webb, 2001).

Offenders in correctional institutions often share the common attributes of high rates of drug use both prior to, and during, incarceration. Approximately 80% of offenders admitted to Canadian federal penitentiaries are identified as having a substance abuse problem that is associated with their criminal behavior on admission to prison (Holzer, 2004). When they are released, the ex-prisoners may find it difficult to cope with the outside world and they opt to return to use of drugs.

In a study conducted in the UK, data gathered through the Prison Criminality Survey of self-reported drug and alcohol use found one-half of the offenders surveyed reported that they had used heroin, crack, or cocaine in the year prior to their incarceration. Further, over one-half of the ex-offenders reported that their criminal behavior was linked to their drug use, in particular, to finance their habit (Harper and Chitty, 2004). In comparison, a quarter of ex- offenders who experienced alcohol abuse problems reported a link between their drinking and criminal behavior, which, they reported, resulted from lapses in judgment as a consequence of drinking

2.4.3 Family and Community Support/Dependency

When an offender reenters the community, their relatives may be able to provide support and aid. However, it should be recognised that the lack of family support is a typical characteristic shared by those who are in legal trouble. It is impossible to draw any conclusions about the elements that help or impede an offender's family from providing support because evaluation studies on the function and impact of the offender's family as a source of aid and support during the reintegration process are lacking (Beck, 2000). The community has been seen to begin working with prisoners and the departments of corrections before prisoners are released to arrange for jobs, housing, treatment, and health care upon release. They also meet prisoners upon release, helping navigate the first hours or days in the community. The community can also create or build on neighborhood-based networks of workforce development partners and local businesses that will target the preparation and employment of parolees (Beck, 2000).

A research done by (Bushway and Apel, 2012) showed that most ex-prisoners who were learned were able to secure a job immediately after they were released. Others stayed for a long period before they secured a job while others who attained the jobs had trouble maintaining the employment or both. The majority of female ex-offenders worked in restaurants, as cleaners, and in other social service industries. The majority of ex-offenders have modest incomes, which is inadequate to promote economic security or stability on its own. The majority of inmates just have the clothing on their backs when they are released from jail. Aside from a homeless shelter, the only housing options for those who do not enter a treatment programme or other

institutional living arrangement are family, friends, or love partners. For some ex-prisoners, the main route to upward mobility is strong and ongoing social support, typically from family or a love partner with significant social and economic means. For example, family or partners who can actively assist with employment by harnessing the social capital of their own job networks contributes to better paying jobs with possibilities for career advancement. Abundant family or partner resources also give former prisoners access to communities and institutions that promote upward mobility (Freudenberg, Crum, Perkins & Richie, 2005).

A case study of an ex -convict who worked in prison right after he was released recalls how life was after he was released. He was lucky to be taken for a job but his fear was that the job was in the prison where he was imprisoned. "I was afraid of small things: What if I did my taxes wrong and I am sent back to prison for real? What if I accidentally violated my parole?" was what ran through his mind when he was given the job. He recalls how the officers who came to get the services in his place of work treated him without respect. They used to demand for extra food without payment from him. They'd try to exert the same authority they had over him when he was locked up. The society in general seems to deter the ex-prisoners from moving on with their lives in the society (Petersilia, 2009).

There are programmes to include neighborhood-based organisations that may educate family members on how to assist formerly incarcerated individuals in overcoming substance addiction issues, maintaining employment, and fulfilling the general criteria of their monitoring and reintegration plan. The community can also include nearby religious organisations that can provide former inmates and their families with

neighbourhood mentorship help. Give them the chance to perform community service so they may prove to be assets to the community rather than just burdens in the neighbourhood. Additionally, they form coalitions of community leaders to supervise the reintegration programmes and ensure that offenders and the community fulfil their responsibilities (Travis, et al., 2001).

2.4.4 Criminal Activities

Regretfully, relatively few African states take the necessary steps to ensure that criminals are protected in accordance with their international duties. These policies focus on providing the facilities or courses required for criminals to undergo rehabilitation and reintegrate into society. As a result, after completing their time, ex-offenders are frequently released back into society without any formal education, no skills for supporting themselves, little chance of finding profitable job, few opportunities to re-enter the workforce, and perhaps no family support. Essentially, the system creates social misfits or those who can only support themselves through a life of crime rather than successful rehabilitation or reintegration. Due to lack of confidence, they go back to engaging in criminal activities (Bushway & Apel, 2012).

According to a Pew Centre (2018) worldwide survey, almost 40% of formerly incarcerated individuals commit crimes inside three years after their release. Despite billions of public dollars being spent on jails and prisons that are meant to aid in their rehabilitation, many ultimately end themselves back behind bars. The nation's recidivism rate has only slightly decreased, according to this analysis, despite an annual rise in expenditure on correctional departments of almost 73% throughout the past ten years. According to the report, almost 43% of inmates released in 2004 were

returned to jail by 2007 due to either committing a new offence or breaking their release terms. The persistent recidivism rates are a sign that programs and policies designed to deter re-offenders were falling short of expectations and lawmakers should consider alternative programs to achieve lower rates of recidivism (Jones, et al. 2016:13).

Furthermore, Blkhoyan (2018) asserts that the convicts' recuperation and revival have been made possible by the rehabilitation programmes. Nevertheless, because their dedication is the most important component of rehabilitation, the majority of inmates do not accept change and make an effort to improve. According to study, a lot of jails use punitive measures as part of a rehabilitation process that include efficient farming that takes into account each inmate's unique demands. Sanchez and Khanmalek (2019) as a consequence determined crucial areas where the criminal justice system has to make improvements in order to improve rehabilitation. These crucial areas, which centre on the conduct of officials and prisoners, include mental health, education, and vocational training. By doing this, the requirements unique to each prisoner may be satisfied, resulting in a full rehabilitation and a drop in recidivism rates. According to research, inmates experience higher levels of discomfort than the general public (Haviv & Hasisi, 2019). Many reintegration programmes start therapy as soon as inmates are released from jail, with the goal of reducing recidivism. Recidivism is decreased by using need/risk assessment to focus resources on important criminology issues; many of these programmes are mentor-based and include cognitive behaviour therapy (Haviv & Hasisi, 2019). Employment is a key component of recovery programmes. The cause of criminal disorder is employment.

Employers hesitate to hire people with a criminal history. When the employers are unwilling to hire an ex-offender, the individual may decide to continue with crime, leading to an increase in recidivism. Programs that help individuals with criminal backgrounds search for a job can reduce recidivism and often these programs also help the individuals gain secure housing, stability, and ways to support themselves.

Recidivism is also influenced by education. When compared to high school, vocational training lowers the recidivism rate (Sanchez & Khanmalek, 2019). The recidivism rate decreases with increasing educational attainment. Recidivism is being decreased and efforts are still being made to support people with criminal records in their pursuit of education and to make them aware of the opportunities and achievement that come with upward mobility. According to Sanchez and Khanmalek (2019), the age at which criminals commit their crimes is highest throughout adolescence and lowest during maturity. Adolescent criminals may face psychological and social issues that increase their likelihood of reoffending.

Recidivism decreases and public safety rises when pragmatic strategies like rehabilitation programmes are used (Pealer, 2017). Numerous actions are recommended in order to promote sustainable and long-term success in rehabilitation efforts, including funding model programmes, setting goals, considering success measures, and realising that no programme can ever be 100% effective since people, not machines, are involved. In order to improve public safety, jails must provide rehabilitative programmes to inmates, helping them deal with the criminal behaviour that led to their incarceration and facilitate their successful reintegration back into society after release. Researchers studying criminal behaviour have connected social

and psychological elements to recidivism (Pealer, 2017). Criminals who are unable to address issues are the ones who are released from jail with no abilities to find work or cope with difficult circumstances. Offering a large selection of rehabilitation programmes facilitates convicts' reintegration into society and lowers recidivism rates. The relationship between criminals who engage in many rehabilitation programmes and those who only participate in one in terms of recidivism rate is unclear.

Aaltonen et al. (2017) found that work plays an important part in the re-entry process and lowers recidivism when they looked at job trajectories prior to and following incarceration in Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden. Heinlein (2018), who views employment through vocational training as the main objective of the rehabilitation model of punishment, supports this. Therefore, getting a job is essential for strengthening the productivity of ex-offenders, helping them to care for their families, helping them acquire life skills, improving their self-image, building their social capital, facilitating their reintegration, and lowering their likelihood of recidivism. Susan (2015), Wodahl (2016), and Nathan (2019). The difficulties in finding work include the loss of social and human capital while incarceration, companies' unwillingness to hire someone with a criminal record, and the belief held by employers that a person's criminal friends and crime expertise were gained while they were incarcerated. Additional obstacles encompass personal concerns about societal issues, well-being, substance misuse, interpersonal connections, and insufficient job-related competencies. However, in certain cases, the research by Aaltonen et al. (2017) found that jail rehabilitation programmes could improve certain ex-offenders'

prospects of finding work. Mclvor (2018) and Petersilia & Petersilia (2017) state that the major obstacle to an ex-offender's successful reintegration back into society is finding, keeping, and obtaining high-paying job. Male or female, ex-offenders typically have trouble finding work since many companies regularly run background checks on potential hires and won't provide positions to those who fit their stereotype of being dangerous and untrustworthy (Harris, 2015; Simmon Staff, 2016; Wendy et al, 2015). Even in the few cases when there are opportunities for ex-offenders, they are typically marked by poor compensation, unstable employment, short workweeks, or disqualification from social security benefits like health insurance. According to Clear, Rose, and Ryder (2017), this implies that ex-offenders must have numerous jobs or rely on family assistance for maintenance.

Many reasons make it more difficult for ex-offenders to find work, however they should be taken into account in light of the high national unemployment rate and the low rates of formal education among offenders (Larner, 2017). Stigma, the probable deterioration of social networks and job skills, preparation for primarily low-skilled and unappealing jobs through prison programmes, low levels of education and vocational training, a lack of work experience, early school dropout, and general illiteracy are all associated with unemployment. The list is extended by factors like age of arrest and release, prior history of substance abuse, low work enrollment in the time prior to arrest and incarceration, lack of technological skills and access to the internet or newspapers where jobs are advertised (Harris, 2018; Losel, 2019; Marble & Furguson, 2018; Stohr et al, 2020; The Urban Institute, 2018). The presence of small children and marital status are two more criteria that may restrict career chances

(Kilgore, 2018). The strain associated with failure to get a job is graver for women as they are likely to have had low educational level and joblessness prior to arrest and incarceration. Even when they get and keep a job, women are not well remunerated as to meet their day-to-day needs and this makes them turn to illegitimate means such as drugs or prostitution to economically survive (Kerley, 2018). This situation is worse in a poor economy such as Kenya and where a sizeable number of women must raise and support families alone.

In nations like the USA that have legislative limitations on ex-offenders' access to job acquisition lists, the difficulty of finding employment is greater (Cook & Olivier, 2018; Kerley, 2019; Melissa, 2020; Susan). For instance, in Kenya, the ethics and anticorruption commission (EACC), police clearance, tax compliance certificates from the Kenya Revenue Authority (KRA), Higher Education Loans Board (HELB), Credit Referencing Bureau (CRB), and police clearance are among the requirements for job seekers seeking to meet the integrity requirements outlined in chapter six of the Constitution. Regardless of their other qualities, this prevents a large number of ex-offenders from being hired since the request is meant to bring up any criminal background.

Inmates should have easy access to support services both during their incarceration and right after their release. Support groups for placement and assistance to help inmates maintain employment would be beneficial. By assisting prisoners, we can save their offspring from becoming caught up in the same pattern. Pew (2019) reports that a validated model indicates that if prisoners successfully complete educational,

vocational, or rehabilitative programmes, their time behind bars will be reduced. Their prospects of effectively reentering the labour market are increased by this.

Furthermore, research showed that a few of the issues jails face when attempting to establish livelihood initiatives include a lack of space, a tiny market, a lack of advocates for their goods, and a lack of management support. According to Narag (2019), the project required fewer members because it produced less with less space. Currently, the market is made up of the prisoners themselves, their guests, and a small number of volunteers from non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Undoubtedly, there have been attempts to sell their goods outside of jail, but regrettably, for various reasons, these initiatives were not successful. Workers also threatened by the growing member of recreational facilities, which have been eating space allocated for them by the management. Workers also feel that the management is not giving them any importance (Narag, 2019).

As for the effect of livelihood program, the inmates become more responsible and productive individuals. They are able to help their families who are outside the jail. Their income also gives them source for financial needs for their personal supplies like soap, shampoo and the like (Maximo, 2018).

According to Montejo, one of the benefits of livelihood programmes is that they may provide prisoners new skills and training that they can use to earn money from their families. Inmates can also learn how to be more productive through the livelihood programmes, which can also assist them pass the time while they're incarcerated and prevent them from committing vices (Saludar, 2019).

Punaduan (2017) performed a research in which the majority of participants experienced unemployment as a severe issue, even though they possessed the requisite skills and certifications. A significant number of participants said that their work chances are negatively impacted by a criminal conviction history and serving a term. With the exception of those housed at the New Beginnings Care Centre, every released prisoner questioned had no job. According to one participant, after disclosing their criminal past to employers, they were sacked from all three of their employment (Punaduan, 2017).

Disruptions to daily routines and other everyday stresses prevent post-release adaption. Following their release from prison, inmates who have grown accustomed to prison regulations find it difficult to adjust to the strict institutional routines and the new patterns of life outside of prisons. This can lead to feelings of insecurity and anxiety (Martin, 2018; McKendy & Ricciardelli, 2021). The numerous post-release pressures can also have an impact on the day-to-day activities of ex-prisoners. According to the life-course approach, release can signal a major role and status change from jail to post-prison contexts (Hutchison, 2009).

Along with this transition is the change from a regularized, supervised, and structured lifestyle to a potentially irregular and unsupervised one, which could be attributable to absence of place of residence, material deprivations, inability to dislodge from gangs or criminals, roles played by family, absence of marketable skills, and demographics including age, gender, ethnicity, and social class (Ganapathy, 2018). Unstable housing and unemployment/ underemployment have been found to be parts of ex-prisoners' unstructured and irregular daily routines (Haynes et al., 2020; Lee, 2019). It is also

more likely for unemployed or underemployed ex-prisoners to relapse to drugs and demonstrate chronic physical and mental disorders (Visher et al., 2011).

The implications of disrupted post-imprisonment daily routines could be understood in terms of both psychological resilience and desistance. The Drive to Thrive (DTT) theory suggests that the sustainment of regular daily routines is one of the basic processes for demonstrating psychological resilience over time (Hou et al., 2018, 2021). During ongoing stress, people are challenged to sustain their daily routines while they are increasingly drawn to focus on the stressors or their own distress. Daily routines will either be disrupted or terminated because traumatic and chronic stress usually predisposes individuals to an ecology that restricts individuals from practicing regular daily routines. Primary daily routines refer to behaviors that are necessary for maintaining livelihood and biological needs, such as hygiene, sleep, eating, and home maintenance (Oswald & Wahl, 2018; Pruss et al., 2019), whereas secondary daily routines refer to optional behaviors that are dependent upon motivation and preferences, such as exercising, leisure, social activities, and employment (Borodulin et al., 2016; Chen & Pang, 2012). Social zeitgeber model in psychiatry similarly suggests that social cues such as bedtime, contact with other persons, having a meal, going out, working, and so on can keep circadian rhythms synchronized with the 24-hour cycle when humans become increasingly detached from the natural daylight schedule (Walker et al., 2020). Disrupted social cues for daily routines (e.g., sleeping time, mealtime, time to go to office) may lead to irregular circadian rhythms and evoke somatic symptoms that relate to higher odds of mood disorders (Boland et al., 2019; Lai et al., 2021).

Drive to Thrive (DTT) theory and risk-need-responsivity (RNR) model provided solid theoretical frameworks to conceptualize resilience and desistance as outcomes of adaption. However, previous studies have not addressed the behavioral mechanisms of adaptation among prisoners, not to mention the understudied ex-prisoner populations (Liu et al., 2021). Only a handful of studies focus on daily functioning among elderly prisoners (Barry et al., 2020) or prisoners with physical or cognitive disabilities (Barry et al., 2017). Prison Activities of Daily Living (PADL) was developed to measure levels of difficulties in basic self-care ADL and instrumental ADL that are more complex and require more physical functioning. However, like measures of ADL, PADL does not assess behaviors that directly relate to stress adaptation. Therefore, it does not explain how overt behaviors in everyday life might either predispose ex-prisoners to or protect them against poorer mental health and reoffending in face of stressors.

2.4.5 Business/Economic Stability

A number of ex- convicts who served for long period in prison use the skills they learned while in prison to start their own businesses. However, this can be hard as most of them do not have starting capital for the business since most of them were abandoned by their families. Those who are lucky to have their families present and willing to give them a helping hand start their own businesses in order to earn a living. The common businesses they get involved in are tailoring, carpentry/ joinery services, metal works, wood processing, hairdressing etc. Prisoners sentenced for less serious offenses are held in short-term medium security prisons and are expected to train in agriculture, livestock rearing and simple industry involving carpentry, simple

repairs and tailoring. These skills eventually help them earn a living after prison (Petersilia, 2009).

People that enjoy longer-term food and housing stability do so by combining several forms of assistance, such as public benefits, social support, and work. The fact that the majority of participants usually combined social help with either work or public benefits further emphasises the significance of social supports, particularly for ex-offenders who are having financial difficulties. While nonprofit and philanthropic social services offer temporary and emergency support, they are never adequate to guarantee financial stability on their own. Social support is particularly crucial in the early phases of reentry, when free or inexpensive housing, food, and other resources helped some ex-offenders reintegrate into society or receive public benefits. It also lessened the blow of losing their jobs or other resources and shielded them from hunger and homelessness should they relapse (Bushway and Apel, 2012).

The foregoing data on ex-prisoners' livelihood stategies pointed at ex-prisoners' challenge of finding employment due to their criminal record, lack of social support, mental health problems, drug abuse, ill health and aging. Most studies also found them with low educational and skill levels. It was the interest of this study to find out how ex-prisoners managed to cope with life under the difficult circustances. The activities they engaged in would be analyzed to see how they influenced their post-release welfare as none of the studies has specifically focused on the livelihood strategies that released prisoners adopted in the face of a myriad of challenges in finding formal employment.. This was so considering that in Western countries where most of the reviewed literature was sourced, there were elaborate and well established

pre and post release programmes which ensured that prisoners were well prepared as they reentered the community. In countries like Japan some employers even collaborated with prisons in provision of skills that ensured prisoners got employed when they left prison.

In the case of Kenya where the prison service is underfunded, there are no adeuate post release programmes which would have ensured that released prisoners transit and settle successfully in the community. This study, in consideration of the few opportunities available to released prisoners, explored the activities they engaged in to earn a living. It was possible that those who mangaged to get well earning employment and opportunities regained their place in society as they could provide for themselves and their dependants. Others would possibly engage in all manner of occupations to earn a living. For the aging and sick ex-prisoners, life for them would be that of dependence on family and social support programmes or may end up as vagrants. To cope with the difficult life out of prison, some ex-prisoners could engage in drug businness and consumption for income and to waste time away. A section of prisoners returning to the community without any meaningful income earning engagement could turn back to crime especially if they were not embraced by the community.

2.5 Knowledge Gaps

Having extensively reviewed literature on prisoners' post release welfare, it was noted that most of it came from studies done in developed countries where prison pre and post release programmes were adequately established and well funded compared to

developing countries including Kenya where such programmes were underffunded. Accordingly, some gaps were identified which formed the focus of this study.

Unlike in many developed countries as shown in the foregoing literature, the lack of systematic rehabilitation and social support services coupled with the underfunding of the prison service in Kenya was likely to negate the prison's objective of changing a prisoner's situation for the better on release. The situation was made worse by shortage of equipment for industries and farms (KNCHR, 2005) therefore undermining the ability of released prisoners to reintegrate successfully into the society.

Owing to this, it was possible that the post release situation for prisoners in Kenya would be worse than those of their counterparts in the developed world and this would only be established through emperical means hence the current study. This study attempted to analyze how the programmes offered in Kenyan prisons influenced prisoners' post release lives in the face of the shortcomings.

On how social relations affected prisoners' post release welfare, review of literature from studies done in the United States, United Kingdom, Ireland and Australia showed how relations were adversely affected following incarceration of a relative. These studies also used male dominated samples therefore not providing a clear picture on how both sexes were affected by social relations both before and after release. The current study comprised of a sample of both male and female ex-prisoners so that to capture diverse experiences. Owing to shortage of literature on the same in Kenya, the current study attempted to establish how imprisonment affected

social relations considering the dynamics of the African social context where the extended family system may step in to stablize relations in the face of possible strains. This would mean that prisoners released from prison in Kenya may not have their relations with family and community members adversely strained like what is painted of prisoners in the developed countries where most of the reviewed literature was sourced.

Literature from developed countries touching on prisoners' post release livelihood strategies pointed to a situation where those released from prison experienced difficulty in finding employment due to their criminal record, lack of social support and mental health problems. Most of the prisoners especially in developing countries including Kenya were of low educational and skill levels providing them with very limited employment opportunities on release from prison compared to their counterparts in developed countries where there were elaborate post release programmes. In the absence of local literature on how prisoners coped with life once released from prison, this study explored their post release livelihood strategies.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the research design; study area; study population along with the sample size and sampling procedure. Also discussed are: research instruments with the requisite validity and reliability considerations; data collection procedures and instruments as well as data analysis rationalization in view of the design of the study. Attention is also paid to ethical issues.

3.1 Research Design

This study employed Phenomenological Research design. Phenomenology is an approach to qualitative research that focuses on the commonality of a lived experience within a particular group. The fundamental goal of the approach is to arrive at a description of the nature of the particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Typically, interviews are conducted with a group of individuals who have first-hand knowledge of an event, situation or experience. The interview(s) attempts to answer two broad questions (Moustakas, 1994): e.g., what a person has experienced in terms of the phenomenon, what contexts or situation have typically influenced their experiences of the phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Other forms of data such as documents, observations and art may also be used. The data is then read and reread and culled for like phrases and themes that are then grouped to form clusters of meaning (Creswell, 2013). Through this process the researcher may construct the universal meaning of the event, situation or experience and arrive at a more profound understanding of the phenomenon. With roots in philosophy, psychology and education, phenomenology

attempts to extract the most pure, untainted data and in some interpretations of the approach, bracketing is used by the researcher to document personal experiences with the subject to help remove him or herself from the process. One method of bracketing is memoing (Maxwell, 2013). Memoing allows the researcher to elaborate on concepts and themes identified in the coding exercise. .Concepts derived from narrative data are used as building blocks for constructing theoretical arguments.

In this study, phenomenological approach and methods glean answers were used based on lived experiences by ex-prisoners. Of the five approaches described by Creswell, the approach most closely aligned with the study's objectives. While the question will not ultimately be resolved, the richness of the mined data will produce further opportunities for inquiry. Moreover, in this study, interviews, document analysis, and Observation, were used to collect data and analyzed thematically and therefore, Phenomenological Research design was appropriate for the study.

3.2 Research Paradigm

This study was guided by an interpretive paradigm. The central endeavor of the interpretivist paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). It is an approach that makes an effort to "get into the head of the subjects being studied "so as to speak, and to understand and interpret what the subject is thinking or the meaning they are making of the context. Every effort is made to try to understand the viewpoint of the subject being observed, rather than the viewpoint of the observer. Emphasis is therefore placed on understanding the individual and their interpretation of the world around them. Hence, the key tenet of

the interpretivist paradigm is that reality is socially constructed (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998).

Some of the strengths of this paradigm lies in the manner in which it does encourage open –ended dialogues or conversations between the researcher and the research population that will in turn facilitate close inquiry of practices as well as views in relation to the lived experiences and contexts of participants. Therefore, data that is obtained through this way is reflective of the cultural and historical aspects and so it is useful in developing insights into people's practices and how they think about them and reasons for it. It is for the above-mentioned reasons that the approach is invaluable in sensitizing the researcher on the tutors' views towards Continuous Professional Development trainings on whether they are factors that contribute to its enhancement.

The interpretivist paradigm adopts a subjectivist epistemology which states that the researcher makes meaning through their own thinking & cognitive processing of data informed by their interactions with participants. Therefore, interpretivism therefore suits this study as it will shape the way in which the researcher seeks for answers to the questions on the social implications of correctional rehabilitation for prisoners' post incarceration wellbeing with a specific reference to Uasin Gishu County.

3.3 Study Area

The study was carried out in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya. Uasin Gishu County is situated in the mid-west part of Kenya's Rift Valley, some 330km North West of Nairobi. It is a cosmopolitan county, covering an area of 3345.2 square kilometres.

Uasin Gishu County borders Kericho County to the south, Nandi to the south west, Kakamega to the west, and Trans Nzoia to the north. Other counties sharing borders with Uasin Gishu are Elgeyo Marakwet to the east and Baringo to the South East. The County was purposively selected because it boasts of hosting three prisons. The prisons are: Eldoret Main prison, Eldoret Women prison and Ngeria Farm prison. The county is made up of six sub-counties: Ainabkoi, Moiben, Kesses, Kapseret, Turbo and Soy. All these administrative areas have a cosmopolitan population, therefore, making it ideal for a study of this nature.

3.4 Target Population

The target population for this study was 462 ex-prisoners released after serving more than two years in jail from the three correctional facilities; Eldoret Main prison 256, Eldoret Women prison 117 and Ngeria Farm prison 89 as indicated in table 3.1 below. The study targeted forty key informants comprising: 6 prison officers, 5 probation and aftercare officers, 12 local community leaders, 17 family members of ex-prisoners.

Table 3.1: Target Population

ex -prisoners (released from Prison between 2019-2020)	Target Population
Eldoret Women prison	117
Eldoret Main prison	256
Ngeria Farm Prison	89
Total	**462**

Source: Prison Records, 2021

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Sampling is the process of selecting a sub-set of cases in order to draw conclusions about the entire set. A sample is a small part of large population, which is thought to

be representative of the larger population (Orodho, 2003). Any statements made about the sample should be true for the entire population. As noted by Cohen (2003), factors such as expenses, time and accessibility frequently prevent researchers from gaining information from the whole population. Therefore, there is need to obtain data from a smaller group or subset of the total population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population under study. The sample size for this study was be determined using sample size determination formula advanced by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) as quoted by Kasomo (2001). The formula is given as:

$$n = \frac{X^2 * N * P(1-P)}{\left(ME^2 * (N-1)\right) + (X^2 * P * (1-P))}$$

Where:

    n= Sample size

    X^2 = Chi-square for the specified confidence level at 1 degree of freedom

    N= population size

    P = population proportion

    ME = Desired Margin of Error (expressed as a proportion)

$$n = \frac{3.84 \text{ x } 462 \text{ x } 0.5 \ (1-0.5)}{(0.05 \text{ x } 0.05) \text{ x } (462-1) \ 3.841 \text{ x } 0.5 \ (1-0.05)} = 210$$

Using the formula, the sample size for a target of 462 respondents was 210. Table 3.2 presents the sample size of the study.

Table 3.2: Sample Size

Gender	Target Population	Sample size	Sampling criteria
Eldoret Women prison	117	54	Snowball Sampling
Eldoret Main G. K	256	116	Snowball Sampling
Ngeria Farm prison	89	40	Snowball Sampling
Total	462	**210**	

Source: Author, 2021

To trace and locate individual ex-prisoners, snowball sampling was used. 210 former prisoners released from prison after serving sentences of over two years was selected. After identifying the first respondent, he/she was expected to assist the researcher to trace others, therefore expanding the sample through referrals until the sample of 210 was achieved. This technique was used to locate ex-prisoners considering that some of them may have decided to relocate on release from prison. This sampling technique was limited to ex-prisoners who were still living in Uasin Gishu at the time of the study.

Uasin Gishu County was purposively selected owing to the fact that it hosts three prisons: Eldoret Main prison, Eldoret Women prison and Ngeria Farm prison which were adequate in generating the required data for this study. The gender composition of the prisons and the diverse programmes they offered to rehabilitate prisoners also made Uasin Gishu County ideal for the study. The county also has a cosmopolitan population and may therefore be a source of rich data owing to experiences by ex-prisoners from different communities. In addition, there is so far no evidence that a similar study has been done in the study area on the issue at hand. All the key

informants were selected purposively on the basis of their information and knowledge on issues of released prisoners. Key informant interview schedules were prepared in advance and contained information related to research objectives of the study.

3.6 Research Instruments

Observation, interview schedules and document analysis research instruments were used to collect data in this study.

3.6.1 Observation

The direct observation technique allows the researcher to put behavior in context and thereby understand it better, Kombo and Tromp (2006). The observation technique was applied alongside other methods of data collection to assess the general living environment of ex-prisoners. Observation was made on prisoners' living environments, social interactions and socio-economic activities within ex- prisoners' living and working environs.

3.6.2 Interview Schedule

Interviewing is a method of research typically involving face to face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. It is an interaction of the researcher (interviewer) and the interviewee. A great deal of qualitative material comes from talking with people whether it is through formal interviews or casual conversations. Structured interview involves subjecting every respondent in a sample to the same stimuli, (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). The interview method provides for qualitative and in-depth data as it presents opportunity to explain the purpose of the study. The researcher got a complete and detailed understanding of the

problem from the respondents. All the interview schedules were administered on the respondents and key informants by the researcher and research assistants.

3.6.3 Document Analysis

This involved the use of existing records on the social impact of imprisonment on released prisoners and their families. The content of documents was explored in systematic ways which looks at patterns and themes related to the research question(s) (Kothari, 2008). Therefore, the information that were obtained from the respondents were further supplemented with data from document analysis and archives. The sources of document data included documents generated by and related to prisoners' post-prison lives.

3.7 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

Piloting is important to establish both the reliability and content validity of the instrument and to improve questions, formats and scales (Ross, 2005). A pilot study was carried out among ex-prisoners in the neighboring Elgeyo-Marakwet County which was not sampled for this study. The results from the piloting assisted in the instruments' revisions and improvement for its content validity as well as questions, format and scales reliability (Ross, 2005).

3.7.1 Validity

Golafashani (2003), describes validity as the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences based on the research results. The test must produce information that is not only relevant but free from systematic errors. According to (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2000), validity means that we are measuring what we want to measure. The content

validity was ascertained by expert opinion from lecturers of the School of Arts and Social Science, Kisii University. The content validity of the instrument was determined by the researcher discussing the items in the instrument with the supervisors, lecturers from the department and colleagues. Advice given by these people helped the researcher to determine the validity of the research instruments. The advice included suggestions, clarifications and other inputs. These suggestions were used in making necessary changes.

3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability has been described by (Mugenda and Mugenda, (2003) as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. Kerlinger (2004) defines reliability as the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument. This means the instruments are dependable, stable, consistent, predictable and accurate. The consistency of the study results were measured using test- retest reliability whereby the same group of respondents used repeatedly to test whether the same results could be obtained. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to determine the reliability of the research instrument. A reliability coefficient of 0.7 and above assumed to reflect the internal reliability of the instruments (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). Several typographical errors and omissions detected were corrected in the instrument confirming that it is sufficient to be used in the main study.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data analysis involves organization, interpretation and presentation of collected data in order to reduce the field information to a usable size (Oso & Onen, 2005). The interview schedule data was first subjected to preliminary processing through

validation, coding and editing and tabulated before its readiness for analysis with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS V. 20) computer package as a 'toolbox' to analyze data related to objectives.

Quantitatively, the data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequency distribution tables, graphs and diagrams to understand relationships between different variables. Qualitative data was analyzed by way of editing, classifying, transcribing, narratives and coding. The analysis involved entering themes across the entries for each question and assigning a number or letter to each category.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Research involves collecting data from people, about people (Punch, 2005). Researchers needed to protect their research participants; develop trust with them; promote the integrity of research: guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on the researcher and university; and cope with new, challenging problems (Israel and Iain, 2006).

In order to maintain the integrity of the research, the researcher obtained official authorization from the National Commission for Science and Technology (NACOSTI) before conducting research. To ensure the confidentiality, dignity, anonymity and privacy of the respondents, the researcher prepared an informed consent form, which was signed by the respondents. The respondents' participation was voluntary and free and no promises of benefits for participation were made. The respondents were assured of privacy and confidentiality of the information obtained.

The identity of individuals from whom information was obtained in the course of the study was kept strictly confidential.

Additionally, honesty was observed. Data, results, methods and procedures were honestly reported. There were no fabrications, falsifications or misrepresentation of data. The researcher kept the promises and agreements with sincerity. Interviews were conducted in an environment that allowed for privacy'.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The study sought to examine the social implications of correctional rehabilitation for the wellbeing of ex-prisoners in Uasin Gishu County. The study assessed the types, nature of correctional rehabilitation services, effectiveness of available social support and training services on ex-prisoners wellbeing and livelihood strategies adopted by ex-prisoners in Uasin Gishu County. The study used interview schedules on 210 ex - prisoners located through prisons' records, and interview guides for prison officers in-charge of correctional and rehabilitation services.

Despite the difficulty in locating the ex-prisoners, the study managed to reach 160 out of 210 ex- prisoners who were successfully interviewed. These translated to 76% response rate which was deemed appropriate for analysis. All seventeen key informants targeted were interviewed. These comprised of probation officers, prisons officers, local leaders from the communities where ex-prisoners resided and members of ex-prisoners' households.

4.2 Demographic Information

The study conducted a demographic profiling for the ex-prisoners. The information gathered in this section entailed gender, age, and education level. Data on gender and age were important in this study due to the different roles played by different gender and age bracket in the society. Results obtained for this section is summarised in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Distribution of gender of the respondents

Variables	Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	114	71%
	Female	46	29%
Age	18-30	63	39%
	31-40	57	36%
	41-50	26	16%
	Above 50	14	9%
Education	Primary	57	36%
	Secondary	70	44%
	College	25	16%
	University	8	5%

Source: Author, 2021

Analysis in Table 4.1 displays the summary of ex-prisoners demographic information in relation to gender, age and education level. According to the summary, majority 71% of the respondents were male while 29% were female. This result shows more male ex-prisoners as compared to female. These results are coherent with many statistics that have found there being more male offenders in prison than female. A baseline report by UNODC highlighted that men constituted a majority of offenders and ex-prisoners represented by 71% of 29% of female offenders. The situation has been explained by economic hardships which place men at high risk of committing crime to feed their families than women.

Ondigo (2020), noted that the number of women prisoners and ex-prisoners were generally low, maintained at 7% globally, 3% in Africa and 7.4% in Kenya. A world prison brief (2018) however noted an upwards trend in women prisoners and ex-prisoners of up to 21% in Kuwait, 12% in the United Arab Emirates and 11% in Sudan. Worth to note is that countries reporting rise in women prisoners are

predominantly Muslim who propagate strict rules on women. In Kenya the number of prisoners and ex-prisoners is disproportionate with many prisoners remaining non-convicted for longer due to poor judicial case management processes.

Majority, 39% of the respondents were aged between 18-30 years this was followed by 36% aged between 31-40 years. Others, 16% were aged between 41-50 years while a minority 9% were aged above 50 years. These results show that a majority 75% of the ex-prisoners were young people. These results correlate with judicial prisons statistics that reports more than 75% of prisoners are aged between 18-35 years. This finding is important and supports the argument by life course theory that describes youthful life as prone to crime in Kenya (KNCAJ, 2017). According to the theory, chronological age of a person is a key predicting factor to various crime risks and vulnerability to early imprisonment especially for men.

Data summary for education level shows that 44% of the respondents had secondary education, 36% primary education, 16% college while a minority (5%) was university qualified. The results showed that majority of ex-prisoners were of primary and secondary school graduates. Findings by Chumba (2020) on prisoners in Uasin Gishu County noted that most of the offenders had low educational level.

4.2.1 Post-Release Profile

The study assessed the post release profile of ex-prisoners to ascertain the changes that had occurred once out of prison for the respondents. The respondents were requested to provide information on their wellbeing status before and after prison. The information entailed the marital status, occupational status and the number of

household members they supported before and after imprisonment. Data obtained was summarized as per the presented sections:

| | Before | | After | |
Occupation	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Casual Laborer	39	24%	31	19%
Formal employment	17	11%	8	5%
Self-employment	22	14%	56	35%
Unemployed	82	51%	65	41%

Source: Author, 2021

Table 4.2 shows, majority of the ex-prisoners 51%, were unemployed before imprisonment while 41% were unemployed after imprisonment. Out of 160, 39 (24%) were casual labourers, 14% were in self-employment while 11% were in formal employment. These results show that majority of the inmates were unemployed, a factor that could have contributed to their imprisonment. Uasin Gishu County were in formal employment while 88% were self-employed.

The study, however, established a changing trend upon prisoners' release, that majority 41% were unemployed, 35% were in self-employment, 19% worked as casual laborers while 5% were in formal employment. These results imply that self-employment, and casual laboring were the main occupations for ex-prisoners. There was a notable decline of ex-prisoners in formal employment as noted by the 17% to 5% change. Notably the ex-prisoners' ability to get employment reduced with imprisonment. Agboola (2017) reported that women had difficulty in getting jobs after imprisonment in South Africa. This situation is explained by the stigma faced by

this group of people whom employers avoid but also people do not want to purchase anything from them. These show that the wellbeing of ex-prisoners gets disrupted when they are released.

4.2.2. Number of Dependants

The researcher argues that people who are imprisoned are fathers, mothers, or relatives who play some key roles in their families. The incarceration thus disrupts household dependency. To understand the effect of rehabilitation services on ex-prisoners, it was key to understand the trend of a number of household members within the support of ex-prisoners before and after imprisonment. Data obtained was summarised and presented as shown in Table 4.4;

Number of dependants	Before		After	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0-1	42	26%	65	41%
2 to 3	41	26%	45	28%
4 to 5	40	25%	27	17%
More than 5	37	23%	23	14%

Source: Author, 2021

Analysis from table 4.4 shows a decline in the number of dependants being supported by ex-prisoners. Before imprisonment, ex-prisoners would support between 1-more than 5 dependants. An equal of 26% of respondents supported 1-3 dependants 25% supported 4 to 5 while 23% supported more than 5 dependants before imprisonment. After imprisonment, the number of the dependants reduced to majority 41% supporting only 0-1 of the dependants. This was followed by 28 supporting 2-3, 17%

4-5 and 165 supporting more than 5 dependants. Change much as majority were maintained between 1-5. These results show that ex-prisoners remained an integral part of their dependant's life whether in custody or not thus it is important that they are properly reintegrated in the society for them to play supportive roles for their dependents.

4.3 Types of Correctional Rehabilitation Services Utilized By Ex-Prisoners While In Prison

Correctional rehabilitation aims at modification of convicts attitude and behaviour towards life; relieve emotional tension, stimulate self-respect and ambitions for ex-prisoners and those still serving their terms. These programmes are offered through a friendly admonition and encouragement by the government, church, private sectors and non-governmental agencies. Although the services are assumed to be available in prisons facilities there is little information on the inmates' awareness on the available services and utilization of these services by inmates. The first objective of these study thus sought to understand the types of correctional rehabilitation services offered in prisons in Uasin Gishu, the awareness of ex-prisoners and the utilized of rehabilitation services by ex-prisoners in Uasin Gishu county during their terms.

4.3.1 Available Rehabilitation Services in Prisons in Uasin Gishu County

It was important for the study to establish the available rehabilitation services in the prisons around Uasin Gishu County. Data was gathered from prison officials on available services. According to prisons records the following services were available at the three main prisons in Usain Gishu County.

Table 4.2: Rehabilitation Services Offered in Prisons in Uasin Gishu County

Prison	Services
Eldoret Main Prison	Guidance and counselling Spiritual counselling Vocational training Educational programs Recreational services
Ngeria farm prison	Counselling and therapy Spiritual counselling Behavioural therapy Educational programs Vocational training (agriculture, carpentry, theology)
Eldoret women prison	Vocational training (hair dressing) Spiritual counselling Counselling session

Source: Author, 2021

Similarly, ex-prisoners were asked to mention the rehabilitation programs they engaged in while in prison. Data was summarized as shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Ex-Prisoners' responses on rehabilitation services

Rehabilitation services	Frequency	Percentage
Counselling	72	45%
Therapy (behaviour change)	67	42%
Educational programmes	93	58%
Vocational programmes	102	64%
Recreational	140	88%
Spiritual rehabilitation	160	100%

Source: Author, 2021

Analysis in Table 4.4 above demonstrates an overwhelming 100% of the ex-prisoners were aware of spiritual rehabilitation. This was followed by 88% recreational services, 64% vocational, 58% educational programs, counselling, 45% and 42%, therapy. According to these results, spiritual rehabilitation, recreational and vocational rehabilitation were the top most common rehabilitation services offered in prisons in Uasin Gishu County.

The above results concur with findings by Mburu (2021) who found that majority of prisoners in Nairobi based prisons were enrolled in spiritual, recreational and vocational rehabilitation services. Moresore, Ogeto (2016), observed that most inmates in Kenyan prisons, 57% were assigned vocational programmes with only 4% taking up counselling rehabilitation. While the Kenya prisons reforms (2015) Act advocates for more access to educational and vocational programmes, the study found out that the government is yet to fully implement this intervention due to congestion and shortage of human resource to offer these rehabilitation services.

4.3.2 Skills Acquired During Imprisonment

The study went further to assess the skills that ex-prisoners were able to acquire during the period imprisonment. Data obtained was summarized as shown in table 4.4.

Skills acquired	Frequency	Percentage
Carpentry	49	31%
Masonry	52	33%
Dress making	55	34%
Salon and beauty	34	21%
Soap Making	73	46%
Agriculture	95	59%
Educational	23	14%
Pastry and food production	68	43%

Source: Author, 2021

According to the analysis in table 4.3 above, majority 59% of the respondents gained agricultural skills, this was followed by 46%, and soap making, 34% dress making, 33% masonry and 31% carpentry while 14% took up educational programs. Agbakwaru (2016), found that inmates in Nigerian prisons engaged more in spiritual and educational programmes while severing their terms. The findings showed that vocational skills were preferred by prisoners to enhance their post release welfare. This could be attributed to the role of vocational skills in creating self-employment once a convict is released. An interview with prison officials revealed that most convicts preferred vocational skills due to its ability to engage them physically and usefully once outside the prison. In explaining this, one of the officers stated the following:

> "Over the years we have found prisoners engaging more in vocational skills training such as carpentry, masonry, than traditional courses like agriculture or education. Some prisoners have also focused in getting theological competency and use it to open churches once out of jail."

Another leader said this;

> "I have observed that ex-prisoners make very good carpenters and masons. They should be encouraged to learn such skills while in prison so that it helps them cope with life outside prison walls."

Discussions from interviews revealed that vocational skills were the most preferred and useful skills for ex-prisoners and contributed to their adjustment once outside the prisons.

4.3.3. Ex-prisoners' Rating for Effectiveness of Rehabilitation Services in the Improvement of their Social Wellbeing After Imprisonment.

Summary for rating on effectiveness of rehabilitation services in improvement of ex-prisoners' wellbeing I shown in figure 1.
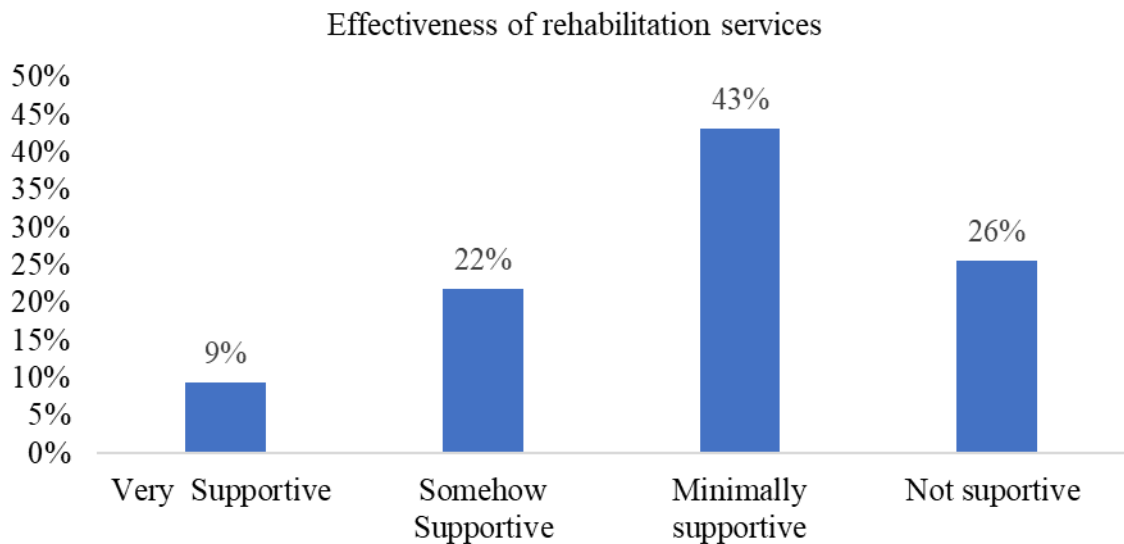
Source: Author, 2021

Figure 4.1: Rating of effectiveness of rehabilitation services

According to figure 4.1, 43% indicated minimally supportive, 26% not supportive, 22% somehow supportive and 9% Very supportive. According to the results the ex-prisoners implied that the rehabilitation was not very supportive in their wellbeing

outside prisons. This contradicted results by Wekesa (2013) that established that 61.5% of the prison officers reported that spiritual rehabilitation was very effective. This could imply that rehabilitation services were effective in management of prisoners inside the prisons but not effective in catering for their wellbeing after release.

Results from interview discussions from prison officers, many noted that rehabilitation services were mainly conducted with the aim of reducing recidivism, psychologically support inmates and keeping them "Busy". During an interview, one of the officers stated the following;

> ''I can say that most of the rehabilitation services are meant to help us manage the prisoners in an amicable way". Most of these programs are spiritual which create self-awareness among the inmates and makes them accept their situation and forgive themselves.'' (Prison warder, Eldoret women prison, Female, 45 Years).

Another officer said;

> "The rehabilitation services we offer are good for the convicts and they can use them after prison to start life. However, the programmes such as vocational training are limited and not well done for the convicts to effectively use. Those serving shorter sentences sometimes have very short periods to attain the skill and there is no continuity". Prison warder; Ngeria farm prison.

From the interview, the study gathered that the programmes were available but focused more on the management of prisoners' attitudes and behaviour inside prison. Several challenges such as congestion, lack of training equipment, lack of trainers and prisoners' attitude towards the programmes were found to hinder the effectiveness of rehabilitation services and thus affecting ex-prisoners' wellbeing in the community. A study by Mburu (2020) noted overcrowding, limited rehabilitation programmes

hindered effective rehabilitation in women prisons in Nairobi. Awilly (2015), however, affirmed that rehabilitation services offered at prison helped ex-convicts start different projects that enhanced their acceptance in the society.

4.4 Effect of Prison Training Programmes on the Wellbeing of Ex-prisoners

The second objective sought to understand the effect of training on the wellbeing of ex-prisoners. Data was gathered on the duration of training, nature of qualification, ex-prisoners' perception of the training, their satisfaction with the training and the effect of the training programmes on coping with life outside prison. Data was summarized using tables and pie charts and presented as follows:

4.4.1 Duration of the Training

Respondents were asked to mention the duration of the training. Data obtained was

Source: Author, 2021
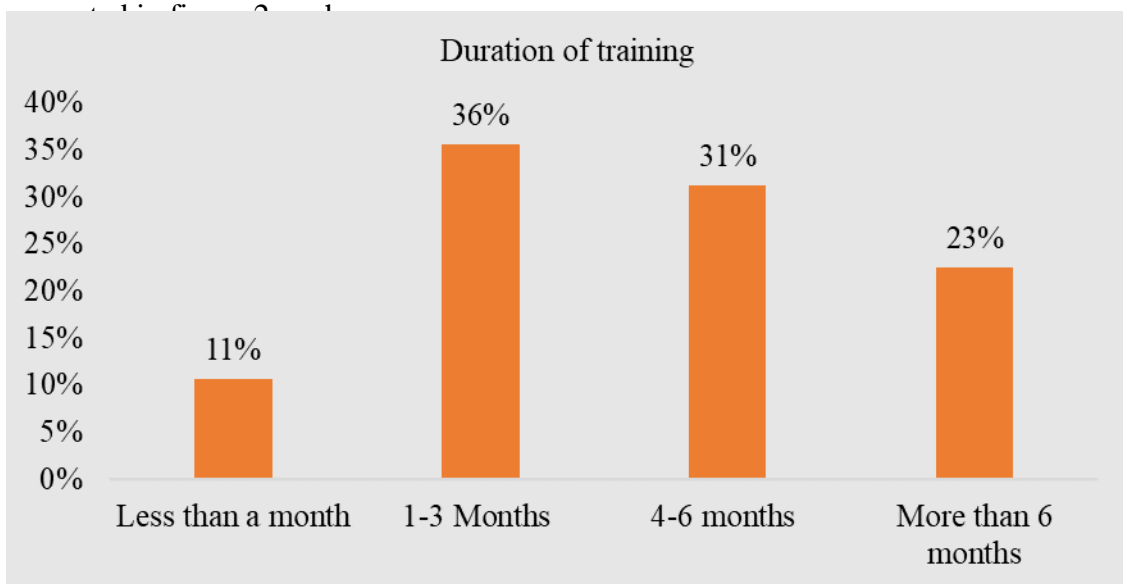
Figure 4.2: Duration of training programs in prisons

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The results showed that, 36% of the respondents had trained for 1-3 months, 31% for 4-6 months while 23% had trained for more than 6 months. A minority had been trained for less than that a month. The finding thus demonstrates that training duration for convicts took more than 3 months. This was confirmed during interviews with prison officers. A question on the perception of the community on prison training revealed that many of the local leaders were not quite aware of the training taking place in prison. They however felt that training of inmates on marketable skills for self-employment would be useful. One of the leaders sated the following;

> "I am not very aware of the type of training that takes place in prison for the convicts but I feel they should be trained in relevant skills for income generation because these people will need the skills once they get out. So, the training should be done very well and in relevant areas."

From the interviews, it was clear that the duration for the training was supposed to ensure that convicts came out with the required skills to boost their livelihoods after prison through self-employment or even formal employment.

4.4.2 Nature of qualification

The study followed up on the nature of qualification obtained by ex-prisoners after the training. Thus the data gathered on the nature of qualifications for ex-prisoners was analyzed and presented in the figure below;

Nature of qualification

Nothing — 45%
Certificate from institution — 20%
certificate of trade — 13%
Letter of recommendation — 23%
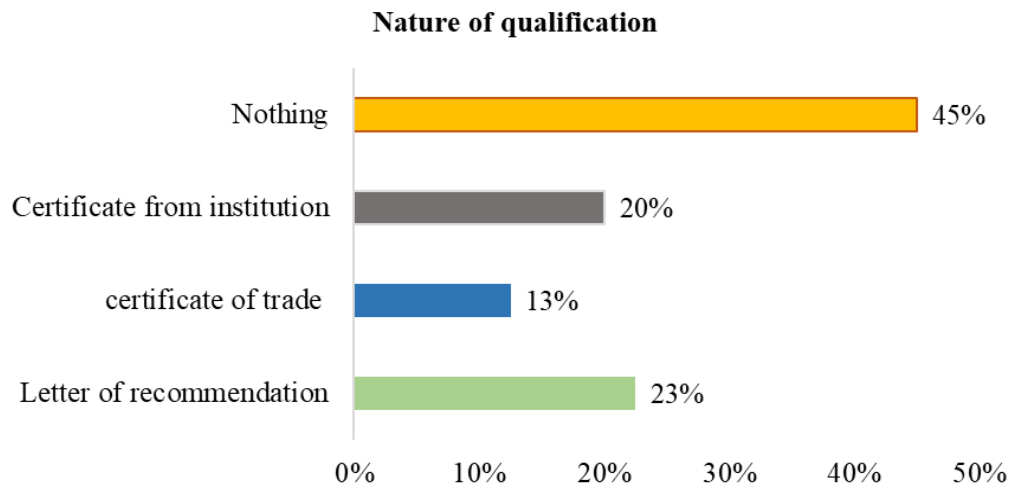
Source: Author, 2021

Figure 4.3: Qualification of ex-prisoners

Results on the nature of qualification demonstrated that 45% of the ex-prisoners had no qualification nor certification to show for the training they had undertaken while in prison. Twenty three percent (23%) had recommendation letters from the prisons department, 20% had received certificates from training institutions while 13% had certificates for vocational trade training. These results show low certification of qualifying for the ex-prisoners, implying that most of them did not have much to show for what they trained in other than word of mouth. These findings imply a difficulty for ex-prisoners, especially when looking for employment. This could hinder their wellbeing in terms of job placement or even doing business. A study by Mburu (2020) noted that prisons' department used NGOs and volunteers in training of the ex-prisoners and thus most of those who had not pursued educational training ended up without certification. Letters of recommendation were drawn for exemplary

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ex-convicts so that it could help them outside there. A local leader however, noted that the letter of recommendation was not very useful once someone came out of prison. He said that;

> "I know some people have done their form four exams from prison and have certificates. For them, it is a different thing and they can use the form four certificate because it does not show that they acquired it from prison. However, these people have a difficult time in explaining their training and qualifications to potential employers."

Another leader retorted that;

> "Those letters of recommendation from prison do nothing good, in fact it makes the situation worse. Once an employer sees a letter with a prisons' stamp that is it for the person looking for the job."

These results showed that there was minimal certification of ex-prisoners and in cases of certification, the qualification of training skills were not useful in looking for employment prospects nor improving the societal perception about the convict.

4.4.3 Satisfaction with Training Programmes

Respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction with training programmes. The data was summarized and illustrated in table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Satisfaction with training programs

Satisfied	Frequency	Percentages
Very Satisfied	40	25%
Somewhat satisfied	57	36%
Not Satisfied	63	39%

Source: Author, 2021

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Table 4.4 revealed that 39% of the respondents were not satisfied with training programmes, 36% were somewhat satisfied while 25% were very satisfied with the training programmes. These results show low satisfaction among ex-prisoners with the training programmes. Explanation on dissatisfaction included short duration, lack of the desired training and lack of adequate time for training.

During the interview, some of the prison officers noted that the trainings were areas under improvement and it suffered due to low funding and lack of trainers. The study thus found that there were training programs that sought to support ex-prisoners' wellbeing after life in prison. For satisfactory training there was need for increased funding, improvement of training duration and supply of adequate equipment.

4.4.4 Perception on Effectiveness of Rehabilitation Programmes on Well-being

The study used a five point Likert scale to understand ex prisoners' perception on the effectiveness of rehabilitation services on their post release wellbeing. Data was summarized as shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Effectiveness of rehabilitation services on wellbeing of ex-prisoners

Rehabilitation services	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
Recreational and social welfare						
Programmes enabled me to know how to interact with others	34	23	20	43	40	**2.4**
Counseling and therapy programmes enabled me to reduce stress	37	45	21	32	25	**3.7**
Spiritual impartation enabled to improve my relationship with God	43	50	17	23	27	**3.7**
Rehabilitation treatment enabled me to be a better person	30	27	47	23	33	**2.6**
Education improved my knowledge	16	27	32	40	45	**2.4**
Vocational training equipped me with various skills	35	48	10	34	28	**4.1**
Employment rehabilitation equipped me with employable skills	11	23	36	47	43	**2.2**

Source: Author, 2021

Analysis in table above, demonstrated that vocational training mn=4.1, spiritual impartation mn=3.7 and counselling and therapy programmes had a positive effect on ex-prisoners wellbeing. This implied that counselling therapy, spiritual impartation

and vocational training contributed to the wellbeing of released prisoners. Employment rehabilitation programme, mn=2.2, recreational and social welfare programme, mn=2.4 and educational programme had little effect on ex-prisoners wellbeing. Rehabilitation treatment from drugs and behaviour change training had a moderate effect on the wellbeing of the ex-prisoners in Uasin Gishu County.

4.5 Effects of Rehabilitation on Social Relations on Ex-Prisoners' Post Release Wellbeing

The third objective of the examined the effect of rehabilitation programs on social relations of ex-prisoners. In previous study ex-prisoners have been said to loss social relations once outside the prison. They are usually labelled and do not have the knowhow on how to rebuild relations with significant other in the society. This study sought to understand change in social relations for ex-prisoners before and after serving their terms, and effect of rehabilitation programs on building relationship once outside the prisons.

4.5.1 Social Relationships after imprisonment

Respondents were asked to rate their relationship with people close to them. Data obtained was summarized as shown in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Ex-prisoners Rating for their Relationships after Prisons

Relations	Poor	Fair	Good
Spouse	46	72	42
Parents	33	67	60
Friends	40	75	45
Religious members	56	79	25
Fellow employees	112	34	14
Neighbors	102	23	35
General community members	90	45	25

Source: Author, 2021

According to table 4.5, majority of the ex-prisoners had fair relationships after being released from prison. On the nature of relationship with spouse, 45% said fair, 29% poor while 26% indicated that the relationship was good.

On relations with parents, the findings showed, 41% being fair in nature, 38% said they were good and 20% indicated relations being poor. These findings showed that ex-prisoners enjoyed a considerably good relationship with their parents.

Majority of the respondents, 47% indicated they enjoyed fair relationships with their friends. Fourty nine (49%) percent said their relationships with religious members were fair. This could imply that after prison, ones' relationship with friends and religious members changed to negative. A majority of respondents, 70% noted that their relationships with fellow employees became poor after jail terms. Similarly, 64% felt that their relationships with neighbours were poor. Relationships with the general community were also rated as being poor by slightly more than half, 56%. These results showed that ex-prisoners experienced generally poor relationships in larger community, fellow employees and neighbours. This could be attributed to the stigma that most of the community members and employees place on ex-convicts and fear of

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tainting their reputations by associating with them. During interviews with members of households of ex-prisoners, the study noted that ex-prisoners as well as their families usually had difficulty relating with the rest of the community. .In one of the interviews an informant said this;

> "Relationships are spoilt with one being jailed. I remember after my dad was convicted two years ago; our neighbour changed the way they related to us. Some even called us wale "Watoto wa mwizi." When he got out of jail, this did not change and many of my fathers' friends also stopped visiting him." Male household member.

From the above, it is clear that ex-prisoners were not able to maintain healthy relationships with other people in the community. Thus, they remain with a small circle of friends and relatives who would wish to interact with them after prison.

4.5.2 Ex-prisoners' Reception on Return from Prison

It was important for the study to assess ex-prisoners' wellbeing by asking how they felt the community treated them after their release from prison. The data was summarized in table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Reception for ex-prisoners on reentry

Reception	Frequency	Percentage
Tolerated	58	36%
Accepted	35	22%
Not accepted	67	42%

Source: Author, 2021

Majority, 42% of respondents said they felt not accepted by the community. This was followed by 36% who felt tolerated and 22% who said they felt accepted. These results showed that there was unacceptance and tolerance among community

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members on ex-convicts. The finding concurred with (Kibaara, 2020) who observed that many of the inmates in Kenyan prisons feared rejection from people they knew once they were released. It is apparent that the society was yet to accept ex-prisoners as people who could reform and be productive in the society.

4.6 Imprisonment and Ex-prisoners Livelihood Coping Strategies

Released offenders faced a myriad of challenges in social adoption into the community once released from prison. Among the issues are; the negative impact of imprisonment on finding jobs, integration with family and community due to stigmatization and ostracism or exclusion from society. The study sought to investigate coping strategies used by ex-convicts in ensuring normal livelihood and their wellbeing.

4.6.1 Challenges Faced Once Released

The study interrogated the ex-prisoners on challenges they faced in adjusting to the society once released. The highlighted challenges were summarized and presented in table 4.8.

Table 4. 8: Challenges faced by Post Released ex-prisoners

Challenges Interpersonal	Frequency	Percentage
Interpersonal	67	42%
Financial	122	76%
Housing	89	56%
Illness	78	49%
Stigmatization	111	69%
Unemployment	150	94%

Source: Author, 2021

Analysis in table 4.8 demonstrate that majority, 94% of the released prisoners suffer unemployment, 76% financial difficulties, 69% stigma and non-acceptance and 56% have challenges with housing. A good proportion, 49% suffer illness infected from prison while 42% suffer interpersonal problems such as stress, depression and low self-esteem. These results show that ex-prisoners came out of prison with challenges that required them to develop coping strategies to adopt to the environment and co-exist with the community which has a negative attitude towards them.

4.6.2 Coping Strategies

Once released ex-convicts return to the community where they are stigmatized and require to cope rather to fit. The study asked respondents to select coping strategies that they had adopted to fit in the society. Data obtained was summarized in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Ex-prisoners' Coping Strategies

Coping strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Joining a support group	56	35%
Retreating to places no one knows me	120	75%
Joined a religious group	72	45%
Smoking cigarette and bhang	56	35%
Using alcohol	69	43%
Talking to professionals counsellors	37	23%
Avoiding people	132	83%

Source: Author, 2021

Table 4.9 displays various strategies used released -prisoners to cope with life after prison. Majority, 83% used avoidance of people, 75% chose to live where nobody knew their criminal history, while 78% engaged in drug and alcohol use. Some 35% joined support groups, 23% talked to professionals while 45% joined religious groups who accepted them. The results show that ex-prisoners had many ways of adopting

but common among them was seclusion to avoid stigma and trying to readjust to life. A study by Agbakwaru (2016), asserted that, coping strategies for ex-prisoners was influenced by available resources such a skills, culture, and psychological support once outside prison. Findings by (Ricciardelli, 2014), noted that ex-prisoners used passive or aggressive coping strategies which often led them to revert to criminal activities.

An interview with household members of ex-prisoners revealed that most of them found it difficult to return to their homes. Some opted to move to urban areas where no one knew their criminal records while others stayed in the same villages but avoided people. A respondent said these;

> "Since he came from prison, he has remained quiet, works in the farm and smokes a lot." We fear him because we do not know what he learnt in the prison where he could have been with murders. We also avoid a lot of interaction with him lest he gets angry and harms one of us."

In this discussion, the household members had their fears on the coping strategies of the ex-prisoners who had become quieter and more distant. These results showed that most ex-prisoners were ill prepared to cope with life outside prison which could contribute to recidivism.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter details the summary of the findings from the study, draws conclusions and provides recommendations from the results found on the implications of correctional rehabilitation services on ex-prisoners' wellbeing in Uasin Gishu County.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The study sought to establish the implication of prison rehabilitation services on the wellbeing of ex-prisoners in Uasin Gishu County. The study collected data from ex-prisoners from Eldoret main prison, Ngeria farm prison and Eldoret women prison, all found in Uasin Gishu County. The study collected data using questionnaires, interview schedules from the respondents. The findings were presented in line with the research objectives. The study found that majority of the ex-prisoners were male as compared to female. Few of the ex-prisoners had educational qualification of above secondary school implying that most prisoners had not completed their formal education.

The first objective sought to establish the types of rehabilitation services offered by prisons around Uasin Gishu County. Findings revealed that prisons run different rehabilitation services for prisoners. Majority of the prisoners had attended, 100% spiritual rehabilitation, 64% vocational training and 84% recreational rehabilitation services. More findings showed that educational rehabilitation programmes, medical programmes and counseling and therapy rehabilitation programmes were less common despite being offered in prisons. The study found that there was a challenge

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in offering effective rehabilitation services to prisoners due to limited funds, shortage of qualified personnel for counselling and overcrowding in the prisons. Although vocational training was a preferred rehabilitation service by many, there was lack of trainers and equipment to enhance effective rehabilitation through vocational training. More findings on the types of rehabilitation programmes found that prisons focused on internal rehabilitation for inmates than rehabilitation rather than interventions meant for reintegration of ex-convicts.

The second objective assessed the nature of training and the effect of prison training programmes on ex-prisoners' wellbeing. Findings revealed that most prisoners had undertaken training that lasted not less than one month. Training duration ranged from 3-months to more than 6 months as indicated by 54% of the respondents. Majority of the prisoners, 43% felt that the rehabilitation services were not supportive in their wellbeing after being released. The study found that, 45% of the prisoners had nothing to show about the training taken during their prison terms, 23% had letters of recommendation from the prisons department. The study concluded that ex-prisoners were not well certified after training, something that hindered their wellbeing especially if they were to use the qualification to look for employment. Results also showed that 39% of the ex-prisoners were not satisfied with the training while 36% were somewhat satisfied. More findings found that ex-prisoners perceived counselling therapy mn3.7, spiritual impartation mn=3.7 and vocational training to contribute positively to their wellbeing after being released from prison.

The study further examined the effect of correctional rehabilitation on social relations of ex-prisoners. Findings revealed that most ex-prisoners had poor relationships with

their friends, neighbors and community at large. Majority of the ex-prisoners indicated a fair relationship with parents and spouses after release from prison. The relationship with the general community was also rated poor by slightly more than half of respondents at 56%. These results showed that ex-prisoners had poor relationships with the general community, fellow employees and neighbours. These could be attributed to stigma that most of the community members and employees place on ex-convicts and fear of tainting their reputations if they associated with such members. More findings showed that, 42% of ex-prisoners felt unaccepted in the community, while 36% were tolerated. These finding showed that there was still low acceptance of people released from prison which hindered their full reintegration..

Lastly, the study assessed challenges and strategies used by released prisoners to cope with life after prison. Findings revealed that, 94% of ex-prisoners suffered unemployment, 76%, financial difficulties, 69% stigma and non-acceptance and 56% had challenges with housing. A good proportion, 49% suffered from illnesses, most of which were contracted in prison while 42% experienced interpersonal problems such as stress, depression and low self-esteem. Findings on coping strategies, established that, 83% used avoidance of people, 75% chose to live where nobody knew about their criminal history with 78% engaged in drug and alcohol use and abuse.. Other strategies used to cope were; joining support groups, talking to professional counsellors and joining religious groups. The study found a general low resilience for coping outside prison for most released prisoners thus contributing to recidivism.

5.3 Conclusions

In conclusion, imprisonment remains a disruptive experience for most people who come out of jail due to great social implications that it exhibits on their social, economic and psychological wellbeing. While prisons offer a wide variety of rehabilitation programmes for inmates, these programmes prioritize inmate behaviour management while serving their terms but largely neglect rehabilitation intervention for reintegration into the community after serving their terms. Training programmes are important in the preparation of prisoners for their lives after imprisonment. It is therefore important that the training focuses on market driven trainings and impartation of adjustment skills for ex-prisoners. Correctional rehabilitation is key in ensuring that ex-convicts adjusted to the communities' environment without resorting to aggression and drug abuse which eventually lands them back to prison. Ex-prisoners' wellbeing can further be improved through improved social relations before release, economic empowerment and psychological empowerment. Reintegration of ex-prisoners to the community is important and a requirement for post release rehabilitation services to have a positive impact.

5.4 Recommendations

Following the findings, the study puts forward the following recommendations;

i. There being limited rehabilitation services that support post release preparation in prisons, the prisons department and non-governmental actors serving in the line of justice should increase funding and post release rehabilitation intervention to ensure that ex-prisoners were supported to reintegrate smoothly in the communities.

ii. There being difficulty in certification of prisoners after training, the prison management should sensitize inmates on the training programmes that could be of help once they returned to the communities. More efforts should be put in to link ex-prisoners with employers upon release to help them utilize skills they acquired in prison. The government should improve the rehabilitation programmes particularly those meant for women inmates to avoid a scenario where they were forced to take up programmes that would not be of use to them once they left prison. More resources should be geared to rehabilitative programmes to aid inmates in attaining skills that would help them in prison and even after incarceration.

iii. The study found that prison-based rehabilitation programmes were more dominant and less attention was placed on post release social integration programmes. The study therefore recommends an improvement in post release programmes which should ensure active involvement of family members of offenders to ensure ex-convicts' wellbeing through improved relationships.

iv. The prison department with support from the government should develop a multiagency collaboration and develop comprehensive post release care for ex-convicts to ensure continuity of care, and to provide consistent assistance to offenders beyond the prison environment.

5.4.1 Recommendation for Further Studies

The following further studies are recommended to further enhance reintergration of ex-prisoners into the society.

i. There are minimal studies that have assessed the role of societal invlvement in reintergration of ex convicts in the study. A study should be done to assess the

effcetiveness and stratgeis used by communities to reintergrate ex convicts in the society.

ii. There being a need for the convicts' responsibility to continue supporting their households' wellbeing, a study should be done on households' copying stratgeies for imrpoved wellbeing while their members are convicted.

iii. Another study should assess the effectiveness of post release social integration programmes on the wellbeing of ex-offenders.

iv. A study should analyze community-based strategies for effective reintegration of ex -offenders in Kenya.

v. There is need for a study on the psycho-social impact of parental incarceration on children.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Chesang Richard Kipkemboi
P.O. BOX. 706,

ELDORET.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: REQUEST TO COLLECT DATA FOR RESEARCH PROJECT:

How are you? My name is Richard Kipkemboi a postgraduate student of Kisii University. I am conducting a study on "**The Social Implications of Correctional Rehabilitation for The Post Release Wellbeing of Prisoners in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya**." It is hoped that the information gathered will help policy makers on appropriate measures to address the problem. As a person who has served a term in prison, you have been selected to provide the necessary information. Your participation is purely voluntary and any information you will give will be treated in confidence.

Thank you in advance.

Yours faithfully,

Chesang Richard Kipkemboi
Researcher

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EX-PRISONERS

The purpose of this interview is to get your views on the study questions.

The information that you will provide will be treated with strict confidentiality. Your honest opinions will be of importance for the success of this research.

Do not write your name on this research instrument.

Please put a tick [ ] against the appropriate response that applies to you.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Gender...................................M ( ) F ( )

2. Age bracket……………………………………………………………

3 Marital status……………………………………………………………

4. Religion……………………………………………………………

5. What level of education did you complete?...

6. Residential location / estate before imprisonment……………………

7. Current residential location/estate…………………

SECTION B: PRISON SOCIAL SUPPORT SERVICES AND REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES AND POST-RELEASE WELLBEING

1. What recreational and social welfare services did you enjoy in prison?

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

2. Are you still involved in any of these activities after release? If yes, state the nature of the activities. If yes, state the nature of activities. If no, why?

………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

3. What benefits do you think you got from these activities?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Did you benefit from any counselling services while in prison? If yes, state the
    areas covered and service providers

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

5. How do you think these services have influenced your post-release life?..............

6. Do you think these religious services have been of benefit to your post-release life?
Explain……………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Did you continue attending religious services after release? If no, why?.

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

8. What vocational training programmes did you specifically undertake in prison?.

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

9. What was your level of education before imprisonment? If you advanced your level
of education in prison, to what level?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

10. Did you have any skill before imprisonment? If yes, state the nature

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

11. Do you think your current occupation is relevant to the training you got while in prison? If no, why?.

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION C: SOCIAL RELATIONS AND POST RELEASE WELLBEING

1. **No of Incarcerations and reasons   Length of sentence   Name and type of**

**   prison**

    a)… ……………………..   ……………………   ……………………….

    b) ……………………..   ……………………   …………………………..

    c) ……………………..   ……………………   …………………………..

    d) ……………………..   ……………………   …………………………...

2. Explain the status of your relationship with the following people before, during and after imprisonment:

    i) **Before imprisonment:**

a) Parents,………………………………………………………………………

b) Spouse/partner…………………………………………………………………

c) Children…………………………………………………………………………

d) Siblings…………………………………………………………………………

e) Extended family members………………………………………………………

f) Peers/friends……………………………………………………………………

g) Community members……………………………………………………………

h) Members of Nyumba Kumi security initiative

i) Law enforcement officers

ii) During imprisonment:

a) Parents…………………………………………………………………

b) Spouse/partner……………………………………………………….

c) Children…………………………………………………………….

d) Siblings…………………………………………………………….

e) Extended family members……………………………………………

f) Peers/friends…………………………………………………………

g) Community members………………………………………………..

   iii) After release:

a) Parents…………………………………………………………

b) Spouse/partner……………………………………………………….

c) Children…………………………………………………………….

d) Siblings……………………………………………………………

e) Extended family members……………………………………………

f) Peers/friends ………………………………………………………

g) Community members…………………………………………………

h) Members of Nyumba Kumi security initiative………………………………….

i) Law enforcement officers……………………………………………

3. Did you used to communicate with members of your social network while in prison? If yes, who were these and through which means?......................

……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

4. Did you used to be visited by members of your social network? If yes, who were these and how regular were the visits?..

If no, why?...

……………………………………………………………………………………

5. What kind of support did you used to get from members of your social network while in prison?..

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

6. Did you have any particular hopes about coming back? If so, how did those play out?...

……………………………………………………………………………………

7. Explain how you felt when you got information from prison authorities that you would be released?..

8.How do you think prison system prepared you for release?............................

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

9. Did you have any particular fears or concerns about going back home?...................

If yes, explain?..

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

10. Did you go home after prison? If no, where did you relocate to and why?.............

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

11. If you relocated, who owns the dwelling place you occupy? ……Do you stay with your family in the accommodation?..............

If no, where is your family?..

12. How would you describe the nature of reception when you arrived home and by who?...

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

13. What were some of your experiences? …………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

14. How did your family and/or community support you upon release?..............

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Did you have any support programmes or support networks that you relied on?.........

If yes, name them…………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

16. Did you find your family intact?...................................If no, what changes had taken place?...

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

17. Were you the breadwinner for your family before imprisonment? If no, who played the role?...

…………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

18. Are you the breadwinner after release from prison? If no, who plays the role and what do you feel about the altered role?...

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

19. If you were not married before imprisonment, how challenging is it getting married?............

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

20. Did you find your possessions intact after release? …………………..If no, explain what had happened……………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………

21. How would you consider the nature of your relationship with your crime or alternate victim/victims?..

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

22. What attempts have been made to reconcile you and your crime or alternate victim/victims?………….If any, by who and with what outcome?..................

…………………………………………………………………………………………

23. In what ways do you think the following people were affected by your imprisonment?

(i) Spouse…………………………………………………………………………………

(ii) Children…………………………………………………………………………………

(iii) Parents…………………………………………………………………………………

(iv) Siblings…………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION D: IMPRISONMENT AND EX-PRISONERS LIVELIHOOD STRATEGIES

1. What was your occupation before imprisonment? (State the terms of employment, if any)

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

2. What is your current occupation? (State the terms of employment, if any)

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

3. If you are not engaged in formal employment, what do you do to earn a living?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Have you been involved in any dealing(s)//business(es) that you think were unlawful since you were released from prison? If yes, specify the nature of the act and the reason(s) for involvement……………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

5. What was your approximate income per month before imprisonment?................

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

6. What is your approximate income per month after release?..................

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

7. What do you think are the strategies you have employed to cope with the difficult situation in the community after release from prison?...........................

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

8. Did you used to take alcoholic beverages before imprisonment? If yes, state the brand, reasons for use and the approximate number of days you drunk per week………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

9. Do you take any alcoholic beverages at the moment? If yes, state the brand, reasons for use and the approximate number of days you drink per week……………

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

10. Did you used to take any hard drugs (e.g. bhang, cocaine, heroine etc) for any reason other than medication before imprisonment? If yes, specify the type, reasons for use and the approximate number of days you used per week……………

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EX-PRISONERS' FAMILY MEMBERS (PARENTS, SIBLINGS AND SPOUSES)

1.What is your relationship with the ex-prisoner?...

2. How many times has the prisoner been jailed?...

3.What were the reasons the reasons for imprisonment?..

4. What identifiable skills do you think the ex-prisoner acquired while in prison?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

5. Are the ex-prisoners day to day economic activities related to the acquired skills?...

If no, why?...

6. What family responsibilities did the ex-prisoner have before imprisonment, if any?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Has the ex-prisoner continued with the same responsibilities after release?

If no, why?...

………………………………………………………………………………………….

8. Explain the nature of relations between the ex-prisoner and family members before imprisonment……………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

9. Explain the nature of relations between the ex-prisoner and family members after release…………………………………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

10. How regular were the contacts between the ex-prisoner and family members during imprisonment? Indicate the approximate number of phone calls and phone calls and visits per month, if any

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

11. What kind of support did family members used to provide to the ex-prisoner while in prison?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

12. What do you consider to have been the ex- prisoner's source of livelihood/income before imprisonment?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

13. What was his/her approximate income per month in ksh. , if any?.......

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

14. What is his/her approximate income per month in ksh. After imprisonment?...

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

15. How has the family assisted the ex-prisoner to settle down in his /her daily socio-economic endeavour?

………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………….

APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRISON AUTHORITIES

(ELDORET MAIN PRISON, ELDORET WOMEN PRISON/ NGERIA FARM

PRISON)

1. What was the population of prisoners in this prison between 2016 and 2020?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

2. How many prisoners were released from this prison during the period?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………….

3. What were some of the reasons for imprisonment?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………….

4. How many of the released prisoners were readmitted to prison during the period?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………….

5. What were the possible reasons for recidivism?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………….

6. List the social support services and rehabilitation programmes provided to prisoners in this prison?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

7. What is the relevance of these services and programmes to programmes to prisoners' post-release wellbeing?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

8. What other financial and material support are availed to prisoners as they exit prison?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

9. What follow-up aftercare services are provided by prisons?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

10. How effective are these programmes, if any?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

11. Consider the role of relations between prisoners and their families during imprisonment on their post-release wellbeing.

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

12. What challenges are faced by prisons in their endeavour to rehabilitate offenders?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

13. Highlight reforms that would be necessary to address these challenges.

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

APPENDIX V: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MEMBERS OF THE

PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION (CHIEFS/ASSISTANT CHIEF)

1. Name of the location/sub-location………………………………………………

2. Name of the Sub-County………………………………………………………….

3. What would you consider to be the rate of crime in your location/sub-location

……………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………………

4. What are the common crimes committed here?..

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

5. How regular is reoffending by ex-prisoners here?..

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

6. What are the possible reasons for recidivism?

……………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………………

7. What is the role of the provincial administration in the reintegration of released prisoners?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

8. How does the provincial administration, families and other stakeholders work to reintegrate ex-prisoners?

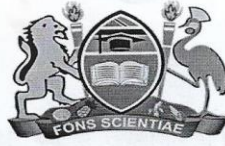…………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………….

9. Are all ex-prisoners currently residing in your location/sub-location regular residents? If no, why are their reasons for being here?

…………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………….

APPENDIX VI: MAP OF UASIN GISHU COUNTY
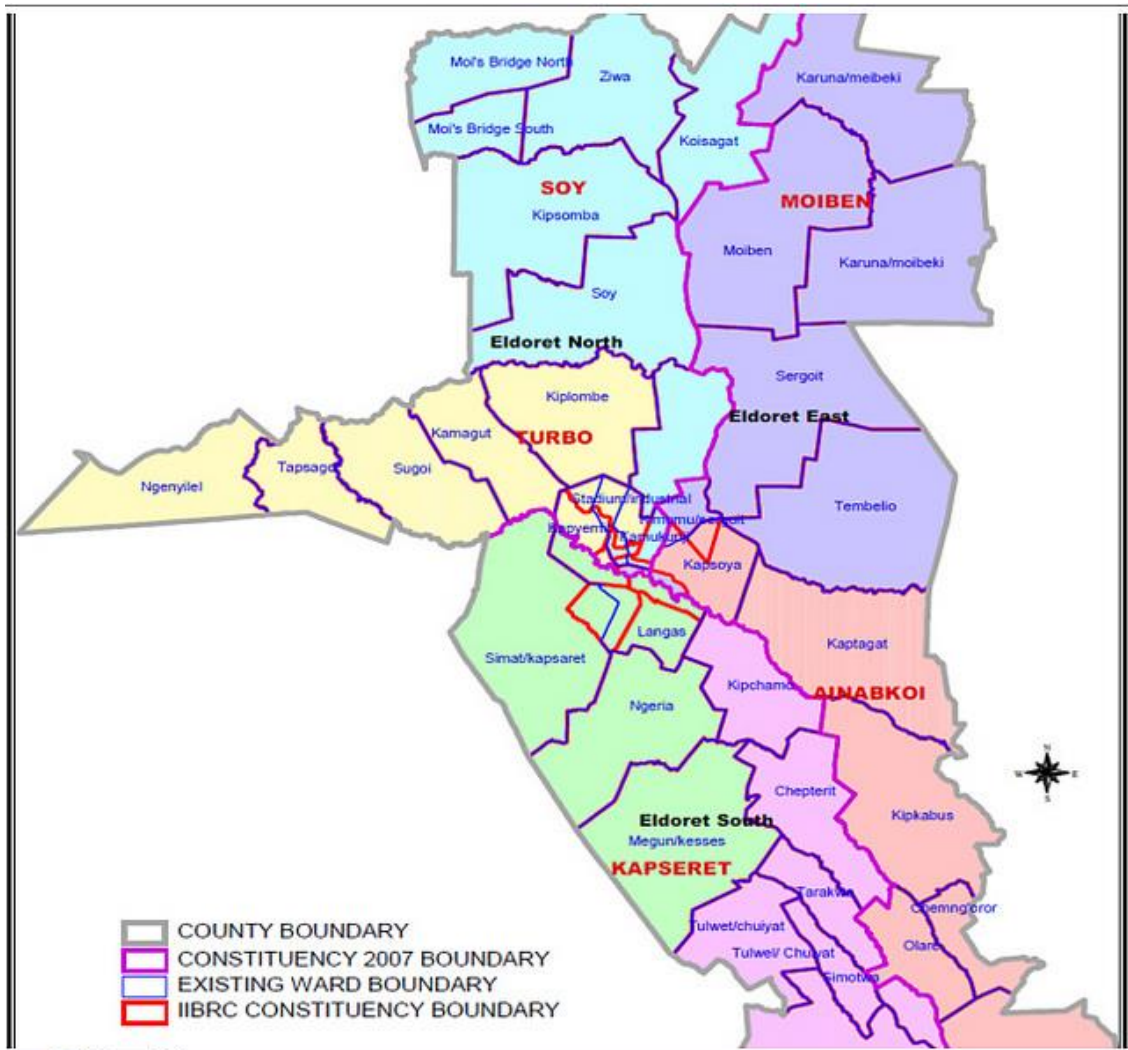
APPENDIX VII: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER FROM KISII

UNIVERSITY

KISII UNIVERSITY-ELDORET CAMPUS
OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY DIRECTOR ACADEMICS STUDENT AFFAIRS

Phone: 0720094039
Email: directoreldoret@kisiiuniversity.ac.ke

P. O. Box 6434- 30100
ELDORET - KENYA

REF: DAS/60125/14

31st March, 2021

The Director
National Commission for Science
Technology & Innovation (NACOSTI)
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: CHESANG RICHARD KIPKEMBOI REG NO. DAS/60125/14

The above subject refers;

The above named is our bonafide student of Kisii University-Eldoret Campus pursuing a **PhD** course in **Sociology** in the **School of Arts and Social Sciences.**

He is working on his research titled, **"Social Implications of Correctional Rehabilitation on Post-release Wellbeing of Ex- prisoners in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya."** in partial fulfillments for the requirement of the PhD Degree award.

We are kindly requesting your office to provide him with the necessary assistance in data collection and completion of his research.

Any assistance offered to the student will be highly appreciated. Please do not hesitate to call the undersigned for any verification.

Thank you.

3 1 MAR 2021

Prof.Dr. Maloba E. Were
DEPUTY DIRECTOR ACADEMIC STUDENT AFFAIRS
ED/pao
Tel: 0727150070
Email: dr.were@kisiiuniversity.ac.ke

APPENDIX VIII: MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AUTHORIZATION LETTER

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

State Department for Early Learning and Basic Education

Email: cdeuasingishucounthy@gmail.com
   : edausingishucounty@yahoo.com
When replying please quote.

County Director of Education
Uasin Gishu County
P.O. Box 9843-30100
ELDORET.
21ˢᵗ April, 2021

Ref: No. MOE/UGC/ACT/9/VOLL./278
Chesang Richard Kipkemboi
Kisii University
P.O Box 408-40200
Kisii

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

In reference to your Licence Re no. **NACOSTI/P/21/10008** DATED 14ᵀᴴ April, 2021 from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation and hereby granted the authority to carry out research on *"Social impact of correctional rehabilitation for ex-prisoners' post incarceration wellbeing with a specific reference to Uasin Gishu County, Period Ending 14ᵗʰ April , 2022,"* Within Uasin Gishu County.

We take this opportunity to wish you well during this data collection

FOR: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
UASIN GISHU
21 April 2021
P.O. Box 9843-30100, ELDORET
TEL: 053 2916000

Mibei Andre
For: County Director of Education
UASIN GISHU.

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APPENDIX IX: RESEARCH PERMIT

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 742021

Date of Issue: **14/April/2021**

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. Richard Kipkemboi Chesang of Kisii University, has been licensed to conduct research in Uasin-Gishu on the topic: SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF CORRECTIONAL REHABILITATION ON THE POST-RELEASE WELLBEING OF EX-PRISONERS IN UASIN GISHU COUNTY, KENYA for the period ending : 14/April/2022.

License No: NACOSTI/P/21/10008

742021
Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION

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APPENDIX X: PLAGIARISM REPORT

SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF CORRECTIONAL REHABILITATION FOR THE POST-RELEASE WELLBEING OF PRISONERS IN UASIN GISHU COUNTY, KENYA

ORIGINALITY REPORT

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