

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI FACULTY OF ARTS DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

ASSESSMENT OF THE CRIMINAL PROFILES OF MALE HOMICIDE CONVICTS: A CASE STUDY OF KAMITI AND NYERI MAXIMUM PRISONS, KENYA

 \mathbf{BY}

ISSACK ABDO JARSO REG. NO. C50/73129/2014

A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN (CRIMINOLOGY AND SOCIAL ORDER) AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

NOVEMBER, 2018

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this research project is my original work and to the best of	of my
knowledge has not been presented for the award of any degree in any other Institution	on o
University.	
Signed	
ISSACK ABDO JARSO	
REG. NO: C50/73129/2014	
SUPERVISOR'S APPROVAL	
This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval a	s the
University supervisor.	
Signed	
DR. MIKE CHEPKONG'A	
SUPERVISOR,	
Department of Sociology and Social Work,	
University of Nairobi	

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project to my wife, Sadia Ali, my daughters; Quresho, Madina, Fatuma, my son Ramadhan and my entire family members.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I sincerely acknowledge and appreciate the assistance of some useful people who have immensely contributed to the success of this research project in one way or another. I express my sincere gratitude to my family for the full support and encouragement during the project. I also thank my able project supervisor, Dr. Mike Chepkong'a, a lecturer at the Department of Sociology and Social Work, University of Nairobi for his guidance, motivation, and excellent supervision throughout the research project and finally, I sincerely thank the Kenya Prison Services (KPS) for allowing me to access a highly restricted facility that houses homicide male offenders and their staffs for facilitation and support at the two Maximum Security prisons of Kamiti and Nyeri.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
LIST OF TABLES	X
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xiii
ABSTRACT	xiv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	3
1.2.1 Key Research Questions	4
1.3 Objectives of the Study	4
1.3.1 General Objective	4
1.3.2 Specific Objectives	5
1.4 Justification of the Study	5
1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study	6
1.7 Definition of Key Terms and Concepts	7
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL	
FRAMEWORK	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 Homicide in Kenya	9
2.2.1 Homicide Trends in Kenya	11
2.2.2 Global homicide trends	12
2.3 Demographic and Socio-economic Characteristics of Male Homicide Offer	nders 14
2.3.1 Demographic Characteristics	14
2.3.2 Socio-Economic Status of Male Homicide Convicts	17
2.3.2.1 Employment Status of Homicide Convicts Prior to Imprison	nent 17
2.3.2.2 Family Background	18
2.3.2.3 Family Disintegration	18
2.3.2.4 Substance Abuse	19

2.4 Factors Propelling Male Homicide Convicts to Commit Homicide	20
2.4.1 Land and Property Disputes	20
2.4.2 Honor Killing	21
2.4.3 Family Conflicts	21
2.4.4 Criminal Enterprise	22
2.5 Typologies of Homicide	22
2.5.1 Interpersonal Homicide	24
2.5.2 Socio-Political Homicide	25
2.6 Modus Operandi of Homicide Offenders.	25
2.6.1 Approach and Attack Methods	27
2.6.2 Characteristics of the Crime Scene	27
2.6.3 Weapons of Homicide Commission	29
2.7 Victim- Offender Relationship	30
2.8 Criminal History of Homicide Offender	32
2.9 Theoretical Framework	34
2.9.1 The Sub-Culture of Violence.	34
2.9.2 Strain Theory	36
2.9.3 Social Disorganization Theory	37
2.10 Conceptual Framework	38
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	40
3.1 Introduction	40
3.2 Site Selection and Description	40
3.3 Research Design	41
3.4 Unit of Analysis and Unit of Observation	41
3.5 Target Population	41
3.6 Sample size and Sampling Procedure	42
3.7 Data Collection Methods and Tools	43
3.8 Data Analysis	43
3.9 Ethical Considerations	44

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND	
INTERPRETATION	45
4.1 Introduction	45
4.2 Background Factors of Male Homicide Offenders	45
4.2.1 Respondents' County of Birth	46
4.2.2 County of Residence	47
4.2.3 Respondent's First Language	48
4.3 County of Residence and County of Crime Commission	49
4.4 Respondents Demographic Data	50
4.4.1 Age and Education Level at the Time of Crime Commission	50
4.4.2 Marital Status at the Time of Crime Commission	51
4.4.3 Respondents' Religion	52
4.5 Socio-Economic Factors of Male Homicide Offenders	53
4.5.1 Family Background	53
4.5.1.1 Number of Living Siblings	53
4.5.1.2 Respondents' Surviving Parents	54
4.5.1.3 Parents' Marital Status	55
4.5.2 Crime Risk Factors	56
4.5.2.1 Substance Abuse Problems	57
4.5.2.2 Type of Drugs Abused by the Respondents	57
4.5.2.3 Drug use by Parents	58
4.5.3 Employment Status Prior to Imprisonment	59
4.5.3.1 Occupation and Monthly Income Prior to Imprisonment	60
4.6 Factors Propelling Homicide Convict to Commit the Offence	61
4.6.1 Reasons for Committing the Homicide	61
4.6.1.1 Nature of Dispute with the Murdered Person	62
4.6.1.2 Mental Stress Prior to the Homicide	63
4.6.1.3: Premeditated Intention to Kill the Victim	64
4.6.1.4: Other Homicide Motivations	64
4.6.1.5 Relationship with Persons Involved in Carrying out Offence	65

4.7 Respondents' Modus Operandi	. 66
4.7.1 The County of Crime Commission	. 66
4.7.2 Use of drug at the time of commission of offence	. 67
4.7.2.1 Did homicide occur in the process of committing other offences	. 68
4.7.2.2 Nature of offence which led to occurrence of homicide	. 68
4.7.2.3 Whether the Convicts were hired to commit the Crime	. 69
4.7.3 Plan to Commit the Crime and Time Taken to Plan the Offence	. 69
4.7.4 Time of Crime Commission	. 70
4.7.5 Method of Killing	. 71
4.7.6 Weapon of Homicide Commission	. 72
4.7.7 County of Crime Commission and Type of Weapon Used	. 73
4.7.8 Number of Persons Involved in the Homicide	. 74
4.8 The Victim - Offender Relationship	. 75
4.8.1 Number of Homicide Victims and their Gender	. 75
4.8.2 The Victim's Age	. 76
4.8.3 Acquaintanceship with the Victim	. 77
4.8.4. Nature of Personal Differences with the Victim	. 78
4.8.5 Mistaken Identity of the Victim	. 79
4.9 Criminal History of the Respondent.	. 80
4.9.1 Number of Convictions	. 80
4.9.1.1 Length of Previous Convictions	. 81
4.9.1.2 Previous Court Appearances	. 82
4.9.2 Number of Convicted Family Members, Nature and Length of Conviction	. 82
4.9.2.1 Nature of Crime Committed by Convicted Family Member	. 83
4.9.2.2 Family Members' Length of Conviction	. 84
4.10 Time Taken Before the Arrest	. 85
4.11 Comparison between Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons	. 85
4.11.1 Comparison of Age at the time of commission Kamiti Nyeri Maximum	
Prison	. 85
4.11.2 Respondents' Education Level at the time of commission in KMP and	
NMP	. 86

4.11.3 Comparison of Respondent's Drug abuse problems at KMP and NMP	87
4.11.4 Comparison of the Weapons used to commit homicide at KMP and NMP	88
4.11.5 Comparison of County of crime commission at KMP and NMP	89
CHAPTER FIVE SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	90
5.1 Introduction	90
5.2 Summary of the Findings	90
5.2.1 Demographic and Characteristics of Male Homicide Convicts	90
5.2.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Male Homicide Convicts	91
5.2.3 The Respondents Modus Operandi (Mode of Operation)	93
5.2.4 The Victim - Offender Relationship	94
5.2.5 Criminal History of the Respondent	95
5.2.6 Comparison between Nyeri and Kamiti Maximum Prisons	95
5.3 Conclusions	96
5.4 Recommendations	97
5.4.1 Recommendations	97
5.4.2 Recommendations for further Research:	99
REFERENCES1	00
APPENDICES1	00
Appendix 1: Research Questionnaire	10
Appendix II: Introductory Letter from the University of Nairobi	18
Appendix III: Student Letter to Kenya Prison Services	19
Appendix IV: Letter of Authority by Prison Department	20

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Sampling Frame	43
Table 4.1: The First Language of the Convicts	48
Table 4.2: County of Residence and County of Crime Commission	49
Table 4.3: Age and Education Level at the Time of Crime Commission	51
Table 4.4: Marital Status at the Time of Crime Commission	51
Table 4.5: Number of Living Siblings and Birth Order of the Respondents	54
Table 4.6: Surviving Parents and Family Structure	55
Table 4.7: Crime Risk Factors	56
Table 4.8: Drug Abuse by Parents and Respondents	59
Table 4.9: Number of Years in Employment	59
Table 4.10: Occupation and Monthly Income Prior to Imprisonment	60
Table 4.11: Nature of Dispute with the Murdered Person	63
Table 4.12: Mental Stress Prior to the Homicide	63
Table 4.13: Other Homicide Motivations	65
Table 4.14: Relationship with Persons Involved in Carrying out Offence	66
Table 4.15: County of Crime Commission	67
Table 4.16: Use of Drug at the Time of Crime Commission	68
Table 4.17: Did Homicide Occur in the Process of Committing other Offences	68
Table 4.18: Nature of Offence which Led to the Occurrence of Homicide	69
Table 4.19: Whether the Convicts were Hired to Commit the Crime	69
Table 4.20: Plan to Commit the Crime and Time Taken to Plan the Offence	70
Table 4.21: Method of Killing	72
Table 4.22: Weapon of Homicide Commission	73
Table 4.23: County of Crime Commission and Type of Weapon Used	74
Table 4.24: Number of offenders Involved in the Homicide	75
Table 4.25: Number of Homicide Victims and their Gender	76
Table 4.26: Age of the Victim	77
Table 4.27: Relationship with the victim	78
Table 4.28: Period of Acquaintance with the Victim	78
Table 4.29: Nature of Personal Differences with the Victim	79

Table 4.30: Number of Convictions	81
Table 4.31: Length of Previous Conviction and Number of Prior Arrests	81
Table 4.32: Previous Court Appearances	82
Table 4.33: Number of family members who have been convicted	83
Table 4.34: Relationship with members of the family who have been convicted	83
Table 4.35: Nature of Crime Committed by a Convicted Family Member	84
Table 4.36: Time Taken Before the Arrest	85
Table 4.37: Comparison of Age at the Time of Commission	86
Table 4.38: Comparison of Respondents' Level of Education at the Time of the	
Commission	87
Table 4.39: Comparison of Respondent's Drug abuse Problems at KMP and NMP	88
Table 4.40: Weapon used in Committing Homicide	88
Table 4.41: Comparison of County of Crime Commission	89

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework	39
Figure 4.1: Respondents' County of Birth	46
Figure 4.2: Respondents' County of Residence	47
Figure 4.3: Respondents' Religion	52
Figure 4.4: Marital Status of the Respondents' Parents'	56
Figure 4.5: Drug Abuse Problems	57
Figure 4.6: Types of Drugs Abused	58
Figure 4.7: Reason for Crime Commission	62
Figure 4.8: Intention to Kill the Victim	64
Figure 4.9: Time of Crime Commission	71
Figure 4.10: Mistaken Identity of the Victim	80
Figure 4.11: Length of Conviction Family Members	84

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CGP Criminal Geographic Profiling

FBI Federal Bureau of Investigation

ICCS International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes

KMP Kamiti Maximum Prisons

KPS Kenya Prison Services

MO Modus Operandi

NPS National Police Service

NMP Nyeri Maximum Prison

UNODC United Nation's Office on Drugs and Crime

USA United States of America

WHO World Health Organization

ABSTRACT

Homicide is arguably the most horrifying public offence, it is the only crime that creates finality to human life. The impact of murder goes far beyond the loss of life and might create an environment of ambiguity and fear among the public. This study sought to assess the criminal profiles of convicted male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons situated within Nairobi and Nyeri Counties respectively. The study rationale was to establish the demographics, socio-economic characteristics of the male homicide convicts, establish factors that may have propelled them to commit homicide, assess their modus operandi, establish their criminal history and establish victim-offender relationships of convicted male homicide offenders. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design that employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques, systematic sampling method was used that involved 88 convicted homicide inmates selected from Kamiti Maximum Prison and 22 from Nyeri Maximum Prison. The study also conducted a cross-comparison of the major study variables between the two maximum prisons. Both primary and secondary approaches of data collection were used for the study. Documentary sources from prison records also helped in supplying secondary data. The main research instrument for collecting data in the study was semi-structured questionnaires. The data was processed and analyzed by descriptive qualitative and quantitative techniques using the statistical packages for the social sciences (SPSS V 21) and MS Excel.

The study found that most of the homicide convicts were youthful people, had low education and had Substance abuse problems. Further, males were the predominant victims of homicide and were more likely to be murdered in urban areas than in rural areas. Additionally, homicide was more likely to be committed during the night than during the day. The study further found that Nairobi County was the County with the highest homicide rates. Guns and knives were found to be the most prevalent weapons of homicide in Nairobi and Kajiado Counties. The study further established that homicide victims were mostly related or well known to the offenders. Moreover, provocation among relatives was a predominant factor propelling the commission of homicide. In addition, some homicide offenders in the study were first-time offenders with no previous criminal history.

The study recommends that the government should roll out a program to ensure all pupils who complete primary education get to join secondary schools or vocational training schools. Further, the government through NACADA (National Campaign Against Drug Abuse), non-governmental and religious organizations to roll out awareness campaigns on substance abuse. Additionally, the Kenyan government needs to address the risk of illegal Firearms through regulating the proliferation of small arms mostly in urban centers, particularly in Nairobi County where guns were most prevalent. The government should also Promote and facilitate an increase in night patrols by law enforcement officers in the urban areas since homicide is mostly committed at night. Finally, the study recommends further research on criminal profiles of female homicide convicts in Kenya, the relationship between substance abuse and the increase in homicide cases in Kenya and a study on criminal profiles of male convicted homicide offenders in the other five maximum prisons namely; Shimo la Tewa, Naivasha, Kodiaga. Manyani and Kibos maximum prisons in Kenya.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Homicide is defined as lethal injuries inflicted by a human against another human with an intention to harm or kill by any means (UNODC, 2013). It is the definitive mode of interpersonal conflict that is as old as human history. The widespread prevalence of homicide, especially among youthful males in developing countries makes it a very relevant social problem to investigate (Gardner, 2014). The first recorded homicide is found in the Bible, where Abel was killed by his brother Cain, "Now Cain said to his brother Abel, 'let's go out to the field.' And while they were in the field, Cain attacked his brother Abel and killed him." (Genesis 4:8, the Holy Bible, New International Version). In law and criminology, homicides are categorized as murder, manslaughter or justifiable homicide, depending on the circumstances of the death (Johnson, 2015). However, these categories of homicides are often treated very differently in various human societies, depending on the circumstances under which they occurred. These circumstances include homicide conducted by law enforcement agents who are legally authorized under specified circumstances to kill for example in the course of selfdefense. (St. John's Law Review, 2014).

Globally, the estimated number of homicides was 560,000 in 2016 (UNODC, 2017), of these 36 % was registered in America, 31 % in Africa, 28 % in Asia, 5 % in Europe and 0.3 % in Oceania (UNODC, 2010). In Sub- Saharan Africa, Southern Africa reported 31 cases of homicide per 100,000 population in the year 2012 and in the same year Angola reported 5.2 cases per 100,000 while Nigeria, with a fewer number of cases, reported 1.5 cases per 100,000. South Africa has one of the highest homicide rates in

the world (UNODC, 2013). During the same year (2012), homicide rates in Uganda were estimated at 7.8 per 100,000 population, Tanzania had an estimated 7.6 per 100, 000 population cases while Rwanda registered 4.4 cases per 100,000 population (WHO, 2014), while Kenya registered 5.8 cases per 100,000 population in the period between the years 2006 - 2012 (NPS, 2016). According to the National Police Service, the number of homicide offences in Kenya was recorded at 8,048 for the period of 2014 - 2016, of these Kilifi and Kiambu Counties, recorded the highest number of homicide cases in the country at 235 and 135 respectively (NPS, 2016).

In the majority of the countries, the proportion of offenders convicted of homicide is usually well below 1 % of all the convicts (Ghuneim, 2013). More specifically, the vast majority of homicide perpetrators are male (WHO, 2014). Men account for 95 % of all homicide convicts in 53 countries in the world (UNODC, 2013). This pattern is homogeneous across all regions of the world. Additionally, gender, age, socioeconomic status, education, and one's criminal history are demographic factors that are associated with homicide offenders. Generally, only about 10% of homicides are committed by females (Johnson, 2015). As regards to the victims, men tend to be killed by an acquaintance or stranger, whereas women tend to be killed by people they are supposed to feel safe with (Ghuneim, 2013).

According to Amerini (2015), assessing criminal profiles of the convicted perpetrators is pivotal in understanding the demographic and the criminal history of the homicide offenders. However, criminal profiles are generally rare in developing societies like Kenya (Amerini, 2015). Moreover, this study assesses the profiles of convicted male homicide offenders to establish their demographic factors, socio-economic factors,

criminal motivations, modus operandi, criminal history, and victim-offender relationships.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Homicide is arguably the most horrifying public offence, it is the only crime that creates finality to human life. Certainly not only is a life lost, but there are co-victims in the wake of this tragedy (Riedel, 2013). Besides, the impact of murder goes far beyond the loss of life and might create an environment of ambiguity and fear. It additionally represents a risk to civilian security (Hinds, 2011). However, despite the public attention and serious consequences to both the victim and offender, circumstances surrounding homicide, and the understanding of it remains largely unknown to many. This study mainly focuses on assessing offender profiles of homicide convicts with the intention of reviewing the homicide offender and the circumstances surrounding the offence.

Currently, a few of the studies conducted on criminal profiles of offenders include Mburu (2015), who did a study on Criminal Geographic Profiling (CGP). This study evaluated numerous (CGP) techniques with facts obtained concerning Dandora, a small but, a high population density area in Nairobi, Kenya. Another study was conducted by Leparmara (2016), the study was on the effectiveness of criminal profiles in solving murder cases, a case study conducted on the Kihiu Mwiri killings in Muranga County, in Kenya. The results depicted that organizational rudiments such as tasks assigned; skill and knowledge of the investigator; reasoning abilities and training significantly affect the effectiveness of profiling. Hardly has there been any focus on the underlying factors which are central to unearthing the criminal profiles of homicide offenders. This subsequently underscores the need for research, one which explores the relevance of

criminal profiles and analyses the homicide convict. This study, therefore, is an attempt to fill the already identified gap in knowledge by elucidating offender profiles of male homicide convicts with a focus on the demographic factors, socio-economic factors, criminal motivations, modus operandi, criminal history, and victim-offender relationship.

1.2.1 Key Research Questions

- i. What were the demographic and social-economic characteristics of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons?
- ii. What were the factors that may have propelled male homicide convicts at the Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons to commit homicide offence?
- iii. What was the *modus operandi* (mode of operation) of male homicide convicts at the Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons during the commission of crime?
- iv. What were the victim-offender relationships of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons, prior to crime commission?
- v. Do male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons have any criminal history?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

To assess the Criminal Profiles of male Homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons, in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- To establish the demographic and social-economic characteristics of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons.
- ii. To assess the factors that may have propelled male homicide convicts at the Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons to commit the offence of homicide
- iii. To assess the *modus operandi* (mode of operation) of male homicide convicts at the Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons during the commission of the crime.
- iv. To establish the victim-offender relationships of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons, prior to crime commission.
- v. To establish the criminal history of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons.

1.4 Justification of the Study

The research findings will provide offenders profiles, thus shedding light to personality and behavioral traits of homicide offenders at the two correctional institutions. The profiles may aid in the construction of future classifications of homicides and offender typologies both of which are crucial factors during police investigations.

Through the analysis of criminal motivations, victim-offender relationships, and socioeconomic factors, the study will provide criminal investigators a better understanding of those aspects of a homicide investigation that are most difficult and demanding, thus help investigators to focus and prioritize their investigations more appropriately. Besides, the study findings may inform policy formulation and crime prevention strategies. Over and above that, the resultant empirical data and information

may be utilized by researchers, policymakers, law enforcement agencies, and other practitioners.

Developing criminal profiles will aid in the application of community crime prevention model, which focus on community conditions that lead to the rupture of informal social controls that generate and/or tolerate crime, such as social apathy, lack of social cohesion, lack of trust, disempowerment, etc. Moreover, developing these profiles will also assist in application of the Psycho-social crime prevention model that focuses on the social and psychological conditions that individually generate crime, such as domestic violence, inadequate adult supervision of children, family dysfunction, school desertion, inequality, drug and alcohol abuse, unemployment, discrimination, etc. in public spaces, etc.

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This is a case study of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons in Nairobi and Nyeri Counties respectively. It focuses on male convicts who constitute the majority of homicide offenders in Kenya, thus leaving out female homicide offenders who constitute approximately 107 convicted homicide offenders which are 3.8% of the total homicide offenders. The study also excludes homicide undertrials whose cases have not been concluded before the court. The key study issues are the offenders' demographic and socio-economic factors, their criminal motivations, *modus operandi*, victim-offender relationship and criminal history and does not include other broader aspects of the homicide offenders such as the physical and biological attributes of the offender as indicated by Cesare Lombroso in his biological positivist theory of the atavistic man.

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design that employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques, systematic sampling method involving 88 convicted homicide inmates were selected from Kamiti prison and 22 from Nyeri prison. However, the sampling method may not capture all the characteristics of the universe as it is limited to two out of seven maximum prisons in the country, namely Shimo la Tewa, Naivasha, Kodiaga. Manyani and Kibos. As such the study findings may not accurately be used to determine the criminal profiles of all male homicide convicts in the country since they are case study findings from only two out of seven maximum prisons. The study respondents were initially apprehensive in sharing sensitive information about the commission of the homicide act since some of them still had the hope of appealing their cases before superior courts. However, the researcher obtained official permission from the Kenya Prisons Service (KPS) and also assured the respondents that the findings of the study were confidential and were only for academic purposes. Moreover, the researcher utilized the assistance of the prison warders who assured the respondents of the nature of the study. This further facilitated the successful collection of data through co-operation of convicts.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms and Concepts

Convict: A person who has been committed to prison. In this study, the

convicts refer to homicide offenders who have already been

sentenced.

Criminal Profile: Assessment of biological, sociological and behavioral

characteristics of an offender. In the present study, it will be used

to refer to the demographic and socio-economic characteristics,

the modus operandi, the victim-offender relationship, criminal history of the homicide convicts and the factors propelling homicide convicts to commit the offence.

Homicide:

The unlawful killing of another person. In the present study, the term refers to intentionally killing of another person (murder) and unintentionally killing of another person (manslaughter).

Maximum Prisons: Refers to facilities for holding convicts who are incarcerated for committing capital offenses such as homicide. In this study, the term will represent Nyeri and Kamiti maximum prisons

Modus Operandi: (Latin: "operating method") abbreviation MO. Refers to the specific method used by particular homicide offender to perpetrate a homicide offence in terms of approach and attack method, characteristics of the crime scene and weapon of choice.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL

FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The chapter reviews empirical and theoretical literature that is relevant to the study and also presents the conceptual framework.

2.2 Homicide in Kenya

According to Mushanga (2011), homicide refers to the killing of a human being through an act or omission of another person whether deliberate or not. These are killings that are committed with malice aforethought, planned, prior intention or when the person dies due to the action or inaction of persons other than the victim (Mushanga, 2011).

Ghuneim (2013) explains that a homicide is justified when the killing is done in self-defence or when the killer does so to stop the commission of a felony or serious offence. Thus, a policeman who shoots to kill a felon is not guilty of a criminal homicide. He further explains that excusable homicide is committed when a person without negligence or intention accidentally kills another person. A homicide becomes criminal if it is done without lawful justification or excuse; then it is either murder or manslaughter.

According to the Kenyan Penal Code chapter 63 Laws of Kenya, murder, is categorized as:

I. Manslaughter: this applies to any individual who by means of an illegal act or inactions causes the death of another individual is responsible for the

- felony termed manslaughter. In Kenya any individual who commits manslaughter if found guilty is liable to life imprisonment.
- II. Murder: Any individual who with criminal intent causes the death of another person through unlawful act/or omission is guilty of murder. In Kenya, if found guilty the mandatory sentence for murder is death sentence.

In all homicide cases, criminal intent is proven through one of the following ways:

- a) An intention to kill or cause grievous harm to any individual, whether that individual is the one actually killed or not;
- b) With knowledge that action or omission inflicting loss of life will likely result in the demise of or brutally harming the individual whether the individual is actually murdered or not, despite the fact that such know-how is followed by lack of concern whether death or bodily harm is caused or not or by wish that it could not be have happened;
- (c) Intention to perpetrate a serious offence;
- (d) An intention through the act or omission to assist the flight or escape from custody of any individual who has committed or attempted to commit a crime.
 - III. Killing on provocation: when someone who intentionally murders another in the circumstances which, leads to loss of life because does an action which causes death under the sudden uncontrollable state of mind before his mind fully settles is guilty of manslaughter only.

- IV. Suicide pacts: this is a form of manslaughter, and not murder if someone undertaking suicidal act in conjunction with another person to murder the other or help another person commit suicide or him murdered by the third party.
- V. Infanticide: any female adult knowingly or by omission kills her infant (less than 12 months), however, during the period of her action or omission she had mental instability brought about by the effect of her giving birth, then, notwithstanding that the situations, for the provisions of this section, the act amounts to murder and will be responsible for an offence called infanticide and may be dealt with as if she has committed the manslaughter of an infant.

The president of Kenya, his Excellency, Uhuru Kenyatta, commuted all persons sentenced to death to serve life imprisonment early 2018 and in 2016, whereby death sentences of 2,747 inmates on death row were commuted to life imprisonment, as was done by President Mwai Kibaki 7 years earlier, where he commuted the sentences of 4000 inmates on death row to life imprisonment in 2009. The move was made to compel these prisoners to work, something condemned men are exempted from. Despite the lack of executions, death sentences are still passed in Kenya by Kenyan Courts (KNCHR, 2018).

2.2.1 Homicide Trends in Kenya

According to the National Police Service Crime situation report (2016), there were 2,648 reported homicides cases in Kenya in the year 2015; of which 1,777 were murders, 62 were manslaughters,51 were infanticides, 51 were abortions, 80 were concealing of

Births, 320 were Suicides and 301 were deaths caused by dangerous driving (NPS, 2016).

Almost all kinds of homicide are a consequence of the goals of perpetrators. According to Daly (2016), the rate of transitional elements of different types motivates an individual committing homicide. The means used in perpetrating homicide depends on various factors such as the desires of offenders, demographic features of the victims and offenders and the availability of the weapon and laws governing them.

According to Allison, (2013), criminal homicide divulges very interesting patterns in reference to sex, age, an association of the victim and the offender, the motives for the homicide and the methods of inflicting fatal injury and the weapons used. He further observed that men aged between 25-30 years committed homicide more frequently against other men than women mainly due to property disputes. This study further revealed that there was a greater possibility for women to be killed by intimate partners or by people they are more familiar with than by their male counterparts.

2.2.2 Global Homicide Trends

Globally, no less than 560,000 individuals were murdered brutally in 2016, this represents approximately 8 violent killings for every 100,000 population (UNODC, 2017). The rate to some degree reduced in 2015 (7.7) and 2014 (8.1). Worldwide, in 2016, around 385,000 deliberate homicides were recorded. These homicides represented more than 66% of all fatalities of the deadly violence. The primary rise in the worldwide homicide rate since 2004 occurred in the year 2016 (WHO, 2017). In the midst of 2015 and 2016, the homicide rates raised from 5.1 to 5.2 murders for every 100,000

population. Direct conflict killings represented 18 % of the aggregate violent homicides in 2016, an insistence that a major number of victims of deadly violence keep on losing their lives outside of the war zone. Armed conflicts existed in nine out of the 23 nations with the most noteworthy brutal homicides rates in 2016 (UNODC, 2017).

Broadly, 99,000 individuals died in armed conflict internationally in 2016 (Small Arms Survey, 2017). This number is lower than in 2015 (119,000), after a peak in 2014 (143,000), moreover, this was two times higher than in 2004 (42,000). Syria, El Salvador, Venezuela, Honduras, and Afghanistan were the five most violent nations in 2016 regarding recorded violent death rates (UNSD, 2017).

Continuity of the present local patterns infers that violent deaths every year are probably going to rise from around 560,000 in 2016 to more than 610,000 by 2030.in connection to the anticipated development in populace, the homicide rate will rise every year from very almost 385,000 to 421,000 while the rates of homicide universally may diminish marginally between 2016 and 2030, from 5.15 to somewhat lower than 5.0 for each 100,000 populace (Small Arms Survey, 2017). Yearly, killings that result from direct conflicts are foreseen to surpass 100,000 in number by 2030. A decrease in the yearly number of violent killings to around 408,000 by 2030, down from 560,000 is the more positive situation in 2016. In a more negative situation, the entirety of brutal killings is probably going to rise to around 819,000 by 2030. In the event that nations could forsake the 'business- as -usual' practice for the positive situation, possibly 1.35 million lives are probably going to be spared between the period of 2017 and 2030. In contrast to the negative situation, the positive one predicts roughly 2.6 million spared lives (Small Arms Survey, 2017). As far as homicides alone, nations could save 825,000 lives

between 2017 and 2030 in the event that they continuously upgrade their crime control and prevention techniques to accomplish the violence reduction levels of the most affected countries in specific world regions. In this manner, nations in the sub-region of Latin America and the Caribbean would profit most, saving at least 489,000 lives altogether by 2030, followed by states in South-Eastern Asia (86,000 lives) and Eastern Africa (56,000 lives) (UNSD, 2017).

2.3 Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Male Homicide Offenders

2.3.1 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic data that is age, marital status, educational status, and occupational status are a tool used for analyzing homicide offenders (Bosco, 2010). When establishing these profiles, the focus ranges from reviewing the individual culprit to studying specific relationships and circumstances that make them more at risk of violence than others (Alison, 2013).

According to Brearley (2013), a majority of homicide perpetrators in the USA tended to be black, uneducated males, who were "on average aged around thirty years". He further stated that murder was less likely to be premeditated, but rather, carried out "in sudden heat and passion". Moreover, alcohol often played a role. While black homicide rates far surpassed those of whites due to intra-racial violence, whites were more plausible to kill blacks than vice versa. Victims of homicide were, according to him were four times more likely to be male than female, aged between 15 and 44 years. In terms of weapon used, between 1920 and 1926, 71.5% (of the 63,906 reported homicides) were committed with firearms (Brearley, 2013). In terms of age, offenders tended to be younger than victims, and both white and black offenders indicated the strongest

propensity for homicide between the ages of 20 and 24. Black females were more inclined to commit homicide between the ages of 25 and 34, whereas white females were split between two age groups of 20-24 and 35-39.

According to Herrnstein (2014) and Krug (2011), young adult males aged between 15 to 29, are the majority homicide perpetrators compared to older age groups and specifically by use of physical force (Herrnstein 2014). According to Krug (2011), homicide victims tend to be young adult males. They further found that the higher the proportion of young male adults in the population, other factors remaining constant, the higher the number of homicide acts. Viable as this perception might appear, it virtually reveals little support in cross-sectional research.

In majority societies most murder fatalities involve men, but, their percentage age varies from one society to another. According to the study by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (2011), the findings of the global research indicated that the percentage of female fatalities averages about 50 %; Slovenia, 58%, Korea, 51%, Japan, 50%, Germany 49.6%, Switzerland 49.1%, and Croatia, 49% however, it was below eight percent in some countries for instance; Honduras, 6.9%, Paraguay, 6.4%, Uganda, 6.0%, Venezuela, 5.0% and Sri Lanka 3.7%. Evidently, the gender balance of victims of homicide appears to vary steadily from Country to Country. However, Verkko (2014) observed that the proportion of female victims was high in societies with minimal homicide rates, but in violent societies, the bulk of victims (eighty percent and above) are usually male.

According to Lederman (2012), there seems to be a correlation between education and homicide in the sense that, low education poorer segments of the population may result

in lack of employment and poverty-associated crimes and homicides. Pizarro (2011) revealed three paths when assessing offending styles of 2,546 convicted murder offenders in Europe. The first path group, which comprised nearly half of the pattern, marginally involved in the offence or no offending before the homicide incidence. The second cohort, comprising of about 34% of the respondents, had a small number of convictions as at age 20. The last group, which had the least number of offenders (nearly16% of the pattern), showed extreme levels of crime commission for the duration of their life.

More recently Farrington et al.., (2015) examined thirty-seven murder offenders from among the Pittsburg youth. The study implied that the majority of the criminals had been involved in other crimes before the commission of the murder by engaging in various violence, altercations, property, and alternative offences. Smith (2013) perceives a strong significant relationship between homicide and age. He opines that the most significant determinant of homicide in Africa is that it is committed by young adults.

Similarly, Super (2014), found that homicide rates are perpetually linked to the age structure of a population. In Namibia, for example, practically half of the population is aged under 15; in South Africa, the Country with the highest homicide rates in the world ((UNODC, 2013), 44 % of the population is aged under twenty years. Moreover, Ndikaru (2011), found that three-quarters of the respondents in his study on youth and violent crimes lived in informal settlements and were below 35 years of age.

2.3.2 Socio-Economic Status of Male Homicide Convicts

These are social economic factors that may propel male convicts to commit homicide offences.

2.3.2.1 Employment Status of Homicide Convicts Prior to Imprisonment

There is combined evidence on the relationship between employment history, academic achievements and socio-economic status with homicide (Christofferson, 2014). According to Collins (2010), low education and unemployment were characteristically amongst homicide offenders furthermore, the study discovered that even though these factors may be significant predictors of violent offences, they do not distinguish repeat offenders. Grogger (2015), argues that an increase in crime rates among youths can be explained to some extent by their infrequent opportunities to the labor market. Job opportunities available for this age group are associated with poor remuneration, thus predisposing youth to criminal opportunities that promise greater monetary payments (Grogger, 2015). The assumption is consistent with Beauchamp's (2010) findings that the change in minimum wage across the U.S.A States between 1997 and 2010 led to job losses and increased violent crimes and homicides of young men aged between 25-35 years. The act of the minimum wage decreases and the resultant violent crimes and homicide was higher among former gang members. The study, therefore, recommended that increasing job opportunities for untrained youths is more efficient in diminishing violent crimes than offering fewer jobs with better salaries.

2.3.2.2 Family Background

According to Kosiken (2013), there is a weak relationship between being from a single parent family, having criminal parents and being vulnerable to committing murder in adult life. A contrasting study, however, according to Soothill (2015), discovered that divorce in the course of childhood was revealed to have double risk of frequent violent offending and committing a murder offence for the children once they reach maturity. Other family factors which have been discovered to be predictors of later violent and murder offending include being the child of a teenage parent, being positioned in care outside the home, violence within the family, parents' lack of education, maternal alcohol abuse (Ezell, 2015). This finding shows that family factors are related to offending in general and not necessarily to murder in particular.

Fletcher, (2014) recommends that incarcerated young offenders with a history of emotional abuse by their parents' hand or guardians are more likely to be arrested for homicide upon release from prison. Finally, Campbell, (2016) observed that, when other factors are considered together, the family is the main social context that contributes to the risk of juvenile delinquency and recurrence of violent offences and homicide, acting jointly with other factors.

2.3.2.3 Family Disintegration

The social experiences of young adults influence the decisions they make regarding the practice of violence (Smutt, 2014). According to Salvador (2013), exposure to violence or different styles of social difficulty at some point in childhood often has a lasting consequence in adulthood. In his study of violent crimes, Salvador interviewed twenty-two young people in the metropolis of Cape Town, one in ten confirmed that they were

occasionally, beaten up violently while they were younger. One in three stated that they were harassed often. One out of four respondents said they grew up in a family with an adult who either had a drinking problem or was abusing street drugs. One in ten reported that as they grew up some of their relatives had been imprisoned.

Moreover, Philip (2015) observed that the paternal absence during the formative years is truly significant. In addition, he discovered that a young man who spent little of his childhood living with his biological father becomes one and a half times more likely to commit acts of violence when he was young than a person who in most cases or used to living as a child with his father. The time spent by a boy child to live with his mother has not had such an effect. Their studies also found that exposure to drinking alcohol and abuse of drugs during early child development was also related to violence during early adulthood.

2.3.2.4 Substance Abuse

Early drug or alcohol abuse is associated with violent offending and similarly consequent arrests for an extreme crime such as but not restrained to violence (Green, 2011). Substance abuse at a younger age and especially before the age of 11 years is revealed to be especially prognostic of future violence (Brook, 2011). According to Trulson (2016), drug use in childhood has been connected to time spent with delinquent peers and the two elements combined were found to cause violent behavior later in life. He further suggests that teenagers classified as 'common drinkers' had greater propensity to commit homicide than 'light' or 'non-drinkers'. These findings are supported by using studies of Farrington (2014), on substance abuse in maturity, his research observed that drug use had a substantial connection with the murder for both

women and men. Further, this study established that substance abuse is associated with violent offending when combined with other factors, for example, low intelligence and personality disorders. Drug and alcohol abuse had been determined to be elements which could have a terrible effect on the dominant effect of different life events. However, another study Johnson, (2015) only found a relationship between murder and substance abuse wherein self-reported homicide records were used but no longer with official data.

2.4 Factors Propelling Male Homicide Convicts to Commit Homicide

The vast majority of murders are perpetrated by persons who, before they kill, seem perfectly normal (Luckenbill, 2014). Several types of homicides can be identified on the basis of motivation, which can always play a different degree in numerous types of homicides (UNODC, 2014). However, the search for homicide motivations is a complex undertaking since they are often multiple and overlapping in nature (Luckenbill, 2014). In fact, more research and methodology are required to help develop a broad categorization of homicides (Irwin, 2014).

2.4.1 Land and Property Disputes

Disagreements in families, workplaces and in the general community lead to collective quarrels and violence that may result in homicide (UNODC, 2015). Quarrels and arguments are social misbehaviors, which disturb social relationships and create hatred, rancor, and animosity among people; these, in turn, could lead to homicide. According to Leparmara (2016), the collective quarrel is a major problem in African societies especially over land disputes and domestic animals such as cattle (especially in pastoralists' communities where cattle rustling is rampant) which have a tribal context.

It is evident in Kenyan pastoral communities where community members kill each other during tribal wars over cattle and pasture. In this communities, quarrels and violence are considered as a measure of power and advocacy of social, cultural traditions and family respect (Mutonya, 2012). According to Mushanga (2011), quarrel, burglary, and family conflicts are major reasons for committing murder in East Africa. Farrington, (2015) also viewed quarrel and robbery as main factors leading to homicide in India.

2.4.2 Honor Killing

The issue of honor killing has attracted social issues experts. According to the United Nations Population Fund (2015), honor killing is a cause of murder among criminals. Further, there are over 5,000 girls sentenced to death each for reasons of honor killing, some of the reasons for these killings include, illicit love affairs, spousal betrayal, adultery, foundation, loss of virginity etc.

2.4.3 Family Conflicts

Homicide patterns in families are mostly shaped by conflicts and violence within families and couples (Kocsis, 2013). A large share of known context homicides arises from intimate relationship whereby there are daily interactions, emotional stress arising from financial and cultural ties (Irwin, 2013). According to Kocsis (2013), a major motivation of intimate partner relationships is skepticism. When their safety is threatened, women can go to extreme lengths to return to safety, they may result to murder when they are suffering from domestic violence and are unable to divorce their husbands because of cultured and religious reasons (Irwin 2013), Sometimes women feel their marriage relationship is not functional though they are not experiencing domestic violence, they tend to murder their spouses so as to end the marriage.

According to Parker (2015) when husband believe their wives are cheating on them, they have a tendency of killing their wives' lovers. Moreover, women tend to cheat on their husbands when they feel unloved and unappreciated. Globally, a majority of female homicide victims are killed by family members or intimate partners (UNODC, 2015). This implies that the people who are expected to protect and take care of women are the one who is most likely to kill them.

2.4.4 Criminal Enterprise

Criminal enterprise involves gangs and terrorist groups whereby those who murder are compensated through financial gains or other benefits i.e. the murders are committed in connection to drugs, gangs, and organized crimes. A specific group or an individual may be motivated to commit murder in furtherance of their goals and ideologies. These include terrorist attacks, ethnic attacks, and attacks against a particular race (Salfati, 2012).

2.5 Typologies of Homicide

According to Mullany (2013), the fundamental factors that form homicide typologies and related to the profile, personality and inner motivations of the homicide offender. Organized and disorganized homicides are the oldest and most broadly utilized typologies especially utilized by the F.B.I. The typology explains a logic whereby the homicide offender who was emotionally abused lacked a reliable family and lacks social skills; is likely to have a disorganized crime scene. Carmen, (2012) explains that psychopathic personality, above average IQ, good social skills, are clearly shown in the organized crime scene. Carmen (2012), further explains that homicide offenders who

are disorganized mostly dehumanize their victims and have messy crime scenes whereas homicide offenders who tend to establish a more personal relationship with the victim and the crime scene they leave behind are well organized. These offenders are mostly educated. Four-fold typology of homicide motivations based on indicators on the crime scene was developed by the F.B.I's National Centre for Analysis of Violent Crimes (CAVS). They include the following:

- i) Homicide driven by Criminal initiative (contract murders, gang-motivated murders, insurance/inheritance related killings, and felony murders),
- ii) Homicides caused by personal reasons (domestic violence-related murders, political and religious murders, or mercy killing),
- iii) Homicide driven by sexual attributes (rape and murder, child rape and child serial killing)
- iv) Homicide resulting from group activities (cult related homicides, and homicides linked to extremism and terrorism).

Six homicide categories contained in an F.B.I crime classification manual elucidates the following categories of homicides: single homicide, double homicide, triple homicide, mass murder, spree murder, and serial murder (Douglas, 2014). Another classification by Holmes and Holmes (2011) classified homicide perpetrators into the following categories:

(i) Murder committed by a perpetrator assuming the role of God. Also known as a visionary killer.

- (ii) Murder inspired by a certain belief that one has a special assignment or mandate to commit murder also known as missionary killing.
- (iii) Murder committed out of excitements lust or pleasure. This type of killing is known as domestic killing. This killer also perceives the homicide as a way of gaining power and control they have mostly had a bruised mind or personality.

In the same breath, Salfati (2012) identified categories of classifying homicide founded on pointers on the crime scene. Homicides that entailed physical attacks, rape, arson connected to anger were the characteristics of expressive homicide. This category of homicide is an expression of thrilling violence, several wounds on the victim use of various weapons, suffocation and victims' bodies mutilated. On the other hand, homicides that are driven by a desire to get monetary gains or sexual pleasure are classified as Instrumental (Kocsis, 2013). In this typology traces of the weapon, clothes, semen, mutilated bodies, are left behind by the perpetrator.

Fox and Levin (2010) developed a five-fold motivational typology for classifying homicide: power-driven homicides, revenge-oriented homicides, homicide driven by loyalty, homicide driven by monetary gains and terrorism inspired homicide. All these typologies were developed in order to assist investigators to understand the homicide offenders' innermost thoughts.

2.5.1 Interpersonal Homicide

According to Farrel (2013), interpersonal homicide is normally intended to resolve a conflict. Additionally, homicide may be a consequence of assault in a relationship that

is experimenting pressure from social-cultural regulations. Interpersonal homicides mostly occur in an intimate relationship. In another study by Keppel (2013), it was established that the victim and offender in interpersonal homicides have connections that are mostly related to finances, legal issues and emotional attachments. This typology of homicide is mainly founded on the nature of the relationship between the victim and the offender and the homicide is more likely to be intentional, planned or a random violent act.

2. 5. 2 Socio-Political Homicide

Titterington (2013), elucidates that politics and political agendas are the drivers of social-political homicide, moreover, this homicide is perpetuated in the political spheres so as social, ethnic and political groups can gain power and control. The social-political murder victim is mostly known to the offender, but their relationship is not of consideration in the decision to commit the homicide. According to Titterington (2013), Premeditation is the main characteristic of this homicide. Homicides resulting from acts of terrorism war and conflict-related murders are classified as social-political violence.

2.6 Modus Operandi of Homicide Offenders

Modus operandi, abbreviated here as (MO), is basically the method of an individual offender uses to perpetuate the homicide act. According to (Fisher, 2012), offenders have individuality in the manner in which they carry out the crime regardless of their specializations. Moreover, Muhula (2013) explains that a repeat offender mostly leaves behind indications or traces that clearly differentiates him/her from other offenders. In the same breath, Goodwill (2010), illustrates that the operating method of any given homicide perpetrator includes the following aspects; the choice of victim, the time of

the attack, the place of attack, the type of weapon used and the method of gaining access. The method of operation of a particular offender is vital in linking the homicide to that particular perpetrator. However, homicide offenders are likely to change their M.O after committing several homicides to avoid detection or recognition. Examples of the changes in M.O may include changing from using bare hands to using socks to suffocate victims, change of the time from night to daytime and changing the gender of the victim.

Given the variability of the modus operandi, this study intends to establish the modus operandi of convicted male homicide offenders thus shedding light on personality and behavioral traits of homicide offenders at the two correctional institutions. The profiles may aid in the construction of future classifications of homicides and offender typologies both of which are crucial factors during police investigations. Bouchard (2010) explains that the M.O is dynamic and flexible depending on whether or not it works for the perpetrator. Moreover, the homicide offender will adopt different kinds of M.Os depending on his/her criminal history. Bouchard (2010), further elucidates that basic assumptions are the basis of solving murder cases using M.Os of unknown homicide perpetrators. This is because of the inevitability of criminal acts which results in slight behavioral changes. These changes are determined by the situational characteristics at that given time the current goals of the perpetrator and the newly acquired skills. In related studies, (Zappala, 2010), illustrates that individuals have specific uniqueness and temperaments they, therefore, have different behavioral reactions to similar situations and will make different decisions when faced by similar circumstances. According to (Bennell, 2015) after observing and assessing the important behavioral aspects of individual homicide offenders, it is essential to record them accurately, so that they can be used by researchers to observe, measure, records and code behaviors that may have a significant effect on possible linking of various homicide acts.

2.6.1 Approach and Attack Methods

The exceptional factors of the M.O of a given offender include the approach and attack methods. These methods are determined by the geographical location of the crime scene and the choice of victim. According to Rossmo (2011), there are four geospatial models that can be used to explain a criminal pursuit of their victim, they include the hunter, the poacher, and the trapper. These techniques are mostly used in unexpected attacks but may mostly not be uniformly applied by the perpetrator. In a related study Beauregard et al. (2010) noted that in similar geographic areas, 57% of homicide offenders hunted for their victims.

Additionally, Davies (2013), established that homicide victims were mostly approached by offenders near the offenders' home. This, therefore, depicts that familiarity to the environment is a major determinant of the location of attack in most homicide cases. Once the perpetrator identifies a suitable location, he/she is likely to consistently commit homicide in that particular spot. The offender, therefore, is likely to demonstrate consistency in their approach and attack methods in a series of homicides.

2.6.2 Characteristics of the Crime Scene

An offenders M.O is characterized by the significant features displayed in the crime scene. These features include the offender's forensic knowledge, the perpetrator's actions at the time of the offence and the nature of violence on the victim Beauregard

and Bouchard (2010). According to Beauregard and Bouchard (2010), after accessing homicide and the degree of forensic awareness, they discovered that choosing the victim prior to the offence and prolonged offence planning were the signs of forensic awareness in homicide offenders. Similarly, offenders who had substance abuse problems have decreased capacity for monitoring their moves and may therefore hardly show forensic awareness. Several pre-crime elements and observing preceding offences may be the basis of forensic knowledge displayed on the crime scene. The primary crime scene factors that were investigated were the extent of the risk of arrest and the duration of committing the offence.

Beauregard et.al (2010) also discovered a relationship between the length of time taken to commit the offence and the risk of arrest. Furthermore, homicide offenders who had committed homicide with minimal risks of being arrested were less likely to engage in violence than those who committed homicide in environments where the risk of being arrested is higher. These findings imply that in scenarios where the risk of arrest is higher, offenders tend to be extra impetuous and they are not aware of the environmental cues and this makes them indifferent and increases their chances of changing direction. According to (LeClerc et al., 2015), different levels of violence are inflicted by homicide perpetrators to their victims.

Beauregard et.al (2012) found that there was an increased level of violence and hostility as criminal involvement increased, in half of the sample they investigated. Furthermore, the greater the resistance by the victims, the more violence and verbal aggression the perpetrator inflicted on them. Even though crime scene features are elements of a perpetrators M.O pattern, they had been established to change over time due to

circumstantial factors which includes the victim's reaction and knowledge gained from the previous commission of the offences. Therefore, crime scene behaviors may additionally be shown in unpredictable way when compared to other crime features which can be under the control of the offender.

2.6.3 Weapons of Homicide Commission

The weapons used in homicide commission vary largely depending on the circumstances in which the homicide occurs and also the perpetrator using the weapon. Generally, any tool used by an individual to kill another is termed as a weapon in that particular crime scene despite the fact that the tool may not be termed as a weapon under normal circumstances (Piazarro, 2011).

According to Bartol, (2012), anytime a homicide perpetrator commits murder either by shooting, stabbing, chocking, poisoning, hitting or making bodily contact, it speaks to the magnitude of range and also the relationship or connection to the victim. In another related study by Fletcher, (2014) it was established that women use guns less often than men in committing homicide, moreover, women are more likely to use knives, blunt objects and poison to commit homicide while men, on the other hand, are more likely to use guns and knives to commit homicide. Fletcher further established that in a scenario without guns, men are more likely to use hitting with blunt objects, strangling, drowning and explosives to commit homicide.

In another study, Parker (2015) discovered that elderly people and young people are more likely to be killed using poisoning and strangling. Additionally, acquaintances

with the homicide perpetrators such as relatives and friends are more likely to be killed through poisoning.

2.7 Victim-Offender Relationship

The ability to place the homicide event in the social structure context is depicted in the victim-offender relationship (Carmen, 2012). Complex social relationships which share a distinctive cause may delineate homicides. These relationships include wife, husband, friend, lover, and stranger. Furthermore, the social roles of the victim and offender determine the moral and legal responses to violence.

According to Baker (2014), related people such as relatives and friends are the ones who frequently experience a homicide. He, therefore, suggested that it would be less likely for stranger's homicide to happen amongst acquaintances. Procise (2014) suggested that it is important to obtain information on the victim and the offender. This is because the behavior of some victims is likely to lead to their victimization. He, therefore, suggested that sentencing and elucidation in court decisions in a homicide cause could be facilitated by gaining additional information about a victim. According to Wilson (2013), homicide-involving related persons tend to take lesser period to be finalized than homicide involving strangers.

Personal, sociological and cultural factors related to homicide are important areas of study, however, they do not explain all homicide typologies (Bennell, 2012). According to Ashworth, (2014) the analyzing the victims and offenders will help to understand the dynamic aspects of homicide. He reported that 90% of homicides are more likely to be perpetrated by men and that there is a higher frequency of homicides among acquaintances

than among strangers. He also stated that violence among the youths tends to occur between strangers.

Acquiring information about the victim-offender relationships is important because it unearths the elements of a previously overloaded homicide by increasing information on prevention and intervention strategies. Additionally, through elucidation of the crime, it facilitates court decisions such as sentencing and clearance of cases (Alison, 2013)

According to Bouchard, (2010) quick clearance of homicide cases is determined by investigating victim-offender relationships. He also suggested that a lot of time is taken to clear homicide cases involving strangers than those involving acquaintances and family members.

Farell (2013) suggested a classification of victim-offender relationships that have five categories which included strangers, acquaintances, friends, romantic partners, and relatives because he perceived that more detailed information would be obtained from a precise relationship. Nevertheless, the subjectively of the classification caused him to adopt a three-category classification whereby he grouped romantic partners and relatives in the first group, strangers in the second group and acquaintances in the third group. He determined that homicides committed by friends and family were mostly perpetrated using guns than those strangers' homicides. Moreover, he suggested that family and acquaintances homicide were more likely to be committed indoors while strangers' homicides were more likely to be committed outdoors.

Cole (2013), used a three-group classification scheme to conduct a study in Taiwan whereby friends and acquaintances were grouped together romantic partners and relatives

were grouped together and strangers were in another group. From this study, he determined that 48% of the respondents had committed homicide against an acquaintances or a friend, 20% had committed homicide against an intimate partner while 32% were stranger homicides. He noted that in acquaintances and friends' homicides there was a likelihood to use weapons than in strangers and intimate partner homicides. Further, he noted that friends, acquaintances and intimate partner homicides were more likely to occur indoors while stranger homicides occurred in public places. The study further depicted that a knife was the most preferred weapon of choice among the respondents. The study concluded that between the time of homicide commission and education, gender and gun as a weapon, there was no significant relationship.

Bloomfield (2013) used a two-group homicide classification to examine victim-offender relationship. One group was identified as primary relationship including intimates, relatives and friends were identified as one-group while the second group consisted of secondary relationships which included acquaintances and strangers no correlation was found in this study between the victim-offender relationship and the weapon used.

2.8 Criminal History of Homicide Offenders

The criminal history of the homicide offenders is an important factor in identifying the potential risk factors that propel offenders to commit a crime (Marshall, 2013). In the same breath, Rachel, (2016) conducted a study which examined the correlation between an individual's criminal history and the predisposition to commit homicide. The analysis of the study was conducted on 569 males aged below 45 years who were first-time homicide convicts between 2009 and 2010 in a South African Maximum prison. The focus of the study was mainly on those respondents who had previous convictions in

other crimes. They were then matched to two sets of control group: the first one included offenders with a general criminal history and the second one included offenders with a criminal history of violent offending. The characteristics revealed by the analysis of the two groups includes the following: 32% of the first - time murderers and 36% of sexual offenders had no previous criminal histories. Of those homicide convicts who had been previously convicted, 57% had violent convictions, 5% had sexual offences convictions (72%) for theft and handling stolen goods and (61%) burglary. There were different risk factors found for those convicted of the murder of a family member. This kind of conviction is the only one that significantly increased the risk of subsequent family homicide convictions.

From this study findings, it can be concluded that: these offenders who had committed crimes against property and persons for example robbery and arson have an increased predisposition to murder conviction in subsequent crimes (Rachael, 2016). However, intended robbery and assaults were found to be a significant risk factor of a subsequent conviction for stranger male homicide and the risk of an acquaintances murder tripped. Moreover, this offence increased the risk of a female stranger homicide.

In a similar study, an analysis was performed on cases of defined homicide offenders of Illinois between the ages 18 to 64 years who were arrested in 2001. Five considered definitions of previous records; they included arrest, arrest for a violent crime, five or more arrests with at least one for a violent crime, felony conviction, and violent felony conviction. There were 884 cases whereby 42.6% of cases had a felony conviction. From this study it can be observed that some homicide offenders are ordinary people who kill when provoked by a relative or an acquaintance. The federal Bureau of investigation has

data that supports this perspective whereby it indicates that about half of all homicides are committed by an acquaintance or relative of the victim, more than a quarter of all homicides whose victims are female, are committed by boyfriends or husbands and about a third of all homicides are precipitated by arguments (Burgess, 2015). In contrast, domestic homicides are mostly preceded by pre-existing assaults and homicides committed against acquaintances are likely to be perpetrated by rival gang members, drug dealers or organized criminal groups (Christophell, 2013).

2.9 Theoretical Framework

The study used the sub-culture of violence theory, strain theory and social disorganization theory to help in understanding homicide.

2.9.1 The Sub-Culture of Violence

In homicide studies, the subculture of violence theory is an influential sociological theory. The theory mainly originated by Wolfgang (1967) who explained violent behavioral tendencies among members of the low-status society. Wolfgang (1967) perceived psychological theories to be ignored of the wider social issues, pressures, and constraints operating in individuals. Further, he perceived psychological theories to neglect the broad correlational approach of how people perceive and interpret their living conditions objectively and how they react to social issues. Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967) attempted to analyze homicide in a truly social-psychological manner.

Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967) explained that in the lowest social-economic groups in society where most criminal homicides occur, common beliefs are shared about the use of physical force when one is challenged or insulted. They argued that this belief consisted

of a sub-culture of violence wherein is passed down from one generation to another through this sub-culture of violence, the group establish norms and values that explain the use of violence in a cultural context whereby violent behavior is an expected norm.

The 'subculture of violence' idea very quickly became a widely accepted and quoted thesis. It was also adopted by other researchers and applied as a tool for explaining regional differences in violence. However, with regards to the use of physical violence, the considerable difficulty was experienced by the subcultural theories on deciding the point at which the subculture begins and the mainstream where the culture ends. Moreover, there are difficulties in explaining the issue of introduction of other beliefs and forms of violence to an entire community is considering that most homicide offenders are male, the 'subculture of masculinity' is arguably a more applicable term (Erlanger, 1974). Social and psychological pressures are experienced by many males at different phases of their lives, from different backgrounds and settings for example in sports (boxing) and fighting.

A major criticism of this theory is its failure to consider violence as a 'realistic adaption' to a given situation (Bacon and Lansdowne, 1982). Moreover, in the area where the subculture interacts with the larger society, the theory provides very little understanding. Additionally, the theory does not analyze the implications of the origin and maintenance of the subculture of violence (William, 1982). Finally, critics have highlighted the inherent circularity of the subculture of violence thesis. The evidence for the existence of the subculture which explains patterns of violent crime is the pattern of the crime itself (Levine, 1978).

2.9.2 Strain Theory

According to Agnew's (1985 and 1992) the strain theory explains that a number of outcomes such as homicide and delinquencies are a result of negative emotions caused by strain. The specific strains discussed in the theory include the failure to achieve positively valued goals (e.g., money or status), the removal of positively valued stimuli (e.g., loss of a valued possession), and the presentation of negatively valued stimuli (e.g., physical abuse). In an attempt to explain the relationship between strain and homicide, Agnew explains that strain resulting from unjust treatment and low social control is likely to result in violence and homicide.

Strain theory further explains that strain results from emotions such as anger, this anger arises when individuals perceive that they are receiving unjust treatment from others, when they experience resentment from others and when they are anxious and depressed. The response of strain is likely to be violent and even homicidal. However, not all responses to strain are violent.

Anger is the predominant emotion that results from strain and causes violence. This is because anger propels uncontrolled desire and justification for vengeance thereby causing violence. (Agnew, 1992). Some studies of the mediating model in strain theory have focused on anger as the sole intervening factor in the relationship between strain and homicide. Strain theory has attempted to explain violence as an outcome of coping with strain. Agnew explains that homicide is a result of a combination of factors stemming down from strain issues, these factors include the inability to tolerate strain, having poor coping skills, lack of resources to mitigate strain, inaccessibility of conventional social support systems and the perception that committing homicide is a low cost and viable

option. Moreover, Agnew identified personality traits and negative emotionality of individuals as other factors that resulted in impulsiveness and violence.

The strain theory explains that homicide occurs in response to different types of strains and emotions in men. This application incorporates gender-sensitivity and negative emotions, it also explains that increased propensity to homicide and lethal violence is a result of anger and rage activation.

2.9.3 Social Disorganization Theory

The theory of social disorganization has its origin in the Twentieth Century Chicago School of Sociology. Since its inception, the advocates of this theory have focused on the neighborhood conditions of disadvantage, but the idea itself is defined as the incapacity of residents to maintain social control and order to address the community challenges when Social regulations have a low effect on disorganization (Znaniecki, 1920). Kubrin and Weitzer (2009) suggested that the incapability of a society to solve social persistent problems results in social disorganization.

The persistent of social disorganization results in residential conflicts, deviations from societal norms and ultimately murder. An overabundance of disorders results in social disorganization. Social disorganization is characterized by physical characteristics (e.g. garbage, abandoned buildings, and graffiti) as well as social qualities (such as high population density, broken households, and high residential mobility) (Hirschi, 1990).

Silver (2000) argues that signs of social disorganization include drug abuse, anger and absence of social support which are risk factors that can result in murder. Additionally, society is cushioned from concerns of occurrence of homicide when there are strong

social support systems. (Jang, 2000), explains that when homicides are prevalent in a community, residents may not be willing to take part in social—disorganization reduction programs.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

Research variables in this study were categorized into three: independent, intervening and dependents variables. Homicide is the dependent variable whereby it can be a result of any of the various intervening variables such as anger, depression, revenge, peer pressure, and emotional abuse. These variables are brought forth by the independent variables such as the motivational factors influencing the homicide offenders which include; demographic factors, socio-economic factors, motivational factors, modus operandi, victim-offender relationship, and the criminal history of offenders.

Demographic Factors • Age • Marital Status • Education • Gender • Geographical Location **Socio-Economic Characteristics** • Drug and Substance Abuse • Cultural Factors • Family Factors • Employment • Disintegration **Propelling Factors** Anger • Criminal Affiliations **Commission of** Depression • Socio-Problems Homicide • Interpersonal Relations Revenge • Personal/Domestic Factor Emotional abuse **Offences Modus Operandi** Peer pressure Murder • Approach and Attack Method Strain • Weapon of Choice Disputes Manslaughter • Crime Scene Location Influence of • Time of Crime Commission alcohol • Location of Crime Commission **Victim -Offender Relationship** • Family Relations • Romantic Relations

Intervening Variables

Dependent Variable

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

• Violent or Non-Violent Offences

• Number of Previous Arrests

Source: Research Data, 2018

Stranger Homicide Acquaintances

Criminal HistoryPrevious ConvictionsMinor or Major Offences

Independent variables

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section specifies the elements of the research methodology comprising of the site description, research design, unit of analysis and observation, sample size and procedure, data collection methods and instruments, data analysis, and ethical considerations when conducting the study.

3.2 Site Selection and Description

The study was conducted at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons situated within Nairobi and Nyeri Counties respectively and both facilities are correctional centers for male convicts. Nyeri Maximum Prison is popularly known as King'ong'o Maximum Prison because it is located in King'ong'o area of Nyeri town. The correctional facility of Kamiti houses 1,962 male prisoners, while Nyeri maximum prison has a total of 1,236 male prisoners. These are prisoners sentenced to death or life imprisonment after being convicted of capital offences such as homicide, murder, treason, and armed robbery. The facilities are manned by Kenya Prison Services (KPS) whose mandate is to provide containment of offenders in an acceptable and safe environment, in order to enable fair responsive administration of justice, rehabilitation, social integration, and community safety. The study picked Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons out of seven male maximum prisons in Kenya namely Shimo la Tewa, Naivasha, Kodiaga. Manyani and Kibos Maximum Prisons. Kamiti is the second largest maximum prison after Naivasha, and it is located in the capital city of Kenya, Nairobi, whose population is cosmopolitan in nature. Nyeri was chosen because it is among the smallest and it is geographically located in the rural or sub -urban areas. With this sample, the study was able to capture various dynamics of homicide offenders from both rural and urban population. This population consists of Kenyans from all regions that is Northern, Southern, Western, Eastern and Central regions and also others from neighboring Countries.

3.3 Research Design

The study assumed a cross-sectional survey design which employed both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis approaches. This design enabled the researcher to deeply analyze the phenomena with a view to generalizing to a wider population. The reason for using descriptive research design is that it measures the accuracy of the variables. The findings from the cross-sectional study resulted in the development of important tenets of knowledge and resolutions to important problems. It's not only collecting information, but also involves measures, classification, analysis, and interpretation (Kothari, 2008)

3.4 Unit of Analysis and Unit of Observation

The unit of analysis in this study were prison records and male homicide convicts who were undergoing correctional services at the Kamiti and Nyeri maximum prisons respectively. The unit of observation was the offenders' criminal profiles, namely: demographic, socio-economic, modus operandi, victim offender relationships and criminal histories (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2013).

3.5 Target Population

The study facilities of Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons house murder convicts who are either sentenced to death or to life imprisonment and the chance of going back to the society is very slim given the current sentence they are serving.

Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) elucidate that the target population should have some visible characteristics, to which the researcher intends to generalize the results of the study. This definition assumes that the population is not homogeneous. The study's target comprised of 287 homicide convicts at Kamiti and 51 at Nyeri Maximum Prisons, this totaled up to a population of 336 homicide convicts.

3.6 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a subset of a particular population while sampling is the exercise concerned with the choosing of individual observations intended to yield some knowledge about a population of interest especially for the purpose of statistical extrapolation (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2013). The study sample comprised of 90 and 22 male homicide convicts from Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons respectively, who were picked using systematic sampling method making up a total of 112 (33%) respondents. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2013), if the sampling frame is less than 10, 000, a sample size of between 10 to 30% is an appropriate representation of the target population. Hence, 30 % the sub-sample is suitable for analysis. The study used systematic sampling by selecting the sample from the study population at random and then each k^{th} object in the frame was picked, where k, was the sampling interval: this was calculated as $K = N_{/n}$

Where n was the sample size, and N is the population size.

At Kamiti Maximum Prison the k^{th} element was $^{287}/_{90}=3$

Therefore, the study picked every 3rd respondent from the population until the sample of 90 respondents was acquired.

Therefore, at Nyeri maximum prison; the K^{th} element was $^{51}/_{22}$ =2

So, the study picked every 2nd respondent from the list of 51 homicide convicts until a sample of 22 respondents were obtained.

Table 3.1: Sampling Frame

Prison	Number of Inmates	Population of Homicide Offenders	Sample	%
Kamiti Maximum Prison	1,962	287	90	31
Nyeri Maximum Prison	1,236	51	22	43
Total	3,198	338	112	33

Source: survey Data, 2018

3.7 Data Collection Methods and Tools

Both primary and secondary approaches of data collection were used for the study.

Documentary sources from prison records also helped in supplying secondary data. The main research instruments for collecting data in the present study were questionnaires.

A Semi-Structured questionnaire was used for data collection. The questionnaire had both open and closed ended questions which were administered by the research assistant to the homicide convicts, who were the main respondents of this study.

3.8 Data Analysis

The researcher checked the questionnaires to ensure that they were complete before the beginning of data analysis. The analysis of the closed-ended questions was carried out using nominal scales in mutually exclusive categories and frequencies through the use of descriptive information using the statistical packages for the social sciences (SPSS V

21) and MS Excel. The analysis of the open-ended questions was carried out using the analysis of the conceptual content that included the production and interpretation of frequency counts, tables, bar graphs, and pie charts to describe and summarize the records.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The information obtained from the convicts was confidential as it relates to the commission of the capital offence and the criminal history of the convicts. Participation was voluntary and no information was obtained through intimidation, threat, inducement or false promises to the convicts. The questionnaire did not carry any identification numbers or names of the respondents hence individualization of responses and traceability is not possible. The researcher also obtained an official letter from the university to show that the study is purely academic and for purposes of research only. The researcher also sought permission from correctional authorities of KPS before accessing the two facilities.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND

INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings on the analysis of primary data collected from convicted male Homicide offenders at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons. The analysis of data was done using (SPSS) Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 21). The results are presented using descriptive statistics. The data collected were processed based on the research questionnaires. The findings were analyzed and interpreted in descriptive statistics and the results were presented using tables and figures i.e. pie chart, histograms and bar charts. The purpose of this research was to assess the criminal profiles of convicted male homicide offenders at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons. The study sample comprised of 90 respondents from Kamiti and 22 from Nyeri maximum prisons adding up to a total of 112 respondents. A majority of the questionnaires were returned, however, 2 were found incomplete and were discounted from the total questionnaires. The response rate, therefore, was 110 (98%). The findings are analyzed and interpreted in descriptive statistics and the results were presented using tables and figures. Below are the study findings:

4.2 Background Factors of Male Homicide Offenders

The study sought to find out the background factors of the respondents which included the County of birth, the County of residence at the time of crime commission and the first language of the respondents. The findings are stipulated below:

4.2.1 Respondents' County of Birth

The study shows that the highest number (11.8%) of the respondents were from Kiambu and Kitui Counties respectively Muranga and Meru Counties had the second highest (8.2%) of respondents. Makueni had a respondent representation of 5%. Tana River, Nyeri, Nakuru, and Kajiado counties had a representation of 3.6%. Embu, Machakos Kisii, Nairobi, Marsabit, Kakamega, Isiolo, and Meru Counties had an equal number of respondents represented at 2.7%. Nyandarua, Transnzoia, Bungoma, Samburu, Laikipia, and Homabay Counties had a percentage of 1.8 % respondents while Siaya, Mombasa, Kwale, Kirinyaga, Migori, Nandi, Narok and Busia Counties had the lowest representation (0.9%) of respondents. These findings demonstrate that the respondents hail from both rural and urban origins. Moreover because of the geographic location of the Maximum Prison (Kamiti and Nyeri) there was a likelihood that a majority of the respondents were from the vicinity. This further implies that propensity to commit homicide is not necessarily determined by the place of birth; whether one is born in rural or urban environments, the likelihood to commit homicide is equal. The findings are stipulated in figure 4.1.

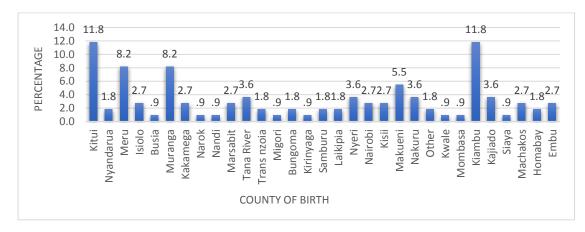


Figure 4.1: Respondents' County of Birth

Source: Survey Data, 2018

4.2.2 County of Residence

The study found that majority of the respondents (22.7%) were residing in Nairobi, 10.9% Kiambu, 9.1% were living in Kajiado, 8.2% lived in Kitui, 5.5% lived in Machakos and Muranga, 4.5% were living in Laikipia, in Marsabit, Transnzoia, Nyeri, Tana River, and Isiolo 2.7% were living there at the time of crime commission while Kakamega, Eldoret, Narok, and Garissa were the Counties with minority of the respondents at 0.9%. These findings illustrate that the respondents were mostly residing in urban areas at the time they committed the crime of murder. According to the social disorganization theory, urban areas are more likely to be habitual environments for homicide offenders because of the low levels of social cohesion among community members. Moreover, urban areas provide easy access to weapons and there is a low probability of arrest due to the high population density. The findings are shown below in figure 4.2.

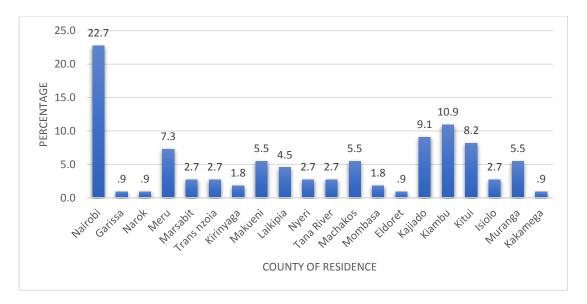


Figure 4.2: Respondents' County of Residence

Source: Survey Data, 2018

4.2.3 Respondent's First Language

The study found that out of 110 respondents, a majority, (35) spoke Kikuyu as their first language, 23 of them spoke in Kamba,13 of them spoke in Meru language,7 spoke Luhya, while 4 of them spoke in Borana, Kisii, Orma, Maasai and 2 spoke in Samburu and Burji languages. These findings show that most of the respondents were raised in the Agikuyu and Akamba communities during their childhood. These findings could also have been influenced by the geographical location of the prisons which have close proximity to the Agikuyu and Akamba communities. Moreover, the Agikuyu community is one of the largest community in Kenya, and Burji and Samburu communities are among minority communities in Kenya which implies that the national population rate is correlated with the number of criminal offenders in the prison. Also, the two of communities of Agikuyu and Kamba borders the city of Nairobi where the number of homicide cases are higher. The findings are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: The First Language of the Convicts

Mother Tongue	Frequency	Percent (%)
Kamba	23	21.2
Luhya	7	6.4
Maasai	4	3.6
Bukusu	3	2.7
Others	1	.9
Samburu	2	1.8
Orma	4	3.6
Kikuyu	35	31.8
Kalenjin	4	3.6
Meru	13	11.8
Luo	4	3.6
Burji	2	1.8
Kisii	4	3.6
Borana	4	3.6
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey Data, 2018

4.3 County of Residence and County of Crime Commission

The table below illustrates that a majority (20%) of the respondents, from Nairobi and Kiambu (10%), committed homicide in the counties they were residing. The rest of respondents committed homicide in different counties other than their counties of residence. From these findings, the study can illuminate that the urban areas provided an enabling environment for the respondents to commit homicide. This is probably because it could take long to be arrested because of the large population and anonymity in urban areas. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: County of Residence and County of Crime Commission

			COUNTY OF CRIME COMMISSION																					
		Others	Nairobi	Garissa	Narok	Meru	Marsabit	Trans nzoia	Kirinyaga	Makueni	Laikipia	Nyeri	Tana River	Machakos	Mombasa	Eldoret	Kajiado	Kiambu	Kitui	Isiolo	Muranga	Kisii	Kakamega	Total
	Nairobi	1	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	25
	Garissa	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Narok	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Meru	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
	Marsabit	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
	Trans nzoia	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
	Kirinyaga	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
NCE.	Makueni	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
IDE	Laikipia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
RES	Nyeri	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
COUNTY OF RESIDENCE	Tana River	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Nnc	Machakos	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
ၓ	Mombasa	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Eldoret	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Kajiado	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
	Kiambu	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	12
	Kitui	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	9
	Isiolo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
	Muranga	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	5	0	0	6
	Kakamega	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total		2	24	1	1	10	2	3	2	5	5	2	3	6	1	1	9	14	9	3	5	1	1	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.4 Respondents Demographic Data

The study sought to assess the demographic factors of male homicide convicts at the two correctional facilities. Demographic data on age, marital status, educational status, and occupational status are the parameters used for analyzing criminal profiles of homicide offenders.

4.4.1 Age and Education Level at the Time of Crime Commission

The study took interest in the age of the respondents at the time they committed homicide offence. Of the 110 respondents interviewed, those between, 30-34 years of age; were 20% respondents, those between 35-39 years of age were 14.5%; between 19-29 years old were 13.6% respondents, those between 40-44 years old were 8.2% and those above 60 years old were 7.3%; those between 45-49 and between 55-59 years were 5.5% and those with 18 years of age and below at the time of crime commission were 4.5%. These findings illustrate that majority of the respondents of the study were mostly youth between the ages of 30-39 years who had acquired only basic primary education prior to committing homicide. From these findings, it can be concluded that the lack of secondary and higher education could be a factor predisposing youth to commit homicide possibly because of lack of well-paying jobs due to their limited academic achievements and the competitive nature of the Kenyan job market. These findings are stipulated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Age and Education Level at the Time of Crime Commission

Age and Education Time of the Communication		Educa	Education Level at the Time of the Commission					
		Primary (F)	Secondary (F)	University (F)	None (F)			
	Under 18 Years	1	3	0	1	5		
	19-24	13	2	0	0	15		
	25-29	9	4	2	0	15		
	30-34	9	8	4	1	22		
Age at the Time	35-39	11	3	0	2	16		
of Commission	40-44	4	4	0	1	9		
	45-49	3	2	1	0	6		
	50-54	4	1	2	1	8		
	55-59	1	1	0	4	6		
	60 and above	2	0	0	6	8		
Total		57	28	9	16	110		

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.4.2 Marital Status at the Time of Crime Commission

The study found out that at the time of commission, out of 110 respondents a majority, 77.3% of them were married, 18.2% of them were single, 2.7% were separated and 1.8% were widowed. These findings illustrate that the majority of the homicide perpetrators in this study were part of a nuclear family at the time of crime commission. This depicts that relationship and marriage obligations did not restrain the majority respondents of this study from committing homicide offences. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Marital Status at the Time of Crime Commission

Marital Status at the Time of Crime Commission	Frequency	%
Married	85	77.3
Separated	3	2.7
Widowed	2	1.8
Single	20	18.2
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.4.3 Respondents' Religion

The research found that a majority (88%) of the respondents were Christians at the time of crime commission while 10% were Muslims, 1% were of other religions and 1% had no religion. This stipulates that regardless of the fact that both Christian and Muslim religions consider murder as illegal, the respondents had religious affiliations but their religious affiliation or the lack of it did not necessarily propel or hinder the respondent from committing homicide. Moreover, a majority of the Kenyan population are of the Christian religion which also translates to the number of offenders at prisons. The findings are stipulated in figure 4.3 below.

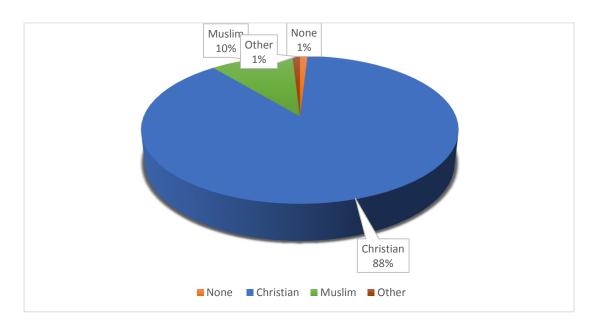


Figure 4.3: Respondents' Religion

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.5 Socio-Economic Factors of Male Homicide Offenders

These are socio-economic factors that motivate male offenders to commit homicide offences. They include family elements, substance abuse element, and employment factors.

4.5.1 Family Background

Here the study sought to understand the family background of the homicide convicts to see if it has a role in homicide crime commission e.g. number of siblings, birth order of the respondents, parents marital status etc.

4.5.1.1 Number of Living Siblings

The study found out that out of 110 respondents, 43.6% of them came from families with more than five living siblings, 15.5% of the respondents came from families with five living siblings, 10.9% of them had four siblings, 10.9% of them had two, 8.2% of them had three siblings, 4.5% of them had one sibling while seven respondents had no siblings. This illustrates that a majority of the homicide perpetrators in this study were members of large families. In the same breadth of family elements, the study sought to find out the birth order of the respondents. It was established that out of 110 respondents a majority, (29%) were first born, 20% were second born, 19% were third born, 10% were fourth born and 21% were of other birth orders. According to Farrington (2015), as the number of children in a family increases the amount of parental attention that can be given to each child decreases. The increase in the number of children in a family tends to cause overcrowding in the home and can also lead to frustration, irritation, and conflict over the limited resource. These conditions are likely to propel individuals into committing homicide Moreover, Farrington further suggested that birth order is a key

factor in propelling young males into criminality, whereby the children who are born later in a family tend to be inclined into criminality, however the findings of this study do not agree with this theory since the majority of the respondents were first borns. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Number of Living Siblings and Birth Order of the Respondents

		Bi	rth Ord	ler		Total	
		First	Second	Third	Fourth	Other	
		Born	Born	Born	Born		
	1	4	0	0	0	1	5
	2	5	1	3	1	2	12
	3	2	3	2	0	2	9
	4	3	3	4	2	0	12
	5	5	3	2	5	2	17
	Above 5	11	10	10	3	14	48
	none	3	1	0	0	3	7
Total		32	22	21	11	24	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.5.1.2 Respondents' Surviving Parents

The study found that 57.3% of the respondents had living parents while 41.8% of them their parents had already passed on. These findings illustrate that the presence of parents in the respondents' family was not a factor that restrained them from committing homicide moreover, the study found out that out of 110 respondents, 82 had both parents, 24 were from single mother families and 4 were from single father families. These findings illustrate that homicide offenders are not necessarily raised in single parent families, on the contrary, a majority of the respondents came from families with both living parents. Therefore, these findings illustrate that propensity of committing

homicide is not necessarily determined by the family set up. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Surviving Parents and Family Structure

Surviving Parents and		What is	What is Your Family Structure					
Family Structu	ire	Single Mother	Single Father	Both Parents				
A D .		0	0	1	1			
Are Parents Alive	Yes	14	0	49	63			
	No	10	4	32	46			
Total		24	4	82	110			

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.5.1.3 Parents' Marital Status

The study found that a majority (88.2%) out of 110 respondents had parents who were married, 5.5% respondents had their parents separated, 3.6% had parents who were divorced and 2.7% had parents who never lived together. These findings elucidate that, the majority of the homicide perpetrators in this study did not come from broken families or suffered negative socialization in childhood, as a result lacking parents on the contrary, they were mostly from families where parents were married. Therefore, the family status may not always propel or restrain individuals from committing homicide. The findings are illustrated in Figure 4.4.

88.20% 100.00% 80.00% PERCENTAGE 60.00% 40.00% 20.00% 3.60% 2.70% 0.00% MARRIED DIVORCED **SEPARATED NEVER LIVED TOGETHER** MARITAL STATUS

Figure 4.4: Marital Status of the Respondents' Parents'

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.5.2 Crime Risk Factors

The study found that majority (60.9%) of the respondents did not experience any major problems when growing up, 22.7% respondents experienced poverty, 4.5% experienced sicknes, 3.6% experienced sicknes of parents, child abuse and death of parents while 0.9% experienced unemployment of parents. These findings illustrate that a majority of the homicide offenders in this study were not influenced by their childhood shortcomings in committing the crime. Therefore, propensity to commit homicide is not always propelled by childhood problems. The findings are represented in table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Crime Risk Factors

Problems	Frequency	%
None	67	60.9
Poverty	25	22.7
Unemployment of Parents	1	0.9
Death of Parents	4	3.6
Sickness of Parents	4	3.6
Child Abuse	4	3.6
Sickness	5	4.5
Total	110	100

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.5.2.1 Substance Abuse Problems

The study found out that 48% respondents out of 110 had substance abuse problems while 52% of them (a majority) did not have substance abuse problems. These findings show that though the majority of respondents of this study did not have substance abuse problems, although a good number might have been influenced by use of alcohol. This, therefore, implies that substance abuse was among the major problems propelling the respondents of this study to commit homicide offences. The findings are illustrated in figure 4.5.

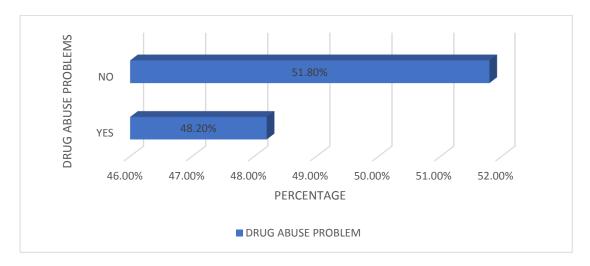


Figure 4.5: Drug Abuse Problems

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.5.2.2 Type of Drugs Abused by the Respondents

The study found out the 52% of the respondents were not abusing drugs. However, 37% were abusing alcohol, 8% were using khat, while 3% were using other drugs. This shows that alcohol was the most prevalent drug among the study respondents. Moreover, hard drugs such as cocaine and heroin did not feature majorly in the study mostly

because they are not locally available for consumption or they were expensive to buy.

The results are stipulated in Figure 4.6.

None
52%

Alcohol
37%

None

Other
3%

Figure 4.6: Types of Drugs Abused

Source: Survey Data 2018

4.5.2.3 Drug use by Parents / Guardian

The study found that out of 110 respondents 70 of them (a majority) said their parents did not use drugs, while 40 of them said their parents used drugs. Further, 35 respondents said the father was the parent who used drugs, while only 2 respondents said the mother used drugs and 3 said both parents used drugs. These findings elucidate that a majority of the respondents who had drug abuse problems had parents with the same problem, while those without drug problem, their parents too did not abused any drug. This further explains that the drug abuse problem could mostly have been inherent from the respondents' parents. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Drug Abuse by Parents and Respondents

		Did your p	Did your parents abuse drugs			
		Which pare	Which parent abused drugs			
Did your	Yes	2	35	3	0	40
parents	No	0	0 0 0 70 70			
abuse						
drugs						
Total	•	2	2 35 3 70 10			

4.5.3 Employment Status Prior to Imprisonment

The study found that out of 110 respondents 33.6 % of them had been employed for over 10 years prior to imprisonment, 23.6% of them had no employment prior to imprisonment, another 23.6% of the respondents had been employed for a period between 6-10 years, and while 19.1% of the respondents had been employed for a period between 1-5 years. This shows that unemployment was not a predominant problem to the respondents of the study prior to committing homicide as majority of the respondent were employed for over ten years at the time committing murder, therefore employment is not a deterrence for committing homicide. The findings are stipulated in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Number of Years in Employment

Number of Years in	Frequency	%
Employment Status		
None	26	23.6
1-5 Years	21	19.1
6-10 Years	26	23.6
Over 10 Years	37	33.6
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey Data, 2018

4.5.3.1 Occupation and Monthly Income Prior to Imprisonment

The study found out that a majority of the respondents 64 % worked in blue collar jobs and majority of them (46%) were earning below Ksh. 10,000 per month prior to imprisonment. 11% of the respondents were in national security services like police and military where a majority were earning between Ksh. 11,000-20,000 per month, 9% were in white collar jobs where a majority were earning between 31,000-40,000 and 6% were in other jobs, while 9% were not having any jobs. This implies that majority of the respondents may have been living slightly above the poverty line and may have had economic challenges which could have propelled them to commit homicide. The study also indicates that a good number of respondents have security training background which suggests that there is a relationship between security training and commission of murder. The findings are represented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Occupation and Monthly Income Prior to Imprisonment

		Occupation Prior to Imprisonment					Total
		Other Jobs	White Collar Jobs	Blue Collar Jobs	National security jobs	None	
	Below 10,000	2	1	33	1	-	37
	11,000-20,000	1	2	16	5	-	24
Monthly Income	21,000-30,000	1	2	9	2	-	14
Prior to Imprisonment	31,000-40,000	0	4	5	2	-	11
Imprisonment	41,000-50,000	1	0	2	0	-	3
	Above 50,000	2	1	6	2	-	11
	None					10	10
Total		7	10	71	12	10	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.6 Factors Propelling Homicide Convict to Commit the Offence

This are the factors that may have propelled the respondents to commit a capital offence of murder.

4.6.1 Reasons for Committing the Homicide

The study found out that a majority of the respondents (51.8%) did not disclose the reason for committing homicide, 10% were provoked, 9.1% were propelled by anger and land disputes, 5.5% were propelled by love triangles with the victim, 4.5% killed in self-defence and another 4.5% killed because they were under the influence of substance abuse, 1.8% killed as a result of domestic violence and peer pressure and 0.9% killed because of hunger and mental illness. This implies that a majority of the respondents did not want to reveal the reason for committing homicide which may have been caused by anxiety, despite being assured that the study was confidential only meant for academic purposes. Some respondents also have pending appeal cases in court and by disclosing the information may jeopardize their appeal cases pending before higher courts. However, provocation by the victim was the predominant reason for homicide among those who gave a reasons for committing murder. The findings are illustrated in figure 4.7.

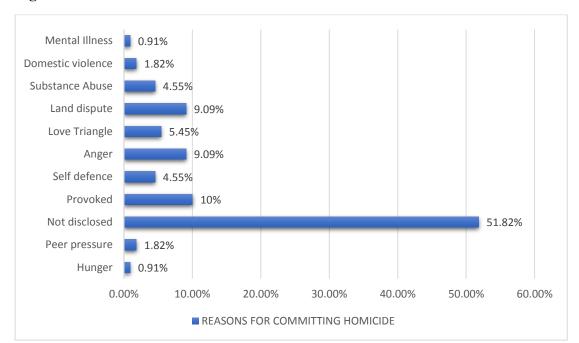


Figure 4.7: Reason for Crime Commission

4.6.1.1 Nature of Dispute with the Murdered Person

The study found out that 82 out of 110 of the respondents had no dispute with the victim while 19 of them had a dispute with the victim. Further, the study found out that 8.2 % of the respondents had family related disputes with the victim, 4.5% had land disputes, marital challenges and other forms of disputes.0.9% of the respondents had work-related disputes with the victim, however, 74.5% had no dispute with the victim. This implies that a majority of the respondents in this study did not premeditate the commission of homicide, however, those who had disputes they were mainly family related or knew each other, therefore implying that their victims were well known to them and there was a possibility of being provoked may be present. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Nature of Dispute with the Murdered Person

		Grudge with Per	Total	
		Yes	No	
	Land Dispute	4	1	5
	Marital Challenges	3	2	5
	Work Related	0	1	1
Nature of Dispute	Family Related	4	5	9
	Property Dispute	3	0	3
	Other	5	0	5
	None	0	82	82
Total		19	91	110

4.6.1.2 Mental Stress Prior to the Homicide

The study found out that 81% of the respondents did not have mental stress prior to the time of the homicide and 18.2% had mental stress prior to the homicide. Further, of the 18.2% of the respondents with mental problems, 10.9% did not know the cause of the mental stress, 5.5% had family related stress, 2.7% had land disputes, 1.8% had mental challenges, and 0.9% had family disputes and work-related stress. This elucidates that mental stress is not a predominant cause of homicide in among the respondents of this study, however, family issues were the major sources of stress among the minority respondents who had mental stress. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Mental Stress Prior to the Homicide

			Cause of the Mental Stress					Total	
		Work	Marital	Land	Family	Property	I	None	
		Related	Challenges	Dispute	Related	Dispute	don't		
							Know		
Were You	Yes	1	2	2	6	1	8	0	20
Suffering From Mental Stress Prior to the Homicide?	No	0	0	1	0	0	4	85	90
Total		1	2	3	6	1	12	85	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.6.1.3 Premeditated Intention to Kill the Victim

The study found that 94.5 % of the respondents did not intend to kill their victims while 5.5% of the respondents intended to kill their victims. This implies that a majority of the respondents did not premeditate to kill their victims, however this may not be correct position as the respondent were carefully to admit intentionally killing the victim as they want to remain innocent despite convicted of the offence by the competent court of law. The findings are represented in Figure 4.8.

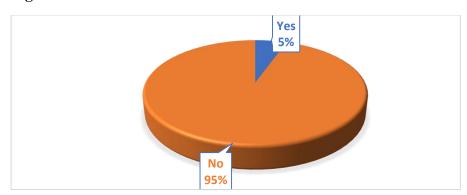


Figure 4.8: Intention to Kill the Victim

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.6.1.4 Other Homicide Motivations

The study found that 17.3% of the respondents said the homicide incident was accidental, 3.6% said the homicide was a result of marital problems and self-defense another 3.6% said they were implicated in the homicide, 2.7% said the homicide happened in the course of a robbery, 1.8% said the homicide resulted from land disputes, substance abuse, and mental illness. However, 63.6% have not disclosed any reason or motivation of killing the victim. This implies that a majority of the homicides in this study were unintended and therefore the motive was not primarily to commit homicide in most of the cases, however this position may not be correct as most convicts may

want to be secretive about discussing their criminal involvement. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Other Homicide Motivations

Reason for Killing	Frequency	Percent (%)
Accidental	19	17.3
Not Disclosed	70	63.6
Substance Abuse	2	1.8
Self Defense	4	3.6
Land Dispute	2	1.8
Mental Illness	2	1.8
Robbery	3	2.7
Marital Problem	4	3.6
Fabricated	4	3.6
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.6.1.5 Relationship with Persons Involved in Carrying out Offence

The study found that 16.4% of the respondents were friends or crime partners with persons with whom they committed the offence, 10% were strangers, 9.1% were family members and 64.5% had other relationships with persons with whom they jointly committed the offence. These findings show that the study respondents who committed the homicide with others were with an acquaintance and not a strangers, and therefore most of the murder offences are jointly committing by an accomplice who are crime partners. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Relationship with Persons Involved in Carrying out Offence

	Frequency	%
Family Members	10	9.1
Friends/Crime Partners	18	16.4
Strangers	11	10.0
Other	71	64.5
Total	110	100.0

4.7 Respondents' Modus Operandi

The study found out the various aspects of the modus operandi in terms of the discrete pattern or method of working that is associated with a particular respondent. This included; the County of crime commission, the approach and attack methods and the motivations of the respondents.

4.7.1 The County of Crime Commission

The study found out that Nairobi County at 21.8% was the County where a majority of homicide cases occurred, moreover, Kiambu was second at 12.7%, followed by Meru at 9.1%, Kajiado and Kitui 8.2%, Machakos 5.5% Makueni and Muranga at 4.5%, Trans nzoia, Tana River and Isiolo at 2.7% and Marsabit, Kirinyaga, Laikipia, Nyeri, Kisii, Kakamega at 1.8%. However, Garissa, Narok, Eldoret, and Mombasa, were the lowest Counties of crime commission at 0.9%. This illustrates that the respondents of this study mostly committed homicide in urban areas where there are a lot of urban pressures propelling individuals to commit crimes. Mombasa which is also an urban area have lower respondents at the two facilities as most of the capital offenders in Mombasa are incarcerated at Shimo la Tewa maximum prison. The two Counties of Nairobi and

Kiambu are highest due to closer proximity to Kamiti Maximum prison where majority of respondents in this study were drawn from. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: County of Crime Commission

County of the Crime Commission	Frequency	Percent (%)
Nairobi	24	21.8
Garissa	1	0.9
Narok	1	0.9
Meru	10	9.1
Marsabit	2	1.8
Trans nzoia	3	2.7
Kirinyaga	2	1.8
Makueni	5	4.5
Laikipia	5	4.5
Nyeri	2	1.8
Tana River	3	2.7
Machakos	6	5.5
Mombasa	1	0.9
Eldoret	1	0.9
Kajiado	9	8.2
Kiambu	14	12.7
Kitui	9	8.2
Isiolo	3	2.7
Muranga	5	4.5
Kisii	2	1.8
Kakamega	2	1.8
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.7.2 Use of Drug at the Time of the Crime Commission

The study findings established that most of the respondents (56.4%) did not use drugs at the time of the commission of the homicide. However, 43.6% of them used drugs. This implies that the drugs may have influenced the respondents to commit the homicide. This means that most of the respondents were not under the influence of any substance when they were committing the homicide, however, a good number might

have been influenced by drugs to commit the homicide. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Use of Drug at the Time of Crime Commission

Use of Drug at the Time of the		
Crime Commission	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	48	43.6
No	62	56.4
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.7.2.1 Did Homicide Occur in the Process of Committing other Offences

The study found that most of the respondents (88.2 %) did not commit homicide while in the process of committing another crime. However, 11.8% committed homicide while committing other crimes. This implies that a many of the respondents did not commit homicide in the process of committing other crimes and may not had the intention of committing other crimes and the crime they planned to commit was only murdering the victim. The findings are stipulated in table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Did Homicide Occur in the Process of Committing other Offences

Did Homicide Occur in the Process of Committing other Offences	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	13	11.8
No	97	88.2
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.7.2.2 Nature of Offence which Led to the Occurrence of Homicide

The study found that 67.3% of the respondents committed nonviolent offences during the commission of a homicide, while 32.7% committed violent crimes during the

commission of homicide. This suggests that many of the respondents were not necessarily violent people and may be first time offenders. The findings are shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Nature of Offence which Led to the Occurrence of Homicide

Offence	Frequency	Percent (%)
Violent Crimes	36	32.7
Non-Violent Crimes	74	67.3
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.7.2.3 Whether the Convicts were Hired to Commit the Crime

The study found that none of the respondents were hired to commit homicide. This implies that the murders in this study were committed out of the respondent's volition and were not necessarily politically instigated or affiliated with gangs or terror groups, although some may be cautious or apprehensive in linking the person who hired them to the crime. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Whether the Convicts were Hired to Commit the Crime

	Frequency	Percent (%)
No	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.7.3 Plan to Commit the Crime and Time Taken to Plan the Offence

The study established that 95% of the respondents did not plan to commit the crime and only 5% planned to commit the homicide. This means premeditation did not propel the majority of respondents to kill their victims. However, of the minority who

premeditated the homicide, 3.6% planed for days and 0.9% planned for months. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Plan to Commit the Crime and Time Taken to Plan the Offence

		Time Ta	Time Taken to Plan the Offence					
		Days	Months	Not Planned				
Did you plan to commit	Yes	4	1	0	5			
the crime	No	0	0	105	105			
Total		4	1	105	110			

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.7.4 Time of Crime Commission

The study found that 47.3% of the respondents committed homicide during the day time while a majority (52.7%) committed the homicide at night. This implies that the respondents of this study mostly took advantage of the darkness of the night to commit homicide and probably at night because the presence of law enforcement officers was minimal in the area and there were less movement of people at night and the perpetrators choose the night time to avoid being detected during crime commission. The findings are illustrated in Figure 4.9.

DAY

47.30%

NIGHT

44.00% 45.00% 46.00% 47.00% 48.00% 49.00% 50.00% 51.00% 52.00% 53.00% 54.00%

PERCENTAGE

Figure 4.9: Time of Crime Commission

4.7.5 Method of Killing

The study found out that, 12.7% used shooting, 11.8% used hitting method, 10.9% used stabbing, 6.4% strangled their victims, 2.7% poisoned their victims and 0.9% used drowning method. However, 23.6% of the respondents did not disclose the methods they used while 30.9% used other methods to kill their victims. These findings indicate that that shooting with the guns was the most popular method of killing probably because of the ease in the accessibility of the gun to the respondents of this study or the shooting method may not give the victim the chance of survival. However, the choice of weapon depends on the individual perpetrator and circumstances in which the offence was committed e.g. a provoked person can use hitting method by using his fist which is the available weapon at the time of the offence. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Method of Killing

Method of killing	Frequency	Percent (%)
Stabbing	12	10.9
Shooting	14	12.7
Hitting	13	11.8
Strangling	7	6.4
Drowning	1	0.9
Poisoning	3	2.7
Others	34	30.9
Not disclosed	26	23.6
Total	110	100.0

4.7.6 Weapon of Homicide Commission

The study found that 20% of the respondents did not disclose the weapons they used to commit homicide, 21.8% used other methods, 17.3% used a gun, 16.4 used a blunt object, 12.7% used a knife, 8.2% used a Panga, 2.7 used poison and 0.9% used petrol. The gun was the most popular weapon used by the respondents of the study. This implies that the respondents who did not disclose the weapons they used to commit homicide could have feared to reopening of their cases on the basis of disclosing this information, Moreover, the guns were considered to be lethal and efficient in committing murder and were easily accessible to the respondents of this study. The combined percentage of those who used a knife and a Panga were 20.9% which suggests that good number of murders were committed by weapons which were readily available in most of the households meant for other household needs. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Weapon of Homicide Commission

weapon	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gun	19	17.3
Poison	3	2.7
Petrol	1	0.9
Panga	9	8.2
Blunt object	18	16.4
knife	14	12.7
Other	24	21.8
Not disclosed	22	20.0
Total	110	100.0

4.7.7 County of Crime Commission and Type of Weapon Used

The study sought to establish the weapons used by the respondents to commit homicide in various Counties. From the findings, the guns and blunt objects were most prevalent in Nairobi at 35% and 25% respectively. The knife was prevalent in Kajiado County at 42%, however, the Panga, poison, and petrol were not preferable weapons of homicide in most of the counties as they were hardly used. This implies that the guns were most preferred weapons of choice because guns can kill victims at a distance and also cause serious injuries that may lead to death of the victim and knives were easily accessible as it can be found in every home and its possession is not illegal. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: County of Crime Commission and Type of Weapon Used

	Use of Weapon									
		Gun	Poison	Petrol	Panga	Blunt object	knife	Other	None	Total
	Nairobi	7	1	1	2	5	2	5	4	26
	Garissa	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Narok	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Meru	2	0	0	2	1	1	1	3	10
	Marsabit	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Trans nzoia	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	3
	Kirinyaga	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
sion	Makueni	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	5
mis	Laikipia	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	5
County of crime commission	Nyeri	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
me	Tana River	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
fcri	Machakos	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	6
ty o	Mombasa	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
uno	Eldoret	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
၁	Kajiado	1	0	0	0	1	6	1	0	9
	Kiambu	1	1	0	1	4	2	2	3	14
	Kitui	0	0	0	2	2	1	2	2	9
	Isiolo	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
	Muranga	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	2	5
	Kisii	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Kakamega	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	<u> </u>	20	3	1	9	20	14	23	22	110

4.7.8 Number of Persons Involved in the Homicide

The study established that a majority (77) of the respondents committed the homicide alone while 33 committed with others. Moreover, the study further found out that of the 30% who committed the homicide together with other persons, nine of them had one accomplice, nine of the respondents committed the crime with two other accomplice, three of the respondents committed the crime with three other suspects, five committed the crime with four persons, one of the respondents committed the crime with five other

persons and six of the respondents committed the crime with more than five other persons. These findings depict that the respondents of the study were mostly alone in the commission of the homicide probably by acting alone the offender didn't like to leave any trace of evidence or don't have an accomplice or crime partner. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Number of offenders Involved in the Homicide

		_	Committing the Crime Alone or With Others	
		Alone	With Others	
	1	0	9	9
	2	0	9	9
Number of Offenders	3	0	3	3
Present at the Time of the	4	0	5	5
Homicide	5	0	1	1
	More than 5	0	6	6
	None	77	0	77
Total		77	33	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.8 The Victim-Offender Relationship

Under the victim-offender relationship, the study sought to establish if there were any relationships that existed between the victim and the offender prior to the commission of the offence.

4.8.1 Number of Homicide Victims and their Gender

The study found out that 94.5% of the respondents assaulted one victim, 4.5 % assaulted two and about 0.9 % assaulted three victims. Moreover, the study found out that 71% of the respondents were male, 29% were female. This implies that the victims of homicide in this study were mainly male. These findings conquer with the literature review of the study which indicates that men account for 95 % of all homicide convicts in 53 countries

in the world (UNODC, 2013). This pattern is homogeneous across all regions of the world. These findings are stipulated in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Number of Homicide Victims and their Gender

		Gender of	Total	
		Male	Female	
Number of Victims of	1	75	29	104
the Homicide	2	3	2	5
	3	0	1	1
Total		78	32	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.8.2 The Victim's Age

The study found that 35.5% of the respondents assaulted victims between 35-54years, 24.5% between 25-34 years, 16.4% were 55 and above years, 13.6% between 18-24 years, 4.5% between 12-17 years, 4.5% between 1-5 years and 0.9% of the respondents had assaulted victims between 2-5 years. This implies that many of the victims were youths aged between 18-35 years were the most likely victims in homicide incidents and are likely to be killed by youths in the same age bracket as they are also majority of the perpetrators of murder as seen in the demographic section of this project. These findings are stipulated in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Age of the Victim

Age of the victim	Frequency	%
1-5 Years	5	4.5
6-12 Years	1	.9
12-17 Years	5	4.5
18-24 Years	15	13.6
25-34 Years	27	24.5
35-54 Years	39	35.5
55 and above Years	18	16.4
Total	110	100.0

4.8.3 Acquaintanceship with the Victim

The study found that 86 respondents knew their victims, 24 respondents did not know the victims. The study further found that 19.1% of the respondents were family members with the victim, 14.5% were neighbors, 12.7% were wives of the respondents, 10.9% were friends, 5.5% were colleagues at work, 4.5% were the respondent's lovers and the majority (32.7%) had other relationships. Further, the study found that 29.1% had known the victims between 1-5 years, 13.6% between 18-24 years, 10% between 6-12 years, 10% between 12-17 years, 7.3% between 25-34 years, 7.3% between 35-54 years, 3.6% above 55 years. This implies that the respondents of the study had known their victims long enough to attack them when they were least aware. In relation to these findings, homicide victims are mostly acquaintances with their attackers and most likely have personal differences as a result of their relationships. The findings are illustrated in Tables 4.27 and 4.28

Table 4.27: Relationship with the victim

Relationship with the Victim	Frequency	Percent
Family member	21	19.1
Lover	5	4.5
Colleague at work	6	5.5
Friend	12	10.9
Neighbor	16	14.5
Wife	14	12.7
Other	36	32.7
Total	110	100.0

Table 4.28: Period of Acquaintance with the Victim

	How Long did you Know the Victim									Total
		1-5	6-12	12-17	18-24	25-34	35-54	55	Didn't	
		Years	Years	Years	Years	Years	Years	and	Know	
								above	His/her	
								Years		
Acquaintance with the	Yes	32	10	9	13	8	7	4	3	86
Victim	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	24
Total		32	10	9	13	8	7	4	27	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.8.4. Nature of Personal Differences with the Victim

The study found out that 88 respondents had no personal differences with the victims while 22 had personal differences with the victims. Moreover, the study found that nine respondents had marital differences with the victim, seven of them had a land disputes

with the victim, five respondents had work related disputes, and one had extra-marital affair with the victim. These findings indicate that a majority of the respondents of the homicides in this study mostly happened at the heat of passion and were not resulting from long standing personal differences. Those homicide cases arising from marital differences are higher an indication of increased strain relationships among spouses. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Nature of Personal Differences with the Victim

		Nature of Differences with the Victim						
		Marital Differences	Land Dispute	Work Related	Extra- Marital Affair	None		
Having Personal	Yes	9	7	5	1	0	22	
Differences with the Victim	No	0	0	0	0	88	88	
Total		9	7	5	1	88	110	

Source: Survey, Data (2018)

4.8.5 Mistaken Identity of the Victim

The study sought to find out whether the respondents killed the intended victim or they mistakenly killed the unintended victim.

The study found that 65.5% of the respondents did not kill the victim by mistake while 34.5% killed the victims by mistake. In relation to this study, a majority of the respondents said they did not mistake the identity of their victim which is a clear indication that most of the respondents planned and intended to kill their victims. Those who killed their victims by mistake may have killed as a result of provocation or in the process of committing other offences. Findings are shown in figure 4.10.

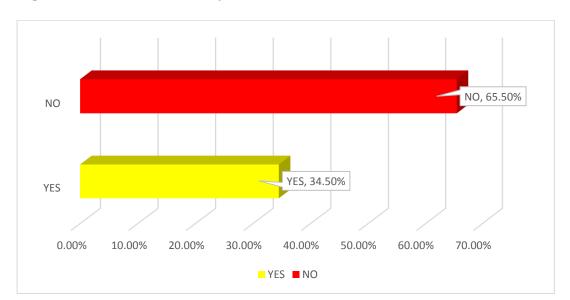


Figure 4.10: Mistaken Identity of the Victim

Source: Survey, Data (2018)

4.9 Criminal History of the Respondent

The study intended to establish if the offenders have a previous criminal history before the commission of homicide offences.

4.9.1 Number of Convictions

The study established that 93.6% of the respondents were serving their first sentence while 3.6% were serving their third and 2.7% were serving their second sentence. In the context of this study, we can elucidate that the criminal history of the respondent was not necessarily a driving force towards the commission of the homicide incident. These findings are consistent with the views of Burgess, (2015) who indicated that some murder criminals are normal residents who murder in the heat of passion or with an abrupt impulse when incited by acquaintances or family members. These findings are stipulated in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30: Number of Convictions

Which Conviction are You Currently Serving	Frequency	Percent (%)	
First	103	93.6	
Second	3	2.7	
Third	4	3.6	
Total	110	100.0	

4.9.1.1 Length of Previous Convictions

The study established that 3.6% of the respondents had served a previous sentence of between 1-12 months, 5.5% had served over 3 years, and 0.9% between 1-2 years and 90% had not served any previous sentences. These findings indicate that the respondents who had a previous criminal history may not have been properly rehabilitated and may have had problems going back to society after incarceration. This could have propelled them to commit homicide. This further shows that most homicide convicts were first time offenders and no relationship was found between past and criminal history and the homicide offence. The findings are shown in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31: Length of Previous Conviction and Number of Prior Arrests

			Number of Prior Arrests					
		Once	Twice	Thrice	Four	Above Four	None	
					times	times		
Length of Previous Conviction	1-12 Months	2	0	2	0	0	0	4
	1year-2Years	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Over 3 Years	5	1	0	0	0	0	6
	None	0	0	0	0	0	99	99
Total		7	2	2	0	0	99	110

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.9.1.2 Previous Court Appearances

The study found that 70.9 % of the respondents were not presented before the court for previous offenses while 29.1% were presented before the court for previous offenses. This implies that some of the respondents of the study had criminal tendencies whereby they were able to evade law enforcement agencies before they were finally arrested. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32: Previous Court Appearances

Were you Presented before the Court for a Previous Crime	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	32	29.1
No	78	70.9
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.9.2 Number of Convicted Family Members, Nature and Length of Conviction

The study found out that 88.2% of the respondents had no family members who were convicted. However, 8.2 % had one convicted member of their family and 3.6% had two convicted family members. Of the convicted relatives of the respondents, a majority (8.2%) were brothers, while sisters, cousin and others were each at 0.9 % and 1.8% were parents. The family criminal history may not have influenced a majority of the respondent's homicide actions since a majority of them came from families without previous criminal history. The findings are illustrated in Tables 4.33 and 4.34.

Table 4.33: Number of family members who have been convicted

Number of Family Members who have been Convicted	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	9	8.2
2	4	3.6
None	97	88.2
Total	110	100.0

Table 4.34: Relationship with members of the family who have been convicted

Relationship with Members of the Family who have been Convicted	Frequency	Percent (%)
Parents	2	1.8
Brothers	9	8.2
Sisters	1	0.9
Cousin	1	0.9
Others	1	0.9
None	96	87.3
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.9.2.1 Nature of Crime Committed by Convicted Family Member

The study found that 87.3% of the respondents' relatives had not committed any crime, 6.4% had committed a minor offence (pick pocketing, touting etc.), 6.4% had committed a major offence (robbery, assault, murder, manslaughter etc). This illustrates that the family's criminal history may not have influenced the respondents of this study to commit homicide offence. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.35.

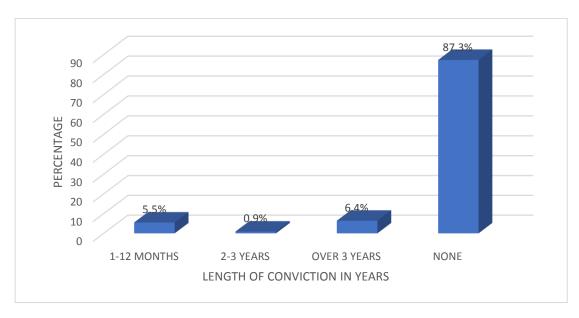
Table 4.35: Nature of Crime Committed by a Convicted Family Member

Nature of crime committed by a	Frequency	Percent (%)
convicted family member		
Major offences	7	6.3
Minor offences	7	6.3
None	96	87.3
Total	110	100.0

4.9.2.2 Family Members' Length of Conviction

The study found that 87.3% of the respondents' family had no previous convictions for criminal offences, 6.4% had over 3 years conviction, 5.5% had 1-12months conviction and 0.9% of the respondent's family members had 2-3 years of conviction. The study shows that the respondents of this study may not have been influenced by their family's criminal involvement in committing murder. The findings are shown in Figure 4.11.

Figure 4.11: Length of Conviction Family Members



Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.10 Time Taken Before the Arrest

The study found out that 48.2% of the respondents took between 1-6 months to be arrested, 40.9% took less than a month to be arrested, 5.5% took 7-12 moths, 3.6% took 13-24 months and 1.8% took 25-36 months to be arrested by the police after the crime. This indicates that, a majority of the respondents of this study took long enough to be arrested by law enforcement officers, moreover, this time was long enough to commit other homicides without being detected. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36: Time Taken Before the Arrest

Time Taken	Frequency	Percent (%)
1-6 Months	53	48.2
7-12 Months	6	5.5
13-24 Months	4	3.6
25-36 Months	2	1.8
Less Than a Month	45	40.9
Total	110	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.11 Comparison between Kamiti Maximum prison and Nyeri Maximum Prison

The study sought to compare a few major variables between the two maximum prisons. These variables include the age and education of the respondents at the time of crime commission, drug abuse problems, weapons used in the homicide and the county of crime commission.

4.11.1 Comparison of Age at the time of commission

The study found out that a majority (17.5%) of the respondents at the Nyeri maximum prison were between 25-29 years while in KMP the majority of the respondents (24.5%)

were between 30 -34 years from. This illustrates that in both prisons most of homicide population were youths. The findings are stipulated in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37: Comparison of Age at the Time of Commission

	Nyeri Maximum Prison	Kamiti Maximum Prison
Age of respondents	%	%
	10.0	1.4
19-24	15.0	12.9
25-29	17.5	11.4
30-34	12.5	24.3
35-39	5.0	20.0
40-44	10.0	7.1
45-49	7.5	4.3
50-54	10.0	5.7
55-59	7.5	4.3
60 and above	5.0	8.6
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.11.2 Comparison of Respondents' Level of Education at the Time of

Commission

The study found that the majority (58.6%) of respondents at KMP had acquired primary education, however at NMP, a majority of respondents (45%) had acquired secondary education. These findings may have been influenced by the close proximity of KMP to the capital city and therefore its population consists of convicts from all regions of the country where access to education varies from one region to the other. This population may have converged in urban areas due to rural urban migration in search of employment or opportunities. However, the NMP may have been limited to local

convicts from Nyeri and the neighboring Counties where transition from primary education to secondary education may be higher. The findings are shown in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38: Comparison of Respondents' Level of Education at the Time of the Commission

Education of the		
Respondents	NMP	KMP
	Percent (%)	Percent (%)
Primary	40.0	58.6
Secondary	45.0	14.3
University	2.5	11.4
None	12.5	15.7
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.11.3 Comparison of Respondent's Drug abuse problems

The study established that respondents with drug abuse problems were mostly (54.3%) at KMP while most of the respondents (62.6%) at NMP did not have substance abuse problems. This may have been because respondents at the KMP may have come from the city where drugs are easily available while those convicts from NMP may have come from rural areas where drugs may not have been easily available and accessible. Moreover, in urban or semi-urban areas drugs may be easily accessible because urban settings have criminal gangs who may coordinate illicit drug trafficking. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39: Comparison of Respondent's Drug abuse Problems at KMP and NMP

	KMP	NMP
Response	%age	%age
Yes	54.3	37.5
No	45.7	62.5
Total	100.0	100.0

4.11.4 Comparison of the Weapons used to Commit Homicide at KMP and NMP

The study found that in both prisons, guns were the prevalent weapons used in the commission of homicide. However, a good number of the respondents in both prisons did not disclose the weapons they used to carry out the homicide possibly because of fear of implication or reopening of their cases. The findings are shown in Table 4.40.

Table 4.40: Weapon used in Committing Homicide

	NMP	KMP
Weapons of Homicide	Percent (%)	Percent (%)
Gun	38	17
Poison	0	4.3
Petrol	0	1.4
Panga	5	5.7
Blunt Object	9	12.9
knife	8	14.3
Other	7	22.9
Not Disclosed	33	21.4
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

4.11.5 Comparison of County of Crime Commission at KMP and NMP

The study found most of the respondents at KMP (32.8%) committed homicide in Nairobi County while a majority of respondents at NMP committed homicide in Meru County (17.5%). This illustrates that Nairobi County may have been the County of choice for the majority respondents because of the vast population of people living in it, therefore, making it difficult for the homicide perpetrator to be caught. Also, the murder convicts in Nairobi County are most housed at Kamiti, while murder convicts from Meru County are incarcerated at Nyeri because of closeness of the two Counties to the maximum prison facilities. The findings are shown in Table 4.41.

Table 4.41: Comparison of County of Crime Commission

County	Percent (%)	Percent (%)
•	KMP	NMP
Nairobi	32.8	5.0
Meru	4.3	17.5
Marsabit	1.4	2.5
Trans nzoia	2.9	2.5
Kirinyaga	1.4	2.5
Makueni	4.5	5.0
Laikipia	0	12.5
Nyeri	0	5.0
Tana River	1.4	5.0
Machakos	7.1	2.5
Kajiado	8.6	7.5
Kiambu	12.9	12.5
Kitui	11.4	2.5
Isiolo	1.4	7.5
Muranga	2.9	7.5
Kakamega	0	2.5
Garissa	1.4	0
Narok	1.4	0
Mombasa	1.4	0
Kisii	1.4	0
Eldoret	1.4	0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Survey, Data 2018

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the findings of the study on the assessment of criminal profiles of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons. The chapter also entails the discussion, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The study assessed the criminal profiles of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri maximum prisons and established the following findings;

5.2.1 Demographic and Characteristics of Male Homicide Convicts

The study shows that the highest number (11.8%) of the respondents were from Kiambu and Kitui Counties respectively. Muranga and Meru Counties had the second highest at (8.2%). The study further found that most of the respondents were residing in Nairobi County at the time of crime commission which illustrates that urban centers are fertile ground for committing homicide offences. According to the social disorganization theory, urban areas are more likely to be habitual environments for homicide offenders because of the low levels of social cohesion among community members. Moreover, urban areas provide easy access to weapons and there is a low probability of arrest due to the high population density and anonymity among city residents.

The study also established that a majority of the respondents spoke Kikuyu as their first language, while the minority speaks in Samburu and Burji languages. These findings show that most of the respondents were raised in the Agikuyu and Akamba communities during their childhood. These findings could also have been influenced by the

geographical location of the two prisons which have close proximity to the Agikuyu and Akamba communities. The two communities are also among the communities with higher population rate in Kenya.

In the area of education, the study established that a majority (52%) of the respondents had only acquired primary education at the time of crime commission, only 8% had acquired university education at the time of crime commission. These findings illustrate that majority of the respondents of the study are mostly youths between the ages of 30-39 years and had only acquired basic primary education and had no secondary or higher education prior to committing the homicide offence. From these findings, it can be conclusively said that lack of secondary and higher education could be a factor predisposing youth to commit homicide offences in Kenya.

In the areas of marital status and Religion, a majority of the respondents were married and were Christians at the time of crime commission. This stipulates that the respondents had religious affiliations and therefore religious affiliation or the lack of it did not necessarily propel or hinder the respondent from committing homicide. These findings illustrate that the majority of the homicide perpetrators in this study were part of a nuclear family at the time of crime commission. This depicts that relationship and marriage obligations did not restrain the majority respondents of this study from committing homicide.

5.2.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Male Homicide Convicts.

In terms of family elements, the study established that a majority came from families with more than five living siblings, in the same breadth, a majority of the respondents

were first born, had both living parents who were married, and did not experience any major social problems when growing up. According to Farrington (2015), as the number of children in a family increases the amount of parental attention that can be given to each child decreases. The increase in the number of children in a family tends to cause overcrowding in the home and can also lead to frustration, irritation, and conflict over the limited resource. These conditions are likely to propel individuals into committing homicide offences. Moreover, Farrington further suggested that birth order is a key factor in propelling young males into criminality, whereby the children who are born later in a family tend to be inclined into criminality, however the findings of this study do not agree with this theory since a majority of the respondents were first borns.

Moreover, the study found that a majority (97%) respondents had both parents who were married, and the minority 3% had parents who never lived together. These findings illustrate that homicide offenders are not necessarily raised in single parent families. Therefore, these findings illustrate that propensity of committing homicide is not necessarily determined by the family set up as illustrated in the literature review of this study.

In relation to drug abuse the study established that 48% respondents out of 110 had substance abuse problems, while 52% of them did not have substance abuse problems. This indicates that, although majority of the respondents of this study were not abusing drugs it has featured as one of the major drivers of homicide crime commission. Further, alcohol was identified as the drug commonly abused by the respondents. These findings show that though the majority of the respondents of this study did not have substance abuse problems, a big number might have been influenced by alcohol prior to or during

homicide commission. This, therefore, implies that alcohol was a major problem propelling the respondents of this study to commit homicide. Further, the study established that majority of the respondents' parents did not use drugs, however, a majority of the respondents who had drug abuse problems had parents with the same problem, similarly while the ones without drug problems, their parents did not experience any drug problem. This further explains that the drug abuse problem could mostly have been inherent from the respondents' parents as a result of negative primary socialization by coping the negative behavior from the parents while in their childhood.

In matters of employment, the study found that a majority of the respondents had been employed and worked in blue collar jobs for over ten years prior to imprisonment. However, a majority of the respondents in blue collar jobs were earning below Ten thousand Kenyan shillings, this shows that unemployment was not a predominant problem to the respondents of the study prior to committing homicide. However, the majority of the respondents may have been living slightly above the poverty line and may have had economic challenges which could have propelled them to commit homicide.

5.2.3 The Respondents Modus Operandi (Mode of Operation)

In regard to the location of crime commission, the study found out that Nairobi County at 21.8% was the County where a majority of homicides cases occurred. This illustrates that the respondents of this study mostly committed homicide in urban areas

In relation to the reasons of committing homicide, a majority of the respondents (51.8%) did not give a reason for committing homicide. This implies that a majority of the

respondents did not want to reveal the reason for committing homicide for they had anxiety, despite being assured that the study was confidential and was only meant for academic purposes. However, provocation was the predominant reason for homicide among those who gave a reasons for committing the crime.

In the area of intension, the study found that 94.5 % of the respondents did not intend to kill their victims while 5.5% of the respondents intended to kill their victims. This means premeditation did not propel the majority of respondents to kill their victims. However, of the minority who premeditated the homicide, 3.6% planed for days and 1.8% planned for months.

In regard to the time and weapon of committing homicide offence, a majority of the homicides were committed at night. Furthermore, the guns and knives were the weapons mostly used for homicide crime commission predominantly in Nairobi and Kajiado Counties respectively. This implies that the respondents of this study mostly took advantage of the darkness of the night to commit homicide and that the guns and knives were easily accessible to the respondents of this study. Moreover, a majority of the respondents committed the homicide alone and took mostly between 1-6 months to be arrested by police.

5.2.4 The Victim - Offender Relationship

In relation to the gender age and acquaintance of the victims, a majority of the victims were male between 35-54 years of age. These findings conquer with the literature review of the study which indicates that men account for 95 per cent of all homicide convicts in 53 countries in the world (UNODC, 2013). This pattern is homogeneous across all

regions of the world. The study established that a majority of the victims were well known to the perpetrators, further, most of the victims were relatives of the homicide perpetrators, an evidence that in homicide case it is highly unlikely that one can be killed by a stranger.

The study further established that a majority of the homicide perpetrators did not have personal differences and for those with personal differences marital differences was the main reasons for committing homicide which suggests that marital disputes can lead to murder. The study further indicated that the majority of the respondents did not kill their victims by mistake, an indication that they targeted the right victim they intended to kill.

5.2.5 Criminal History of the Respondent

The study discovered that most of the respondents have no previous criminal history before committing the murder and therefore not served any previous jail sentences for the commission of any offence. Also most of the respondents had no family members who were convicted for criminal activities. These findings are consistent with the views of Burgess, (2015) who indicated that some murder criminals are normal residents who murder in the heat of passion or with an abrupt impulse when incited by acquaintances or family members.

5.2.6 Comparison between Nyeri and Kamiti Maximum Prisons

The study established that most of the respondents in both maximum prisons were of youthful age. However, on one hand, the respondents from KMP were mostly the ones with substance abuse problems, have only attained primary school education and mostly

committed homicide within Nairobi County. Proximity to the capital may have predisposed them to commit homicide offence. On the other hand, most of the respondents from NMP did not have substance abuse problems, had access to secondary education and committed the homicide offence mostly in Meru County.

5.3 Conclusions

The study concludes as follows:

- 1. Majority of the respondents who committed homicide offences were youths or males in their youthful years according to this study. Lack of secondary and higher education could be among the factors predisposing youth to commit homicide offences. This may be as a result of their limited academic qualifications that limited their access to well-paying jobs in very competitive Kenyan job market. As a result, they ended up in blue color jobs that earned them minimal wages which force them to engage in criminal acts.
- 2. Substance abuse especially alcoholism was a major problem propelling the respondents of this study to commit homicide offences. Furthermore, the Alcohol abuse problem could have been inherent from the respondents' parents. Additionally, alcohol was the most prevalent consumed substance among the study respondents.
- 3. Males are the predominant victims of homicide. Furthermore, homicide is more likely to be committed in urban areas than in rural areas. Additionally, homicide is more likely to be committed during the night than during the day when presence of

law enforcement is limited. Moreover, Nairobi County is the County with the highest homicide rates in Kenya.

- 4. Guns are the commonly used weapon by homicide perpetrators especially in Nairobi County, while knives are commonly used in Kajiado County. For Nairobi County, this could be as a result of availability of illegal small arm in the hands of criminals. For Kajiado County knives are commonly used weapon probably because a good number of residence are pastoralist who are mostly armed with knives when taking care of their animals.
- 5. Homicide perpetrators are mostly related or well known to the victims. Moreover, provocation among relatives is a major factor propelling the commission of a homicide. In addition, homicide offenders do not always have a criminal history as some can be first time offenders and never arrested by law enforcement agencies prior to commission of Homicide offence.

5.4 Recommendations

From the above findings and conclusions, the study suggests the following recommendations:

5.4.1 Recommendations

1. The government should roll out a program to ensure that all pupils who complete primary education can transition to secondary schools or vocational training schools smoothly. This will give them better chances of progressing in life and provide opportunities for employment to reduce their involvement in criminal activities like homicide or forming criminal gangs.

- 2. The Kenyan government through NACADA (National Campaign Against Drug Abuse), Non-governmental and Religious organizations to should roll out awareness campaigns on substance abuse especially enforcement of Alcohol related laws and conflict management at family and community level targeting the youth so as to address the issues of alcoholism which may results to domestic disputes and thereafter leading to commission of crime like homicide.
- 3. Through non-governmental and Religious organizations communities and families should be provided with counselling on how to handle disputes amicably especially among family members and promotion of traditional alternative dispute resolution mechanism to deal with emerging disputes among families, neighbours, and community at large who have disagreements over land, marital problems, property disputes etc.
- 4. The government should promote the Jua kali sector (informal sector) to ensure that those youths working in that sector have better training and skills to improve their earnings as a deterrence measure in limiting their criminal involvement in commission of capital offences like murder and robbery with violence.
- 5. The Kenyan government needs to address the risk of illegal firearms by aggressively fighting the proliferation of small arms mostly to urban centers and other parts of the Country. They should also start security and community driven initiatives to recover the illegal arms that are already in the hands of criminals.
- 6. Further, the government through law enforcement agencies especially National Police Service (NPS) should Promote and facilitate increase in night patrols

especially in urban areas since homicide offences are mostly committed at night according to this study.

5.4.2 Recommendations for further Research:

- The current study assessed the criminal profiles of male convicted homicide
 offenders at Kamiti and Nyeri maximum prisons. Future research is recommended
 on assessment of the criminal profiles of female homicide convicts in Kenya
 (specifically at Langata women prison) to understand more on women homicide
 offenders.
- 2. Future research should also be conducted on the relationship between the use substance abuse like Alcohol and the increase in homicide cases in Kenya.
- Further studies are recommended to examine the correlation between the commission of homicide offences and education level of male homicide convicts in Kenya.
- 4. Finally, future studies should attempt to reexamine the themes found in the current study using a larger sample size to refine criminal profiles of male homicide convicts in the entire Country. The current study was a case study of only two out of seven male maximum prisons in Kenya and the criminal profiles of this study are peculiar to the respondents of the study who are from Kamiti and Nyeri maximum prisons. This study, therefore, recommends a study on criminal profiles of male convicted homicide offenders in the other five maximum prisons namely; Shimo la Tewa, Naivasha, Kodiaga. Manyani and Kibos maximum prisons.

REFERENCES

- Agnew R. (1990). 'The origins of delinquent events: an examination of offender accounts'. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 27:267–294.
- Agnew, R. (1992). 'Foundation for a general strain theory of crime and delinquency.' *Criminology*, 30, 47-87.
- Alison, L. (2013). Forensic Psychologists Casebook: Psychological Profiles and Criminal Investigation. Routledge.
- Amerini, I. & Saravo, L. (2015). 'Detection of manipulations on printed images to address crime scene analysis': A case study. *Forensic science international*, 251, e9-e14.
- Ashworth, A. & Redmayne, M. (2014). The criminal process. Oxford: UK.
- Bacon, A. & Lansdowne M. (1982). *Economic Conditions, work, and crime. In The Handbook of Crime and Punishment*, W. Tonry (Ed.). pp. 302-22. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.
- Baker, S. A., & Procise, N. K. (2014). 'Exploring patterns of perpetration and victimization: Establishing baseline typologies for profiles the murders of pregnant women'. *Austin Journal of Forensic Science and Criminology, 1(1), 9.*
- Balemba, S., Beauregard, E., & Martineau, M. (2014). 'Getting away with murder: A thematic approach to solved and unresolved sexual homicides using crime scene factors'. *Police Practice and Research*, 15(3), 221 233.
- Bartol, C. R., & Bartol, A. M. (2012). *Criminal & Behavioural Profiles*. SAGE Publications.
- Bayley, D. H. (1994). *Police for the future*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Beauchamp, Z. Ghanem K. (2010). 'Social factors influencing the tendency to "killing for nobility" in Dasht -e- Azadegan.' *Journal of Human Literature (University Kharazmi)*.; 15:133–65.
- Beauregard, E., & Bouchard, M. (2010). 'Cleaning up your act: Forensic awareness as a detection avoidance strategy'. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38(6), 1160 1166.
- Beauregard, E., & Martineau, M. (2012). 'A descriptive study of sexual homicide in Canada: Implications for a police investigation.' *International journal of offender therapy and comparative criminology*, 10(1), 6-15.
- Bennell, C. & Canter, D. (2012). 'Linking commercial burglaries by modus operandi: Tests using regression and ROC analysis.' *Science & Justice*, 42, 153–164.

- Bennell, C., Bloomfield, S., Emeno, K., & Musolino, E. (2015). 'Classifying serial sexual murder/murderers: An attempt to validate Keppel and Walter's (1999) model.' *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 40(1), 5–25.
- Bloomfield, R. (2013). *Crime and Unemployment. In Crime and Policy*, J. Q. Wilson (Ed.). San Francisco: ICS Press.
- Bosco, D., Zappala, P. (2010). 'The admissibility of offender profiles in the courtroom: A review of legal issues and court opinions.' *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 33(3), 184–191.
- Bouchard, E. & Röntsch, R. (2010). Police and crime prevention in Africa: a brief appraisal of structures, policies and practices. London: Center of Criminology
- Brearley, K (2013). When Men Kill: Scenarios of Masculine Violence. Melbourne: Cambridge University Press.
- Brook, S. (2011). *Understanding Violent Crime*. Buckingham: Canada: Open University Press.
- Burgess, C. & Pugh, M. D. (2015). 'Poverty, income inequality, and violent crime: A meta-analysis of recent aggregate data studies'. *Criminal Justice Review*, 18(2), 182-202.
- Campbell N. C. (2016). 'Review of 1198 cases of penetrating trauma'. *British Journal of Surgery*, 84:1737–1740.
- Canter, D. & Youngs, D. (2009). *Investigative psychology: Offender profiles and the analysis of criminal action*. Chister: Wiley.
- Canter, D. (2000). Criminal shadows. Irving, TX: Authorlink Press.
- Carmen, A. (2012). *Crime victims: An Introduction to victimology*. NY: Prentice publishers.
- Chakravorty, S. (2015). 'Data mining techniques for analyzing murder related structured and unstructured data'. *American Journal of Advanced Computing*, 2(2).
- Chan, H. C. O., Frei, A. M., & Myers, W. C. (2013). 'Female sexual homicide offenders: An analysis of the offending process.' *Forensic Science International*, 233(1), 265 272.
- Chibnall, S. (Ed.). (2013). Law-and-order news: An analysis of crime reporting. Routledge: British press.

- Christofferson, P., Lederman, D. & Loayza, N. (2014). 'Inequality and Violent Crime' *Journal of Law and Economics*, 45 (2), 34-45
- Christophell, P., Goujon, A., Testa, M. R., & Kandala, J. (2013). 'Education and crime engagement in South Africa: A national and provincial perspective.' *International Journal of Educational Development*, 45, 141-151.
- Collins, J. & Hussey, R. (2010). Criminal Shadows London: HarperCollins.
- Cole, D., Reddy, S., Alison, L., Bennell, C. (2011). *Levels and Variations of Violation in Rape. Canter, D. and Alison, L. (Eds.) Profiling Rape and Murder.* Offender Profiling Series, Vol. 4. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Cory, P. C. (2001). *The inquiry regarding Thomas Sophonow. Winnipeg*. MB: Queen's Printer.
- Cruz J.M. (2012). Victimization through violence: levels and associated factors in Latin American and Spanish towns. Revised Pan-American Publishers.
- Daly, D., & Leo, R. A. (2016). A Damning Cascade of Investigative Errors: Flaws in Homicide Investigation in the USA. Maguire, eds. The Handbook on Homicide, Wiley-Blackwell.
- David, D. E. (2006).' Undermining the rule of law: Democratization and the dark side of police reform in Mexico.' *Latin American Politics and Society*, 48(1), 55 86.
- Davies, A., & Jackson, J. L. (2013). Predicting the Criminal Record of a Stranger Rapist. Policing and Reducing Crime Unit. London: Home Office.
- Deita, F. (1974). 'Strain Theory.' Enforcement Bulletin, 55(12), 9-13.
- Douglas, J. (2002) *Basic Instincts: What Makes Killers Kill?* New York: Norton and Company.
- Dror, I. E. & Cole, S. A. (2010). 'The vision in "blind" justice: Expert perception, judgment, and visual cognition in forensic pattern recognition'. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 17(2), 161 167.
- Eisner, M. and L. Ghuneim (2013). 'Honour killing attitudes amongst adolescents in Amman, Jordan' *Aggressive Behaviour 39*(5): 405-417.
- Erlanger, Howard S. (1974). The empirical status of the subculture of violence thesis. *Social Problems*, 22(2), 280–292.

- European Homicide Monitor. Available:
 http://law.leiden.edu/organisation/criminology/research/homicide/europeanhomicidemonitor.html.
- Ezell. A. (2015). An Anatomy of Violent Crime and Insecurity in Kenya: The Case of Nairobi'. *Africa Development*, 25, (1, 2), pp. 295-335
- Farrel, A. L., Keppel, R. D., & Titterington, V. B. (2011). 'Lethal ladies: Revisiting what we know about female serial murderers.' *Homicide Studies*, 15(3), 228 252.
- Farrel, A. L., Keppel, R. D., & Titterington, V. B. (2013). 'Testing existing classifications of serial murder considering gender: An exploratory analysis of solo female serial murderers.' *Journal of Investigative Psychology and Offender Profiles*, 10(3), 268 288.
- Farrington D.P. (2015). 'Serious and violent juvenile offenders: risk factors and successful interventions.' Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Farrington, D. P., Loeber, R., & Berg, M. T. (2015).' Young men who kill: A prospective longitudinal examination from childhood.' *Homicide Studies*, 16, 99-128.
- Fisher, B. A. & Fisher, D. R. (2012). *Techniques of crime scene investigation*. CRC Press.
- Fisher, R. P., & Geiselman, R. E. (1992). *Memory-enhancing techniques for investigative interviewing: The Cognitive Interview*. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas.
- Fletcher, K. E. (2014). *Profiles in murder*: New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.
- Fox, M. & Levin, C. (2010). *Crime in South Africa: A country and cities profile*. S.A: Princeton Publishers.
- Gardner, R. M. (2014). Practical crime scene processing and investigation. CRC Press.
- Gartner R. And Parker T. (2010). 'The victims of homicide: a temporal and cross-national comparison'. *American Sociological Review.* 55:92–106.
- Ghumeim, M. and Wilson, M. (2013) *Homicide*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Goodwill, M., van Dijk, J. & Rhomberg, W. (2010). 'Determining Trends in Global Crime and Justice: An Overview of Results from the United Nations Surveys of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems.' Forum on Crime and Society, vol. 3, Nos. 1 and 2, pp. 35-63

- Green, D.F. (2011). 'Age, crime and social explanation.' *American journal of sociology*, 91, 1-21
- Grogger, M. E. & Loewy, D. (2015). *Essentials of Business Communications*. Cengage Learning. USA.
- Hernstein, E. (2014). *Violence and Society Making Sense of Madness and Badness*. Ross-on-Wye, England: PCCS Books.
- Hinds, E. (2011). 'Images of criminals and victims: A study on women's fear and social control.' *Gender & Society 11: 342-356*.
- Hirschi.T. (1990) & Mirowsky, G. (1999). 'Criminality and age.' American journal of sociology, 82, 552-554.
- Holmes, R.M. & Holmes, S.T. (2011). Serial murder. Thousand Oaks.
- Irwin, C. (2013). *Urban violence and insecurity: an introductory roadmap. Environment & Urbanization*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Jang, H. C. O., Frei, A. M., & Myers, W. C. (2000). 'Female sexual homicide offenders: An analysis of the offending process.' *Forensic Science International*, 233(1), 265 272.
- Johnson, R.V., Baranek, P.M. and Chan, J.B. L. (2015). *Representing Order: Crime, Law and Justice in the News Media. Toronto*: University of Toronto Press.
- Keppel, C, (ed) (2013). *Researching Society and Culture*, London: Sage publications Ltd.
- KNCHR. Abolition of the death sentence in Kenya (2018). [Online]. http://www.knchr.org/ [Accessed on September 12, 2018
- Kocsis, R. N., Hayes, A. F. & Irwin, H. J. (2013). 'Investigative experience and accuracy in psychological profiles of violent crime.' *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 17(8), 811 823.
- kosiken, M., Ngwerume, E. T. & Muchemwa, C. (2013). 'The Urban Crisis in Sub-Saharan.' Forensic Sci & Criminal Investigation; 1(3): 555561
- Kothari C.R (2008). Research Methodology, Methods and Techniques. New Delhi: Pitman Publishers.
- Krug, T. D. and Regoeczi, W. C. (2011). *Rethinking Homicide. Cambridge*: Cambridge University Press.

- Kubrin, C. & Weitzer E. (2009). *Social Disorganization Theory: Then, Now, and in the Future*. Handbook on Crime and Deviance: Springer.
- Leclerc et al.... (2015). Work and Crime. In the Oxford Handbook of Crime and Criminal Justice, M. Tonry (Ed.). pp. 444-78. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lederman, A. A. (2013). 'Youths' unemployment and crime in Nigeria: A nexus and implications for national development.' *International journal of sociology and anthropology*, 5 (8), 350-357
- Leparmara, M.A., (2016). 'Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Murder Profiling Procedures: A Case of Serial Murders at Kihiu Mwiri Farmers' Company in Kenya.' *Journal of Forensic Sci & Criminal Investigation*; 1(3): 555561.
- Levine, P. The changing effect of family background", in Samuel Bowles; (2007). Accessible in: www.igarape.org.br
- Loeber, R., LaCourse, E., & Homish, L. D. (2014). *Homicide, violence, and developmental trajectories*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Luckenbill, D. F. (2014). *Criminal homicide as a situated transaction. Social Problems*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.
- Lundsgaarde, H. P. (1977). Murder in space city: A cultural analysis of Houston homicide patterns. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mashall, T. D. and Regoeczi, W. C. (2013). *Rethinking Homicide*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mburu, L. & Marco Helbich (2015). 'Evaluating the Accuracy and Effectiveness of Criminal Geographic Profiling Methods: The Case of Dandora, Kenya.' *The*
- Professional Geographer, 67:1, 110-120, DOI: 10.1080/00330124.2014.886921
- Mietle, et al.., 1990). Serial murder: An elusive phenomenon. New York: Praeger.
- Mushanga, T. M. (2011). *Criminal homicide in Uganda*, Nairobi, East African literature bureau.
- Mugenda, A and Mugenda, O. (2013). *Research Methods. Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Nairobi: ACTS Press.
- Muhula, R. (2013). 'Youth and politics in Kenya: Promise or peril? Democracy, governance, and civic participation.' *African Insights: Youth in Africa*, 37(3), 362 375.

- Mullany, D. (2013). 'Living in the shadow of death: violence, pandillas and social disintegration in contemporary urban Nicaragua.' unpublished PhD dissertation, Department of Social Anthropology, University of Cambridge, UK.
- Musila, G. A. (2008). 'Remapping urban modernities: Julie Ward's death and the Kenyan grapevine.' *Journal of Postcolonial Writing*, 44(1), 37 47.
- Mutonya, M. (2010). 'The beat goes on: Performing postcolonial disillusionment in Kenya.' *Humaniadel Sur*, (8), 47-66.
- Mutonya, M. (2012). Crying as we laugh 1: Writing human rights in Wahome Mutahi's prison memoirs. *Journal of African Literature Association*, 7(1), 35.
- National police service (2016), Annual crime Report, Nps: Nairobi
- Ndikaru, T. (2011). 'Crime Causes and Victimization in Nairobi City Slums.' International Journal of Current Research, 3 (12), 275-285
- Nyakundi, C. The untold stories of mysterious murders 2015. [Online]. http://cnyakundi.com/2015/01/the-untold-story-of-mysterious-murders/ [Accessed on August 12, 2018].
- Parker S. § Humphrey, J. A. (2015). Offender victim relationship in criminal homicide followed by offender's suicide, North Carolina.
- Phillip R. (2015). *The economic cost of homicide to a South African city [Dissertation*]. Cape Town, University of Cape Town.
- Pizarro, J. M., Zgoba, K. M., & Jennings, W. (2011). 'Assessing the interaction between offender and victim criminal lifestyles & homicide type.' *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 39, 367-377.
- Procise, C., Kriegler, A., & Shaw, M. (2014). A citizen's guide to SAPS crime statistics: 1994 to 2015. Centre of Criminology. Cape Town: Centre of Criminology, University of Cape Town.
- Rachel, G. (2016). *The Criminal Histories of Homicide Offenders*. Home Office Research Study 206. London: Home Office Town.
- Riedel, K (2013). Comparative Criminology. London: Routledge
- Rossmo, P. & Brantingham, P. (2011). *Crime Pattern Theory, in Environmental Criminology and Crime Analysis*. Ed. Wortley, R. & Mazerolle, L. Routledge, 78-91.

- Salfati (2012). 'consistency in victim and crime scene action focused sub-types across series.' *Journal of investigative psychology and offender profiling*. 10 1002-1428.
- Salvador, K. (2013). 'criminology in Latin American.' *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *38*, 151–187.
- Silver, E. (2000). 'Extending the Social Disorganization Theory: A Multilevel Approach.' *Criminology 38:1043-73*.
- Small Arms Survey. (2017). 'Measuring Illicit Arms Flows in the Context of Sustainable Development Goal 16: An International Framework for Action.' Podcast No. 41. Geneva: Small Arms Survey. 24 July.
- Smith, C. Thornberry, T. (2013). The relationship between childhood maltreatment and adolescent involvement in delinquency. *Criminology*, 33:451–481.
- Smutt M, (2014). socialization and violence. National Academy Press, Central America.
- Soothill, K., Francis, B. Ackerley, E. and Collett, S. (2014). *Homicide in Britain: A Comparative Study of Rates in Scotland and England and Wales*. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive.
- Soothill, K., Francis, B., Sanderson, B. and Ackerley, E. (2015). 'Sex Offenders: Specialists, Generalists or Both?', *British Journal of Criminology*, 40, 56-67.
- St. John's Law Review: Vol. 8: Iss. 1, Article 26. Available at: http://scholarship.law.stjohns.edu/lawreview/vol8/iss1/26 Accessed 15th August, 2018.
- Super, G. (2014), 'Article 40, African Focus: Juvenile Justice in Namibia Vol 1, May 6–7'. *South African Health Review*
- The Holy Bible: New International Version. (2005). Japan, Zondervern.
- The Kenyan penal code chapter 63 Laws of Kenya,, Available at: http://www.kenya law.org Accessed 29th October 2018.
- Titterington, M. (2013). 'Partners in crime? Crime, political transition and changing forms of policing control.' Research report 39, June 1995, Centre for Policy Studies, Johannesburg.
- Trulson, S. (2016). The Oxford Handbook of Criminology, Clarendon Press, Oxford.

- United Nations Population Fund (2015). State of the World's Cities: Trends in Sub-Saharan Africa: Urbanization & Metropolitanization. United Nations.
- UNODC Homicide Statistics (2010). Available: http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/homicide.html
- UNODC Homicide Statistics (2011). Available: http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/homicide.html.
- UNODC Homicide Statistics (2012). Available: http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/homicide.html
- UNODC Homicide Statistics (2013). Available: http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/homicide.html
- UNODC Homicide Statistics (2015). Available: http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/homicide.html
- UNODC Homicide Statistics (2017). Available: http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/homicide.html
- UNPF Family Homicide (2015). Available: http://www.unpf.org./homicide.html Accessed 7th August, 2018.
- UNSD United Nations Statistics Division (2017). *Global Homicide Trends*. New York: UNSD. March.
- Verkko, P. (2014) Murder and Society. Chichester: Wiley.
- WHO (2014). The global homicide burden of disesase:2014 update. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2014. Available in: http://apps.who.int./ghodata/Accessed 7th August, 2018.
- WHO (2017). Report on Violence and Health. Geneva: WHO press.
- Williams, K. R. and Flewelling, R. L. (1988). 'The social production of criminal homicide: a comparative study of disaggregated rates in American cities', *American Sociological Review*, 53 (3): 421–31.
- Wilson, G., & Alison, L. (2013). 'Suspect prioritization in the investigation of sex offences: From clinical classification and profiles to pragmatism'. Forensic Psychologists Casebook: Psychological Profiles and Criminal Investigations, 68.
- Wolfgang, Marvin E. (1966). *Patterns in criminal homicide*. (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Wolfgang, Marvin E., and Ferracuti, Franco. (1967). *The subculture of violence*. London: Tavistock Publications Ltd.
- Zappala, G. S. (2010). 'Crime and Punishment: An Economic Approach'. *Journal of Political Economy*, 76(2), 169–217.
- Znaniecki, F (1920). *The polish Peasant in Europe and America. Chicago*: University of Chicago Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire seeks to gather information on criminal profiles of convicted male homicide offenders. Please respond to these questions honestly. All information given will be treated with utmost confidentiality. **SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS** i) Which is your county of birth..... ii) How old were you at the time of crime commission? a) Under 18 years [f) 40-44 1 b) 19-24 ſ 1 g) 45-49 1 c) 25-29 ſ h) 50-54 1 d) 30-34 ſ 1 i) 55-59 1 e) 35-39 ſ j) 60 and above]] What was your level of education attained at the time of crime commission? a) Primary level ſ 1 c) University level 1 b) Secondary level d) None ſ 1 1 iv) Prior to your imprisonment, what was your marital status? a) Married d) Widowed Γ 1 1 b) Separated e) Single ſ 1 ſ 1

iii)

c) Divorced

ſ

1

v)		What is your I	Relig	ion'?							
	a)	Christian	[]	b) Muslim	[]				
	c)	Other, specif	y								
vi)		What is your b	oirth	order in yo	our family?						
	a)	First born	[]		c)	Third born	[]		
	b)	Second born	[]		d)	Fourth born	[]		
	e)	Other, specif	y						•••••		
vii) How were you brought up?											
	a)	Single Moth	ner	[]		c)	Both parents		[]	
	b)	Father		[]							
	d)	Other, specif	y								
viii)	viii) What was the marital status of your parents?										
	a)	Married	[]		c)	Separated	[]		
	b)	divorced	[]		d)	Or never live	d tog	ether []	
SO	CIO	D-ECONOMI	C FA	CTORS							
i) What was your employment status before imprisonment?											
a	.)]	Employed	[]		d) F	Retrenched	[]		
b) 1	Unemployed	[]		e) F	Retired	[]		
c) ;	Self-employed	[]							
f) (Other, specify.									
ii)		If unemploye	d or e	employed,	for how long	in yea	ars				

iii)		s your occupation	_			n?					
iv)	If unemployed, how were you earning your daily bread (describe activities										
	engaged i	n)									
v)	Estimate	your monthly i	ncome be	fore impriso	onment in	Ken	nya				
	shillings.										
vi) W	/hat problem	ns did you face	while gro	wing up (lis	st them in	orde	er of severity)				
	a)										
	b)										
	c)										
vii)	Prior to	your imprisoni	ment wer	e you prac	ticing an	y tra	de/skill profession or				
	business?	ı									
a)) Yes [] b)	No []							
	If yes state	e									
SF	TION R. C	CRIMINAL M	OTIVAT	IONAL E	ACTORS	<u>!</u>					
SE.	orion b. c		OIIVAI	TONAL I'A	CIOND						
i) V	Vhy did you	commit the cri	me for wh	ich you we	re prisone	ed for	r?				
ii) H	lave you ever	r had any probl	lem relate	d to drug ab	ouse?						
a)	Yes []		b)	No	[]				
iii)	If yes which	h types of drug	?								
a)	Khat []		b)	Alcohol	[]				

c)	Heroin	[]			d)	Cocaine	· []		
e)	Other, sp	ecify									
iv)	Did you	use a	ny forr	n of drugs	before the cr	rime	commis	sion?	•		
a)	Yes	[]			b)	No	[]		
v) Did you commit the offence you are imprisoned for while under the influence of any											
drug?											
a)	Yes	[]			b)	No	[]		
,	Did yo Yes	-		buse drug	s?	b)	No	[]		
vii)	If yes wh	no ab	used the	e drug			• • • • • • • • •				
viii)	viii) Before or during homicide commission were you suffering any mental										
	stress								• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
ix)	If yes wh	at ca	used the	e mental s	tress	· • • • •					
SEC	TION C:	МО	DUS O	PERANI	OI (MODE O	F O	PERAT	TION)		
i) Where did you commit the offence that led to your imprisonment?											
a) Home	count	ty []	b) Other cou	ınty	[]			
ii) What time did you commit the offence?											
a)	Day tim	ie	[]		b)	Night]]	
iii)	iii) What method did you use in crime commission										
iv)											

	• •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •									
v)	Aft	ter you comm	ittec	the c	rime ho	w long	g did it t	ake th	e police	to arre	st you?
		Within one i									
	b)	Over a mont	h	[]						
	c)	Over a year		[]						
vi)	Die	d you plan to	com	mit th	e offenc	ce you	are imp	risone	d for?		
vii)	Ifp	olanned for ho	ow lo	ong							
	a)	Days	[]				c)	Years	[]
	b)	Months	[]							
viii)	ŀ	How many of	you	comm	itted th	e crime	e				
	;	a) Alone	[]				c)	Three	[]
	1	b) Two	[]							
	(d) Other, spe	ecify	·					• • • • • • • • • •		
i	x)	If you com	mitt	ted the	crime v	with ot	hers, w	ould y	ou consi	der the	em as
	a)	Family mer	nber	·s]]					
	b)	Friends or o	crime	e partn	ers []					
	c)	Strangers]]					
2	()	Did you co	omm	it the	offence	you ar	e prisor	ned for	in the p	rocess	of committing
		other offer	ices.								
,	(i)	If ves. whi	ch o	ffence							

	X11)	State the i	ıumb	er of th	e victi	m							
	xiii)	Were you	hired	l by any	zone to		the	crime		• • • • •		. 	• • • •
	XIII)	Were you hired by anyone to commit the crime											
	xiv)	If yes what were you offered											
	xv)	Is the pers	son w	ho hire	d you	charged f	for tl	he crime					
SEC	CTION	N D: VICT	IM-	OFFE	NDER	RELAT	IOI	NSHIP					
i)	Wha	t was the g	endei	of you	r victi	m?							
a)	Male	: []					b)	Female []				
ii) l	Estima	te the age o	of you	ır victii	n?								
a)	1-5 ye	ears	[]			e)	25 to 34		[]		
b)	6-12 y	years	[]			f)	35 to 54		[]		
c)	12 to	17	[]			g)	55 and above		[]		
d)	18 to	24	[]									
iii)	Were y	ou known	to the	e victin	n?								
a)	Yes	[]					b)	No []				
iv)	If yes,	describe yo	our re	lationsl	nip or	associatio	on w	rith him/her					
a)	Famil	y member		[]		e)	Neighbor				[]
b)	Roma	ntic relatio	nship) []		f)	Wife				[]
c)	Collea	ague at wo	rk	[]								
d)	Friend	l		[]								
g)	Some	one I had r	net /s	een bef	fore/sti	ranger							
v)]	How lo	ong have yo	ou kn	own the	e victii	m?							
a)	1-5 ye	ears	[]			c)	12 to 17		[]		
b)	6-12 v	vears	Γ	1			d)	18 to 24			1		

e)	25 to 34	•	[g) 55 and above []				
f)	35 to 54	-	[]				
vi) Did you have any personal difference with your victim?								
a) Yes	[]	b) No []				
ii)	If yes	wha	t differe	nce				
iii)	Durin	g cri	me com	mission did the victim provoke you to commit the crime or you				
	had al	read	y made	up your mind to complete the crime				
iv)	Did y	ou ki	ll the rig	ght victim or mistaken identity?				
	Yes	[]					
	No	[]					
SEC	TION E	: CR	RIMINA	AL HISTORY				
i) V	Which co	nvict	tion are	you currently serving?				
a)	First	[]	c) Third []				
b)	Second	[]	d) Fourth []				
e)	If other,	, spec	cify					
ii) It	f this is n	ot yo	our first	conviction, what other crimes did you commit previously?				
iii) F	Iow long	have	e vou be	een convicted				
111) 1	iow iong	, ma v v	e you be	on convicted				
iv) H	Iave you	ever	been ar	rested by police prior to your present imprisonment?				
	a) Yes	[]	b) No []				
v)	If yes h	ow n	nany tin	nes				
vi)	Were y	ou pi	resented	before the court				

	a) Yes []	b) No []
v)	How many	of your family members have s	served a priso	n sentence?
vi)	If any who			
vii)	If any for,	what crime		

Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX II: INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI



UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY & SOCIAL WORK

Fax 254-2-245566 Telex 22095 Varsity Nairobi Kenya Tel. 318262/5 Ext. 28167 P.O. Box 30197, Nairobi Kenya Email: dept-sociology@uonbi.ac.ke

31/7/2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: ISSACK ABD#JARSO- C50/73129/2014

Through this letter, I wish to confirm that the above named is a bonafide postgraduate student at the Department of Sociology & Social Work, University of Nairobi. He has presented his project proposal entitled; "Assessment of Criminal Profiles of Male Homicide Convicts at Kamiti & King'ong'o Maximum Prisons."

Issack is required to collect data pertaining to the research problem from the selected organization to enable him complete him thesis which is a requirement of the Masters degree.

Kindly give him any assistance he may need.

Chairman, Department of Sociology & Social Work

APPENDIX III: STUDENT LETTER TO KENYA PRISON SERVICES

ISSACK ABDO JARSO REG NO. C50/73129/2014 UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI PO BOX 30197

NAIROBI 01/08/2018

THE COMMISSIONER GENERAL KENYA PRISONS SERVICES PO BOX 30175 NAIROBI

Dear Sir,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH

Am the above named postgraduate student pursuing Masters of Arts degree in Criminology and Social Order at the Department of Sociology and social work, University of Nairobi.

My research proposals is entitled "Assessment of Criminal Profiles of Male Homicide Convicts at Kamiti and King'ong'o Maximum Prisons" and am required to collect data pertaining to the research problem.

I, kindly request your good office to grant me access to **Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Prisons** in order to collect the required data from male homicide convicts and other secondary data related to convicts. The research is purely academic and the final project will be shared with the department.

Please find the attached letter from the university confirming the research am undertaking.

Yours Faithfully

ISSACK A. JARSO, HSC

APPENDIX IV: AUTHORITY BY PRISON DEPARTMENT MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT. KENYA PRISONS SERVICE

Telegrams: "COMPRISONS", Nairobi Telephone: +254022722900-6. Email: Comprisons@yahoo.com When replying please quote



PRISONS HEADQUARTERS P.O. BOX 30175-00100 NAIROBI

REF: PRIS 1/112 VOL XVII/49

2 August 2018

Issak A. Jarso P.O. Box 106-10100 NYERI

REF: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH

We acknowledge receipt of your letter requestining to conduct an academic research on 'Assessment of criminal profiles of male homicide convicts at Kamiti and Nyeri Maximum Security Prisons' at Kamiti Main Prison and Nyeri main prison.

This is to inform you that your request has been approved for the period between 6 August 2018 to 17 August 2018.

You are expected to adhere to Prisons rules and regulations during your research period. The research findings should be for academic use only. You are also required to provide this Prisons Headquarters with a copy of your research report at the end of your research.

By a copy of this letter, The Officer in Charges, Kamiti main prison and Nyeri main prison are requested to accord you the necessary assistance.

P.W. NGARA, OGW (SACP/A)

FOR: COMMISSIONER GENERAL OF PRISONS

Cc.

- 1. Officer in Charge Kamiti Main Prison
- Officer in Charge Nyeri Main Prison