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FACULTY OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

**COLLATERAL EFFECTS OF INCARCERATION AND NAVIGATION OF THE
OBSTACLES TO EMPLOYMENT OF EX-CONVICTS: A CASE OF KAKAMEGA
COUNTY**

BY

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the Award of A Master of Arts Degree in Sociology of the University of Nairobi with
Specialization in Criminology and Social Order.**

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DECLARATION

This Research Report is my original work and has never been submitted for award of a degree at the University of Nairobi or any other University.

Signed.....

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This Research Report has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to all ex-convicts in Kenya who have encountered diverse challenges in trying to get into employment but have not given up.

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ABSTRACT

Offenders discharged from correctional institutions are confronted by social, economic and individual difficulties that tend to become barriers to crime free lifestyle. Some of these difficulties are as a result of the outcomes of imprisonment and the problem of transitioning back into the community worsened by their inability to join job market due to requirements of certificate of good conduct, poor skills, and drug addiction among others. It is along this background that this study under the guidance of social justice theory examined ex-offenders' perceptions about Kenya's job reentry initiatives. To achieve this, the research adopted descriptive survey research design. A Snowballing sampling method was used to select 55 ex-convicts who had transitioned back into Kakamega County, Kenya. The main instrument used for this study was a single questionnaire which included questions about the participants' demographic characteristics, incarceration history, employment, and perceptions about prerelease preparation, aftercare services and effect of civil disabilities (certificate of good conduct) on their employment. Responses to interview questions were coded in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and analyzed using Chi-Square at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance for hypothesis testing. Findings showed that the programs have a dismal record of jointly improving employment outcomes and of lowering recidivism probabilities among the individuals who participate in them. Hypothesis testing concluded that there is significant relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry initiatives by ex-convicts and the years spent in prison. In fact, 38.8% explained the difference in perception ($\chi^2 = 16.818$, df. 8; $\alpha < 0.05$). Level of education explained 22.6% of the difference in perception about reentry programs, though statistically this was not sufficient to reject null hypothesis ($\chi^2 = 8.709$, df. 8; $\alpha < 0.05$). Level of education had only 1.1% influence on perception about Certificate of good conduct as a barrier to employment, statistically there was no significant relationship between these two variables ($\chi^2 = 1.072$ df. 8 ; $\alpha < 0.05$).

Key Words: *ex-convicts, civil disabilities, descriptive survey, reentry initiatives, incarceration, Social justice.*

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study as well as objective and research question. It also looks at the significance and basic assumptions of the study. The research limitations and delimitations are also covered.

1.1 Background of the Study

In 1911, the Kenya Prison Services was established under the ministry of Home Affairs, Heritage and Sports to contain and keep offenders in safe custody, rehabilitate and reform offenders, facilitate administration of justice and promote prisoners opportunities for social re-integration as mandated by Kenya Prisons Act, Borstal Act and Public Service Commission Act. The capacity of Kenya Prison Department to achieve these constitutional mandates has received heavy criticism owing to the fact that despite the governments' heavy investment on rehabilitation programs, the recidivism rates have gradually been on the increase: 2002 (25.4%), 2003 (27.9%), 2005 (31.9%), 2011 (47%) (UNDC, 2012a).

This trend has been linked to several factors, historians for instance opine that Kenya transplanted criminal justice system based on English common law and adapted to the exigencies of colonial administration which conflicts with indigenous traditions that value redress to the victims and societal reconciliation (Kercher, 1981). The problematic association between contemporary rehabilitative functions and rigid, paramilitary colonial structures of Kenya prisons has also been cited as a contributor to the failing prison system (Omboto, 2013). In fact instead of prisons to be a place for transformation and rehabilitation, they have become training grounds for inmates to become hardened criminals (Tenibiaje, 2010).

Other scholars have argued that employment is an obvious starting point in the reentry process because it is the major “routine activity” of most adults, and individuals who are exiting prison with evidence that steady work can reduce the incentives that lead to crime (Bushway and Reuter, 1997; Travis, 2005; Petersilia, 2001; Pager, 2006; Belenko, 2006). Therefore, hindering employment through civil limitations such as requirement of certificate of good conduct for jobs both in public and private sector as set by Kenya Government hinders the reintegration process (Greene et al., 2006).

Clear, Rose & Ryder (2001) explains that released prisoners return to the society with limited financial resources but many financial responsibilities. Not only do they lack the needed means for survival (meals and the house), but also need money for new cloths and transportation. Clear et al. article found that unemployed individuals typically rely upon their families for financial support. As a result, families experience additional financial strains. The financial hardship reduces their level of societal participation and also may undermine the ability of successful association activities.

Their article explains that one of the main byproducts of unemployment is the increase in the number of idle men congregating on street corners, often near, or in front of local shops, taxi parking lots or newspaper vender spots, this may result into shop owners and vendors reporting fewer legitimate customers at their shop on fear of being attacked by idle men around those shops. Secondly, the “appearance disorder” meaning customers from outside the community are reluctant to frequent those businesses, and possible investors do not see these neighborhoods as a secure site for business. Eventually, no investments or development in the region will be experienced, leaving ex-convicts with only one logical option of reverting to crime to sort their economic obligations.

Similarly, it is vital to keep in mind that the employment of ex-convicts is not certainly without sacrifices – companies have the trouble of crime and violence at the

workplace, with no exception to many worldly intricacies of unpredictable workers and worker turnover. With regard to each of these concerns, criminal history is arguably a proper sign. In fact, to the extent that the past is a reliable predictor of tomorrow, a sentence history carries some acquired facts about the probability of eventual criminal, threatening, or debilitating patterns of behavior. Companies thus have good ground to be careful about hiring persons with known felonious histories. Any policy meant to encourage the employment of ex-convicts will have to address the actual and perceived dangers confronting companies who employ persons with criminal background.

Faced with these challenges, the Kenya Prison Department needed a new system to prisoner reentry. Several policy changes have since been initiated including a shift from the closed to open door system that embrace participation of all stake holders including Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in the management of prison to foster the emerging trends of global correctional development (Omboto, 2013). For example, Crossroad Bible Institute (CBI) – Kenya, founded in 2010 pioneered a reentry program that sponsors twenty people each year. The program begins in prison with CBI's discipleship courses, which provide students with foundational principles for godly living. Upon release, CBI Kenya partners with the prison chaplaincy department to organize a reconciliation process between the returning ex-convicts, the families and community. Participants then continue to follow up with the reentry program for six months.

Resources Oriented Development Initiative (RODI)-Kenya aimed at supporting offenders both during their sentences and after release. The organization is guided by the fact that the punitive approach of the Kenyan justice system, particularly given the appalling conditions of incarceration, serves only to harden and dehumanize prisoners. RODI-Kenya provides a wide range of rehabilitative programs which build the technical capacities of offenders in sustainable agriculture and appropriate technology, from farming skills to

training in information technology and textiles. RODI-Kenya currently works with 25 Kenyan prisons across five Kenyan regions (Rift Valley, Western, Nyanza, Nairobi, and Central). Seven of these prisons are women's prisons. Since 1989, RODI has trained 7000 offenders in sustainable skills.

Conceptually, prisoner reentry has varying definitions and includes efforts prior to and after release from correctional institutions. In fact, traditionally one can identify three main types of reentry initiatives, namely, institution-based programs, surveillance-based transition programs, and assistance based transition programs (Ajala, 2011; Greene et al., 2006). Institutional programs are meant to prepare offenders to re-enter community. This includes education, mental healthcare, substance abuse treatment, job training, counseling, and mentoring. These programs are more productive when they are focused on a comprehensive diagnostic and evaluation of offenders (Hirschi, 2002). Some of the programs are administered prior to the discharge by community-based organizations like RODI – Kenya which are equipped to give after-care and follow-up with the offenders following their discharge from incarceration. As these programs are optional, a substantial number of offenders do not participate and are consequently discharged into the society without any pre-release training.

Surveillance-based programs are focused on guidance of offenders in the society following discharge from jail. According to Maruna & LeBel (2002), there are four modes of parole guidance: Risk based, needs based, middle-group and strengths-based. Risk-based approaches work on the assumption that offenders are vulnerable and must be regulated and strictly watched. Needs-based guidance approaches concentrate on offenders' criminogenic needs, which mean parole administrators assist offenders get fitting remedy in programs such as cognitive skills training and alcoholism counseling (Maruna & LeBel, 2002).

The ‘middle-ground’ approach is a combination of the two models. The amalgamation is supposed to appease advocates of both designs. According to Ajala (2011), the final and least researched guidance approach is the – strength-based- model which sees offenders as “assets to be managed rather than simply liabilities to be managed” (Maruna & LeBel, 2002). This strategy is based on the proposition that inmates are discredited and that this brand, rather than any intrinsic dangerousness that makes them more inclined to perpetrate further offenses.

Assistance based transition programs are intended to give support and assistance to classes of inmates after imprisonment. It comprises the following: Assistance for Mentally unwell Offenders (Hartwell & Orr, 1999), job market reentry guide, shelter and economic help, family support, and substance abuse treatment – all referred to as after-care services. It should be noted that, efforts of After-Care Centers are intended to filling the gap in correctional philosophy, decrease recidivism, and produce a safer community. The designs in the program involves: skill acquisition project (tailoring, barbing/hairdressing, information technology, literacy/numeracy attainment, vulcanizing, agriculture); small scale investments design (toilet roll making, soap making, shoemaking, painting) so as to support in the return and reintegration of ex-convicts into the community, through ensuring labor supply into the economy.

1.2 Statement of the Problem.

Despite the above initiatives to enhance re entry, the Kenya prison system maintains its overcrowding problem with occupancy rates of 226% capacity compared to other East African countries like Uganda 214% and Tanzania 145%. The problem being pegged to the tremendous rate of recidivism (UNODC, 2012), thus examination of the Kenya’s prisoner reentry initiatives and identification of alternative approaches that might be more successful becomes an urgent priority. Therefore, until we have a better understanding of what works,

policies and programs are effective there will be minimal lasting impacts (Greene, Polzer, and Lavin – Loucks, 2006). According to Travis, 2009:

Contemporary reentry designs are still pretty primitive; the profession is merely now starting to develop an approach to reentry based on the evidence of the best methods. At this time, it is critically vital to invest in meticulous evaluations to identify which interventions are effective at improving public security and prisoner reintegration. Possibly more important, government backing is required in the developing and experimentation of different approaches, especially those that recognize that successful reentry is larger than an individual act of will p. 39.

In Kenya, there has been very limited research on reentry strategies, for example the discipleship courses being offered by Crossroad Bible Institute (CBI) to convicts with foundational principles for Godly living and the collaborative work with the prison chaplaincy department to organize a reconciliation process between the returning ex convicts, families and the community has never been evaluated. Therefore, as we navigate the obstacles to employment of ex convicts in Kakamega it is vital to understand from the offenders' perspective how such strategies have been useful in enhancing their employment chances.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- i. What are the perceptions of ex-offenders about Kenya's prisoner reentry programs?
- ii. What are the perceptions of ex-convicts about certificate of good conduct as a barrier to their employment?

1.4 Specific Objectives

- i. To examine the relationship between the years of incarceration and the individuals' rating of the reentry initiatives.
- ii. To understand how ex-convicts' level of education influence their rating of reentry initiatives.
- iii. To generally understand how Age and level of education relates to certificate of good conduct as a barrier to employment of ex-convicts.

1.5 Justification of the study

This type of exploratory study on reentry initiative has never gotten the much needed attention in Kenya. It is hoped that the study's finding would be very necessary in providing an explanation to current trends of reentry initiatives. Secondly, focusing on the ex-convicts' view point, this research is timely and relevant in generating the needed reentry programs to reduce recidivism and prisons overcrowding in Kenya. Third, this study generates a theory of reentry programs that would be very useful in future studies of reentry policies in Kenya.

1.6 Basic Assumptions of the Study

Because of non-existence of official data on all persons previously convicted in Kakamega County, including those convicted outside the County but are residents – It was assumed that the sample would be representative of the population; the data collection instrument would have validity to measure the desired constructs; the respondents would answer questions correctly and truthfully, and that there would be enough resources to enable research to be completed in time as planned.

1.7 Scope of the Study

An inevitable consequence of “get tough on crime” policies of the past two decades is the unprecedented flood of ex-convicts being released into communities (Greene et al., 2006).

Although the Kenya government spends millions of shillings on efforts to keep ex-convicts from returning to prison, recidivism remains high. It is vital to understand the most important factors necessary in helping ex-convicts to successfully negotiate the passage from prison to life in the outside. In particular, existing studies largely ignores the views of those with most intimate knowledge of challenges facing onetime inmates – the ex-convicts themselves.

Thus, this study aims at filling that void. It presents the perspectives of ex-convicts who now live in Kakamega County, Kenya and underwent reentry trainings while in custody. Notably, attempt to realize this object faced various limitations among others the researchers' inability to speak Luhya language. Most of the respondents could not exactly express themselves in English or Kiswahili. Others, because of the fear of possible consequences unknown to them "fear of unknown in participating or giving information" due to the sensitivity of the topic under study – they decided not to participate. These challenges were adequately addressed by use of facilitators who acted as translators from the locals. For those who feared, they were assured of anonymity to take care of such limitation.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

The study was carried out in Kakamega County, Kenya. This location was selected because, despite the fact that Western is among the safest regions in Kenya, Kakamega emerged the riskiest County of the region (Mathenge, 2009). A phenomenon associated with the fact that Kakamega County is the home of the Kenya's biggest sugar milling companies; Mumias Sugar Company, West Kenya and Butali Sugar Millers that have attracted large number of immigrants from other parts of the country with diverse social lifestyles hence social disorganization creating criminality. According to population census of August 24, 2009, Kakamega County was second to Nairobi as the most populated County with 1,660,651 residents making it most complex and interesting rural set up for the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this study, prisoner reentry is used to refer to the transition of ex-offenders from secure confinement to free communities, with or without supervision (Greene et al., 2006). To date, nearly all policies focusing on ex-offenders have emphasized either on supporting reintegration of ex-convicts or decreasing the risk on employers (Pager, 2006). The pro-offender reentry approaches endeavors to promote employment for ex-convicts through different policies, such as establishing antidiscrimination laws, eliminating constitutional obstacles, administering job training and employment services and the like. While, those centered on risk reduction stress more on the necessity to protect employers and society from known criminals, by granting greater access to criminal background data, by establishing professional constraints and imposing other appropriate protections.

2.2 Hidden Obstacles to Reentry

Unfortunately, the legal, economic and social circumstances faced by most ex-convicts have thus far not lent themselves to clean random assignment of treatment options for experimental design research (Pager, 2006; Visser, 2007). In a policy situation described as “anomic,” many ex-offenders who secure employment and other reentry services are still chronically “violated” and sent back to prison for minor behaviors such as drinking alcohol or possession of marijuana, even after making substantial qualitative progress on parole (Caplan, 2006). Joan Petersilia notes the irony and self-fulfilling prophecy of large populations of strictly-monitored, but under-resourced reentry programs having their funding cut due to poor performance (Petersilia, 2000 p.4).

According to Listwan et al. (2006), “the fear is that reentry programs that target a distinctly complex group (e.g. serious and dangerous offenders) will be judged negatively due to high recidivism rates and ultimately blamed of compromising societal security. The programs will then be exposed to criticism because they will not seem to work” p.23. Meanwhile, the needs of released prisoners returning to communities today are, in fact, greater than ever before. According to Urban Institute: “In contrast to a decade ago, men and women leaving jail are less prepared for reintegration, less attached to community-based social arrangements, and more likely to have health or substance abuse issues” (Visser, 2007 p.99).

By losing sight of the subaltern context of prisoner reentry at the close of this most recent period of hyper-incarceration of our poorest politically weakest citizens, mainstream criminology’s tendency towards the fetishism and methodological sophistry may work to obscure the broader challenges facing former prisoners as they emerge from prison (Ferrell et al., 2004; Austin, 2009). According to Travis, 2009:

Contemporary reentry designs are still pretty primitive; the profession is merely now starting to develop an approach to reentry based on the evidence of the best methods. At this time, it is critically vital to invest in meticulous evaluations to identify which interventions are effective at improving public security and prisoner reintegration. Possibly more important, government backing is required in the developing and experimentation of different approaches, especially those that recognize that successful reentry is larger than an individual act of will p. 39.

Kurlychek, Brame and Bushway, took one commendable move in this route with their study, "Scarlet Letters and Recidivism" (2006) examined felonious backgrounds and culpability of ex-convicts. Centering on the trajectories of ex-offenders many years after an imprisonment, their study explored the tradeoff between providing or withdrawing

discrediting felonious background information, given the interest of the employers in knowing and abstain from workers at risk of perpetrating a crime.

By empirically forming patterns of offending among a group of men with and without previous incarceration histories, they point that, although previous records do prognosticate future offending, this connection declines precipitously with time. In fact, for six or seven years from an incarceration, the probability of offending for young men with criminal backgrounds looks considerably similar to those with no criminal history. For employers worried about reoffending, then, a felonious background offers vanishingly little related information once a significant period has passed.

The Kurlycheck et al. (2006) presents a rational examination of the direct policy implications of felonious backgrounds as a screening mechanism by organizations. Their report leads us toward one of numerous strategies that could be concurrently pursued as a component of an integrated policy for boosting employment among ex-convicts (Pager, 2006). One of the most straight forward policy suggestions of the Kurlycheck et al (2006) report relates to the distribution of felonious backgrounds information. Currently, for every person processed through the criminal justice system, police reports, court papers and corrections databases detail dates of confinement, charges, sentence, and terms of imprisonment.

Nearly all states make these documents publicly accessible, many times through on-line repositories, available to organizations, landlords, lenders, and other interested individuals (Clear et al., 2001). The extensive distribution of criminal background information produces a public label of contact with the criminal justice system, and a label that, in many circumstances, does not fade. With no mechanism for removal, the information continues prominently publicized in the background checks, distorting the acceptance of even those most indisputably reformed (Pager, 2006).

According to Kurlycheck et al (2006), given that the danger of reoffending drops after six or seven years of incarceration, the public protection justification for knowing an individual's felonious records beyond this point thus becomes undeviatingly less compelling. Even though public security interests mandate that organizations and other members of the society maintain the capacity to recognize those involved in illegal activity, for individuals who have abandoned their wicked history behind them (as most juvenile offenders finally do), a felonious background becomes little more than a staggering cause of stigma. By contrast, time-limits on the distribution of felonious backgrounds would grant the chance for offenders who have shown a commitment to remaining crime free for a specified span a second chance at a fresh start.

2.3 Why “Work Doesn’t Work”

The apparent failure of work programs to improve consistently and substantially the employment and offending experiences of their participants begs an obvious question: “why?” The theoretical literature is sufficiently well developed that it comes as a bit of surprise, at least at first glance, that the work programs to date have produced such disappointing results. At least four plausible reasons exist.

First, implementation problems tend to plague field experiments of this sort. Specifically, participants often fail to comply with program conditions. Individuals assigned to a control condition can seek non-program assistance or training on their own, whereas individuals assigned to an experimental condition can refuse to show up for training or subsidized employment. Plenty of evidence of this sort of non-compliance in social experiments exists (see Heckman, Hohmann, Smith, and Khoo, 2000). Non-compliance is problematic for evaluation of the “treatment effect” of subsidized work, skills training, and search assistance.

Second, individuals with a criminal history have well-documented employment problems. The brutal truth is that many such individuals have difficulty holding onto jobs; providing

them with a job probably does little to improve their “employability” (Bushway and Reuter, 2004). Bloom (2006 p.3) cogently observed that “many people enter the criminal justice system hard to employ and leave it even harder to employ.” According to Visser, Debus, and Yahner (2008), although almost two thirds (65%) of the individuals with a criminal history in the Returning Home study were employed at some point during the eight months after their release from prison, less than half (45%) remained employed. The employment problems experienced by these individuals tend to be longstanding. For example, Apel and Sweeten (2010) demonstrated that young people who experience their first incarceration spell exhibit unsuitable work histories well before they are convicted, compared with young people who are convicted but are not incarcerated. For example, they are less likely to have been employed at any point in the year prior to their conviction (60% vs. 67%). To - be - incarcerated youth also exhibit weaker attachment to legal work, as indicated by their higher probability of labor force non-participation at any point during the year prior to the conviction that lead to their confinement (76% vs. 69%).

Third, individuals with criminal history records face inequality in the job search process. This discrimination is, in part, because they tend to be unskilled and poorly educated – qualities that make them unattractive to potential employers. For example, slightly more than one quarter (27%) of the individuals in the Supported Work evaluation had at least 12 years of schooling (MDRC, 1980). In the United States, just 35% of jail and prison inmates have at least a high-school qualification, compared with 82% of the general population (Harlow, 2003). In this respect, then, individuals with criminal history records resemble other hard-to-employ populations-among them, the lower-primary school dropouts – who lack some of the credentials valued by potential employers.

In addition to their severe human capital deficiencies, however, evidence is mounting that a criminal history stigmatizes individuals in the marketplace. Pager (2003), for example,

reported 50% lower callback rates among job applicants who report a prison sentence on their application (see also Holzer, Raphael, and Stoll, 2004; Pager, 2007; Raphael, 2010; Stoll and Bushway, 2008). She concluded that “criminal records close doors in employment situations” (p.956). Many individuals with criminal history records invariably discover this from their own job search experience, reporting overwhelmingly that they feel their criminal record has hindered their ability to find a job (Visser et al., 2008). This finding does not bode well for modern prisoner reentry, as the use of criminal history records as part of the hiring process has increased substantially over the past two decades (SEARCH, 2005).

Fourth, the level of improvement observed in intermediate outcomes like work may be insufficient to lead to observable reductions in recidivism. Following Lattimore, Steffey, and Visser (2010), suppose that an employment program can increase employment by 20%, such that the treated population has an employment rate of 60% compared with a 50% baseline among the untreated. Now suppose that employment reduces recidivism by 20%, again a sizeable treatment effect, such that the recidivism rate for the employed is 40% (compared with a 50% baseline among the unemployed). In a sample of 100 treated offenders, the employment program will only result in one fewer re-arrest, and the overall impact of the program, which can increase employment by a substantial 20%, will be a 2.2% reduction in recidivism. The fundamental challenge of decreasing recidivism indirectly through these types of programs also is highlighted by Raphael and Weiman (2007).

In a Baltimore study, post release interviews were conducted at two intervals (Visser et al., 2004). Although many of the respondents participated in post release programs and wanted assistance, few found the programs helpful. As in other studies, respondents credited family members and friends with helping them in their transition after release. However, many of their families had histories of violence and crime that did not bode well for successful reentry and further highlighted their capacity to be either a protective or risk

factor. Finally, one third of the respondents in Baltimore who were rearrested within six months were young and involved in drugs (Greene et al., 2006).

In Reentry Partnership Initiative (RPI) focus groups, program participants reported confronting four common barriers: stigmatization, acknowledgement of the harm they have done, doubts about becoming self-sufficient, and uncertainty about acknowledging their need for help and utilizing support and community services (Taxman et al., 2002 p.247). Taxman et al., 2002 also identified the inherent challenges partnership approaches face due to the legal cynicism ex-offenders harbor because of past experiences with police, and treatment agencies (La Vigne et al., 2004).

2.4 Theoretical Framework of Prisoner Reentry

There are various current conceptual frameworks among theorists of prisoner reentry. The convict perspective says listening to prisoners and taking their comments for instance, about removing legal and policy restrictions such as a certificate of good conduct that complicate reentry seriously are critical. The life course or desistance perspective, seeks to identify internal and external factors that cause former inmates to abstain from committing new crimes. Most people who have committed crimes choose to stop at some point. Although theorists have proposed answers - marriage and employment proponents among them - those are imperfect explanations. A better understanding would provide valuable guidance to those who create reentry programs. The restorative justice perspective focuses on the amends for harm done to bring mutual healing and reconnect ex-convicts with the community. This approach makes victims and community members partners in restoring the prisoner to the community based on embracing community norms of acceptable conduct.

This study utilizes sociology of punishment theories to examine the dynamics of penalty beyond the individual sanctions imposed upon offenders and history' frequent abrupt shifts in penal philosophy and methods. According to this school of thought, while the guillotine

become at once the “humane” alternative to the tortuous punishments of the eighteenth century made “democratically” available to convicts regardless of social class the birth of the prison came about just as abruptly, with its focus upon proper discipline of souls by way of reverence for an emerging industrial age work ethics (Garland 1990; Shichor, 2006).

According to Sheldon (2007) and Sellin (1938, 1976), the sociological study of punishment is not about the behavior of an individual offender per se. Instead, it explores how broad social forces influence and structure the philosophies and methods of punishment deemed most appropriate to any historical moment (Garland 1990; Pratt, 2006). According to David Garland (2001), wide academic attention to punishment as a topic of study reflects:

... a broader theoretical concern to understand our contemporary practices of crime and punishment in relation to structures of welfare and insecurity involving the changing class, race and gender relations that underpin these arrangements. In studying the problem of crime and crime control, we can glimpse them or general problems of governing late contemporary society and building social order in a fast evolving social world p.26.

Drawing from the works of Michael Foucault, David Garland’s classic statement defines the penalty as the collection of rules, processes, discourses, and institutions which are involved in this field of justice system and is an equivalent for legal punishment in this sense (1990 p.10). He continued to suggest that the penalty carries meaning, not merely about offenses and punishment but also about leadership, authority, legitimacy, sanity, personhood, social relationships, and the multitude of different divergent matters (1990 p.252). Recent scholarships assert that today’s hyper-incarceration of mostly impoverished and chronically unemployed minority citizens reflects not a rise in the criminality of individual offenders, but a de facto shift toward the panel regulation of poverty (Wacquant, 2009).

As Katherine Beckett and Theodore Sasson explain it, what happened in American criminal justice system policy from 1980 forward was not an increase in the problem of

crime, but a shift in society's response to managing the urban poor – these policies later found their roots to most third world countries. Simpson (2000) explains that, from an ideological point of view, the composition and strategies of the wars on crime and drugs transmuted the figurative meaning of poverty, through legitimating replacement of the welfare state with the security state (p. 68). The fact that today the highest concentration of unemployment in the United States is found among the urban African – American males, the continued hyper-incarceration of young black males from urban ghettos corresponds with a stubbornly-recurrent theme of criminological research: that a strong relationship exists between the social regulation of subaltern populations through use of the criminal sanction than is commonly acknowledged by populist legislative agendas aimed at realizing social justice (Clear, 2007; De Giorgi, 2010; Michalowski, 2010).

In short, the possibility that incarceration began to replace social welfare as the primary means of coping with joblessness at precisely the time when political support for “welfare reform” reached its zenith, is a reality not lost upon the imaginations of many recent researchers (Simon, 1993; Western, 2002; Sampson & Wilson, 2000). Social justice philosophers contend that “criminal justice system” may in fact be directed at managing specific sections of the society – the bad groups – in order to serve ideological concerns of the power elites (Shelden, 2007).

According to Rawls (2003), there are significant discrepancies between criminal justice practice and attempts to deliver social justice. The Justice as Fairness theory of social justice as presented by him defines a fair system of government under the following premises: - that society is well – founded and administered by public understanding of fairness; society is regulated by laws and procedures that are publicly recognized and accepted; that the rules define appropriate terms of cooperation and are rooted in the concept of interchange or

mutuality so that everybody has a chance to accomplish his or her own advantages or good. Thus, his theory is intended to define the political understanding of social justice.

According to Rawls, social justice is about guaranteeing the assurance of equitable access to opportunities, rights, and freedoms, as well as taking care of the least advantaged persons in the community. Thus, consistency to social justice is defined by whether policy or program promotes or hinders equity in access to public opportunities, human rights, chances for good and fulfilling lives, as well as whether it allocates a fair portion of resources to the least advantaged people of the society. Aimed at resolving the puzzle between the two competing policy interests that either supports employment of ex-convicts or reduce risks to employers, it is entirely proper to use the principles of John Rawls theory to assess the performance of government institutions and policies relating to ex-convicts.

Rawls' theory can be utilized to determine if any institution, policies or outcomes in society is consistent with social justice. For this study, therefore, any institution or policies in relation to ex-convicts that do not comport with Rawls' principles will be regarded as not consistent with social justice. The policies are not compatible with Rawls' interpretation of social justice if: It conflicts with any person's indefensible claims of fundamental liberties – equal liberty principle; or if the inequalities they produce in society are not connected to jobs and professions open to all under provisions of fair equality of opportunities i.e. policies should not produce inequalities on the grounds of unfair competition – equal opportunity principle, or if inequalities in society are not designed to the greatest good of the least advantaged people in the society – difference principle.

This broader theoretical focus has yet to be widely applied to the topic of – prisoner reentry- itself, despite a growing national focus on the issue in many jurisdictions (Austin, 2010). This study argues that academic research on – prisoner reentry- has thus far been theoretically shallow and that criminologists must move beyond applied research to

additionally focus upon issues of macro sociological change impacting the experiences of former prisoners (Travis & Visher, 2005). While a focus on applied research is understandable and indeed necessary, as the crisis in prison reentry unfolds, a broader agenda can highlight deeper-level challenges facing many former prisoners whose lifetime experience of poverty, inadequate education and class discriminatory sentencing practices contributed greatly to their incarceration in the first place.

Moreover, despite nearly two decades of applied research on “reentry” programs themselves, little in the way of definitive research exists to precisely document the effective treatments necessary for “successful” reentry as matched to the appropriate combination of inmate characteristics and community resources necessary for effective rehabilitation (Lattimore et al., 2010 p.225; Clear, 2007). More importantly, generations of criminological researchers have found the definitions of “success” for punishment – and the stakeholders promoting those definitions - to be important objects of criminological research in their own right. Theorizing prisoner reentry is thus well within a long criminological tradition of punishment scholarship.

To summarize, the most defensible conclusion from experimental evaluations of work programs is that the programs have a dismal record of jointly improving employment outcomes and of lowering recidivism probabilities among the individuals who participate in them (for similar conclusions, see the meta-analysis of Visher et al., 2005). Some programs have exhibited modest success for some groups of individuals with criminal history records (Pager, 2006; Greene et al., 2006). Thus, three hypotheses were raised and tested for the study.

2.5 Research Hypotheses.

H₁: There is a relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya job reentry programs by ex-convicts and the duration of incarceration.

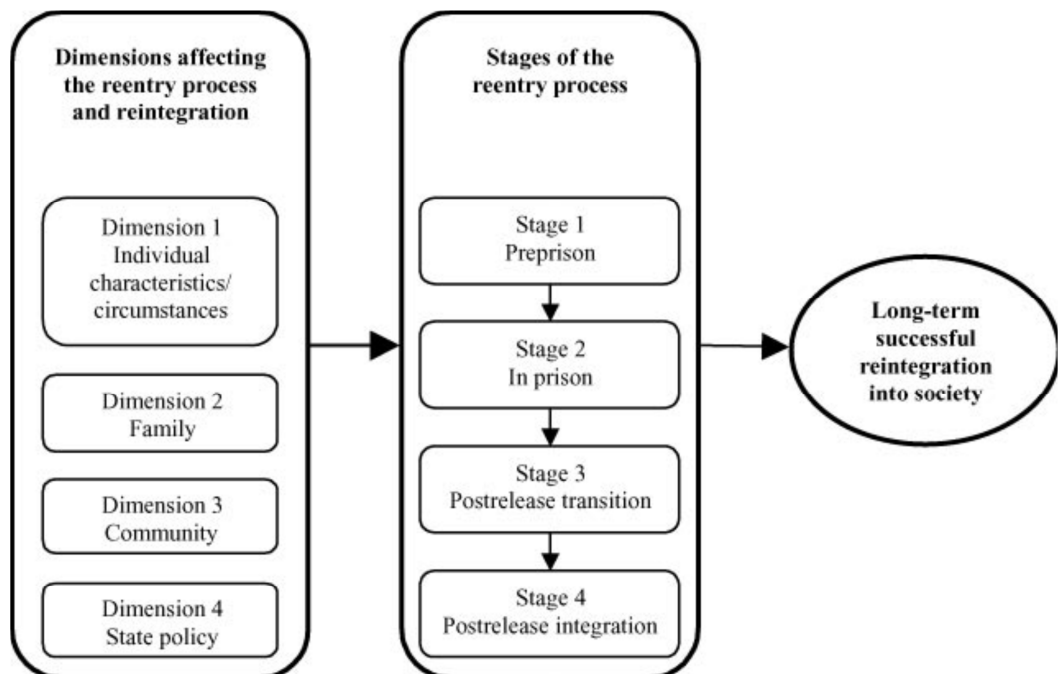
H₂: There is a relationship between perceived outcomes of job reentry programs by ex-convicts and level of education.

H₃: The degree of perceived barrier of certificate of good conduct to employment by ex-convicts is positively related to level of education.

2.6 Conceptual framework

From the literature review, four dimensions of the transition from prison to community emerged; (a) Individual characteristics, (b) family relationships, (c) community contexts, and (d) State policies. These dimensions are not static, they are both embedded in the life experience of the prisoner as he or she enters prison, completes the prison term, and is released, and they change over time. For these reasons, this study presents a conceptual framework (See figure 1) that captures the changing nature of these interactions.

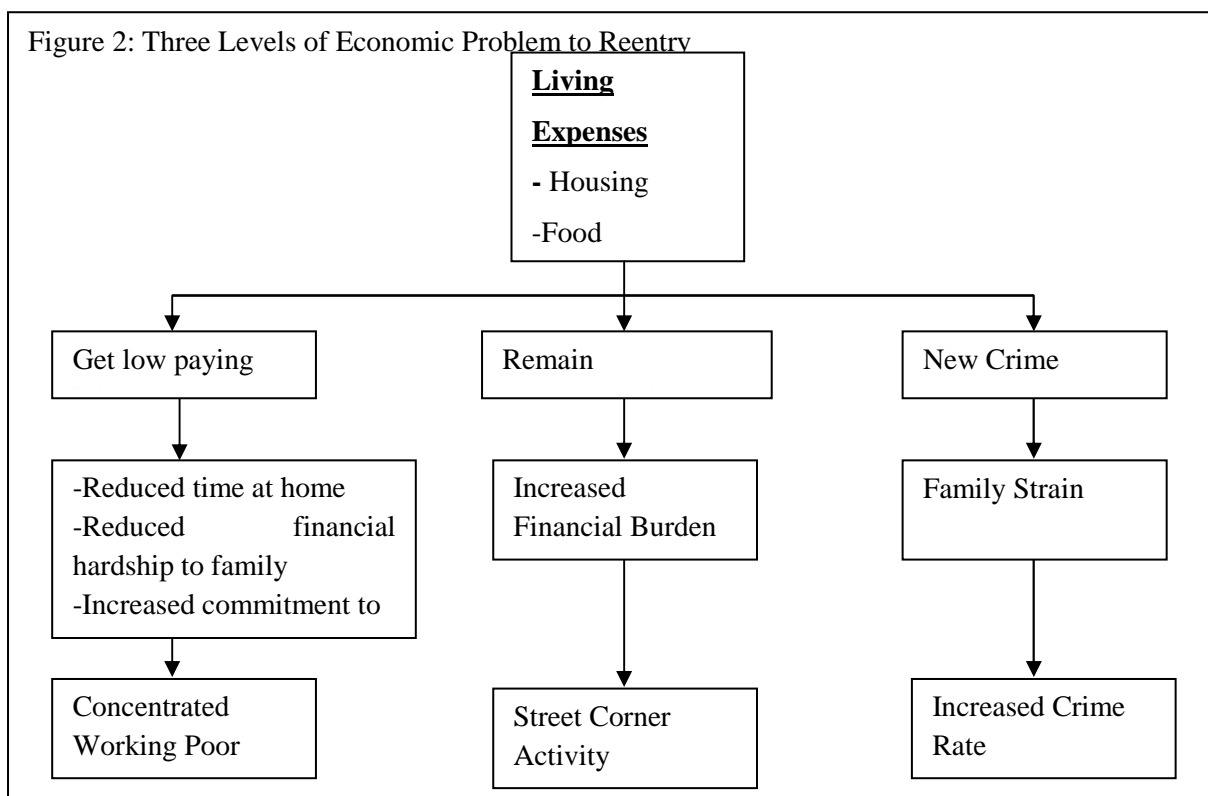
Figure 1: Conceptualizing individual transition from prison to Community



Individuals returning home from prison have been shaped by their offending and substance-abuse histories, their work skills and job histories, their mental and physical health, their prison experiences, and their attitudes, beliefs, and personality traits. Peer networks in

prison and relationships with substance abusing and criminal peers in the community may promote post release offending, whereas supportive peers who do not engage in crime and drug abuse may prevent reoffending. Families may provide strong support systems for returning prisoners, they may facilitate or enable continued offending or substance-abuse behaviors or they may be victims of the returning prisoners and want nothing to do with them upon release. Community willingness to address the challenges of prisoner reentry and available resources—or the lack thereof—constitute one set of environmental influences on prisoners returning home. In addition, state procedures for release and reentry differ in terms of the nature and extent of prerelease preparation, supervision conditions (if any), transition assistance, and availability of community-based aftercare, all of which may affect individual post release experiences.

Figure 2 below: shows the three levels of economic problem to reentry. The first level starts with the individual financial need; the ex-convicts only have three options; getting low paying job, remaining unemployed or committing a new crime. Then it proceeds to show how each option affect family and society (Country).



Unemployed individuals typically rely upon their families for financial support. As a result, families, experience additional financial strains. The financial hardship reduces the level of societal participation and also may undermine the ability of successful association activities. One byproduct of large scale unemployment is the increase in idle men congregating on street corners, often near, or in front of, local shops, taxi parking lots or newspaper vendor spots. This has two effects. First, shop owners and vendors report fewer legitimate customers willing to shop. Second, the appearance disorder means customers from outside the community are reluctant to frequent those businesses, and possible investors do not see these neighborhoods as a safe place for business. Finally, ex-offenders may return to crime to resolve their financial need.

2.7 Operational Definition of Concepts

Recidivism – a tendency to relapse into a previous condition or mode of criminal behavior. For this study it will mean prison reentry.

Incarceration – Is the confinement of a person convicted of a crime, whether before or after a criminal conviction.

Reintegration – successful movement of ex-convict from prison life into the mainstream life of the society.

Ex-convicts – The offenders, who have been arraigned in court of law, charged and incarcerated either into prison or a Borstal institution and successfully completed their term.

Community attitude and perception – the general community feelings and reactions towards an individual and issues around their environment.

Education level – The highest academic attainment by an individual.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this descriptive survey research design study is to examine of ex-convicts' views on prisoner reentry and transition initiatives in Kenya. This study includes using both structured and semi-structured questions to understand perceptions and explore the insights and beliefs of the participants by answering the following research questions:

- i. What are the perceptions of ex-offenders about Kenya's prisoner reentry programs?
- ii. What are the perceptions of ex-convicts about certificate of good conduct as a barrier to their employment?

This chapter includes the discussion of the chosen research methodology and design, the selection process of participants, and the materials and instruments used in the study. Further data collection procedures, limitations and assumptions, and ethical assurances are also presented. A summary of research methodology concludes this chapter.

3.2 Research Method and Design

This study attempts to identify an understanding of the perceptions of ex-convicts concerning the extent to which the Kenya prisoner job reentry programs have been helpful in putting them to employment and how certificate of good conduct have barred this goal. The construct of the research study is that of descriptive survey research design. A descriptive method of research design helps researchers plan and carry out descriptive studies, designed to provide rich descriptive details about people, places and other phenomena (Maxfield and Babbie, 2011). The Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) defines descriptive survey as "Any study that is not experimental".

Bickman and Rog (1998) suggest that descriptive studies can answer questions such as “what is” or “what was” while experiments typically answer “why” or “how”. Because it does not lend itself to in – depth analysis or hypothesis testing, some regard the descriptive method as unscientific. However, a descriptive research design can serve as a first step that identifies important factors, laying a foundation for more – rigorous research (Maxfield and Babbie, 2011). This study being an exploratory in nature and due to limitation of time and resources a one-time interaction with ex-convicts (cross-sectional) descriptive study design was considered most appropriate.

3.3 Unit of Analysis

The term ‘unit of analysis’ can be simply defined as “the entity that is being analyzed in a scientific research”- Determining or being cognizant of the unit of analysis of the research has a pivotal role in any research endeavor (Maxfield and Babbie, 2011). For this study perception of individual ex-convicts were being analyzed, hence individuals were the unit of analysis.

3.4 Target population

The target population is “the entire aggregation of respondents that meet the designated set of criteria” (Maxfield & Babbie, 2011). The study population consisted of ex-convicts, specifically those who had undertaken job reentry programs while in custody and transitioned back into Kakamega County, Kenya. This set of participants was chosen because of their shared experience of being on job reentry programs while in prison. The only selection criteria involved status as an ex-convict and that individuals had transitioned back into the Kakamega County

3.5 Sampling Method and Procedure

The study utilized snowball sampling (Chain referral) technique; this is a method that has been widely used in qualitative sociological research. The method yields a study sample through referrals made among people who share or know of others who possess some

characteristics that are of research interest. According to Maxfield & Babbie, 2011, the method is well suited for a number of research purposes and is particularly applicable when the focus of study is on a sensitive issue, possibly concerning a relatively private matter, and thus requires the knowledge of insiders to locate people for study.

With the help of community policing chairman of Mumias town, the study recruited 55 respondents as shown; Through the help of chairman of community policing Mumias District who is also an ex- convict, we interviewed 55 respondents: Malava- 2 respondents, Lugari – 5 respondents, Matungu – 10 respondents, Lurambi – 7 respondents, Shinyalu – 1 respondent, Ikolomani – 1 respondent, Butere – 6 respondents, Kwisero – 3 respondents, Mumias – 20 respondents.

3.6 Data Collection

Data collection is “a systemic way of gathering information, which is relevant to the research purpose or questions” (Burns & Grove 1997 p.383). Data was collected in February, March and April, 2014. Data was collected using a single semi- structured self administered questionnaire. The prospective respondents (ex-convicts) were approached and requested to participate in the study. Detailed information about the study was given to them, using their own home language before consent to participate was obtained. Both verbal and written consent was obtained before participation.

3.6.1 Research instrument

Research instruments are tools used to collect data (Oso & Onen, 2009). The guiding question for this work was constructivist in nature, with a general goal of understanding ex-convicts perception about reentry programs by hearing their own terms and phrases to describe the topic. Through individual confidential interviews, the participants the participants (ex-convicts) how feel about Kenyan Justice System in general, and prison rehabilitation in particular. According to Brooks (2007), in conducting interview research, the researcher is the instrument or the tool having been trained to ask questions and to solicit

information. Armed with questionnaire, writing implements, and pad of papers, the researcher proceeded to the field and collected the data which was later coded for data analysis as shown below.

3.6.2 Questionnaire coding scheme

This research used a single questionnaire with three main sections (socio-demographics, incarceration history and offenders' perception). Section A presented the socio- demographics of the respondents. They were asked to indicate their current *age* in number of years which was coded as < 18 (1), 19 – 24 (2), 25 – 34 (3), 35 – 44 (4), 45 – 54 (5), 55+ (6). Respondents identified as either male or female (male = 0; female = 1). Respondents were asked about their *marital status* which was coded as Married (1), Divorced or Separated (2), Widowed (3), Single (4). The variable of *tribe* was coded as Luhya (1), Luo (2), Kikuyu (3), Kalenjin (4), Others (5). The Respondents were asked if they had children coded as Yes (1), No (2) aimed at understanding their dependents. Also sought, was the Respondents level of education coded as (1) No education, (2) Primary, (3) Secondary, (4) Tertiary, (5) University and religious affiliation was coded as (1) Catholic (2) Muslim (3) Protestant (4) Others.

To understand the incarceration history of ex-convicts in **Section B**, Respondents were asked to indicate the number of times they have been incarcerated coded as (1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) more than three times. Further, Respondents were asked to specify type of the offence for which they were last incarcerated coded as (1) Drug related (2) Violent offence (3) Property offences (4) Gang related (5) Others. Respondents were also asked about the period they had taken since release coded as (1) six months or less (2) 1 year or less (3) 2 years or less (4) 3 years or less (5) More than three years. They were also asked about how long they were incarcerated coded as (1) six months or less (2) 1 year or less (3) 2 years or less (4) 3 years or less (5) More than three years. The employment background was checked by being asked if they were employed before incarceration coded as (1) Yes (2) No.

For offenders' perceptions of Kenya reentry programs and effects of certificate of good conduct on the employment, Respondents were asked to rate in a 3-level Likert Scale how much job reentry programs prepared them for employment upon release coded as (1) Very much (2) somewhat (3) Not at all, they were required to explain their answer in effort to gauge their feelings. Respondents were asked about how certificate of good conduct has been a barrier to their employment coded as (1) Not a barrier (2) Somewhat of a barrier (3) Extreme barrier – in this question they were also to explain their answer.

3.6.3 Piloting of the Instrument

Piloting of instrument involves pre-testing the research instrument on a small sample of respondents who have the same characteristics as the sample to be studied (Mulusa, 1990). In piloting the instrument of this study, ten questionnaires were administered to ten ex-convicts and the findings used to refine the instrument that increased reliability of the instrument. During the piloting of the instrument, attention was focused on the questions that made respondents uncomfortable hence the ambiguities noted were corrected and made straight forward so as to reduce fatigue during the administration of questionnaire.

3.6.4 Validity of the instrument

According to Mugenda and Mugenda, 2008, validity refers to “the degree to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to be measuring”. The researcher mostly focused on content validity, which refers to the accuracy with which an instrument measures the factors under study. Therefore content validity was concerned with how accurately the questions asked tended to elicit the information sought. The research instrument was tested for content validity by giving the questionnaire to the supervisors, and to three more lecturers at Texas Southern University, Department of Administration of Criminal Justice.

In an effort to reduce social distances along ethnic, educational, and professional lines, the researcher utilized facilitators and members of local justice advocacy organizations

who are natives of Kakamega County where applicable. Ex-convicts were interviewed separately to maximize everyone's comfort in talking about sensitive issues of incarceration and criminality.

3.6.5 Reliability

Reliability relates to the precision and accuracy of the instrument. If used on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, the instrument should yield similar results (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). Accurate and careful phrasing of each question to avoid ambiguity and leading respondents to a particular answer ensured reliability of the tool. The respondents were informed of the purpose of the interview and of the need to respond truthfully.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Upon approval of the research proposal by the University of Nairobi, a research permit was applied for from the National Council for Science and Technology under the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology before going to the field. An introductory letter from the University of Nairobi was also obtained as a pre-requisite for data collection. Relying largely on snowballing, the researcher then proceeded to Kakamega County for the research.

With the help of two research assistants, who were briefed and adequately trained on data collection procedures, and ethics necessary for the study, the questionnaires were administered to the selected respondents within the County. The researcher made a keen follow up and checked on the accuracy of the information so collected. This was done by the researcher after assuring them of the confidentiality, purpose of the research, in other words going through the consent form and signing it.

The data so collected were then coded, and prepared for analysis. Before data entry, all the instruments were checked for their completeness and cleaning was effectively done to enhance data quality.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

All filled copies of the questionnaires were checked for data quality before data were analyzed. This involved editing of data. Editing ensured that the collected raw data was free from errors and omissions were detected and corrections made. Coding was done by assigning numerals to responses for the sake of classification and systematization to discover patterns, coherent themes, meaningful categories, new ideas, and in general uncover better understanding of the process (Suter, 2006). Descriptive statistics, frequencies, and cross tabulation were compiled using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Computers not only save time but also make it possible to study a large number of variables affecting a problem simultaneously (Kothari, 2007).

3.9 Ethical Considerations

According to the Belmont Report there are three basic principles: respect for persons, beneficence and justice (Berandi, 2009). To ensure conformity to these principles, all members signed an informed consent form before the interviews so that they would be as objective as possible. The informed consent document communicated the research subject, purpose, procedures, time commitment, risks involved, the benefits of the subject, and the confidentiality of their information. Care was taken to reduce any harm caused to the respondents by ascertaining at the outset whether they had any objection to participating in the study or whether they foresaw any negative impact being caused to them by participating. It was made clear to the members that participation was voluntary and that they could terminate their participation at any time. The researcher was ready to render the debriefing assistance if need be.

3.9.1 Confidentiality and Anonymity

Confidentiality and anonymity was ensured to members in order to protect their identity. They were not required to reveal their names or home address in order to protect them from any retributive action and ensure that data collected is not disclosed to unauthorized persons. The records of the members were kept in an excel file maintained on a password protected flash memory data storage device. The hard copies of the transcripts including the signed consent forms and instrument papers which include the members feedback was kept in sealed envelopes and stored in a locked cabinet, which only the researcher will have access to for at most one year after the completion of research and then get shredded.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter takes a detailed analysis of ex-convicts' perceptions in Kakamega County. It also presents the collected data, interprets and discusses it. The instruments return rate and demographic characteristics of the respondents were as captured below in this chapter.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

A single questionnaire with three sections composed of both structured and semi-structured questions were used to collect the data. The response rate as tabulated below yielded data that helped in understanding the key issues of the study. A total of 60 ex-convicts but only 55 responded representing 91.6% return rate. This questionnaire return rate was good for the purpose of this study since it was in line with Mugenda and Mugenda (2003).

According to them, 50% questionnaire return rate is adequate for the purpose of data analysis though 60% is good. Some ex-convicts felt uneasy with some questions hence the interviewer had to be tactful and reminded them that they can avoid such questions, but re-direct interviewer to other ex-convicts who would provide adequate information on the same. This took cognizance of the fact that issues of confidentiality and voluntarily of information had to be observed.

4.3 Socio – Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

In this section the researcher captured some key background information of the respondents which were found to be of value for the purpose of this research. Some of the key information captured included: age, gender, marital status, tribe, children, level of

education, religious affiliation, incarceration history, and employment history of the respondents, among others whose findings are presented in the subsequent sub-themes.

4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by Age

The sample was slightly dominated by youths of 25 – 34 years (45.5%) which is a very active labor force, followed by 35 – 44 years (21.8%), 45 – 54 (16.4%), 19 – 24 (9.1%), 55+ (5.5%), and <18 years (1.8%) (See table 1 show distribution of respondents by age)

Table 1:

Distribution of respondents by age

Age	Frequency	Percent
<18	1	1.8
19 - 24	5	9.1
25 - 34	25	45.5
35 - 44	12	21.8
45 - 54	9	16.4
55+	3	5.5
Total	55	100.0

4.3.2 Distribution by Gender

It was expected that more women would participate than men going by the Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) of 2009, where 52% of Kakamega county residents are female. In the contrary, 36 (65.5%) of the respondents were male, 19 (34.5%) female. Using Conventional male dominance and feminist theories of criminality to understand this disparity in respondents by gender, it can be explained that the societal gender roles labeled to men expose them more to criminality especially in Kakamega County with poverty levels of 57% (KPHC, 2009). In Kakamega County, predominantly Luhyas and Luos, social pressures favor female conformity through images of deviant women and the structure of

their social position. In fact, a criminal woman is an outcast and can never be entertained in the community- while male criminality is justified. They say “a man should not die at home but in the wilderness hunting for the family – it doesn’t matter how you bring food home”. (See Table 2 show distribution of respondents by gender).

Table 2: *Distribution of respondents by gender*

Gender/sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	36	65.5
Female	19	34.5
Total	55	100.0

4.3.3 Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Most of the respondents were married 35 (63.6%), divorced/ separated 2 (3.6%), widowed 9 (16.4%), and single 9 (16.4%). See table 3 shows the summary of distribution by marital status of the respondents.

Table 3: *Distribution of respondents by marital status*

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Married	35	63.6
Divorced/Separated	2	3.6
Widowed	9	16.4
Single	9	16.4
Total	55	100.0

4.3.4 Distribution by Tribe

The majority of respondents were Luhya 44 (80.0%) bearing in mind that Kakamega County is predominantly Luhya; Luo 4 (7.3%), and Others 7 (12.7%). The most important point to note on this tribal summary is that the two dominant tribes are purely patriarchal family tribes. See table 4 shows the summary of distribution by tribe.

Table 4*Distribution of respondents by tribe*

Tribe	Frequency	Percent
Luhya	44	80.0
Luo	4	7.3
Other	7	12.7
Total	55	100.0

4.3.5 Distribution by Dependents

The respondents were asked if they have children in order to understand if they have other additional burden to take care of. 47 (85.5%) confirmed to be having children hence additional burden. Only 8 (14.5%) had no children. See table 5 shows the summary or responses to the question of children.

Table 5: *Distribution of respondents by dependents*

No. of Children	Frequency	Percent
Yes	47	85.5
No	8	14.5
Total	55	100.0

4.3.6 Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education

Majority of respondents 30 (54.5%) dropped out of school at primary level, 11 (20%) had no education, 14 (25.5%) secondary education, and non with tertiary or university qualification. See table 6 shows the summary of distribution of respondents by level of education.

Table 6: *Distribution by level of education*

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
No education	11	20.0
Primary	30	54.5
Secondary	14	25.5
Total	55	100.0

4.3.7 Distribution of Respondents by Religious Affiliation.

Muslim 21 (38.2%) dominated the responses, followed by protestants 20 (36.4%), catholic 9 (16.4%), others 5 (9.1%). See table 7 shows the summary of distribution of respondents by religious affiliations.

Table 7: *Distribution of respondents by religious affiliations*

Religious Affiliation	Frequency	Percent
Catholic	9	16.4
Muslim	21	38.2
Protestant	20	36.4
Others	5	9.1
Total	55	100.0

4.3.8 Distribution of the Respondents by the Number of Times one is incarcerated

27 (49.1%) of the respondents were first time offenders, 14 (25.5%) were second time offenders, 5 (9.1%) were three times offenders, and 9 (16.4%) were more than three times offenders. See Table 8 shows the summary of distribution of respondents by the number of times they were incarcerated.

Table 8: *Distribution of respondents by the number of times they were incarcerated*

Number of Times of Incarceration(s)	Frequency	Percent
1	27	49.1
2	14	25.5
3	5	9.1
more than three times	9	16.4
Total	55	100.0

4.3.9 Distribution of the Respondents by Type of Offence Last Committed

Drug related offences dominated the arena of offences committed by respondents with 26 (47.3%), Violent Offences 5 (9.1%), Property Offences 7 (12.7%), while other Misdemeanor offences commanded 17 (30.9%). See table 9 Shows Distribution of respondents by type of offence last committed.

Table 9: *Distribution of respondents by type of offence last committed.*

Reason for Last Incarceration	Frequency	Percent
Drug Related	26	47.3
Violent Offences	5	9.1
Property Offences	7	12.7
Others	17	30.9
Total	55	100.0

4.3.10 Distribution of Respondents by the Period Taken since Release from Prison

Majority of the respondents had taken more than three years from prison 21 (38.2%), 20% (11) had less than six months since release, 11 (20%) had one year, 10 (18.2%) two years, and 2 (3.6%) three years. See Table 10 shows distribution of respondents by the period taken since release from prison.

Table 10: *Distribution of respondents by the period taken since release from prison*

Duration Since Being Released	Frequency	Percent
6 months or less	11	20.0
1 year or less	11	20.0
2 years or less	10	18.2
3 years or less	2	3.6
More than three years	21	38.2
Total	55	100.0

4.3.11 Distribution by the Number of years of Last Imprisonment

Among the respondents, 29 (52.7%) served six months or less in their last incarceration, 7 (12.7%) served one year or less, 15 (27.3%) two years or less, 1 (1.8%) three years or less, and 3 (5.5%) more than three years. See Table 11 for the Distribution of respondents by the years served in prison.

Table 11: *Distribution of respondents by the years served in prison*

Duration of Incarceration	Frequency	Percent
6 months or less	29	52.7
1 year or less	7	12.7
2 years or less	15	27.3
3 years or less	1	1.8
more than three years	3	5.5
Total	55	100.0

4.3.12 Distribution of Respondents by Employment History

On employment history, 74.5% (41) had no employment before incarceration, only 14 (25.5%) were employed. See Table 12 Shows Distribution of respondents by employment history.

Table 12: *Distribution of respondents by employment history*

Employment History Before Incarceration	Frequency	Percent
Yes	14	25.5
No	41	74.5
Total	55	100.0

4.3.13 Distribution of Respondents by their Perception about Job Reentry Programs

Regarding perception about job reentry, 12 (21.8%) of the respondents had a very much favorable rating of reentry programs, 23 (41.8%) had a mixed reaction (somewhat) view of the programs, and 20 (36.4%) regarded the programs to be of no use to their employment. See Table 13 shows Distribution of respondents by their perception about job reentry programs.

Table 13: *Distribution of respondents by their perception about job reentry programs*

Perception About Job Reentry Programs	Frequency	Percent
Very Much	12	21.8
Somewhat	23	41.8
Not at all	20	36.4
Total	55	100.0

4.3.14 Distribution of Respondents by their Rating of Certificate of Good Conduct as a Barrier to their Employment

Certificate of good conduct was regarded as extreme barrier to employment of 32 (58.2%) of the respondents, and 22 (40%) regarded it as not a barrier. See Table 14 for distribution of respondents by their rating of certificate of good conduct as a barrier to their employment.

Table 14: *Distribution of respondents by their rating of certificate of good conduct as a barrier to their employment*

Rating of Certificate of Good Conduct as a barrier to Employment	Frequency	Percent
Not a barrier	22	40.0
Somewhat of a barrier	1	1.8
Extreme barrier	32	58.2
Total	55	100.0

4.4 Cross-tabulation of Selected Study Variables

4.4.1 Level of Education vs. Number of Times Arrested

According to Belenko (2006), education plays very important role in reentry. An educated group of ex-convicts is in a better position to articulate issues well and make valuable decision. Petersilia (2001) found that 41.3% of those who recidivate withdrew from ABE program of the united States equivalent to Kenya primary level of education. In fact Petersilia explains that education level dictates the ability to comprehend new skills or knowledge. It was in the interest of this study to understand the general education level of ex-convicts and how it relates with the number of times one is incarcerated. See table 8 shows cross tabulation of level of education and number of times one is incarcerated.

Table 15: *Cross tabulation of level of education and number of times one is incarcerated*

Relationship between Level of Education and Number of Times One has been incarcerated Cross tabulation						
		How many times have you been incarcerated?				Total
		1	2	3	more than three times	
What is your level of education?	No education	3	1	2	5	11
	Primary	12	11	3	4	30
	Secondary	12	2	0	0	14
Total		27	14	5	9	55

See page 36, Table 8 shows that 45.5% of respondents with no education had been incarcerated more than three times, while 13.3% of primary school drop outs recorded more than three times incarceration with none of secondary drop outs being incarcerated more than three times. In summary, 72.7% of ex-convicts with no education recorded incarceration of two times or more, compared to 60% of primary school drop outs and 14.3% of secondary school drop outs. This finding is in line with both Belenko 2006; Clear et al., 2001; Petersilia 2001; Greene et al., 2006; Pager, 2006 though at very high percentages. Also see table 9 in page 35 for how level of education relates to ex-convicts rating of reentry programs outcome.

Table 16: *Relationship between level of education and rating of reentry programs*

Relationship Between Level Of Education And Rating Of Reentry Programs					
Cross tabulation					
		How much did Kenya Prison job reentry programs prepare you for employment upon release?			Total
		Very Much	Somewhat	Not at all	
What is your level of education?	No education	5	5	1	11
	Primary	6	10	14	30
	Secondary	1	8	5	14
Total		12	23	20	55

To the contrary, the research findings by both Belenko, 2006 and Petersilia 2001 on the argument of level of education and ability to comprehend new skills or appreciate training, people with no education gave favorable rating to Kenya reentry programs 10 (90.9%), 16 (53.3%) primary, and 9 (64.3%) secondary education. This kind of responses may be attributed to the nature of reentry programs being under taken in Kenya – mostly farming techniques and artisan job skills.

4.4.2 Period of Imprisonment vs. Rating of Reentry Outcomes.

According to Greene et al., 2001 the quality of reentry program depends on the period of training. It is therefore expected that the longer the period in prison the better the outcome

of reentry training – ex-convicts who spent more period in jail are therefore expected to give favorable outcomes. See page 37, Table 10 shows relationship between periods of incarceration and rating of reentry initiative.

Table 17: *Relationship between periods of incarceration and rating of reentry initiative*

Relationship between Duration of Incarceration and Perception of Reentry Programs					
Cross tabulation					
		How much did Kenya Prison job reentry programs prepare you for employment upon release?			Total
		Very Much	Somewhat	Not at all	
For how long were you imprisoned?	6 months or less	4	8	17	29
	1 year or less	1	5	1	7
	2 years or less	6	8	1	15
	3 years or less	0	1	0	1
	more than three years	1	1	1	3
Total		12	23	20	55

12 (41.4%) of ex-convicts who served less than 6 months in prison rated reentry programs favorably compared to 6 (85.7%) of 1 year or less, 14 (93.3%) of 2 years or less and 100% for three years and above.

4.4.3 Relationship between Prior Employment and Type of Offence Committed.

Job being the center piece of reentry process, the finding of this study suggests that only 14 (25.5%) of the employed individuals are likely to commit crime compared to 41 (82%) of not employed youths. See table 11 shows the Relationship between prior employment and type of offence committed.

Table 18:

The relationship between prior employment and type of offence committed

Relationship Between Prior Employment and Type Of Offence Committed Cross tabulation				
		Were you employed before incarceration?		Total
		Yes	No	
Why were you last incarcerated?	Drug Related	1	25	26
	Violent Offences	2	3	5
	Property Offences	2	5	7
	Others	9	8	17
Total		14	41	55

Among respondents, 96% who were not employed at the time of arrest had history of drug related offences, 71.4% of property offences and 60% violent crimes.

4.5 Testing of Research Hypothesis.

It was hypothesized that:

H₁: There a relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya job reentry programs by ex-convicts and years of incarceration.

H₂: There a relationship between perceived outcomes of job reentry programs by ex convicts and level of education.

H₃: The degree of perceived barrier of certificate of good conduct to employment by ex-convicts is not related to level of education.

Testing Hypothesis One

- i. Stating the null hypothesis

H₀: There is no significant relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry programs by ex-convicts and years of incarceration.

H₁: There is a relationship between perceived outcomes of reentry programs by ex-convicts and years of incarceration

Establishing critical region (Decision rule)

ii. Reject **H₀** if computed $x^2 > \text{critical } x^2$

At $\alpha = 0.05$

$df = (5-1)(3-1)$

$= 8$

$= 15.507$

Reject H_0 if $x^2_{\text{computed}} > 15.507$

iii. Compute x^2

Table 19 Cross-tabulation of Duration of Imprisonment and perception on job reentry programs

		How much did Kenya Prison job reentry programs prepare you for employment upon release?			Total
		Very Much	Somewhat	Not at all	
For how long were you imprisoned?	6 months or less	4	8	17	29
	1 year or less	1	5	1	7
	2 years or less	6	8	1	15
	3 years or less	0	1	0	1
	more than three years	1	1	1	3
Total		12	23	20	55

Table 20 Chi- Square Test for H_1

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.818^a	8	.032
N of Valid Cases	55		

a. 10 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .22.

Table 21 Measure of association for variables of H_1

Directional Measures			
			Value
<i>Ordinal by Ordinal</i>	<i>Somers' d</i>	<i>Symmetric</i>	-.388
		For how long were you imprisoned? Dependent	-.383
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.			
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.			

➤ Computed value of $x^2 = 16.818$ df 8

iv. Comparing Computed x^2 and critical x^2

Note. Reject H_0 if $x^2_{computed} > 15.507$

Reject H_0 and conclude that there is significant relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry initiatives by ex-convicts and the years spent in prison. In fact, the years of incarceration explains 38.8% of the difference in perception.

Testing Hypothesis Two

i. Stating the null hypothesis

H_0 : There is no significant relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry programs by ex-convicts and level of education.

H_2 : There is a relationship between perceived outcomes of reentry programs by ex-convicts and level of education

- ii. Establishing critical region (Decision rule)

Reject H_0 if computed $x^2 > critical\ x^2$

At $\alpha = 0.05$

$df = (5-1)(3-1)$

$= 8$

$= 15.507$

Reject H_0 if $x^2_{computed} > 15.507$

- iii. Compute x^2

Table 22 The Relationship Between Duration of Incarceration and Perception of Reentry Programs.
Cross tabulation

		How much did Kenya Prison job reentry programs prepare you for employment upon release?			Total
		Very Much	Somewhat	Not at all	
What is your level of education?	No education	5	5	1	11
	Primary	6	10	14	30
	Secondary	1	8	5	14
Total		12	23	20	55

Table 23 Chi-Square Test for H_2

Chi-Square Tests		
	Value	df
Pearson Chi-Square	8.709^a	4
N of Valid Cases	55	
a. 4 cells (44.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.40.		

Table 24 Measure of association for variables of H_2

Directional Measures			
			Value
Ordinal by Ordinal	Somers' d	Symmetric	.226
		What is your level of education?	.217
		Dependent	
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.			
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.			

- Computed value of $\chi^2 = 8.709$ df 8
 - iv. Comparing Computed χ^2 and critical χ^2
- Note. Reject H_0 if $\chi^2_{computed} > 15.507$*

We fail to reject H_0 and conclude that there is no significant statistical relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry initiatives by ex-convicts and level of education. In fact, the level of education only explains 22.6% of the difference in perception.

Testing Hypothesis Three

- i. Stating the null hypothesis
 - H_0 : The degree of perceived barrier of certificate of good conduct to employment is not related to level of education.
 - H_1 : The degree of perceived barrier of certificate of good conduct to employment is related to level of education.
- ii. Establishing critical region (Decision rule)
 - Reject H_0 if computed $\chi^2 > critical \chi^2$
 - At $\alpha = 0.05$
 - df = $(5-1)(3-1)$
 - = 8
 - = 15.507
 - Reject H_0 if $\chi^2_{computed} > 15.507$
- iii. Compute χ^2

Table 25 The Relationship Between Level of Education and the Certificate of Good Conduct as a barrier to employment of Ex-convicts.
Cross tabulation

		How would you rate Certificate of Good Conduct as a barrier to your employment?			Total
		Not a barrier	Somewhat of a barrier	Extreme barrier	
What is your level of education?	No education	5	0	6	11
	Primary	11	1	18	30
	Secondary	6	0	8	14
Total		22	1	32	55

Table 26 Chi- Square Test for H_3

Chi-Square Tests		
	Value	df
Pearson Chi-Square	1.072^a	4
N of Valid Cases	55	

a. 4 cells (44.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

Table 27 Measure of association for variables of H_3

Directional Measures			
			Value
Ordinal by Ordinal	Somer s' d	Symmetric	.011
		What is your level of education? Dependent	.012
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.			
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.			

➤ Computed value of $x^2 = 1.072$ df 8

iv. Comparing Computed x^2 and critical x^2

Note. Reject H_0 if x^2 computed > 15.507

We fail to reject H_0 and conclude that there is no significant statistical relationship between perceived barrier of certificate of good conduct and level of education. Level of

education only explains 1.1% of the difference in rating of certificate of good conduct as a barrier to employment.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the summary of the findings, conclusions, recommendations for policy action, contributions to the body of knowledge and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings.

The study investigated collateral effects of incarceration on employment of ex-convicts that contributes to high rates of recidivism of ex-convicts in Kakamega County. The first objective was to understand the ex-convicts views on Kenya's reentry initiatives.

From the findings, the result of the first hypothesis showed that there is a relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry initiatives by ex-convicts and the years spent in prison. This result supports the findings of Belenko, 2006; Clear et al., 2001; Petersilia, 2001 that the longer the contact period for training the more successful it is. Ideally, the available evidence on inmate and other offenders suggests that reductions in post release relapse and recidivism are contingent on engaging offenders in continuing care following release so that even if the term in prison is short they remain on program (Butzin, Martin, & Inciardi, 2005). Although there is increasing attention being paid to implementing "seamless systems of care" in the Kenya criminal justice system, access to continuing care in the community that is linked to reentry services received in prison remains relatively uncommon. Without aftercare or transitional services, inmates reentering the community face a difficult time even if they have received best training while in prison (Hammett, Roberts, & Kennedy, 2001; Taxman et al., 2003).

The finding for second hypothesis is that there is no significant statistical relationship between perceived outcomes of Kenya reentry initiatives by ex-convicts and level of education. This does not mean that level of education has no influence in the perception about reentry program; in fact it explains 22.6% of the difference in perception as shown by the calculated Somers'd value. This finding is in line with the conclusions of (Pager, 2006; Belenko, 2006; Ajala, 2011).

Correlating level of education and perception of certificate of good conduct as a barrier to employment for hypothesis three, the finding show no statistical relationship between the two variable but a very weak 1.1% relation. The true situation is that among all respondents none had professional qualification and this might have affected the outcome of the study.

5.3 Conclusion

For many offenders, the days, weeks, and months prior to release are tumultuous. Anticipation of life on the outside intertwines hope, fear, optimism, anxiety, and a host of other complex emotions. The uncertainty inherent in release is compounded by a general perception that transition from prison will likely be characterized by lack of support from the criminal justice system. A common theme in interviews with ex-offenders is the lack of formal preparation for release and, following release, the absence of support on the outside; this finding is similar to focus groups' results in the Solomon, Gouvis, and Waul (2001) study.

Quite simply, as Wafula attested, the perceptions are that "the system is engineered for failure" (Case 20). Another respondent, George, referred to "false promises for help" in the time prior to their release (Case 34). Perhaps more telling is another statement from Nambiro that "they just kick you out the door" (Case 13), which suggest there is little prerelease preparation or post release assistance from the perspectives of those who

experience it. Onyango reported that her prerelease activities helped him “deal with the anxiety of the transition” (Case 4), but her comments appear to reflect experiences of only a minority of individuals. Despite the understandable cynicism with which ex-offenders view the correctional system, they offered insights into their own experiences.

5.4 Study Limitations and Policy Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine how ex-offenders view prerelease and post release reentry programs in Kenya. It was designed as a response to Travis’ (2005) challenge to policymakers to reexamine contemporary approaches to prisoner reentry, determine what works, and develop alternative strategies. He identified five principles of reentry: prepare for reentry; build bridges prisons and communities; seize the moment of release; strengthen the concentric circles of support; and promote successful reintegration (Travis, 2005, p.324). The study finding supports the need to include the voices of ex-convicts in design and implementation efforts of successful reentry programs and point to an area of research that has been overlooked: ex-offenders who return to the community without participating in prison programs. The study is limited because of the sample size of only 55 ex-convicts in Kakamega County. As such, the findings of the research may not be applicable to other offender populations. Future research should rely on a larger sample as well as a sampling technique which elicits a broader sample of offenders. However, in the absence of available data about the number of ex-convicts in particular Counties, this work served as a gateway to beginning the conversation about offender reentry programs in Kenya.

Petersilia (2004) called for research and scientific evidence that show in-prison programs are effective in reducing recidivism and preparing offenders for their transition upon release. Petersilia also called for a partnership between practitioners, academics, and community groups actively involved with ex-offenders. A directory of groups working with ex-offenders in each community/ sub-county/county and nationally should be compiled and

made immediately available. As Petersilia notes, a strong partnership and sharing of information could prove to be the essential key in providing prisoners with the most effective and successful programs for their reentry.

Future research must also take desistance more seriously and publicize desistance stories (Maruna, 2001) in local communities and neighborhoods. Relatedly, Britain's approach to reentry is worth noting. Once an ex-convict has completed his or her sentence, he or she returns to the community without the stigma or label of incarceration. Restoring essential legal rights and removing obstacles such as requirement of certificate of good conduct for employment, especially for jobs where ex-convicts pose little or no threat, are requisite for successful reentry. Finally, it is important to determine what works best for whom upon reentry. Future research must focus attention on gender and age differences and the needs of special populations, such as the mentally ill, the elderly, and parents who have been separated from their children for a significant portion of their lives; these populations face challenges that may not be addressed in standard reentry programming models.

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APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER
COLLATERAL EFFECTS OF INCARCERATION: NAVIGATING THE OBSTACLES
TO EMPLOYMENT OF EX-CONVICTS

Principal Investigator:

Name: Francis Otieno Otiato

Department: Sociology and social work

Address P.O. Box 6419-00300 Nairobi, Kenya.

Phone (+254)722-510-731/ (+1)832-800-2655

E-mail francisotiato2@yahoo.com

Purpose: You are one of approximately 60 participants being asked to take part in this research project being conducted by the above named researcher who is a masters' student of the University of Nairobi. The research seeks to understand the ex-convicts' perceptions about Kenya's job reentry initiatives. The overall purpose of this research is purely academics towards achievement of masters' degree in sociology (criminology and social order).

Procedures: If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire, which will last approximately 5 minutes. We will ask you to provide us with some contact information so that we can contact you again for any other clarifications. You will be asked about your socio-demographics, and perception about Kenya prison reentry initiatives, after care services and effect of certificate of good conduct on your employment. We will use this information, as well as information which are publicly available solely for academics and will not ask you for the names of anyone, or specific dates or specific places of any of your activities.

Risks: There are some risks to participating in this study. You may experience distress or discomfort when asked questions about your criminal history, and other experiences. Should this occur, you may choose not to answer such questions. If emotional distress occurs, our staff will make referrals to services you may need, including counseling and support services.

The risk that confidentially could be broken is a concern, but it is very unlikely to occur. All study materials will be kept in locked file cabinets while soft copies will be coded and safe password will be used. Only the principal researchers will have access to study materials.

Benefits: You will have the opportunity to participate in an important exploratory research project, which may lead to the better understanding of your perception of Kenya's reentry initiatives which is very vital for policy makers to develop better programs for ex-convicts.

Compensation: participation is voluntary and there will be no form of payment for participating.

Confidentiality: Your records will be kept confidential. They will be kept under lock and key and passwords where necessary and will not be shared with anyone without your written permission. Your name will not appear on any data file or research report.

Right to quit the study: Participation in this research project is voluntary and you have the right to leave the study at any time. The researchers and their assistants have the right to remove you from this study if needed.

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact Francis Otiato on (+254) 722-510-731. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact the Chairperson of the University of Nairobi's sociology department at (+254)-2-318263 Ext.-28167 or +254-202-158- 549.

Consent to be interviewed:

I have read and understood this form (or it has been read to me), and I agree to participate in the in-depth interview portion of this research project.

-----
Signature of participant	Date

-----
Signature of witness/Interviewer	Date

Consent to be contacted in future: I have read and understood this form (or it has been read to me), and I agree to be re-contacted in the future as part of this research project.

-----	-----
Participant Signature	Date

-----	-----
Signature of witness/Interviewer	Date

APPENDIX B: CONSENT

Research project

Francis Otieno Otiato

December, 2013.

(Date) (Name of volunteer)

I, _____ the undersigned, hereby consent to participate as a volunteer in the ***COLLATERAL EFFECTS OF INCACERATION: NAVIGATING THE OBSTACLES TO EMPLOYMENT OF EX-CONVICTS*** study research project to be conducted by Francis Otieno Otiato of the Nairobi University Sociology Department.

The nature of the research project has been fully explained to me, including, without limitation to the fact that there will be no form of any payment and that we may be required for focused group discussions. I understand that Participation in this research project is voluntary and I have the right to leave the study at any time. I also understand that there are some risks to participating in this study. I may experience distress or discomfort when asked questions about my drug use, criminal history, and other experiences but I may choose not to answer such questions.

I am submitting myself for participation in this research project with full knowledge and understanding of the nature of the research project and of what will be expected of me. I specifically release the Principal Investigator and his team of the research project, Nairobi University, its agents and employees from any liability to me arising in any way out of my participation in the project.

(Signature of volunteer)

Witness: _____

APPENDIX C:

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

RESEARCH PROJECT

COLLATERAL EFFECTS OF INCARCERATION: NAVIGATING THE OBSTACLES TO EMPLOYMENT OF EX-CONVICTS

DECLARATION: The information and data obtained will be confidential and is intended for pure academic purposes only.

INTERVIEW PLACE.....INTERVIEW DATE.....

QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE EX-CONVICTS

Instructions;

- Do not write your name on the questionnaire; get your code from the interviewer.
- Please give honest and correct answers to the best of your knowledge in this questionnaire.

Section A: Socio – Demographics of Respondent.

1. Age

- ☐ >18 ☐ 19-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54 ☐ 55+

2. Gender/Sex

- ☐ Male ☐ Female

3. Marital status

- ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/Separated ☐ Widowed
☐ Single

4. Tribe

- ☐ Luhya ☐ Luo ☐ Kikuyu ☐ Kalenjin
☐ Other

5. Do you have children?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

6. What is your level of education?

- ☐ No education ☐ Primary ☐ Secondary ☐ Tertiary
☐ University

7. What is your religious affiliation?

- ☐ Catholic ☐ Muslim ☐ Protestant
☐ Others

Section B: Incarceration History

8. How many times have you been incarcerated?

- ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3
☐ More than three times

9. Why were you incarcerated?

- ☐ Drug Related ☐ Violent Offences ☐ Property Offences
☐ Gang Related ☐ Others

10. How long has it taken since Released?

- ☐ 6 months or less ☐ 1 year or less ☐ 2 years or less
☐ 3 years or less ☐ More than three years

11. For how long were you imprisoned?

- ☐ 6 months or less ☐ 1 year or less ☐ 2 years or less
☐ 3 years or less ☐ More than three years

12. Were you employed before incarceration?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

Section C: Offenders' Perception

13. In a 3- level scale, how much did Kenya prison job reentry programs prepare you for employment upon release?

- ☐ Very Much ☐ Somewhat
☐ Not at all

Explain.....
.....
.....
.....

How would you rate Certificate of Good Conduct as a barrier to your employment

- ☐ Not a barrier ☐ somewhat of a barrier
☐ Extreme barrier

Explain.....
.....
.....
.....

THANK YOU

APPENDIX D:
REQUEST FOR APPROVAL FOR DATA COLLECTION

The Chairman

University of Nairobi,

Department of Sociology and Social Work,

P. O. Box P.O Box 30197 - 00100 Nairobi,

MAIN CAMPUS

6th January 2014

RE: REQUEST FOR APPROVAL FOR DATA COLLECTION

Enclosed please find my research proposal. I am seeking an approval by the department to proceed to the field and use human subjects for my data collection. My research will employ snowball sampling method to identify a sample of Kakamega County residents (including ex-offenders) for an exploratory study on their experiences and perspectives of Kenya reentry programs. The study will then precedes on to illuminate the ex-offender's reintegration process and the implications of having a criminal record by analyzing the data collected through classification and systematization to discover patterns and coherent themes for better understanding of the phenomena.

I look forward to a favorable response on this application. I thank you in for your time and attention on this matter.

Sincerely,

Francis Otieno Otiato

Graduate Student, C50/71123/2009

APPENDIX E:

LETTER OF APPROVAL



UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY & SOCIAL WORK

Fax 254-2-245566
Telex 22095 Varsity Ke Nairobi Kenya
Tel. 318262 Ext. 28167

P.O. Box 30197
Nairobi
Kenya

7th Jan. 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

FRANCIS OTIEO OTIATO - C50/71123/2009

This is to confirm that the above named is a bona fide M.A. student in the Department of Sociology and Social Work. He has presented his project proposal entitled; **"Collateral Effects of Incarceration: Navigating the Obstacles to Employment of Ex-Convicts."**

Mr. Otieno is required to collect data pertaining to the research problem from the selected organization to enable him complete his Proposal which is a requirement of the Masters degree.

Kindly give him any assistance he may need.



Dr. Edward Ontita
Ag. Chairman, Dept. Of Sociology & Social Work

c.c. Dr. Karatu Kiemo
Supervisor

APPENDIX F

Research Authorization from National Council for Science and Technology

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2) hard copies and one(1) soft copy of your final report.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice.

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No. A 882

CONDITIONS: see back page

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

MR. FRANCIS OTIENO OTIATO

OF UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI, 6410-300

NAIROBI, has been permitted to conduct

research in Kakamega County

on the topic: COLLATERAL EFFECTS OF

INCARCERATION: NAVIGATING THE

OBSTACLES TO EMPLOYMENT OF

EX-CONVICTS

for the period ending:

10th May, 2014

Applicant's Signature

Secretary

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

Permit No. : NACOSTI/P/14/4846/672

Date Of Issue : 22nd January, 2014

Fee Received :Kshs 1000.00

Signature

Secretary

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

APPENDIX G:

Operating Budget for the Research Project (Estimates)

Item/ Activity.	Costs in (Kshs.)
Transport (Reconnaissance and Actual Field Work)	540,000
Subsistence Allowance	20, 000
Research Assistants	30, 000
Typing of Research Project	5,000
Photocopy of Draft Project	2,000
Binding of Draft Project	1,500
Photocopying of Questionnaires	5,000
Miscellaneous	5,000
Grand Total	608, 500