

**RISK FACTORS OF THE LIKELIHOOD TO REOFFEND AMONG INMATES IN
KENYAN PRISONS: THE CASE OF SHIMO LA TEWA PRISONS**

PRISCA CHEBET

C50/10748/2018

**A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF PSYCHOLOGY (COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY) IN
THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.**

AUGUST 2022

DECLARATION

I declare that this proposal is my original work and has not been presented in any other university for consideration of any certification. This research proposal has been complemented by referenced sources duly acknowledged. Where text, data (including spoken words), graphics, pictures or tables have been borrowed from other sources, including the internet, these are specifically accredited and reference cited using current APA system and in accordance with anti- plagiarism regulations.

Signature

Date:21.10.2022



Prisca Chebet

The proposal has been submitted for appraisal with my approval as University Supervisor.

Signature:



Date: 22.10.2022

Dr. Habil Otanga

Department of Psychology

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I appreciate in a special way my supervisor Dr. Otanga for the tireless support, professional guidance, positive criticism, encouragement and patience which enabled me to accomplish this project.

I also want to salute the lecturers in the Department of Psychology who took me through various units. Not forgetting Mariam, Mudibo, Faith, Fatma and Nuru whose contribution in this academic journey has been immeasurable. The staff at the University Mombasa Campus who have come handy in one way or another to ensure a smooth sail during the entire academic period.

Not forgetting to thank my research assistant Rextone whose great assistance and complete support during data collection and the entire duration of the research cannot go unmentioned.

Sincere appreciation to County Commissioner Mombasa County Mr. Gilbert Kitiyo for approval for access to the study site despite the tight COVID-19 rules, Prison Commandant Shimo la Tewa Prisons and the entire staff who accorded me their unrelenting support during the entire data collection exercise.

I wholeheartedly wish to thank my dear sister Paskalia whose encouragement and moral support has contributed a lot to this project. To my children Allan, Adiel, Kimberly and Adrian who have always given me a reason to work hard and the time we sacrificed for this project, may Almighty God richly bless and protect you.

Glory to Almighty God forever!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background of the study	1
1.3 Statement of the problem	8
1.3.1 Purpose of the study	9
1.3.2 Objectives of the study	9
1.3.3 Research Questions	9
1.4 Significance of the study	10
1.5 Limitations and Delimitations	11
1.5.1 Delimitations	11
1.5.2 Limitations	11
1.6 Assumptions	11
1.7 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework	12
1.7.1 Theoretical Framework	12
1.7.2 Conceptual Framework.	15
1.8 Operational definition of terms	17
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	18
2.1 Introduction	18
2.2 Personal predictors of reoffending	18
2.3 Interpersonal predictors of reoffending	24
2.4. Community predictors of reoffending	28
2.5 Demographic differences in reoffending	31
2.6 Summary of Literature Review	32
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	34
3.1 Introduction	34

3.2 Research Design	34
3.3 Research Variables	34
3.3.1 Dependent Variable	34
3.3.2 Independent Variable.	34
3.3.3 Intervening Variable.	34
3.4 Location of the study.	34
3.5 Target Population	35
3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size	35
3.6.1 Sampling Techniques	35
3.6.2 Study Sample size.	35
3.7. Research Instruments	35
3.8 Pilot testing	35
3.8.1 Instrument Reliability	35
3.8.2 Instrument Validity	36
3.9 Data collection techniques	36
3.10 Data analysis	36
3.11 Legal and Ethical Considerations	36
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION	38
4.1 Introduction	38
4.2 Return Rate	38
4.3 Findings of the Study	38
4.3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Study Variables	39
4.3.2 Personal Factors and the Likelihood to Reoffend	40
4.3.3 Interpersonal Factors and Likelihood to Reoffend	42
4.3.4 Community Factors and Likelihood to Reoffend	44
4.3.5 Group differences in the likelihood to reoffend	45
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION	47
5.1 Introduction	47
5.2 Summary of Findings	47
5.3 Conclusions	49
5.4 Recommendations	49
REFERENCES	51

APPENDICES	60
Appendix A: Questionnaire for the Inmates	60
Appendix B: Work Plan	63
Appendix C. Budget	64
Appendix D: Map of Mombasa County	65
Appendix E: NACOSTI License	66
Appendix F: Prisons research authorization	67
	67

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Demographic characteristics of sample-----	33
Table 2:	Descriptive findings of personal factors-----	34
Table 3:	Regression Model of Personal Factors-----	35
Table 4:	Regression Coefficients of Personal Factors-----	36
Table 5:	Descriptive Findings of Interpersonal Relationships-----	36
Table 6:	Regression Model of Interpersonal Factors-----	37
Table 7:	Descriptive Findings of Community Factors-----	38
Table 8:	Regression Model of Community Factors-----	38
Table 9:	Regression Coefficients of Community-related Factors-----	39
Table 10:	T-test Analyses-----	40

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework.....	11
---------------------------------------	----

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ASPD: Anti-Social Personality Disorder

CEO: Center for Employment Opportunities

KPS: Kenya Prisons Services

PIC-R: Personal Interpersonal Community Reinforcement

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Scientists

TVE: Training Vocational Education

TVs: Televisions

USA: United States of America

COVID: Corona Virus Disease.

ABSTRACT

When a convict has completed his/her sentence, it is everyone's hope including the government that they will go back to being productive members of the community. Unfortunately, this is not true all the time. Some recently released inmates re-enter crime and ultimately find themselves back in incarceration. In Kenya, reoffending rate has been shown by existing data from Kenya Prison Services to be on a rising trend despite rehabilitation of the prison services. This research work aimed at finding out the risk factors associated with the likelihood of reoffending. The study focused on 174 inmates at Shimo la Tewa prison in Mombasa County. The specific aim of the study was to explore the extent to which personal, interpersonal and community factors influence the likelihood to reoffend. The research employed the PIC-R model that seeks to explain the etiology of deviance. A quantitative survey design was used for the study and the sample was stratified and selected purposively. Data from inmates were collected using self-report questionnaires. The collected data from questionnaires was coded and tabulated. Both descriptive and inferential data analysis was done with the use of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences software. Study results showed that personal, interpersonal and community risk factors have a positive relationship with the likelihood to reoffend. Unemployment was found out to be the highest risk factor in reoffending among the inmates. The study recommends the alignment of programs in accordance with the risk factors in order to prevent reoffending.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

A brief background of the general picture on reoffending is provided in this chapter. Following from the background, the problem is formulated and objectives and research questions to guide the work drawn. The study's purpose and significance and limitations and delimitations are then presented. A theoretical and conceptual framework that guides the study is presented followed by an operational definition of the technical terms used in the study.

1.2 Background of the study

Reoffending in the justice system is commonly known as recidivism. Recidivism refers to the relapse to criminal behavior after receiving punishment or undergoing rehabilitation (Zgoba & Salerno, 2017). For this to occur, there needs to be a starting point which effectively begins from release from incarceration and or completion of a rehabilitation program. This has to be followed by arrest due to the commission of another crime and thirdly the arrest should be within a specific period of time (Zgoba & Salerno, 2017). Therefore, reoffending or recidivism refers to repeat of criminal activities after the individual has received due punishment for similar or other criminal activities (Henslin et al., 2015). Reoffending is the single largest predictor of cases of overcrowding in prisons worldwide. A multi-country comparison of the rate of reoffending provides important and useful data on how effective the criminal justice policies are (Yukhnenko, Sridhar & Fazel, 2020). A lower rate reflects how ex-prisoners were successfully rehabilitated and the role of correctional programs during the reintegration of individuals into society (Laxanne, 1993). Having a high reoffending rate is very expensive to the government in terms of rehabilitation costs, persecution and public safety. It is also expensive for the families of the offenders (McKean, 2004).

The American Heritage Dictionary (2016) defines risk as the possibility of suffering loss or harm. Risk can be classified into two major parts: part one is the availability of agents which can be said to be potentially harmful for instance people, animals, diseases and toxins, and the likelihood that there will occur an interaction between the hazards and the agents in question (Denny, 2005).

In criminal justice, risk factors for the likelihood to reoffend are the characteristics, traits, problems, events or experiences that may lead an individual back into criminal activities (Trotter, 2006). Risks in Criminal Justice System has been classified into those that do not change and those that change from time to time. Those that can change from time to time do so through intervention, such as unemployment, alcohol use and abuse of drugs and negative peer associations (Hanson, 2006). Dynamic risk factors have been considered responsible for the increase in the likelihood to reoffending and therefore called criminogenic needs. Static risk factors are unchangeable and relate to an individual's prior history (Hanson, 2006).

It is very important to find out the risk of an inmate in reoffending before release. This is for the interest of the inmate and the safety of the public (Andrews & Bonta, 2006). Majority of inmates have no or little schooling, almost no appropriate job-related skills, lack of technical and vocational training, and have employment opportunities (Alexo, 2012). Some of them suffer from alcohol and substance addiction, unhealthy relationships with family members and a majority coming from poor backgrounds (Brohomme et al., 2016). They end up serving long prison sentences (Jung, 2011). These individuals have limited support from their families with reduced interactions with their family members either through contacts and visits during their time in custody (Bales & Mears, 2008). The barriers they face before release may also lead them to struggle finding stability (Bell, 2014).

Comparing the rate of reoffending between different countries around the world maybe inconsistent due to different criminal justice policies in different countries (Yukhnenko et al., 2020). Rate of criminal reoffending around the world has been reported to be as high as 50% (Fazel & Wolf, 2015). In a report by the U. S. Sentencing Commission on reoffending, among inmates, released on 24th January 2019, it showed that approximately 64% of inmates who had been incarcerated for committing violent offenses were rearrested within eight years after release in comparison with approximately 40% of those who had been incarcerated for committing nonviolent offenses. This leaves U.S among the countries with highest rate of reoffending in the world. On the other hand, The Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, New Zealand, and the Netherlands have the lowest rate of reoffending (Anderson, 2008). According to Anderson (2008) the U.S. has recidivism rate of over 75%, Norway has a recidivism rate of 20%. Norwegian prisons are like country clubs compared to the prisons in the U.S. Inmates can dress in non-prison uniform and prepare meals, they have their own rooms and showers, they have computers and TVs and they can get conjugal visits. They can also study or learn trade. In comparison, the rehabilitation programs in the Scandinavian countries could be the highest contributor to the low rate of recidivism and a lot can be borrowed by the countries having a high rate of recidivism (Anderson, 2008). A study conducted by the Center for Impact Research in December 2003, it was identified that nations which had successfully reduced the rate of reoffending and had programs in place which resulted to success. The report identified the most effective rehabilitation programs to be education, substance abuse treatment, and increasing employability of in-mates through practical skills and talents enhancement which have assisted successful states in the United States (Gregory, 2004). Another study in 1974 entitled “project new gate “which provided accredited college education to the inmates counseling and reintegration program the community. They also found out that there were lower rates of same prisoners who had undergone the program returning to the same prisons.

Transition from prison into the labor market is difficult. The rate of unemployment of formerly incarcerated people is higher than the rate of the entire population. According to research, it has been found that there is discrimination against those with criminal record by employers even if they claim not to (Baker, 1976). It is also argued that programs which increase inmate's potential of earning after their jail term would bring positive results of minimizing reoffending. (Duwe & Clark, 2014). Returning to the community after release from incarceration is usually a very challenging experience for most offenders who are being released. It is also very challenging to their families and the entire community (Valera et al., 2017). A lot of studies on reoffending show that without proper rehabilitation programs, up to 65% of those released are likely within 3 years of release to be in prison (Freeman, 2003). To break this cycle, a proper assessment of the risk factors that lead to reoffending should be carried and psychologically based treatment intervention should be employed in the criminal justice system (Luong & Wormith, 2011).

Reoffending rates in China stand at 6% to 8% making it the lowest in the world (Bakken, 1993). This is in contrast with the reoffending rates in some countries in the west which stands at 20% or 30% with others going up to 50%, 60% and above (Bakken, 1993). As a way of combining punishment with reform, prisoners in China do productive and socially beneficial work. These measures have been very effective in rehabilitating offenders. China's reintegration programs have emphasized on protection of civil rights of former inmates when they return to the communities after release from correctional facilities. The government also ruled that there should be no discrimination against former prisoners and should not be shut out of society, and should be provided with job opportunities, which give them the opportunity to study and work. This encourages them to avoid criminal activities. The coming into force of these laws, policies and measures, has resulted to the low rates of reoffending among ex-offenders in China.

The rate of reoffending in Australia has continued to increase. In the year 2015 and 2016, 44.6% of all Australian convicts were incarcerated within two years of leaving prison. This was up from 39.5% in the year 2011 to 2012, according to the productivity report. This has been attributed to their punishment and correction system approach of inmates instead of rehabilitation.

Recidivism has been found to be a norm in Africa (Bello, 2017). In South African a number of offenders leave the correctional facilities going back to their families and to the community. Some of them reintegrate successfully into their communities, while a good number end up carrying out new crimes and find their way back to prison. This is an implication that the rehabilitation programs in South Africa has not been aligned with the risk factors that lead to reoffending. Correctional institutions not being sufficient has been considered as the major reason for reoffending (May & Pitts, 2000). One study of reoffending shows that these rates remain high in South Africa because the type of rehabilitation programs implemented in the rehabilitation institutions are ineffective and seem not to even exist (Dissel, 2008). In order for this to change, the government must therefore introduce new strategies in regard to rehabilitation of offenders. South African correctional institutions have had a change of thought on the treatment of its inmates to rehabilitation and assisting them become law abiding citizens. The programs include psychological interventions, social work, health, jobs and skills development, and spiritual care services. Despite the rehabilitation programs put in place, recidivism has still remained high in South Africa between 55% and 95% (Schoeman, 2013). A number of predictors for the high rates of reoffending in South Africa have been highlighted in the literature. These include poor rehabilitation programs, limited resource and large number of inmates in correctional centers leading to overcrowding with insufficient number of staff, and lack of a good approach to reintegrate former inmates when they are finally released from jail (Dissel, 2008). This drives the point that it is not enough to have great rehabilitation

programs but the programs should be in tune with the risk needs and should be implemented fully.

Prevalence in reoffending in Nigeria as at 2005 was 37.3% and reached 52.4 in 2010 (Abrifor et al., 2012). The prison system in Nigeria lack resources for the establishment and implementation of effective correctional programs that reduce the risk of reoffending such as development of technical and vocational skills and running of formal education system for the inmates (Otu, 2015). Even the few available facilities are not in a good condition and are not able to motivate, reform, mobilize and empower released offenders to a life that is free of a crime (Stephen, & Dudafa, 2016). This generally implies that the risk factors leading to reoffending in Nigeria include lack of employment opportunities and low-income, poor quality education and programs geared at acquisition of technical skills, and a society that stigmatizes former inmates (Ayuk, et al., 2020).

Uganda has a lower rate of reoffending at 32% rate of recidivism compared to Kenya and Tanzania at 47% (Mudola, 2014). In Uganda, Frank Baine (2014), the Prison publicist, observed that prison facilities had tried their best to utilize the little they had to create favorable rehabilitation programs despite lacking a specific budget. Formal education programs in correctional institutions help inmates become productive after their incarceration. Baine recommended that formal education be made mandatory in Ugandan prisons to help the government achieve its goal of universal education and thus would further reduce the reoffending rate.

In Kenya, prisons are run by a parent ministry of interior. The main function of the service is institutionalization of offenders, rehabilitation and social integration. In 2017, the prison population stood at approximately 54,000, of whom 48% were pre-trial detainees while the rest were serving a sentence. With the staff, the establishment stands at 22,000 and the prison

institutions are 108, the capacity is 26,837. The prison density, therefore, was at 202%. Crime continues to be committed, and courts will continue to sentence offenders to jail terms. There is a great need for rehabilitation and reintegration programs to work to prevent or reduce reoffending, reducing the population of prisoners and, in the end, reducing the burden on the national expenditure. According to prison Statistics (2016) the, prison statistics shows a very big challenge. The statistics were as follows; 2003 (39,582), 2004 (42,278), 2005 (44,757), 2008 (45,000), 2009 (48,000), 2012 (49,947), 2013 (49,979) and March 2014 (52,105) and now at (54000). However, in 2021 there has been a general drop in the number of prisoners. The total population stands at approximately 42,500, with a total number of correctional institutions standing at 129 and therefore, the density has reduced to 191%. This could be attributed to the release of petty offenders and those who were almost through with their sentences during the COVID-19 surge.

Laisa (2013) examined factors that influenced reoffending in the government of Kenya prisons. From her findings, reoffending remains a big challenge in correctional facilities regardless of the extensive rehabilitation programs that have been put in place. The study also found that the technical and vocational training offered to the offenders did not bear fruit in reducing reoffending. The researcher suggested more research on the role the government plays in reducing the rate of reoffending in the Government of Kenya Prisons and the role the family plays during reintegration. However, there is still a need for studies on the different rehabilitation programs and how the same can be aligned with likely predictors of reoffending. A study by Nyariki (2019) on the effects of custodial sentences on reoffending at Shimo la Tewa prisons found that social factors greatly influence the reoffending rate. The factors included employment and income-generating opportunities, education levels and family relations. He recommended that there is a need to tailor the rehabilitation programs to suit the different needs of the offenders.

The data as discussed above from KPS shows a worrying trend and shows a gap in Kenyan correctional institutions. Most studies have looked at the existing rehabilitation programs and their role in reducing reoffending in Kenya. However, there exists a gap on the risk factors that may lead an individual who has otherwise gone through correctional facilities to go back into crime once again. These factors differ from one another and from one person to another. This study aimed at exploring these risks with a focus on Shimo La Tewa Prisons.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Prisons world over have one common goal to correct behavior and help the offenders go back to being productive citizens. In Kenya the aim of KPS is to reform offenders and reintegrate them into the society. It's never the intention of the correction institution to get a released inmate back into prison again. Nevertheless, the rate of reoffending is still high despite reforms done in the prison service.

Kenyan prisons have undergone major reforms since 2001. The opening of the Kenyan prisons to oversight bodies has given the reforms a major milestone by pushing their reforms agenda. However, contradictions in viewpoints exist between institutions involved in human rights advocacy and the public on the extent and impact of these reforms. The former suggest that almost nothing has been done while the latter argue that too much reforms have been detrimental to rehabilitation in correctional facilities. (AI, 2002; KNCHR, 2004).

It is evident that the high numbers of released offenders going back to custody in less than 3 years after release from prison is unsustainable. The hopes of any government are to rehabilitate a prisoner into a more responsible and more productive member of the community. This would help the government to remain on track in its development plans. The moment most of the released prisoners go back to prison, the development goals are not met, a more unstable

community due to more crime and a huge burden of convicts being taken care of in correctional facilities.

The continued growth of prison numbers will continue burdening the country's economy. If proper assessment of the risk factors is done and proper intervention put employed in order to reduce the rate of reoffending, resources currently deployed at taking care of the large number of prisoners most of them being inmates could be used in other development agendas.

1.3.1 Purpose of the study

The research work focused on the risk factors that predict the likelihood of reoffending among inmates at Shimo La Tewa Prisons.

1.3.2 Objectives of the study

- i. To find out how personal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.
- ii. To establish how interpersonal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.
- iii. To find out how much community reinforcement factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.
- iv. To establish group differences in the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.

1.3.3 Research Questions

- i. To what extent do personal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons?
- ii. To what extent do interpersonal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons?

- iii. To what extent do community reinforcement factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons?
- iv. Are there group differences in the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons?

1.4 Significance of the study

This study contributes to the current discussion on the dynamic risk predictors of the likelihood of reoffending. This is knowledge will be useful to the criminal justice system in Kenya and specifically to Shimo la Tewa in highlighting the risk factors that would be of importance if dealt with while one is serving a sentence to prevent the same person from being re incarcerated.

Many studies have been carried out on recidivism but not on the dynamic risk factors. This study will thus bridge the knowledge gap that exists in the understanding of what makes former inmates reoffend. Without the study of the risk predictors of reoffending, recidivists will keep on going back to prison because the underlying factors of their offending habits have not been addressed. There is need to address their criminogenic needs to minimize the odds of reoffending. In order to understand these needs, a thorough study needs to be done in order to come up with relevant intervention programs that will assist these individuals.

These study findings are expected to be valuable in designing programs for the reintegration of former inmates at community level. These would help the community understand ex-convicts and know how to assist in adapting back in the community and support them in ways that will prevent them from reoffending.

The findings will help the commissioner of Prison Service and other stakeholders especially at Shimo la Tewa prisons in coming up with relevant rehabilitation programs that support offenders deal with their needs and not just serve a sentence and get out of prison just to be re

incarcerated again. This in turn will help decongest the prison facilities and free resources to be used in other sectors of the economy.

The study will also be relevant for other researchers who are interested in the justice system in developing new knowledge.

1.5 Limitations and Delimitations

1.5.1 Delimitations

The study was limited to Shimo la Tewa Prisons in Mombasa County where data was collected from inmates of both genders. Whereas Mombasa County has other correctional facilities, Shimo La Tewa Prison was purposively sampled.

1.5.2 Limitations

This study was conducted at Shimo la Tewa Prison in Mombasa. The choice of this single correctional facility amongst many others and the limited sample size requires an interpretation of the findings with caution. Therefore, findings may not be generalized to the entire population of inmates in Kenyan prisons. However due to a similarity in the risk factors, most of the findings and recommendations could still be used to come up with useful programs for the entire prison system in Kenya.

1.6 Assumptions

- i. The sample would be a true representation of the prison population.
- ii. The data collection instruments will be well interpreted by the respondents and proper feedback collected. The inmates will be allowed to respond to the questionnaire and information provided by the inmates will be free of any influence by the authorities.

1.7 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

1.7.1 Theoretical Framework

The personal, interpersonal, and community-reinforcement (PIC-R) model developed by (Andrews & Bonta, 1982) considers factors which highly contribute to an individual's involvement or discourage them from activities associated with deviance. The most important aspect of the model is that predictors which are known to be responsible for the differences in behavior exist where the actions are situated. These predictors revolve around rewards and costs. Consequently, the model emphasizes the central role of rewards and costs in the etiology of deviant behaviour. The rewards are defined by their frequency, quality, contiguity and regularity of delivery, that is, their density. If the density of the rewards is high then chances of the deviant behavior occurring will be high. If the density of the costs of the deviant behavior are high then the chances of the behavior occurring will go down. The same is also true for non-deviant alternative behaviors whereby the density of the rewards and costs are also considered very important. For deviant behavior to be reduced, the alternative non-deviant behavior should be highly rewarded. (D Andrews 1982). A rewarding event is one which follows some act and gives motivation for the same act to be repeated while a costly event follows an act and the possibility of the same action being repeated is minimal.

The PIC-R model identifies four major risk indicators including behaviour history, individual attitudes, beliefs and values; individuals' competencies and skills; and social support within the agency:

This theory therefore is relevant in this study where we will be looking at the risk factors that aim to treat the underlying issues a convict is going through in order to address the sickness that led to committing crime rather than punishing them for the crime committed. Assessment of the criminogenic needs proper intervention will go a long way in solving issues of the inmates that lead to offending and reoffending.

The model assists in the designing of prevention and correctional programs.

1.7.2 The Risk Need Responsivity Model.

The model was developed in the eighties and was first formalized in the 1990s and has been used with a lot of success in assessing and rehabilitating criminals in Canada and other countries of the world. Three major principles underpin this model:

- Risk principle – According to this principle, criminality can be easily predicted in a very reliable way and treatment can be given focusing on the offenders who have a higher risk of. The principle focuses towards matching the level of treatment to the likelihood of the offenders to reoffend.
- Need principle -This is the second principle which comes a long way in the assessment of the criminogenic needs which forms the main target in the treatment process.
- Responsivity principle - The principle comes along in the process of rehabilitation by taking into consideration the cognitive behavioral treatment and tailoring them to meet specific learning abilities of the offender. Different individuals have different learning abilities and there is no specific treatment method that can be prescribed to all the offenders. Thus, the need to tailor make them in order to maximize learning and in the end change of behavior.

The general and specific responsivity aspects combine to form the responsivity principle. General responsivity deals with the most effective learning strategies that work on any type of offender for example female or male offenders, sexual or psychopaths. It deals with a wide spectrum of offenders. Specific responsivity is fine tuned to the specific characteristics of the offenders dealing with their specific needs.

In the rehabilitation of offenders in the early 20th century, the assessment of risk was a strictly professional-only affair. These included the prison and probation officers, psychologists, psychiatrists and social workers. From the 1970s it evolved to the inclusion of actuarial risk assessment where tools were developed to assess individual items for example history of substance abuse. The instruments gave a score that would assess how one offender has a higher risk than the other. The biggest weakness of using these in offenders though is that it assumes that individuals risk remains constant and people don't change which is not quite true. According to Bonta and Wormith (2007), beginning from the 70's to the early 80's, further research was done on instruments used in assessment which included dynamic risk factors. This was called the third-generation instruments whereby criminal record still played a major role with dynamic items like drug abuse history, employment history among others. The instrument was named risk need instrument. The instrument considered the changing nature of the circumstances surrounding an offender and provided the officers in charge of rehabilitation of the offenders on what specific needs to be targeted in the process. If the dynamic risk factors are successfully addressed using this instrument, the risk factors are reduced. (Bonta 2002). A fourth generation instrument has been developed in the last few years and which integrates a systematic and comprehensive intervention.

The model stresses the important role of assessment of the different risk levels of offenders in order to provide a treatment level that is appropriate to the needs.

This model distinguishes between criminogenic needs and non-criminogenic needs on the basis of their influence, whether major or minor, respectively.

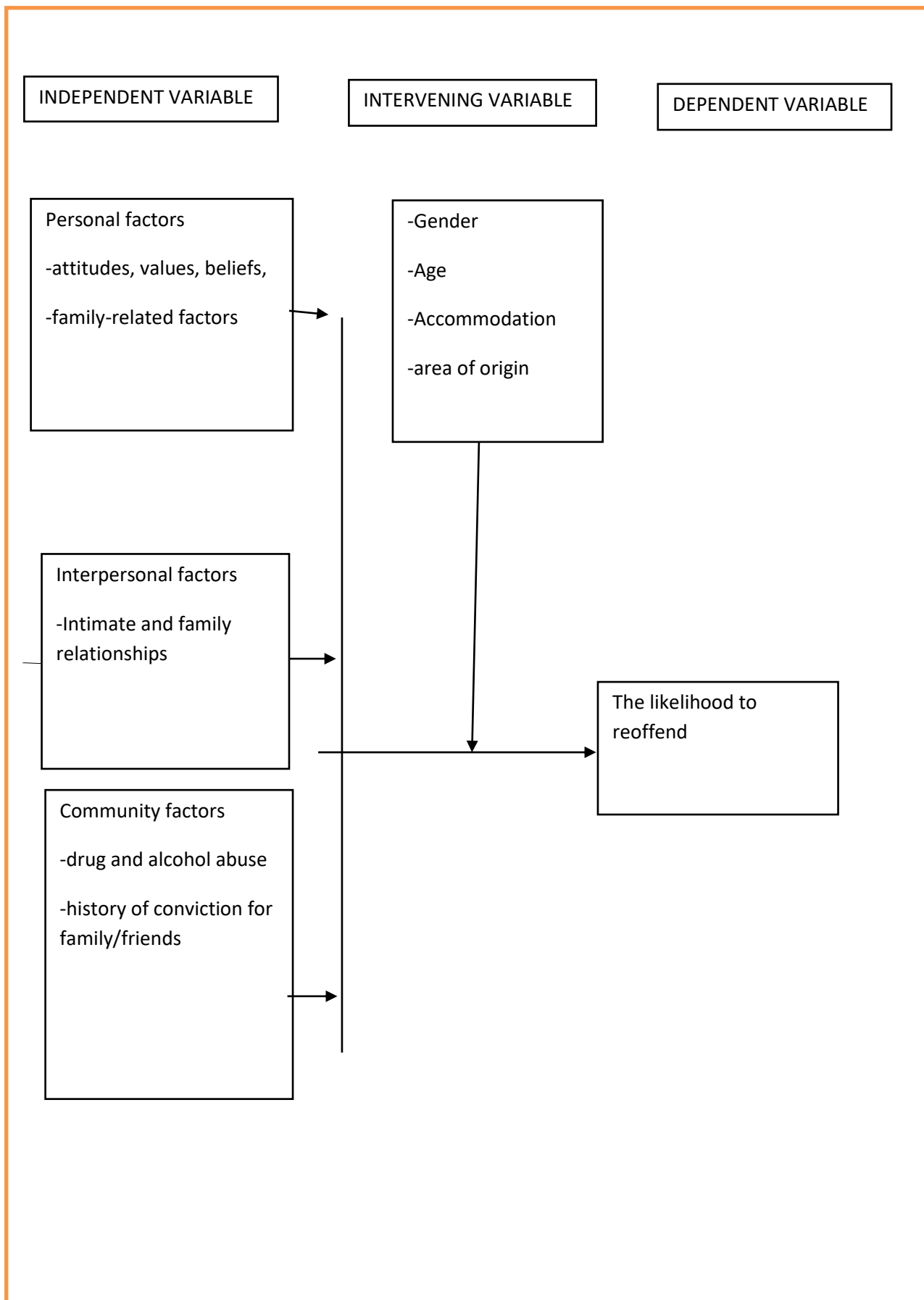
Those with profound influence include antisocial personality disorders, attitudes accepting of criminality, the presence of social structures that support crime, the abuse of substances, maladaptive relationships and prosocial recreational activities.

Factors associated with reduced risk include self-esteem, unknown or unexplainable personal feelings of distress, major mental disorders and physiological health.

1.7.2 Conceptual Framework.

The study aims to look at the dynamic risk factors that lead to reoffending. When an inmate receives a jail term, it is expected that they will reform and become a better person after they finish serving their sentence. The return of an inmate to prison for a second or a subsequent time leaves the corrective institution as doing insufficient to correct the behavior.

A conceptual framework is used in research to give a general outlook of the study. It is the main structure or the skeleton that holds the hypotheses of any research undertaking together. The researcher did not adapt any model but developed a conceptual framework (Figure 1.1). It puts together in a framework the different dynamic risk factors that lead to recidivism. An offender who gets incarcerated for any crime is faced by several risk factors which vary from personal, interpersonal and community reinforcement risks. If proper interventions are put into place to deal with the needs that an inmate has then they leave prison more fulfilled and their likelihood of going back to prison will be minimal. With the right policies and rehabilitation programs that deal with the criminogenic needs, the level of recidivism will be low.



1.8 Operational definition of terms

- **Crime:** A violation of law set by a governing body which could lead to incarceration
- **Criminogenic needs:** They are an individual's characteristics, traits, problems, or issues of an individual that influence how they relate to situations that lead to criminal activities.
- **Deviant:** Behavior that departs from what the society refers to as normal.
- **Dynamic risk:** A factor that has the ability to change in an individual's life and has a high probability of influencing a person to offend for example unemployment.
- **Ex-Offender:** A person who was previously convicted and jailed for committing a crime and has since served their prison term.
- **Incarceration:** The act of a person being put under detention or prison, which may serve as punishment for committing crime.
- **Inmate:** A person in prison serving a sentence.
- **Likelihood:** The probability that something will happen. In this case is the possibility of going back to prison.
- **Recidivism:** A common term used in criminal justice to refer to the return of a person to Jail after serving a jail term and being released. The term will be used interchangeably with reoffending.
- **Recidivist:** An individual who goes back to prison for committing a crime after successfully being released from prison
- **Rehabilitation:** The process of helping an individual
- **Reoffending:** Is the return of a person to prison for another term after serving a jail term and being released.
- **Sentence:** Time one stays in prison normally given by a judge as punishment for crime

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will be reviewing existing literature on related studies necessary in understanding factors that lead to the likelihood to reoffend.

2.2 Personal predictors of reoffending

Offenders in correctional facilities are faced with many personal risk factors that may lead them into reoffending. Some of the risk factors include antisocial behavior, marital status, unemployment, and substance abuse, level of education, attitudes, values and technical skills among others. Studies (Borzycki & Baldry 2003; Visher et al., 2005) indicate that offenders in prisons are faced with a variety of social, personal and economic challenges which may end up becoming obstacles to a life free of criminal activities. Offenders' experiences while in prison, past experiences before incarceration and the consequences of being in prison and challenges associated with transition back into the community may lead to reoffending. (Borzycki, 2005). In his study John O.O (2019) observed that individuals who were released suddenly on amnesty or those who were released without prior preparedness for the release had higher odds of re-arrest and incarceration than those who were prepared before release. He also observed that most reasons for recidivism were not related to the punishment they received while in prison. The respondents to his study stated that even if they had received a different kind of punishment they would still have found their way back to prison.

Inmates experience a lot of changes in their attitude towards imprisonment. They may undergo stress, depression and even develop trauma (Mc Kean, 2004). The end up being suicidal, have tendencies of assaulting others, they develop insomnia and have less hope for life.

In their study to look at the effect of college education on individuals in correctional institutions, (Stevens & Ward, 1997) followed 60 offenders who had earned their associate

degrees while in custody at the North Carolina Department of Correction. Their reoffending rates were compared to inmates who were not students. Data was also collected from education and studies related to reoffending studies of 30 states. The results showed that inmates who got their associate degrees while in prison had higher likelihood of becoming law abiding citizens after being released from custody than those whose education level was not advanced during their period of incarceration. One conclusion from the study was that it is more costly to incarcerate offenders than to educate them. Education also empowers the inmates economically and socially. It is not easy for ex-offenders who have low education levels to find financial ability and find a lot of difficulty in finding social support systems after they have completed their sentence in jail and therefore are more susceptible to criminal activities instead of successfully reintegrating into the society (Bender, 2018). She also noted that education can give people confidence in handling issues and opening doors for better opportunities, restoring of self-esteem of an individual and their social competence. Education provides an opportunity for offenders to qualify from high school with a certificate and eventually college degree. As much as it may not resolve all the problems in rehabilitation of criminals, but rather seems like a better use of government resources than leaving the high rates of reoffending that exist in the country.

There were lower rates of reoffending among offenders who had been involved in educational programs than those who did not. Educational programs are very important to the inmates in equipping them with valuable skills which promote a positive reintegration into the mainstream society and not only for reading and writing. If more efforts are put on the aspect of education, it would be more helpful for inmates to be involved in all prison education programs and which will in turn help the prison rehabilitation processes. Vocational education and technical skills training help in increasing the chances of successfully re-integrating ex-offenders back into society and consequently decreases chances of going back into criminal activities. Technical

and Vocational Education (TVE) will provides significant benefits that can address issues that cause offences as well as reducing their rate of reoffending. Therefore, it is good to provide offenders with vocational education and skills provision as a way of reducing reoffending (Hadi & Wan, 2014). They also argued out that Technical and Vocational Training provides inmates with technical skills which are necessary for performing tasks but also provide communication and organization skills which are necessary for any individual. T.V.E will also act as a motivator for the offender to change. Motivated offenders can make sense of their criminal activities and change. In a study by Otodo and Uguoke (2015) on the role that formal education play on the rehabilitating and reintegrating of inmates in Nigeria, they found out that prison is a very important agent for rehabilitating offenders to become better citizens after release. They found out that education is a vital ingredient in the process of rehabilitating these offenders.

Over 500,000 criminals were set free from prisons in 1999 according to the U.S. Department of Justice. Offenders who possess lower social and economic profiles are always disadvantaged because they lack professional skills and/or work experience which is associated with elevated risk of criminal acts and reoffending rates. The Center for Employment Opportunities program based in New York (CEO) comprehensively provides job-related programs for former prisoners, a population which under normal circumstances finds it very challenging to obtain and maintain work (Redcross et al., 2009). The program provides short-term transitional employment with pay, life skills education, full-time job employment, and post-placement services to ex-convicts. The center provides ex-prisoners opportunities to build career capital and financial stability. Stability in employment is a strong predictor of lower reoffending rate. A study on the program found that CEO reduced by up to 24.5% the three-year recidivism rate for participants who were released recently from prison, with very strong effects on groups with elevated risk which include young adults who did not complete high school education. Results from the study indicated that offenders who took part in the CEO

program had a reduced rate of reoffending compared to those who had not taken part. One study done to prove the veracity of similar attempts is an experiment by Durose et al. (2014) in Milwaukee of 236 high-risk offenders who had a history of violence or gang involvement. A randomized controlled trial (RCT) of a reentry program which combined subsidized work after their release with supportive social services prior to their release showed that there was increased rates of employment and money earned during the time when ex-inmates were eligible for jobs that were subsidized. The intervention had a significant effect on the chances of reoffending. Inmates find it very difficult in obtaining employment after release from prison (Anyango, 2017).

Antisocial behavior results in many personal, societal, and legal consequences, including psychological distress or a loss of freedom. Andrews and Bonta's model (2010) is based on the premise that many factors contribute to antisocial behavior. They examined a number of meta-analysis and concluded that there are 8 factors that consistently predict offending behavior. The eight factors have been found by research to have different strengths of predicting behavior. From this findings, the strongest four have been given the term "the Big Four" and these four factors that play the most prominent role include: (1) antisocial personality, involving hostility, impulsive behaviour, and personality traits related to psychopathy; (2) a history of antisocial behavior; (3) antisocial relations and peers supportive of antisocial behavior; and (4) attitudes, values, beliefs, and rationalizations that support antisocial behavior. The F-E model is additive in that the greater the number of predictors in an offender's profile, the more likely he or she is to engage in antisocial behavior. On risk factor for criminal behavior, it is an absence of strong ties with people who engage on pro social behavior including family relations and friends (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). Individuals who belong to stigmatized groups have a tendency of forming small social networks which sparse and end up participating in less quality activities (Carter & Field, 2004). Individuals develop conceptions of what others think of

mentally ill patients long before they become patient. They are afraid of taking part in social activities because of the labels against them and their expectation of negative treatment (Link, 1987). Antisocial personality disorder (ASPD) has often been associated with a high risk of criminal reoffending. More knowledge about the factors associated with this pattern of behavior can help in developing of effective crime prevention strategies. In their study, Domes, Mense, Vohs, Habermeyer (2013) found out attention bias for stimuli related to violence for offenders diagnosed with antisocial personality disorder. They are also likely to be delinquent. They also found out that, they have characteristics of lack of emotions and may be highly irritable and may not be remorseful.

Youth who have negative feelings towards the justice system have a high likelihood of engaging in criminal activities. It is very important to study these attitudes early in an individual's criminal life when they may still be willing to change. Our criminal attitudes are how we feel about committing crimes. Having an attitude that is pro-criminal means that someone sees more benefits in committing crime, while having an attitude that is non-criminal means that someone sees more costs to committing crime. As the costs of crime begin to outweigh the rewards of crime, people have more to lose than gain. For example, committing a crime may jeopardize new opportunities in life for example new relationships or a job opportunity. Recognizing one's criminal attitudes and thoughts about crime is important to changing our behavior. Identity change is when one begins to view themselves as non-criminal. Imagining oneself in the future can help one plan to achieve their goals. In the social and criminological psychology, criminal attitudes have been a major factor in predicting of antisocial behavior whereby individuals with a negative attitude towards the justice system had a higher identification with criminal activities and criminal others (Stevenson, Hall, & Innes, 2003). Different thinking styles influence criminal behavior differently. It is very important to know the thoughts of offenders so as to tell which offenders are engaging in thoughts which

are more criminogenic. This helps in targeting those with problematic thinking for alteration of their thoughts in correctional treatment programs during rehabilitation (Mandracchia & Morgan, 2011; Walters, 1990).

A longitudinal study of released 400 men was done in 2002 in Illinois and who were returning to the streets of Chicago. Data on their employment and other individual, family, and community factors before incarceration, in-prison and after prison was collected and analysed. Interviews at four to eight months after release was done and analyses revealed that less than 30 percent were in some form of employment during the study four to eight months after being released, and about half of the sample reported having worked at least one month from the time they were released. Employment was greatly affected by their history of employment before they went to prison, their participation in work-related training while in jail, support from social networks including family and friends and their health conditions after prison. In another study on the same facility on a sample of 400 male inmates, it was determined that drug and substance abuse was common among them. A survey on the inmates who were soon to leave correctional institutions found out that 66% reported substance abuse and 48% reported having taken alcohol and been drunk in the 6 months before the current term of the drug use. Despite the rate of drug or alcohol abuse, very few participated in or alcohol treatment programs. A very small percentage also participated in or Narcotics Anonymous meetings, and only 10% participated in both. Additionally, it was disturbingly revealed that 17% reported that they would likely use drugs after leaving prison if they were sure they would not get caught and 12% reported their likelihood to use drugs despite the risk of arrest (Visher et al., 2003). Treatment of cravings for drug and substance use is fundamental in the control of drug and substance abuse. If the cravings for drug and substance use can be controlled, the urge of engaging in criminal activities will decline (Gottfredson, Najaka & Kerly, 2003). A study by Anyango (2017) revealed that alcohol dependency was a high risk in reoffending. In her study,

she found out that 69.8% of the reoffenders had a problem with alcohol use. In the same study, drug abuse was also a great contributor in committing crime. 28% of the respondents committed crime while under the influence of drugs.

In a study by Annabel (2008) on women's criminal reoffending in New Zealand, it was found out that drug abuse highly influenced reoffending. The study was carried out on 26 inmates who were recently released from Christchurch Women's Prison, New Zealand before the year 1999. It also found out that the level and type of substance abuse influenced reoffending differently.

Bello (2017) in a study on reducing reoffending in Africa using the South African model, he came up with a conclusion that demographic factors and education level and social and economic circumstances of an individual may encourage people to reoffend. Not unless these issues are addressed, these people will keep on reoffending.

2.3 Interpersonal predictors of reoffending

Interpersonal factors include relationship with peers, friends, family, cohorts, colleagues, etc. There is a great link between the relationships an individual has and the individual's reintegration into the society after release from prison. Released inmates who were connected to family and friends while in prison found it easier to find employment through these contacts after their release making it easier for them to adopt quickly to the outside world. (Visher, Kachnowski, LaVigne, & Travis, 2004). Research has suggested that enduring filial relationships have long lasting impacts among ex-convicts may help in deterrence and delay of one's involvement in criminal activities (Bales & Mears, 2008). The study on the relationship between incarcerated individuals is pegged on the expectation that it is beneficial for inmates to have strong family ties which is important for the reintegration process, while the lack of family support puts them at greater risk for reoffending. The support provided by the families

is the support that the individuals in correctional institutions are likely not to find from other places. Apart from financial support, strong family ties can encourage ex-offenders' reentry into the workforce and can influence their future behavior. Emotional support provided by family members during interactions during incarceration play a major role in reducing reoffending. Therefore, it is very important for policy makers to look keenly into visits by family for the incarcerated individuals. Mowen and Visser (2016) strongly believe that individuals who went through anger management, parenting, and life skills classes were more likely to have good family relationships after the release of an individual from prison. The lessons aim at addressing emotional or behavioral issues these inmates have manifested in the past and assist them in developing their own ways of dealing with these issues.

Differential association theory focuses on communication and language. Communication affects how people make sense of their social worlds. This is suggested to be the way people learn values, attitudes, motives and techniques for criminal behaviour (Edwin, 1939). Differential coercion/social support theory on the other hand suggest that peers influence the criminal behavior of an individual by coercing or exerting pressure on them (Colvin m 2000). In a study by Mowen and Boman (2018), it was suggested that peers play a very important role individuals on their return back to the society. However, it is important to note that there is more criminality pressure exerted on individuals which is more harmful for individuals who are returning home in comparison to benefits of the support from peers. In a study by Cochran (2013) which he examined the effect in-prison visitation had on reoffending, he used the number of times a prisoner was visited at different stages of their period in custody as a proxy measure of peer support. The analyses of the study revealed that prison visits during early days of detention and regular visits during incarceration played a key role in reducing the chances of reoffending. The near-release visits of the inmates were found to be less significant in relation to reoffending. Regardless of the number of visits being an indirect indicator of social

support, the findings of the study show the role of social support in reducing reoffending. One such investigation was carried out by Broome, Knight, Hiller and Simpson (1996). The study used a measure of peer support to evaluate how similar and how helpful to each other clients were. They also conducted research on how peer support was related to reoffending using data from people on probation who had completed a 4-month treatment program on substance abuse. Their findings revealed a significant negative relationship between people on probation who reported a higher competence in counselling and the rate of reoffending. They also found out that those who viewed other clients as “helpful” reported lower odds of reoffending. While the measure of social support was only between people on probation and other clients or counselors, these findings strongly point to the important positive role that peer support can play in reducing the risk of reoffending.

Another study by Johnson Listwan, Colvin, Hanley and Flannery (2010) on the relationship between social support and health and well-being, found that coercion and social support had positive effects on posttraumatic cognitions affecting the psychological well-being among inmates. In an article, Martinez (2014) examined the effects of informal social support on young offenders between the age of 14 and 24 upon returning home after incarceration. This was in the context of support from their peers and family members. He found out that young offenders received material support and a sense of belonging from their peers. They also provided temptations and opportunities to involve themselves with criminal activity. On the other hand, family members gave them the support and comfort of “the ties that bind” but likely their expectations were high and a return of roles they previously performed and negative dynamics. In this meta synthesis, the authors present how informal support may complicate its presumed benefits for the reintegration of ex-offenders.

Marriage is often considered a potentially transformative institution for desistance in crime, especially among men and therefore encouraging prisoners to maintain their intimate

relationships may go a long way in the reduction of reoffending (Sampson, Laub, & Wimer, 2006). In a study on the effects of marriage and spousal criminality on reoffending, Signe, Lars and Peer (2015) found out that marriage played a key role in reducing the rate of reoffending compared to non-marriage only in cases where one spouse had no history of criminality. Similarly, getting married to a spouse who had never had a conviction for crime decreased the likelihood to reoffend significantly more than when one was married to a spouse who had a former conviction. The findings of the study outlined the importance marriage has on social integration and also stresses on its protective nature. In a study by Segrin and Flora (2001), it suggested that the quality of the relationship protects against loneliness. Prisoners who reported to having satisfying and committed relationships were less likely to feel lonely during their period in prison therefore reducing the rate of reoffending. In another similar study (Carlson & Cervera, 1991), the effect of family visits on the wellbeing of prisoners was specifically considered. The study found out that these visits increased the closeness of the couple and improved the total wellbeing of the prisoners during their incarceration. Therefore, reducing the rate of reoffending. Contact with children by incarcerated parents acts as a positive factor to the parents and in most cases parents will put effort into maintaining contacts with their children while in custody (Harrison, 1991).

Another study by Tripodi (2010) examined how reoffending was influenced by social bonds on 250 male offenders who were selected randomly on released offenders from Texas prisons since 2001. The researcher measured the duration since inmates were released from prison and reentry into prison making reoffending a continuous variable. On the basis of life-course theory, it was hypothesized that ex-offenders released from prison who get into employment or were married would have lower risks of the likelihood to reoffend than offenders who were not in employment nor in marriage. Results from survival analyses indicate reoffenders who got employed upon release experienced longer periods free from crime before reoffending than

offenders who were not employed. This is especially important when considering criminal desistance as a process, since the offenders showed initial motivation, commitment, and change of behavior.

In Kenya, a study by Nyariki, Bor and Onsarigo (2019) concluded that social factors greatly influence the rate of reoffending among inmates and the factors included employment and source of livelihood, level of education, family setup and family relations. If these factors are considered seriously during rehabilitation of the offenders, then cases of reoffending would highly be reduced.

2.4. Community predictors of reoffending

Individuals learn from observing the consequences on the actions of other people and taking note whether they are punished or rewarded (Andrews & Bonta, 2003).

It is important to assess offenders' responses to stigma psychologically to help understand them better during the process of reintegration into the society after release from jail or prison. Being labeled as a stigmatized person seriously affects how people perceive themselves and their perception about how others think and feel about them(Link et al 1998). The level of stigma among offenders is very high. They are faced by various challenges structural and social for instance voting rights, availability of housing, financial assistance, employment opportunity, and other areas of involvement in the community (Pogorzelski et al., 2005). Stigmatization is said to be disintegrative shaming whereby feelings of humiliation and disrespect to the offender tend to result in feelings of shame and there is no effort in reconciling the offender with the community. On the other hand, reintegrative shaming is said to be practiced by individuals who maintain bonds of respect for the ex-offender and who terminate episodes of shaming with gestures of reacceptance and forgiveness. The key to crime control is reintegrative shaming (Braithwaite, 1989). Stigma can either be referred to as self-stigma or public stigma. Self-stigma emanates from self while public stigma emanates from the public. Public stigma is

achieved by exercising power on the components of stigma like labelling, status loss, separation, stereotyping and discrimination (Link & Phelan, 2001). self-stigmatization may take place when the minority group for instance ex-offenders, internalize such beliefs against themselves (Mak & Cheung, 2010).

Another factor of community reinforcement is the process of reintegration. Offender reintegration is the process of an offender leaving prison and going back into the community. The community plays a major role in helping the released inmate to adjust back into the society (Zondi, 2012). Family support and support from friends of the ex-offender in reintegration and the willingness of the individual to change has a great impact on reducing reoffending (Davis et al., 2012). The attitude of the society towards the ex-prisoners affects their reintegration process. Stigmatization from the community affects the process from running smoothly. This occurs majorly because the community is not prepared for the return of the convicts to the society. In many cases the convicts are taken through the reintegration process and the community is left out. If the community is left out of the process, all the work done in preparing the convicts for life after prison will be of no importance since they will face rejection and stigmatization. (Ugwuoke, 2011).

Prison facilities are institutions which are highly guarded with high security and regulations. During release of the offenders from prison, they may suddenly find themselves exposed to high-risk situations and people and most of them may not have developed necessary skills that can prevent relapse during rehabilitation to deal with these risks. The community's environment can influence a person into reoffending. This depends on how positive or negative they are received in the community (Anyango, 2017). After leaving prison, individuals are faced by challenges in finding housing. This is made difficult by several factors, including the affordability and availability of housing, legal barriers, discrimination against ex-offenders by the community, and may not meet the requirements for subsidized housing by the government

(James, 2014). Reintegration theory rides on the assumption that crime occurs in the absence of the community (Padayachee, 2008). The proponents of the theory argue that the offenders should not be solely blamed for their crimes rather the society should carry some responsibility for creating favorable conditions for criminal activities and should be involved in providing solutions to reduce crime and reoffending in the community (Glanz, 1993). Released inmates going back to unsafe neighborhoods with low social capital are very likely to get no employment and therefore face a higher risk of reoffending (Visher & Farrell, 2005). Successful reintegration is largely affected by the willingness of the individual and the social support from the society which help them desist from substance abuse and criminal activities. Drug dependent offenders who receive treatment or undergo some programs on drug abuse should be given the same support when they leave prison (Burrows, et al., 2001). Offenders may also find themselves abusing drugs due to the harsh conditions in the prison facilities. In a study by Ugwuoke (2011), which he carried out on 63 ex-convicts of Akwa-Ibom State in Nigeria, he found out that nearly all the ex-prisoners had abused drugs. One of them admitted it was due to stress and since all the cellmates used marijuana and or cigarette, she also got hoodwinked.

The struggle to adjust after imprisonment may be largely attributed to after-care service which may not be available to ex-offenders. This includes checking on how the offenders are coping with the outside world and helping them deal with the challenges associated with transition. Some of the after-care services include provision of basic needs like housing, food and clothing, counseling services and assisting them to take care of their financial-related needs (Altschuler & Armstrong, 2001). The duration and period allocated to aftercare is highly dependent on the offender's risk and needs. Among the approaches employed include teaching individuals the ways to anticipate and deal with high-risk situations.

Social support is very important in reintegrating of ex offenders' successfully into the community. Social support acts as a variable for mediation or moderation of a number of theories on criminology, such as reducing strain or developing social connections, but is mostly seen as inversely related to crime (Cullen, 1994). Financial support of an individual, and provision of materials for example transportation is called instrumental support. Expressive support on the other hand refers to the emotional and psychological assistance given to an individual to boost their self-esteem by providing a way of coping with negative circumstances in life (Lin, 1986). Individuals reentering the community are faced with numerous challenges that may alleviate their chances of reoffending, such as getting employed and their access to adequate housing (Petersilia, 2003). Individuals always rely on family and friends as their support system in order to address these needs. The importance of social support during reentry is on its emphasis on using social networks and available resources to deal with problems and challenges associated with reintegration in the community (Colvin, Cullen, & Vander, 2002).

Another aspect of community's influence on the reduction of the risks of reoffending is in the use of community supervision, or community corrections. This is a set of programs that involve the supervision of offenders by the community instead of placing them in prison. The two major common types of community supervision are probation and parole.

2.5 Demographic differences in reoffending

Risk factors of the likelihood to reoffend are likely to be the same between men and women. Some of the factors may predict reoffending in a unique way in specific genders. According to French et al. (2000), drug abuse was predictive of reoffending in women. Age and past criminal history have also been found to predict reoffending in women (Bonta et al., 1995). In their findings, French et al. (2000) found that the likelihood of offending was the same for women and men if they were involved in drug abuse. In a study by Benda (2005) of 300 females and 300 males, differences in predictors of reoffending between the genders were highlighted. He

noted that peer association was the highest predictor of reoffending among the male gender while the number of children and relationships was a predictor among the female gender.

A meta-analysis by Hanson (1998) indicated an overall negative correlation between age and reoffending by sexual offenders. He also found out that the size of their inverse relationship differs between samples. Another study by Robert, Boren and Thomson (2002) found out that the age of sexual offenders generally predicted the likelihood to reoffend. Those convicted at a younger age were more likely to reoffend in comparison to the older ones. From their sample, they found out that there was no sexual reoffender at age 60 and above. A study by Laisa (2013) at Meru G.K Prison came out with findings that inmates who were arrested at a younger age and for a longer duration were more likely to find their way back into prison.

2.6 Summary of Literature Review

The individual's characteristics that may have a relationship with their likelihood to reoffend are broken down into two. Static or non-modifiable and dynamic also known as modifiable. Static risk factors are those characteristics of an individual gender, age and prior criminal history which cannot be changed. Dynamic risk factors are those characteristics of an individual that can be modified during the process of rehabilitation such as employment, education level, alcohol and substance abuse.

Static risk factors are rarely considered in predicting future offending behavior and are rarely targeted during intervention. Major critics of relying on static factors is the failure to take time and change into account. Considering dynamic factors and their change over time may improve the accuracy of the assessment.

Dynamic risk factors have been identified to help practitioners to assess risk of reoffending. These factors provide reliable information about the likelihood reoffending in future and are important both in the prediction of the likelihood to reoffend and measurement of risk status,

and potential causes of reoffending, capable of serving an explanatory role as well as the role of prediction.

The risk factors that have generally been identified by scholars to increase the rate of reoffending include:

- Age. Most studies that have been carried out have found out that the lower the age of incarceration the higher the chances of reoffending.
- Gender. It has been found out from most studies that different predictors influence gender differently when it comes to reoffending but generally males are more prone to reoffending than females.
- Security Rating of the prison facility. The offenders who get imprisoned in maximum security facilities are more likely to reoffend in comparison to those on medium and minimum security prison respectively .
- Education levels. Prisoners who have a higher education qualification are less likely to reoffend than those who are less educated. This could be attributed to their likelihood to get employment and move on with their lives after prison. Those who have gone past secondary education or have pursued some tertiary education were at a good position for employment therefore reducing the rate of reoffending.
- Substance abuse. Convicts who abuse substance are at a very high risk to reoffend compared to those who don't abuse drugs.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter will describe the methods and design that will be used in the study. This will include the research design, location of the study, target population, sampling design, sampling procedure, sample size, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis, data, validity and reliability of the data and ethical issues.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey design which involved the collecting and analyzing of quantitative data. This included the use of a questionnaire.

3.3 Research Variables

3.3.1 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in the study was the inmate's likelihood to reoffend measured by attitudes towards reoffending.

3.3.2 Independent Variable.

The independent variables are personal factors, interpersonal factors and community factors that may lead to the likelihood to reoffending.

3.3.3 Intervening Variable.

The intervening variables were inmates' gender and age, area of origin and accommodation arrangements.

3.4 Location of the study.

The study was located at Shimo La Tewa Prison. This comprises Shimo La Tewa Maximum, Shimo La Tewa Medium and Shimo La Tewa Women Prison. The facility is located in the north Coast of Mombasa County close to the border of Kilifi County.

3.5 Target Population

The study targeted inmates at Shimo La Tewa Prison. According to statistics from Shimo La Tewa Prisons, there is a total of 1500 inmates in the facility. The target population was 1500 inmates.

3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

3.6.1 Sampling Techniques

Stratified simple random sampling was used in selecting the respondents for the study. This was done by separating inmates into strata of Maximum, Medium and Women prison.

3.6.2 Study Sample size.

A sample is defined as a subset of the target population and is the group from which data is collected (Frankel & Wallen, 2006). The sample for the study was obtained using a sample calculator with the ratio of 1:85 with one inmate representing 85 inmates. The margin of error was set at .05 with 95% confidence interval. The final sample size was 174 inmates.

3.7. Research Instruments

The study employed a structured questionnaire to collect data from inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons. The questionnaire was adopted from one used by Dadashazar (2017) to measure recidivism. A questionnaire was used because many respondents can be reached in a short time and also allows for self-administration.

3.8 Pilot testing

Piloting was conducted on 10% of the total sample to test the validity and reliability of study instruments. Adjustments were made to the study tools after piloting.

3.8.1 Instrument Reliability

The extent to which the tools produced consistent measures with each administration was the instrument reliability (Ogula, 2005). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), high reliability is considered when the same score is established at second administration of a study

tool. Reliability was measured by single administration using the test reliability menu on SPSS. The inter-item reliability coefficients of items and the reliability index of the tool were computed. A reliability index of .74 was found for the tool after dropping items with negative or poor inter-item coefficients of below .03.

3.8.2 Instrument Validity

In line with Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), the study considered validity as the extent to which the instruments and the results truly represent what is being studied. Experts and supervisors assisted in assessing the validity of the instrument. Their feedback was used in adjusting the instrument to standards. The process of drawing the correct conclusion based on the data obtained from an assessment is what validity is all about (Bryman, 2012).

3.9 Data collection techniques

Two research assistants assisted in the data collection process. Both assisted in dealing with questionnaires. For better understanding, the respondents were assisted in the interpretation of the questionnaire in order to get accurate feedback.

3.10 Data analysis

The collected data was analyzed using quantitative data analysis. Descriptive statistics were used in the analysis of quantitative data. Descriptive statistics described the sample in terms of means and frequencies and the results presented in tabular form. Inferential statistics were used to determine relationships between variables.

3.11 Legal and Ethical Considerations

The research proposal was submitted to the University of Nairobi for approval. Upon approval, ethical approval was applied for and received from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). After the receipt of the permits, the researcher pre-

visited Shimo la Tewa prisons to seek for permission from the authorities in charge of the prison facilities and also to get familiar with the environment.

Written informed consent was sought from the respondents in order for them to participate willingly in the study. The use of identification numbers was used instead of respondents' names in order to uphold confidentiality. The researcher also took proper security measures for management of data and acknowledged any primary and secondary sources of information, to minimize plagiarism.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the study are presented, first with descriptive characteristics of the variables and followed by inferential statistics. The findings are then discussed. The order of analysis is in line with the objectives of the study. The objectives of the study were to:

- i. Find out how personal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.
- ii. Establish how interpersonal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.
- iii. Establish the extent to which community reinforcement factors influence the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.
- iv. Establish group differences in the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Prisons.

4.2 Return Rate

The study targeted 174 inmates from Maximum, Medium and Women Prisons of the Shimo La Tewa Maximum Security Prison complex in Mombasa County. A total of 154 inmates responded to questionnaires indicating a return rate of 89%. Within the current health protocols due to COVID-19 and considering that prisons are restricted zones, this return rate was found to be appropriate. Further, it was considered to be good enough for making inferences to the larger population of inmates in Kenya.

4.3 Findings of the Study

Data were analysed using SPSS (v.25) and presented in the order of the objectives of the study. Descriptive findings were followed by inferential statistics. The study sought to answer research questions without testing any hypotheses.

4.3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Study Variables

The demographic characteristics of the sample including age, gender, marital status and highest academic qualification were computed. Table 4.1 presents the findings.

Table 4.1 *Demographic characteristics of sample*

Variable		f	%
Gender	Male	139	90.3
	Female	15	9.7
Age	Below 40	87	56.5
	41-50	45	29.2
	Above 50	22	14.3
Highest academic qualification	Primary	66	42.9
	Secondary	62	40.3
	Mid-level college	20	13.0
	University	6	3.9
Marital status	Never married	37	24.0
	Married	90	58.4
	Divorced	7	4.5
	Separated	20	13.0
Area of origin	Urban	55	35.7
	Rural	99	64.3

Results from Table 4.1 show an overwhelming number of male inmates in the prison population 139(90.3%). Over half 87(56.5%) are below 40 years of age and have a primary education 66(42.9%). Over half 90(58.4%) are married and from rural areas 99(64.3%). However, when the sub-categories of the sample ‘not married’ are consolidated (never married, divorced, and separated), the proportion of inmates not married rises to 64(41.6%). These findings are reflective of typical prison populations studied where mostly men from populations with historical demographic disadvantage, for instance, lack of education and are not married are more likely to be incarcerated. The findings are therefore similar to a study by Signe, Lars and Peer (2015) who found out that marriage reduced the odds of reoffending compared to non-marriage only when the spouse had no previous history of criminality. Similarly, being married to a spouse without any prior history of conviction for offences reduced recidivism significantly more than being married to a spouse with a history of previous convictions. Findings from

another study by Sampson, Laub and Wimer (2006) indicate that marriage reduced crime and reoffending in general. They found out that marriage acts as a great component for desistance to criminal activities. When the differences were assessed more closely by cross-tabulating area of origin with academic qualifications and marital status, an interesting pattern emerged. For instance, of the 66 (42.9%) who had a primary education, 44 (66.7%) were from the rural areas. However, this group had more respondents with secondary education. Of the 62 (40.3%) with secondary education, 67.7%) came from the rural areas. The urban group had more respondents with university education (5 out of 6).

Concerning marital status, rural areas had more respondents married 61(67.8%), single 21(56.8%) and separated 13(65%). Finally, the likelihood to reoffend was measured by respondents' attitudes towards the crime they committed and whether they felt any personal responsibility. Majority 142(92.2%) reported remorse about their crime and felt personal responsibility. That was interpreted as attitudes towards reoffending.

4.3.2 Personal Factors and the Likelihood to Reoffend

First, the study aimed to establish the extent to which personal factors influence the likelihood to reoffend. Personal factors were measured as whether employed at the time of conviction, family socioeconomic status, emotional factors including stress and emotional stability and accommodation arrangements. The descriptive findings are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 *Descriptive findings of personal factors*

Variable		f	%
Prior employment	No	72	46.8
	Yes	82	53.2
Accommodation	Rented house	67	43.5
	Own house	42	27.3
	Homeless	8	5.2
	Family house	37	24.0
Family SES	Poor	49	31.8
	Not poor	105	68.2
Emotional stability	Stable	78	50.6
	Not stable	76	49.4

Findings indicate that slightly more than half of the sample 82(53.2%) had gainful employment at the time of conviction and lived in their own rented houses 67(43.5%). More than two-thirds 105(68.2%) rated their families as poor in need of financial assistance and up to half reported problems with emotional stability 76(49.4%).

These findings show that jail time interrupted livelihoods and created emotional instability which echoes similar findings. For instance, a study by Con et al. (2010) among inmates in a metropolitan area county jail. Provided evidence that there is more emotional instability among the prison population than the general public. They found out that there is extraordinarily high rate of clinically significant symptoms of borderline personality disorder (BPD) among the inmates.

To establish the extent to which prior employment, family SES, accommodation arrangements and emotional stability predict the likelihood to reoffend, multiple linear regression analysis was done and the findings presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 *Regression Model of Personal Factors*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.29	4	0.82	2.47	0.050
	Residual	28.31	149	0.33		
	Total	31.60	153			

The model in Table 4.3 provides evidence that personal factors of prior employment, accommodation arrangements, family SES and emotional stability significantly predict likelihood to reoffend, $F(4,149) = 2.47, p = 0.050$. The model accounted for up to 10% of variations in the likelihood to reoffend ($R^2 = 0.10$).

To estimate the predictive weight of each, regression coefficients were examined and presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 *Regression Coefficients of Personal Factors*

Model		Unstandardized coefficients			
		B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
1	(Constant)	0.44	0.19	2.36	0.020
	Prior employment	-0.26	0.13	-2.04	0.045
	Accommodation arrangements	-0.04	0.06	-0.77	0.441
	Emotional stability	0.10	0.06	1.69	0.095
	Family socioeconomic status	-0.07	0.09	-0.72	0.477

It is evident from Table 4.4 that prior employment is the strongest predictor of the likelihood to reoffend. The negative relationship ($B = -0.26$, $SE = 0.13$, $p = 0.045$) indicates that lack of employment correlates highly with attitudes towards reoffending. Studies have shown the positive relationships between lack of employment and crime. For instance, Bloom, Redcross, Zweig and Azurdia (2007) on the Centre for Employment Opportunities (CEO) shows that ex-prisoners who successfully completed the program were less likely to be incarcerated unlike the ones who did not through the program and were less likely to gain meaningful employment hence high rate of reoffending. Another study by Anyango (2017) found out that most reoffenders did not have proper employment or were employed as unskilled laborers whose earnings were minimal and could not meet their financial needs leading them to criminal activities.

4.3.3 Interpersonal Factors and Likelihood to Reoffend

Interpersonal factors were measured in terms of marital and family relationships and those with friends. Data for marital relationships were collected from respondents who reported being married. The findings are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 *Descriptive Findings of Interpersonal Relationships*

Variable		f	%
Intimate relationships	Healthy	23	25.6
	Unhealthy	65	72.2
Family and interpersonal relationships	Healthy	81	52.6
	Unhealthy	73	47.7

An overwhelming number of married respondents reported unhealthy intimate relationships with their partners 65(72.2%). This finding corroborates other studies which have found marital instability to predict offending. For instance, Sampson, Laub and Wimer (2006) conducted a longitudinal study on men committed to reform schools in Massachusetts and found that marriage can act as a good deterrence agent to criminal activities. This in the end leads to a reduced rate of crime

Further, to test whether these factors predicted the likelihood of reoffending, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted and the findings presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 *Regression Model of Interpersonal Factors*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	0.14	2	0.07	0.20	0.823
	Residual	31.39	151	0.37		
	Total	31.53	153			

The insignificant model in Table 4.6, $F(2, 151) = 0.20, p = 0.823$ does not support the assertion that personal factors significantly influence likelihood to reoffend. Further, an examination of regression coefficients for intimate relationships ($B = 0.03, SE = 0.07, p = 0.624$) and family and interpersonal relationships ($B = 0.03, SE = 0.05, p = 0.590$) show that interpersonal factors do not individually predict likelihood of reoffending. However, the positive direction of relationships indicates that unhealthy relationships are associated with higher likelihood of reoffending though insignificantly. This finding supports earlier studies. For instance, Bales & Mears, 2008 in a study of data from the Florida Department of Corrections suggests that strong family ties produce lasting impacts among ex-convicts and is often a deterrence from future incidents of crime

This finding can also be understood from the context of area of origin. Most respondents (64.3%) come from rural areas which have closer interpersonal bonds. This seems to act as a preventive factor against future reoffending.

4.3.4 Community Factors and Likelihood to Reoffend

The study measured community factors in terms of interlinkages between individuals, their families and friends and the larger community. The study measured family with previous history of convictions, peer relations, belief in obeying the law and history of drug and alcohol abuse. The descriptive findings were collated and presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 *Descriptive Findings of Community Factors*

Variable		f	%
Know family/close friends jailed	No	132	85.7
	Yes	22	14.3
Know friends in crime	No	120	77.9
	Yes	34	22.1
Drug abuse	No	117	76.0
	Yes	37	24.0
Alcohol abuse	No	109	70.8
	Yes	45	29.2
Obey the law	Yes	147	95.5
	No	7	4.5

Findings in Table 4.7 show that majority of respondents 132(85.5%) did not know or have family and friends who were ever jailed or know any friends currently engaged in criminal activity 120(77.9). Almost all 147(95.5%) expressed belief in obeying the law and fewer numbers reported a history of drug and alcohol abuse. though it is likely that respondents may have underreported or over reported because of social desirability concerns, the data shows that the prison population is from the normal distribution of Kenyan families.

To estimate the extent to which community factors predict the likelihood of reoffending, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted whose findings were presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 *Regression Model of Community Factors*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.28	3	1.43	4.19	0.007
	Residual	51.15	150	0.34		
	Total	55.43	153			

The significant model in Table 4.8, $F(3, 150) = 4.19, p = 0.007$ provides evidence that community-related factors predict likelihood to reoffend. The model had a predictive value of 8% variation in likelihood to reoffend ($R^2 = 0.08$). The findings are similar to those of Gathu (2012) who argued that prisoners in Kenya have in regard to restarting their lives after their release from prison. The community in some instances destroy their property while they are in jail therefore rendering them homeless.

Further, an examination of the regression coefficients showed that history of drug and alcohol abuse and belief in obeying the law were significant predictors. Table 4.9 presents the findings.

Table 4.9 *Regression Coefficients of Community-related Factors*

Model		Unstandardized coefficients			
		B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
1	(Constant)	0.34	0.06	5.54	0.000
	Family and peers in crime	-0.01	0.08	-0.14	0.890
	Alcohol and drug abuse	0.15	0.07	-2.18	0.031
	Believe in obeying the law	-0.61	0.23	2.68	0.008

Findings indicate that alcohol and drug abuse positively and significantly predict the likelihood to reoffend while lower belief in obeying the law negatively and significantly predicts the likelihood to reoffend. Therefore, respondents more likely to reoffend are those with alcohol and drug abuse and those unwilling to obey the law. These two findings are important in understanding prison populations around the world. For instance, in a study by Burrows et al (2001), concluded that a history of addiction also correlated with crime. The findings of this study therefore support the assertion that the community need to support individuals returning from prison in order to deal with addiction issues therefore reducing their chances of reincarceration.

4.3.5 Group differences in the likelihood to reoffend

The last aim of the study was to establish group differences in the likelihood to offend. T-tests were used to establish group differences by gender, marital status (coded as ‘married’ and ‘not

married’) and area of origin while one-way ANOVA analyses were carried out on marital status (single, married, divorced and separated), academic qualification and accommodation arrangements.

The findings of t-test analyses are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 *T-test Analyses*

Variable	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Gender	-1.69	152	0.094
Marital status (Not married/Married)	0.47	152	0.643
Area of origin	-0.36	152	0.721

No significant group differences were found which indicates that these factors do not individually influence likelihood of reoffending.

There were also no significant group differences in reoffending considering marital status (single, married, separated, divorced) $F(3,150) = 0.74, p = 0.531$; academic level, $F(3, 150) = 0.95, p = 0.418$; and accommodation arrangements, $F(3, 150) = 0.15, p = 0.932$.

Findings on absence of group differences in reoffending from this sample are similar to findings from previous studies. For instance, a study by Andrew D.A et al on a gender informed Risk Need responsivity assessment asserts that as much as the gender-based assessment is important, there is no evidence that gender differences do not any clear difference in the rate of reoffending. Other risk factors have to be in place to influence the rate of reoffending.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The study looked at the risk factors of the likelihood to reoffend among inmates at Shimo la Tewa Maximum, Medium and Women prisons in Mombasa. The main goal was to examine the risk factors faced by the inmates that might have led to their incarceration and that might lead to them going back to a criminal life after release from prison. These factors were divided into personal factors, interpersonal factors and community factors. The study looked at and referred to other related studies from other researchers.

Under personal factors which include antisocial behavior, marital status, unemployment, and substance abuse, level of education, attitudes, values and technical skills among others, findings indicate that slightly more than half of the sample 82(53.2%) had gainful employment at the time of conviction and lived in their own rented houses 67(43.5%). More than two-thirds 105(68.2%) rated their families as poor in need of financial assistance and up to half reported problems with emotional stability 76(49.4%). These findings show that jail time interrupted livelihoods and created emotional instability. The study also found out that employment is the strongest predictor of the likelihood to reoffend. Lack of employment correlates highly with the rate of reoffending. Lack of employment leads to poverty and a lot of difficulty in meeting basic needs like housing, clothing and food. This may lead individuals into crime. The rate of emotional instability is also very high among inmates. This is because human beings are used to freedom and ones behind prison walls, they feel emotionally disturbed by the fact that they are unable to interact with their families and friends. Many privileges are also taken away from them and have many restrictions and regulations that they are not used to.

The other factor that the study sought to find out was the interpersonal factors of the likelihood to reoffend. This includes the relationship of the offenders with peers, friends, family, cohorts, colleagues, etc. An overwhelming number of married respondents reported unhealthy intimate relationships with their partners 65(72.2%). Findings on intimate relationships show a positive direction which indicates that unhealthy relationships are associated with higher likelihood of reoffending though insignificantly. This though is not independent but depends on other factors. An overwhelming number of married respondents reported unhealthy intimate relationships with their partners 65(72.2%). This finding suggests that marriage that act as a deterrence to criminal activities.

Under community factors, the study looked at interlinkages between individuals, their families and friends and the larger community. The findings showed a majority of the inmates did not have family and friends who currently engaged in criminal activities.95% of the respondents expressed belief in obeying the law and fewer numbers reported a history of drug and alcohol abuse. The findings indicate that alcohol and drug abuse significantly predict the likelihood to reoffend, and lower belief in obeying the law negatively and significantly predicts the likelihood to reoffend.

There were also no significant group differences in reoffending considering marital status.

A questionnaire was used to collect data from 154 inmates against a target of 174.Following COVID 19 restrictions on the facility, this was a very good response. The population at the facility was estimated to be at 1300 at the time of data collection since some offenders were released to decongest the prison facilities due to COVID-19.

5.3 Conclusions

The main aim of the study was to find out the risk factors of the likelihood to reoffend in Kenyan prisons. Inmates come from different backgrounds and face different risks at different levels.

The study concluded that different risks have a different magnitude of predicting reoffending. Employment turned out to be the highest predictor of reoffending among the inmates. Another conclusion from the study is that alcohol and drug abuse is also a high predictor of reoffending among the inmates. The study concluded that inmates who had a problem with alcohol and drug abuse were more likely to reoffend. Those who also had a law regard for the law were more likely to reoffend.

The study concluded that relations could help in deterrence of criminal activities for example those who were married were likely to be deterred by their marital status from criminal activities. On the other hand, peer pressure could also lead to coercion into criminal activities.

The study concluded that group differences in terms of gender, marital status and place of origin did not individually influence likelihood of reoffending.

5.4 Recommendations

The study was done with the intention of establishing the real risks faced by offenders in Kenyan prisons and the reason why offenders may find their way back into criminal activities after release.

The study recommends that rehabilitation programs in the prison facilities should aim at addressing the risk factors of the likelihood to reoffend. This will treat the root cause and reduce the probability of one going back to prison after release.

Employment being a major contributor in reoffending, it is recommended that an employment reentry program be put in place to help the inmates who are being released to have a platform

to start over again. Education and skill development while in prison could go a long way in placing the inmates at a higher level of employability. The skills acquired should be aligned with employment opportunities in the market.

Since alcohol and substance abuse has a high rate of the likelihood to reoffend, the study recommends that alcohol and drug treatment programs should be put in place. This will help the inmates in dealing with alcohol and drug abuse. The same programs should be available for them even after release. This will combat the likelihood to relapse into the behavior hence helping the individuals stay crime free.

Family relations were found to help in preventing crime. Family visits should be encouraged in order to keep the family ties close. This helps the inmates not to feel abandoned and unable to relate well with their families after their release.

It is also recommended that psychosocial support should be provided in order to deal with mental instability as seen in the findings. The instability could be due to the isolation, experiences in the prison facilities or experiences before imprisonment. This psychosocial support should be done professionally in order to diagnose and treat mental illnesses that may have led or may lead to reoffending in future.

The study further recommends for more research to be done on the rehabilitation programs in Kenyan prisons in relation to its effectiveness in reducing the risk levels of reoffending.

REFERENCES

- Abrifor, C. A., Atere, A. A., & Muoghalu, C. O. (2012). Gender differences, trend and pattern recidivism among inmates in selected Nigerian prisons. *European Scientific Journal*, 8(24).
- Altschuler, D. M., Armstrong, T. L., & MacKenzie, D. L. (1999). Reintegration, Supervised Release, and Intensive Aftercare. *Juvenile Justice Bulletin*. Andrews, D. A., & Bonta, J. (2010). *The psychology of criminal conduct*. Routledge.
- Andrews, D. A., & Bonta, J. (2010). Rehabilitating criminal justice policy and practice. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 16(1), 39.
- Andrews, D. Aetal. (2006). The recent past and near future of risk and/or need assessment. *Crime and Delinquency*.
- Andrews B. & Bonta I, (1998) Ex-prisoners, homelessness and the state in Australia. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology*.
- Andrews, D. A., Bonta, J., & Wormith, S. J. (2000). Level of service/case management inventory: LS/CMI. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Anyango, G. (2017). Correlates of criminal recidivism in maximum prison facilities in Kenya. *Unpublished PhD Thesis, Kenyatta University*.
- Ayuk, A. A., Chimaobi, O., Omang, T. A., & Nwankwo, E. E. (2020). Continuous ex-offenders' reformation and avoidance of recidivistic acts in Nigeria. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociology*, 9, 1631-1637.
- Bakken, B. (1993). Crime, juvenile delinquency and deterrence policy in China. *The Australian Journal of Chinese Affairs*, (30), 29-58.
- Bales, W. D., & Mears, D. P. (2008). Inmate social ties and the transition to society: Does visitation reduce recidivism? *Journal of research in crime and delinquency*, 45(3), 287-321.

Baine, P. (2014). *Tactical Procurement and Service Delivery in Local Government: A Case Study of Masaka District Local Government* (Doctoral dissertation, Uganda Martyrs University).

Bello, M. (2017). Reducing recidivism in Africa and the South African model: A legal and criminological overview. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Humanities, Legal Studies & International Relations*, 2(1).

Bloom, D., Redcross, C., Zweig, J., & Azurdia, G. (2007). Transitional jobs for ex-prisoners: Early impacts from a random assignment evaluation of the Center for Employment Opportunities Prisoner Reentry Program. *Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation Working Paper*.

Braithwaite, J. (1989). *Crime, shame and reintegration*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Broome, K.M., Knight, K., Hiller, M.L., & Simpson, D.D. (1996). Drug treatment process indicators for probationers and prediction of recidivism. *Journal of substance abuse treatment*, 13 6, 487-91.

Borzycki, M. (2005). Interventions for prisoners returning to the community: A report prepared by the Australian Institute of Criminology for the Community Safety and Justice Branch of the Australian Government Attorney-General's Department. Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology.

Borzycki, M., & Baldry, E. (2003). Promoting integration: the provision of prisoner post release services. *Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice*, (262), 1.

Benda, B. B. (2005). Gender difference in Life-Course Theory of Recidivism: A Survival *Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 49(3),287-321

Bender, K. (2018). Education opportunities in prison are key to reducing crime. *Center for American Progress*. <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/education-k-12/news/2018/03/02/447321/education-opportunities-prison-key-reducing-crime>.

- Bryman A. (2012) *Social Research Methods*: Oxford University Press.
- Bonta, J. (2002). *Offender Risk Assessment: Guidelines for Selection and Use*. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*
- Bonta, J., Pang, B., & Wallace-Capretta, S. (1995). Predictors of recidivism among incarcerated female offenders. *The Prison Journal*, 75(3), 277-294.
- Burrows, J., Clarke, A., Davison, T., Tarling, R., & Webb, S. (2001). Research into the nature and effectiveness of drugs throughcare. *Occasional Paper*, 68. vior
- Carr, M. B. & Vandiver, T. A. (2001). Risk and protective factors among youth offenders. *Adolescence*, 36(143), 409-26. PMID: 118176
- Carter, William Craig, "Social Networks and Stigmatization." (2000). *LSU Historical Dissertations and Theses*. 7249. https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_disstheses/7249
- Carlson, B. E. & Cervera, N. (1991). Inmates and their families: Conjugal visits, family contact and family functioning. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 18, 318-331
- Cochran, J. C. & Mears, D. P. (2013). Social isolation and inmate behavior: A conceptual framework for theorizing prison visitation and guiding and assessing research. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 41, 252-261.
- Conn, C., Warden, R., Stuewig, J., Kim, E. H., Harty, L., Hastings, M., & Tangney, J. P. (2010). Borderline Personality Disorder among jail inmates: How common and how distinct? *Corrections Compendium*, 35(4), 6–13.
- Cook, P. J., Kang, S., Braga, A. A. *et al.* (2015). An experimental evaluation of a comprehensive employment-oriented prisoner re-entry program. *J Quant Criminol* 31, 355–382. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10940-014-9242-5>
- Colvin, C. & Vander V. (2002) Coercion, social Support, and crime. An Emerging theoretical consensus. *Criminology*, 40, 19À42. Council of Europe.

- Cullen F.T. (1994). Social support as an organizing concept for criminology: Presidential address to the academy of criminal justice sciences, *Justice Quarterly*.
- Dadashazar, N. (2017) Offender recidivism: A qualitative study of motivational risk factors and counseling.
- Davis, C., Bashir S. J. & Ward, C. (2012). The process of offender reintegration: Perceptions of what helps prisoners reenter society. *Criminology and Criminal Justice*.
- Dissel, A. (2008). Rehabilitation and reintegration in African prisons. *Human rights in African Prison*, 89-103.
- Domes G, Mense J, Vohs K, Habermeyer E. (2013). Offenders with antisocial personality disorder show attentional bias for violence-related stimuli. *Psychiatry Res.* 30, 209(1):78-84. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2012.11.005. Epub 2012 Dec 20. PMID: 23261185.
- Dowden, C, Antonowicz. D & Andrew, D. A. (2003). The effectiveness of offender relapse prevention with offenders: A Meta-analysis. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*.
- Duwe, G., & Clark, V. (2014). The effects of prison-based educational programming on recidivism and employment. *The Prison Journal*, 94(4), 454–478.
- Fraenkel, JR and Wallen, N. E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Freeman, R. (2003). Can we close the revolving door? Recidivism vs. employment of ex-offenders in the US. Urban Institute.
- Gathu O. (2012). *Improving Prisons in Kenya*. Nairobi: Foundation Press
- Glanz, K. (1993). *Crime and delinquency*. Pretoria: Kagiso Publishers.
- Gottfredson, D. C., Najaka, S. S., & Kearley, B. (2003). Effectiveness of drug treatment courts: Evidence from a randomized trial. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 2(2), 171-196.

- Haristone, C.F. (1991). Family ties during imprisonment: Important to whom and for what? *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 87, 87-104.
- Hanson, R. K. (2006). Stability and change: Dynamic risk factors for sexual offenders. *Sexual Offender Treatment: Controversial Issues*, 17-31.
- Henslin, J.M., Possamai, A. M., Possamai-Inesedy, A. L., Marjoribanks, T. & Elder, K. (2015). *Sociology: A down to earth approach*. Frenchs Forest, New South Wales: Pearson Higher Education AU.
- James, N. (2014). Offender reentry: Correctional statistics, reintegration into the community, and recidivism. Congressional Research Service.
- Johnson, L. S., Colvin, M.W., Hanley, D., & Flannery, D.X. (2010). Victimization, social support, and psychological well-being. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 37, 1140 - 1159.
- John, O.O. (2019). Analysis of the linkage between punishment and recidivism among prisoners in Nairobi County, Kenya.
- Laisa, P. (2013). Factors influencing recidivism in Government of Kenya Prisons: The case study of Meru Prison.
- Lin, N. (1986). Social Support, Life events and Depression.
- Link, B. G. (1987). Understanding labeling effects in the area of mental disorders: An assessment of the effects of expectations of rejection. *American Sociological Review*, 96-112.
- Link, B. G., & Phelan, J. C. (2001). Conceptualizing stigma. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 27(1), 363-385.
- Mandracchia, J.T., & Morgan, R.D. (2011). Understanding criminals' thinking. *Assessment*, 18, 442 - 452.
- Luong, D., & Wormith, J. S. (2011). Applying risk/need assessment to probation practice and its impact on the recidivism of young offenders. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 38(12), 1177–1199.

- McKean, L., & Ransford, C. (2004). *Current strategies for reducing recidivism*. Chicago, IL: Center for Impact Research.
- Mak, W. W., & Cheung, R. Y. (2010). Self-stigma among concealable minorities in Hong Kong: conceptualization and unified measurement. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 80(2), 267.
- Martinez, D. J., & Abrams, L. S. (2013). Informal social support among returning young offenders: A metasynthesis of the literature. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 57(2), 169-190.
- McKean, N. (2004). Effectiveness of a mental health court in reducing criminal recidivism and violence, *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 164(9):395-403
- Mugenda, O. M. & Mugenda A. (2003) *Research methods- Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi: Acts Press.
- Nyariki, O. T., Bor, E. K. & Onsarigo, B. (2019). Effects of custodial sentence on recidivism at Shimo la Tewa Prisons in Mombasa County, Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Law and Society*, 1(2), 227-241
- Otu, M. S. (2015). Analysis of the causes and effects of recidivism in the Nigerian prison system. *International Journal of Development and Management Review*, 10(1), 136-145.
- Signe, H. A., Lars, H. A., & Peer, E. S. (2015). Effect of marriage and spousal criminality on recidivism.
- Sampson, R. J., Laub, J. H., & Wimer, C. (2006). Does marriage reduce crime? A counterfactual approach to within-individual causal effects. *Criminology*, 44(3), 465-508.
- Stephen, E. N., & Dudafa, U. J. (2016). Prisons rehabilitation programmes in Nigeria: A study of inmates' perception in Okaka prison, Bayelsa State. *Studies in Sociology of Science*, 7(6), 1-12.

Stevenson, S, Hall, G., & Innes, J.M. (2003) Sociomoral reasoning and criminal sentiments in Australian men and women violent offenders and non-offenders. *The International Journal of Forensic Psychology. 1*, 111-119

National Institute of Justice. (2014). The effect of Prison Education Programs on Recidivism. *Journal of Correctional Education*, Washington, DC.

Nyariki, O. T., Bor, E. K., & Onsarigo, B. (2019). Effects of custodial sentence on recidivism at Shimo la Tewa prisons in Mombasa County, Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Law and Society, 1*(2), 227-241.

Mowen, T. J., & Boman, J. H. (2018). The duality of the peer effect: The interplay between peer support and peer criminality on offending and substance use during reentry: *Crime & Delinquency, 64*(8), 1094–1116.

Ogula, P. A. (2005). *Research Methods*. Nairobi: CUEA Publications

Petersilia, J. (2003). *When prisoners come home. Parole and Prisoner Reentry*: New York: Oxford University Press.

Padayachee, V. (2008). Department of Correctional Services Republic of South Africa: creating paths for offender reintegration conference. *Pretoria: Hotel Kameldift East. Retrieved January, 20, 2014.*

Pogorzelski, W., Wolff, N., Pan, K. Y., & Blitz, C. L. (2005). Behavioral health problems, ex-offender reentry policies, and the “Second Chance Act”. *American Journal of Public Health, 95*(10), 1718-1724.

Redcross, C., Bloom, D., Azurdia, G., Zweig, J., and Pindus, N. (2009). Transitional jobs for ex-prisoners: Implementation, two-year impacts, and costs of the Center for Employment Opportunities (CEO) prisoner reentry program. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

- Travis, J, et al (2014). *the growth of incarceration in the United States: Exploring causes and consequences*. Washington: The National Academies Press.
- Trotter, C. (2006). *Working with involuntary clients: a guide to practice*. (2nd Ed) Bookhouse, Sydney: University of Portsmouth.
- Ugwuoke K.A. (2011). The challenges that ex-prisoners face upon release from prison in Akwa-Ibom State, Nigeria
- Valera, P., Brotzman, L., Wilson, W., & Reid, A. (2017). “It’s hard to reenter when you’ve been locked out”: Keys to offender reintegration. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation*, 56(6), 412-431.
- Visher, C. A., & Travis, J. (2003). Transitions from prison to community: Understanding individual pathways. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 29(1), 89-113.
- Visher, C. A., Lattimore, P. K., Barrick, K., & Tueller, S. (2017). Evaluating the long-term effects of prisoner reentry services on recidivism: What types of services matter? *Justice Quarterly*, 34(1), 136-165.
- Visher, C. A., Kachnowski, V., La Vigne, N. G., & Travis, J. (2004). *Baltimore prisoners' experiences returning home*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.
- Visher, C. A., Winterfield, L., & Coggeshall, M. B. (2005). Ex-offender employment programs and recidivism: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 1(3), 295-316
- Tripodi, S. J. (2010). The influence of social bonds on recidivism: A study of Texas male prisoners. *Victims & Offenders*, 5(4), 354-370.
- Yukhnenko, D, Sridhar, S., & Fazel S.A. (2020). A systematic review of criminal recidivism rates worldwide: 3-year update. *Wellcome Open Res.* 3(4)28. doi: 10.12688/wellcomeopenres.14970.3. PMID: 31544154; PMCID: PMC6743246.
- Zgoba, K. M., & Salerno, L. M. (2017). A three-year recidivism analysis of state correctional releases. *Criminal Justice Studies*, 30(4), 331-345.

Zondi, C. Z. (2012). Community participation in community correction operation and offender re-integration. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education*.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire for the Inmates

The information you give here will be treated as confidential for it is meant for study purpose.

There is no wrong or right answer, all answers are accepted. Please answer the questions by ticking or filling the space provided. Thank you.

1. Gender. Male Female
2. Age group. Below 40 years 40 -50 years Over 50 years
3. Highest academic qualification? Primary Secondary College
University
4. Are you: Single Married Divorced Separated
If yes, before you were jailed:
Were you satisfied with your marriage? No Yes
Did you have frequent arguments with your partner? No Yes
Were you sexually satisfied? No Yes
Had you experienced infidelity from your partner? No Yes
Had you had problems with taking care of children? No Yes
Had you ever had fights about money with your partner? No Yes
Had you had problems with in-laws or partner's parents? No Yes
Had your partner/family had problems about your choice of friends? No
Yes
Did you have arguments over ex-partners? No Yes
Had you had arguments about your use of leisure time? No Yes
5. Which area do you come from? Rural Urban

6. Have you ever been jailed before (before the current sentence)? No
- Yes
- If yes, were you under the age of 18 that time? No Yes
7. Before the current jail sentence, were you employed? No Yes
8. Does your family require any form of financial assistance? No Yes
9. Does your family have sufficient money to live on? No Yes
10. Do you experience stress over the individual problems of your partner? No Yes
11. Do you have difficulty with openness, warmth, or intimacy? Yes No
12. How is your relationship with your parents? Good [] Not sure [] Not good []
13. How is your relationship with other relatives? Good [] Not sure [] Not good []
14. Has anyone in your family, including spouse and close relatives, been jailed before? No Yes
15. How do you spend your free time? Alone [] With friends []
16. What kind of accommodation did you have before jail? Rented house [] Own house [] Homeless [] Family (parents') house []
17. How many close friends do you have? None [] 1-5 [] Over 5 []
18. Do you know any of your friends who is involved in crime? No Yes
19. Have you ever had an alcohol addiction? No Yes
20. Have you ever had a drug addiction? No Yes
21. Do you have any concerns about your emotional stability? No Yes
22. How do you feel about the crime you've committed? I feel remorse [] I feel no remorse []

23. Do you think it was wrong to commit the crime? No [] Yes []
24. Do you feel sympathy for the victims of your crime? No [] Yes []
25. Would you like to lead a life without crime in future? No [] Yes []
26. Do you believe in obeying the law? No [] Yes []
27. Do you think your jail sentence was appropriate and fair? No [] Yes []

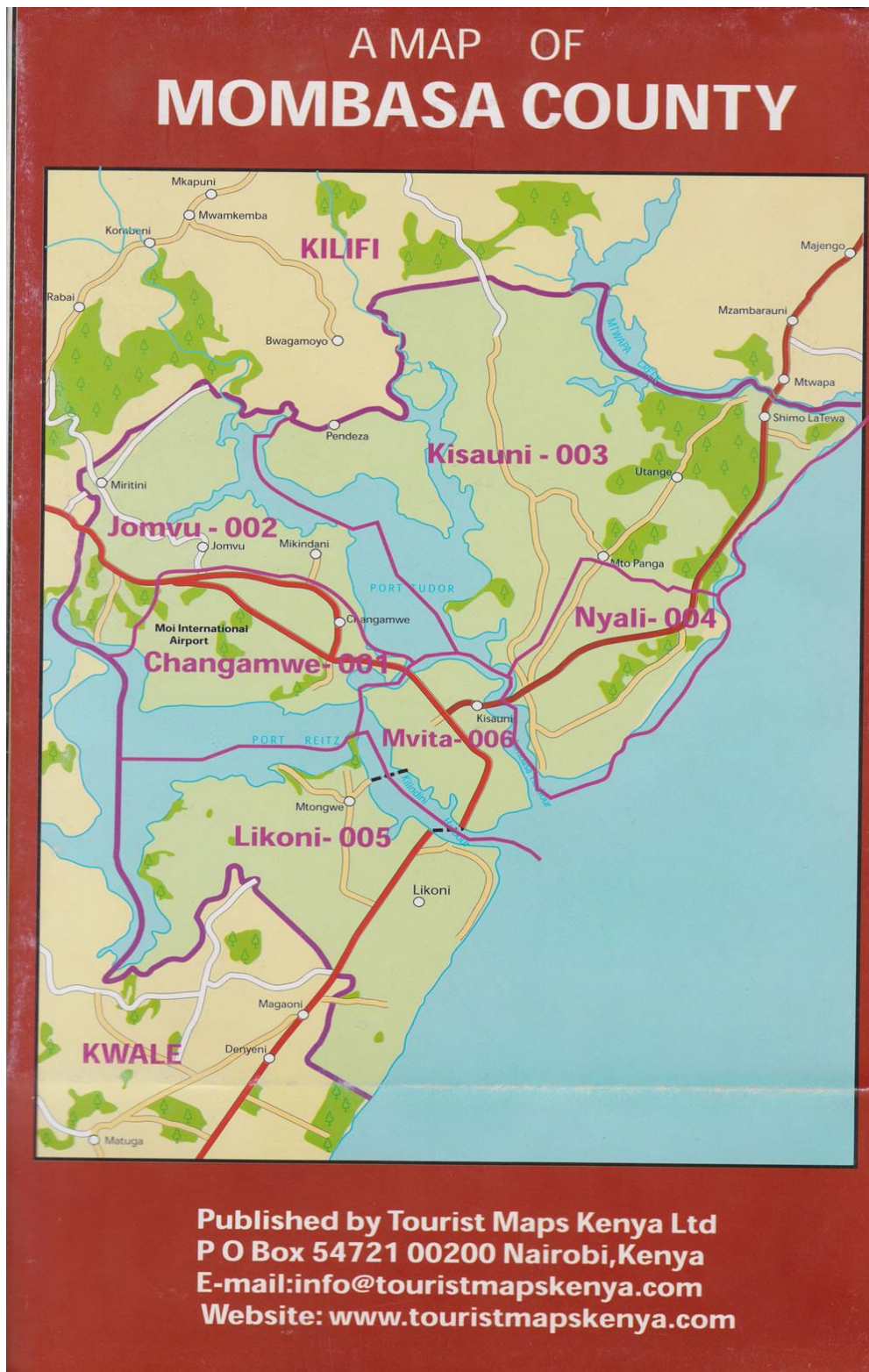
Appendix B: Work Plan

Task	August	September	September	October	November
Proposal Defense					
Data collection					
Data analysis					
Finalizing on research project paper					
Research Defense					
Submission of final copy					

Appendix C. Budget

Details	Quantities	Cost (Ksh)
Stationery:		
Pens & notebooks	40	3,200
Printing & binding:	3	4,500
Permits:		
NACOSTI	1	1000
Questionnaire Photocopy – 3pages	174	1000
Telecommunication	6 months	3000
Internet	6 months	22,000
Travel to Shimo la Tewa Prisons	3 months	10,000
Refreshments & meals	1 month	3,000
Contingency amount		5,000
Total cost		52700

Appendix D: Map of Mombasa County



Appendix E: NACOSTI License

Republic of Kenya
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
Ref No: 561027

RESEARCH LICENSE



This is to Certify that **Ms. PRISCA CHEBET** of **University of Nairobi**, has been licensed to conduct research in Mombasa on the topic: **RISK FACTORS OF THE LIKELIHOOD TO RE-OFFEND AMONG INMATES IN KENYAN PRISONS. THE CASE OF SHIMO LA TEWA PRISONS; for the period ending 11/November/2022.**

License No: NACOSTI/P/20/14216

Applicant Identification Number: 561027

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code



NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

Appendix F: Prisons research authorization



THE PRESIDENCY
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Telephone: Mombasa 2311201
Tel. 0715 040444

COUNTY COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE
P.O. BOX 90424-80100
MOMBASA

Email: mombasacountycommissioner@koenya.com
When Replying please quote:

Ref. no. **MCC/ADM.25 VOL.III/141**

27th September, 2021

County Prisons Officer,
MOMBASA COUNTY

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This is to authorize Prisca Chebet of ID No.22893530 from University of Nairobi, Mombasa campus to carry out a research on "**Risk factors of the likelihood to re-offend among inmates, the case of Shimo La Tewa Prisons**".

Please accord her the necessary support.

G. B. KITIYO, MBS
COUNTY COMMISSIONER
MOMBASA COUNTY

C.C.

County Director of Education,
MOMBASA