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Effects of Imprisonment on Inmates at Industrial Area Remand and Lang'ata Women Prisons in Kenya

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Abstract: This study is an evaluation of the Social, Economic, Psychological, Physical and Health effects of imprisonment on male and female inmates in Industrial Area Remand and Lang'ata Women's prisons in Kenya. It is anchored on the classical theory of punishment which explains crime as a rational behaviour that individuals enter into knowing that action is a choice between pleasure and pain. It is descriptive in nature and uses both probability and non-probability sampling procedures to select 34 male and 24 female respondents. It employs both qualitative (personal interviews) and quantitative (both open ended and closed questions) methods for data collection. Results show that the effects of imprisonment vary on age, gender, marital status, occupation, and parental status of the respondents and duration of confinement. Male inmates aged 51-60 years and female respondents aged 18-25 years are assaulted most. All inmates serving long sentences suffer psychological effects more compared to those serving less sentences. More than 87% female inmates (especially the married, separated or widowed) and 73% male inmates (especially the single or separated) are affected psychologically. The study recommends that the prison authorities increase the number of times prisoners can be visited so as to reduce mental stress on inmates; that prisoners of the same age group should be housed together to discourage victimization of elderly inmates; and the recruitment of more medical personnel and professional counselors who would take prisoners through the harsh reality of imprisonment.

Key words: Imprisonment, Psychological effects, Social effects, Economic effects, Health effects, Kenya.

I. Introduction

Numerous studies have been carried out on the need to reform the Kenya penal system majorly on how best to rehabilitate the prisoners, but hardly has any explored the impact of such factors like delinking with family members, and the economic, psychological, health, and physical effects of imprisonment hamper the rehabilitation of prisoners to become good citizens. Granted, imprisonment is the most preferred type of punishment meted by the courts. But imprisonment has some effects on the lives of prisoners and these effects determine whether prisoners can reform for the better or relapse to a life of crime once they are set free. According to the latest survey, the number of prisoners in Kenya is 115,700 (BBC, 2014), but this figure continues to increase not primarily because crime is on the rise but partly because ex-convicts persist to live a criminal life (Mushanga, 1976). This paper is a report of a study that was done in 2012 in Kenyas Industrial Area Remand and Lang'ata Women prisons to establish the toll that imprisonment has on the inmates.

Muga (1975) carried out a study on 909 robbers in Kenya and found that robbers who escape the dragnets of law enforcement repeat their robberies many times. The study further observed that there was 58.2% rate of recidivism meaning that 529 out of the 909 robbers re-offended, and most recidivists committed robbery with violence two times more (Muga, 1975). But why do ex-prisoners get back to crime? Johnson (1996) argues that a person feels the pain of moral rejection whenever he imprisoned. The prisoner feels untrustworthy and he therefore cannot mingle with other citizens who view him as an outcast and capable of re-offending once he is released back to the community (Visher, 2007) because of his continued association with other offenders (Ngando, 1978). Haney and Lynch (1997) further argue that people who have been jailed for a lengthy period of time become extremely uncomfortable when their previous freedom and autonomy is returned; with time the prisoners get used to prison life and begin to feel that life in prison is more desirable than life outside the prison (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995).

However, prisoners are drawn from the society and some of the convicts could probably have been employed while others could have been employers; but they can no longer undertake their daily chores once they are imprisoned, and this affects their esteem (Johnson, 1996), and erodes their job skills (Kling, 1999). However, studies by the Centre for Crime and Justice Studies in London show that it is not possible to rehabilitate offenders who are jailed for less than six months considering that some of these prisoners lose their jobs, or even homes and families during their time under custody (Centre for Crime and Justice Studies – London, 2010).

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Zimbardo (1971) lead a team of researchers at Stanford University to find out the psychological effects of becoming a prisoner or prison guard in the United States of America. The experiment revealed that many prisoners developed passive attitudes and accepted physical abuse and, at the request of the guards, readily inflicted punishment on other prisoners who attempted to stop it. In his view on crime Durkheim states that feelings of morality and belonging are core features in society. Prisoners live in fear and solitude because of the power that wardens have on them and those who do not tow their line are bludgeoned and assaulted by the wardens. Similar findings were reported in Kenya in 2004 from an inquest carried out upon the death of dozens of prisoners at Nyeri Maximum Prison in 2000.

The nature of prisons in Kenya and the impact they have on prisoners could possibly be understood by looking at how they have evolved since independence. The Kenya Prisons was established though an act of parliament in 1962 and derives its mandate from Prisons Act Chapter 90 and Borstal Act Chapter 92. The country was still a British Colony but upon independence the Kenya government did not both to change the prisons structures to reflect jails that would take care of a free people, and instead retained oppressive, punitive and racial practices based on pure law and order (Abreo, 1972). This paper evaluates the sociological, psychological, economic, health and physical impacts of imprisonment in Industrial Remand and Lang'ata Women Prisons in Kenya.

II. Literature Review

2.1 Effects of Imprisonment on Prisoners

The need to have an open door policy in prisons so as to allow prisoners to interact with members of the community in order to lessen the effects of confinement has been emphasised by Jones and Crones (1977). Studies have shown that prisoners who are not visited tend to live a lonely life and this loneliness gives them less chance for social support when things go wrong (Berg and McQuinn, 1989). However, psychological effects of incarceration vary from individual to individual and few prisoners are completely unchanged or unscathed by the experience. Prison is painful and imprisoned persons often suffer long-term consequences from being subjected to pain and deprivation (Haney and Lynch, 1997).

To start with the prisoner's personal identity is eroded once he starts wearing uniforms as this reminds him that he is not himself but rather he is part of the whole (Cragg, 1992). The prisoners are thus socialized into the life of prison through the incorporation of the norms of prison life into one's habits of thinking, feeling, and acting (Sheldon and Gresham, 1970; Haney and Lynch, 1997). Among the many lessons they 'learn' while in custody is to be tough. In his conversation with a prisoner named Jack Abbott, Tosh (1982) learned that everyone in prison lives in a state of emotional and psychological fear which requires every inmate to threaten another because if they do not do so they will not escape being threatened by others. And while conducting a study in a Tennessee maximum security prison, McCorkle (1992) observed that nearly three-quarters of the inmates had been forced to "get tough" with one another in order to avoid victimization; and that more than a quarter of the inmates kept weapons nearby to defend themselves.

Indeed prisoners are also socially victimised through verbal manipulation, change of social structure and physical environment which leads to feelings of helplessness and depression. The disruption of their life leads to breakdown in social relationships, a damaged self-image, self-mutilation and emergence of suicidal tendencies (Tosh, 1982). Some prisoners feel that the degraded prison conditions serve to remind them of their compromised social and stigmatized status which leads to a diminished sense of self-worth and personal value (Haney and Lynch, 1997).

Tosh (1982) describe the physical effects of imprisonment as assault, homicide and homosexual rape. Sex is used as a power weapon in the prison environment but only in male prisons because similar encounters in female prisons are mostly voluntary homosexual liaisons. Since the prisoners have been victims of judicial power and the total authoritarian regime of imprisonment, they reciprocate by regarding power as the highest personal value (Heilpern, 1998). Tosh says that such acts take place due to inadequate supervision by wardens coupled with easy availability of weapons in prisons. He further asserts that the situation is made worse when violent prone prisoners are housed in close proximity to relatively defenseless victims.

Research also suggests that significant collateral costs of imprisonment exist with regard to health issues. Studies conducted by Hunt et al. (2004); Dolan et al. (2007) indicate that blood borne infections like HIV/AIDS and Hepatitis C are common infections in United States' prisons. The Commission on Safety and Abuse in America's Prisons (2006) also reports that prisoners suffer from mental health problems which are often undiagnosed; they also suffer from chronic conditions such as diabetes and hypertension. The commission also lamented that overcrowding in prisons and lack of resources meant that the health of prisoners is aggravated by imprisonment. Klein et al. (2004) also quotes the 2004 UNDP State of Health to show that similar conditions exist in Russian prisons where convicts are exposed to extremely high-risk environment which made Russian prisons to be described as "HIV incubators".

2.2 How do Prisoners Cope with Imprisonment?

Researchers of prison life have answered this question in various ways but they are in agreement that different prisoners develop different coping mechanisms depending on how the above factors affect their stay in prison (Tosh, 1982). Research has established that the age of a prisoner has a great role in the level of psychological effects of imprisonment. Tosh and Adams (1989) observed that prisoners aged twenty five or below are initially more resistant to the prison structure which makes them more likely to become targets of victimisation in comparison to older prisoners.

McCorkle (1992) agrees with the above position and says that age is the best predictor of the type of adaptation a prisoner takes and younger inmates are likely to employ aggressive avoidance strategies than older ones. Bartol & Bartol (1994) assert that an individual inmate is affected psychologically by the time he spends in confinement. The more the period of confinement, the harsher the psychological effects of imprisonment. Zamble and Proporino (1988) studied coping strategies of Canadian inmates during the early stages of their sentence and found that emotional disruptions and adjustments caused by many restrictions, deprivations and constraints inherent in prisons were problems for most prisoners.

Many studies have also established that homosexual rape and assaults are commonly found in male prisons whereas voluntary homosexual liaisons are dominant in female prisons (Heilpern, 1998). Many researchers think that the latter abound because female inmates provide much needed emotional support through extended play families. Thus the fear of homosexuality in non-consensual environment of male prisons makes male inmates suffer more psychological effects than their female counterparts (Johnson and Struckman-Johnson, 2002; Alarid, 2000).

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This research is based explained by the classical theory of punishment which has roots from works of human behaviour analysis by classical theorists like Cesare Beccaria and Jeremy Bentham in the 18th Century. Classical theory suggests that an individual who breaks the law does so with rational free will while understanding the effects of their actions and henceforth the society is obliged to enforce a punishment commensurate to the offence.

However in her celebrated work On Crimes and Punishments, Beccaria suggested that the punishments placed on criminal acts should also be rational; and the severity of the crime should determine the kind of punishment meted on the offender, and that punishment should produce greater pain than the pleasure enjoyed during the act (Muncie, 2004). According to Beccaria, the state is responsible for maintaining order and preserving the common good through a system of laws; and certainty of punishment is the key elements in understanding a law's ability to control human behaviour. The results of this research which are tabulated in section 4 indicate that prisoners made a free choice to engage in punishable offences and have borne the brunt of imprisonment.

III. Methodology

3.1 Site Description

The study was conducted in two prisons; Industrial Area Remand and Lang'ata Women's Prisons. Both prisons are in the County of Nairobi. Industrial Area Remand Prison is a penal institution for male inmates and is located at the edge of Nairobi industrial area 2km from the city center. It accommodates 3000 male inmates (those on remand and those serving their sentences) majority of them being persons facing minor crime charges. The prison also houses several hundred suspects charged with capital offenses like armed robbery and assault using dangerous weapons. Out of the 3000 male inmates, only 600 inmates were serving their sentences with the rest being on remand. Lang'ata Women's Prison is a maximum-security facility located 10km on the southern outskirts of Nairobi. At the time of the study the prison population stood at 600 female inmates 400 of them serving various sentences and 200 being on remand. They were in jail because for crimes ranging from robbery, theft, neglecting children and even murder. Inmates with children under four years are allowed to live with them in special cells for mothers.

3.2 Sampling Procedures and Sample Size

The research used both probability and non-probability sampling to select 36 inmates from Industrial Area Remand Prison and 24 inmates from Lang'ata Women prison. At the time of the research Industrial Area Remand Prison had a population of 600 inmates while Lang'ata Women prison had 400 inmates. The research intended to use a total of 60 respondents and given the population of the two prisons the researcher used proportional sampling by multiplying the total number of units in each stratum by the intended sample size and then dividing that by the total number of units in the entire universe to get: Male inmates: $600 \times 60/1000 = 36$

Female inmates: $400 \times 60/1000 = 24$

Using systematic random sampling the researcher then selected a suitable sample from each of the strata. The individual participants in the Industrial Area Remand Prison were selected by dividing the number of the 600 male inmates with the desired sample size of 36 respondents making 16 prisoners in each division. Through the help of prison officials the researcher randomly selected a participant from among the 16 according to the roll numbers in the prison register. The exercise was repeated at Lang'ata Women's Prison till a total of 24 female inmates were identified.

Table 1: Sample Population

Strata	Population Size	Sample Size
Male	600	34
Female	400	24
Total	1000	58

Source: Research Data 2012

In the course of the research 2 male respondents opted out of the research thus reducing the number of male respondents to 34. However the research still attained a 96.7% response rate which is very excellent for a field research.

Table 2: Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	34	58.6
Female	24	41.4
Total	58	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

3.3 Data Collection and Sources of Data

The study administered a questionnaire containing both open ended and closed questions to gather primary information concerning the effects of imprisonment on inmates. The research was particularly concerned in collecting data pertaining to the perceptions of prisoners concerning the effects of imprisonment on their lives in prison and beyond. Secondary data was retrieved from the prison's occurrence book and other official prison records and documents.

3.4 Data analysis :Data generated from the close ended questions was analyzed quantitatively using SPSS software presented in tables as shown in the next section.

IV. Results

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 3 below shows that 64.7% male respondents were below 40 years with the category of 26-40 years inmates constituting 50% of the prisoners. Similarly female respondents in the age bracket 26-40 years constituted 62.5% compared to 29.2% respondents who were 18-25 years, and 4.2% for each among respondents aged 41-50 and above 60 years. Thus, in total, 91.7% of the female respondents were below 40 years (table 4).

Table 3: Age of Male Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18-25	5	14.7
26-40	17	50.0
41-50	8	23.5
51-60	3	8.8
60 and above	1	2.9
Total	34	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

Table 4: Age of the Female Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18-25	7	29.2
26-40	15	62.5
41-50	1	4.2
60 and above	1	4.2
Total	24	100.0

An overwhelming number of the male respondents 88.2% were married compared to 2.95% who were separated and 8.8% who were single (table 5). Some 54.2% of the female respondents compared to 29.2% who were married. Only 4.2% and 12.5% of the female respondents were separated and widowed respectively (table 6).

Table 5: Marital Status of the Male Respondents

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Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage	
Married	30	88.2	
Single	3	8.8	
Separated	1	2.9	
Total	58	100.0	

Source: Research Data 2012

Table 6: Marital Status of the Female Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	7	29.2
Single	13	54.2
Separated	1	4.2
Widowed	3	12.5
Total	24	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

About 94.1% male respondents were parents while the rest did not have children. Again 83.3% female respondents were parents compared to 16.7% who were not. Some 47.1% male respondents had college level education compared to 35.3% with secondary level education. An overwhelming 91.7% female respondent had some formal education with 54.2% of them having completed primary level and another 33.3% having completed secondary school level. And 79.4% male respondents said they were Christians compared to 5.9% who said they were Muslims and 14.7% who claimed to be traditionalists or of no religion; 87.5% female respondents said they were Christians compared to 12.5% who said they were Muslims.

Some 41.2% male respondents worked in the service and skilled labour jobs, 32.4%, were in professional and managerial, 14.7% were in clerical jobs, while 2.9% were in unskilled labour and 8.8% were unemployed. However 50% of female respondents were in the unskilled labour followed closely by 45.8% in service and skilled labour while 4.25% were unemployed.

4.2 Imprisonment of the Respondents

4.2.1 Types of Offences Committed by Respondents

The types of crimes committed by the two genders are summarized in tables 7 and 8. Table 7 shows that there were about 15 crimes that were regularly committed by male respondents. Murder was the most common at 14.7% followed by manslaughter, obtaining money by false pretence and stealing, at 11.8% each. Stealing was the most frequently committed offence by female respondents at 19% closely followed by murder at 13.8% with the least common offences being improper use of telecommunication gadgets, possession of illicit brews and selling liquor before hours, all at 1.7% (table 8).

Table 7: Types of Offences Committed by Male Respondents

Types of Offences	Frequency	Percentage
Assault	1	2.9
Attempted Defilement	1	2.9
Attempted Murder	1	2.9
Defilement	2	5.9
Drug Trafficking	2	5.9
Impersonation	2	5.9
Malicious Damage to Property	1	2.9
Manslaughter	4	11.8
Murder	5	14.7
Obtaining money by false pretence	4	11.8
Rape	1	2.9
Robbery with Violence	3	8.8
Stealing	4	11.8
Theft by Servant	1	2.9
Theft of Motor Vehicles	2	5.9
Total	34	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

Table 8: Types of Offences Committed by Female Respondents

Types of Offences	Frequency	Percentage
Assault	2	3.4
Impersonation	3	5.2
Improper use of Telecommunication Gadget	1	1.7
Loitering	2	3.4
Murder	8	13.8
Neglecting Child	5	8.6
Obtaining money by false pretence	5	8.6
Possession of illicit brew	1	1.7
Robbery with Violence	4	6.9
Selling liquor before hours	1	1.7
Stealing	11	19.0
Total	58	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

4.2.2 Period of Confinement of the Respondents

Majority male respondents (88.2%) were serving sentences not exceeding 3 years, compared to 11.8% respondents serving 4-7 years (table 9). Among the female inmates 87.5% were serving sentences below 3 years compared to 4.2% confined for 4-7 years, and 8.3% who were imprisoned for more than 10 years 9 (table 10).

Table 9: Period of Confinement of the Male Respondents

Period of confinement	Frequency	Percentage
0-3 Years	30	88.2
4-7 Years	4	11.8
Total	34	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

Table 10: Period of Confinement of the Female Respondents

Period of confinement	Frequency	Percentage
0-3 Years	21	87.5
4-7 Years	1	4.2
Above 10 Years	2	8.3
Total	24	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

4.3 Social Effects of Imprisonment

4.3.1 Contact with family

Among the 34 male respondents in this study 29(85.3%) reported that they receive regular visits from their family members and friends compared to 5 (14.7%) who said they did not receive visits. Some 75% female respondents also said they received regular visits from their families compared to 25% who said they did not have contact from family members and friends. Again 27 (79.4%) respondents said they had not been abandoned by their family members compared to 7 (20.6%) who said they had been abandoned by family members since incarceration. The number of female prisoners not abandoned by family members stood at 70.8% compared to 29.2% who had been abandoned by their families. Some 3.4% male respondents indicated they received visitors every fortnight compared to 65.5% who said they received visitors every month, and ompared 13.8% who received visitors every quarter, another 13.8% who received visitors on a bi-annual, whereas 3.4% received visitors once a year (table 11). Similarly 38.9% female respondents said they were visited fortnightly, another 38.9% said they were visited on a monthly basis, 11.1% were visited on a quarterly basis, while 5.6% each were visited on a bi-annual and on annual basis respectively (table 12).

Table 11: Frequency of visitation of Male Respondents

Frequency of visitation	Frequency	Percentage
Fortnightly	1	3.4
Monthly	19	65.5
Quarterly	4	13.8
Bi-annually	4	13.8
Annually	1	3.4
Total	29	100.0

Table 12: Frequency of visitation of Female Respondents

Frequency of visitation	Frequency	Percentage
Fortnightly	7	38.9
Monthly	7	38.9
Quarterly	2	11.1
Bi-annually	1	5.6
Annually	1	5.6
Total	18	100.0

Source: Research Data 2012

4.4 Economic Effects of Imprisonment

All professional/managerial and unskilled labour male prisoners told this research that their occupations were affected by imprisonment. Similarly 80% male prisoners who were clerks and 92.9% working in service industry had their occupations affected by imprisonment. On the other hand all female respondents working in various sectors said their occupations affected by imprisonment. This compared well with findings from a similar study conducted by the Centre for Crime and Justice Studies, London in 2010, which showed that most offenders ended up losing their jobs, homes and even families upon imprisonment.

4.5 Psychological Effects of Imprisonment

Our literature review touched on a study by Bartol & Bartol (1994) which found that prisoners are psychologically affected by the time they spend in confinement, and the psychological effects get more severe once the confinement period gets longer. Prisoners suffer psychologically because of dramatic disruptions to their lives that arise due to restrictions, deprivations and constraints that characterise prisons.

A cross tabulation between the period of confinement and psychological effects of the prisoners revealed that 25 out of the 34 male respondents under study were psychologically affected by imprisonment as opposed to 9 respondents who were not. More than 73% male respondents who had been confined for up to three years were psychologically affected compared to 75% respondents confined between 4-7 years (table 13). Again all male respondents who were either single or separated expressed that they had been affected psychologically by imprisonment. Twenty one out of thirty married male respondents (or 70%) were psychologically affected by imprisonment. All male respondents in the clerical and unskilled labour indicated that they were psychologically affected by imprisonment compared to 66.7% of the unemployed, 63.6% professional and managerial, and 71.4% among the service and skilled labour.

Data on female prisoners showed that 21 out of 24 female respondents were psychologically affected by imprisonment as opposed to 3 respondents. The study established that 100% female respondents serving more than 10 years and those who had served between 4-7 years were the most psychologically affected by imprisonment. Also 87.5% female respondents sentenced for 3 years and below were psychologically affected (table 14). All female respondents that were married, separated or widowed reported that they were psychologically affected compared to 76.9% single female respondents. All female respondents in the service and skilled occupation and the unemployed were psychologically affected by imprisonment, compared to 75% of the unskilled.

Table 13: Psychological Effects due to confinement among Male Respondents

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Respondent Period of Confinement * Psychologically Affected Cross tabulation						
			Psychologically	Psychologically Affected		
			Yes	No		
Period of confinement	0-3 Years	Count	22	8	30	
		Percentage	73.3%	26.7%	100.0%	
	4-7 Years	Count	3	1	4	
		Percentage	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	
Total		Count	25	9	34	
		Percentage	73.5%	26.5%	100.0%	

Table 14: Psychological Effects due to Confinement among Female Respondents

Respondent Period of Confinement * Psychologically Affected Cross tabulation						
			Psychologically Affected		Total	
			Yes	No		
Period of confinement	0-3 Years	Count	18	3	21	
		Percentage	85.7%	14.3%	100.0%	
	4-7 Years	Count	1	0	1	
		Percentage	100.0%	.0%	100.0%	
	Above 10	Count	2	0	2	
	Years	Percentage	100.0%	.0%	100.0%	
Total	•	Count	21	3	24	
		Percentage	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%	

Source: Research Data 2012

4.6 Physical Effects of Imprisonment

One of the drawbacks of Kenyan prison system is that inmates are not fully segregated according to the crimes they were jailed for, implying that violent inmates are accommodated with non-violent ones. Tosh (1982) observed that assault in prisons is more frequent when violent prisoners are housed in close proximity to relatively defenseless victims. A follow-up study by Tosh in 1989 showed that prisoners below 25 are normally targets of victimisation. This research found a not similar pattern as it established that 33.3% of the male respondents who had been assaulted were between 51 and 60 years, and none of the male respondents below 25 had been assaulted (table 15). On the overall 17.6% of the male respondents were assaulted in the Industrial Area Prison. However in regard to female inmates, the study was more or less similar to that of Tosh (1989) as it established that 28.6% of the female respondents between 18 and 25 years had been assaulted followed closely by those between 26 and 40 years (26.7%). None of the female respondents aged above 41 years had been assaulted (table 16). Only 25% of the female respondents reported to have been assaulted.

Table 15: Physical Effects of Imprisonment vs Age of Male Respondents

Age of Respondents * Assaulted Cross tabulation						
			Assaulted		Total	
			Yes	No	7	
Respondents Age	18-25	Count	0	5	5	
		Percentage	.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	26-40	Count	4	13	17	
		Percentage	23.5%	76.5%	100.0%	
	41-50	Count	1	7	8	
		Percentage	12.5%	87.5%	100.0%	
	51-60	Count	1	2	3	
		Percentage	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%	
	> 60	Count	0	1	1	
		Percentage	.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Total	•	Count	6	28	34	
		Percentage	17.6%	82.4%	100.0%	

Source: Research Data 2012

Table 16: Physical Effects of Imprisonment vs Age of Female Respondents

	A	ge of Respondents * Assau	ulted Cross tabulation		
			Assaulted		Total
			Yes	No	1
Respondents Age	18-25	Count	2	5	7
		Percentage	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	26-40	Count	4	11	15
		Percentage	26.7%	73.3%	100.0%
	41-50	Count	0	1	1
		Percentage	.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	60 and	Count	0	1	1
	above	Percentage	.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	6	18	24
		Percentage	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%

4.7 Health Effects of Imprisonment

The Commission on Safety and Abuse in America's Prisons (2006) found that prisoners suffer from mental health problems which are often not diagnosed. They also suffer from chronic conditions such as diabetes and hypertension, partly due to overcrowding and lack of resources to prevent the occurrence of the diseases. This research also showed that 47.1% male respondents and 70.8% of the female respondents suffered from poor health due to imprisonment.

Table 17: Respondents affected health-wise

Male Affected	Frequency	%	Female Affected	Frequency	%
Yes	16	47.1	Yes	17	70.8
No	18	52.9	No	7	29.2
Total	34	100	Total	24	100

Source: Research Data 2012

V. Summary and Conclusions

A study carried out by Jones and Crones (1977) established that inmates who are not visited by family members feel abandoned which leads to stress and depression and a feeling of rejection. The same study showed that there is need for an open door policy in prisons to allow for prisoners to interact with members of the community so as to lessen the effects of prison life. Berg and McQuinn (1989) also found that inmates who are not visited tend to live a lonely life and that the greater their loneliness, the less the chance for getting social support when things go out of hand.

Our research found that out of the 34 male respondents 7 (20.6%) of them had been abandoned by family members. Similarly some 29.2% female members reported that they had been abandoned by their families. The sentence toll was heavy on all male respondents who were either single or separated although 70% married male respondents confirmed that they were also psychologically affected by imprisonment.

The occupations of all female respondents and all professional/managerial and unskilled labour, 80% clerks and 92.9% male respondents working in service industry were affected by imprisonment. Some 25 out of 34 male respondents were psychologically affected by imprisonment. All clerical and unskilled labour compared to 66.7% of the unemployed, 63.6% professional and managerial, and 71.4% service and skilled labour male employees said they were psychologically affected by imprisonment. The duration of imprisonment was crucial among female inmates as all female respondents serving more than 10 years and those who had served between 4-7 years were most psychologically affected by imprisonment. All married, separated or widowed female respondents compared to 76.9% single reported that they were psychologically affected by imprisonment. All female respondents in the service and skilled occupation and the unemployed compared to 75% of the unskilled were psychologically affected by imprisonment.

The research also established that 33.3% male respondents between 51 and 60 years had been assaulted whereas none of those below 25 suffered any brutality. On the overall only 17.6% male respondents jailed in the Industrial Area Prison were assaulted. However 28.6% female respondents between 18 and 25 years and 26.7% between 26 and 40 years serving sentences at the Lang'ata Women Prison had been assaulted. On the overall 25% of the female respondents reported to have been assaulted.

Finally this research established that 47.1% male respondents and 70.8% female respondents suffered from poor health due to imprisonment.

VI. Recommendations

The study recommends the prison welfare office to facilitate adequate communication between prisoners and members of their so as reduce the level of anxiety among inmates and hence lessen the psychological effects of imprisonment. However care should be ensured that criminals do not communicate with other criminals at large and therefore escalate crime in the country.

The study also recommends that the prison department through partnership with non-governmental organisations and other stakeholders hires more counselors to counsel the stressed and depressed inmates.

The prison department should also equip the prison clinics with adequate staff, equipment and medicine so as to provide effective healthcare to the inmates.

The prison department should also consider segregating inmates according to their age groups so as to minimize the molestations of elderly prisoners.

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