

**INFLUENCE OF ECONOMIC HARDSHIP ON TYPES OF VIOLENT CRIMES  
AMONG PRISONERS IN UASIN GISHU COUNTY, KENYA**

**BY**

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved parents Mr. Boaz K. Bett and Mrs. Phoebe J. Bett.

God rest their souls in eternal place.

### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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## ABSTRACT

In Kenya, violent crimes and economic hardship have increased positively during the last ten years and yet little data is available to explicate this connection. Violent crimes pose a threat to the individuals and groups, and impacts negatively on social, economic and political developments of many countries. They also tend to be the most feared than any other criminal typology and the factors associated with it yet remain unclear. Most crimes often end up in violence. The study aimed to understand the actual indicators of economic hardship that are responsible for this increase, especially during periods of economic downturn. It endeavored to find out the influence of economic hardship on types of violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County by identifying the types of violent crimes and establishing whether economic difficulties in making ends meet may be associated with violent crimes. Further, the study investigated whether frustration, fear, and anger are linked to types of violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County. Violent crimes studied included murder, rape, robbery, assault, and domestic violence. The study hypothesis stated that there is no significant relationship between difficulty in making ends meet and the types of violent crimes and that there is no significant relationship between levels of frustration, fear and anger among violent offenders and the types of violent crimes. The study was limited to adult violent crime offenders at Eldoret Main and Ngeria Farm Government of Kenya Prisons. Literature was reviewed following objectives, themes, and contents where necessary. Social Disorganization theory and Frustration- Aggression theory were adopted by the study. Descriptive research design was employed to collect data. From a target population comprising of 501 offenders, 217 prisoners were randomly sampled. Both key informant interview guide and structured questionnaire were administered to the representative sample. Data was collected and presented in percentages and links between variables established by use of Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) and Pearson Correlation analysis at 0.05 level of significance. The study found that there was a significant relationship between educational status and type of violent crimes ( $p=0.000$ ); occupational status and type of violent crimes ( $p=0.004$ ); household income and type of violent of crimes ( $p=0.000$ ); frustration and types of violent crimes ( $p=0.004$ ); level of fear of economic hardship and types of violent of crimes ( $p=0.000$ ) and anger and type of violent crimes ( $p=0.010$ ). The study concluded that economic hardship leads to violence and crime. Economic hardship creates feelings of hopelessness and anger, which may increase aggression and hostility. The study recommended that mechanisms be put in place to help minimize the number of violent crimes among offenders and these include compulsory education for children and youths, creation of job opportunities by the government, expansion of economic activities and guidance and counseling services be provided to more at-risk youths.

**LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

BJS-Bureau of Justice Statistics

EH-Economic Hardship

FBI-Federal Bureau of Investigation

G.K-Government of Kenya

GST –General Strain Theory

ICT- Information, Communication and Technology

KDHS – Kenya Demographic Health Survey

MOEST- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology

NACOSTI-National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

NCVS-National Crime Victimization Survey

NIBRS-National Incident-Based Reporting System

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Sciences

U.C.R-Uniform Crime Reports

U.S -United States

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### 1.1 Introduction

Violent crimes persist as frequently demonstrated by scholarly writings that criminality has increased significantly in both rural and large cities in the recent past (Goertzel and Khan, 2009). Globally, violent occurrences continue unrestrained and in essence, it is currently a worrying problem in both rural and urban areas of both developed and developing nations (Farrington, 2000). In Brazil, a survey conducted showed that almost 23% of Brazilians cited urban violence as the major social problem they wished tackled, followed by the problem of drugs (21%), and unemployment (19%) in that order (CNT/SENSUS, 2010). In South Africa, the South African Police Service (SAPS, 2012) figures also show an alarming rise in violent crimes with 27% of men indicating they had committed rape (Martin, Vieraitis, Lynne, and Britto, 2006). Whatever the accuracy of crime statistics, the perception of growing danger has generated widespread anxiety in most African countries. For instance, in Lagos, Nigeria 70% of respondents in a city-wide survey were fearful of being victims of crime caused by a couple of factors one of which is economic hardship (Ogbonnaya, 2013).

In Kenya, data and literature on violent crimes are becoming an interesting area for many researchers. As violent crimes continue to swell, so is there an array of evidence in the scholarly sources and media that affect the huge allocation of resources in the budget to improve security in the country is made (Statistical Abstracts, 2007). As reported by the Kenya police Annual Crimes Reports, people in the country are faced with violent crimes associated with many factors; these crimes include robberies,

serial and mass murders, child abuse, assaults, terrorism, and rape cases among many others (Kenya Police Crime Report, 2011).

Elsewhere scholars have asked; do changes in macroeconomic conditions over time influence the rate of street crime? A common-sense answer is “yes.” As economic conditions deteriorate, people are thrown out of work, and their incomes fall, some of them will turn to income-generating criminal activity in response. As conditions improve and incomes rise, the same logic holds that crime rates will fall. So goes a common view. That view is elaborated in well-known economic and sociological theories, but it is far from the consensus position in contemporary social science. Some analysts predict that crime will drop as deteriorating economic conditions reduce the value or availability of crime targets (Rosenfield & Fornango, 2007).

The unemployment rate is by far the economic indicator of choice in research on the impact of economic conditions on crime rates. A generation of research on the impact of unemployment on crime has produced mixed results and has led some researchers to question the validity of the unemployment rate as an indicator of the full range of economic conditions that may influence crime rates. The idea that crime rates rise and fall with changing economic conditions has a long pedigree in criminology. Early studies sought to connect crime rates to the changing prices of staple commodities such as wheat or rye. More recent research has used the unemployment rate to measure economic performance or outcomes (Arvanites & Defina, 2006). The latter effect, rooted in the more traditional sociological notions of legitimate and illegitimate opportunities, is reflected in increased crime when unemployment blocks access to legitimate income-producing opportunities. The results of Cantor and Land’s annual time-series analysis offered support for both effects (Cantor & Land, 2001).

Kenya's economy has presented volatile yet comparably high growth rates in the last two decades (Hall, 2017). However, this generally positive macro-economic development has not translated into benefits for its youth. While annual GDP growth of more than 5 percent has been regularly recorded, Kenya's youth unemployment rate has shown little to no positive development and stands at a staggering 22 percent for 2016 (according to ILO estimates). With 500,000 to 800,000 young Kenyans entering the job market each year, its economy has not been able to provide the necessary amount of employment opportunities formal and informal alike. Economic progress has primarily benefitted the older generation; young females in rural locations constitute the largest share of unemployed Kenyan youth (in absolute numbers), while their counterparts in urban areas are most likely to be unemployed (in relative terms). Gender and living location are defining factors, but youth unemployment is rampant throughout Kenya.

Locally, indeed prisons in Kenya are crammed with convicts mainly coming from the extremely poor and disrupted families, the unemployed, and less educated youth (Kasina, 2004). Reports indicate that gender-based violence particularly against women and children is on the rise and having a link with the state of the economy (Brieve and Jordan, 2004). For example, Gender Violence Recovery Centre, (2012) showed that of all the cases reported, 2,532 were sexual and 422 were physical violence whose rise has an associational link to rising in economic hardship of the people. The Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS) 2008-09, points out that about 45% of women aged 15-49 have experienced either physical or sexual violence revealing an increase of 8%, 19%, and 22% in rape, defilement, and incest cases respectively.

Globally and Kenya in general, an indication of violent crimes have been on increase in the last ten years, a closer observation attributes this to existing livelihood trends. Many communities in the countryside are becoming more violent today than in the past and yet little is known about why this is happening. Police records indicate that among violent crimes that are swelling include homicide, offenses against persons, robbery, breakings, thefts, in particular theft of vehicles, theft by servants and other thefts, criminal damage, economic crimes, corruption, offenses involving police officers, and other penal offenses. The Kenya police connect these crimes in the country to an abundance of small arms and light weapons, unequal distribution of resources, extreme poverty among sections of the population, protracted drought in pastoralist areas, organized criminal gangs, a high rate of unemployment, and the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to perpetrate criminal activities (Kenya Police Crime Report, 2011).

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The influence of economic hardship on types of violent crimes among prisoners in Kenya is an interesting area to study among sociologists and criminologists as a way of finding solutions to ameliorate the effects. This would need the thorough establishment of the level of violent crimes much more in counties. For this study, prisoners in Uasin Gishu County became a focal point of the study. Data on the correlation between economic hardship and violent crimes are elaborate across jurisdictions, especially on the specific pointers of economic hardship that amplify violent crimes (Fajnzylber, Lederman &Loayza, 2002). Besides, data, in particular, reveal the types of violent crimes that intensify in times of economic hardship. In Kenya, violent crimes have increased in recent days and range from assault to severe

cases of murder. This has been impelled by a sharp increase in death and injuries occurring as a result of violent crimes. Traditionally, according to Reid, Herzog, and Patterson; crime has been thought of as a lower-class phenomenon in which the poor who are unable to obtain their desired goods and services through the conventional means resort to illegal means to obtain them or engage in expressive crimes as a means of articulating their frustrations and annoyance against society (Reid, 2007, Herzog, 2005 and Patterson, 1990).

Further, close empirical relationships have been reported between crime and human capital acquisition (Lonnie, 2002), accessibility of firearms (Lafree, 2009), economic inequality (Lafree, 2009), ineffective families, substance abuse, and regional values (Siegel, 2007). Vold and Snipes, (2002) emphasized the association between economic hardship which places individuals on various social classes, and the likelihood of violent offending. Indeed, levels of violent crimes and levels of development of any nation are linked. Moreover, economic success cannot be realized if the wellbeing of Kenyans and their material goods are in jeopardy. Yet, these relations are complex and vary from country to country and also from one region to another even within the same country. Therefore, there is a need to comprehend why economic hardship boosts violent crimes more than other crime typologies, principally during periods of economic hardship.

Economic prosperity cannot be realized if the safety of Kenyans and their properties are in jeopardy. The causes of crime are as complex as society itself (Neal, 2012). This study found it important in this background a real need identify types of violent crimes and establish whether they are linked to economic hardship and how they can be addressed. East Africa region as a whole is a region of high crime rates due to several factors. Currently, Kenya is rated by the U.S Department of the state as



critical in terms of both terrorism and crime hence making the U.S Embassy in Nairobi the fourth largest in the world. United Nations (2002) surveys in Kenya revealed that over half of the population worries about crime constantly and roughly 75% feel unsafe while at home (Aronson, 2010).

There is a strong connection between economic inequality and homicide rates (Lafree, 2009, Akers, 2000). In 2011, the Kenya police noted an increase in reported cases of crimes in the following categories; breakings, robbery, homicide, and other offenses at 14%, 15%, 18%, and 1% respectively (Kenya Police Annual Crime Report, 2011). The current economic hardship in Kenya such as difficulties in making ends meet, unemployment and underemployment, low wages and salaries, high cost of living among others may be linked to the many incidences of violent crimes such as murder and non-negligent manslaughter, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. These violent crimes are ever-increasing. The Kenya Police Annual Crime Report, (2014) ranks Uasin Gishu County at 12 out of 47 Counties with 1872 incidents (cases) with a 209 crime index per 100,000 people. A few guidelines or frameworks exist to guide policymakers and program managers in developing and implementing the comprehensive response necessary to address criminal justice consequences of violence and to reduce the determinants of violent behavior within communities. Crime plays a negative role as far as the development of a nation is concerned (Cullen, Wright and Belvins, 2006).

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 General Objective**

This study purposed to examine the influence of economic hardship on types of violent crimes among prisoners in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

- i. To investigate whether difficulties in making ends meet is linked to types of violent crimes
- ii. To determine whether frustration, fear, and anger among violent crime offenders are linked to types of violent crimes

### **1.4 Scope of the Study**

The study entailed the economic hardship factors that influenced the types of violent crimes in which the respondents were drawn from violent crime offenders at Eldoret G.K. and Ngeria Farm G.K Prisons in Uasin Gishu County. Uasin Gishu County is one of the newly created 47 counties in Kenya (Constitution of Kenya, 2010).

### **1.5 Justification of the Study**

The study was carried out on the background that economic hardship is realities in many countries given that population census across the world among developing states reveals that a great populace faces survival hardship. The 1990 "wind of change" (Zorigbaatar, 1995) brought political pluralism and economic liberalization, but it also resulted in an outbreak of social ills such as poverty, unemployment, social

disintegration, and erosion of societal fabric. Young people had been forced into the web of crime, and becoming street children, school dropouts and illiterates, unemployed and under-employed, and tobacco and alcohol addicts. The Government of Mongolia, in cooperation with relevant non-governmental organizations, was taking energetic measures to redress and improve the situation.

According to Hussain (2014), the economy is one of the most volatile conditions in Asia. What once was thought of being a promising economy has recently been in distress. Vietnam's macro-economy was relatively stable in the 1997-2006 period, with low inflation, a 7 to 9 percent total output expansion annually, and a moderate level of trade deficit. But Vietnam could not weather the adverse impact from the 1997-98 Asian financial turmoil, which partly curbed the FDI flow into its economy. Starting in late 2006, both public and private sector firms began to experience structural problems, rising inefficiency, and waste of resources. The daunting problem of inflation recurred, peaking at an annualized 23 percent level for that year.

The economic hardship Vis a Vis its influence is an interesting area for scholars of criminal justice and sociology in different parts of the world. Again, while Kenyans are generally optimistic about the future, they still say a range of development issues pose serious challenges for their country today. At the top of the list, with at least eight-in-ten Kenyans saying each is a very big problem, are government corruption (91%), economic issues such as a lack of employment opportunities (87%) and poverty (86%), and crime (82%) according to (Wike, Simmons, Vice, & Bishop, 2016).

Several studies conducted by various Sociologists and Criminologists such as Vold *et al.*, (2002) and Gould, Mustard and Weinberg, (2002) focused on the impact of

economic decline on other factors such as infrastructure, healthcare, education, and the overall impact of poverty on citizens, some have linked it to insecurity yet a few have attempted to study its impact on the levels of violent crimes. Violent crime data, particularly in Kenya, is relatively minimal leave alone literature concerning its root causes (Statistical Abstracts, 2007). There is a need to gather information on this since violent crimes continue to take place unexplained as evidenced in the media and the fact that a lot of resources through budgetary allocation are reserved for the safety of the Kenyan people.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The findings of the study are of great significance to the crime and deviant control agencies such as the police, courts, and legislature as well as economists. The study findings provide them with a framework to understand the relationship that exists between economic hardship and the types of violent crime commission. This enables them to further understand crime from the broad perspective of the economic status of the country and that the roadmap to crime reduction lies in the economic empowerment of citizens.

The government may also benefit from the study's discoveries because well-versed policies on economic and development programs would lessen violent crimes. This may not only be cost-saving for the government but may also ensure that instead of prisoners committing more crimes, they contribute to useful and lawful economic events that can help develop the country's economy.

The discoveries of the study may be of importance to prison officers who would gain an understanding of the determinants of violent crimes in Kenya. The understanding would enlighten their choices in ensuring that rehabilitation programs are upgraded in

a manner that helps the prisoners once they are out of prison, therefore, lessening their chances of re-offending and going back to jail again.

Findings from the study also provide an invaluable knowledge base that assists social and criminal justice practitioners and investigators in modifying current policies to promote more effective prevention and reduction of violent crimes in the county and the country at large. It also forms the knowledge base for further researches in Sociology, Criminology, and Law among other disciplines.

### **1.7 Operational Definition of Terms**

*Economic hardship* - A state where earnings are low and characterized by;- unemployment, underemployment, sudden loss of employment, and poor standards of living compounded with the high cost of living evidenced by the rising cost of basic commodities such as food, shelter, and clothing, rising costs of school fees, medical bills and other daily and monthly bills. As such it encompasses all difficulties in trying to provide the basic needs. In this study, economic hardship is used to imply difficulties in making ends meet.

*Violent crimes* - This refers to legally proscribed acts whose primary object is the deliberate use of force or threat of force to inflict injury on persons or objects and forcefully get something from the control or custody of someone. These crimes were captured from the individual offenders who have been arrested and convicted and they were serving their sentence over a given period. These included-;

- i. *Murder and Non-negligent manslaughter* - The willful or non-negligent killing of one human being by another.

- ii. *Rape* - The carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will, assaults, or attempts to commit rape by force or threat of force were also included but rape without force and other sexual crimes were excluded in the study.
- iii. *Robbery* - The taking or attempting to take anything of value from the care, custody, or control of a person or persons by force or threat of force or violence and/or by putting the victim in fear.
- iv. *Assault* - refers to an unlawful attack by one person on another to inflict severe or aggravated bodily injury.
- v. *Domestic Violence* - Violence that takes place within the home setting where people should expect warmth, reinforcement, support, trust, and love. This included physical abuse of children, spouses, relatives, and neighbors.

*Prisoners* – These refer to people who have been tried, convicted, and are held in prisons located in Uasin Gishu County. It refers to violent offenders remanded in prisons located in Uasin Gishu County, that is, Eldoret G.K. and Ngeria Farm G.K Prisons.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter entails a review of the various types of violent crimes and the social, demographic and economic hardship factors that are associated with it. It also examines the relationship between economic hardship and levels of violent crimes. The chapter concludes with the theoretical framework and the causal relationships of variables in a conceptual model.

#### 2.1 Types of Violent Crimes

Violent crimes are amongst the serious offenses and are characterized by the fact that it entails the use of force or threat of force resulting in an injury to a person(s) (Reid, 2007). The U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation's UCR of 2001 categorized the following as serious violent crimes; aggravated assault, murder and non-negligent manslaughter, robbery and forcible rape (Cullen & Agnew, 2011). Other potential violent acts include terrorism, property damage, affray, workplace violence, and domestic violence. In Kenya, mob justice and domestic violence were considered as separate crimes for the first time in 2011 and those violent crimes are likely to be reported than any other crime typology (Kenya Police Annual Crime Report, 2011).

##### 2.1.1 Assault

According to Reid (2007) assault is the most common serious violent crime frequently reported according to the FBI's Uniform Crime Report (2007) data accounting for 57% of serious violent crimes and it has the largest percentage of arrests, constituting

two-thirds of all arrests for violent crimes in the US in 2001. The distinction between battery and assault is that battery entails offensive touching, such as slapping, hitting, or punching a victim, whereas assault refers to no actual touching but involves either attempted battery or intentionally frightening the victim by word or deed (Reiss and Roth, 2003). The pattern of criminal assault is quite similar to that of a homicide except that the victim survives in criminal assaults. Assaults may be common because of common life stresses and include acts such as punching, kicking, scratching, or biting one another, Gibbons, (2007). In the U.S, people arrested for assault and those identified by victims are usually young, male, and white (Broidy, 2011). The most common weapons used in the assault are blunt instruments, hands, and feet, firearms, and knives. Assault may also be determined by reviewing the attributes and extent of injuries people suffer during violent encounters that require them to be treated in local hospital emergency rooms. In 2007, the FBI's reported that 1.4 million people have treated for violence-related injuries, ranging from nose broken in a fight to a shooting or stabbing during the robbery. About 40% of these injuries were quite serious, resulting from violent acts such as rapes and sexual assaults, shootings, and stabbings. Victims of assault suffered bruises with 60% not involving weapons while 12% used guns or knives (Hale, Hayward, Wahidin & Wincup, 2005).

According to the South African Police Service (SAPS, 2012) assault refers to the unlawful and intentional direct or indirect application of force to the body of another person or threat of application of immediate personal violence to another in circumstances in which the threatened person is prevailed upon to believe that the person who is threatening him has the intention and power to carry out his or her threat. Anger towards the victim was the most frequently cited motive of assault with percentages ranging from 40% in 2011 up to 45% in 2014/15 followed by jealousy



with percentages of 21% in 2011 up to 22% in 2014/15. Attempted rape and discipline/attempted arrest had the least percentages cited as motives for assault between 2011 and 2014/15. Perpetrators of assault that occurred at home were found to be 40%, while in the street 33% and outdoor areas 40% and were more likely to be influenced by alcohol and/or drugs. The most commonly used weapons were a knife, club, gun, ax and metal bar. Results from the victims of crime survey show that in about 86% of incidents of assault, a weapon was used and/or resulted in injury to the victim. Such incidents may have resulted in attempted murder or even murder (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

### **2.1.2 Murder and Non-negligent Manslaughter**

Murder is the most serious of all common law crimes and the only one that can still be punished by death (Siegel, 2007). To legally prove that murder has taken place, most state jurisdictions require that the prosecutors show that the accused maliciously intended to kill the victim. The UCR combined murder and non-negligent manslaughter or homicide and defines the crime as the willful (non-negligent) killing of one human being by another (Russell, Emmerson, Kate, and Juanjo, (2007). Not all willful killings are included, for example, the killing of another person might be justifiable homicide, for instance, if a police officer kills in the line of duty it's not considered murder or non-negligent manslaughter. Voluntary manslaughter refers to an intentional killing that takes place while the offender is in the heat of passion, provoked by the victim(s). The nature of the heat of passion and the surrounding circumstances must be examined to determine whether the crime is murder or manslaughter (Brookman, 2005). The provocation must be such that it would cause a reasonable person to kill. Because manslaughter is defined in several ways it's

difficult to distinguish some form of manslaughter from murder (Fajnzylber *et al.*, 2002).

Menachem, (2004) asserts that homicide without malice is termed as manslaughter and that voluntary or non-negligent manslaughter refers to killing committed in the heat of passion or during a sudden quarrel that provoked violence. Although intent may be present malice is not. Involuntary or negligent manslaughter, on the other hand, refers to a killing that occurs when a person's act is negligent and without regard for the harm they may cause on others (Holmes and Holmes, 2004).

Polk, (2004) in his study of Victoria homicide offenders found that 54% were unemployed and the vast majority of the offenders were from the bottom of the economic heap. In other studies that have investigated male multiple murderers, Freda *et al.*, (2008) found that financial and occupational losses are commonly found to be a key precipitating event, even when killers strike out excessively at his or her family while Alder & Pork, (2001) found that murderers do not see themselves as having any option other than fatal violence. Russell, (2003) points out those offenders try to resolve their life problems through their effort as a result of having found no assistance through for major legal channels. An estimated 10 to 15 percent of serial killers are women with their educational levels being below average and if they hold jobs they are in low-status positions (Athens, 1999).

According to UCR data, the murder rate in the U.S peaked in 1933 during the times of high unemployment and lawlessness and it fell until 2000's. Murder victims found tend to be males over 18 years of age and people arrested for murder were found to be young (under 35) and about 90% were males (Akers, 2000). This pattern has proven to be consistent over time in various countries. The number of unmarried killed by

their partners has declined but the numbers of women killed by men they live with have increased dramatically. Men may kill their spouses because they fear losing control and power. Because unmarried people who live together have legally and socially more open relationships, males in such a relationship may be more likely to feel the loss of control and exert powers with violence (Russell, 2007).

Findings from a study of homicide rates in nine U.S cities by criminologists Zahn and Sagi (1968), cited in Gottfredson, Michael, and Hirschi, Travis (1998), indicate that stranger homicides are most often felony murder occurring during rapes, robberies, and burglaries. It further points out that research on homicide has not systematically addressed the question about the influence of economic hardship on the levels of violent crimes. Although individual factors remain the focus, some attention has been given to wider socioeconomic factors particularly social and economic disadvantages (Glick, 2005; Grogger, 2008 and Hale, *et al.*, 2005). In a UK sample of 786 men convicted of murder, data were compiled from primary data gathered from the case files of the sample of men and women convicted of murder. The conviction was used because it was more reliable than information about the arrest. The findings revealed that the main charges for homicides are murder and manslaughter. The difference between the charges does not rest on the notion of premeditation or intention to kill instead the charges of murder require only that the offender(s) intended to use bodily violence and cause grievous bodily harm (Bartol, 2004). Most murderers have experienced a lifetime of frustration and rejection and blaming others for these events (Felon, 2007).

Studies of homicide in England and Wales focused on the nature of the relationship that exists between the offender and the victim as well as the socio-demographic characteristics of offenders and victims such as gender, age, race, and class (Cullen *et*

*al.*, 1999). These have always been examined across geographical regions and historical periods (Polk, 2004). An in-depth analysis of the victims of crime survey in South Africa found that 46% of perpetrators of murder incidents acted alone while 8% and 5% involved two and three perpetrators respectively. About 35% of incidents in urban metro and 38% in rural areas were perpetrated by people aged 35-54 years. Most of the offenders in other urban settlement 58% were classified as a youth (15-34 years). It was also found that 42% of respondents aged 35-54 years cited money or other financial constraints as motives for murder. This was followed by those who thought murder took place because of sudden personal anger towards the victim. More than 40% of those who responded that they have no idea of what the motives were, were found in the category whereby the age was not known. About 92% of murder incidents that occurred in other urban areas were influenced by alcohol and/or drugs (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

### **2.1.3 Robbery**

Robbery is considered a violent crime because it involves the use of force to obtain money or goods and the victim's life is put in jeopardy. Robberies are property crimes perpetrated with the use or threat of violence (Farrington, 2000). The victims have a double incentive to report the crime, that is, the physical and psychological trauma caused by the use of violence and the loss of property. Robberies account for 2.8% of the gang-related incidents and the severity of punishment is based on the amount of force used during the crime and not the value of items taken (Misturelli & Hefferman, 2010). Robbery a form of theft is distinguished from the less serious crime of larceny in that in robbery possessions are taken from the person by use of or threats of force. Robbery is not just a property crime but a crime against the person, a crime that might

result in personal violence. The use of threats or force must be such that it would make a reasonable person fearful (Siegel, 2007). Robbery is classified according to the degree of force used or threatened, thus a state might define armed robbery with or without a weapon (Lafree, 2009).

Uniform Crime Reports, (2010) indicated that robbery accounted for 36% of all violent crimes in the U.S in 2001 and this was 8%, 33%, and 24% higher than in 2000, 2007 and 2002 respectively. The highest rates and volumes occurred in larger cities. Over one-half of the nation's robberies (56%) occurred on streets and highways with 40% involving firearms and 40% strong-arm tactics and 11% knives or other cutting instruments. Of the robberies reported, 24% were cleared by arrest, of the persons arrested in 2001 for robbery, 91% of the victims were men and 72% were under 25 years (UCR, 2010). The robbery which is one of the most frightening violent offenses occurs more frequently than rape or homicide and that data on the robbery indicated that one-third of the victims of robbery are injured and one fourth suffers property loss and personal injury (Yin, 2009).

Raphael and Winter-Ebmer, (2001) assert that the chances of becoming a robbery victim decreases with age and increase substantially with unemployment. As income increases, the chances of being victimized by robbery decrease, but chances increase for those living alone. Both NCVS and FBI agree on the age, race and sexual make-up of the offender; they are disproportionately young, male minority group members (Groth and Birnbaum, 2009). The BJS (2001) analysis of over 14 million robbery victimization aimed at providing a more complete picture of the nature and content of robbery found that two-third of victims had property stolen, one third was injured in the crime and one fourth suffered both personal injury and property loss. Worsening urban violence is placing increasing demands on Africa's police departments. Violent

crime in Africa's cities is endemic and in many places worsening. Africa as a whole has a homicide rate of 20 per 100,000 (in Europe it is 5.4, North America 6.5 and in South America 25.9). Rates of armed robbery in Africa are also very high for example in Nairobi, 37 percent of residents reported being victims of robbery (Baker, 2010).

#### **2.1.4 Rape**

Akers and Sellers, (2004) assert that rape is considered by Sociologists and Criminologists as a violent, coercive act of aggression and not a forceful expression of sexuality, it's a crime many women mostly fear (Blau and Blau, 1982). The FBI's official data on rape include the only the crime of forcible rape, which is unlawful sexual intercourse involving the force of a man with a woman victim (Brieve and Jordan, 2004). Thus, the FBI's definition excludes statutory rape, which is unlawful sexual intercourse with a willing person who is under the legal age of consent (Agnew, 2009). Brownmillers, (2005) points out that rape was criminalized only after a monetary economy developed during the middle ages and that coercive sexual encounters have become disturbingly common in most societies. In a study of 646 samples of forcible rape cases in Philadelphia, it was found that most rapes were interracial, with the rate much higher among African Americans than among whites and that the offenders were the unemployed and from the lower socio-economic class (Menachem, 2004).

In a study of adolescents in South Africa by Anderson *et al.*, (2004) cited in Allen, (2006) it was found that 66% and 71% of males and females respectively who admitted to forcing someone else to have sex had themselves been forced to have sex. The perpetrators of child sexual abuse across Sub-Saharan Africa are frequently either known to the family, or to a family member (Kansal, 2005; (IASC, 2005). An analysis

of rape perpetration by age, race, level of educational achievement and monthly incomes confirmed that rape is found among all social groups (Russell, 1975) and frequently linked to the desire for sex, power, and control (Groth and Birnbaum, 2009) and women status (Bailey and Whaley, 2001). Whaley, (2001) argues that socio-economic conditions, poverty, family income inequality, employment, educational level, and residential mobility add to rape rates. The Kenya Police Annual Crime Report in 2011 also showed an increase in rape, defilement and incest cases. Yet both official and victimization statistics significantly undercount rape incidences in society (Scully, 1990).

#### **2.1.5 Domestic Violence**

According to the British Crime Survey (BCS) cited in Hale *et al.*, (2005), domestic violence includes all violent incidents involving partners, ex-partners, household members or other relatives. Violence against women and children of both sexes has gained international recognition as a serious social and human rights concern affecting all societies. Epidemiological evidence shows that violence is a major cause of ill health among women and girls (Brieve and Jordan, 2004). This is seen through death and disabilities due to injuries and through increased vulnerability to a range of physical and mental health problems (Bailey, 1999). In Kenya, 43% of 15-49-year-old women reported having experienced some form of gender-based violence in their lifetime with 29% reporting experience in the previous year; 16% of women reported having ever been sexually abused and 13% of this happened in 2002 (KDHS, 2003).

Lopes, (2006) argued that domestic violence is often the result of social conditions such as poverty, meager education, and lower class position. Blaming others for one's problems seems to be a consistent element in any kind of violence (Polk, 2004) and

makes sense of why revenge is such a central motivation for violence in general. Definitions vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction and the alleged victims are reluctant to report the crimes; cases that are reported may be processed as other crimes such as simple assault, aggravated assault, battery, sexual battery and so on and thus not recorded as domestic violence. Many cases are dismissed without formal processing and do not become part of the official data. This may be true particularly with domestic violence cases reported from middle and upper-income families, in contrast, to lower families' income earners and especially welfare cases (Bailey, 1999).

Freda *et al.*,(2005) and Gelles and Straus, (2009) argue that child abuse cases are complex and mainly credited exclusively to variables including stress, unemployment and underemployment, number of children, social isolation and socio-economic status (Calder and Bauer, 2002, Butts, 2008). Women who murder are seen as being socially isolated, lacking in social support and having exhausted other options short of violence (Alder & Polk, 2001, Gelles, 1995). The triggers for domestic violence were found to be consistent across all countries and cultures and they include; not obeying the husband, arguing, not having food ready, not caring adequately for children and home, questions concerning money, going out without permission, refusing sex and pregnancy (WHO, 2000).

In the U.S, domestic disputes accounted for 20% of all aggravated assaults and 16% of all sexual assaults in 2002. Gender violence ranges from forced prostitution to involuntary pregnancy, infanticide, and genital mutilation. Gender violence is the most pervasive and insidious human right abuse in the world and women in most cases are violence victims (Cullen *et al.*, 2006). In 2002 Canadian data indicated that one-half of Canada's violent crime victims in 2001 were women, (Gelles and Straus, 2009). Patterson, (1991) asserts that battering may occur more often in the lower than



in the upper classes and that three variables tend to characterize men who batter their partners namely frustration or stress, gender roles or learned behavior and alcohol. Frustration and stress may result from man's sense of inadequacy as a provider, husband or lover. Insecurities may result from extreme dependency on his partner, coupled with his fear of losing (Messing and Heeren, 2004).

Women, on the other hand, were found to kill because of various social structural factors including poverty, poor education, unemployment, low-income, gender inequality, racial discrimination, urban residence and another expression of frustration- aggression (Calder and Bauer, 2002, Butts, 2008). Women who murder are seen as being socially isolated, lacking in social support and having exhausted other options short of violence, (Alder & Polk, 2001). With respect to age, most of the women murderers are in the middle, child-rearing years with a mean age of 34.4 years (Alder & Baker, 2007). Most female victims of reported domestic abuse are tied economically to the men who abuse them. Women live in fear of men who are stronger physically and upon whom they are dependent economically. The most common arena for women homicide is the domestic sphere where they take the lives of intimate partners and children (Huang *et al.*, 1997).

## **2.2 Violent Crimes and their Causes in Kenya**

In Kenya, the Police Annual Crime Report of 2011 indicated that of all crimes, violent crimes are more likely to occur. Media reports in the country such as the Daily Newspapers amplify the rates of violent crimes and that currently, violence appears more perturbing across the country than ever before. In 2011, there was also reported increase in cases of crimes across the counties including breakings, homicides, other offenses against persons, killings, brutal murders, violent attacks and robberies

(Kenya Police Annual Report, 2011; Daily Nation of Thursday, May 23, 2013;8; Sunday Nation 30, September 2013:3; Saturday Nation, March 23, 2013; Daily Nation of September 6, 2012). The Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS 2008-09) indicates that about 45% of women aged 15-49 have experienced either physical or sexual violence and that 25% of women have experienced both physical and sexual violence.

In a study of farm crimes in Uasin Gishu County, Bunei, Auya, and Rono, (2013) observed that low incomes and education with a high number of dependents and high inflation predispose some frustrated workers to use illegal means to survive including violent thefts and robbery. Rural farm thefts were reported to be connected to higher costs of farm inputs, lower wages, delayed payments and chronic poverty, which aggravate impenetrability in making ends meet, above all high food prices, school and medical fees. In addition, Bunei *et al.*, (2013) expose social factors associated with violent rural crimes that include youth unemployment, poverty, poor school achievement, truancy, dropping out of school, abuse of alcohol and disturbance. Thinning job prospects and a high number of school dropouts in rural areas have left many people without work or the necessary skills to acquire gainful employment and consequential incomes. As the cost of living degenerates, especially the high cost of food prices and other necessities of life such as clothing, health, and education, conversely rates of violent crimes enlarge (Bunei *et al.*, 2013).

In Kenya, Police Annual Crime Reports from 2009 to 2012 points out the following as being responsible for the crime increase in Kenya; proliferation of small arms and light weapons, inequitable distribution of resources, extreme poverty among sections of the population, prolonged drought in pastoralists areas, organized criminal gangs, a high unemployment rate among the youth and use of Information, Communication

and Technology (ICT) as major contributing factors (Kenya Police Annual Crime Reports, 2012).

### **2.2.1 Socio-Economic and Demographic Factors**

Oakley, (2007) argues that poor people living in areas of extreme poverty are more likely to suffer social troubles than people living in more prosperous communities while Herzog, (2005) points out that economic hardship produces stressful situations of shortages which in turn enhance chances of people turning to crime to provide for individual and family needs. Hence, when both crime and unceasing fiscal adversity rates rise at the same time and in the same place, it seems possible to explain the rise of such crimes in terms of increased damage among people (Cantor, 2005, Russell, 2005 and Merton 1957) suffering from the depressing economic hardship (Ledermen, 2006). The concentration of poverty, urban segregation, and residential instability are elements that are ecologically and strongly correlated to the phenomena of crime (Akers, 2000).

Empirical evidence by Fajnzylber *et al.*, (2002) found that income inequality is an important factor that impels violent crime rates across countries and over time and that there is an important correlation between incidences of crime and the rates of poverty alleviation. High inflation, as an indicator of the harsh economic situation both for companies and customers, connects to both violent and property crimes (Witt, Clarke and Fielding, 1999). Economic hardship may front the adoption of illegitimate means to provide for basic needs. When alternative sources of income are scarce, lack of employment and low incomes represent serious threats to the material interests of households (Hagan *et al.*, 1995). Merton, (1968) asserts that economic hardship produces stressful situations of shortages which in turn enlarge the chances

of people turning to crimes to provide for individual or family needs. Poor people and people living in the lower class areas have higher official crime rates than other groups and emotions of disadvantages and unfairness guide the poor to seek reimbursement and contentment by all means including committing crimes against both the poor and the rich (Oberwittler, 2005). Poverty is not the cause of crime, but it is correlated with other factors such as high residential mobility and heterogeneity. When these factors are concentrated in a localized area, the likelihood of a high crime rate noticeably increases (Cullen and Agnew, 2011). Other scholars also assert that age, education, poverty and population density were important in understanding the distribution of crime (Guery, 2012).

A survey conducted by a Strategic PR firm found that respondents from 36 counties in Kenya said they were concerned about the economy, insecurity, unemployment, and corruption. When asked about the serious issue facing the country, 22% said the economy, 18% cited security and 13% quoted unemployment, 5% poverty, 3% inflation and 3% high taxes. The areas where the respondents felt the government should prioritize and urgently address were creating jobs 24%, improving security 19% and addressing the high cost of living 11%. Such economic difficulties are likely to compel some citizens to indulge in criminal behaviors (Sunday Nation September 30, 2013:3). An increase in income inequality has a significant crime-reducing impact. The GDP growth rate is the most significant determinant of both homicide and robbery rates and that rate of change of poverty is also related to the incidence of crime. This means that when poverty falls more rapidly, either because income growth rises or the distribution of income improves, then crime rates tend to fall. Violent crime rates decrease when economic growth improves implying that faster poverty reduction leads to a decline in national crime rates (Felon, 2007).

In an examination of poverty as the foundation of crisis in Northern Nigeria, Khan and Cheri, (2016) found that ineffectiveness of poverty alleviation programs, poor resource utilization, lack of private initiative and overdependence on scarce public jobs are the factors that caused and sustained poverty in Northern Nigeria and serve as the foundation of the turbulence in all sectors of society. Pare and Felson,(2014) in Wilkenson and Picket,(2009) linked economic inequality to a wide range of social evils including lower social trust, impaired mental and physical health, excessive consumption of alcohol, drug addiction, obesity and failing education systems. The correlation between socioeconomic status and violent crime is well-established (Pratt and Cullen, 2005; Sampson and Lauvitsen, 1994; Bailey, 1984 and Lee, 2000). Poor people may be more likely to commit crime because their opportunities for legitimate attainment of widely shared goals are blocked or because they are exposed to a wide variety of negative experiences (Agnew, 1999). In addition, poor people may engage in violent crime to handle their grievances because they lack access to the legal system (Black, 1983). Anderson,(1999), Miller,(1958) and Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967) all assert that people of low socioeconomic status participate in violent or deviant subcultures because their socialization experiences lead them to have attitudes that are conducive to crime, for example, a belief that it is important to respond to disrespect with physical violence (Imrohoroglu, Merlo and Rupert, 2000).

According to the Annual State of the Judiciary and Administration of Justice Report (SOJAR) released by former Chief Justice Willy Mutunga on 20<sup>th</sup> November 2015, there was a rise by 65% of criminal cases in 2015 compared to 2013 in the country. The report points theft, assault and sexual violence as forming the bulk of cases as experts blame the situation on the fraying social fabric. Experts attributed the surge in crime to poverty, breakdown in the social fabric and population growth. The elite are

also engaging in the same crimes as the poor, not that they are desperate for survival but because they want to be better than others. Other criminal cases prosecuted were robbery, murder, offenses against liberty, corruption and economic crimes, children offenses, unlawful assembly and riots, offenses against marriage and domestic obligations. Breakdown of social norms, change of economic systems and rapid population growth may be contributing to the rise in criminal cases. Frustrations in families, lack of proper values and increased demands from society have had a negative impact on individuals. Fundamental values are eroding very fast with the convergence of unemployment, change of income sources and social values (Standard Newspaper, Monday, 23<sup>rd</sup> November 2015).

### **2.2.2 Social Status**

Agnew, (2009), Neuman, (2009) and Rand, (2007) have all indicated that high levels of socio-economic inequality including economic hardship may lead some employed and unemployed individuals to experience strain or frustration which may bring them to greater involvement in crimes. At the social level, poverty ranks, income inequalities, unemployment, and unstable jobs have all been found to be positively related to crime rates (Blau and Blau, 1982). In his study of violent crimes in city gangs, Miller, (1956) found that participation in violent crimes had little to do with race but was directly related to sex, age, and social status. The most active were males of lower status during late adolescence. Social status was determined by a relatively complex method based on a combination of educational, occupational and other criteria for example parent's occupation, gang member's occupation, gang member's education, and family's welfare experience. On the basis of these criteria, all gangs were designated "lower class". It was found that boys of lower educational and

occupational status both engaged in and was arrested for violent crimes to a substantially greater degree than those of higher status hence conforming to various research findings which shows that those of lower social status both engaged in and are likely to be arrested for violent crimes (Cullen *et al.*, 2006).

FBI's Uniform Crime Reports of 2000 indicate that crime rates in US inner-city high poverty areas are generally higher than those in suburban or wealthier areas. For example, both males and females experience the highest homicide victimization levels in deteriorated inner-city areas. Studies using aggregate police statistics arrest records have also consistently show that crime rates in lower-class areas exceed those in wealthier neighborhoods (Cullen & Agnew, 1999). Another indicator of class-crime relationships can be obtained through a survey of prison inmates which have consistently shown that prisoners were members of the lower class and unemployed in the years before their incarceration (Wolfgang, 1967). If a crime is related to social class, then it follows that economic and social factors such as poverty and widely used measures of class such as father's occupation and education are only weakly related to self-reported crime while others such as unemployment or receiving welfare are much stronger correlates of criminality. The association between class and crime is more complex than a simple linear relationship; the poorer you are the more likely you will commit a crime. Age, race, and gender may all influence this connection, for example, Simpson and Ellis, (2001) cited in Messing and Heeren, (2004) found that indigent white females are more likely to be offenders than indigent African-American females. They speculate that exclusion from paid labor creates resentment and criminality in those who expect better treatment than they are getting. This seems to suggest that serious official crime is more prevalent among the lower classes whereas a less serious and self-reported crime is spread more evenly throughout the social

structure. Income inequality, poverty, and resource deprivation are all associated with the most serious violent crimes including homicide and assault (Freeman, 1983).

Simpson and Ellis, (2001) argue that lower-class areas in most societies are scenes of inadequate housing and health care with disrupted family, underemployment and daily despair. Some are driven to desperate measures to cope with their economic plight. In the U.S, according to UCR, (2007), it was estimated that about 22,000 newborn babies are abandoned in the hospital each year by mothers who are impoverished, addicted to drugs or homeless. Although lower class members are part of the society that extols material success above any other form, they are unable to satisfactorily compete for such success with members of the upper classes (Agnew, 2006). As a result, they may turn to illegal solutions to their economic plight such as dealing with drugs for profit or steal cars and sell them to chop shops; they may even commit armed robberies for desperately needed funds, they may become so depressed that they take alcohol and drugs as a form of self-tranquillization of their poverty and they acquire the drugs and alcohol through illegal channels. The economic hardship of slum areas produces a culture of poverty passed from one generation to the next (Earls *et al.*, 1997). Apathy, helplessness, and mistrust of social institutions such as schools, government agencies, and the police mark the culture of poverty. All these factors have been linked to violent crimes and drug abuse (Lee, 2009).

### **2.2.3 Economic Hardship Factors**

Majority of the Kenyan citizens live in areas of concentrated poverty which is an important social problem. The media always focus on the distress suffered by homeless and poverty-stricken families. Poverty means deprivation of basic means of livelihood (Oakley, 2007). The fact that poverty is self-evident and is seen in



deficiencies of an absolute standard of living in terms of calorific intake and nutritional levels, clothing, sanitation, health, education and other socio-economic variables (GOM, 2000). Globally, some 1.3 billion people continue to live in extreme poverty on less than the equivalent of 1 U.S dollar per day. They lack access to opportunities and services, feel isolated and powerless and often feel excluded by ethnicity, caste, geography, gender and disability (DFID, 2007 additions, and emphasis). Poor people living in areas of extreme poverty are more likely to suffer social ills than poor people living in more affluent communities (Oberwittler, 2006).

Herzog, (2005) argues that economic hardship produces stressful situations of shortage which in turn, may increase the chances of people turning to crime to provide for individual or family needs (Cantor 2005, Russell, 2005 and Merton 1957). Hence, when both crime and chronic hardship rate rise at the same time and in the same place, it seems possible to explain the rise in crime in terms of increased strain or motivation to engage in crime for people facing economic hardship. For example, Herzog, (2005) pointed that increased economic hardship and crime was witnessed in the 2000s in the Middle East when many Palestinian workers lost their jobs in Israel due to a radical change in Israel's border policy that brought about an unprecedented increase in economic hardship among the Palestinians. Under harsh economic conditions, if legitimate channels for attaining needs are not available for instance due to rejection by the legitimate work market place, the illegitimate work option becomes more attractive in that it provides greater gains at a lower cost. Lack of education and family instability makes them poor candidates for employment or for the eventual formation of their own cohesive families. The social problems faced by the poor render them unprepared to take advantage of employment opportunities even in tight labor markets thus the poor expect to spend all their lives in poverty hence the single

most important problem facing many countries today. Lower class people and people living in the lower class areas thus in most societies have higher official crime rates than other groups. The feeling of disadvantage and unfairness leads the poor to seek compensation and satisfaction by all means including committing crimes against both the poor and the rich (Blau and Blau, 1982).

Fajnzylber *et al.*, (2002) assert that income inequality is an important factor that drives violent crime rates across countries and over time and that there is an important correlation between the incidence of crime and the rate of poverty alleviation. According to him, the level of poverty in a country is measured as the percentage of the population that receives income below the threshold level and it is usually determined by the necessary calorific intake and the local monetary cost of purchasing the corresponding food basket. On inequality and violent crime, he found that violent crime rates decrease when economic growth improves. Since violent crime is jointly determined by the pattern of income distribution and by the rate of change of the national income then faster poverty reduction leads to a decline in national crime rates (Block and Block, 2003).

Gould *et al.*, (2002) points out that economic hardship may lead to the adoption of illegitimate means to provide for basic needs. At the level of public policy, the existence of the relationship implies that some crime rates can be reduced by means of economic involvement and stimulation especially among population groups suffering from the high level of economic hardship and unemployment (Cantor and Land, 2005). When alternative sources of income are scarce, lack of employment represents a serious threat to the material welfare of households (Hagan *et al.*, 1995).

Marx cited in Martin *et al.*, (2006) points out that the greater the extent of economic exploitation, the more likely that the working class will experience discontent. This is more likely that state policies will be violently challenged and that workers will develop class consciousness and recognize their exploitation triggering rebellion. According to Marx, crime is a response aimed at recapitalization entailing the reorganization of the distribution of resources in a more equitable manner. This may help to clarify why inequality may be linked to political violence. Capitalism encourages criminality of the lower class by the misery and inequality inflicted upon them (Haralambos, 1980).

#### **2.2.4 Unemployment and Underemployment**

Numerous studies such as Agnew and White, (2002) and Bartol, (2004) documenting educational attainment within given communities argued that affluent cities are disproportionately afflicted particularly those characterized by chronic poverty, a poorly educated workforce and limited access to employment opportunities. The U.S, for instance, witnessed an increase in crime rates during the year 2000s. At its peak in 2001, about 2 percent of the U.S workforce amounting to two million were incarcerated, paroled or on probation at the reference time. Grogger, (2008) documents that U.S crime homicide declined by 50 percent between 1933 and 1961. These changes were because of the sharp decrease in the earnings of young unskilled men in the 2000s and the rapid decline in the aggregate rate of unemployment in the 2000s. Gould and Weinberg, (2002) estimated that a 20% decline in the youth wage would lead to a 20% increase in the crime rate and that changes in the wage can account for up to 50% of the trend in violent crimes and in property crimes, thus there is a strong positive link between the unemployment and crime rates. Other studies including Gibbons, (2007), Glick, (2005) and Hagan, *et al.*, (1995) also indicated that

completing high school significantly reduces criminal proclivities since it may result in acquiring a better employment opportunity.

Because employment constitutes the major legitimate opportunity structure for achieving conventional social aims, blocking access to employment will increase economic hardship and frustration and consequently the chances of involvement in crime (Agnew, 2009). High levels of socio-economic inequality including economic hardship may lead some individuals both employed and unemployed to experience strain or frustration which may bring them to greater involvement in the crime. Because employment is perceived as conventional behavior and serves to reinforce social bonds and activate social control, it also acts to reduce involvement in criminal behavior. Unemployment leads to economic hardship which leads to the breakdown of positive social bonds. This, in turn, may increase the probability of people resorting to criminal activity in areas with high rates of economic hardship and unemployment, social and community systems and especially formal and informal normative control systems collapse leading to higher crime rates (Agnew, 2009, Neuman, 2009 and Rand, 2007). At the social level, poverty rates, economic deprivation, income inequality, unemployment and employment in unstable jobs have all been found to be positively related to crime rates (Blau and Blau, 1982).

The World Health Organization (WHO) report cited in Fajnzylber *et al.*, (2002) points out that violence amongst young people is a major concern in most countries and that such violence has a serious and often lifelong psychological and social functioning. Cantor and Land, (1985) argued that unemployment creates an economic downturn which increases motivation for crime through economic hardship and also unemployment decreases crime through a decrease in opportunities. These effects operate at different time frames and are different for violent and property crimes.

Cantor, (2005) pointed out that crime reduces when unemployment rates are high by reducing target attractiveness and by increasing guardianship. The unemployment rate is not the only measure of crime-relevant economic conditions but the effects of unemployment on crime rates are solely a function of changes in the behavior of the unemployed. Rather, he regarded the unemployment rate as a coincident indicator of broader economic changes that affect persons in the labor force with and without a job. He noted that as the economy deteriorates one's ability to meet their financial and emotional needs regardless of his/her employment status may become strained. However, increasing employment opportunities could be the main solution in that it helps people cope with economic hardship by enabling them to get some income and make them busy (Raphael and Winter-Ebmer, 2001).

#### **2.2.5 Drug and Substance Abuse**

Collins and Messersdchmit, (2003) cited in Cantor, (2005) states that substance abuse influences violence and especially alcohol abuse has long been associated with all forms of violence. Drug testing of arrestees in major U.S cities for example, consistently showed that criminals are also drug abusers. Up to 80% of all people arrested for violent crimes tested positively for drugs. A survey of prison inmates in other countries has also consistently shown that a significant majority reported being under the influence of alcohol or drugs when they committed their last criminal offense (Block, 2005). Studies by Keeney and Heide, (2004) found that alcohol or drug consumption and previous experience of sexual abuse also correlates with sexual violence in adulthood. They further found that most of these crimes were more likely to occur either in the home or amongst people who know each other and with the presence of either alcohol or drugs. This implies that regardless of whatever crime

strategies the police adopt, many of these crimes will continue to occur unless behavior and value change takes place in society. Apathy, helplessness, and mistrust of social institutions such as schools, government agencies, and the police mark the culture of poverty. All these factors tie to drug abuse and violent crimes (Lee, 2009).

Corrado, (1994) in a survey of England on the causes of domestic violence found that 13% of women sampled reported that they had assaulted men under the influence of alcohol. Hamburger and Guse, (2002) in their study of women in a correctional facility in Canada found that 68% of women offenders had abused alcohol at the time when they perpetrated intimate partner violence against men. Chen and White, (2002) assert that alcohol can easily influence a person to participate in intimate partner violence while Murray *et al.*,(2008) argues that the main determinants of violence include the use of illicit stimulants, cocaine, sedatives, cannabis, and heavy drinking.

In the United Kingdom, a study by Gilchrist, (2003) found that 48% of the offenders were dependent on alcohol while 62% reported that they had perpetrated violence under the influence of alcohol. The World Health Organization (2012) pointed out that alcohol is a major contributor to the occurrence of violence in many families across many countries. It further states that many factors such as low social and economic status and impulsive personality precipitates domestic violence because heavy drinking can create a problematic partnership that increases domestic violence (WHO, 2012). A study by Kinyajui and Atwoli (2013) on substance use among inmates in Eldoret prison found that the reasons for substance abuse included relaxation (27%), to relieve stress (25%), acceptance by peers (15%), experimentation (13%), availability (8%), to feel normal (5%) and for the confidence to commit crime (5%). The negative effects attributed to alcohol use in the study included engaging in quarrels and arguments, scuffles and fights, unprotected sex, property damage, trouble

with the police, suffering blackouts, medical problems, and discord relationships. Substances most commonly reported included alcohol, cigarettes, and cannabis.

### **2.3 Theoretical Framework**

The study adopted social structural theories specifically the Frustration- Aggression theory and the Social Disorganization theory. Social structural theories hold that disadvantaged economic class position is the primary cause of crime. Thus, the social and economic forces operating in lower-class areas push many of their residents into criminal behavior patterns (Huang, Laing and Wang, 1997).

According to Vold, *et al.*, (2002) members of the middle and upper classes do also engage in crime but according to social structure theorist's middle-class and white-collar crimes are of relatively lower frequency, seriousness, and danger to the general public. The real crime problem is essentially a lower-class phenomenon that breeds criminal behavior and mostly begins in youth and continues into young adulthood (Jenkins, 2008 and Innes, 2008). Social structure theorists challenge those who suggest that crime expresses psychological imbalance, biological traits, insensitivity to social controls, personal choice or any other personal trait. They argue that people living in equivalent social environments tend to behave similarly. If the environment did not influence human behavior, then crime rates would be distributed equally across the social structure, which they are not. Because crime rates are higher in lower-class urban centers than in middle-class suburbs, social forces must influence or control behavior (Siegel, 2007).

### 2.3.1 Social Disorganization Theory

Social Disorganization theory is a type of criminological theory attributing variation in crime and delinquency over time and among territories to the absence or breakdown of communal institutions such as the family, school, church and local government and communal relationships that traditionally encouraged cooperative relationships among people (Gary, 2003). It holds that crime is determined primarily by community attributes (Veysey *et al.*, 1999). It suggests that in areas with high rates of economic hardship and unemployment, social and community systems and especially formal and informal normative control systems collapse leading to higher crime rates (Agnew, 1999). Social disorganization and the resulting crime and delinquency rates depend on the neighborhood's socioeconomic status, residential mobility, ethnic heterogeneity, family disruption, and urbanization. The strength of the theory lies in the fact that it identifies why crime rates are highest in areas of low socioeconomic status and point out the factors that produce crime. The theory further suggests programs that help reduce crime in society (Huang, 2004). According to Shaw and Mckay, (1942) a disorganized area is one in which institutions of social control such as the family, commercial establishments and schools have broken down and can no longer perform their expected or stated functions. Indicators of social disorganization include high unemployment and school dropout rates, deteriorated housing, low-income levels/unemployment, residential mobility and large numbers of single-parent households, mixed land use, heterogeneity and families on welfare. These characteristics are more common in areas closer to the central business district and lessen the further out from the city you go to. Residents in these areas experience conflict and despair and as a result antisocial behavior such as drug abuse, delinquency, and violence flourishes (Henslin, 2007). Structural factors within a



neighborhood impact on a community's ability to implement social control. Communities with high scores on social disorganization indicators have higher amounts of overall crime especially violent crimes such as homicides (Veyseyet *al.*, 1999).

### **2.3.2 Frustration-Aggression Theory**

The Frustration-Aggression theory was introduced by a group of Yale University Psychologists John Dollard, Leonard Doob, Neal Miller, O.H. Mowrer, and Robert Sears in an important monograph, *Frustration and Aggression* (1939), in which they integrated ideas and findings from several disciplines, especially sociology, anthropology, and psychology. Their work was notable for its eclectic use of psychoanalysis, behaviorism, and Marxism. It became one of the most influential explanations of aggressive behavior in the history of social science.

The theory was soon modified by the Yale group, however, and in 1941 it was proposed that frustration might lead to many different responses, only one of which is aggression. Whereas the original formulation explained the lack of overt aggressive behavior in certain situations in terms of inhibition due to the fear of punishment (which would not diminish the aggressive drive), a subsequent version of the hypothesis made clear that some responses to frustration (for example, vigorous exercise) could reduce the invoked aggressive response. It is important to point out that Dollard and his colleagues believed that their account of frustration and aggression was valid for human as well as non-human (that is, animal) actors and for groups as well as individuals. That is, one should expect aggressive inclinations to result whenever a person or animal experiences frustration.

According to the theory, the displacement of aggression onto a socially sanctioned that is convenient victim group serves several purposes. First, and most important, it channels the expression of aggressive impulses and creates cathartic relief once the aggression has been released. Secondly, it is socially undesirable to behave violently toward others in the absence of justification, but prejudicial attitudes can be used to justify (or rationalize) the expression of hostility. In that way, members of disadvantaged groups can be blamed for their plight as targets of hostility and prejudice. Finally, following psychoanalytic thought, the theory of scape-goating suggests that victim-blaming is exacerbated by the projection of (typically unconscious) guilt that frustrated parties feel as a result of their prejudice and violent activity.

#### **2.4 Research Hypotheses**

The researcher sought to hypothesize the relations among variables as presented in the objectives above intending to pit the negation (null) of the influence of economic hardship on types of violent crimes among prisoners in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya vis a vis the alternative hypotheses on; making ends meet and linkage to violent crimes, how frustration, fear, and anger among violent crime offenders tend to crime. The researcher settled for the null hypothesis to allow for testing and data collection to find field outcomes to be used as an inference. Based on the objectives of the study, the following hypotheses were formulated;

**H<sub>01</sub>:** There is no significant relationship between difficulty in making ends meet and types of violent crimes

**H<sub>02</sub>:** There is no significant relationship between levels of frustration, fear, and anger among violent offenders and types of violent crimes

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter entails information about the research design and data collection techniques. It also encompasses the description of the research site, target population, sampling procedures, data collection procedures, processing, and methods of analysis that were employed in the study.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The descriptive research design was employed in which violent crime offenders formed the basis of analysis. According to Gay *et al.*, (2006), a descriptive research design entails the collection of the quantitative data to test the hypothesis or to answer questions regarding the subjects of the study. It is characterized by the systematic collection of information from the given population by administering questionnaires and interviewing. This design was appropriate because it is used when collecting information about people's attitudes, opinions, habits, or any of the variety of social issues (Kombo and Tromp, 2009). The study aimed at describing the influence of EH, social, and demographic factors on the types of violent crimes among the violent crime offenders at Eldoret G.K Prisons and Ngeria Farm Prisons.

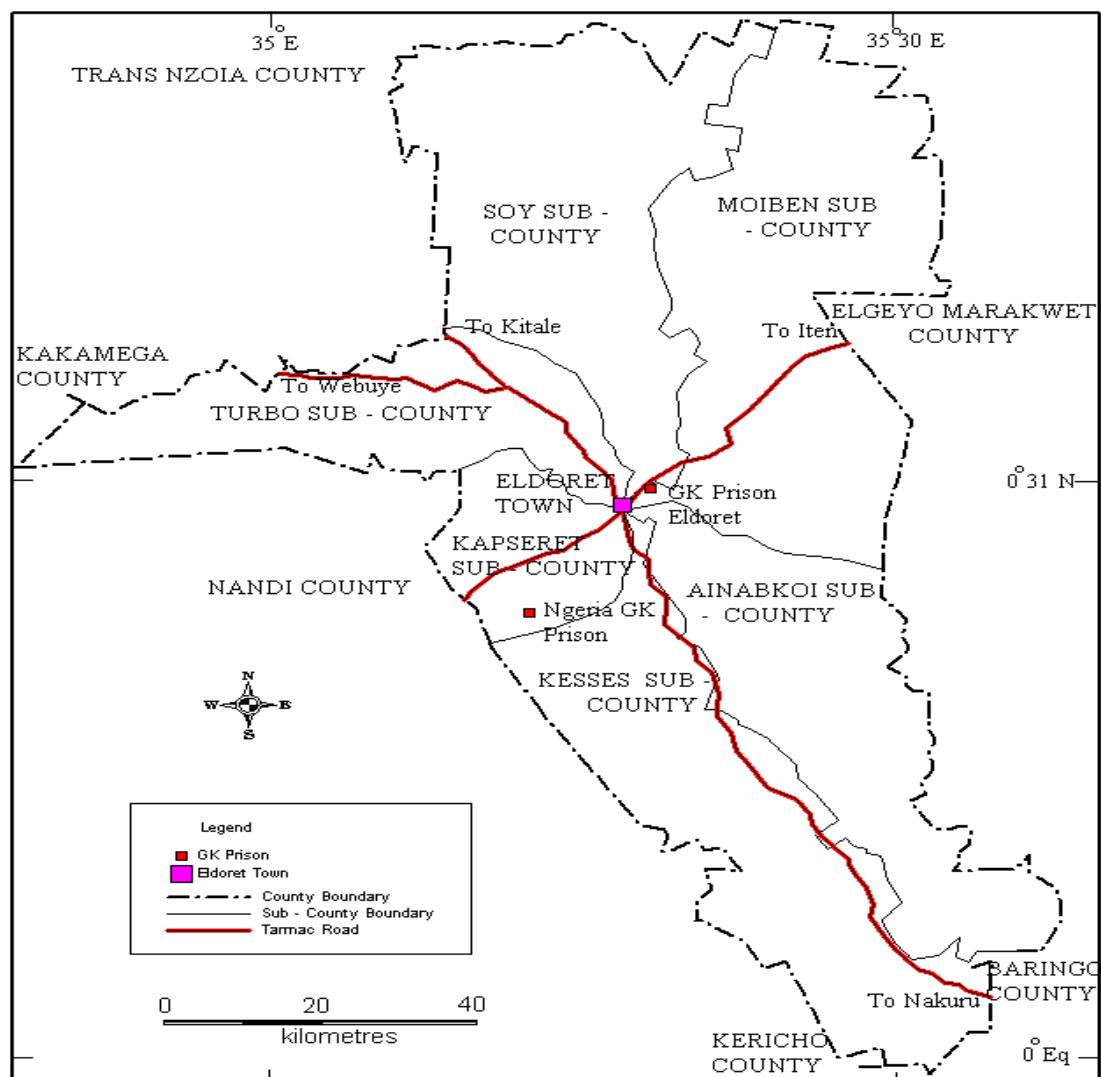
#### 3.2 Study Site Description

The study was conducted in Uasin-Gishu County which is located in the North Rift region of the former Rift valley province of Kenya. It extends between longitudes 34 50' and 35 37' East and 00 03' and 00 55' North. The County shares common borders with Elgeyo Marakwet County to the North, Nandi to the East, Trans-Nzoia to the

South East, and Kakamega County to the West (District Strategic Development Plan, 1997-2001). The County is divided into six constituencies namely; Soy, Turbo, Moiben, Ainabkoi, Kapseret, and Kesses. Rainfall in the County is high, reliable, and evenly distributed. An estimated 90% of the land in the County is arable and can be classified as high potential (GoK, 2012).

Eldoret Main G.K Prison is situated 1.5 kilometers off Iten road, Northeast of the central business district in Eldoret to within Moiben Sub County while Ngeria Farm G.K prisons are located along Eldoret- Nakuru highway in Kapseret Sub County both in Uasin Gishu County of Kenya as shown in figure 3.1 (GoK, 2012). Eldoret town is 320KM northwest of the capital city of Kenya, Nairobi. Eldoret Main G.K prison was established in 1963 with an intended capacity of 600 inmates. The County and the two prison institutions were chosen because it has a population of violent crime offenders that are enough for the researcher to draw a study sample. Eldoret town is the County headquarters of Uasin Gishu County. It is a rapidly growing town in Western Kenya with an estimated population of 289, 380 making it Kenya's fifth largest town (Sorberet *al.*, 2014). Eldoret G.K Prisons host men and women while Ngeria farm prisons host men convicts only. The inmates were majorly drawn from Uasin Gishu County and a few from neighboring Counties of Nandi, Trans Nzoia, and Baringo. It hosts offenders who convicted a range of crimes such as violent crimes, property crimes, and economic crimes among others. The predominant factors leading to conflict, insecurity, and crime in the region include; pastoralists conflict over scarce natural resources (mainly water and pasture), cattle rustling, cross border banditry, historical land ownership disputes, politically instigated violence, ethnic rivalries, the proliferation of illegal small arms and light weapons among others. These factors among many are compounded further by the poor communication infrastructure in the

County which impedes rapid response mechanisms by various security agencies (Kenya Police Annual Crime Report, 2012). The relative populations of inmates were 1426 and 232 men and women respectively in Eldoret G.K prisons while Ngeria farm Prisons hosted 513 men at the time of the study (Prison Records, 2015). Thus both the County and the prison population justified the main reasons behind the selection of this study area. Figure 3.1 shows the map of the study area.



**Figure 3.1 Map of Uasin Gishu County Showing the location of Study Area**  
**Source: Moi University- GIS Department.**

### 3.3 Target Population

The target population is the entire set of possible cases for which the survey data is used to make inferences and it comprises of the eligible group that is included in research work (Kothari, 2013). Kombo and Tromp, (2006) defined the target population as the entire group a researcher is interested in; the group about which the researcher wishes to conclude. The study focused on adult violent crime offenders at Eldoret Main G.K and Ngeria Farm G.K Prisons in Uasin Gishu County of Kenya. The target population comprised a total of 501 offenders at the Eldoret G.K Prisons (n=383) and Ngeria Farm Prisons (n=118) as shown in table 3.1 below. Key informants including magistrates, prosecutors, and officers in charge of the prison facilities were used to support the responses given by the violent crime offenders. The population was suitable for the study since it comprised of violent offenders who provided the most relevant information for the study.

**Table 3.1 Target Population**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Target Population</b>
Eldoret G.K prison	383
Ngeria Farm GK prison	118
Total	501

**Source: Prison Records (February 2015)**

### 3.4 Sampling Frame

Gupta, (2000) asserts that there are various methods of determining sample size. The sampling frame of the study consisted of violent crime offenders drawn from convicted offenders at Eldoret G.K Prisons and Ngeria Farm Prisons. From prison records a list of violent offenders in Eldoret G.K prisons and Ngeria farm G.K prisons

respectively were drawn which formed the sampling frame. The study obtained 501 violent crime offenders from both prison institutions.

### 3.5 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Sampling technique is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places, or things to study (Kombo & Trump, 2006). First, Uasin Gishu County, Eldoret, and Ngeria Farm G.K prisons and key informants were purposively selected. Secondly, stratified sampling of offenders was done to obtain the violent crime offenders followed by a stratified sampling of male and female violent offenders. This was done to ensure that these subgroups in the population were represented in the sample in proportion to their numbers in the target population (Kombo and Tromp, 2009). Finally, simple random sampling was employed to select the respondents who participated in the study using the lottery method to select both men and women who participated in the study (Kothari, 2006). This was conducted by having a frame of all men and women violent crime offenders. Numbers of men and women were written using the inmate's register. Men and women violent offenders from each institution were then requested to pick chips of paper written 'Yes' or 'No' as per their proportion required of each and those who picked chips of paper written 'Yes' were selected for the study. This means that all cases in the population stood a chance of being selected and would be available for inclusion and participation. The sample size of the study was calculated using the formula below as recommended by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) formula for determining the sample size in social research. The formula is used as follows;

$$n = \frac{x^2 N p (1 - p)}{d^2 (N - 1) + x^2 p (1 - p)}$$

$X^2$  =Table values of chi-square at df =1 for desired confidence level  
(0.5=3.841)

N= Population size

p=population proportion (assumed to be 0.5)

d=degree of accuracy (expressed as a proportion)

n = sample size

Substituting for N=501, we have,

$$n = \frac{3.841 * 501 * 0.5(1 - 0.5)}{0.0025(250 - 1) + 0.025(1 - 0.5)}$$

$$=217$$

The sample size for this study was therefore 217 respondents.

**Table 3.2 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Violent Offenders</b>	<b>Sampling Procedure</b>	<b>Sample Size</b>
Eldoret G.K prison	383	383/501 x 217	166
Ngeria Farm prison	118	118/501 x 217	51
<b>Total</b>	<b>501</b>		<b>217</b>

**Source: Prison Records as at 2<sup>nd</sup> February 2015**

### 3.6 Sources of Data

The main sources of data used included;



### **3.6.1 Primary Data**

Primary data was collected from violent offenders and key informants who included officers in charge of both prison institutions, prosecutors, and magistrates. This was done with the help of questionnaires and interviews where violent offenders and key informants respectively were required to provide information based on the questions asked to them regarding their views on the influence of economic hardship on the various types and levels of violent crimes in the study area.

### **3.6.2 Secondary Data**

This was employed in the first phase of the study that is during proposal development and especially in the development of the problem statement. Secondary data was collected from various literature including personal and institutional libraries, archives, and information offices at the County and National levels and internet services. This included; books, journals, dissertations, thesis reports, policy documents, newspapers, reports, and other articles to gather relevant data. The method provided factual and authoritative information on what other studies have done on the influence of economic hardship on levels of violent crimes.

## **3.7 Methods of Data Collection**

The study was conducted through surveys and key informant interviews as explained as follows.

### **3.7.1 Survey**

The survey was used to collect data from the officers in charge of prisons whether the data collection instruments were administered to the offenders. Survey data is defined as the resultant data that is collected from a sample of respondents that took a survey.

This data is comprehensive information gathered from a target audience about a specific topic to conduct research (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2004). Data was collected through officers in charge of prisons. This method helps collect survey data in field research and helps strengthen the number of responses collected and the validity of these responses.

### **3.7.2 Key Informant Interview**

Key informant interview was used to collect data from violent crime offenders since they did not have time to fill the questionnaire and that in the prison setting small items like pens are given precautions they deserve. For its realization, preliminary arrangements were made with prison officers assigned to assist before the actual day of the interview. This was done to ensure full and better participation of informants and to capture more information for comprehensive research on the influence of economic hardship on types of violent crimes. This served as a supplementary data on the issues obtained from the questionnaires (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2004) as the primary information. The choice of the interview was also necessitated by their professional ability and educational level as it addressed the possible problem of inaccuracy.

### **3.8 Data Collection Instruments**

The study employed primary methods of data collection to gather for the required data. This method of data deals with items that are measurable and can be expressed in numbers or figures, or using other values that express quantity. That being said, quantitative data is usually expressed in numerical form. These methods were preferred because they are cheaper to apply and they can be applied within a shorter

duration of time compared to qualitative methods. Moreover, due to a high level of standardization of quantitative methods, it is easy to make comparisons of findings.

The researcher used the following instruments for data collection.

### **3.8.1 Scheduled Questionnaire**

The scheduled questionnaire was administered by the researcher to the offenders in prisons. The questionnaires sought to collect information on the economic hardship and the levels of violent crimes among offenders in Uasin Gishu County. The questionnaire was chosen because it provided a more comprehensive view than any other research tool. Questionnaires were used to obtain primary data from the sampled population. All the respondents were asked the same questions in the same order. The questionnaires contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. They were standardized and completely predetermined. Questionnaires produced both qualitative and quantitative data. The main advantage of this instrument was that it allowed the researcher to control and focus responses to the research objectives, thus enhancing the relevancy of data collected. The researcher personally visited the offenders in the two prison facilities.

### **3.8.2 Key Informant Interview Guides**

Information was collected from violent offenders by the use of the key informant interview guides. This included interviewing sampled violent offenders in both Eldoret Main G.K and Ngeria Farm G.K prison facilities. This information included the type(s) of violent crimes they committed their economic levels before the commission of the violent crime, whether there is any relationship between economic hardship, social and demographic factors, and the levels of violent crimes, and further

on suggestions on any strategies that could assist minimize the levels of violent crimes in society. Interview schedules were important because they helped in eliciting effective responses from the respondents particularly through observable non-verbal cues. The information collected formed part of primary data. The researcher personally interviewed the sampled violent offenders at the two prison institutions.

### **3.9 Validity and Reliability**

#### **3.9.1 Validity**

Mildred, (2002) asserts that for a test to be valid then it must measure what it is intended to. It establishes the relationship between the data and the variable or construct of interest and estimates how accurately the data obtained in a study represents a given variable or construct in the study (Mugenda, 2008). The study adopted content validity which entails ensuring that indicators reflect the meaning of an idea brought forward by the researcher (Drost, 2004). This was done by asking the opinions of supervisors on how research questions should be formulated.

#### **3.9.2 Reliability**

Reliability is the extent to which results are consistent overtime; it refers to an accurate representation of the total population under study (Neuman, 2007). The study employed the use of test re-test method to test reliability. This was done by administering questionnaires to two different respondents at different times. Twenty violent crime offenders were used to administer the test re-test method. This involved identifying a group of respondents to administer the first test, then afterward another group was administered the same questionnaire. Pearson Product Moment Correlation of  $r= 0.86$  was obtained and showed a strong relationship between the two sets of

questions in the questionnaires. A correlation of between 0.5 and 1.0 represents a strong association between scores (Hopkins, 2000; Kombo and Tromp, 2009). This ensured that questionnaires measured what they were supposed to measure.

### **3.10 Data Processing, Analysis, and Presentation**

Data collected from the respondents were first checked for completeness. The raw data collected was recorded and converted into computer-usable form. Data cleaning was done before in order to ensure that correct data was entered. The analysis then began with the computation of the variables of the study. Data analysis in the study relied on descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages presented in tables and cross-tabulations. It was analyzed by the use of Chi-square and Spearman's Rank Order Correlation analyses at 0.05 level of significance to determine associations between categorical and ordinal variables of the study respectively. This was run using the SPSS program. Lastly, cross-tabulation was used to establish patterns among variables. The analyzed data was presented in tables.

### **3.11 Ethical Considerations**

Due to the sensitivity of the information collected from some respondents, confidentiality was assured. The researcher assured all the respondents that their responses were purely for academic purposes. The respondents were given numbers hence anonymity was maintained throughout the research process. A research permit was sought and given from the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI), and the Commissioner of Prisons. No force in collecting the data was used and a good rapport was maintained with respondents throughout the process. There were informed consent and voluntary participation.

### **3.12 Limitations of the Study**

The study was limited to violent crimes only, thus other crime typologies such as property crimes, crimes of the business world and organized crimes were not studied. The study was further limited to violent crime offenders implying that victims of violent crimes were excluded from the study. Lastly, the study was limited to adult offenders thus juveniles were excluded in this study.

### **3.13 Chapter Summary**

This chapter focused on a descriptive research design comprised of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. It also focused on the research area, target population, sampling techniques, and study sample size. This chapter also focused on data collection instruments which indicated details on how they were used to obtain the data, validity, and reliability, data collection procedures, data analysis, and presentation methods and ethical considerations.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter entails the analysis of data collected from the respondents, presentation and interpretation of the study findings.

#### 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The study sought to find out the demographic characteristics of respondents. These factors included gender, age, education level and marital status of the respondents.

##### 4.1.1 Gender of the Respondents

The study sought to establish the gender of violent crime offenders. The study results were as shown in table 4.1 below

**Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Men	186	86
Women	31	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Research Data (2015)**

The study found that 86% and 14% of the violent crime offenders were men and women respectively. This suggests that more men than women are more likely to be violent crime offenders. Elsewhere, males have been observed to be dominant actors concerning violence (Hatty, 2005 in Hale *et al.*, 2006). Traditionally, men are providers in families and therefore feel the most tension when they experience a shortage in their households, joblessness, and stumpy incomes. Thus, powerlessness

to provide may disturb and eventually compel men to use alcohol to cope with the hardship but frequent use of alcohol amplifies dependence and abuse of other drugs. Moreover, greater addiction to these drugs drains the already meager resources, worsens conflicts, loneliness, and anger, which enhances violence to freshen the thoughts of disappointment connected to these social problems.

#### **4.1.2 Age of the Respondents**

The study sought to establish the age of violent crime offenders. The ages of the offenders were the group to depict the distribution of the various ages and illustrate the age trends in the different aspects under study. The study results were shown in table 4.2 below

**Table 4.2: Age of Respondents**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
18-28	99	45.6
29-39	77	35.3
40-49	32	14.7
50-59	6	2.8
60-69	3	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Research Data (2015)**

The study found that age categories of offenders that ranged between 18-28, 29-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69 years comprised of 46%, 35%, 15%, 3%, and 1% respectively as shown in table 4.2. This implies that violent crime offenders were generally younger males with over 70% often being under the age of 40 years. The majority, 54% were in their prime reproductive years and leaned towards larger families and yet most of the offenders are unemployed and involve chiefly persons with fewer experiences in dealing with economic hardship while the much older



persons have probably mastered the skills of surviving with joblessness, inflation, and lower incomes. Offending ages out with time and is highest among the middle and the younger age groups, particularly in rural areas. During this age category, offenders are inclined to have larger families with many dependents to feed, educate and to care for, which augments crimes among younger males of this age category. Equally, crimes are common elsewhere among younger males (Shoemaker, 1996).

**Table 4.3 Age Gender Patterns of the Respondents**

		Age * Gender Cross Tabulation		Total
		Male	Female	
Age	18-28 Years	85 85.90%	14 14.10%	99 100.00%
	29-39 Years	68 88.30%	9 11.70%	77 100.00%
	40-49 Years	27 84.40%	5 15.60%	32 100.00%
	50-59 Years	4 66.70%	2 33.30%	6 100.00%
	60-69 Years	2 66.70%	1 33.30%	3 100.00%
	<b>Total</b>	186 85.70%	31 14.30%	217 100.00%

The study results revealed that of those respondents who were aged 18-28 years, 86% were male while 14% were female, 29-39 years, (88% male and 12% female), 40-49 years, (84% male and 16% female), 50-59 years, (67% male and 33% female) and 60-69 years, (67% male and 33% female) as indicated in table 4.3 above. This implies that the level of violent crimes is dominant among the younger population irrespective of their gender. As both men and women grow older there is a tendency to be less involved in illegal activities.

### 4.1.3 Educational Level of the Respondents

The study sought to establish the education levels of violent crime offenders. The study results were shown in Table 4.4

**Table 4.4: Educational Levels of Respondents**

<b>Level of Education</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Primary</b>	111	51.2
<b>Secondary</b>	78	35.9
<b>College</b>	19	8.8
<b>University</b>	7	3.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Research Data (2015)**

The study found that 51% and 36% of violent offenders had attained primary and secondary education respectively while college and university education comprised 9% and 3% respectively as shown in table 4.4. Those with less education are less likely to neither secure permanent employment nor earn consequential incomes to meet their financial requirements. This might trigger them to employ other alternative means of attaining basic needs which at times ends up committing violent acts.

**Table 4.5 Education and Gender Patterns of the Respondents**

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
<b>Education</b>	Primary	94 84.7%	17 15.3%	111 100.0%
	Secondary	69 88.5%	9 11.5%	78 100.0%
	College	17 89.5%	2 10.5%	19 100.0%
	University	4 57.1%	3 42.9%	7 100.0%
	None	2 100.0%	0 0.0%	2 100.0%
<b>Total</b>		186 85.7%	31 14.3%	217 100.0%

**Source: Research Data (2015)**

Study findings revealed that of those who had attained primary education 85% and 15% were male and female respectively while for secondary education 89% male and 11% female, college education 90% male and 10% female, university education, 57% male and 43% female and on other levels of education all were males as shown in table 4.5. This shows that irrespective of the gender, the lower the level of education, the higher the likelihood that a person will commit a violent crime.

#### **4.1.4 Marital Status of the Respondents**

The study sought to establish the marital status of violent crime offenders. The study results were as shown in table 4.6.

**Table 4.6: Marital Status of the Respondents**

<b>Marital Status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Married</b>	96	44.2
<b>Single</b>	97	44.7
<b>Separated</b>	17	7.8
<b>Divorced</b>	5	2.3
<b>Widow/widower</b>	2	0.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Research Data (2015)**

Concerning marital status, the married, single, separated, divorced, and widowed or widower parents comprised 44%, 45%, 8%, 2%, and 1% respectively as indicated in table 4.6. A high number of single parents imply greater difficulties in making ends meet in their households, especially if they have more dependents and less social ties and economic networks. Women who are separated or divorced or cohabiting report a higher lifetime prevalence of all forms of violence (WHO, 2005).

**Table 4.7: Marital Status and Gender Patterns of the Respondents**

		<b>Gender</b>		<b>Total</b>
		<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	
<b>Marital Status</b>	Married	79	17	96
		82.3%	17.7%	100.0%
	Single	85	12	97
		87.6%	12.4%	100.0%
	Separated	15	2	17
	88.2%	11.8%	100.0%	
	Divorced	5	0	5
		100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Widow/Widower	2	0	2
		100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
<b>Total</b>		186	31	217
		85.7%	14.3%	100.0%

The study results indicated that of those who were married 82% and 18% were male and female respectively, single 88% male and 12% female, separated 88% male while 12% female and for divorced and widowed all were males as shown in table 4.7. This shows that male counterparts who are not in stable marriages (widowed, divorced and separated) are more likely to commit violent crimes as compared to those who are married and single unlike females in the same state. This may be attributed to a lack of socio-economic support from marital partners resulting in financial difficulties and the fear, anger, and frustration associated with loneliness.

**Table 4.8: Occupation Status of Violent Offenders**

<b>Type of Occupation Percentage</b>		<b>Frequency</b>
Employed	25	11.5
Self –Employed	192	88.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Research Data (2015)**

The study observed that 12% and 88% of the offenders were employed and self-employed respectively as shown in table 4.8. Those who were employed were working in both the government and private sectors where they earn wages and salaries. Self-employment entailed farming, small scale businesses, and transport among others. Since a high level of offenders were either unemployed or in self-employment, they earned low incomes and therefore experience greater challenges in meeting their daily demands in their households, especially those of foodstuffs, school fees, clothing, and medical bills among others. With limited incomes, the frustration that results can trigger anger, hostility, and violence during hard times, more especially among those abusing alcohol and other drugs.

## **4.2 Analysis of the Study Objectives**

In this section, the study sought to answer the objectives of the study. This study purposed to examine the influence of economic hardship on types of violent crimes among prisoners in Uasin Gishu County. The objectives of the study included; to investigate whether difficulties in making ends meet is linked to the types of violent crimes and to determine whether frustration, fear, and anger among violent crime offenders are linked to the types of violent crimes.

### **4.2.1 Difficulties in Making Ends Meet and Types of Violent Crimes**

The study sought to investigate whether difficulties in making ends meet are linked to the types of violent crimes. Difficulties to make ends meet were measured by the educational status, occupation and level of household income. These variables were cross-tabulated and tested against types of violent crimes to evaluate their relationships. The study results were presented as follows;

**Table 4.9: Cross-tabulation of Education Status and Types of Violent Crimes**

		<b>Education Level * Type of Crime Cross tabulation</b>						
		<b>Type of Crime</b>					<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Murder</b>	<b>Robbery</b>	<b>Rape</b>	<b>Assault</b>	<b>Domestic violence</b>		
<b>Education Level</b>	Primary	Count	41	0	11	37	22	111
		% within Education Level	36.90%	0.00%	9.90%	33.30%	19.80%	100.00%
	Secondary	Count	0	54	0	24	0	78
		% within Education Level	0.00%	69.20%	0.00%	30.80%	0.00%	100.00%
	College	Count	0	0	9	10	0	19
		% within Education Level	0.00%	0.00%	47.40%	52.60%	0.00%	100.00%
	University	Count	0	0	0	6	1	7
		% within Education Level	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	85.70%	14.30%	100.00%
	None	Count	0	0	0	0	2	2
		% within Education Level	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	100.00%
<b>Total</b>		Count	41	54	20	77	25	217
		% within Education Level	18.90%	24.90%	9.20%	35.50%	11.50%	100.00%

The study results on the relationship between education status and types of violent crimes revealed that 100.0% of those who had no education committed domestic violence; majority of those who had primary education committed almost all types of violent crimes. This shows that as the education levels increases, there is less tendency of an individual to commit violent crimes. This may be attributed to the fact that with better education one might secure a job that might lessen the burden of difficulties in making the ends meet through wages and salaries earned. This was supported by Becker & Mulligan (1997) who indicated that the lower the level of education irrespective of genders the higher the chances of committing violent crimes. This is because since education may also teaches individuals and groups to be patient more.

**Table 4.10: Relationship between Education Status and Types of Violent Crimes**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.128E2 <sup>a</sup>	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	236.48	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.667	1	0.031
N of Valid Cases	217		

a. 14 cells (56.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

The study findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between educational status and types of violent crimes ( $p=0.000$ ). This implies that education is one of the influencers of violent crimes. Economic growth requires a strong social structure where all age groups should have free access to low-cost education to improve their skills and knowledge. Improving skills and knowledge for all age groups opens doors to employment opportunities; however, employment opportunities should provide a wage rate that is sufficient for individuals to survive (Muloket *al.*, 2017). Above all,



this will help reduce violent crimes within these areas because individuals have few motives to carry out such crimes.

**Table 4.11: Cross Tabulation of Occupational Status and Types of Violent Crimes**

		<b>Occupation Status * Types of Violent Crimes Cross tabulation</b>						
		<b>Types of Violent Crimes</b>					<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Murder</b>	<b>Robbery</b>	<b>Rape</b>	<b>Assault</b>	<b>Domestic violence</b>		
<b>Occupational Status</b>	Employed	Count	28	34	12	44	18	136
		% within Occupation Status	20.60%	25.00%	8.80%	32.40%	13.20%	100.00%
	Self-employed	Count	13	20	8	33	7	81
		% within Occupation Status	16.00%	24.70%	9.90%	40.70%	8.60%	100.00%
<b>Total</b>		Count	41	54	20	77	25	217
		% within Occupation Status	18.90%	24.90%	9.20%	35.50%	11.50%	100.00%

The study findings on the relationship between occupational status and types of violent crimes indicated that both those who were employed and those who were self-employed committed violent crimes. Cantor and Land, (1985) argued that unemployment creates an economic downturn which increases motivation for crime through economic hardship and also unemployment decreases crime through a decrease in opportunities associated with economic hardship.

**Table 4.12: Relationship between Occupational Status and Types of Violent crimes**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.553 <sup>a</sup>	4	0.004
Likelihood Ratio	2.587	4	0.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.205	1	0.001
N of Valid Cases	217		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.47.

The study results indicated that there was a significant relationship between occupational status and type of violent crimes ( $p=0.004$ ). This implies that occupational status influences the types of violent crimes. Employment constitutes the major legitimate opportunity structure for achieving conventional social aims; blocking access to employment will increase economic hardship and frustration and consequently the chances of involvement in crime (Agnew, 2009). High levels of socio-economic inequality including economic hardship may lead some individuals both employed and unemployed to experience strain or frustration which may bring them to greater involvement in the crime. Because employment is perceived as conventional behavior and serves to reinforce social bonds and activate social control, it also acts to reduce involvement in criminal behavior. Unemployment leads to economic hardship which leads to the breakdown of positive social bonds. This, in turn, may increase the probability of people resorting to criminal activity in areas with high rates of economic hardship and unemployment, social and community systems, and especially formal and informal normative control systems collapse leading to higher crime rates (Agnew, 2009, Neuman, 2009; Rand, 2007).

**Table 4.13: Cross Tabulation of Household Income and Type of Violent Crime**

		<b>Income * Type of Crime Cross tabulation</b>						
		<b>Type of Violent Crime</b>					<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Murder</b>	<b>Robbery</b>	<b>Rape</b>	<b>Assault</b>	<b>Domestic violence</b>		
<b>Income</b>	Less than	Count	41	20	11	41	22	135
	10000	% within	30.40%	14.80%	8.10%	30.40%	16.30%	100.00%
		Income						
	10001-	Count	0	34	0	23	0	57
	20000	% within	0.00%	59.60%	0.00%	40.40%	0.00%	100.00%
		Income						
	20001-	Count	0	0	8	6	0	14
	30000	% within	0.00%	0.00%	57.10%	42.90%	0.00%	100.00%
		Income						
	30001-	Count	0	0	0	4	0	4
	40000	% within	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	100.00%
		Income						
	40001-	Count	0	0	1	1	2	4
	50000	% within	0.00%	0.00%	25.00%	25.00%	50.00%	100.00%
		Income						
	50001-	Count	0	0	0	2	1	3
	100000	% within	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	66.70%	33.30%	100.00%
		Income						
<b>Total</b>		Count	41	54	20	77	25	217
		% within	18.90%	24.90%	9.20%	35.50%	11.50%	100.00%
		Income						

Source: Research Data (2015)

The study results revealed that 62.0% of those who earned less than 10,000 committed all types of violent crimes; 26.0% of those who earned between 10,001-20,000 committed violent crimes and that only 6.0% of those who earned between 20,001 and 30,000 committed violent crimes. This indicates that the lower the household income, the higher the chances of committing violent crimes. This is further evident by the fact that with an increase in income, the tendency to commit any crime reduces. These findings imply that economic stress and strain are more likely to increase the levels of violent crimes. Those with lower incomes are more likely to be frustrated and to offend when faced with economic stress. Low incomes increase economic strain and people are likely to resort to any means to survive, such people are likely to steal or rob those who have the needed resources.

These findings confirm that during periods of difficulties in making ends meet, those households whose members loss employment, are poor and whose living standards decline feel more hopeless and strained and are therefore more likely to be those experiencing difficulties in the purchase of foodstuffs, medical bills and the payment of school fees. Offenders who experience these difficulties are more likely to be violent and to be imprisoned time and again. Offending may increase in situations in which people are hopeless and have unclear prospects for their future. It also means that regardless of whatever programs, these offenders repeat their offenses if the economic situation in their homes has not improved and their lifestyles have not changed. There is, therefore, need to assess the programs in prisons and also ensure that the economic situation of offenders in their home has changed for the better. For example, some offenders stated that they end up committing murder and robbery as they fight over scarce resources such as land and this happened mostly when the offenders were under the influence of alcohol or drugs. Thus, a positive relationship exists between the level of household income and

the likelihood of committing a violent crime. Brookman, (2005) concur with the findings that income levels positively affects the probability of committing the crime. Overall, the results suggest that relative income affects criminal behavior.

**Table 4.14: Relationship between Household Income and Types of Violent Crimes**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.313E2 <sup>a</sup>	20	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	134.883	20	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.758	1	0.003
N of Valid Cases	217		

a. 20 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .28.

The study findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between household income and types of violent of crimes ( $p=0.000$ ). This implies that household income influenced the type of violent crime. This implies that there is greater complicatedness in the attainment of basic needs; there is additional frustration, anger, antagonism and consequently further violence in such homes. Members in such homes are therefore more likely to resort to various means including theft and deviant and illegal means to cope with the devastating impact of economic hardship, hopelessness, and despair. But it may be that during periods of economic downturns, others are experiencing intricacies while others may find these as simple. It may be this variation that heightens anger and resentment among those who distress that may be responsible for intensified aggravation, anger and enmity that increase violent offending during adversity. These findings further revealed that worsening economic situation may lead to high-interest rates, unemployment and loss of employment, inflation, all of which may, in turn, erode living standards that may increase difficulties in making ends meet in households. Households that may experience the greatest difficulties are those whose members have

lost employment, unemployed or earning low wages. Hence, such households are more likely to experience difficulties in the purchase of foodstuffs, medical bills, school fees, and other expenses. This could be because low household income causes strain on the budget and the people affected could seek other means of raising income or acquiring their basic needs. People with low household income experienced high stress since they have to meet the huge needs with a little income. This may lead people to opt for crimes such as stealing, killing or burglary in order to gain their daily needs. Low-income people could also commit serious crimes because their needs are many and they could be motivated to commit more violent crimes to get high returns. Studies by Farrington, (2000) found that income inequality has a significant and positive effect on the incidence of crime and that violent crime rates decrease when economic growth improves.

Fajnzylber *et al.*, (2002) assert that income inequality is an important factor that drives violent crime rates across countries and overtime and that there is an important correlation between the incidence of crime and the rate of poverty alleviation. According to him, the level of poverty in a country is measured as the percentage of the population that receives income below the threshold level and it is usually determined by the necessary calorific intake and the local monetary cost of purchasing the corresponding food basket. On inequality and violent crime, he found that violent crime rates decrease when economic growth improves. Since violent crime is jointly determined by the pattern of income distribution and by the rate of change of the national income then faster poverty reduction leads to a decline in national crime rates (Block & Block, 2003).

#### 4.2.2 Frustration, Fear and Anger and the Type of Violent Crime

In the second objective, the study sought to determine whether frustration, fear, and anger influence the type of violent crimes among offenders. The study results were presented as follows;

**Table 4.15: Cross Tabulation of Frustration and Type of Violent Crime**

		Frustration * Type of Crime Cross tabulation					Total	
		Types of violent crimes						
		Murder	Robbery	Rape	Assault	Domestic violence		
<b>Frustration</b>	Frustrated	Count	27	34	7	41	17	126
		% within Frustration	21.40%	27.00%	5.60%	32.50%	13.50%	100.00%
	Not frustrated	Count	14	20	13	36	8	91
		% within Frustration	15.40%	22.00%	14.30%	39.60%	8.80%	100.00%
<b>Total</b>		Count	41	54	20	77	25	217
		% within Frustration	18.90%	24.90%	9.20%	35.50%	11.50%	100.00%

The study findings indicated that 58.0% of those who were frustrated committed violent crimes as compared to 42.0% of those who committed violent crimes yet they were not frustrated. These findings imply that the majority of the violent crime offenders were frustrated and felt strained. Such people were more likely to use and abuse drugs especially alcohol to cope with the devastating impact of financial stress and therefore more likely to steal or rob a victim who may be better off. This could be a major contributor to crime since most residents struggle to earn a living just like other people. In every society, people with low incomes cannot meet their basic needs and therefore more likely to involve themselves in alternative ways of making the ends meet. They may opt to steal, use legitimate means to survive since they do not have other means of achieving their daily requirements. In minds of such people, the use of criminal solutions

may be the easiest and the simplest way of earning income by robbery or forcing victims to surrender their property or using threats to take their money or property. Brookman, (2005) concur with the findings that income levels positively affects the probability of committing the crime. Overall, the results suggest that relative income affects criminal behavior.

**Table 4.16: Relationship between Frustration and Type of Violent Crimes**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.671 <sup>a</sup>	4	0.004
Likelihood Ratio	7.662	4	0.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.626	1	0.429
N of Valid Cases	217		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.39.

The study found that there was a significant relationship between frustration and types of violent crimes ( $p=0.004$ ). This implies that frustration influences the commitment of violent crimes. Frustrated persons are more likely to use and abuse drugs, above all alcohol to cope with the devastating impact of financial stress and strain and therefore more likely to steal or rob their victims who may be better off. Indeed, persons experiencing financial obscurity and squat incomes are more likely to use illegal means to make their living, including theft, robbery, or violence, chiefly if their financial circumstances are considered unjust. Low monthly incomes could also be a cause of violent crimes in society. This could be a result of the fact that lower incomes get depleted faster, especially in larger family sizes and hence people in such homes are more likely to steal to survive. These affect more those with manual occupations, the self-employed, those who have lost employment and working on part-time contracts, those in long-time unemployment and earning very low incomes and have large families



and dependents to feed, clothe, educate and meet their other more demanding needs. During periods of economic hardship, the breadwinners are more likely to feel frustrated, angered, and hostile, which heightens their tendency to offend.

Discrimination boosts frustration and annoyance which adds to violent acts. The study results revealed that offenders who felt additionally cut off were extra likely to be violent offenders. Isolation is likely to create the emotion of extreme anxiety and larger irritation, which increases violent crimes. Thus, aggravated offenders opt for crime to retaliate felt discrimination and isolation. These findings, therefore, imply that the number of children, type of residence, discrimination and isolation could have an effect on the type of violent crimes committed by the respondents. Having no children could be a reason to engage in violent crime because one has the freedom to do whatever he or she wants and that no children would suffer out of his or her actions. A large number of children mean more mouths to feed, clothe and meet other basic requirements. This is likely to increase frustration among the lower-income earners. Increased levels of poverty and feelings of isolation accompanied by continued discrimination increase anger and hostility. This could lead the parents to seek other means to provide for their many children. When one is discriminated he/she could opt to crime since he/she would feel everyone is against him/her and committing the crime would be away of avenging them(Fischer, Greitmeyer & Frey, 2007).

**Table 4.17: Cross Tabulation of Fear and Type of Violent Crime**

		<b>Level of fear * Type of Crime Cross tabulation</b>						
		<b>Types of Violent Crimes</b>					<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Murder</b>	<b>Robbery</b>	<b>Rape</b>	<b>Assault</b>	<b>Domestic violence</b>		
<b>Level of fear</b>	<b>Low</b>	Count	22	23	2	35	12	94
		% within Level of fear	23.40%	24.50%	2.10%	37.20%	12.80%	100.00%
	<b>Moderate</b>	Count	12	16	1	12	5	46
		% within Level of fear	26.10%	34.80%	2.20%	26.10%	10.90%	100.00%
	<b>High</b>	Count	7	15	17	30	8	77
		% within Level of fear	9.10%	19.50%	22.10%	39.00%	10.40%	100.00%
<b>Total</b>	Count	41	54	20	77	25	217	
	% within Level of fear	18.90%	24.90%	9.20%	35.50%	11.50%	100.00%	

The study findings revealed that 43.0% of those who least feared the economic hardship committed violent crimes and that 35.0% of those who highly feared the economic hardship committed violent crimes. This indicates that economic hardship may trigger anxiety and fear hence one may want to mitigate the anxiety and therefore resort to crime to sustain or eliminate the anticipated level of economic downturn. These concur with the findings by Gould *et al.*, (2002) who point out that economic hardship may lead to the adoption of illegitimate means to provide for basic needs. Frustration-aggression theory hold that frustration, typically understood as an event instead of fear, increases the tendency to act or react aggressively (Breuer and Elson, 2017).

**Table 4.18: Relationship between Fear and Type of Violent Crime**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	32.047 <sup>a</sup>	8	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	32.285	8	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.904	1	0.168
N of Valid Cases	217		

a. 1 cells (6.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.24.

The study results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the level of fear of economic hardship and types of violent crimes ( $p=0.000$ ). Fear to face the challenges associated with the economic hardship pushes many members of the society to alternatives to making the ends meet. These alternatives at times include the commission of violent crimes. Fear of crime leads to those who are more prosperous to protect themselves and their property, possibly displacing crime to those less privileged (Riggs & Cook, 2015).

**Table 4.19: Cross Tabulation of Anger and Types of Violent Crimes**

			<b>Anger * Type of Crime Cross tabulation</b>					
			<b>Type of Crime</b>					<b>Total</b>
			<b>Murder</b>	<b>Robbery</b>	<b>Rape</b>	<b>Assault</b>	<b>Domestic violence</b>	
<b>Anger</b>	<b>Low</b>	Count	10	5	7	16	3	41
		% within Anger	24.40%	12.20%	17.10%	39.00%	7.30%	100.00%
	<b>Moderate</b>	Count	10	28	3	26	5	72
% within Anger		13.90%	38.90%	4.20%	36.10%	6.90%	100.00%	
<b>High</b>	Count	21	21	10	35	17	104	
	% within Anger	20.20%	20.20%	9.60%	33.70%	16.30%	100.00%	
<b>Total</b>	Count	41	54	20	77	25	217	
	% within Anger	18.90%	24.90%	9.20%	35.50%	11.50%	100.00%	

The study results showed that 48.0% of those who were highly angry committed violent crimes, 33.0% of those who were moderately angry committed violent crimes, while 19.0% of those who were lowly angry committed violent crimes. This shows that the higher the anger, the higher the likelihood of committing any type of violent crime. This was in agreement with findings by Coles, Greene, and Braithwaite (2002) who observed that when negative emotions take the form of anger, they are most likely to lead to acts of crime, particularly violence.

**Table 4.20: Relationship between Anger and Type of Violent Crime**

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.997 <sup>a</sup>	8	0.010
Likelihood Ratio	19.908	8	0.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.583	1	0.445
N of Valid Cases	217		

a. 2 cells (13.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.78.

The study findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between anger and the type of violent crimes ( $p=0.010$ ). This implies that economic hardship can lead to violence by creating feelings of hopelessness and anger which may lead to diffuse aggression. Thus, actual as well as perceived economic deprivation can lead to violence. This is especially true if one's economic hardship is believed to be unjust; for example, when one believes that one is economically deprived because of ascribed factors such as race, age, or religion. The implication is that policy initiatives need to reduce the actual levels of poverty and inequality that beset people as well as eliminate or reduce the perception that people are in poverty or are the victims of inequality. These can be achieved by providing skills, training, and employment for youths which may also affect perceptions of economic deprivation. Agnew and White (2002) observed that anger or rage is associated with a wide variety of violent acts, including homicide, aggravated assault, rape, domestic violence, child abuse, bullying, torture, and even terrorism.

### **4.3 Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented, interpreted and analyzed the data from the socio-economic and demographic factors of the respondents which included; age, gender, marital status, residence, level of education, marital status and occupation of the respondents and their respective gender patterns. This chapter also looked at the economic hardship factors which influenced levels of violent crimes. It further discussed the suggestions given out by the respondents which can assist to minimize violent crimes in society. These factors included education accessibility, creation of employment for the youth, improved economy, guidance and counseling among others.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The chapter further based on the findings of the study highlights the recommendations and suggestions for further research.

#### **5.1 Discussion of the Findings**

The study endeavored to find out the influence of economic hardship on the types of violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County by identifying the types of violent crimes and investigated whether economic hardship is linked to types of violent crimes. The researcher administered questionnaires to the officers in charge of Eldoret G.K Main prisons and Ngeria Farm G.K prisons and interviewed the inmates in both institutions. The objectives of the study included; to investigate whether difficulties in making ends meet is linked to the types of violent crimes and to determine whether frustration, fear and anger among violent crime offenders is linked to types of violent crimes. The specific types of violent crimes committed by the offenders in both prisons were found to be robbery, stealing, assault, grievous harm, housebreaking, murder, rape, manslaughter, stock theft among others. These findings indicated a similarity with those collected by the interview schedules from the inmates. This could be interpreted to mean that a number of violent crimes are committed and most of them involve injuries to other

persons. Indicators of economic hardship included unemployment and underemployment, inflation and low household incomes.

The study found that more men than women commit violent crimes. This was attributed to the fact that women are more likely to respond to strain with sadness or depression than are men who are more likely to respond with anger. Moreover, men are much more likely to express their anger in physical violence than are women. Therefore, it is no coincidence that men are responsible for nearly ninety (90) percent of all murders.

More youth than the aged irrespective of gender were also found to commit various types of violent crimes. This can be attributed to the aging out process in crime omission whereby individuals and groups grow old “age out” there is a tendency to reduce or desist from committing crimes including violent offenses.

The study found out that the lower the level of education irrespective of genders the higher the chances of committing violent crimes. This could be because education may also teach individuals and groups to be patient more (Becker & Mulligan, 1997). This would discourage crime since forward-looking individuals place greater weight on any expected future punishment associated with their criminal activities. To the extent that time preferences are affected by schooling, crimes associated with long prison sentences (or other long-term consequences) should be most affected. Education may also affect preferences toward risk. If schooling makes individuals more risk-averse, it should discourage crime with its greatest effects on offenses that entail considerable uncertainty in returns or punishment. Lochner and Moretti, (2004) study found that a one-year increase in average education levels in a state reduces state-level arrest rates by 11 percent or more. These estimated effects are very similar to the predicted effects derived from multiplying the estimated increase in wages associated with an additional year of

school by the estimated effects of higher wage rates on crime. This suggests that much of the effects of schooling on crime may come through increased wage rates and opportunity costs.

Stable families or marriages are likely to be less prone to violent crimes than unstable marriages and households led by single parents such as, widows, widowers, divorced, divorcee and separated among others. This could be attributed to the socio-economic support that stable families enjoy compared to the one where single individuals are the breadwinners. Stable marriages mean alternative socio-economic support during periods of economic downturn.

The Chi-square test of the hypothesis revealed that there was a significant relationship between difficulties in making ends meet and the types of violent crimes. Difficulties in making ends meet included the inability to provide food, clothing, housing, settling of medical bills, school fees, and other basic commodities. These difficulties compounded with drug and alcohol abuse triggered most of the violent crimes. According to the officers In charge of Eldoret Mainand Ngeria Farm G.K prisons, other difficulties in making ends meet that could have led to the commission of violent crimes were noted as unemployment, scarce economic resources that could be used to foster economic growth, limited entrepreneurial skills among the youths, poor government policies which do not underscore the youths economic empowerment and complete reliance on cash crops at the expense of food crops which spark lack of necessities particularly food. This concurred well with the sentiments of the magistrate and prosecutor at the Eldoret law courts who agreed and noted that other factors contributed to difficulties in making the ends meet hence triggered violent crimes among the offenders. These factors included drug abuse, peer pressure, societal stratification where property ownership gives a class,



cultural factors where a particular community believes in certain ways of earning a living for example cattle rustling, political party affiliations, and religious extremism. This implies that besides the economic hardship there might be other factors that could have contributed to the commission of violent crimes among the prisoners in these institutions.

The study found that a significant relationship exists between levels of frustration, fear and anger among violent offenders and the levels of violent crimes. Fear, anger and frustration were indicated by the levels of desperation and isolation that offenders faced compounded by inadequate socio-economic support from other institutions such as the family, workplace, and church. Desperate and isolated individuals and groups feel hopeless which might trigger frequent violence and crime.

Difficulties to make ends meet were measured by the educational status, occupation, and level of household income. The study findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between educational status and type of violent crimes ( $p=0.000$ ). These findings were supported by Lochner (2004) who emphasized the role of education as a human capital investment that increases future legitimate work opportunities hence discouraging participation in crime and violence. If human capital raises the marginal returns from work more than crime, then human capital investment and schooling should reduce crime. Thus, policies that increase schooling (or the efficiency of schooling) should reduce most types of street crime among adults; however, certain types of white-collar crime such as embezzlement and fraud may increase with education if they sufficiently reward skills learned in school.

The study results indicated that there was a significant relationship between occupational status and type of violent crimes ( $p=0.004$ ). Occupational status influences violent crime

since high levels of socio-economic inequality including economic hardship may lead some individuals both employed and unemployed to experience strain or frustration which may bring them to greater involvement in crime and violence. Because employment is perceived as conventional behavior and serves to reinforce social bonds and activate social control, it also acts to reduce involvement in criminal behavior. Unemployment leads to economic hardship which leads to the breakdown of positive social bonds. This, in turn, may increase the probability of people resorting to criminal activity in areas with high rates of economic hardship and unemployment, social and community systems, and especially formal and informal normative control systems collapse leading to higher crime rates (Agnew, 2009, Neuman, 2009 and Rand, 2007). In a 2005 German study on unemployment and aggression and borrowing from the revised version of the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Berkowitz, 1989), it was found that participants who expected to be unemployed after their degree or who were currently unemployed reported stronger aggressive inclinations than participants who expected not to be unemployed or who were not unemployed at the time of data collection. However, this aggression-eliciting effect of expected or real unemployment only occurred for participants with low self-awareness. Participants who could actualize their self-prior to reporting on aggression were not differently affected by different expectations or states of unemployment (Fischer, Greitmeyer, and Frey, 2007).

Social disorganization theory suggests that in areas with high rates of economic hardship and unemployment, social and community systems and especially formal and informal normative control systems collapse leading to higher crime rates (Agnew, 1999). Social disorganization and the resulting crime and delinquency rates depend on the neighborhood's socioeconomic status, residential mobility, ethnic heterogeneity, family disruption, and urbanization. Cantor, (2005) pointed out that crime reduces when

unemployment rates are high by reducing target attractiveness and by increasing guardianship.

The study findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between household income and type of violent of crimes ( $p=0.000$ ). Studies by Farrington, (2000) found that income inequality has a significant and positive effect on the incidence of crime and that violent crime rates decrease when economic growth improves. Brookman, (2005) concur with the findings that income levels positively affects the probability of committing the crime. Overall, the results suggest that relative income affects criminal behavior. Fajnzylber *et al.*, (2002) assert that income inequality is an important factor that drives violent crime rates across countries and overtime and that there is an important correlation between the incidence of crime and the rate of poverty alleviation. Violent crime rates, therefore, decrease when economic growth improves. Since violent crime is jointly determined by the pattern of income distribution and by the rate of change of the national income then faster poverty reduction leads to a decline in national crime rates (Block & Block, 2003).

The study found that there was a significant relationship between frustration and types of violent crimes ( $p=0.004$ ). These concur with the findings by Gould *et al.*, (2002) who point out that economic hardship may lead to the adoption of illegitimate means to provide for basic needs. Frustration-aggression theory hold that frustration, typically understood as an event instead of emotion, increases the tendency to act or react aggressively (Breuer and Elson, 2017). Under these frustrating conditions, aggressive behavior is stimulated to an extent that corresponds with the intensity of the instigation and the degree of blockage of goal attainment. Aggression is primarily directed toward the cause of frustration but maybe redirected toward any other people or objects. The

inhibition of aggressive behavior represents in itself a factor of frustration and can reinforce aggressive tendencies. The study results further revealed that there was a significant relationship between the level of fear of economic hardship and types of violent crimes ( $p=0.000$ ). These findings imply that crime, including acts of violence, is the result of emotional strain in one's life. Extensive research has shown that certain emotions are highly associated with crime, particularly acts of violence. Agnew and White (2002) observed that anger or rage is associated with a wide variety of violent acts, including homicide, aggravated assault, rape, domestic violence, child abuse, bullying, torture, and even terrorism. Women are more likely to respond to strain with sadness or depression than are men who are more likely to respond with anger. Moreover, men are much more likely to express their anger in physical violence than are women. Therefore, it is no coincidence that men are responsible for nearly ninety 90 of all murders.

The study findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between anger and the type of violent crimes ( $p=0.010$ ). Herzog, (2005) argues that economic hardship produces stressful situations of shortage which in turn, may increase the chances of people turning to crime to provide for individual or family needs. Hence, when both crime and chronic hardship rate rise at the same time and in the same place, it seems possible to explain the rise in crime in terms of increased strain or motivation to engage in crime for people facing economic hardship.

## **5.2 Conclusions**

The study concluded that economic hardship leads to violence and crime. Economic hardship creates feelings of hopelessness and anger, which may increase aggression and hostility. Economic deprivation also reduces social trust and facilitates frustration-

aggression, which in turn leads to violence and crime. The above indicates that economic deprivation may affect community and family processes in such a way that violence increases.

Economic hardship and the associated socio-economic inequalities may lead some individuals both employed and unemployed to experience strain or frustration which may bring them to greater involvement in violent crimes. Because employment is perceived as conventional behavior and serves to reinforce social bonds and activate social control, it also acts to reduce involvement in criminal behavior. Unemployment leads to economic hardship which leads to the breakdown of positive social bonds. This, in turn, may increase the probability of people resorting to criminal activity due to difficulties in making the ends meet.

Economic stress and strain are more likely to increase the levels of violent crimes. Those with lower incomes are more likely to be frustrated and to offend when faced with economic stress. During periods of difficulties in making ends meet, those households whose members lose employment, are poor and whose living standards decline feel more hopeless and strained and are therefore more likely to be those experiencing difficulties in the purchase of foodstuffs, medical bills, and the payment of school fees. Offenders who experience these difficulties are more likely to be violent and to be imprisoned time and again.

### **5.3 Recommendations Based on Findings**

The study found out that there are mechanisms that can be put in place to help minimize the number of violent crimes among offenders. These include compulsory education for children and youths, creation of job opportunities by the government and private sectors,

expansion of economic activities, and guidance and counseling services to the youths. Others include enactment of strict laws on drug peddling and use, improving the rehabilitation skills among correctional officers through capacity building, and setting up of rehabilitation centers within the penal institutions. Specifically, the following recommendations were made;

- i. The government through its agencies should focus on improving the economy and create more job opportunities for the youths to enable them to meet their needs and abstain from criminal related activities. The government could do this by establishing community projects which can take in youths as workers that can enable them to earn their daily living.
- ii. The youths and the unemployed population need skills in entrepreneurship and other income-generating activities through community groups such as self-help groups to enable them to support themselves and find means of earning their daily living.
- iii. Since recidivists are more likely to repeat offending more if economic situation and poverty at home have not improved, there is a need to assess existing programs in prisons and ensure that the economic situation of offenders in their homes has changed for the better. There is also a need for the government to try to reduce economic inequalities in society to benefit more those who are experiencing added economic complicatedness, especially during periods of economic downturns.

#### **5.4 Suggestions for Further Research**

Based on the research findings, the study made the following recommendations for further research;

- i. There is a need for a study to establish the influence of each specific indicator that measures economic hardship on violent offending in both urban and rural areas in various regions of Kenya.
- ii. There is a need for a study to establish the influence of economic hardship on other types of crimes in both urban and rural areas across the country.
- iii. Further study should be carried out on the influence of economic hardship on the levels of violent crimes among prisoners using a control group (non-violent offenders).

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## APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR INMATES

I am a Sociology student at Moi University, Department of Sociology and Psychology undertaking a study on the influence of Economic Hardship (EH) on the levels of violent crimes. You have been randomly selected to assist in supplying information that will be useful to the study. Your honest response and cooperation as required is highly appreciated. You are further assured that the information you will provide will be treated as highly confidential and purposely used for this study only.

**Instructions: Give an appropriate response as asked.**

1. Sex Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Age
  - i. 18-28 [ ]
  - ii. 29-39 [ ]
  - iii. 40-49 [ ]
  - iv. 50-59 [ ]
  - v. 60-69 [ ]
  - vi. Above 70 Years [ ]
3. Highest level of education attained
  - i. Primary [ ]
  - ii. Secondary [ ]
  - iii. College [ ]

- iv. University [ ]
- v. None [ ]
4. What is your marital Status? Married [ ], Single [ ], Separated [ ], Divorced [ ]  
Widow/Widower [ ]
5. Your total household income per month?
- i. Less than kshs10,000 [ ]
- ii. Kshs 10,001 to 20,000 [ ]
- iii. Kshs 20,001 to 30,000 [ ]
- iv. Kshs 30,001 to 40,000 [ ]
- v. Kshs 40,001 to 50,000 [ ]
- vi. 50,000 to 100,000 [ ]
- vii. 100,000 and over [ ]
6. What is your occupational Status? Employed ( ) Unemployed ( )
7. What type of violent crime did you commit?
- Murder ( )
- Rape ( )
- Robbery ( )
- Assault ( )
- Domestic violence ( )
8. What was your level of frustration immediately before you committed the violent crime?
- Frustrated ( )
- Not Frustrated ( )
9. To what extent can you say you feared the economic hardships?
- Low ( )

Moderate     

High           

10. What was your level of anger immediately before you committed the violent crime?

Low           

Moderate     

High           

11. Which of the following types of violent crimes have you been accused of?

	<b>CRIME</b>	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
1	Injured someone who succumbed to injuries		
2	Took money or property using threats or violence		
3	Forced someone to have sex by using violence		
4	Physically and violently attacked someone		
5	Had sex with a minor		
6	Killed someone without malice		
7	Inflicted a very serious or severe injury to someone		
8	Used fire to illegally destroy a house, building or property		
9	Sexually assaulted someone		
10	Caused malicious damage to property or someone		
11	Had a noisy argument or fight in a public place		
12	Caused some disturbance/disturb peace		
13	Attempted to murder someone		
14	Incitement to violence		

15	Offensive conduct		
16	Intimidations		
17	Attempted to destroy property or buildings with fire		
18	Threaten to kill		
19	Attempted to take my life		
20	Had sexual activity with a close relative		

12. Below are five options representing your opinion on economic hardship factors that may have compelled you to commit the offense? The options are; strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). Tick the option that best represents your opinion against each statement.

<b>Economic Hardship Factors</b>	<b>SA</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>SD</b>
1. Difficult to find employment					
2. Poor pay					
3. Difficulty in Provision of food					
4. Difficulty in paying rent					
5. Unable to make ends meet					
6. Difficulty in settling medical bills					
7. Difficulty in paying school fees					
8. Lost a job					

9. Quarrel over land					
10.High inflation or High prices of commodities					
11. Hopelessness due to poverty					
12. Poor harvest					
13. Poor earnings from sale of farm produce					
14 .Low profit making in business					
15.Degrading of the general standards of living					

13. In your own view, what suggestions can be put in place in order to minimize violent crimes in your area?

- i. ....
- ii. ....
- iii. ....
- iv. ....
- v. ....

Questionnaire Number.....

Prison: Eldoret G.K Prisons[]

Ngeria Farm Prisons []

**Thank you and God bless you.**

**APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OFFICERS INCHARGE OF PRISONS**

I am a Sociology student at Moi University, Department of Sociology and Psychology undertaking a study on the influence of Economic Hardship (EH) on the levels of violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County. You have been purposely selected to assist in supplying information that will be useful to the study. Your honest response and cooperation as required is highly appreciated. You are further assured that the information you will provide will be treated as highly confidential and purposely used for this study only.

Instructions: Fill on the blank spaces provided as appropriate.

1. How many inmates are you housing at your facility? ()
  
2. How many men and women are serving a sentence as a result of violent crimes they committed?  
  
Men ()  
  
Women ()
  
3. List the types of violent crimes committed by offenders in your institution.
  
4. What economic hardship factors could have led to the commission of violent crimes among offenders in your institution?
  
5. Which other factors contribute to making the ends difficult to meet hence triggering violent crimes among the offenders in your institution?
  
6. Which mechanisms can be employed to minimize the number of violent crimes offenders in your facility?

**APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MAGISTRATE AND PROSECUTOR**

I am a Sociology student at Moi University, Department of Sociology and Psychology undertaking a study on the influence of Economic Hardship (EH) on the levels of violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County. You have been purposely selected to assist in supplying information that will be useful to the study. Your honest response and cooperation as required is highly appreciated. You are further assured that the information you will provide will be treated as highly confidential and purposely used for this study only.

**Instructions: Fill on blank spaces provided as appropriate.**


1. What are some of the violent crimes commonly prosecuted in Uasin Gishu County?
2. State the economic hardship factors that you have found to influence the levels of violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County?
3. State other factors associated with violent crimes in Uasin Gishu County.
4. Describe the relationship between economic hardship and violent crimes.
5. In your own view, what measures can be placed to minimize violent crimes in Kenya?

**Thank you and God bless you.**




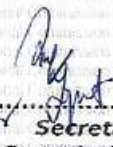
**APPENDIX VI: RESEARCH PERMIT**

**THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:**  
**MR. JAMES KIPTUM CHUMBA**  
**of MOI UNIVERSITY, 0-30100**  
**ELDORET, has been permitted to conduct**  
**research in Uasin-Gishu County**  
  
**on the topic: THE INFLUENCE OF**  
**ECONOMIC HARDSHIP ON THE LEVELS**  
**OF VIOLENT CRIMES AMONG PRISONERS**  
**IN UASIN GISHU COUNTY OF KENYA**  
  
**for the period ending:**  
**1st June,2016**

  
.....  
**Applicant's**  
**Signature**

**Permit No : NACOSTI/P/14/1858/4005**  
**Date Of Issue : 21st November,2014**  
**Fee Recieved :Ksh 1,000**



  
.....  
**Secretary**  
**National Commission for Science,**  
**Technology & Innovation**

### APENDIX V: RESEARCH CLEARENCE PERMIT

#### CONDITIONS

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



REPUBLIC OF KENYA



National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

#### RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No. A 3688

CONDITIONS: see back page

**APPENDIX VI: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION FROM MOEST**

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**  
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Telegrams: "EDUCATION", Eldoret  
Telephone: 053-2063342 or 2031421/2  
Mobile : 0719 12 72 12/0732 260 280  
Email: [cdeuasingishucounty@yahoo.com](mailto:cdeuasingishucounty@yahoo.com)  
 : [cdeuasingishucounty@gmail.com](mailto:cdeuasingishucounty@gmail.com)

When replying please quote:

Office of The County Director of Education,  
Uasin Gishu County,  
P.O. Box 9843-30100,  
**ELDORET.**

Ref: No. MOEST/UGC/TRN/9/217

Date: 17<sup>th</sup> December, 2014

James Kiptum Chumba  
Moi University  
P.O. Box 3900-30100  
**ELDORET**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

This office has received your letter requesting for an authority to allow you carry out research on "*The influence of economic hardship on the levels of violent crimes among prisoners in Uasin Gishu County of Kenya*".

We wish to inform you that the request has been granted for a period ending **1<sup>st</sup> June, 2016**. The authorities concerned are therefore requested to give you maximum support.

We take this opportunity to wish you well during this research.

**KIPLAGAT ROP J.**  
**for: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION**  
**UASIN GISHU COUNTY**

## APPENDIX VII: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION FROM NACOSTI



### NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,  
2241349, 310571, 2219420  
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249  
Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke  
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke  
When replying please quote

9<sup>th</sup> Floor, Utalii House  
Uhuru Highway  
P.O. Box 30623-00100  
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No.

Date:

21<sup>st</sup> November, 2014

NACOSTI/P/14/1858/4005

James Kiptum Chumba  
Moi University  
P.O. Box 3900-30100  
ELDORET.

#### RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *"The influence of economic hardship on the levels of violent crimes among prisoners in Uasin Gishu County of Kenya,"* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Uasin Gishu County for a period ending 1<sup>st</sup> June, 2016.

You are advised to report to the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Uasin Gishu County before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

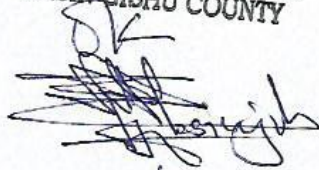
  
DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW  
FOR: SECRETARY/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner  
Uasin Gishu County.

The County Director of Education  
Uasin Gishu County.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER  
UASIN GISHU COUNTY

  
17/12/14

**APPENDIXVIII: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

**OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT AND MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND  
COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT  
KENYA PRISONS SERVICE**

Telegrams: "COMPRISON5" Nairobi  
Telephone: +254 02 2722900-6  
E-mail Comprisons@yahoo.com  
When replying please quote



PRISONS HEADQUARTERS  
P.O. BOX 30175  
NAIROBI

**REF: PRIS7/6/1 VOL IV/52**

Date 24<sup>th</sup> February, 2015

James K. Chumba  
P.O BOX 1191  
**ELDORET**

**REF: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN ELDORET  
MAAIN & NGERIA FARM PRISONS**

We acknowledge receipt of your letter dated 10<sup>th</sup> December, 2014 requesting for the above mentioned subject.

This is to inform you that your request was approved W.E.F Monday 02.03.2015 for a period of 3 months.

You are expected to abide by the laid down prison rules and regulations during this time.

After completion of your research period you are expected to serve this office with a copy of your report.

By a copy of this letter, the Officer in Charge Eldoret Main & Ngeria Farm Prisons are requested to accord you with the necessary support.

Success in your study.

  
**P.W. NGARA, OGW (ACP/ADM)**  
**FOR: COMMISSIONER GENERAL OF PRISONS**

Cc.  
: OIC Eldoret Main Prison  
  
: OIC Ngeria farm prison

**APPENDIX I: TIMEPLAN**

<b>ACTIVITY</b>	<b>TIME</b>	<b>REMARKS</b>
Presentation of Title and Objectives to the Supervisors	January, 2011	Done
Development of chapter one, two and three	February and March 2011	Done
Presentation of the draft to the supervisors	August, 2012	Done
Corrections of the 1 <sup>st</sup> draft	December, 2012	Done
Presentation of the corrected version to the supervisors	January, 2013	Done
Presentation to the Department	May, 2014	Done
Training of Research Assistance	December, 2014	Done
Testing of Research Instruments	December, 2015	Done
Application of the Research Permit to NACOSTI.	December, 2014	Done
Data Collection	February, 2015	Done
Data Analysis	June, 2015	Done
Writing and submission of the thesis to supervisors and corrections	August, 2015 to September, 2017	Done
School thesis defense	October 2019	Done
Corrections, binding and final submission	November 2019 to August, 2020	Done