Chapter-I
INTRODUCTION

The last decade has seen a steady increase in the number of prisoners. Some have grown old in prison, having received lengthy sentences while still relatively young. Others are serving a first sentence, having been convicted late in life. Many are recidivists whose lives have been punctuated with frequent returns to prison.

Prison is often defined as a place where people who have been convicted of crimes are sent to serve their sentences. It had been found through different research studies that in most of the cases women took the extreme step either in self-defense or in an impulsive movement arising from pent-up frustration due to cruelties inflicted them day after day.

The Prisoner

The prisoner is a person proved guilty of a crime alleged against him/her and legally sentenced to punishment of confinement in a prison. In other words, a prisoner is a person sentenced to penal servitude. The prisoner is hemmed in with a view to correcting him or her. The ex-prisoner is one who has been released from confinement after serving his/her sentence in the prison. Are the corrections there to rehabilitate the offenders or both? The assertion of Rubin (1961) that the size of prison population makes it immensely impossible to operate prisons as centers of treatment points to answer the question above.
A prison is the building designated by law or used by the sheriff for the confinement or detention of persons who are judicially ordered to be kept in custody. According to Lectric Law Library Lexicon (2003), a prison is a place where persons are confined or restrained from personal liberty. It can also be regarded as a correctional, detention or penal faculty. Hence the prison is often referred to as a correctional institution where offenders are confined or punished. The prison, like vampires, drains its wards of all that makes for maturity. Osefo (1990) citing Linder (1984) claims that the prison robs inmates of all independence of thought and action and that all vestiges of autism in the individual succumb to the disintegrating process. In other words, there is a gradual decay of those traits in the personality leading to psychological degradation. The researchers are of the view that only proper education and counseling can help rehabilitate the integrity of such persons.

Pre-prison problems and newly encountered problems can cause a subterranean stress in the minds of the prisoners. Reed (2009) states that emotions involved in personal experiences can become ‘recreated’ in prison settings and this can have a profound effect on the woman’s mental health situation. The reconfirmation of their second class citizenship inside the CPF hampers the prisoner’s ability to deal with the different types of problems. Their ability to deal with these stressors influences the prisoners’ future expectancies.

With regard to behaviour of prisoners under stress there is a lack of systematic literature and very few studies which are present were seen in Western Countries. India is under the influence of Globalization and the changes due to this effect are bound to have their impact on the humans. So empherical studies on the sources of stress and how prisoners cope up with stress is very much need of the hour. The role of demographic characteristics and the coping strategies used by prisoners are to be studied.
Types of Prisoners

Criminals are prisoners incarcerated under the legal system. In the United States, a federal inmate is a person convicted of violating a federal law, who is then incarcerated at a prison that exclusively houses similar criminals. The term most often applies to those convicted of a felony.

Detainees are prisoners. Certain governments use this term to refer to individuals held in custody. They are referred to detainees as it is a general term, and as such, do not require the subject to be classified and treated (under the law) as either a prisoner of war or a suspect or convict in criminal cases. It is generally defined with the broad definition: "someone held in custody".

Prisoners of war, also known as a POWs, are individuals incarcerated in relation to wars. He or she can be a member of the civilian population, or a captured soldier.

Political prisoners describe those imprisoned for participation or connection to political activity. Such inmates challenge the legitimacy of the detention.

Hostages are historically defined as prisoners held as security for the fulfillment of an agreement, or as a deterrent against an act of war. In modern times, it refers to someone who is seized by a criminal abductor.

Slaves are prisoners that are held captive for their use as laborers. Various methods have been used throughout history to deprive slaves of their liberty, including forcible restraint.

Other types of prisoner can include those under police arrest, house arrest, those in insane asylums, internment camps, and peoples restricted to a specific area.
**Prison Adjustment**

Adjustment refers to the “psychological processes through which people manage or cope with the demands or challenges of everyday life” (Weiten et al. 2011). Therefore, prison adjustment refers to the processes through which inmates manage and cope with the demands of the prison environment and its experiences. The extent to which an inmate’s adjustment to imprisonment is influenced by the prison environment itself (indigenous) or influenced by the prisoner’s ‘pre-prison characteristics’ (imported) has long been of considerable debate (Dhami et al., 2007).

Social isolation experienced by inmates is one of the main factors which affect their adjustment to imprisonment. Research has found that disconnection from family is a primary reason given for suicide attempts in prison (Kupers, 1999). Many other studies have also found a link between frequent visits from family and friends and positive prison adjustment (for example, Cobean and Power, 1978). Similarly, inmates seem to adapt better to imprisonment when they are allowed some measure of control over their immediate environment (McNulty and Huey, 2005), suggesting that lower security prisons allow for better adjustment.

Mal-adaptation to imprisonment is characterized by violence, aggression, anxiety, depression, distress and suicide (Dye, 2010). One measure of poor adjustment to prison is high rates of disciplinary infractions and time spent in solitary confinement (McShane and Williams, 1989). In their study, McShane and Williams (1989) used 6 concepts to measure adjustment: outside contact, unit assignment stability, good-time earning ability, security classification, work history and disciplinary history.

**STRESS**

Stress is the sum of all non specific biological phenomenon elicited by adverse external influences. One feels stressed confronted with unexpected. It is a multi
dimensional concept and has variety of usages in different fields which vary according to specific focus and purpose.

At one time or another, most people experience stress. The term stress has been harnessed to describe a variety of negative feelings and reactions that accompany threatening or challenging situations. However, not all stress reactions are negative. A certain amount of stress is actually necessary for survival. For example, birth is one of the most stressful experiences of life. The high level of hormones released during birth, which are also involved in the stress response, are believed to prepare the newborn infant for adaptation to the challenges of life outside the womb. These biological responses to stress make the newborn more alert promoting the bonding process and, by extension, the child's physical survival. The stress reaction maximises the expenditure of energy which helps prepare the body to meet a threatening or challenging situation and the individual tends to mobilise a great deal of effort in order to deal with the event. Both the sympathetic/adrenal and pituitary/adrenal systems become activated in response to stress. The sympathetic system is a fast-acting system that allows us to respond to the immediate demands of the situation by activating and increasing arousal. The pituitary/adrenal system is slower-acting and prolongs the aroused state. However, while a certain amount of stress is necessary for survival; prolonged stress can affect health adversely (Bernard and Krupat, 1994).

Stress has generally been viewed as a set of neurological and physiological reactions that serves an adaptive function (Franken, 1994). Traditionally, stress research has been oriented towards studies involving the body's reaction to stress and the cognitive processes which influence the perception of stress. However, social perspectives of the stress response have noted that different people experiencing similar life conditions are not necessarily affected in the same manner (Pearlin, 1982).
Research into the societal and cultural influences of stress may make it necessary to re-examine how stress is defined and studied.

There are a numbers of definitions of stress as well as number of events which can lead to the experience of stress. People say they are stressed when they take an examination, when having to deal with a frustrating work situation, or when experiencing relationship difficulties. Stressful situations can be viewed as harmful, as threatening or as challenging. With so many factors which can contribute to stress it can be difficult to define the concept of "stress". Hans Selye (1982) points out that few people define the concept of stress in the same way or even bother to attempt a crystal clear definition. According to Selye, an important aspect of stress is that a wide variety of dissimilar situations are capable of producing the stress response such as fatigue, effort, pain, fear and even success. This has led to several definitions of stress, each of which highlights different aspects of stress. One of the most comprehensive models of stress is the Bio-psychosocial Model of Stress (Bernard and Krupat, 1994). According to the Bio-psychosocial Model of Stress, stress involves three components: an external component, an internal component, and the interaction between the external and internal components.

The external component of the Bio-psychosocial Model of stress involves environmental events that precede the recognition of stress and can elicit a stress response. As previously mentioned the stress reaction is elicited by a wide variety of psychosocial stimuli that are either physiologically or emotionally threatening and disrupt the body's homeostasis (Cannon, 1932). We are usually aware of stressors when we feel conflicted, frustrated or pressured. Most of the common stressors fall within four broad categories: personal, social/familial, work and the environment. These stressful events have been linked to a variety of psychological physical complaints. For example, bereavement is a particularly difficult stressor and has provided some of the first systematic evidence of a link between stress and immune
functioning. Bereavement research generally supports a relationship between a sense of loss and lowered immune system functioning. Health problems and increased accidents are also associated with stressful work demands, job insecurity and changes in job responsibilities (Bernard and Krupat, 1994). Stressors also differ in their duration. Acute stressors are stressors of relatively short duration and are generally not considered to be a health risk because they are limited by time. Chronic stressors are of relatively longer duration and can pose a serious health risk due to their prolonged activation of the body's stress response.

The internal component of stress involves a set of neurological and physiological reactions to stress. Hans Selye (1985) defined stress as "nonspecific" in that the stress response can result from a variety of different kinds of stressors and he thus focused on the internal aspects of stress. Selye noted that a person who is subjected to prolonged stress goes through three phases: Alarm Reaction, Stage of Resistance and Exhaustion. He termed this set of responses as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). This general reaction to stress is viewed as a set of reactions that mobilizes the organism's resources to deal with an impending threat. The Alarm Reaction is equivalent to the fight-or-flight response and includes the various neurological and physiological responses when confronted with a stressor. When a threat is perceived the hypothalamus signals both the sympathetic nervous system and the pituitary. The sympathetic nervous system stimulates the adrenal glands. The adrenal glands release corticosteroids to increase metabolism that provides immediate energy. The pituitary gland releases adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) which also affects the adrenal glands. The adrenal glands then release epinephrine and nor epinephrine which prolong the fight-or-flight response. The Stage of Resistance is a continued state of arousal. If the stressful situation is prolonged, the high level of hormones during the resistance phase may upset homeostasis and harm internal organs leaving the organism vulnerable to disease. There is evidence from animal research that the adrenal glands actually increase in size during the resistance stage.
which may reflect the prolonged activity. The exhaustion stage occurs after prolonged resistance. During this stage, the body's energy reserves are finally exhausted and breakdown occurs. Selye has noted that, in humans, many of the diseases precipitated or caused by stress occur in the resistance stage and he refers to these as "diseases of adaptation." These diseases of adaptation include headaches, insomnia, high blood pressure and cardiovascular and kidney diseases. In general, the central nervous system and hormonal responses aid adaptation. However, it can sometimes lead to disease especially when the state of stress if prolonged or intensified.

**STRESS IN PRISONERS**

A large number of studies have suggested that prison conditions and particularly inmate overcrowding, can produce stress for inmates (for reviews, see Farbstein and Wener, 1981; Zimring, 1982; Ruback and Innes, 1988; Wright and Goodstein, 1989). One large archival study of 12 prisons in the Texas prison system, for instance, showed that “presence of other residents, low space per person, double bunking and lack of privacy” seem to lead to more frequent suicides, nonviolent and violent deaths, psychiatric commitments, inmate-on-inmate assaults, disciplinary infractions, self-mutilation, illness complaints, and high blood pressure (Cox, Paulus and McCain, 1984). Other studies have found that living in group situations such as dormitories, as opposed to living in single cells, is related to increase in physiological measures of stress such as palmer sweat pulse rate and systolic and diastolic blood pressure (D’atri, 1975; D’atri et al., 1981). Several studies have also shown that crowded conditions result in inmates reporting that they feel stressed and in less control of their situations.

The relative importance of Social density (number of people per room) and spatial (area per person) has been holly debated. Several early studies showed that social density seemed to be more important in predicting stress and at least that area per person is a more important predictor of stress (Carr, 1981).
In other analysis, Ruback and Innes (1988) compared national death rates of the population to death rates for prisoners. They found that prisoners ‘death rate was actually much lower than that of the same age group in the general population. The researchers attributed this to reduction in deaths due to automobiles and violence, which is significant causes of death in young man Ru back and Innes, also criticized research on perceived control and perceived crowding as being of little concern to policy makers.

In sum, although much research examining the impact of the physical setting on inmates and staff has shown effects of prison conditions on stress, much of it appears to have a simplistic, mechanistic orientation. Space per person or people per room are used as variables without considering management practices or other issues. The Contra Costa County Main Detention Facility we found that the fit between facility conditions and management can be effective in reducing stress.

Female criminality in India has been a neglected subject of study. Due to low incidence of female criminality there is less emphasis on research in this field. However, there has been increasing academic interest on female criminality since in the recent past growth of female crimes has shown upward trend. Importantly, imprisonment of mother with dependent young child is problematic issue. The effects of incarceration can be catastrophic on the children and costly to the state in terms of providing for their care. Children should not be allowed to the stay in jails because jails are not the place to bring up children. The children of women prisoners living with them in jails are being deprived of their basic rights, entitlements and amenities for their development. Against this, backdrop; present study purports to review the status of women prisoners and their young children living with them and suggesting policy measures for their development.
Definitions and Concepts of Stress

According to Selye (1956), stress is “any external event or internal drive which threatens to upset the organism equilibrium”.

Wolf and Goodell (1968) defined stress as a dynamic state within an organism in response to a demand for adaptation.

Cofer and Appley (1964) defined stress as a state of an organism where he perceives that his wellbeing is endangered and that he must direct all his energies to its protection.

Lazarus (1966) referred stress a state of imbalance with in an organism that is elicited by an actual/perceived disparity between environmental demands and the organism’s capacity to cope with these demands and is manifested through variety of physiological, emotional and behavioural responses.

McGrath (1970) defined stress as a perceived imbalance between demand and response capacity under conditions where failure to meet demand has important consequences.

Cox (1978) has described three classes of definitions. Stress can be variously thought of as a response, i.e. the stress response to an extreme stimulus as a stimulus, i.e. as the stressor itself as an intervening variable.

Spielberger (1979) defined stress in two different ways. According to him, it is a dangerous potentiality, harmful/unpleasant external situation/conditions (stressors) that produce stress reaction and secondly to the internal thought, judgment, emotional state and physiological process that are evoked by stressful stimuli.
Ryhal and Singh (1996) stated that stress is the state of an organism it perceived that its well-being is endangered and that it must direct all its energies to its protection.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined stress as “a particular relationship between a person and his environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being. The study of stress has become an immensely important in modern times since it has been closely linked with many causes of morbidity and mortality (Stanhope and Lancaster, 1984).

Stress generally occurs when an individual is placed in a situation where his or her prior experiences or backgrounds do not easily lend themselves to interpretation of the current situation. According to Silverman and Vega (1990) a form of “culture shock” then occurs, that triggers the responses which are typically associated with stress. They argue that a prison constitutes a foreign environment to which a person responds with such culture shock. Common sources of stress which the inmate must face include loss of freedom, a limited number of facilities and programmes, a high potential for violence, conflict with other residents or staff, lack of privacy and overcrowding (Paulus and Dzindolet, 1993). Inmates also have to deal with such issues as excess noise, isolation and boredom (Negy, Woods and Carlson, 1997). Other sources of stress include dealing with prison rules, expectations of staff and other inmates and sexual intimidation from other inmates (Sultan, Long, Kiefer, Schrum, Selby and Calhoun, 1984). Inmates may also experience an increasing in stress at the time of their release as they experience uncertainty about the “outside” (Bukstel and Kilman, 1980).

Long-term inmates, such as those who may spend several years or even life in prison, must deal with many of the same stressors as short-term inmates, except the duration is longer (Singer, Bussey, Song and Lunghofer, 1995). Inmates who must serve long-term sentences must also deal with time management issues, maintenance
of family and other relationships and preservation of self-identity and self-esteem. There are prime concerns as to whether long term inmates will experience “institutionalization,” or become so set in the ways of the prison environment that they lose interest with the concerns of the outside world. Whereas short-term inmates can chart their progress towards the goal of release, long-term inmates may experience the “barrier effect,” in which the only portion of one’s life that he or she is able to focus on is the time spent in prison. The inmate’s future is seen as unchanging and the inmate tends not to make future plans. The inmate may be afraid that he or she will soon be unable to think for him or herself. The inmate may also have fear of dying in prison.

Masuda, Cutler, Hein and Holmes (1978) studied the life events of individuals who are incarcerated versus individuals who have never been in prison. They found that prisoners led less stable lives than non-prisoners and experienced significantly more incidences of changes in residence, work, divorces and separations, trouble with in-laws and financial difficulties. Therefore, it may be concluded that individuals who eventually end up in prison are typically experiencing a number of major life stressors before their prison term even begins. Masuda et al. conclude that such a troubled life history, when coupled with development and personality characteristics, often plays a pivotal part in influencing an individual to eventually pursue a criminal career.

Stress can change a person’s pattern of behaviour leading to emotional flatness/emotional numbing, anxiety, distance, withdrawal from social interactions, lives of quiet desperation, extreme lethargy, increasing dependence on the structure and procedures of the institution to initiate and organize their behaviour. In extreme cases, prisoner apathy and loss of the capacity to initiate behaviour on one’s own approximates the symptoms of clinical depression.
Factors of crime

SOCIAL CHANGE AND CRIME

At the beginning of the 1990s’ the average number of offences per on a lakh population was five times higher than in the 1950’s. According to Garland(1996), there is a normality of higher crime rates in late modern society and a new collective experience of crime and insecurity, an experience which is itself structured by the distinctive social, economic and cultural arrangements of late twentieth century capitalism( Garland,2000). Changes in crime rates link primarily to political change and the resulting consequences for the affected societies. Social factors cause delinquency and deviant behaviour. In addition, different pattern of the recording and registering offences and criminal behaviour contributed to varying crime rates. Equally, almost all criminological theories refer to the relations between crime and social conditions (Durkheim, 1961; Lunnak, 1979).

For the last fifty years. For instance, economic and social changes in industrial countries led to an extended range of behaviour defined as a criminal. Computer crimes, environmental crimes, credit card fraud or offence in connection with internet have only been made possible by the technical and economic development of last years. In addition, the public sensitivity for deviant behaviour had risen as well, fundamentally influenced by increasing sensational and aggressive media coverage. Equally important, the women’s movement contributed to bringing offences and behaviour to the public attention that comprise women’s and children’s right (Kury and Woessner, 2002). For the last decades there have been further fundamental societal changes contributing to an increasing crime load. Taylor (1999) holds following social changes responsible for the increase in both crime rates and the fear of victimization: 1.Job crisis, 2.Crisis of material poverty and social inequality 3. Fear of falling and fear of others, 4. Crisis of nation state. 5. Crisis of inclusion and exclusion. 6. Crisis in the culture. 7. Crisis of masculinity and gender order, 8. Crisis
of parenting and family and 9. The size of market society. Unemployment, inequality and poverty cause the breakdown of the everyday order, perspectives, and social relations who further more may lead to the considerable feelings of insecurity, deprivation and apathy.

Unemployment may lead to financial problems and thereby poverty, but also to social isolation. Unemployed people are in danger of sinking into poverty and therefore, becoming socially marginal (Kury and Woessner, 2002). Relevant studies proved again and again that unemployment fosters infra family conflicts and tensions and even violent behaviour (Silberei Sen and Walper, 1989). Significantly, the globalization integration at the process with its concomitant integration at the economic, technological and cultural levels contributes to the globalization of crime as well which appear in the form of crime and also their cause and conditions. When development process reaches a certain stage at which the economic security and social well being of a majority of population is assured the pattern of crime begin to change in forms of and patterns of crime begin to change from crime typical of poverty to crime is typical of affluence (Srivastava, 2002). In the changed scenario, the traditional agrarians castes at the middle and lower middle levels were able not only to enhance their economic standards, but also acquired considerable political power. In cultural and educational domain they are still deprived in relation to the upper castes. They are not only to competitive rivalry with the upper castes, but the lower level debits.

They now have exploitative relationships. The ascendance of this new middle class in rural areas have several important implications for the emerging patterns of caste related crimes and violence in rural areas (Srivastava, 2002). Importantly, lack of social responsibility and accountability, erosion of social values and austerity, an enormous amount of money goes into the black market resulting in the parallel black money which has a destabilizing and crippling effect on the economy. In Urban areas,
enormous growth of population, unplanned development, lack of civic amenities, increases urban population, growing unemployment etc. Has all contributed to the urban unrest, violence and crime. The pressures on urban infrastructure and the perception of privatization of urban areas in comparison to rural areas gives rise to rural urban tensions and conflicts, privatization, liberalization and market friendly policies have lead to the growth of economic crimes. Political mobilization on easier, communal and regional grounds often takes place employing violent means,. This has necessitated the assistance and inclusions of criminals and mafia in politics.

The main factor of the crime in the society is the behavioural problems, Genes, abnormal problems in mutations, endocrine problem psychological abnormalities, and psychosomatic disorders.

This is the most visible problem and yet no long term or short term remedies have been found. Prisons in places like A. P., Gujarat, Haryana M.P., and Maharashtra have prisoners far in excess of their capacity. In Delhi, Tihar jail holds 8700 prisoners against a stipulated capacity of 2200 in one time. The reasons for inordinate delays in trials result in many under trials having to be detained in jail for unduly long periods– in many cases extending the years. Prisoners who are facing charges of grave, professional, violent crimes are outnumbered by others like suspected drug offenders, ticketless travelers, Railway alarm-chain pullers, and a variety of others who have technically violated law. Many of them are in jail only because they could not pay the fines imposed on them courts. In some cases, prisoners prefer to continue in jail because they just cannot afford even a single meal a day outside! Then there are prisoners to spend a couple of months in jail then to pay “maintenance “to their wives as ordered by courts.

The National Police Commission pointed out that 60% of all arrests were either unnecessary or unjustified. This has resulted in overcrowding and accounts for 43.2% of the expenditure of jails according to the previous studies. The legal
requirement of having to give copies of relevant documents to the Accused needs to be streamlined. This is unpardonable, particularly because modern copying machines are not available and can easily replace the old, time–consuming practice of making handwritten copies, which are often illegible. In some cases, it has taken more than eight years to examine witnesses and record evidence. Public witnesses, Official witnesses, lawyers can attribute.

This delay to procedural complexities and absenteeism in one form or another. There are also lapses in producing under trials in courts on the dates of hearing. On many an occasion, they either not produced or produced late, with the result that the hearing gets adjourned causing avoidable delay. This is due to the police authorities not making available police escorts on the ground of non availability of manpower. In many districts, the sanctioned manpower is inadequate.

A large number of recommendations have been made to reduce delays. The Reports of the Law Commission National Police Commission and the annual conference of chief Justice must have also discussed. Numerous seminars have been held, the latest is one seminar on the Criminal Justice System Organized by the Law commission and the Bar council of India.

**Criminogenic effects of the prison**

Criminologists have long debated whether prisons are criminogenic or rehabilitative. The first influence is the criminal propensity that inmates bring with them to prison.

Criminal propensity is presumed by most to be manifest in the criminal history of inmates, but the important conceptual point is that it is a characteristic of the individual inmates. The second influence upon inmate behavior is the inmate culture of the prison. Although inmate culture is formed and shaped by other factors, it is primarily developed and constituted among inmates. Organizational sociologists call
this the informal structure of the prison. The final influence upon inmate behavior is the formal organization of the prison, or what others call the prison regime (Sparks, Bottoms, & Hay, 1996). Prison regime includes a wide range of factors from the types of inmate programs offered to policies for staff-inmate interactions. Both the second and third factors comprise what it typically thought of as the environmental influences upon inmates. The present investigation empirically examines what happens to inmate behavior, in particular, misconduct, when inmates with similar criminal histories (propensities) are placed in prisons with different prison environments. The empirical analysis capitalizes on recent research conducted on inmate classification in the California prison system. Berk, Ladd, Graziano, and Baek (2003) used an experimental design to compare the effectiveness of a new classification system to the old one for male inmates. Female inmates were not analyzed because females effectively have only one classification type in California. What is important for our purposes is that some inmates who were assigned a minimum score (Level I) under the old system were assigned a higher score (Level III) under the new system. It is seldom the case that classification systems are altered in such a manner that inmate classifications change by two levels, but there were 561 inmates whose risk score jumped two levels from a Level I to a Level III classification in California. These inmates, who represent a sub-sample of the 21,734 inmates examined by Berk et al. (2003), were randomly assigned to either a Level I prison or a Level III prison. This scenario provided the opportunity to investigate inmate behavior when the first influence upon criminal behavior (propensity) was held constant and the other two factors (inmate culture and prison regime) varied according to the study design. While the research design does not allow for disentangling the independent effects of inmate culture and prison regime, it does allow for an initial assessment of the joint effect.
The Typology of ‘Born Criminal’s

The British never claimed to criminalize people for the sake of free labour. They used some of the popular criminological theories prevalent at the time to claim that there was a certain class of people who were by their very nature criminal. They also used this theory to justify why children should be taken away from their parents. At the turn of the twentieth century, a common, but not universal, view was that the child was inherently flawed. Theories of ‘born criminals’ or ‘bad breeding’ claimed that a person’s inherited make-up could lead to poor outcomes. These theories proved very useful in India, where there were attempts to label groups as a whole as criminal. From Biblical times various groups of people have believed that when the taint of original sin is not wiped away, people have a natural propensity towards committing socially unacceptable acts. However, these beliefs have generally been used whilst preaching to social outcasts to undergo baptism and wash the taint of original sin away.

COPING

Coping has been defined as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). In this definition, “coping is a process-oriented” phenomenon and is viewed as a way to manage stressful circumstances and events regardless of what the outcomes are (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). We presume that pending or actual separation from children due to imprisonment is indeed a “taxing” circumstance that requires coping. Thus, our research attempted to uncover the ways mothers cope with the pressures and strains associated with their roles as mothers.
Definitions of Coping

Lloyd (1993) coping is a survival process that forces the individual or corporation to assess the degree of alignment between the new experience and the old way, which is required to continue to move forward amidst copious change.

Schuler (1985) coping is a process of analysis and evaluation to decide how to protect oneself against adverse effects of any stressor and its associated negative outcomes yet to take advantage of its positive outcomes.

Lazarus and Holroyd (1982) coping is a cognitive and behavioural efforts to master, reduce or tolerate the internal and/or external demands that are created by the stressful transactions.

Lazarus (1991) coping is a cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external or internal demands (and conflict between them) that are appraised and taxing or exceeding the resource of a person.

Kennedy-Moore and Newman (1991) coping is regarded as a dynamic process, which changes over time in response to objective and subjective appraisals of the situation.

Folkman and Lazarus (1980, 1985) described three processes in dealing with stress. The first process is called “primary appraisal.” During primary appraisal, a person perceives an event as a threat to one’s self. Lazarus (1990) argues that stress is neither in the environment nor in the person, instead it reflects the interaction of a person’s motives and beliefs with an environment that poses harm, threat or challenge. In a study by McGown and Fraser (1995) it was found that the actual number of daily “hassles” or stressors was not related to symptoms of stress instead, the accumulated severity of the daily hassles was related to stress symptoms. In other words, the more one perceives, or appraises, the stressors to be of great concern, the
more likely the individual is to have physical manifestations of stress. Following primary appraisal, the next process is “secondary appraisal,” in which a person brings to mind a potential way to respond to the threat. The third process is that of “coping,” or executing the response to the threat. Folkman and Lazarus have defined coping as “...the cognitive and behavioural efforts made to master, tolerate or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts among them” (1980). In a sense, it is a form of adaptation. They also suggest that coping efforts serve two main functions of the management of the source of stress and the regulation of stressful emotions.

Coping has often been broken down into two main styles, “problem-focused coping” and “emotion-focused coping” (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985). Problem-focused coping is aimed at problem-solving or actively doing something to alter the source of stress. This coping style is most often used when people feel that something can be done about the stressor. Emotion-focused coping deals with reducing or managing the emotional distress that result from the stressor. This coping style is most often employed when people feel that a stressor is simply something which must be endured.

Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989) argue that there are many different forms of problem-focused as well as emotion-focused coping and that these two main coping styles can further be broken down into sub-categories. One form of problem-focused coping is “active coping.” In active coping, a person takes active steps to attempt to eliminate or reduce the effects of the stressor. A second form of problem-focused coping is “planning.” When a person uses planning strategies that person is thinking about how to cope with the stressor. In a sense, this is a form of secondary appraisal rather than coping itself. A third form is “suppression of competing activities,” in which a person will put other projects aside which may act as distractors, in order to better deal with the stressor. A fourth form is “restraint coping.” During restraint coping, a person waits until an appropriate opportunity to
The last form of problem-focused coping is “seeking social support for instrumental reasons.” Examples of this type of coping occur when people seek others for advice, assistance or information.

The first form of emotion-focused coping is “seeking social support for emotional reasons.” Examples of this form of coping are seeking moral support, sympathy and understanding. Another form of emotion-focused coping is “positive reinterpretation” in which a person views a stressor in more positive terms or looks on the bright side. Other forms are “denial” in which a person denies the reality of a stressful event and its opposite, “acceptance.” One last form of emotion-focused coping occurs when people turn to “religion” to help them cope.

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) have defined coping as “… the cognitive and behavioural efforts made to master, tolerate or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts among them. In a sense, it is a form of adaptation.

**COPING SKILLS OF THE PRISONERS**

Prisoners develop more coping skills in the prison. The last punishment of the individual is kept in prison. If the prisoner does not cope in the prison he will go to the severe punishment in the prison. They loss their grace marks for their release (two prisoners came to the prison in same time and the same case. But one of the prisoner got release for the mercy release when the Government announce the release for life prisoners the basis of G.Os’. But the second prisoner didn’t release because he hit the Jail staff) and separate from others and bind them in single lock up. It is severe punishment them because the inmates are human being they afraid the Jail administration and ready to cope the Jail environment. Pastoral counseling impacts the prisoners to lead good life and reduce their stress. The jail administration permits the prisoners to play outdoor& indoor games. They provide all facilities for to play games. The jail hospital is there in the prison. The doctor, nurse and paramedical staff
are appointed by the Jail Dept for the welfare of the prisoners. Most of the prisoners are illiterates. Now they are literates in prison. Teachers and prisoners who are interesting in teaching, they teach the prisoners. Prisoners are getting Satisfaction to educate them in the prison. Open school and Open University are given to them degrees who pay interest to achieve degrees. One of the prisoners is getting gold medal in his academic success. Vocational training education is available for them. Small scale industries like coir, binding, art, iron work, tailoring etc. Prisoners involve National festivals in prison. Aristocrat’s deliver massages to them. Yoga, meditation and prayers are the habituated by the prisoners. The jail dept issues parole to the prisoners. Appoint Govt. Lawyers for the prisoners who are below the poverty conditions. Prisoners involve recreation programmers’ in the prison. Library book are provided for the prisoners in prison. In women prison, women prisoners made and supply the bakery items to the outside of the prison for sale. The prisoners who are the farmers cultivate the 180 acres land for agriculture. All events are made them environment. Physically they cope nicely, but psychologically, they experienced more stress than the outside of the prisoners. Who are not coping in the prison, they go to the psychosomatic disorders and depression. The main disorder among the prisoners is insomnia.

**Appraisal Focused Coping**

Strategies take place when the person modifies the way he thinks, for example employing denial or keeping oneself aloof from the problem. People may alter the way they think about a problem by altering their goals and values, such as by seeing the humour in a situation: “some have suggested that humour may play a greater role as a stress moderator among women than men” (Worell, 2001).
Problem Focused Coping

This coping style is aimed at problem-solving or actively doing something to alter the sources of the stress. This coping style is quite often used when people feel that something can be done about the stressor. Sub categories include: Active Coping - where a person takes active steps to attempt to eliminate or reduce the effects of the stressor. Planning – when a person uses planning strategies, that person is thinking about how to cope with the stressors. In a sense this is a form of secondary appraisal rather than coping itself. Suppression of competing activities – a person will put other project aside which may act as distractions, in order to better deal with the stressor. In restraint coping – a person waits until an appropriate opportunity to act. While seeking social support for instrumental reasons – when people seek others for advice, assistance or information.

Emotion Focused Coping

This style deals with reducing or managing the emotional distress those results from the stressor. This coping style is more often employed when people feel that a stressor is simply something which must be endured. Sub categories include: Seeking social support for emotional reasons – moral support, sympathy, and understanding and Positive reinterpretation – a person views a stressor in mode positive terms, or looks on the bright side. Denial – a person denies the reality of a stressful event. Acceptance – when people accept the reality and seek help to be able to cope.

Many researchers have incorporated the concept of coping in their empirical studies of prisons. The term "coping" is usually used to refer to those personal, contextual and/or social strategies which people use in dealing with situations that are perceived as causing stress or psychological distress. It should be noted that coping is regarded as a voluntary and conscious effort rather than an automatic or instinctive act. Similarly, the subjective perception of the degree of stress associated with a given
situation is also important and situations that are neutral for some individuals may be regarded as threatening by others.

Lot of research and analysis is performed of concurrent and longitudinal studies on the relation as stress factors on prisoners. The life of prisoners in the society is entirely different from others like dress, food, timings and friends. Close confinement, lack of choice and fear often create stress for inmates in prisoners. Many factors have been noted as to why the stress rate in prison is higher than the rate in general population. Some inmates may have behavioural and health problems identified and treated of stress. Prisoners feel stressed, sad, angry, worried, bored, confused, shocked, scared and lonely or a mix of all these things. All sorts of terrible things run through their heads (prisoners). Afraid of what was come, thinking about their family being far away, knowing that they were not going to see them for a while. They decrease their eating, sleeping and pleasures in prison. These vary from person to person but the most common are physical, including headaches, back ache, a dry mouth, indigestion and disturbed sleep. Mental signs may include poor concentration, short-term memory loss, feeling frustrated, angry, depressed and fearful and develop suicidal tendencies. The hardest part is losing their identity.

People differ not only in the life events they experience but also in vulnerability to them. A person’s vulnerability to stress is influenced by his or her temperament, resilience, coping skills and available social support. Vulnerability increases the livelihood of a maladaptive response to stress. Psychological, genetic, or biological vulnerabilities might be especially relevant to particular types of stressors. The relationship applies both to serous malediction requiring professional help and too many lesser problems that lower the quality of life but usually do not lead a person to seek professional help. Stress is the leading cause of insomnia. Stress plays a pertinent role in the problems of prisoners. Prisoners suffering from lifelong
tendencies towards anxiety and depression often experience intensification of these conditions when they must confront stress arousing challenges or reversals.

In coping, people use their personal resources to master a problem, overcome or sidestep an obstacle, answer a question or resolve a dilemma. Different coping strategies are effective in different types of situations of prisoners.

Age

The age of an inmate also appears to determine the psychological effects of imprisonment. In 1992, Richard McCorkle discovered what Toch and Adams had reported in 1989. That is that younger inmates aged twenty five or below, are initially more resistant to the prison structure which makes them more likely to be the targets of victimization in comparison to older inmates who assume passive avoidance roles in prison hence, increasing psychological effects of imprisonment. However, it has been suggested that after the initial shock of imprisonment, younger inmates tend to demonstrate increasing levels of conformity over time (Bartol and Bartol, 1994).

MIDDLE AGE IS A TIME OF STRESS

Middle age is generally considered to extend from age forty to age sixty. Like every period in the life span, middle age is associated with certain characteristics that make it distinctive. Ten of the most

Important of these characteristics are Middle age is a Dreaded period, period of transition, period is a “Dangerous Age”,”Awkward age, Time of achievement, Time of Evaluation, Evaluated by a double standard, Time of Empty Nest, Time of Boredom, Time of Stress. Middle age is a time of stress. Radical adjustments to change roles and patterns of life, especially when accompanied by Physical changes, always tend to disrupt the individual's physical and psychological homeostasis and
lead to period of stress - a time when a number of major adjustments must be made in the home.

Marmor has divided the common sources of stress during middle age that lead to disequilibrium into four major categories. There is evidence that there are sex differences in the ages at which men and women experience middle-aged stress. Most of women, for example, experience a disruption in homeostasis during their forties, when normally they go through menopause and their last children leave home, thus forcing them to make radical readjustments in the pattern of their entire lives. For men, by contrast, the climacteric comes later - generally in the fifties - as does the imminence of retirement with its necessary role changes.

**THE RISING NUMBER OF MIDDLE AGED PRISONERS**

In India, most of the prisoners are coming into the prison is only their domestic problems. Most of the prisoners are coming into the below poverty line, illiterates and villagers. Changes in sentencing and paroling practices over the past 10 years have generated a significant rise in the number of prisoners over state retirement age both in the United Kingdom and in the United States. In 2002, there were, in the United Kingdom and in the United States, 125,000 people aged 50 plus in federal and state prisons (Aday, 2003). In England and Wales also middle aged prisoners increased. Now in India, middle aged prisoners increase day by day. The middle aged prisoners who come to the prison that influence the main factors are political issues, terrorism, scam, group fighting’s, occupational pressures, harassment of the spouse and economical factors.

**MENTAL HEALTH OF THE PRISONERS**

There is particularly urgent need for increased provision for the care of those with mental health problems, who make up a larger proportion of the prison population than they would of any other group in the community. What is more,
prison can exacerbate mental health problems, which has long-term impact on the individual concerned and the community into which he or she may be released.

It is clear that when mental health in-reach teams rode to the rescue of embattled prison staff they found a scale of need which they had neither foreseen nor planned for. Those who end up in our prisons have complex and long standing mental health needs: often linked to substance misuse, and ranging from acute psychosis, through personality disorder, to high levels of anxiety and depression. Some prisoners also, or alternatively, have learning disabilities. And these needs are themselves only part of more complex picture of multiple disadvantage and social exclusion, which may fall through the net of community health, social care, and housing and drug agencies. (Martin Narey, British Institute of Human Rights, 2002)

Women also had higher levels of both previous and current mental health problems, including self-harm, yet were less likely than other prisoners to receive a secondary health screen. Two-thirds of women exhibited signs of psychological distress, higher than men or young adults. This was exacerbated by separation from children and distance from home. For women with emotional problems, unlike men, the most important need was for interventions to support relationship skills.

There are important findings for those delivering and funding mental services in prison. But there is an even more important prior message: that prison has become, to far too large an extent, the default setting for those with a wide range of mental and emotional disorders, which may themselves only be part of spectrum disadvantage. The most important key message is therefore to those commissioning and providing services outside prisons. This requires the same holistic, multi-agency approach within the community as we have recommended in prisons, and which is suggested in the most recent report from the Social Exclusion Unit (HM Chief Inspector of Prison). Prisons can provide better and more focused care for those who need to be there, but they will only do so effectively if there is sufficient alternative provision for those
who should not be there, and effective community support for those who leave prison. Unless those gaps are filled, mentally ill people will continue to fall through them, and into our overcrowded, increasingly pressurized prisons.

**Prison Education:**

**Prison education**, also known as Inmate Education and Correctional Education, is a broad term that encompasses any number of educational activities occurring inside a prison. These educational activities include both vocational training and academic education. The goal of such activities is to prepare the prisoner for success outside of prison and to enhance the rehabilitative aspects of prison.

Educational programs offered inside prisons are typically provided and managed by the prison systems in which they reside. Funding for the programs are provided through official correctional department budgets, private organizations (e.g. colleges, nonprofits, etc.), and the prisoners or their families, if the prisoner is pursuing education through a correspondence program. Educational opportunities can be divided into two general categories: academic education and vocational training.

Skeptics claim that, in many cases, prison education produces nothing more than "better educated criminals". However, many studies have shown significant decreases in recidivism."The more educational programs successfully completed for each six months confined the lower the recidivism rate" according to Harer (1994), in his Federal Bureau of Prisons Office of Research & Evaluation report.

**Academic Education**

Academic education usually is provided in the form of GED or literacy classes. These free classes assist the prisoner in learning to read, write, and perform basic mathematical computations. This is especially important in a correctional setting because, compared to the general population; prisoners are an under-educated group –
who maintain less than 5th grade proficiency in reading and writing – coming from a culture of poverty, with few skills for handling everyday tasks, and little or no experience in a trade or career. Hence, many require significant remedial help before they can attend more advanced educational classes. The goal of these classes is to prepare the prisoner to take the official GED tests – the official high school diploma equivalent – and to hopefully further their education with more advanced studies. Other free basic forms of academic education, which are on the level of the GED courses or below, include English-as-a-Second Language classes and special education classes. Depending on the facility, one, none, or both will be offered.

After the student earns a GED, they are then usually offered the opportunity to further their education through in-prison programs. This continued education is coined Adult Continuing Education in the federal prison system and is also free to participants. These are courses which are led by inmate-instructors and encompass any number of topics. For example, at FCI-Petersburg, the Education Department offers Writing and Publishing, Personal Finance, Spanish, Basic Math, Legal Basics, and more.

Past this basic level of academic education is college education. While the most effective way to offer advanced college-level programs in prisons is to partner with local colleges and universities who are willing to send in teachers, this rarely happens because of funding and staffing concerns. Hence, the prisoners' best bet, in terms of an advanced academic education, is to enroll in college correspondence courses. These are courses from legitimate colleges which are delivered in a correspondence format. These courses are not free to the prisoner. The prisoner must find a way to pay for the courses up-front (e.g. through their own means or through family members or other organizations). College correspondence courses usually cost several hundred dollars apiece.
Vocational Training

Vocational training, on the other hand, offers more opportunities in the prison setting. Much of what is offered will depend upon the local prison's programming. For example, at FCI-Petersburg, inmates have the option to learn Computer Aided Design, Carpentry, and a number of other vocations via "live work" employments (e.g. plumbing, electricity, landscaping). All of these are free to the prisoner-participants.

Outside of the prison setting, the prisoner can usually enroll in vocational correspondence education. These include legal studies, mediation, religious studies, and much more. All costs and fees are the responsibility of the individual prisoner and usually run from several hundred dollars per course to several thousand per program of study. Vocational training via correspondence is almost exclusively less expensive than correspondence academic education.

Thus this study aims at identifying the sources of stress among prisoners and how these sources vary across age, gender, education, life imprisonment, occupation, education, of their parents, habits and type family personal relation and emotional instability. Thus if we know the coping strategies used by these prisoners, and their effectiveness or non-effectiveness we can propose coping techniques for those non-effective copes.