CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION
Social rules and the violation of them are an intrinsic aspect of social organization, a part of the human civilization. Discourse about crime and criminals is thus as old as human civilization. Goffman (1961) in his classic work Asylums defined total institutions as “places of residence and work where a large number of like-situated individuals, cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period of time, together lead an enclosed, formally administered round of life”. The first salient feature of a total institution, therefore, is in its physical barrier to the outside world. Individuals within a total institution are locked inside a confined area, unable to engage in normal social activities. Concomitantly, one’s outside contacts, available only within the confines of this physical barrier, also are limited severely. This physical barrier is for the protection of society as well as for primitive or rehabilitative measures.

The second key feature of a total institution is that individuals within this enclosed environment are forced to develop a unique way of life (Goffman, 1961). Sykes’ (1970) study of a maximum security prison - The Society of Captives, clearly indicated, long-term incarceration creates communities with distinct characteristics. The outside world, whatever an individual’s unique circumstances, has certain commonalities of social arrangements, delineations and expectations. These expectations, however, are no longer valid in the world of the prison. In other words, the “normal” interactions in which most persons in the outside world participate are altered to such an extent inside the prison that a new culture is born.

These distinct characteristics of prison culture have the potential to produce what Goffman (1961) termed “disculturation”, as prison rules and mores differ markedly from those of the outside world (Sykes, 1970). The unique prison environment, therefore, will have implications for the inmate’s self concept as well as his sense of autonomy.

Priestly et al. (1984) reported the most fundamental depression of imprisonment is loss of freedom; freedom to movement, freedom of association, freedom of choice. It is not simply that custody has to be endured, what determines the quality of life
in prison is the extent to which choices about virtually everything is curtailed. Personal adaptations to this situation can assume radically alternative forms. A few prisoners rebel, either in individual campaigns of in-subordination, or collectively in riots. Most adopt a posture of passive conformity towards a system which is clearly beyond their control.

In extreme cases this passivity can become what has been recognized as 'institutionalized neurosis'. And even in cases which fall short of this diagnosis there may be perceptible attrition of the personality and character. The longer that men spend in prison the more likely it becomes that they will suffer some degree of damage and the more difficult it becomes for them to manage success, the transition from captivity to freedom.

The humanitarian drift away from the militaristic rigidities and cruelties of the silent years has provided some of the motive power for the slow reform of the prison system. The ideology of treatment conflicts sharply with the traditional view of imprisonment based on utilitarian notions of deterrence and repentance.

Mathiesen (1990) arguing about the purpose of imprisonment linked the arguments to assertions about the purpose of punishment. In classical penal theory, the purposes of punishment have usually been divided into two major groups: Social defence and Retribution.

Social Defence

Punishment has no value in and of itself. It only has value as a means to protect society against crime. In terms of further refinements, the theories of social defence may vary considerably but they have protection against crime as a common goal. Because punishment, in this perspective, only has a value in relation to the goal of social defence, the theories are called "relative" penal theories.

The theories of individual and general prevention: Individual prevention means the prevention of criminal acts on the part of the individual who is in fact punished. General prevention is the prevention of criminal acts on the part of individual not yet punished. Individual prevention is supposed to be obtained through improvement, deterrence or incapacitation of the offence. General prevention is supposed to be obtained by the deterrent, education or habit forming effect of punishment on others.
Retribution

The purpose of punishment is first of all to fulfill the demands of justice (Andenres, 1974). Efficacy in terms of prevention is secondary in importance. Justice must be maintained for its own sake because if justice succumbs, the existence of man on earth no longer has any value. A consistent theory of retribution provides an answer to the question of which acts should be made punishable as well as to the questions of how severe the punishment should be for justice to be satisfied. Because punishment seen in this perspective presumbly has no value of its own, the theories of retribution are called “absolute” penal theories. Furthermore, these theories state

a. Proportionality between crime and punishment may be established between the external harm incurred and the punishment in question (Andenres, 1974). Here the principle of an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, the law of talion reigns.

b. Moral guilt rather than eternal and often randomly inflicted harm may be the issue. In this case punishment may be seen as a reflection of a more comprehensive moral principle, saying that we should all meet the fate we deserve, there the principle saying is, as man sows, so shall he reap, the principle of culpability reigns.

Public opinion still remains divided on whether prisons should be turned into reformation centers. One group, the most vociferous and popular, feels that prisons should remain what they are - places to lock away criminals. Why,should we care about hardened criminals or thieves or terrorists?

A minority view upholds the need for prisons to be correctional centers - places where criminals can be restrained or retaught to live according to the rules and norms of society. The Model Jail Manual of 1970 also voices a similar sentiment: The “supreme aim of punishment should be the protection of society through the rehabilitation of the offender”.

The international group Human Rights Watch, which in 1991 published a report on prison condition in India faults the authorities for torture in remand, molestation of women in custody, deaths in custody, poor medical facilities and lack of sanitation. The two features of India’s reform programme are - “The Indian jail system has a
class system that helps it maintain a uniqueness from penitentiaries around the world. Prisoners are classified into 'A', 'B' and 'C' categories not on the basis of severity of their crimes but by social status, education and habit of life. The other characteristic is the system of convict officers, who are classified as watchmen, overseers and warders. Appointed by the prison superintendents from among the ranks of the longest serving inmates, and thus those convicted of the most serious crimes perform the duties that prison guards perform in other countries".

However, the most striking feature of Indian prisons is the high level of overcrowding. New Delhi's Tihar Jail has an official capacity of 2,140. In January 1993 it had 7,616 inmates and the figure rose to 8,700. Bombay's Arthur Road Jail houses 2,200 people in a facility designed for 800. In Bihar's Nawpada jail 500 men are cramped into an area meant for 84, they are supposed to accommodate. The tragedy plays itself out all around the country (Fernandes, 1994).

Overcrowding can mainly be attributed to the fact that most people in Indian jails are undertrials, who are not convicted. At least 80 per cent of the 2500000 prisoners lodged in jails across the country are undertrials (Fernandes, 1994; John, 1994). It means that these persons can either be convicted or freed. The chances are almost 50:50. The Bureau of Police Research and Development and other agencies report in 1990, that 6,48,554 cases were registered in the country and of these 3,31,677 cases failed at trial stage - an acquittal rate of 51%. In 1991, the total number of cases was 6,67,340 while the number of acquittals were 3,48,184 - 52% acquittal rate.

As there is no separate building for keeping undertrials, they are confined for long periods in the same building with convicted inmates. There are an overwhelming number of undertrials who are languishing in jail for a long period.

A cardinal principle of justice is that an accused is presumed to be innocent till found guilty. Since a large number of undertrials are from economically deprived sections, the bail procedure is generally beyond their meager means resulting in their having to suffer long years in pre-trial detention. Delay in trial by itself constitutes denial of justice. The right to speedy trial is a fundamental right implicit in Article 21 of the constitution (Kalhan, 1996).

According to available statistics in 1990, 51,80,888 cases were pending trial in the country's court (77.6% of the total cases registered). In 1991 the number of cases
pending trial was 57,12,110 (80% of the cases registered). This status still continues violating the human rights of prisoners.

In Uttar Pradesh, out of the total number of prisoners in the jails about 84% are undertrials as against the national average of 70%. Undertrials, civil prisoners and prisoners sentenced to simple imprisonment are ordinarily confined in the district jail of the district where such prisoners are tried or committed to prison. One of the major areas of concern for the jail administration had been overcrowding of district jails. As per information collected from the office of the IG prisons, UP (during 1996-97), 56 district jails and sub-jails of the State have 37,000 inmates as against the capacity of 22,000 but the situation in five central jails, two camps, one Model Jail, one Nari Bandi Niketan and one Kishor Sadan are found to be better.

SOME DISTINCT FEATURES OF UP JAIL MANUAL:

Supply of Jail Clothing etc. to Prisoners: Every convict sentenced to rigorous imprisonment would be provided with jail clothing and equipment according to the scale laid down in para 580 - 3 saries, 3 kurties, 3 petticoats, 2 towels, 2 chadars, 1 blanket. In winter 2 blankets and 1 pullover.

Clothing for Simple Imprisonment and Undertrial Prisoners: Convicts sentenced to simple imprisonment and undertrial prisoners would be permitted to wear their own clothing, provided (a) that such convict and undertrial prisoners are unable to provide themselves with the necessary clothing, shall be supplied with sufficient clothing from the jail stores. (b) convicts sentenced to simple imprisonment who elect to labour.

Extra Clothing to Old and Sick Prisoners: The Medical Officer has authority at any time to direct on medical grounds the issue of extra clothing to any prisoner or class of prisoners for any specified period or during any season of the year.

REFORMATIVE INFLUENCES:

Religious scruples and caste disciplines shall be paid to the prisoner in all matters as far as it is compatible with discipline. Prisoner professing a religion, the adherents of which are accustomed to the use of a rosary as an aid to devotional exercises, shall be allowed to wear their own rosaries. If the relatives of the prisoner do not provide for the renewal of rosaries they may be renewed at the expenses of the State Government.
Hindus shall be permitted to keep fast if they so desire on the following days - Shiv Ratri, Ram Naumi, Anant Chaturdashi, Deothan Ekadsai, Janamasthmi, Navratra and Bhim Ekadesi.

Muslim prisoners shall be permitted to fast if they choose to do so during the month of Ramzan. They may be put on light labour if the fast is of a long duration.

**RELIGIOUS AND MORAL LECTURES:**

The District Magistrate may appoint honorary teachers in religious and moral subjects and subjects of general utility to the prisoners. Prisoners may be required to recite the prarthana or prayer songs after the unlocking in the morning and before the locking up in the evening in the yards of their respective barracks. Every prisoner who can read shall be permitted to retain permanently in his possession not more than 2 religious books of his own. Every convict male or female sentenced to three months imprisonment or more who is under the age of 50 years shall be liable to undergo instructions in reading, writing and arithmetic up to the lower primary standard unless he or she has been declared by the Medical Officer to be medically or physically unfit to receive such instructions.

Subject to such instructions as may be issued by the Inspector General in his behalf, the Superintendent should provide facilities for physical exercises, cheap games and healthy recreations for the moral and cultural benefit of prisoners on Sundays and holidays.

Ordinary class convicts may receive from the relatives articles in reasonable quantities of a total value of rupees 15 per month to supplement amenities of life in jail.

**Release of Convicts on Grounds of Old Age, Infirmity or Illness:** Convict who owing to old age, infirmity or illness is permanently incapacitated from the commission of further crime of the nature of that for which he has been convicted.

**THE REMISSION SYSTEM:**

No remission shall be earned in respect of any sentence of transportation or imprisonment under section 2 of the Frontier Murderous Outrages Regulations, 1901 (Act IV of 1901), passed on a person above the age of 15 years, in respect of
sentence of death committed into imprisonment for life. In life conviction, the convict is sentenced to imprisonment for life or transportation for life and the period of sentence in such cases is reckoned as twenty years provided that the period of 20 years referred to above would not include any sentence or any period for a subsequent offence committed while in prison or during suspension of sentence.

**SCALE OF ORDINARY REMISSION:**

1. 3 days per month for thoroughly good conduct and scrupulous attention to all prison regulation.

2. 3 days per month for industry and the due performance of the prescribed daily tasks.

**LIMIT OF TOTAL REMISSION:**

The total remission awarded to a convict under the rules shall not, without the special sanction of the State Government, exceed 1/3 part of the sentence undergone.

Following the dictum “a person is sent to jail as punishment, not for the punishment” the jail department in Uttar Pradesh has initiated various steps to improve the living conditions of the prisoners and stress on ensuring human rights along with the reforms of prisoners in the state.

Female prisoners have been traditionally under-represented in research studies. The knowledge of the nature of female criminality is still in its infancy, in comparison with the massive documentation on all aspects of male delinquency and criminality. The under-development of this particular area of study seems to be in part a consequence of the pervasiveness of the belief in the relative insignificance of female criminality (Smart, 1976), since nationally females constitute low percentage of the inmate population (Ruback & Carr, 1984).

**PRISON SYSTEM**

As reported by Raftar (1985), the early institutions were characterized by the neglect of inmates and inferior conditions e.g., overcrowding and the lack of exercise yards. By the late nineteenth century, in the United States, women's prisons become
independent of their male counterparts and the creation of reformatories for women was urged. The purpose of the reformatories was to reform the character (of the inmates), preserve the health, secure fixed habits of industry and morality, to the end that the inmates shall be rendered intelligent, industrious and useful citizens. These early institutions had system of parole and classification and reflected the individualization of treatment derived from positivists criminology.

Women were seen much as erring human beings needing help than dangerous criminals against whom society needed protection. To this end, there were few bars in the institution and it was built as series of cottages, each of which had its own kitchen and dinning room. Each prisoner had her own room. The atmosphere described as informal and domestic. There were also committees of women who handled infractions in the cottages. the American Model was quoted as the ideal by English penal administrators. Paterson wrote (Quoted in Ruck, 1951) “America is teaching the world that a woman's prisons is an anomaly, that it is unnecessary and misplaced. If she is to learn a lesson, she can do so in the home life of a cottage more readily than in an amorphous mass behind a wall too high for low skirts.”

Holloway, the major women's prison in England was announced (in 1968) to be redeveloped as a psychiatrically oriented institution. Since most of the women in custody were inadequate and many were highly disturbed, they were to be classified not so much in terms of their sentence or offence, but rather in terms of treatment which they required. The objective was to make Holloway look as unlike a prison as possible (Faulkner, 1971). The underlying rationale was that women are generally more sensitive to their surroundings and less able to conform to institutional patterns of behaviour.

Holloway was designed in a series of self-contained units each with a ‘family centre’. The training focussed on the development of relationships within the units, family life, home management, cooking and the education and training of children. The ethos was to remain domestic and therapeutic rather than an industrial purpose.

The Mexican philosophy of corrections is considered significant as it not only aspires to achieve the Human Rights standards and norms of the United Nations on the treatment of prisoners, but it also reflects and cherishes the prisoners family life (Pearson, 1993). The logic of Mexican model is that it does not just integrate the family as 'the prime treatment agent' - which has been called for in the literature on mothers in prison - it puts family at the center.
The organization of the institution, the daily life practices, and the informal and formal treatment, place the interna at the center of her family's survival. Each interna's family, their values, family ideology were found to be even present within the prison.

With respect to the discourse on the uses of imprisonment for women delinquents, it was learned that the health of the prison community, the harmonious security (custody) and even the social health and wealth for the country depend on the successes of what was found to be in force; a family based correctional educational model.

The 'gentle handling' of the internas and their young children who live with them, converges with the institutional aim of disarming the delinquent women by enabling her to be more eligible, to be better at surviving (readapting) on the outside. The social context of Mexican families - such as in family organization, family ideology, and everyday family practices predominate in both the strategies of control by the prison administration and in the management of prisoners. For educators and correction specialists, the Mexican model of family based re-education can show how the sister fields of corrections and education can converge to 'disarm' delinquent women.

The Prison act of 1894 governs India. Female prisoners both convict and undertrial would required by section 27 of the Prison Act (Act IX of 1894), be rigidly secluded from male prison, so as to prevent their seeing or conversing or holding any intercourse with them. The female ward would be so situated as not to be visible from any part of the male jail.

The work to be assigned was mainly domestic, such as cleanliness of female enclosure. Mothers were allowed to keep a child with them in jail till they attain the age of 6 years.

Each Indian State has its own prison rules and regulations. The Uttar Pradesh Government had appointed UP Jail Enquiry Committee in the year 1947 which recommended the establishment of a jail for female convicts because the committee thought it better to keep the female convicts at one place instead of keeping them at various jails of the state and also to facilitate the Government in their reformation work. Consequent upon the recommendations of the committee such institution was established at Lucknow and was named as Nari Bandi Niketan. Nari Bandi
Niketan, endeavor to organise the reformation work on scientific lines. In this correctional home, convicted women prisoners from all parts of UP are concentrated to receive education and vocational training which would enable them to earn their livelihood. To attain this objective, the prisoners are taught various arts and vocations such as domestic services, charkha- knitting, tailoring, home-nursing and embroidery. Provision has also been made for the recreation and extracurricular activities for the inmates and their children who up to the age of 6 years can stay with their mothers inside the jail.

Generally, there are few women's prisons, women of all ages and all crimes are thrown together. The population is also much more heterogeneous than in men's prisons, where there is the opportunity for some degree of classification. Classification systems serve two purposes: to provide the type of security arrangements necessary to protect society and to consider the personal characteristics of the individual in so far as these may reflect possibilities for training. But most jurisdictions have few institutions for women and so in effect women remain unclassified (Morris, 1994).

According to Carlen (1985), high standards of behaviour are required of women in prison and women are closely regulated. Dobash, Dobash and Gutteridge (1986) assert that women are put on report for behaviour which would be tolerated in a men's prison.

Mandaraka-Sheppard (1986) identified institutional variables more important, in addition to individual factors. These included method of punishment within the prison, a lack of autonomy as perceived by the prisoner, few incentives for good behaviour, the quality of staff/inmate relationship and the staff's age and experience. It was concluded that to a very large extent serious misbehaviour of women in prison is directly a function of their responses to the particular negative aspects of institutions.

Fight and assaults are reasonably rare in the women prisoners. Women usually report to psychological tactics rather than to violence. They wear each others nerves down until someone explode (Mukherjee & Scutt, 1981). What is worse is that ordinary day to day tensions that the average person outside can healthily release is not allowed to be released in the prison system. There are some things that one needs to yell about; some things that require good, strong, well phrased expressions. But not in goal, quite-often, many of the women are walking fuse-boxes who need the merest excuse to explode.
There is consistent evidence that women report more psychiatric symptoms than do men, are frequently diagnosed as mentally disturbed and are more subjected to psychological treatment of every kind.

Male offenders, in line with the pattern repeatedly noted, are presented as moving in a world of pure exteriority and action. Talking about feelings, experience and inner problems is regarded as foreign, irrelevant or simply unhelpful to them. Yet, for women offenders, such talks seems to offer the natural and necessary approach to that inner world from which their problems are assumed to arise. According to Morris (1994), this is a world of which they can speak being articulate and introspective creatures, but it is also a world which they must speak, if they are to become sane, healthy and law abiding. Often then the crime itself is constituted as no more than a strangled utterance of this inner domain. Where the crime is thus constituted as a pathological communication.

Heidensohn's (1994) work on gender and crime reflects certain trends and patterns in female criminality as compared with male - (1) women commit a small share of all crimes, (2) women's crime are fewer, less serious, and more rarely professional than men's, (3) in consequences, women are represented in very small number in penal establishments.

Women's low share of crime has significant consequences for those women who do offend. Much evidence has accumulated to suggest that women suffer especially from the stigma associated with deviance. At a practical level, women who offend risk losing their homes and children more readily than do men, who may have wives to stand by them (Shaw, 1991).

Discussing the severity of imprisonment for male and female offenders Ward and Kassebaum (1965) opine that imprisonment is more severe for women than men. It is because of the fact that women are regarded as more closely linked to the care and upbringing of children than are men. The distinction between male and female prisoners held is that his wife will despite economic hardship, continue to play her role as mother. The mother in prison, is however asking her husband to assume primary responsibility for the care and supervision of children when his primary role in the family is that of bread winner. The confined mother's concern is not only the separation from her children but also with how they will be cared while the husband works.
Babies in prison is a controversial and complex issue. When a mother is sentenced to imprisonment, an obvious problem is the provision of substitute child care. Priority in the unit is given to women who will give birth during their sentence rather than to those coming in with babies. A critical question is whether a prison is a good environment for a baby. In the early months, physical surroundings are to a large extent unimportant. The quality of the child's life depends mainly on the quality of the relationship and care he or she experiences. Psychologists stress also the importance of bonding in early childhood in terms of further healthy personality development. A report by Britten (1986) claims that psychological problems are experienced by adolescents whose mothers were in prison during their formation years.

Vakkalanka (1996) reported that with a woman the children also come into prison for no fault of their own and more so because they need the care of a mother even if it meant being inside jail. The father, if he is surviving, wants to have little to do with either the child or the mother (under trial or convict) who carries with her the stigma of being jailed.

Research on prisoners' links with their children maintains that it is the right of children and young people to provide support by maintaining meaningful and frequent contact with imprisoned parents. Cobb (1976) hypothesized that social support's major role is to convey information to the individual that others care about and value him or her. The support emanates from not so much what is done but from what that indicates to the recipient about the relationship. In a similar approach, Cassel (1976) examined the feedback function, conveying to the recipient caring and positive regard was more responsible for the positive effect produced than was any specific behaviour.

Although minimal ties are maintained by prison visits, evidence suggests that extended visits form an important component at preventing family breakdown and post release family problems and promoting a sense of acceptance (Llyod, 1993).

**SOCIAL SUPPORT**

Social support theorists generally agree that social networks provide a number of supportive functions on which individuals draw as needed. These include a sense of social embeddedness, belonging, and attachment achieved through group membership; emotional esteem that demonstrates to the individual that he or she
is valued by significant network members; an improved capacity for action, in that significant others can aid in coping by providing information or help in resolving problems and the opportunity for reciprocity in social relationship. Most social relations can offer varying degrees of each of these resources and so serve multiple functions (Heller et al., 1986).

Social support is a by-product of role involvement and typically occurs indirectly as a benefit of social relationships (Thoits, 1985). The access to psychological and material resources depends on their availability in the environment and on an individual's skill in being able to draw on them. Thus social support is a multifaceted construct that has both social and individual components (Heller & Swindle, 1983). As individuals go through a transitional event, their life circumstances disrupt old patterns of behaviour. They develop new expectations and so need new adaptations. In this context, individuals use network members in different ways to cope with shifting task demands.

It is important to specify the transitional life events and their associated task demands because social support resources are likely to be a situation and domain specific (Swindle, Heller & Lakey, 1988). This means that the perception of being supported is based on construals about the availability and utility of social resources in specific life situations.

Besides these, the modes of providing and receiving support also vary by gender, life stage and social class. These variables largely describe the cultural circumstances in which supportive transactions take place, that is, the extent to which the social milieu structures the expression of support.

Three measures of social support have been proposed by Sarason, Pierce and Sarason (1990).

1. The network model that focuses on the individual social integration into a group and the interconnectedness of those within that group.

2. The received support model that focuses on what the person actually received or reported to have received.

3. The perceived support model that focuses on support the person believes to be available if he or she should need it.
NETWORK MEASURES:

Relate either to individuals and those people with whom they have direct personal social links or to those people who through significant or important ties provide the individual with support.

Network measurement approach also identifies different network components. Some of them look at the network's structure and measure its relationships, size and density. Others ask about the qualities of each relationship in terms of its durability, frequency of contact, and intensity. Still others explore the functions of each of the network members, such as the type of help he or she provides.

Vaux and Harrison (1985) proposed that low density networks may help facilitate transitions and adjustment to new circumstances and that high density networks may be helpful when that retrenchment and validation is the appropriate response to the stressor.

RECEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT:

Much of the original interest in social support was related to the possibility of intervention. This meant that the attention was on offering support to those who were experiencing stress and or who seemed to have poorly developed coping abilities because of some combination of personal characteristics and socioeconomic circumstances. Social support conceptualized as the specific acts of others can be viewed as either enacted support (Tardy 1985), in which the focus is on the actions that others perform to assist a particular person, or received support, in which the focus is on the recipients account of what he or she noted as coming from others that was either helpful or intended to be helpful.

The measure of received support is derived from the reports of what the recipients perceive they have been given by others, it is clearly different from their perception of the support that might be available should they wish or need it.

PERCEIVED SUPPORT:

Work on both network measures and received support show that what is reported by the recipient does not necessarily match the reports by others involved. (Antonucci & Israel, 1986). The focus on perceived social support meshes with
and is reinforced by the current emphasis on psychology on cognitive appraisal and the influence of cognitive schemata or working models on behaviour. The importance of cognitive appraisal was emphasized in the work on stressful life events and the coping process. Lazarus and his colleagues concentrated on appraisal when assessing the degree of a situation's threat and the resources, either personal or from associates, that might be used to deal with it (Folkman, Schafer & Lazarus, 1979; Lazarus & Launier, 1978). The personal experience of stress from any event was based on this appraisal rather than on the particular characteristics of the event itself.

Thus perceptions of both the need for social support and its availability if needed affected the amount of stress experienced. The perception and individual meaning attached to events were also shown to have cumulative importance. In the work on the measurement of life events, Sarason, Johnson and Seigal (1978) also considered the person's perception of the positivity or negativity of the event when they predicted the cumulative outcome, rather than simply using the total number of events reported without regard to valence as a predictor.

Based on the research findings of Sarason, Pierce and Sarason (1990), the hypothetical model shown in Figure (1.1) divides the concept of social support into several parts: 1. those traits or personality aspects that are called as a sense of acceptance, 2. the support that is believed to be available or what is usually called perceived available support, 3. the support that is received from others, 4. the recipient's perceptions of that support and their satisfaction with it.

The model relates particularly the role of relationships in the development of a person's sense of acceptance and how that sense of acceptance influences a person's response to stress. The model shows that a positive sense of acceptance influences: 1. the development of current primary relationships, 2. the acquisition of self-efficacy feelings that are both generalized and related to specific tasks, and 3. the perceived availability of social support. A positive sense of acceptance also affects coping, by facilitating task orientation. This coping style reduces self-preoccupation and cognitive interference about the negative consequences of failure. A person's sense of acceptance also influences his or her perceptions of the nature of received social support. Those with a high sense of acceptance are more likely to perceive that actions of others as intentions of support and to be satisfied with the results of those behaviours than are other individuals. Such people are less likely to experience negative emotions such as guilt, anger or shame at receiving assistance than are others.
Figure 1.1: A theoretical model illustrating how the personality characteristic of the sense of acceptance is affected by both past and present relationships and the role that both relationships and the sense of acceptance play in the perception of available support, received support, evaluation of received support, and, ultimately, outcome or adjustment.
Investigations of the impact of stressful life events on a person's adjustment indicate that it depends on a complex interactions of many factors. For example, people differ in their specific task-related skills (efficacy) to deal with specific stressful situations. The nature of the stressful situations also affects the availability of support received from primary relationships. The severity and social acceptability of the stressful event also determine the availability and the suitability of help available. But people with a positive sense of acceptance should be more likely to develop the type of relationship that produce individuals willing to assist, regardless of the personal costs to themselves.

A high sense of acceptance is also likely to contribute to a high level of perceived available social support, another factor that should enhance coping effectiveness. Such a person, confident that others will come to his or her aid should circumstances require it, does not need to worry as much about potential negative outcomes as does an individual who does not believe that others will assist him or her. This greater ability to attend to solving a situation rather than worrying about solving it should also increase coping effectiveness.

It is probably impossible to distinguish between when coping ends and when an outcome has been reached. Thus it may be better to conceptualize outcome in terms of a person's adjustment at specific times.

Thus, perceived social support as the sense of acceptance emphasizes aspects of: heightened interpersonal skills, a sense of self-efficacy leading to adaptive behaviour under stress, low levels of anxiety, positive self-image, positive expectations of interactions with others, and a positive view of other's adjustment (Eisenberger et al., 1997).

Although individual difference variables, may be important to protecting an individual from stressors (as defined by a sense of acceptance), social support arise not only from early relationships but later relationships also serve to perpetuate the pattern of these early associations.

SOCIAL SUPPORT IN RELATIONSHIPS:

A number of researchers have considered characteristics of particular relationships as well as cultural expectations that dictate the appropriateness of different types of support from different relationships alongwith person's own characteristics.
Specific relationships also bring with them different degrees and types of satisfaction and conflict. Argyle and Furnhman (1983) showed this in study of various relationship types ranging from spouse to neighbour and co-workers, in which they found distinctive patterns of satisfaction and conflict for each relationship category. The spouse was by far the highest source of both satisfaction and conflict. The relative amount of conflicts, as opposed to the absolute amount was greater in less voluntary relationships and those in which the person has less power (e.g., with relatives and work supervisors).

Heller and Lakey (1985) argued that perceived social support from two relationship sources, family and friends, have different implications. Rook (1987) and Jacobson (1987) pointed out that the sources of different types of support are important for their cultural appropriateness. In particular, instrumental or tangible support from friends is not seen as appropriate if family members are available. However, not only is emotional support more often obtained from friends, but they also are seen as a suitable source of this kind of support.

Pierce, Sarason and Sarason, (1988, 1989) reported the development of the quality of relationships in terms of depth, the perceived importance, positivity and security of a relationship; interpersonal conflicts; and the availability of social support. They also demonstrated that quality of relationships and social support are empirically distinct constructs and that the prediction of personal adjustment by social support is increased by considering the interpersonal context in which it occurs. These findings suggest that the quality of the relationship between support providers and recipients strongly influences the impact of social support on personal adjustment.

Reciprocity may be important to understanding how social support operates both contemporaneously and longitudinally. Exchange theory is often used to explain ostensibly reciprocal relationships (Clark & Reis, 1988, Fisher, Nadler & Whitcher - Alagna, 1982). This theory focuses on the extent to which characteristics or entities are given and received. It argues that equal exchange or reciprocity is optimal and that if one receives more than one provides, the result may be a feeling of indebtedness that is experienced as aversive (Greenberg, 1980).

Akiyama, Antonucci and Campbell (1990) research strongly confirmed the notion of a longitudinal, culturally specific view of social exchanges and considered it as a long term accounting system, labelled as a support bank for assessing social interactions.
THE SUPPORT BANK:

Basically, the idea of a support bank is that individuals take a long-term development view of their social exchanges, interactions and relationships with other people. It has been proposed that people maintain an ongoing account of the amount of support or various benefits they have given to and received from others.

Wentowski (1981) and Clark (1984) noted that individuals tend to categorize their social relationships. They highlight the relationship's duration and intimacy as important characteristics that influence the individual's assessment and expectations concerning the exchange. These characteristics may likewise influence the individual's notion of deposits into and withdrawals from the support bank. Thus, support given to people with whom one has a limited or superficial relationships may be best seen as deposits into a very short term inter-individual account, whereas support given to more intimate, longitudinal relationships can be considered long-term deposits. These deposits can be drawn on in future times of need.

Dowd (1984) noted that exchanges are based on resources, power, and prestige. He discovered that with age, older people often face a situation of declining resources, power and prestige. In a life-span developmental view of relationships, if people have made sufficient deposits into their support bank, deposits made when their resources were at a maximum, they will have deposits on which to draw.

The exchange process works relatively well when applied to short-term, limited relationships, when the long-term, more intimate relationships are considered that their appreciation to understanding these exchanges breaks down. The influence of socio-demographic and cultural factors also is important to be considered if one is to understand specific exchanges.

IDENTITY, DISRUPTION FORMULATION:

Brown's (1987) identity disruption formulation rests on two assumptions (Fig. 1.2). The first is that major events produce uncertainty and change in people's identities and associated self-conceptions. Major life events such as the death of a spouse, taking a new job, or moving to a new city, may therefore require individual to relinquish cherished identities, adopt new identities or restructure existing identities.
DESIRE TO VERIFY SELF-CONCEPTIONS

CONSTRUCTION OF A SELF-VERIFYING SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

CERTAIN / STABLE SELF-VIEWS

PERCEPTIONS OF CONTROL

ANXIETY/AROUSAL  IMMUNE SYSTEM FUNCTIONING  AFFECTIVE, COGNITIVE, MOTIVATIONAL DEFICITS

HEALTH

Figure 1.2. Self-verification and health.
All of these activities may produce uncertainty and change the people's self-conceptions.

The identity-disruption formulation assumes further that uncertainty or change in self-conceptions may undermine health. First, self-concepts change may undermine the perceptions of control theoretically enjoyed by people with stable, coherent self-conceptions. Diminished perceptions of control may produce anxiety and rumination (Pennebaker, 1985) and have been linked to a wide array of cognitive, motivational and affective deficits. Brown and Siegel (1988) indicated that negative life events that are perceived as controllable are less stressful and less likely to produce the cognitive and motivational deficits ordinarily linked to lack of control. In sum, identity-disruption formulation suggests that stable, relatively certain self-views foster perceptions of control, which in turn, promote health.

Schulz and Rau (1985) distinguished between life events that are statistically or temporarily normative and those that are not. Statistically normative events are those that happen to most individuals in a particular cultural group, and temporarily normative events are those that occur within a predictable but limited age range. Thus, entering first grade, graduating from high school, marriage, birth of first child, retirement and widowhood are events that are both statistically and temporarily normative. They are expected events, and they occur to most individuals at specific times in their life cycle. Because they are anticipated, people can prepare for the changes in coping required, and they usually can obtain support from their network members.

Schulz and Rau also noted that it is more difficult to obtain indigenous support for non-normative events. Events that are unexpected or that occur to only a small number of individuals (e.g., accident injury or death, widowhood at an early age, being fired from a job) are more difficult to cope with and are less likely to be associated with effective indigenous support. Network members have little experience with non-normative events, and fewer institutionalized coping resources are available.

Imprisonment among repeat offenders would be relatively trivial than among women being confined for the first time (either convicted or unconvicted). Although for older women being widowed is normative and produces little network disruption, among prisoners aging and widowhood can be expected to produce as more difficult adjustment as coping and indigenous support are less likely to be available. Social
support is to protect people from deleterious effects of stress. Observations in a variety of settings have highlighted the positive role played by social and emotional support in psychological adjustment, attitude towards life and for wholesome existence especially when one is in crisis.

JUSTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM:

Eventually, every women in prison would be released. What are her chances of beating the institutionalization effects of imprisonment and readjusting to outside society has hardly been explored. Women who have committed a serious offence spend longer in goal and walk out of the gates of a maximum security prison totally unprepared for what they face. A women going in for one or two weeks out of her whole life just on suspicion, who is never to reoffend, is not a criminal although a goal sentence usually means that to community.

Incarceration during last decades of life is another complex issue. In response to internal developmental changes the aging individuals may come to see themselves in a position of lessened mastery relative to the rest of the world, as a passive object manipulated by the environment. Imprisonment can lead to diminished feelings of control and low self esteem. As self-esteem decreases beliefs in one's ability to exercise control over the environment also declines. Elderly inmates may therefore, overestimate the decrements in their capacities, which is far more debilitating than the change itself.

Inspite of stressful life situations if one can sustain a sense of personal control, psychological losses are not inevitable (Skinner, 1995). All humans come with an inborn desire to interact effectively with the environment and so as experience themselves in producing desired and preventing undesired events. Control in any form, real, imagined or illusory is desired as well as desirable, while its loss is aversive.

Each person in society participates linkages with others. The person with an adequate support is less prone to experience social isolation and will have better access to useful information. The quality of relationship is a stronger predictor of life satisfaction along with a sense of acceptance. Support in any form can act as a buffer against stress, reducing its consequences on the stressed individual. Evidence suggests that extended visits from children, family and interpersonal relation groups, an education/support group helps inmates cope with family separation and role strain (King, 1993).
Introduction

It is possible in the case of some stressful circumstances that the initial received support will be as expected but that it will either dissipate or decrease in quality over time. The timing and expression of support are determined by cultural factors such as social roles and socialization experiences.

A relationship has been indicated between climate and several indicators of prison adjustment. In a less structured prison and more opportunities for self efficacy, inmates would experience fewer behavioural problems. Provision of support for self-advancement and improvement is related to positive prison adjustments (Wright, 1993).

The complexity of issue of placement of undertrials, convicts and infirm inmates in penitentiaries has been under-represented till date. Reactions to prison life after induction course, institutional adaptations, coping with stresses and strains put forth by prison environment and fellow inmates and finally coping with the transition of release or post release outcomes are the issues generally missed or overlooked.

The present study neither seeks to discover the social causes of, nor prescribe remedies for, a social problem (crime), nor it is a study which recommends the correct uses and applicability of punishment/imprisonment. It intends to bring forth the effect of social support in perception of crowding and control in prison environment among undertrials and convicts along with their attitude towards life.

PROBLEM

To study the effect of social support, type of prisoner and age group on environmental perception and attitude towards life among female prisoners.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF THE TERMS

1. **Social Support**: means the perceived availability of support after imprisonment, which is an individual's link to essential resources.

2. **Attitude Towards Life**: way of thinking, feeling or behaviour by individual for his/her life.

3. **Environmental Perception**: refers to an individual's personal impressions of setting and is concerned with two major aspects: perception of crowding and perceived control.
a: Crowding: is a psychological state of stress that occurs when the individual becomes sensitive to restrictions imposed by social density.

b: Perceived Control: refers to control over specific aspects of the existing environment.

4. Undertrial Prisoner: those individuals arrested on suspicion, not declared guilty by the law court but serving time in prison.

5. Convicted Prisoner: Individuals declared guilty of crime in a law court and undergoing a determinate sentence.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1. To study the main effects of social support (presence and absence), type of prisoners (undertrials and convicts) and age group (young and elderly) on environmental perception and attitude towards life of female prisoners.

2. To study the interaction effects of social support and type of prisoner, social support and age group, type of prisoners and age group on environmental perception and attitude towards life among female prisoners.

3. To study the interaction effects of social support, type of prisoners and age group on environmental perception and attitude towards life amongst female prisoners.

HYPOTHESES

1. Subjects having social support would experience less crowding and more control than those without support.

2. Undertrial subjects would experience more crowding and lack of control than convicts.

3. Young prisoners would perceive less crowding and more perceived control than elderly prisoners.
4 In the absence of social support undertrials would perceive most crowding and least control, whereas convicts with support would experience lowest level of crowding and greatest perceived control.

5 Presence of social support in young inmates would lead to minimum feeling of crowding and maximum perceived control than other groups.

6 Undertrial prisoners and in old age would perceive greatest crowding and least control than the rest of the groups.

7 In absence of social support, undertrial elderly inmates would perceive as being most crowded and having least control than the remaining groups.

8 Subjects without social support would possess more negative life attitude than those with support.

9 Convicted subjects would have more unfavourable life attitude than undertrials.

10 Young prisoners would have less negative attitude towards life than elderly prisoners.

11 In the absence of social support, convicts as compared to undertrials with support would perceive life most negatively.

12 Presence of social support in young inmates would lead to most favourable perception of life as compared to others.

13 Undertrial prisoners and in old age would perceive life most negatively than rest of the combination groups.

14 Absence of social support in undertrial elderly prisoners would result in highest level of negative attitude towards life than other groups.

The following chapter embodies a brief review of the researches done in the area related to the variables of the present investigation.