

Age, Alcohol, and Homicide Victimization: A Forensic Autopsy Study in Nairobi, Kenya (2009–2010)

Wangai Kiama, MMed (Path)

Department of Pathology, Egerton University, Njoro, Kenya

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.47772/IJRISS.2026.100500108>

Received: 23 April 2026; Accepted: 28 April 2026; Published: 23 May 2026

ABSTRACT

Background: Alcohol intoxication is a well-established modifiable risk factor for violent mortality, including homicide. Its acute effects on cognition, impulse control, and risk perception may increase both vulnerability to victimization and involvement in fatal violent encounters. However, forensic evidence from low-resource urban settings in sub-Saharan Africa remains limited.

Objective: To determine the pattern and distribution of alcohol intoxication among homicide victims in Nairobi, Kenya.

Methods: A descriptive prospective autopsy-based study was conducted at Nairobi City Mortuary between June 2009 and May 2010. From 2,278 recorded violent deaths, a systematic sample of 400 medicolegal autopsies was selected. Vitreous humor samples were analyzed for ethanol using gas chromatography with flame ionization detection. Alcohol-positive homicide cases were categorized by age, intoxication severity, and mode of death. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and chi-square testing.

Results: Of 400 autopsies, 96 (24.0%) were alcohol-positive, including 38 homicide cases (39.6% of alcohol-positive deaths). The majority of alcohol-related homicide victims were aged 20–39 years (65.8%). Heavy to stuporous intoxication was observed in 73.7% of cases, indicating severe impairment at the time of death. The most common modes of homicide were police shooting (44.7%), intentional interpersonal homicide (28.9%), and mob justice (26.3%). A significant association was observed between intoxication severity and homicide outcomes ($p < 0.0002$), with younger adults disproportionately represented among severely intoxicated victims.

Conclusion: Alcohol intoxication is strongly associated with homicide victimization in Nairobi, particularly among young adults. Severe intoxication is common in fatal violence and appears to increase vulnerability across multiple homicide contexts, including interpersonal, institutional, and community-based violence.

Keywords: Alcohol, homicide, intoxication, forensic toxicology, Nairobi, violence, autopsy study

INTRODUCTION

Homicide remains a major global public health problem and a leading cause of premature mortality, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. The World Health Organization estimates that interpersonal violence accounts for a substantial proportion of global injury-related deaths, with alcohol implicated in a significant proportion of violent fatalities [1,3]. Globally, homicide contributes substantially to years of life lost, especially in settings with weak violence prevention systems and high socioeconomic inequality [4].

Age is one of the strongest determinants of homicide risk. Globally, young adults experience the highest burden of violent death due to increased exposure to high-risk environments, peer networks involving substance use, and socioeconomic vulnerability [5,6]. Middle-aged adults also remain at risk due to cumulative social stressors such as economic pressure and interpersonal conflict [7].

Alcohol is a major modifiable risk factor for violence-related mortality. Acute intoxication impairs executive function, reduces inhibitory control, and distorts threat perception, increasing both aggression and vulnerability

to victimization [8,9]. These effects are amplified in environments where violence is common and social regulation is weak, particularly in urban settings and nightlife environments [10].

In sub-Saharan Africa, homicide rates remain among the highest globally. Rapid urbanization, increasing alcohol availability, and socioeconomic inequality have contributed to a rising burden of violence-related injury [11,12]. Studies across the region consistently report a high prevalence of alcohol involvement in traumatic and homicidal deaths, particularly among young males [10,13].

In Kenya, forensic studies suggest frequent detection of alcohol in homicide victims; however, age-specific patterns remain insufficiently characterized [14]. This limits the development of targeted prevention strategies and evidence-based violence reduction policies.

Study aim: To determine age-specific patterns of alcohol intoxication among homicide victims in Nairobi, Kenya.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design and setting: This was a descriptive prospective autopsy-based study conducted at Nairobi City Mortuary between June 1, 2009, and May 31, 2010. Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Nairobi–Kenyatta National Hospital Ethics Committee.

Study population: During the study period, a total of 2,278 violent deaths were recorded in Nairobi, accounting for a substantial proportion of medico legal autopsies performed at the facility. These comprised accidents (1,064; 46.7%), homicides (990; 43.5%), and suicides (224; 9.8%). The present analysis focused on homicide cases.

Sampling: A systematic sampling method (every fifth medico legal autopsy) was applied, yielding 400 autopsy cases for initial screening. From these, homicide cases with available toxicological samples were identified, and those with detectable ethanol in vitreous humor were included in the final analysis of alcohol-related homicide.

Alcohol analysis: Vitreous humor samples (2 mL) were collected during autopsy and analyzed for ethanol concentration using gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (GC-FID), a validated forensic toxicological method for postmortem alcohol determination. Alcohol presence was defined as any detectable ethanol concentration in vitreous humor.

Classification of intoxication: Alcohol intoxication levels were categorized based on vitreous ethanol concentration as follows: Light: ≤ 0.10 g%, Moderate: 0.10–0.20 g%, Heavy: 0.20–0.30 g%, Very heavy: 0.30–0.35 g% and Stuporous: > 0.35 g%

Data analysis: Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including frequencies and proportions, to summarize age distribution, intoxication severity, and mode of homicide. Inferential statistical testing was applied where appropriate, and associations were assessed using chi-square tests with significance set at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Distribution of Violent Deaths

A total of 2,278 violent deaths were recorded. Accidents were the leading cause (46.7%), followed by homicides (43.5%) and suicides (9.8%). (**Table 1**)

Table 1: Distribution of Violent deaths by cause in Nairobi Kenya

Cause of deaths	Number	Percentage (%)
Accident	1064	46.7
Homicide	990	43.5
Suicide	224	9.8
Total	2278	100

Alcohol Positivity

Among 400 autopsies, 96 cases (24.0%) were alcohol-positive. Homicides accounted for 39.6% of alcohol-positive cases, accidents 52.1%, and suicides 8.3%. **(Table 2).**

Table 2: Distribution of alcohol intoxicated victims by cause

Cause	No	%
Accidents	50	52.1
Homicide	38	39.6
Suicide	8	8,3
Total	96	100

Age Distribution of Alcohol-Related Homicide Victims

Alcohol-related homicide victims were predominantly young adults. The majority of cases occurred in individuals aged 20–39 years, who accounted for 25 cases (65.8%). This was followed by the 40–59-year age group with 9 cases (23.7%), while only 4 cases (10.5%) involved individuals aged 60 years and above. Overall, more than two-thirds of victims were in the economically active young adult age bracket. **(Table 3)**

Table 3: Age distribution of alcohol-related homicide victims (n = 38)

Age Group(Years)	Frequency	%
20-39	25	65.8
40-59	9	23.7
>=60	4	10.5
Total	38	100

Alcohol Intoxication Levels

Analysis of postmortem ethanol levels showed that most victims were significantly intoxicated at the time of death. Heavy intoxication was observed in 14 cases (36.8%), very heavy intoxication in 10 cases (26.3%), and stuporous intoxication in 14 cases (36.8%). Overall, 73.7% of victims were classified within the heavy to stuporous intoxication range, indicating severe impairment in cognitive and behavioral control at the time of the fatal incident. **(Table 4)**

Table 4: Alcohol intoxication levels among homicide victims (n = 38)

Intoxication Level	Frequency	%
Heavy	14	36.8
Very Heavy	10	26.3
Stuporous	14	36.8
Total	38	100

Mode of Homicide

The distribution of homicide mechanisms revealed that nearly half of all alcohol-positive victims died from police shootings, accounting for 17 cases (44.7%). Intentional interpersonal homicide accounted for 11 cases (28.9%), while mob justice incidents contributed 10 cases (26.3%). This indicates that alcohol intoxication was present across diverse forms of violent death, including institutional, interpersonal, and community-based violence. (Table 5)

Table 5: Mode of homicide among alcohol-intoxicated victims (n = 38)

Mode of Death	Frequency	%
Police Shooting	17	44.7
Intentional Murder	11	28.9
Mob justice	10	26.8
Total	38	100

Statistical Inference

Statistical analysis demonstrated a strong and significant association between alcohol intoxication severity and homicide outcomes ($p < 0.0002$), indicating that higher levels of intoxication were strongly linked to fatal violent events. Additionally, young adults aged 20–39 years were significantly overrepresented among victims (χ^2 test, $p < 0.05$), confirming a non-random age distribution. Further stratification revealed that high intoxication levels (heavy to stuporous) were significantly clustered within younger age groups, suggesting an interaction between age and alcohol consumption in determining vulnerability to homicide victimization.

Overall, the statistical findings reinforce a dose–response and age-dependent relationship between alcohol intoxication and homicide risk, with the highest burden observed among young, severely intoxicated individuals.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates a clear and statistically supported age-dependent pattern in alcohol-related homicide victimization in Nairobi, with the majority of cases occurring among young adults aged 20–39 years. This finding is consistent with global epidemiological evidence showing that homicide mortality is heavily concentrated in early adulthood, a period characterized by increased exposure to violence-prone environments, peer influence, and higher rates of substance use [1–4]. The World Health Organization identifies interpersonal violence as a major contributor to premature mortality worldwide, with young adults bearing the greatest burden, particularly in low- and middle-income countries where social protection and violence prevention systems are weaker [1,2].

Age operates as a key structural and behavioral determinant of violence risk. Young adulthood is associated with increased mobility, social interaction in high-risk environments, and greater exposure to alcohol-related social contexts such as nightlife and informal drinking establishments [5,6]. Neurodevelopmental factors also contribute, as ongoing maturation of the prefrontal cortex during early adulthood is associated with incomplete impulse control, heightened sensation-seeking, and reduced risk appraisal [6,7]. When combined with alcohol intoxication, these age-related vulnerabilities significantly amplify exposure to violent encounters and reduce the ability to escape or de-escalate threatening situations.

Alcohol plays a central mechanistic role in the pathway to homicide victimization. Acute intoxication impairs executive functioning, reduces inhibitory control, and distorts threat perception, thereby increasing both vulnerability to victimization and the likelihood of involvement in violent situations [8,9]. Experimental and epidemiological studies consistently demonstrate that alcohol increases emotional reactivity and aggression while simultaneously reducing cognitive flexibility and situational awareness [9,10]. These effects create a state of behavioral disinhibition in which individuals are less capable of recognizing danger, avoiding confrontation, or responding appropriately to escalating conflict.

The strong clustering of heavy to stuporous intoxication (73.7%) among homicide victims in this study supports a dose–response relationship between alcohol consumption and fatal violence. This is consistent with international forensic evidence showing that increasing blood alcohol concentration is associated with progressively higher risk of violent victimization and death [8,10,11]. Studies from both high-income and low-income countries demonstrate that intoxicated individuals are disproportionately represented in homicide populations, particularly during nighttime and weekend periods when heavy drinking is more common [9,11].

The predominance of young adults in this study also reflects broader sociocultural patterns of alcohol use. Globally, heavy episodic drinking is most prevalent among individuals aged 20–39 years, particularly males, who are more likely to engage in binge drinking and high-risk social behaviors [5,12]. This age group is also more frequently exposed to environments where alcohol-related violence occurs, including bars, informal drinking venues, and street-based social gatherings. These settings increase the likelihood of interpersonal conflict, victimization, and escalation into lethal violence.

The distribution of homicide mechanisms further highlights the multifactorial role of alcohol in violent death. The high proportion of police shootings (44.7%) among intoxicated victims suggests that alcohol-related behavioral disinhibition may significantly influence interactions with law enforcement. Intoxicated individuals may exhibit reduced compliance, impaired communication, and unpredictable behavior, all of which can escalate encounters with police into fatal outcomes [13,14]. International literature on policing and violence similarly identifies alcohol as a frequent contributing factor in fatal law enforcement encounters, particularly in urban environments where rapid decision-making is required under uncertain conditions [13].

Intentional interpersonal homicides (28.9%) reflect alcohol's role in facilitating aggression and conflict escalation. Alcohol consumption is well known to increase emotional reactivity, reduce inhibitory control, and impair problem-solving capacity, thereby increasing the likelihood that disputes escalate into violence [6,7,15]. In both domestic and social contexts, mutual intoxication of victims and perpetrators is a well-established risk factor for lethal violence [15]. These findings reinforce the concept that alcohol functions not as a sole cause of violence but as a proximal trigger that intensifies underlying social tensions.

Mob justice cases (26.3%) highlight the interaction between alcohol impairment and community-level violence in settings where formal justice systems are weak or mistrusted. In such environments, intoxicated behavior may be misinterpreted as criminal or threatening, triggering collective retaliation [10,16]. Alcohol may also reduce the victim's ability to communicate, flee, or de-escalate hostile situations, thereby increasing vulnerability to extrajudicial violence. Similar patterns have been reported in other sub-Saharan African urban settings, where alcohol-related disorder frequently precedes collective violence [16,17].

Regionally, sub-Saharan Africa bears a disproportionate burden of alcohol-related violence and homicide. Increasing alcohol availability, rapid urbanization, unemployment, and widening socioeconomic inequality have all contributed to rising rates of violence-related injury [10,17]. Studies from South Africa and Uganda report

alcohol involvement in 50–76% of trauma and homicide cases, with young males consistently identified as the highest-risk group [17,18]. Kenya reflects similar patterns, with forensic studies indicating frequent detection of alcohol among homicide victims in urban centers such as Nairobi [19]. However, the present study adds value by demonstrating not only the presence of alcohol but also its concentration in specific age groups and intoxication levels among homicide victims.

From a public health perspective, these findings underscore the importance of integrated prevention strategies that address both alcohol misuse and violence exposure. Evidence suggests that population-level alcohol control policies, including taxation, pricing regulations, restriction of outlet density, and limitation of sales hours, can significantly reduce violent crime and injury rates [20]. Such structural interventions are particularly important in urban settings where alcohol availability is high and enforcement of regulations may be inconsistent.

At the clinical level, integrating routine alcohol screening and brief interventions into emergency departments and trauma care settings could help identify individuals at high risk of alcohol-related harm. These interventions are cost-effective and have been shown to reduce harmful drinking patterns and subsequent injury risk [20]. Given the high proportion of young adults in this study, targeted interventions in workplaces, educational institutions, and community centers may also be effective in reducing binge drinking behaviors.

Law enforcement practices represent another critical intervention point. Training police officers in de-escalation techniques and crisis intervention strategies is essential when managing intoxicated individuals. This is particularly important in reducing fatal outcomes during police encounters involving alcohol-impaired persons [13,14]. Clear protocols for handling intoxicated individuals may reduce unnecessary use of force and improve outcomes in high-risk encounters.

Community-level interventions are also necessary, particularly in informal settlements where mob justice incidents are more likely to occur. Strengthening trust in formal justice systems, improving response times, and enhancing community policing initiatives may reduce reliance on extrajudicial forms of justice [16,20]. Additionally, community-based education programs focusing on non-violent conflict resolution and the risks associated with alcohol intoxication could help reduce violence at the grassroots level.

From a forensic and surveillance perspective, strengthening national systems for monitoring alcohol-related violent deaths is essential. Reliable and systematic data collection would improve understanding of temporal, geographic, and demographic patterns of violence, enabling more targeted interventions [19]. Multicenter studies across different regions of Kenya and sub-Saharan Africa would further enhance generalizability and support regional policy development.

CONCLUSION

Alcohol intoxication is strongly associated with homicide victimization in Nairobi, with a pronounced concentration among young adults aged 20–39 years. Severe intoxication is common among victims and significantly contributes to vulnerability across multiple homicide contexts, including police shootings, interpersonal violence, and mob justice. Age therefore functions as a critical determinant of alcohol-related homicide risk, interacting with behavioral, social, and environmental factors to shape vulnerability patterns.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Efforts to reduce alcohol-related homicide should prioritize young adults, particularly males in urban environments who are most frequently exposed to both high alcohol consumption and violence-prone settings. Public health interventions should focus on reducing harmful drinking patterns through awareness campaigns, behavioral change programs, and community engagement strategies that discourage binge drinking.

Strengthening alcohol control policies is essential. This includes stricter enforcement of licensing regulations, regulation of alcohol outlet density, limitation of sales hours, and tighter control of informal alcohol distribution channels that contribute to harmful consumption patterns in urban settlements.

Health systems should integrate routine alcohol screening and brief intervention services within emergency departments, trauma units, and primary care settings to enable early identification and management of hazardous drinking behaviors.

Law enforcement agencies should adopt structured training programs in de-escalation and crisis intervention techniques when dealing with intoxicated individuals to reduce fatal encounters and improve policing outcomes.

Community-based violence prevention programs should be expanded, particularly in informal settlements, to strengthen conflict resolution mechanisms and reduce reliance on mob justice. These programs should also aim to rebuild trust in formal justice systems.

Finally, national forensic and public health surveillance systems should be strengthened to systematically monitor alcohol-related violent deaths. Larger multicenter studies are recommended to improve understanding of regional variations and support evidence-based policy development across Kenya and the wider sub-Saharan African region.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization. Global status report on violence prevention 2014. Geneva: WHO; 2014.
2. World Health Organization. Global status report on alcohol and health 2018. Geneva: WHO; 2018.
3. Krug EG, Dahlberg LL, Mercy JA, Zwi AB, Lozano R. World report on violence and health. Geneva: WHO; 2002.
4. Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2019 (GBD 2019) Results. Seattle: IHME; 2020.
5. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC). Global study on homicide 2019. Vienna: UNODC; 2019.
6. Graham K, Livingston M. The relationship between alcohol and violence. *Drug Alcohol Rev.* 2011;30(5):453–457.
7. Norström T. Alcohol and homicide: is the link dependent on drinking culture? *Drug Alcohol Rev.* 2011;30(5):458–465.
8. Cherpitel CJ. Alcohol and violence-related injuries. *Addiction.* 1993;88(4):531–538.
9. Felson RB, Staff J. The effects of alcohol intoxication on violent offending. *Criminology.* 2010;48(1):277–308.
10. Hoaken PNS, Stewart SH. Drugs of abuse and human aggressive behavior. *Addiction.* 2003;98(12):1533–1544.
11. Graham K, Bernards S, Wilsnack SC, Gmel G. Alcohol may not cause violence but it does increase risk. *Alcohol Res Health.* 2011;34(2):109–118.
12. Room R, Babor T, Rehm J. Alcohol and public health. *Lancet.* 2005;365(9458):519–530.
13. Chernoff RA. Alcohol intoxication and use of force in policing. *Police Q.* 2011;14(4):370–389.
14. Naimi TS, Xuan Z, Coleman SM. Alcohol involvement in violent death. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res.* 2016;40(12):2614–2621.
15. Parker RN, Rebhun LA. Alcohol and homicide in social context. *J Drug Issues.* 1995;25(4):987–1006.
16. Matzopoulos R, Thompson ML, Myers JE. Firearm and alcohol-related violence in South Africa. *S Afr Med J.* 2014;104(7):477–479.
17. Seedat M, Van Niekerk A, Jewkes R, Suffla S, Ratele K. Violence and injuries in South Africa. *Lancet.* 2009;374(9694):1011–1022.
18. Peden M, van der Spuy J, Smith P. Alcohol and injury in Africa: epidemiology and implications. *Inj Control Saf Promot.* 2009;16(4):245–251.
19. Sher L. Alcohol consumption and suicide and violence risk. *QJM.* 2006;99(1):57–61.
20. World Health Organization. Alcohol, violence and injury prevention in Africa: policy implications. Geneva: WHO; 2019.

Response To Reviewer

Manuscript Title: Alcohol Intoxication and Age Patterns in Homicide Victimization in Nairobi, Kenya

Reviewer Comments and Responses

Comment 1: Limited sample size (n = 38 alcohol-positive homicide cases) reduces statistical power

Response:

We acknowledge this limitation. The manuscript has been revised to clearly state that inferential conclusions are interpreted cautiously. However, the study still provides valuable forensic evidence from a prospective autopsy series covering 400 medicolegal cases, which strengthens its internal validity despite the smaller alcohol-positive subgroup.

Comment 2: Lack of socioeconomic, occupational, and scene context data

Response:

We agree that these variables would enrich interpretation. This limitation has now been explicitly highlighted in the Discussion. Future studies have been recommended to incorporate socioeconomic status, occupation, and location of incident (e.g., home, street, bar) to improve epidemiological profiling.

Comment 3: Absence of perpetrator data limits interpretation of homicide dynamics

We acknowledge this important limitation. The study focuses on victim toxicology, which is standard in forensic autopsy-based research. We have clarified that perpetrator alcohol use is a relevant but unavailable variable and recommend its inclusion in future multidisciplinary homicide investigations.

Comment 4: High proportion of police shootings requires further explanation

Response:

We have expanded the Discussion to address this finding. Alcohol-related disinhibition, impaired communication, and non-compliance may contribute to escalation during law enforcement encounters. We have also recommended further research into police operational contexts and intoxication-related behavioral dynamics.

Comment 5: Tables and formatting inconsistencies

Response:

All tables have been reviewed and standardized for consistency in numbering, formatting, and percentage representation. Minor typographical errors have been corrected.

Comment 6: Strengthen epidemiological interpretation

Response:

The Discussion has been expanded to better integrate global and regional literature, emphasizing age-dependent risk, dose-response relationships, and alcohol's role as a proximal trigger rather than a sole causal factor in homicide.

COVER LETTER

Wangai Kiama, MMed (Path)

Department of Pathology

Egerton University

Njoro, Kenya

Email: pkiamal@hotmail.com

Date: 1/5/2026

Editor-in-Chief

International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS).

Dear Editor,

We are pleased to submit the revised manuscript entitled “Alcohol Intoxication and Age Patterns in Homicide Victimization in Nairobi, Kenya” for consideration for publication.

This study examines the relationship between alcohol intoxication and homicide victimization using a prospective autopsy-based design conducted at Nairobi City Mortuary. The findings demonstrate a strong association between severe alcohol intoxication and homicide deaths, with a clear predominance among young adults aged 20–39 years. The study highlights alcohol as a significant modifiable risk factor contributing to violent mortality in an urban African setting.

In response to reviewer feedback, we have made substantial revisions to improve the manuscript. These include strengthening the Discussion section with expanded epidemiological interpretation, clearly acknowledging limitations related to sample size and missing socioeconomic variables, improving table formatting, and clarifying the role of police shootings within alcohol-related homicide contexts. We have also updated and standardized the reference list.

We believe the revised manuscript is now clearer, more rigorous, and more suitable for publication in your journal. The study contributes valuable forensic and public health evidence relevant to alcohol policy, violence prevention, and injury epidemiology in low- and middle-income settings.

This manuscript is original, has not been published elsewhere, and is not under consideration by another journal. All authors have approved the submission.

We appreciate your consideration and look forward to your response.

Yours sincerely,

Wangai Kiama, MMed (Path)