



University of Fort Hare

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**INMATE INCARCERATION AND REHABILITATION: A CROSS
SECTIONAL STUDY OF REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES AND
FACILITIES IN CORRECTIONAL CENTRES IN NORTH WESTERN
NIGERIA**

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DEPARTMENT OF CRIMINOLOGY

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

ALICE 5700, SOUTH AFRICA

May 2018

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN SOCIAL SCIENCES**

DEPARTMENT OF CRIMINOLOGY

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE, ALICE,

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May 2018

Declaration

I, the signatory, declare that this thesis entitled *Inmate incarceration and rehabilitation: A cross sectional study of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in correctional centres in North Western Nigeria* submitted to the University of Fort Hare for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Science (Criminology) is my original work and it has not been submitted to the University in any form for the award of any degree.

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Signature



Date: 18/10/2017

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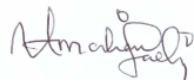
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Dedication

To Allah, my unborn kids, and the privileged and unprivileged offenders in the study area.

Abstract

The study was conducted in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons, North Western, Nigeria to determine the effectiveness of these correctional centres with regards to inmate rehabilitation. Both quantitative and qualitative collection was conducted concurrently and incorporated in the explanation of the results. This was achieved as the study empirically examined the experiences of convicted inmates and correctional officials in both correctional centres with a sample that compromised of both convicted male and female inmates as well as male and female correctional officials. A total of 250 questionnaires were administered to convicted inmates in Kano central and Goron-Dutse prisons. A sample size of 250 was determined using the sample size calculator at a confidence level of 95%, confidence interval of $\pm 5.97\%$, and with a population of 3488. Data for this study was generated from 250 respondents. Out of 250 respondents, questionnaires were administered to 140 inmates in Kano Central Prison and 110 questionnaires were administered to inmates in Goron Dutse Prison. The number of respondents in Kano Central Prisons is higher than that of Goron-Dutse Prison due to disparity in population of inmates. Also, 207 questionnaires were administered to correctional officials in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. A sample size of 207 was determined using the sample size calculator at a confidence interval of ± 5 , confidence level of 95% and population of 449 correctional officials. Out of the 207 respondents, 107 questionnaires were administered to correctional officials in Kano Central Prison and 100 to correctional officials in Goron-Dutse Prison. The number of respondents in Kano Central Prison is higher than that of Goron-Dutse prison due to disparity in population of correctional officials. The selections were done using purposive sampling procedures. Rank, involvement in rehabilitation programmes were also used as criteria for selection of correctional officials as respondents. Furthermore, 28 correctional officials were selected purposively across the two correctional centres were interviewed. Thus, 14 correctional officials each were selected in Kano Central and Goron Dutse prisons using purposive sampling method. Thus, a total of 28 in-depth interviews were conducted in the study area. This study empirically probed into the factors mitigating against the effective

rehabilitation of inmates. Therefore, against this background, this study involved an appraisal of rehabilitation programmes and facilities which was followed by an evaluation of inmates' opinion of the correctional centre social setting and overall practices. Thus, inmate's perceptions of correctional officials' attitudes towards them and also its implication for re-integration principle was thoroughly appraised. The findings of this study were analyzed with the assistance of computer applications such as SPSS and atlas.ti.6. Some findings from this study revealed that only 15.7% of inmates in Kano Central prisons were satisfied with rehabilitation programmes, 37.3% were satisfied in Goron-Dutse prison while the majority of the inmates (88%) in Goron-Dutse prison stated that the relationship with correctional officials was cordial compared to 53.5% of the inmates in Kano Central prison. Also, data revealed that 64.2% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that medical attention was good and very good. The results also reveals that (58.9%) correctional officials stated that their relationship with inmates was very cordial compared to those of Goron-Dutse Prison (41.1%). Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the relationship with inmates between the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$). This study recommends that it is imperative for the Nigerian government to make more efforts with the provision of adequate rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the two correctional centres and correctional centres across the country as an exploration of existing literature reveals that most correctional centres in Nigeria lacked basic facilities for inmate rehabilitation as inmates were idle during incarceration.

Keywords: Correctional centre, Correctional officials, Incarceration, Inmate, Nigeria Prison Service, Offender, Punishment, Rehabilitation, Rehabilitation programmes.

Acknowledgements

Since I began this research work, I have benefited from constructive criticism from several academic colleagues across the globe. Hence, not everybody who made a valuable contribution to the completion of this thesis were mentioned. To those whose names are mentioned and those whose names are not mentioned, I sincerely remain appreciative.

To my supervisors, Prof. Jaco Barkhuizen and Prof. Theodore Petrus, whose critiques and immense effort ensured the completion of this research work.

My father, Prof Idriss Amali, my mother, Dr (Mrs) Halima Amali for their parental love and care, I have no words befitting of you. To the entire Amali family.

Very warm thanks to my fantastic siblings, and to Nabeelah Abdulmumin.

Sincere thanks to Dr K. Mothibi for being there for me at a critical time.

Special thanks also to Prof. Amina Bashir, Hajia Dr Zainab Ahmed, Hajiya Halimatu Atiku, Mrs Zainab Abba Jato of blessed memory, and Dr Adeleke Adeola Adawi.

To my colleagues, Dr Fitz, Dr T.O Magadze, Dr k Sibanyoni, Mr Akhona Sinefu, Mr Mike Earl-Taylor, and Mr Thompho Tshivhase.

Huge thanks to Dr Mustapha Danjuma Hussein, Prof J.D Amin, Prof A.M Kunduri.

To my dear friends Dr Mojisola Owoseni, Dr Kabiru Jauro, Dr Issah Moshood, Dr Mike Ojemaye, Dr Anthony Idowu, Sarki Andrew, Barr Sale, Dr Frank Ohikhena, Bashir Abba, Seyi, Aminu Ibrahim, Abdulmumin, Yerima, Gwarmai, Musa J, Sadiq G, Auwal I, Mohammed G, Mohammed Ibraheem (MNI), Tinuke, Tomisin, Hauwa, M.J and Aisha Ramos, thank you so much for everything.

Thanks to Usman Sarki, Rufai Ahmed, Magaji Saleh, Ado Umar Lalu.

To all members of Muslim Student Association at the University of Fort Hare for their collective prayers and support.

To the Controller General of Nigeria Prison Service, staff and personnel's of Nigeria Prison Service, Prison Service Officers' Office, Headquarters, Abuja and Kano State Command.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency virus
AI	Amnesty International
ACHPR	African Charter on Human and People's Rights
AREP	Adult rehabilitative educational programme
ATP	Awaiting trial prisoner
ASI	Addiction Severity Index
CAT	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGPS	Controller General of Nigeria Prison Service
CSA	Correctional Services Act
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CYCYP	Children and Young Courts and Young Person's Act
DCS	Department of Correctional Services
FGDs	Focus group discussions
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
GPSPP	General personality and social psychological perspective on criminal conduct
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus

ICERD	International Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
ICESR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
IDI	In-depth Interview
ISP	Intensive supervision programmes
ITP	Inmate training productivity
JOB	Juvenile offending behaviour
KIIs	Key informant interview
KMs	Kilometers
NGO	Non governmental organizations
NHRC	National Human Right Commission
NHRP	National Human Right Report
NP	Nigeria prison
NPS	Nigeria Prison Service
NWGPRD	National Working Group on Prison Reform and Decongestion
ORP	Offender rehabilitation path
PA	Prison act
PCC	Psychology of criminal conduct perspective
PIs	Personal Interviews
PIC-R	Personal, interpersonal and community reinforcement
PRAWA	Prison rehabilitation and welfare actions

PSR	Prison service report
PCRAJ	Presidential Committee on the Prison Reform of the Administration of Justice
RNR	Risk need responsivity
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SW	Social work
SWs	Social workers
TB	Tuberculosis
UNODC	United Nations Office Drugs and Crime
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNBPTP	United Nations Basic Principles for the Treatment of Inmates
UNSMRTO	United Nations Standard Minimum for the Treatment of Offenders

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a brief background and rationale of the study, including the problem statement. Further, it delves into the research aim and objectives, research questions, delineation and limitations, and significance of the study.

1.2 Background and rationale of the study

This research focuses on the Nigeria correctional centre with particular reference to the North Western part of Nigeria. The study examines the Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons. These are correctional centres for convicted offenders. Despite it being so, however, the Nigerian government who is the sole provider and manager of these centres, refers to them as Nigerian prison. This is a contrary term to that of correctional centre, which is the accepted term in criminology literature. Since the term is used in Nigeria, the area of study, is the Nigeria Prison Service(NPS). The researcher has used this term where relevant, though also referring to the scholarly acceptable term of correctional centre. This research presents divergent perceptions on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in a Nigeria Prison (NP). The research was done as part of identifying the present rehabilitation strategies and potentials in the NPS. The importance of this research is in updating knowledge about rehabilitation strategies and understanding the practices in contemporary Nigerian penology. In Nigeria and elsewhere, correctional centres emerge in accordance with established or prescribed rules. A correctional centre as a reformatory centre accommodates convicted inmates for the purpose of reformation, rehabilitation, resocialization and safeguards awaiting trial inmates until they are needed by law courts. In essence, the NPS was established as an institution to penalize and improve offenders and to supplement or balance the procedure of permissible intercession and law implementation (Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999).

However, the NPS is meant to accommodate, safeguard and rehabilitate inmates for successful reintegration into the wider society upon discharge. The Nigerian Constitution of 1999 (Section 18), provides that the Prison Service in Nigeria has the power to carry out duties which have been bestowed upon them by the law. The duties of the NPS include: safekeeping of convicted inmates, and accommodating inmates awaiting trial until they appear before the court for trials (Tanimu, 2010, p.144).

Relative to the above, the correctional centres in Nigeria without financial assistance and support from the Nigerian government may not effectively rehabilitate inmates which may lead to recidivism among inmates. It is expected that after incarceration, which is seen as a philosophy of punishment, an inmate is rehabilitated. This justifies the establishment of correctional centres in Nigeria. According to Quinney (1979), “the idea of punishment includes retribution or revenge, reformation, deterrence or discouragement” (p. 21). The retribution idea posits that a convict must pay for a crime that he or she has committed while, on the other hand, reformists posit that convicts are reformed or rehabilitated to avoid forthcoming wrongdoing or lawbreaking. In addition, deterrence is to confine existing and would be criminals from venturing into crime-related acts.

The Nigerian government has made concerted efforts to provide decent rehabilitation programmes for convicted inmates and some success over the years has been recorded. For example, the Nigerian government has made an effort to equip correctional formations with adequate facilities, and the Prison Staff Training Academy was established in Kaduna State, Northern part of the country. The academy has facilities like a library, an information communication technology unit, computer based training, and conference facilities (Obioha, 2011). Furthermore, the introduction of industry succeeded in training inmates as they were able to produce equipment like beds and household furniture (Oluwakuyide, 2001). Provision was made to ensure inmates engaged in recreational activities. For example, inmates engage in playing indoor games like drafts (Tanimu, 2010).

The NPS's intention is to rehabilitate inmates by engaging them in educational programmes as well as respecting their basic rights. With regards to the provision of educational programmes, Today Newspaper (3rd July, 2017) reported that 24 inmates were expected to partake in ongoing 2017 Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) from 3rd July to 6th July. Further efforts on educational programmes for inmates reported that above thirty inmates obtained a score of 180 in UTME (*Today Newspaper, 2017*). While with regards to rights of inmates, the Controller General of Nigeria Prison Service Ja'aafaru Ahmed in a recent interview urged NPS officers and personnel to respect the fundamental human rights of inmates in obedience with the provision of the United Nations Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Inmates. The Controller further echoed the importance of different trainings which could improve service delivery (Odeyemi, 2017). Furthermore, the correctional centre decongestion bill is also underway as some correctional centres across the country accommodated over 100 inmates in one cell. According to Gbajabiamila (2017), the bill proposes community service as a substitute to correctional centre term for various offenders in the country.

Due to the awareness of this exceptional and irreplaceable role of correctional centres, the Nigerian government has spent and is still spending huge sums of money on the NPS with an objective of rehabilitating convicted inmates. In spite of these efforts, recidivism among inmates has increased rapidly cutting across correctional centres in the country. This may be due to the absence of adequate retraining programmes meant to rehabilitate inmates. For example, the interaction with the correctional centres in Nigeria makes less toughened inmates become hard-bitten in felonious events after discharge from correctional centre, leading them more likely to relapse into criminal activities, which leads to higher frequency of recidivism (Obioha, 1995; Adetula, 2010).

Ezim (2012) concedes that "the longer an inmate stays at the correctional centre the more the possibility of recidivism and vice versa" (p. 12). Thus, recidivism refers to repeated involvement in crime-related activities. In an attempt to tackle recidivism and idleness amongst inmates, the NPS embarked on different strategies. For example, Adetula et al. (2010), states

that workshops for skills acquisition were established to train inmates in the skills of shoemaking, printing and tailoring, hence ensuring that inmates were not idle. Oluwakuyide (2001) adds that some correctional centres in Nigeria provided vocational training which enables inmates to manufacture doors, office equipment, and household furniture.

To ensure that retraining programmes make a considerable success in inmate rehabilitation, the Nigerian government should inject ample funds and resources to finance rehabilitation programmes and also ensure their adequate utilization and curtailment of mismanagement of funds by the correctional administration. It is vital for the NPS to partner with the Nigerian government to find a long-term solution for recidivism and ineffective rehabilitation of inmates. Unfortunately, Nigerian correctional centres are fast fitting into a smoking dungeon regardless of the endeavours of the federal government to reform (Ohia, 2014, p.41).

The question now is to what extent can correctional centres in Nigeria effectively rehabilitate inmates? In response to this, this study empirically examines the experiences of inmates in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. Against this background, this study involves an appraisal of the inmates' and correctional officials assessment of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the aforementioned correctional centres, the inmates' and correctional officials opinion of the correctional centre' social setting and overall practices, and the factors mitigating against the effective implementation of rehabilitation programmes. Ultimately, inmates' perception of correctional officials' attitudes towards them and also its implication for reintegration principles were thoroughly appraised. The findings of this study rekindle the NPS on the need to engage inmates in rehabilitation programmes as previous efforts may have not earned the anticipated outcome.

1.3 Problem statement

Several past studies (Aderinto & Atere, 2002; Okunola et al.,2002; Jefferson, 2005; Ogundipe, 2006; ; Aloyious, 2010; Madaki, 2011; Ali, 2011;Salaam, 2013; Okwendi, Nwankwoala, & Ushi, 2014; Esiri, 2016) revealed some

problems faced by the NPS with its quest for effective rehabilitation of inmates which was due to the following factors: lack of infrastructure; inadequate retraining programmes for both correctional officials and convicted inmates; overcrowded and filthy cells; poor classification of inmates, and inadequate bedding facilities.

The above factors were seen as the major reasons affecting effective rehabilitation potentials of NP as reformatory centres. Ezeakafor (2016) decried the poor state of correctional centres in the country, saying such facilities in the 21st century must be adequately equipped. Ezeakafor (2016) further wondered why most correctional centres were located in areas that had no room for expansion as such situations resulted in correctional centre congestion and insufficient cells. Most correctional centres in Nigeria are filled to capacity beyond the designed population (Ojo & Okunola, 2014). Ultimately, infrastructure and logistics in Nigerian correctional centres are neglected (Ogundipe, 2006). The United States of America reports on Human Right Practices for (2015) revealed that correctional and detention centre conditions in Nigeria were harsh and life-threatening as the inmates were subjected to torture, gross over-crowding, food and water shortages, and inadequate medical treatment. “

Tangential to the above, inhumane treatment imposed on inmates by correctional officials, such as torture, denial of food, extortion and sexual abuse (largely in the case of female inmates), is seen as the major reason for the ineffective rehabilitation of inmates (Iriekpan & Ezeobi, 2012; Imhabekhai, 2002). As a result of this, most inmates live in fear while correctional officials remain a threat to the existence of a cordial relationship among inmates and correctional officials. Ignoring this may, invariably, lead to ineffective rehabilitation and reformation of convicted inmates (Tanimu, 2006, p.142). As such, the Controller General (NPS) stated that “...*there is a need for proper funding of correctional centres across the country in order to properly achieve major objectives of NPS as well as ensure greater efficiency*” (p.12, Dailytrust Newspaper:2017).

Obioha (1995) suggests that Nigerian correctional centres have become a training ground for criminals instead of playing its role as a rehabilitative centre, thereby causing inmates to become hardened criminals (Iriekpan & Ezeobi, 2012). Moreover, the correctional centre receive inadequate funding (Williams, 2000; Abdullahi & Zango, 2003). Ahire (1990), is of the view that Nigerian correctional centres are human cages without facilities for successful correction, reformation, and vocational training. Thus, Nigerian correctional centres are void of adequate welfare services (Ali, 2011).

In addition, correctional centres accommodate inmates who originally are not meant to be there, thereby leading to an over-stretch of facilities causing limitations in correctional centre functions due to human pressure (Obioha, 2011). Cells are not decent for human habitation due to absence of bedding facilities, thereby causing inmates to sleep on the bare floor (Obioha, 2011, p.36). This causes inmates in Nigerian correctional centres to sleep in batches (Okunola et al., 2002), while in some cases inmates sleep on each other.

Against this background, inmates' opinions of what correctional officials thought of them and their implications for the reintegration principles are examined, as well as inmates' views of the correctional centre social settings, thereby investigating the role of correctional centres as a reformative home. This research also objectively probes into the experiences of convicted inmates, as well as inmates and correctional officials' perceptions on rehabilitation programmes and correctional centre facilities in Kano Central and Goron Dutse prisons respectively.

1. 4 Research aim and objectives

The aim of this study is to embark on a cross- sectional study of inmates, correctional officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To investigate the perceptions of inmates on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron Dutse prisons;
2. To appraise correctional officials' perception of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons; and
3. To examine the convergence and divergence of the perceptions of the inmates and correctional officials on rehabilitation programmes and correctional centre facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons.

1.5 Research hypotheses

1. H0 there is no statistical significant difference in inmates' perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison.

H1 there is a statistical significant difference in inmates perception of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison.

2. H0 There is no statistical significant difference in correctional officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison.

H1 there is a statistical significant difference in correctional officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison.

1.6 Research questions

The following research questions were formulated to address the above-stated objectives:

1. How do inmates perceive correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons?
2. What are the correctional officials' perceptions on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons?
3. Is there convergence or divergence in the inmates and correctional officials' perceptions on rehabilitation programmes and facilities Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons?

1.7 Delineation and limitations

The scope of this study was limited to the examination of inmate incarceration and rehabilitation, the level of inmates' awareness of rehabilitation programmes, and the extent to which these programmes aid in effective rehabilitation. This study was limited to a cross-sectional study of inmates and correctional officials' perspectives in Kano central and Goron Dutse prisons. The reasons for choosing Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons include the proximity to the researcher, and the researcher's familiarity with the area, which would facilitate the collection of data. Research problems that were encountered in the course of this research include an approval from the Controller General of Nigeria Prison Service (CGPS) which took several working days; this was not unconnected with the fact that some correctional formations accommodated suspected members of Boko Haram and high profile offenders. Other problems faced were lack of cooperation by correctional officials and inmates to adequately fill in the questionnaires, and correctional officials' busy schedules which amounted to rescheduling of in-depth interview sessions. Thus, the unit of evaluation and analysis of the study is the population of convicted inmates and correctional officials in the study area.

1.8 Significance of the study

Past scholars, notably Tanimu (2010) Ali (2011) and Madaki (2011);Salaam, 2013; Okwendi, Nwankwoala, & Ushi, 2014; Esiri, 2016), have contributed to existing knowledge with regards to rehabilitation ideals for inmates in Nigerian correctional centres. However, this study is rare in that it examines the impact of rehabilitation programmes, facilities for effective rehabilitation of inmates from the perspective of convicted inmates and correctional officials using population-based facts and mixed method approach. Thus, it makes a scholarly contribution to the study area, thereby advancing knowledge to the academic and also existing body of knowledge in Nigeria. Also, the study addresses the scarcity of evidence on the impact rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian correctional centres. A uniformly pertinent gap that this study addresses is the gaining of divergent perceptions from convicted inmates

and correctional officials on rehabilitation programmes and facilities, and its effectiveness in the rehabilitation of inmates. This study also explains why rehabilitation outcomes of convicted inmates in the Nigerian context remain significantly poor due to unpleasant correctional centre social settings.

This study puts forward a framework for understanding incarceration in the context of inmate rehabilitation. The framework explains offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres. It also provides evidence on how rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres can lead to important reductions in recidivism amongst inmates, when rehabilitation programmes are consistent with the risk-need-responsivity (RNR) model. The RNR has inspired the development of offender risk assessment and offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres. The findings of this study is an important tool for revising rehabilitation policies and strategies in the study setting in order to maximize the use of rehabilitation programmes and repeatedly improve rehabilitation outcomes. Consequently, it provides pertinent strategies for any country or state that plans to implement new strategies for effective rehabilitation of incarcerated inmates.

The outcome of this study proffers recommendations for effective rehabilitation of inmates across Nigeria. In view of the above, the study is significant in the following ways: The findings of this study rekindle the NPS on the need to engage inmates in more rehabilitation programmes as previous efforts have not earned the anticipated outcome. Also, the study is useful to the government as its findings can be used in formulating policies and programmes that will ensure effective rehabilitation of inmates in the correctional centres under study. Furthermore, this study lays emphasis on the theme in which incarcerated inmates require attention as enshrined in the Federal Republic of Nigeria Constitution of 1999 and Nigeria Prison Act CAP 366 (1990). Thus, this proffers recommendations to the NPS on the need to introduce more rehabilitation programmes to check recidivism among inmates. Conclusively, the findings of this study serves as a contribution to the existing body of knowledge, thereby enriching the existing literature that may serve as a guide to other subsequent research.

1.9 Operational definitions of key concepts

Correctional Centre: Government owned correctional institution where suspected or convicted inmates are remanded for violating societal norms and values.

Punishment: A deliberate infliction of pain to an individual or group which may be through corporal punishment, restitution, fines, or incarceration as the case may be, which may bring the offender to a remorseful frame of mind.

Convicted inmate: An individual who the court has proved beyond reasonable doubt of committing an act alone or with a group of individuals and sent to correctional centre to serve an imprisonment sentence.

Awaiting trial inmates: Individuals cramped in correctional centre and presumed or suspected to have committed an act that violates criminal law. They remain suspects and not offenders until proved otherwise.

Rehabilitation: The treatment received by the offender, which is to restore or return to his or her initial status as a law abiding citizen after violation of societal norms and values. Hence, this helps the reformation and reintegration process.

1.10 Synopsis of chapters

This thesis is structured into ten (10) chapters which are under two parts. Chapters One, Two, Three, Four, Five and Six are grouped under Part 1: Correctional centre, Punishment and Incarceration: Real and unreal, fictitious and reality; a discourse on incarceration experiences. This aspect of the thesis covers an introduction to the study, an exploration of existing literature on Nigerian, conceptual framework and methodology.

Chapter One introduces the rationale of the study as well as the problem statement. The chapter outlines the research aim and objectives, research questions, delineation, and limitations, and the significance of the study.

Chapter Two comprises a literature review on correctional centre, punishment, incarceration as a concept as well as incarceration for reformation or for deformation, consequences of incarceration, and effectiveness of incarceration. The chapter concludes with a discourse on correction as class control.

Chapter Three discusses rehabilitation of inmates across context. Hence it was pertinent to discuss rehabilitation strategies in Nigeria, South Africa as well as a comparative review of rehabilitation strategies in Nigeria and South Africa. It further discusses social and rehabilitation of inmates in a Nigerian correctional centre, healthcare delivery, and lastly challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation of inmates in Nigeria.

Chapter Four focuses on correctional centre conditions and recidivism in Nigeria, a discourse on the exigent of prison reform, an overview of prison reform efforts, and an appraisal prison reform in Nigeria.

Chapter Five discusses the RNR model of offender rehabilitation. In this context an explanation of key words in the model is provided. The model is appraised by discussing strong points and weaknesses of the model. The chapter further establishes a relationship between the model and the thesis topic, and clarifies how it is applicable in different context of offender rehabilitation.

Chapter Six focuses on the research methodology, which includes the research paradigm, research design, study population, sampling technique, sample size, method of data collection, method of data analysis and ethical clearance.

Chapter Seven focuses on results from a mixed method. Here findings of inmates' perception towards rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potentials of the NPS are discussed.

Chapter Eight focuses on results from a mixed method which include correctional centre officials' perception towards rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potentials of the NPS.

Chapter Nine presents the summary and discussion of findings. The chapter examines the results against secondary data in the literature. Thus, the area of convergence and divergence are considered and clarified. Furthermore, theory applied to this research work is applicable in the Nigerian context; hence it is imperative the NPS adopt a theory to successfully rehabilitate inmates. Although RNR as a model is used in developed countries like the United Kingdom, United States, and Canada has recorded success, it is yet to be applicable in the Nigerian context or Africa as a continent. Thus, the researcher noticed a huge gap after an exploration of existing literature suggests it has been used around the globe with an exception of African countries.

Chapter Ten presents main contributions of the study and recommendations. Conclusions are drawn and suggestions proffered for further research.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter, which is an introduction and rationale of the study, touched on the problem statement of this study. In the course of discussing the problem, and some challenges were outlined and discussed with regards to Nigerian correctional centres. Hence, it was pertinent to outline the research aim and objective as well as research questions. The problem statement served as a guide to developing the research questions. With reference to the delineation of the study, the study was limited to the examination of inmate incarceration and rehabilitation, the level of inmates' awareness of rehabilitation programmes, and the extent to which these programmes aid in effective rehabilitation. Thus, the significance of the study was also outlined, stating that it is a rare study that examines the impact of rehabilitation programmes and facilities for effective rehabilitation of inmates from the perspective of convicted inmates and correctional centre officials using population-based facts and mixed method approach. Also, the study addresses the scarcity of evidence on the impact rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian correctional centres. This study also explains why rehabilitation outcomes of convicted inmates in the Nigerian context remain significantly poor due to unpleasant correctional centre social settings. The chapter was concluded with a

synopsis of chapters. The next chapter of this research work dwelled on an exploration of existing literature which are connected to this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a review of related literature which includes the correctional institution, the context and content, who are the inmates, and punishment: questions of morality and legality. It delves further into incarceration and inmates, the reality and fictitious, incarceration for reformation or incarceration for deformation, incarceration; an aftermath, as well as the effectiveness of incarceration. The chapter concludes with correction as sanctions and correction as class control.

2.2 Correctional centres: The context and content

Some studies in the past have revealed surveys of penal institutions have been interested in the sociological evaluation of the correctional centres as a social system and have appraised the social structure, responsibility and adjustment of inmates (Awe, 1968; Goffman, 1961). Correctional centres as a concept has been viewed from different perspectives which are structural and functional dimensions. This section presents the various perspectives. Furthermore, McCork and Korn (1954) discern that correctional centre is a caste-like arrangement cut off from the overall society and is probable to protect “law abiding” citizens from the “undesirable” (Okunola et al., 2002, p.31).

The Nigeria Prison Act (2009) defines a correctional centre as any location or structure situated in Nigeria avowed by the Internal Affairs Minister based on an instruction in the Federal Gazette to be a correctional centre and on the same or following order identify the area for which the correctional centre is to be recognized. However, McCorkle and Korn (1954) state that correctional centre is a physical construct in a region where a specified number of people are accommodated or housed under highly specialized conditions with only an option of adjusting to the alternatives that are provided for them, usually in a

unique kind of social environment. A more critical point of view is that correctional centre is a building where offenders are extremely excluded from the remainder of the population with totally a different order of restraint (Sykes, 1958; Goffman, 1961; Okunola, 1986). Additional definitions include that correctional centre is a punitive instrument basically for unmitigated punishment and restraint of a wrongdoer (Carney, 1980), and involves subjecting inmates who live with criminal consideration as contrast to a social institution (Steiner, 2009).

Correctional centre is a location governed by the rule of the state and established to guarantee captivity and confinement of suspects or convicted persons for disrespecting the regulation of behavioural codes of the state (Orakwe, 2011). Further, correctional centre is seen as a facility which is used for the imposition of fairness and human punishment (Carney, 1980). However, Clerk (1971) controversially sees correctional centre as “warehouses of human degradation” (p. 31). The extremist model thus demands the abolition of correctional centres and requests for improvement of law and reasonable access to social means of attaining socially improved goals (Durkheim, 1993, p.35).

Howe (1994) submits that appraisers have disputed the dysfunctional nature of correctional centre as a social institution which hurts the inmate’s soul, thoughts, will and feelings. However, a philosophical definition is that a correctional centre is a location of internment in which correctional centre people thought to be criminals are physically enclosed and frequently starved of liberty (Carlson et al., 1999; Ajomo & Isabella, 1991).

Clemmer (1950) condemns correctional centre because it serves as a source of human emotions which are surrounded by persistent assaults on humanity of convicted inmates. As such, Clemmer (1950) invented the term *prisonization* which he described as a negative attitude and behaviours which is as a result of residence inside a correctional institution. Goffman (1961), cites McLaughlin and Munice (2001) that correctional centre, as a total institution, is an environment which experiences breakdown of certain barriers that separate sleep, work and play. Goffman (1961) holds that inmates are

being told about their daily activities such times to go bed, when to get out of bed, when to sleep as well as when to eat among other. This suggest a certain level of deprivations due to their stay in a correctional centre. The above definition suggests that correctional centre is a total institution which controls the inmates' daily lives and activities. Other forms of control of the correctional centre's life may include denial of accessing mobile phones, Internet facility, consumption of cigarettes, and routine check of correctional centre escape. Quinney (1979) postulates that correctional centre life is like a military style of command structure. Alternately, Imhabekhai, (2002) posits that correctional centres were created by a state to supervise inmates with the objective of improving them during their time of imprisonment to ensure living a crimeless life upon regaining freedom.

Opara (1998) submits that a correctional centre is a location outlined and professed by the rule of the state, earmarked by the law of the land for law violators. Ower (2003) is of the view that correctional centre is a hemmed milieu operating outside usual supervision and process. Conversely, Odekunle (1974), asserts that correctional centre is an inaccessible neighbourhood often with an elevated hedge, protected with a barbed wire or cable; it is likely to send back its patrons, the unwanted of the society, as reformed individuals into the society. Alabi and Alabi (2011) add that correctional centres are cordoned off by walls, barriers, railings, trellis to thwart flight. The above view expresses that correctional centres or institutions are expected to take care of individuals (inmates) who have been admitted into correctional centres with the provision of adequate care during incarceration. This will help in reforming, correcting and rehabilitating inmates after successful completion of a sentence and successfully fit into the wider society. The United Nation Minimum Standard for the Treatment of Offenders (1984) suggests that are expected to inmates attempt to make use of all corrective, religious and spiritual as an avenue for assistance, which are suitable and available and to use them based on the individual therapy needs of all inmates.

Moreover, Kaminski (2004) supports that correctional centres inculcate the inmate's patience through planning and pursuing desired goals, punishing him or her for wrongdoing and in some cases rewarding some actions. Radda (2005) indicates that a correctional centre is a building recognized by the state law to accumulate individuals who are accused or convicted for wrongdoing, and that correctional centres are meant to ensure societal protection, punish wrongdoers, rehabilitate offenders, reform and resocialize convicted inmates to a law-abiding lifestyle, which will aid their reintegration into the society after release (Champion, 2005; Seiter, 2008).

Ayuk (2003) opines that correctional centres must be a place of information and not for chastisement. The Encyclopedia Americana (1986) views a correctional centre "as a place in which persons are kept in custody or confined pending trial or as a punishment after conviction" (p. 619). This suggests that law-abiding citizens are not likely to be accommodated in correctional centres. Ogwezzy (2011) states that correctional centre is where people are bodily cramped on indictment of having perpetrated a misdeed. Ogwezzy (2011) further suggests other terminology for a correctional centre: remand centre, improvement facility, imprisonment centre, penitentiary/lock up and punitive settlement.

Ogbozor et al. (2006) is of the view that correctional centre walls isolate an inmate from sovereignty, in which rule violators are enclosed and are normally starved of a range of liberties and entitlements (Durkheim, 1938). The Encyclopedia of Social Science and Law Library Lexicon (2003) describes correctional centre as a location where humans whose freedom has been restrained by the rule are cramped to guarantee fruitful administration of justice or the treatment of punitive treatment.

According to Ayuk, Emeka, and Omono (2013), correctional centre is a place where inmates are cramped and cut off with a purpose of improving and re-integrating them to make sure that on gaining freedom, they conform to the foremost values of the society. From a social work perspective, Skidmore, Tackerary, and Farley (1976) view correctional centre as a location where those who are societal non-conformists are detained for keeping their deeds

within a satisfactory limit while at the same time altering their overall life. Ojo et al. (2014) opine that correctional centre is a prescribed organization which encompasses the communication of persons from various industry specialized skills operating to accomplish the organizational objectives.

A controversial stance advances that correctional centre is a punitive dust bin (Obioha, 2002). Obioha states that correctional centre must have three features: absence of escape paths, strict chain of command and intense autocracy. Okunola's (1986) standpoint reflects correctional centres in Nigeria, stating that inmates are cut off from the wider society, with the exception on unusual occasions when they are sent to hospitals for treatment and other rare circumstances.

A more philosophical view by Ikoh (2011) submits that correctional centre is a penal colony because of the conviction that through confined religious instruction while under internment, inmates become repentant and improve their deeds (Ikoh, 2011). Ndukwe and Iroko (2011) state that a correctional centre is an alteration establishment where felons or those awaiting trial are tightly accommodated and provided with some variety of training guidance while in detention to groom them for rehabilitation into the wider society on discharge.

To this degree, Ikoh (2011) opines that correctional institutions stick to the thought that dissuasion requires stringent discipline, control and chastisement, all in a troposphere of impersonality and quasi-military rigidity. Obioha (2011) conceives that correctional centre is a location for felon, who may possibly pose genuine peril to lives in the wider society and that the individual in a correctional centre is a nomadic and imprudent person. Yongo believes (2000, p.33) that correctional centre is "home for all". A more logical approach adopted by Marston (2007) is that correctional centre involves loss of family and friends' reputation, pride, and control. As a result of such loss, most inmates are labeled ex-convicts, and the stigma affects their chances of securing any payable job and vying elective offices.

Ojo and Okunolu (2014) agree that correctional centre is an official organization set up in accordance with established or prescribed rules which normally involves the collaboration or communication of people from various technical and qualified skills to achieve or realize organizational aspirations. They further state that correctional centre is administrative in its formation and arrangement, while its objective of restoring, convalescence and dissuasion are undoubtedly spelled out in its plan or guide. As a part of the sanction, Atere (1993) argues that the correctional centre term signifies about 80% of the entire disciplinary measures and gives felons a second chance to demonstrate that they are better people.

Novo- Corti and Barreiro-Gen (2015) observe that the objective of a correctional centre sentence implies holding individuals in custody with an aim of re-education and rehabilitation, which may not require hard or forced labour. Conclusively, correctional centre as a total institution is where every aspect of an inmate's life is subjected to absolute control.

2.2.1 Concept of inmates

Inmate, as a concept, has been viewed from various perspectives. Inmates consist of awaiting trial members, convicts and lodgers (Madaki, 2011). Awaiting trial members are individuals who are remanded in correctional centre custody waiting to stand trial. Convicted inmates are individuals who have had interaction with all stakeholders of the criminal justice system, that is as an input and output at various stages with the correctional centre as their final destination. A lodger is an inmate' in transit, accommodated in the correctional centre.

Conversely, Omoni and Ijeh (2011, p.28) define an inmate as persons confirmed as culpable of an offense supposed against him or her and is lawfully condemned to the punishment of incarceration in a correctional centre. It should be taken into consideration that an individual is not a felon until he or she has been convicted by a law court of having perpetrated a crime (Bohm & Haley, 2005). Incarceration means an offender pays back for violating state law, but as a result of this, certain consequences affect the

inmate's self-esteem as they are dispossessed of their freedom during incarceration (Conklin, 1986). This suggests that some inmates are in a correctional centre against their wish, although there are recidivists who want to return to correctional centre upon regaining freedom. However, the minute an inmate is first absorbed into the correctional institution, he or she is barred from some manner of self-identity (Hasaballah, 2002).

In line with the above definitions, upon admission, inmates are given numbers as a means of identity, which implies a loss of esteem, name, liberty, reverence and honour. Reid and Vermeulen (2011) state that "Inmates will have to adapt and adjust to the deprivation that comes with incarceration. To the inmates, these actions denote dispossession of their individual personality. The actions may be conducted in a degrading way that emphasizes their diminished personal status" (p.1028). However, Goffman (1961) submits that inmates of all correctional centres create limited choices for themselves. Inmates are told when to eat, sleep and when to engage in sporting activities. Almost all aspects of their lives are controlled by the correctional institution. Moreover, offenders are anticipated to exploit the resources and align with the alternatives offered to them by a rare kind of societal surroundings that varies from the wider society in numerous approaches.

Further, inmates have no rights; instead, he or she has privileges which can be withdrawn at the decision of the authorities (Hassler, 1954). Correctional centres were established to ruin the human personality (Hassler, 1954). As a result of the above, inmates in correctional centres across the globe need to be completely transformed and require the support of counselors (Tenibiaje, 2010). Despite these deprivations, inmates are "legally entitled to many rights that enable them to live in minimum comfort in correctional centre and live a crime-free life after release" (Madaki, 2011, p.24). Some of these perceived rights include health, library, shelter and accommodation (Madaki, 2011).

2.3 Punishment: Questions of morality and legality

Across the globe, the cardinal objective of punishment is for restoration and alteration in deeds of felons and also acts as a warning to would-be felons of such laws (Ogwezzy, 2011). In earlier times, punishment used to be imprisonment, and no one thought of reforming offenders to be good for the society at large upon liberation (Omoni & Ijeh, 2011). Quinne (1979) suggests that philosophies of punishment are basically reformation, retribution and deterrence.

A common agreement on the principle of punishment has not been attained among theorists; however, utilitarianism and retributivism schools of philosophers have materialized in this regard (Agunbiade, 2010). Haag (1985) defines punishment as a deprivation or suffering imposed by law, while Jeffery (1965) defines it as the withdrawal of a reinforcing stimulus or presentation of an oversize stimulus. Lacey (1994) views it as the “state’s imposition of unpleasant consequences on an offender for his or her offence” (p. 16). A legal explanation of punishment as attested by Rowls (1969) reveals that a person is believed to undergo punishment whenever he or she is lawfully deprived of certain normal rights which is as a result of a violation of rule of law. Usually, this deprivation is being recognized legal authorities of the state.

In support Rowls view of (1969), Lillyquist (1980) affirms that punishment is not used “vengefully or retributively, but reasonably to the degree that it would have maximum utility as a deterrent” (p. 31). Glenn and Raine (1995) clarify that “punishment may not necessarily be a deed of violence of one or of numerous against a personal member of the society” (p. 23). Rather, true punishment is characterized by several factors, namely: (a) It is unpleasant; (b) It is inflicted on the offender because of the offence committed; (c) It is deliberate and not the unintended natural consequence of a person’s action; (d) the unpleasantness is an essential feature and not merely a necessary coincidence (as in the case of the pains of a dentist’s drill), and (e) It is imposed by an authorized agent (Bonn, 1984, p. 85).

Hart (1972) opines that punishment means the imposition of pain, in line with the traditional utilitarian view (Carney, 1980). Hart (1995), coined a traditional model which defines the standard or a central case of punishment in terms of five elements, namely: (a) discomfort or other effect normally considered unfriendly; (b) has to be a crime contrary to lawful or permissible decree; (c) is served to an alleged criminal for his offence; (d) is deliberately meted out by persons other than the criminal, and (e) it is imposed and meted out by an establishment set up by a legal system against which the crime is committed. Agunbiade (2010) views imposition of agony as chastisement to be primarily different from imposition of anguish on innocent, and thus is not integrally erroneous.

However, Bentham (1823) opines that punishment is a response to undesirable or unlikable acts of a person based on a reaction to actions considered erroneous by an individual or faction with the objective of revenge and restraining others from indulging in such acts. Furthermore, Murphy (1995) states that punishment is incorrect and can be vindicated only if it leads to a superior good. The above views have been portrayed as the punitive and utilitarian and have overshadowed and made easy the widespread acquiescence of correctional centre as a method of communal restraint. Ali (2011) submits that without punishment, the crime volume would move to as the point where it turns out to be destructive in a society.

Holz and Azrin (1961) are of the view that chastisement may become a discriminative stimulus when it is followed by reinforcement. However, punishment is described as allowing the criminal the feeling of having made amends for their deeds while affirming societal rules (Purksley, 1977). Thus, persistent punishment may fail to control behaviour, when satiation takes place, similarly to a reinforcing stimulus. Garfinkel (1965) defines punishment as a public degradation ceremony even though total eradication of punishment is not possible.

Carney (1980) suggests that punishment is criticized because it is brutalized and sometimes unduly severe. Austere chastisement is irrational and its ferocious nature has failed unsuccessfully in discouraging crime (Alemika,

1987). It seems, from the features of the correctional centre populace in Nigeria that incarceration has been used as a channel of punishment by the courts even in trivial offences (Osibanjo & Kalu, 1990). Glasser (1965) states that so doing is ineffective: when an individual is being punished, his or her failure is further reinforced which is likely to lead to an initial incarceration and more spend more time in custody. This may also imply that punishment may cause a person to alter his or her behaviour and become rehabilitated, is entirely wrong. In line with the above quotation, it suggests that some inmates label themselves as criminals or deviants, which redirects their minds into committing further crime that led to the initial incarceration (Esiri, 2016). Thus incarceration, which is a form of punishment, may not change deviant behaviour (Esiri, 2016). Punishment should be at least justified, which should be on the basis of efficiency of the deterrence; that will help to prevent further misery in some cases (Carney, 1975). Conversely, Pepitone (1975) indicates that the purpose of punishment forwards a justification for incarceration of adjudicated criminals. Such purposes are: (a) depriving offenders of freedom and satisfaction; (b) making them suffer in ways that will reform them, and (c) causing them to suffer for the scale of justice.

Lillyquist (1980) identified two categories: retributive justice and utilitarian justification. Depriving offenders of freedom and satisfaction and making offenders suffer in some ways that will reform them respectively justifies application of a particular punishment because the criminal deserves it while the principle of justice requires it. However, in, punishment implies retribution, which is seen as a principle that maintains punitive action which is conceived as the pain to an offender, capable of deterring an offender from committing further crime, thus being directed a law abiding individual (Lillyquist, 1980). Incarceration as a form of punishment may successfully incapacitate an individual who creates a situation where he/she is less likely to indulge in crime related acts. Furthermore, punishment is also seen as a deterrence which intimidates an offender, thereby restraining the offender from committing further crime.

Lillyquist (1980) states that both incapacitation and deterrence are efficient only in a situation where there is an observation to assure that security of the correctional centre will be able to apprehend any offender who tries to gain unlawful freedom. Wilkins (1969) states that the actual probabilities of being punished for a particular crime may be below what a would be offender thinks it is. If offenders have knowledge about the consequences of being apprehended for crime commission, there are more tendencies that there will be a decline in the perpetration which may be due to knowing the fact that an apprehension may lead to sanctions which may be unpleasant, hence abstaining from crime (Wilkins, 1969). Thus, Atere (1993) states that correctional centre term stands proxy for about 80% of all punitive measures which give an offender a second chance to show that he or she is remorseful and ready to be a better person.

2.4 Incarceration and inmates: The realities and fictitious

Incarceration, as an approach of punishment, originated in the 16th century but became extensively widespread only in the 19th century (Agunbiade, 2010). Incarceration is not new to modern society in Nigeria (Alabi & Alabi, 2011). Incarceration is considered as a prescribed viewpoint of imposing soreness on an individual, which is seen as a trait of the traditional criminal justice system in different populations in Nigeria (Obioha, 1995). As previously defined, incarceration is the familiar form of punishment given to an offender for violating laws (Ekpe & Mammah, 1997). According to Mabuza and Roelofse (2013), “incarceration refers to the admitting, imprisonment and detention of a convicted person until his or her sentence expires” (p. 51). Incarceration is one of the commonly used criminal justice disposal approaches in Nigeria (Dambazau, 1999).

Incarceration serves a number of widespread goals which include fortification of the wider society, the deterrence of felony, vengeance against a felon, and the reintegration of inmates (Ikoh, 2011). Ideally, incarceration condenses the risk to the wider society. While the cardinal objective of incarcerating offenders was to punish them, which is likely to improve them, at the same time it guarantees social safety (Drake, 2012). Additionally, incarceration of

felons may also discourage other persons from engaging in criminal behaviour due to the fear of chastisement.

However, the purpose of incarceration, as enshrined in Section 2 (4) of the Nigeria Prison Act (1999), is an exertion to classify the reason for anti-social actions of a wrongdoer, to educate, restore and revolutionize them to be law-abiding citizens. Felons should be supported in their quest of being reformed (Sutherland & Cressey, 1978). Succinctly put, “incarceration is a prescription, and *prisonization* is the process of living within a confinement known as a correctional centre” (Chukwudi, 2012, p. 36). Ultimately, reoffending felons may be reduced if the objective of incarceration is attained by setting up and providing adequate rehabilitation of inmates (Uche et al., 2011). Therefore, incarceration is intended for correcting offenders and altering their deeds, rather than just penalizing them for their erroneous deeds (Conklin, 2001).

Lillyquist (1980) posits that the objective of incarceration involves correction and rehabilitation of offenders which can be achieved by exposing them to educational or therapeutic experiences and medical care (Davies, 1993). Offenders should be treated with respect as incarceration itself restricts their movement, which can lead to depression. To avoid depression, it is imperative to engage offenders in vocational training programmes (Ajayi, 2012). Therefore, offenders may learn a new craft or industrial expertise.

Correctional centre, as a reformatory centre, is expected to rehabilitate offenders in custody; this can be achieved by providing all basic facilities for correctional centres (Ali, 2011). Offenders who partake in a correctional programme during incarceration should be more hopeful in relation to their triumph and steer clear from participating in crime upon regaining freedom from the correctional institution (Latessa & Holsinger, 1998). Therefore, offenders who are fully engaged in vocational programmes like carpentry and welding, are less likely to indulge in the further crime after release from correctional centre facilities.

2.4.1 Incarceration for reformation or incarceration for deformation

One of the fundamental objectives of establishing correctional centres is to accommodate individuals who violated the law by an act punishable by law (Asokhia & Osumah, 2013). Hester and Eglin (1992) affirm that correctional centre serves the following purposes: (a) Detention of inmates with pending trial; (b) protected confinement of inmates pending sentencing or for investigation; (c) imprisonment of those penalized for illicit offences, non-payment of amounts outstanding and forfeiture, or for disrespect of court. To the other extreme, Foucault (1977) suggests that a small number of correctional centres were earlier used to accommodate capital punishment or paying fines or debts. Today, however, correctional centres are viewed as conventional internments for the protected custody of those legitimately behind bars waiting for trial (Omagbemi & Odunewu, 2008). Indeed, it is well understood that incarcerating a wrongdoer is not revenge.

By isolating criminals from the rest of society, correctional centre can effectively reform, rehabilitate, punish and deter offenders and protect the wider society (Fitzerald, 1977; Foucault, 1977; Cressey, 1965). Hartinger et al. (1973) observe that correctional centres are meant for incarceration, regarded as a less severe punishment and reformation and seen as a place for seclusion and reflection, thereby leading to regrets, repentance, and deliverance. To this degree, correctional centres in Nigeria, like others across the globe, are saddled with three essential roles of reintegration, improvement and recuperation (Adeleke & Uche, 2015).

The NPS is a government maintained institution established to correct, punish, reform social deviants, and complement the processes of legal adjudication and law enforcement. According to Nigeria Prison Service Manual (2011), the awareness of one the foremost goals of the correctional service - the reform and the reintegration of felons - is implemented through an intricate set of mechanisms consisting of, among others: recreational activities, skill acquisition programmes, religious services, educational development and corrective enlightening programmes. Similarly, the NPS, metes out punitive acts to mature offenders (Ugwumba & Usang, 2014). In

spite of this, Agomoh (1996) affirms that correctional centres in Nigeria were established to accommodate offenders in a safe confinement in order to treat and prepare them to be law-abiding citizens upon reintegration into liberated society, and to produce income for administration through industries and correctional centre farms.

In line with the philosophy of the NPS, which is management and restoration of a wrongdoer, this can be attained through careful outline and well enunciated administrative, reforming and reintegration programmes intended at instilling continence, and regard for law and order. Hence, a correctional centre implements approaches for the alteration of illegal acts of inmates; its culture is a vigorous one which normally consists of all categories of value assimilation (Obioha, 1995).

According to Igbo (2007), the NPS has an obligation of guaranteeing the sheltered confinement of offenders for their improvement and recuperation or restoration. This emphasizes the idea of correctional centre institutions boosting the rehabilitation, reformation and reintegration of once incarcerated offenders. Reformation implies premeditated strategies to teach ethical correction in a person's character in order to be less persuaded to reoffend in the future (Ahire, 1990).

Society assumes that confining dangerous offenders will permanently safeguard society from them for the period of their correctional centre term (Ikoh, 2011). However, with the cramping of offenders in correctional institutions, Opara (1998) states that the general public is safeguarded when offenders are in correctional centre term, but that it remains impermanent because before long the offender will regain freedom and return to the wider society as the same predacious criminal if not adequately transformed and rehabilitated. Correspondingly, the anticipation is that correctional centre will make inmates apologetic for their criminal deeds, and when they are liberated will be reluctant to commit further crime (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2001). Realistically, individuals are incarcerated for various acts that violate criminal law, but the essence of incarceration is a motive towards rehabilitation and modification of criminal behavior through a series of correctional programmes.

Thus, correctional centres should be able to mold the inmate's character instead of causing further destruction (Agunbiade, 2010).

Moreover, Yakubu (1999) states that correctional education (a) helps to or has the capacity to redress the abnormal person already associated with correctional centre; (b) gives equal opportunity in the acquisition of education, and (c) has the capacity to encourage and help those who try to turn away from crime by rehabilitation. Contradicting the above views, Reza (2011) opines that correctional centres has not been an efficacious instrument to return the offender to the wider society or that it has not reformed the offender status. Regardless the perspective, one commonality is that correctional centre is repeatedly alluded to as a correctional establishment where offenders are restricted or penalized to remove dangerous elements from the society because their continuous stay is a threat to existing peace (Chaturvedi, 2006; Omoni & Ijeh, 2011).

2.4.2 Incarceration: An aftermath

Inmates in correctional institutions or convicted offenders are sent to correctional centres by courts for different terms of incarceration, which results to be cut off from the wider society (Tenibiaje, 2010). Nigeria's correctional system, as a part of reform and penal agency, has lost its core value/purpose (Alabi & Alabi, 2011). Correctional centres do not differ much from other human communities that frequently experience some life-transient tasks (Arisukwu et al., 2015). However, incarceration as a legal means of punishing wrongdoers is seen to have several consequences for the offender's life despite its objectives of providing treatment, education and rehabilitation programmes to incarcerated inmates. Incarceration entails deprivation, which results in denial of freedom of thoughts, curtailing movement, and other basic rights (Osefo, 1990).

Odekunle (1981) opines that one consequence of incarceration is that correctional centres receive back almost a majority of felons they were expected to have rehabilitated and reformed. Moreover, inmates are stigmatized and rejected by members of their immediate communities. Logan

(2007) feels that one consequence of incarceration is the irreparable damage it is seen to make on parents and likewise their legal status as parents when they are detained in correctional centres. Although inmates are accommodated for a purpose, due to their prolonged or brief stay in custody, some perceived consequences are seen to affect their personalities, their families and other economic activities of the offenders (Madaki, 2011). Petersilia (2003) explains that due to stigma associated with incarceration, the majority of ex-offenders may find it difficult to secure jobs and decent housing. Also, as a result of stigmatization, most family members avoid making it public that they have a relative in correctional centre custody serving a jail term. This may be due to the shame associated with incarceration. Stern (1998) suggests that stigma causes humiliation, reduces or decreases self-worth, social acceptance, and can negatively affect the defamed person's inclination to criminal behaviour. Their capacity as human emotions is successfully blunted by continual or persistent assault on their humanity (Clemmer, 1950).

Lippke (2002) indicates that incarceration successfully limits the enjoyment of any perceived rights. For example, by restraining or limiting the inmate's liberty of movement, incarceration makes it difficult or unfeasible for offenders to attain a profitable occupation. Lippke (2002) also states that incarceration often triggers the atrophy of important talent and character required to exercise or benefit certain rights. For example, seclusion usually prescribed on inmates erodes their competence to execute significant and positive contact or interaction upon release, which deters them from the impending enjoyment of the right of liberty (Durosaro, 2012). Such seclusion causes some inmates to engage in risky sexual behaviour, such as masturbation and having unprotected sexual intercourse with other offenders, which may be due to limited supply of male and female condoms, thus to widespread of sexually transmitted diseases (Sykes, 1966; Agunbiade, 2010). Sometimes, inmates encounter medical neglect, sexual compulsion and harassment in confinement facilities by correctional officials (Briedland et al., 2009).

Potts (2000) found that sexually transmitted diseases amid inmates are 20 times higher than that of the overall populace. Regarding the prevalence of sexually transmitted diseases among correctional centres in Nigeria studies found that in Agodi Correctional centre in Ibadan, Nigeria, both male and females were involved in perilous sexual behaviour which might lead to the spread of HIV/AIDS in correctional centres (Okochi et al., 1991; Potts, 2000; Adesanya, 1997). Although HIV/AIDS is a common sexually spread disease in most Nigerian correctional centres, other communicable diseases are present too, such as tuberculosis (TB), staphylococcus, and hypertiasis (Egamberdi, 2006; Okwendi, Nwankwoal, & Ushi, 2014). TB is ranked 9th in global health problems (United Nations Development Programme, 2000).

Furthermore, most inmates are accommodated in filthy cells, which endangers their lives, and in some cases, may lead to casualties (Agunbiade, 2010). Watson et al. (2004), A range of additional health problems common among inmates include mental health, substance abuse and transmissible disease. Most of these health problems have been established in some penal institution in Nigeria (Agbahowe et al., 1998). Problems persist as some inmates are unable to afford the services of a lawyer, leading to prolonged incarceration and the consequence of congestion which endangers the inmates' lives. (Hassan, 2010). Furthermore, a consequence of incarceration is seen to have a visible effect on incarcerated offenders (Ruddell, 2004).

The concept of incarceration successfully strips an offender's support of his or her world (Gillespie, 2004). Stern (1998) found that inmates are less probable to be married; the marriages of those that are incarcerated for five to ten years mostly come to an end. Additionally, educational levels of inmates' children are low, with the majority ending up in correctional centres or jobless. Gaines and Miller (2008) states that when a parent is being incarcerated, his or her will over an over again experience financial difficulties, reduced parental supervision and discipline, and an overall decline of the family structure. It is believed that children whose parents are convicts are more likely to engage in delinquent behaviour

In view of the above, Kitzinger (2003) opines that inmates who were detached from their spouses, children and siblings developed symptoms of mental and physical problems which may be as a result of being sexually abused, lack of educational background, coupled with the unsafe correctional centre environment. Basically, inmates get a reduced amount of attention compared to hospitals and schools.

In assessing the mental health guiding principle in Nigeria, Odebiyi (1991) exposed a general poor social viewpoint from the government of those who are of the mentally ill. It has been debated by mental health professionals that incarceration leads to psychosomatic punishment for offenders (Weinstein, 1998). Similarly, an astronomical percentage of mental and health problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, anxiety and an inclination to self-harm and suicide have been reported (Chukwuma, 1994). Brundt, (2012) states that “incarceration can exacerbate illness, increase the risk of suicide and cause long-term psychological damage” (p. 541). Yet these sufferers have insufficient access to health care services (Agunbiade, 2010). Similarly, children’s parents serving jail terms experience an adverse psychological development (Hairston, 1998).

When contrasted with other people from the wider society, inmates are the most disheartened and harassed when they are incarcerated for the very first time (Porporino, 1988). Additionally, inmates are economically inefficient, bodily unoccupied, passionately distressed or traumatized (Damabazau, 1999; Oshodi, 2010). Adeola (1999) opines that incarceration is likely not to do any good for the offender as it is used as a concluding alternative by means of punishing the offender and keeping the society away from them. Eneku (2001) found that some offenders in Nigeria were admitted into correctional centre in shackles and chains, which suggests degrading treatment. Lillyquist (1980) stresses that denying people of their liberty for an appreciable period of time and otherwise treating them poorly during incarceration is believed to be counterproductive.

A study conducted by Sabbath and Cowles (1992) outlined the impact of long-term incarceration of inmates. The results divulge that the majority of

challenges of long-term incarceration include: lack of visitation, distance from loved ones, and lack of concealment within correctional centre vicinity. Alemika (1983) depicts correctional centre life as involving loss of freedom and significant social relationships and responsibility, loss of contact with the wider society, compulsory enslavement, feeling a sense of futility, tedium, oppression, loss of decision-making, and imposed lethargy. As a result, offenders find themselves reduced to a stage of living near exposed survival and whatsoever physical pain this denial may involve (Grasham & Sheldon, 1970).

Grasham and Sheldon (1970) further submit that ostensibly this has “deeper psychological significance as a basic attack on the inmate’s conception of his own personal adequacy” (p. 15). These problems point to the various forms of deprivation found within the correctional centre system which is applicable to the inmates in Nigerian correctional centres (Solomon et al., 2014). In relation to the unique encounter of inmates, Alabi, and Aalbi (2011), attest that offenders may be cramped in the same circumscribed place, nevertheless, each of them has a unique encounter and problems.

Alabi and Alabi (2011) observe that the discomfort of incarceration goes further than mere imprisonment or reintegration of the criminal to include indescribable adversity, loss, reconsideration, displeasure and sadness. In view of the above, Flanagan (1983) categorized five forms of deprivations that felons encounter during incarceration. These include: missing somebody; missing social life; being worried about ways to cope when they regain freedom; an opinion that their lives are being wasted, and feeling sexually unfulfilled.

Ahn-Redding (2007) posits that a correctional centre encounter is injurious to one’s sense of self-esteem and endangers inmates, thus leading to physical depreciation. Ahn-Redding’s study (2007) further revealed that most felons experience loss of security. This implies that incarcerated inmates may be made to live in the same cell with other inmates who have a history of mental illness or still suffering one, thereby endangering their lives. In addition, Uche et al. (2011) posit that adjustment of inmates in Nigeria is a major problem

which is largely due to the fact society views such released offenders as non conformists who are not acquiescent to correction. Thus, “such discharged person inmates are, therefore, stigmatized and treated as social pariahs”(Uche et al., 2011, p.15).

Furthermore, ex-inmates experience several challenges in securing occupation, education, and housing in their own community (Clear, 2007; Petersilia, 2003; Pager. 2003; Western et al., 2001). For example, in Nigeria, these problems persist as training in most correctional centres in Nigeria cannot prepare them for productive employment or even securing employment upon release due to their records (Tenibiaje, 2010). Additionally, inmates face alienation from the political process as they are disenfranchised (Laub & Sampson, 2003; Western, 2006).

Hautaluoma and Scott (1973) reveal that during incarceration, inmates are incarcerated for a long phase of time, and achievement, values of honesty, kindness and religious devotion is decreased. Sometimes during incarceration, inmates are exposed to harsh regimes designed to discipline them. Hester and Eglin (1990) postulate that are consequences of solitary confinement are seen as permanently disabling.

Mallery (2005) suggests that inmates are denied certain things which include liberty of movement, but it should be taken into consideration that denial beyond this is open to moral evaluation. Experience in correctional centre is seen to have various consequences which largely depend on the kind of individual who has been deprived certain rights such as liberty (Novo-Corti & Barreiro-Gen, 2015). Logan (2007) states that incarceration has some perceived stigmatization of inmates which erodes social unity and likewise undermine the civil liberty of the inmates, and may harm family relations, social networks and inmates' positions before offending (Novo-Corti & Barreiro-Gen, 2015). Incarceration also may punctuate key life transitions in early adulthood, leaving ex-inmates to “suffer both legal and social stigma” (Pettit & Lyons, 2002, p. 51).

Relative to the above, Latessa and Holsinger (1998) state that inmates who have spent an extensive amount of duration in correctional centre are more likely to recidivate than those who stayed less in correctional centre. Hester and Englin (1990) state that inmates are well aware that they will be labeled as despicable pariahs by members of the community they are expected to reintegrate into. Once an individual is incarcerated, he/her practically becomes isolated from friends and family, employer and also immediate community (Gillespie, 2004). In Nigeria, incarceration is generally humiliating and implies absolute parting from family members and loved ones (Durosaro, 2002).

Knoll (2006) states that the environment in correctional centre leads to destruction in self-initiative and autonomy, thereby leading to a long-term damage of psychological health. Administrative segregation is a persistent representation of negative effects in a correctional centre population (Rhodes, 2005). This results in degradation of the image which includes situations like wearing of institutional clothing rather than personal clothing, being locked in cells and not called by name but rather by numbers (Bowker, 1982). As a result of the above, an ex-inmate is likely to indulge in reoffending behaviour due to poor rehabilitation in the correctional centre due to absence of vocational training and formal education during incarceration (Curtis, 2005).

Further, incarceration is likely to have an undesirable consequence on the social capital inmates, to a situation where inmates establish connections with other offenders, hence leading to a possibility of engaging in further crime due to inability to secure payable jobs as well as weakening of job referral networks and employer discrimination (Lyon et al., 2001). According to Logan (2007), “most ex-felons end up homeless and have no option than roam the streets, which creates a situation for further re-offending thereby leading them back to jail” (p. 41).

Many inmates have attested to how the diverse rubric and code of practice from correctional administration have humiliated their qualities and self-worth (Heney, 1990). Petersilia (2003) states that inmates continue to be illiterate, unskillful, inexperienced, and mostly lack any form of support from members of their

family. Overall, interaction with the criminal justice system which results in incarceration reduces a person's ability to apply and compete for a steady occupation. However, Kling (2006) points out that research in the past on the implication of incarceration on labour market outcomes has revealed a huge implication of incarceration which has laid more emphasis on the effect of serving some period in a correctional centre versus serving no time.

The above view is supported by Apel and Sweeten (2010), who suggest that that an ex-inmate has difficulty securing employment, thereby jeopardizing their work prospects of the post-incarcerated population. However, ex-offenders can be successfully hired for public sector jobs (Henry & Milovanovic, 1999). This means that discrimination against ex-offenders by private employers will be tagged as unreasonable, wicked and discriminatory. Thus, insufficient consideration and kindness to inmates can only upsurge the rate of recidivism instead of controlling it (Imhabekhai, 2002). Braman (2002) indicates that the negative consequences of incarceration sometimes go beyond the incarcerated inmate. This may be due to factors like inability to secure paying jobs or elective positions (Udoh, 2011). Conclusively, incarceration in Nigeria contributes diminutively to the wrongdoer and their family (Atere, 2000). Thus, effectiveness of incarceration will form part of discourse below.

2.4.3 Effectiveness of incarceration

Rehabilitation of an offender should start from the very first day he or she has been absorbed into the correctional centre until he or she is discharged from the correctional centre (Igbo, 2007). The essence of imparting correction on an inmate is to reform him or her to fit into the wider society. Though incarceration deprives an inmate of certain things of life, it remains important. In relation to the effectiveness of correctional centre in rehabilitating and preventing recidivism, Paul and Beverly (2006) hold that most successful rehabilitation programmes are less likely if attention is not paid to certain practical resettlement needs of inmates which may be catered for through a comprehensive programmes that has to do with adjustment counseling.

Obioha (1995) stresses that inmates who learn basic skills through education and training are more probable not to return to reoffending than inmates who are without basic skills. Calbertson (1977) states that “treatment and punishment are compatible reconstructive elements” (p. 3a). Carney (1980) asserts that corrections commence when correction requires classification procedures to make sure that some responses to some treatment strategies shall be chosen and screened into treatment programmes. Furthermore, Carney (1980) states that corrections should be balanced and has a rational view of the actual place of punishment in the correctional endeavor. Part of the problem is that punishment is commonly linked with bodily pain and may not necessarily involve denial whereby restriction chastens but does not dehumanize and is a lawful and reasonable style of punishment (Carney, 1980).

Moreover, Lillyquist (1980) states that sending an individual to correctional centre implies losing freedom which he tags as punishment itself. One can possibly view the punitive aspect of incarceration, which is seen as seconding to a mere constructive aspect of correctional centre life. Lillyquist (1980) thus posits states a convict could learn additional interpersonal expertise with the assistance of a therapist or can learn an additional trade or job-related skills, also with the assistance of therapist. In view of the above, offenders are likely to adequately deal with stress related problems and conflict instead of venturing into criminal ways.

In view of the above, inmates may likely take advantage of the expertise assimilated in the process of rehabilitation to live as law-abiding citizens in the society (Uche et al., 2011). However, the main purpose of corrections is quite clear through the correctional system, yet is believed to have been saddled with some conflicting goals, such as deterrence, punishment, reform, rehabilitation (Bonn, 1984). The following sections comprise Bonn’s (1984) outlines of the three major perspectives which influence thinking about corrections and studies of correction.

2.4.4 Correction as sanctions

Corrections is a retributive punishment where society, through various ways, inflicts pain on an offender as revenge (Bonn, 1984). Newman (2008) who suggests that society must therefore punish an offender and that punishment must (a) include discomfort or distasteful consequences; (b) happen to be a crime in contrast to a rule; (c) happen to be an assumed criminal; (d) deliberately meted out by a person other than the criminal, and (e) be prescribed and governed by authority by a lawful system. Wilson (2000) states that the 21st-century system is believed to be lenient, and instead of deterring crime it promotes it. Hirsch and Fogel's (1994) view is "just desert model", which implies that offenders should be penalized by relatively uniform, short and definite sentences with reference to the offence perpetrated.

Bonn (1984) opines that treatment ideology does not dominate corrections; this may be due to the fact that other views believe offenders can be treated appropriately. Wilkins and Martinson (1976) suggest that individuals who are placed on probation, which is seen as a form of treatment, perform better regarding recidivism than those with identical backgrounds and criminal track records who are accommodated in the correctional centre. Oshodi (2010) submits that forms of punishment like community service and probation might be more suitable opposed to debilitating precarious and unrelenting criminals by imprisoning. Murray and Cox (1990) conclude that there is a relatively high reduction in recidivism rates of participants in various correctional programmes.

2.4.5 Correction as class control

Correction is seen as a method of control of the lower class and imposed by the so-called elites (Bonn, 1984). Bonn (1984) states that in all societies, scholars view correction as class control and delve further by arguing that the cardinal objective for purpose of correction, with specific reference to the prison is to expunge unemployed workers from labour market and ensure provision of slave labour for prison industries.

Clinard and Yeagar (1980) concede that correction as class control holds that sometimes the correctional system may not be responsive to criminal activity, rather it is a highly political process in which sanctions are directed towards those who are believed to threaten the existence of the capitalist state and its class interest.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided an empirical literature on the research problem, and an overview of the correctional institution. This review explored the relationship between correctional centre and incarceration, and forms of punishment on an offender. Contending views on incarceration were presented, hence arguing if incarceration was for deformation and incarceration was for deformation. Beyond this, consequences of incarceration were presented as well as effectiveness of incarceration. Some consequences of incarceration, such as stigmatization, affect the ex-inmates' chances of securing payable jobs, although contradictory literature also reveals that with proper rehabilitation put in place, inmates are successfully rehabilitated, making them fit adequately into the society due to vocational skills they were inculcated with during incarceration. Thus, adequate provision of rehabilitation programmes and facilities could improve rehabilitation potentials amongst inmates and vice-versa may likely affect successful rehabilitation of inmates. Hence, correctional centre and incarceration in the context of Nigeria were reviewed. This chapter has looked into the concept of correctional centre as a correctional with a discussion of key words such as punishment and incarceration. Thus, the next chapter will dwell on strategies and challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation in NPS and DCS.

CHAPTER THREE

REHABILITATION STRATEGIES AND CHALLENGES INHIBITING EFFECTIVE REHABILITATION OF INMATES: A COMPARISON OF NIGERIA AND SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

The emphasis of this chapter contains a review in the rehabilitation and reintegration programmes in a Nigerian correctional centre; correctional centre conditions and practices in the Nigerian and South African context. Hence, it was imperative to discuss the similarities in the rehabilitation strategy and practices between NPS and DCS. Furthermore, it delves into social work and rehabilitation of inmates in Nigeria, health (care) delivery in Nigerian correctional centres, and lastly challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation of incarcerated inmates in Nigerian correctional centres.

3.2 Rehabilitation and inmates in correctional centres: The real and unreal

An important aspect which has to do with offender rehabilitation in most contemporary societies is to reduce prevalence of recidivism which can be attained by providing support for individuals who, one way or the other, have violated the state law, with more emphasis on those who have been discharged from a correctional facility so that they can regain contact with various aspects of the social world which constitutes normal living (McGuire, 1995). In accordance with the penal system, it implies making inmates fit or ready to rejoin the wider society as law-abiding citizens after a complete rehabilitation, reformation and re-socialization (Robinson & Crow, 2009).

However, rehabilitation, with specific reference to correctional centre rehabilitation, means “bringing the offender to a normal way of life” (Awopetu, 2011, p. 1). Thus, convicted offenders are condemned to a correctional centre for the objective of reintegration (Asokhia & Agbonlua, 2013). Furthermore,

reformation is now seen as a procedure of improving the inmate by trying to substitute his or her unlawful deeds (Awopetu, 2011). In view of the above, Kelechi (2011) submits that reformation is the slow process of reorientation and resocialization of an individual who has diverged from communally and lawfully accepted patterns of deeds because of certain remediable character flaws. Moreover, this encompasses all round development of the character and capacity, with specific emphasis on the development of accountability and self-control. Reformation is the effort to alter the criminal through treatment or remedial measures so that when given a chance, he or she will refrain from perpetrating crime (Ekpe & Mammah, 1997). Omoni and Ijeh (2009) suggest that rehabilitation is an impermanent and after care service bestowed to inmates to evade rearrest.

Ugwuoke and Ojunugwa (2014) attest that rehabilitation simply means the modification of trait or character and actions of a convicted offender through well-schemed educational or corrective treatment, thus making sure that the offender is reverted back into the society as an accomplished, self-rooting for and recognized member of the society. Fattah (1982) states that contrary to punishment, in rehabilitation offenders are treated kindly. Rehabilitation is the entire procedure of making an inmate useful to themselves and the wider society by instilling in him or her essential expertise and wisdom that will enable the inmate to recover his or her social functioning after regaining freedom (Adana, 2004). Another view is that rehabilitation is the restoration to a former capacity (Carney, 1980). This can be achieved by the assistance of correctional officers.

According to Skidmore et al. (1976), rehabilitation is believed to be sufficient when the entire process of providing an inmate with wisdom or intelligence, ability and finance ensures lawful living within the society; this should be attained or when the social and ethical criteria of the inmate has been elevated to a stage that permits him or her to endure the communal tension against returning to crime-related acts. Lariviere (2001) argues that correctional officers are superlatively placed to reintegrate and impact the inmates positively. However, individuals commit deviant deeds in reaction to

system strain and tension, in spite of the detailed effect of rehabilitation is to cause persons to plug back into the system, thus perpetuating it (Wilmot, 1995).

Perpetration of further criminal acts may be due to certain occurrences, such as theft (Wilmot, 1995). An offender starved of rehabilitation chance, which may include skills training and building capacity, should habitually revisit the wider society which has detained him or her as a hard-hidden enemy of that society. Carney (1980) postulates that “rehabilitation may cause a criminal to become re-introduced into the system, which may be precipitated delinquent act in the first instance and may epitomize “dysfunctional view”” (p. 72). Therefore, rehabilitation presumes an application of inflectional modes of activity which is normally aimed at the redirection of behaviour (Carney, 1980).

3.2.1 Rehabilitation and reintegration programmes in Nigerian correctional centres

The position of restoration services in the improvement and alteration of offenders has persistently been the foremost objective of the Nigerian government (Tanimu, 2010:). Number Nine (9) of the 1972 Prison Act (PA) positions an obligation on the NPS with the expectation that those craving to better themselves when facing imprisonment have ample chance to indulge in a number of rehabilitation programmes. Furthermore, rehabilitation is a process of making an inmate helpful to him or herself and the wider society by inculcating in him or her basic talents and wisdom that will help the inmate recover his or her social functioning upon regaining freedom (Ali, 2011). For any significant reintegration and rehabilitation to take place in the correctional centre, rehabilitation services should be upgraded and sufficient provisions made, and these should be easily accessible by the inmates (Asokhia & Agbonluae, 2013). For example, workshops for skills acquisition were established to train inmates in the skills of shoemaking, printing and tailoring (Ayuk et al., 2013).

However, to attain the above objective, rehabilitation services in Nigerian correctional centres are defined as service provided for inmates in order to reinstate them to fullest physical, mental, emotional and vocational usefulness which they are capable of (Nigerian Prison Act, CAP 366, 1990). However, Skidmore et al. (1976) state that rehabilitation should provide an inmate with education, ability and skills, which will allow him or her to be reintegrated within the wider society. Odekunle (2007) states that the NPS is part of the Nigerian criminal justice system reform's policy which is believed to be in accordance with the global trend to change correctional centre services. This is from a disciplinary and retaliatory penal system to a rehabilitative and reformatory system in which the well-being of offenders will be given adequate attention.

The NPS is known for its quest in inculcating skills acquisition and development programmes on incarcerated inmates (Awopetu, 2011). In view of the above, Ekpe and Mammah (1997) posit that felons should be reintegrated with the eventual goal of helping them become self-sustaining and controlled residents. As a result of such reform, the correctional centre furniture college industry was developed with an objective of inculcating and imparting vocational training for inmates (Ezim, 2011). Vocational training enables inmates to manufacture doors, office equipment, and household furniture (Oluwakuyide, 2001). This will help inmates survive upon regaining freedom, without reverting to crime (Ayuk, 2003).

Moreover, vocational programmes give occupation training which normally provides the inmate with experience in preparation for the workplace. Convicted inmates can be proficient and skilled in carpentry, painting, upholstery and computer programmes. (Awopetu, 2011). In view of instilling training for inmates, the inmate training and productivity (ITP) as a skill training initiative was established in Nigerian correctional centres with the intention of training inmates in correctional centre farm activities (Tenibiaje, 2010). Tenibiaje (2010) opines that cottage industries also train inmates in mechanized fabrication to make furniture, toilet roll, soap and aluminum pots.

In view of the above, inmates must be adequately informed of the purpose of vocational and educational programmes, which is likely to lead to a proficient occupation after incarceration (Eze & Okafor, 2007). Non-governmental organizations (NGO) participate conspicuously in reformation and restoration programmes by contributing vocational training programmes and industrial skills which tackle correctional centre congestion (Imibekhai, 2002). According to Eneku (2001), some felons favour one rehabilitation service or activity over another. This may be as a result of personal interest or the simplicity of the programmes (Ezim, 2012).

Felons that adopt rehabilitation during their stay in correctional centre assimilate skills which will offer them with services, chance and career on discharge (Uche et al., 2011). Ezim (2012) observes that “other vocational trainings are available for inmates, especially those who had no stable job before their incarceration” (p. 36). Some programmes, like moral persuasion and education, are aimed to dissuade inmates from criminality. In fulfillment of the rehabilitation principle, offenders are held back in correctional centre until correctional institutions believe they have been successfully rehabilitated (Tanimu, 2010).

To reintegrate an inmate, he or she must uncurl deep within his or her own character (Awopetu, 2011). However, the significance of correctional centre education includes (a) keeping inmates profoundly occupied; (b) altering attitude and behaviour, and (c) enabling occupation, professional expertise and advance to additional education and training (Sutton, 1993). To focus on the spiritual needs of inmates, activities include worship services, theological courses, prayer sessions and scriptural study services (Asokhia & Agbonlaue, 2013).

In some Nigerian correctional centres chaplains are available to support inmates with crisis intervention and during times of personal predicament. Ayade (2010) affirms the presence of pastoral and catholic ministries in correctional centre in Nigeria which preach for character molding. Churches and mosque committees endow both bodily and religious well-being of inmates through individual and cluster counseling for reintegration, alteration

of attitude and behaviour (Tenibiaje, 2010). With the provision of correctional centre religious reintegration programmes, inmates will be educated for a brilliant future (Prison Rehabilitation and Welfare Actions, 2016). This is achieved through giving inmates practical expertise which can assist them to live self-gratifying lives upon discharge.

Moreover, counseling is deemed important for efficient to effective rehabilitation of inmates. Essentially, counseling is a decoration, restoration and reintegration process (Ipaje, 2009). Adana (2004) submits that counseling services are targeted at helping inmates to influence change in their deeds, thus obtaining the capacity to improve their functioning and live a more creative and self-satisfying life.

Reintegration or recreational activities that felons receive depend on whether they are inside or outside their correctional centre cells and their preferences. When inmates are in their cells, they have a preference for games like draft and Lido cards (Tanimu, 2010). However, Tanimu (2010) found that most inmates are idle and there is wastage among inmates, leading to rusting of trade and occupation skills. In cases where there are provisions for skill acquisition centres in the correctional centres, these were not suitable for the purpose of skills acquisition or not functioning at all (Salaam, 2013).

Nigerian correctional centres are seen as a home for idle minds which is as a result of lack of activities, lack of facilities and good skills which inmates may like to learn (Ishaka & Akpovwa, 1986; Kangiwa, 1986). Olawole (2002) states that there is no social infrastructure, resulting in the absence of good recreational facilities. The above problem in Nigerian correctional centres may hinder effective rehabilitation of inmates which will award them better lives after incarceration. NGOs and stakeholders must thus provide the necessary facilities which will help effective inmate rehabilitation.

3.2.2 Rehabilitation of inmates in the South African context

Rehabilitation of inmates in the South African context remains the responsibility of the Department of Correctional Services. However, inmate as

a concept has been defined in different ways. For example, the Amended Act of Republic of South Africa (2008) states that an inmate connotes any person, be it convicted or not, who is interned in custody in any correctional centre or is travelling from one correctional centre to different correctional centre. With specific reference to the Correctional Service Amendment Act (CSAA) (2008), “correction means provision of services and programmes aimed at correcting the offending behaviour of sentenced offenders in order to rehabilitate them” (p. 5). To ensure adequate rehabilitation of inmates, it is pertinent that they are well taken care of. In view of this, CSAA(2008) states that ‘care’ means the provision of services and programmes intended to improve and sustain the social, emotional, intellectual, health and bodily well being of the inmates. Hence, inmates can be taken care of in different ways, such as the input of social workers. Coetzee (2003) states that “social workers have a critical role to play in this process, since they serve as a link in maintaining ties between the inmate and their families” (p. 2).

Furthermore, Mnguni and Mohapi (2015) posit that the “role of social workers in the rehabilitation of offenders includes the professional assessment of offenders, assisting offenders to develop coping skills, the provision of counseling and support, facilitation of contact between offenders and their families, and to write reports for the parole and correctional supervision boards” (p. 53). The CSAA (2008) states that ‘development’ means provision of services and programmes directed at developing and improving capabilities and proficiency that will permit the sentenced offender to reintegrate into the community.

However, the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) (2005) further explains rehabilitation as a “holistic phenomenon, incorporating and encouraging social responsibility, social justice, empowerment through life skills and other skill training, and the active participation in democratic activities” (p.17). Provision of skills can be best described as provision of need based programmes, hence targeting inmates. Needs based programmes implies programmes that are established or rendered according to the offenders’ recognized precise wants or requirements. The provision of these

needs can ensure adequate rehabilitation of incarcerated inmates, which may be due to the provision of offender needs, thus diverting their mind from crime related activities within the correctional centre.

Similarly, Ngabonziza and Singh (2012) submit that programmes designed to rehabilitate and reintegrate offenders are mostly based on the premise that people's behaviour is triggered by antecedent causes, and that certain interventions can be utilized to bring about positive change. Furthermore, rehabilitation should be used to reduce the likelihood of offenders going back to a correctional facility (recidivating) (Cullen, 2007). Absence of adequate rehabilitation strategies and programmes creates idleness amongst inmates, with a relapse to criminal behaviour more likely, thus increasing recidivism. Neglecting rehabilitation programmes can lead to a high level of recidivism, with the implication that recidivists will repeatedly return to a correctional centre for committing the same criminal offence or for committing infractions (Clear & Dammer, 2003).

Conversely, some South African correctional centres are known for overcrowding. Steinberg (2005) declares that "In January 2002, eight years after South Africa's first democratic election, the correctional facilities in South Africa had a capacity to house 96,361 inmates, but the actual correctional facilities were overcrowded and housing 121 percent of their capacity" (p. 4). In view of the above, it would seem that correctional facilities within that period was over crowded. Furthermore, the official capacity of correctional facilities at the time of the study was 114,821, but the actual capacity was 184,806, which suggests that South African correctional centres have been overcrowded in the past ten years (Steinberg, 2005, p. 9).

The above statistics reveal that there was an increment of 40% in inmate population in correctional services in South Africa in a space of two years (Mnguni & Mohapi, 2015). One of the consequences of congestion in any correctional facility is it leads to human pressure on the physical facility as a result of stretching the available facilities to the limit. Steinberg (2005) states that "correctional centre overcrowding compromises one of the objectives of a

correctional centre, which is to re-socialize inmates in preparation for their release” (p. 10).

Overcrowding limits the classification and movement of inmates. It is due to overcrowding that a correctional institution fails to practice proper classification, thus financial crime offenders are accommodated in the same cell with hardened criminals, and even inmates who have mental ailments due to certain factors such as depression are also incarcerated alongside other inmates. Mentally ill inmates require adequate treatment from a qualified psychiatrist, but due to inadequate cells in a correctional centre facility, they are cramped with other inmates. The Minister of Correctional Services in the Republic of South Africa recently revealed that in 2015, 159,241 inmates were accommodated in the Republic’s correctional facilities, meanwhile the Republic’s correctional facilities are expected to accommodate about 120,000 offenders (Mnguni & Mohapi, 2015).

In view of the above, Goyer (2001) posits that as a result of overcrowding, inmates spend more hours under lock and key, with under-staffing as the main reason. According to the Judicial Inspectorate of Prisons (2007), there are two major reasons behind congestion in correctional centres. Firstly, the length of incarceration unleashed on offenders is too long. This causes congestion as inmates have a prolonged period of stay, coupled with the high figure of inmates awaiting. Secondly, the deferment in the discharge of inmates. To this effect, Van Der Westhuizen and Lombard (2005) states that correctional centres in the Republic of South Africa are overcrowded and less serious offender can be effectively sentenced and reintegrated into the wider society. In view of the above, overcrowding contradicts the South African constitution, which assures the human self-respect of those imposed.

It is necessary to address the problem of congestion in any correctional institution due to the dangers of overcrowding. Notably, among the several problems of overcrowding include poor sanitation which is due to large numbers of inmates using insufficient facilities. For example, Toseland and Rivas (2011) affirm that “if a room is too small it may lead to discomfort, irritability and anxiety”. Due to human pressure, facilities are stretched,

leading to poor sanitation in sanitary facilities”. Another consequence of overcrowding is that it aids the spread of communicable diseases such as TB, syphilis and even sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV and AIDS. The increase in HIV and AIDS infection in correctional centre facilities has led to many deaths (Mnguni & Mohapi, 2015).

Due to congestion in some South African correctional centres, inmates resort to joining correctional centre gangs for several reasons. Caracciolo (2015) states that inmates deliberately join gangs within the correctional centre with an objective of surviving the conditions such as congestion, absence of sanitation and dishonest correctional centre officials who are unable to give protection against gang members. Inmate attachment to correctional centre gangs is likely to affect effective rehabilitation as wardens are unlikely to engage inmates in rehabilitative programmes during incarceration. Due to this, inmates become more hardened criminals rather than being reformed. Some activities which may harden an inmate due to attachment to a gang include extortion, rape of fellow inmates, and gang violence between rival groups. Inmates also join gangs due to lack of contact with family members. They are isolated, thereby lacking any form of emotional and financial support from family members. Thus, a gang within the correctional centre becomes a replacement to their biological family.

Furthermore, Grobler and Hesselink (2015) posit that gang violence serves to illustrate the gang's strength as well as power and control inside the correctional centre. Furthermore, some inmates join gangs to ensure an everyday means of survival in correctional and benefit certain privileges which may include cleaning of cells and clothes by lower-ranked gang members (Carraciolo, 2015). Some inmates believe that they cannot trust or depend on correctional officials ensure their protection during incarceration, thus joining a gang is the only option to benefit from protection (Caracciolo, 2015). Therefore, this does more harm than good as inmates become more hardened instead of becoming rehabilitated individuals.

3.2.3 Comparative analysis of inmate rehabilitation strategies and treatment between Nigeria and South Africa

The NPS is meant to accommodate, safeguard and rehabilitate inmates for successful rehabilitation and reintegration into the wider society upon release. The NPS in Nigeria have power and duties which have been bestowed upon them by the law (Constitution FGN, 1999), while the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Section 35 (2) specifies that all inmates have the entitlement to conditions of imprisonment which is in line with human self-esteem. Inmates are entitled to have access to good medical treatment, sufficient accommodation, balanced and palatable diet, and reading materials (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). This view is reaffirmed by Chapter 3, Part A of the Correctional Service Act which delineates the proper state under which inmates are supposed to be accommodated (CSA, 1998, Act 11 of 1996). Hence, rehabilitation of inmates in the South African context remains the responsibility of the DCS.

In line with the above, both Nigeria and South Africa are guided by official documents which are the Nigerian Prison Act (CAP 366) and the Correctional Service Act (2008). Similarly, correctional administration across the globe are also expected to adhere to the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders (1984). However, there are notable violations and adherence in both Nigeria and South Africa. For example, Agunbiade (2010) states that correctional centre conditions in Nigeria are distant from being caring, and correctional centre health is up till now viewed as a profitable social project. For years, Nigerian correctional centres have been running in an awful condition with an upsurge in challenges among the inmates. Correctional centre conditions in South Africa are unhygienic with certain characteristics like inadequate bathrooms, and insufficient provision of soap and toilet papers. These problems persist with an increase in population with the available infrastructure not able to cope with growing population.

Similarly, the implication of overcrowding is that it stretches facilities in the correctional centre, encourages tension and increases violence amongst inmates (Agboola, 2016). Hence, this suggests a violation the Nigerian Prison

Act, the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa as well as United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders (1984). In the case of adherence, based on United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders (1984), correctional administration are expected to provide rehabilitation and vocational programmes for adequate inmate rehabilitation. In Nigeria, for example, workshops for skills acquisition were established to train inmates in the skills of shoemaking, printing and tailoring (Ayuk et al., 2013:56). While in South Africa, social workers have played a role in the rehabilitation of inmates. For example, Mnguni and Mohapi (2015) state that the “role of social workers in the rehabilitation of offenders includes the professional assessment of offenders, assisting offenders to develop coping skills, the provision of counseling and support, facilitation of contact between offenders and their families, and to write reports for the parole and correctional supervision boards” (p. 53).

However, the duties of the NPS include: keeping found guilty offenders (inmates) for harmless safekeeping, keeping inmates who are awaiting trial in custody by law courts asking for their production, punishing criminals as directed by the law courts, reforming convicted inmates, rehabilitating and also convalescing inmates that have concluded their respective verdicts (Tanimu, 2010). This suggests that inmates should be treated with human dignity. This is also what is enshrined in the Correctional Service Act (1998), of the Republic of South Africa, which suggests that inmates’ self-esteems should be taken into consideration with provision of basic facilities such as health care, food and diet, adequate toilet facilities, and sufficient clothing. In view of the above, the DCS and NPS without financial assistance from their respective government may not effectively rehabilitate inmates which will invariably lead to a total failure in combating recidivism among inmates. It is expected or assumed that after incarceration, which is seen as a philosophy of punishment, an inmate is reformed. This justifies the establishment of the DCS in South Africa and NPS.

3.2.4 Similarity in the rehabilitation strategies and practices between Nigeria correctional centre and South Africa's department of correctional services

Convict rehabilitation remains the sole responsibility of the NPS and the DCS. As a correctional administration, similar and divergent strategies are being employed to effectively rehabilitate convicted inmates to enhance adequate reintegration back into the society. The essence of employing this rehabilitation strategy is to reduce the prevalence of reoffending amongst inmates. However, in the context of offender rehabilitation in South Africa, the Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP) involves changing certain guiding rules from the White Paper on Corrections into practice (White Paper on Corrections, DCS, 2005). Therefore, *"The ORP has accordingly been embedded in the mandate of the DCS"* (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012, p.29). The aim of the DCS is to identify rehabilitation, reformation and reintegration at the centre of all departmental actions, in affiliation with (private and public) external participants (White Paper on Corrections, 2005). Section 41 of Act 111 of 1998 CSAA:15, states that the DCS is expected to provide treatment, development and support services for inmates. The Act reveals that the Department is obliged to make provision or present access to as full a range of programmes and events as is feasible to meet the educational and guidance requirements or needs of sentenced offenders. The Act further re-affirms that offenders who are uneducated or children are obliged to partake in educational activities offered in terms of Subsection 1.

Moreover, Section 41 Subsection 20 of the CSAA (1998) states that the DCS must make provision for social and emotional services which are aimed to develop and encourage sentenced offenders by promoting their social functioning and spiritual or emotional strength. However, Curtis's (2005) states that ex-convicts will further engage in crime related acts except they are given additional formal education and vocational training. It is this context that the NPS and the DCS have employed the above mentioned strategies. An exploration of existing literature reveals that both countries employ vocational training in the rehabilitation of inmates.

In Nigeria, for example, with the intention of making correctional centre a place for essential reformation and social rehabilitation, inmates are provided with vocational and educational programmes, such as shoemaking, printing and tailoring (Ayuk et al., 2013:56). Vocational training enables inmates to manufacture doors, office equipment, and household furniture (Oluwakuyide, 2001). This will help inmates to eke out a living upon regaining freedom, without reverting to crime (Ayuk, 2003). In pursuance of the rehabilitation ideals, convicts are kept in correctional centre until authority says that they have been reformed (Tanimu, 2010). However, the above assertion does not consider the sentence of inmates, suggesting that inmates can be kept beyond their sentence if they are not adequately rehabilitated. In the Republic South Africa, similar strategies are employed as well. For example, the DCS (2005) explains rehabilitation as a “holistic phenomenon, incorporating and encouraging social responsibility, social justice, empowerment through life skills and other skill training, and the active participation in democratic activities” (p.17).

Additional similarity in rehabilitation strategy employed by correctional administrations in both countries is the use of social workers. This has become a prominent and common strategy in the rehabilitation of inmates across the globe. Okafor (2004) states that a social worker can carry out the specified role by acting as a broker, evaluator, teacher, mobilizer and consultant. The significance of a social worker is imminent with probation and parole cases. In Nigeria, this role falls under the promulgation decree which is the reason behind the establishment of a correctional centre and welfare section of the NPS (Federal Republic of Nigeria Constitution, 1999). In the South African context, the government has incorporated social workers who have played a significant role in offender rehabilitation.

Mnguni and Mohapi (2015) state that the “role of social workers in the rehabilitation of offenders includes the professional assessment of offenders, assisting offenders to develop coping skills, the provision of counseling and support, facilitation of contact between offenders and their families, and to write reports for the parole and correctional supervision boards” (p.53).

Therefore, they assist in inmate reintegration into the society that they left behind. Moreover, social workers were able to help in the enactment of the South African Correctional Department rehabilitation path model.

The South African correctional centre system also engages in an evaluation, which literally is the initial strategy in the development programme of an inmate, and the essentials of the offender should be consistent with the needed resources to ensure maximum encouragement (Holtzhausen, 2012). Furthermore, CSAA Section 41 (2008) states that offenders may be coerced to partake in activities and to use the services made available in terms of subsections (1).

In the Nigerian context, Awopetu (2011) states that rehabilitation programmes like recreational facilities and correctional centre education have helped in the rehabilitation and reformation of inmates. To reintegrate an inmate, he or she must uncurl deep within his or her own character. This reveals a similarity in the general practice in meeting the requirements of inmates upon admission into the correctional centre. Furthermore, the significance of individual evaluation of offenders is upheld by Section 38(2) of the Correctional Services Act, 1998 (Act 111 of 1998). In this context, individual evaluation is imperative for the improvement of an individual when selecting treatment programmes for felons who have an entitlement to an individual evaluation strategy (Hesselink-Low, 2004). In Nigeria, inmate rehabilitation begins the very moment inmates are admitted into the correctional centre and assigned to different rehabilitation programmes as a result of an evaluation by the NPS admission board (Igbo, 2007).

In South Africa, precise rehabilitation of penalized offenders and those under correctional guardianship and parole are put through an evaluation and correctional programmes to tackle their offending deeds (DCS Budgetary Review, 4). An exploration of existing literature on Nigerian correctional centres reveals that NPS is yet to practice parole as a strategy of offender rehabilitation. However, existing literature has revealed that after care is available for inmates upon regaining freedom to evade re-arrest (Omoni & Ijeh, 2009). Upon regaining freedom, inmates are provided with equipment

such as sewing machines which would aid their successful reintegration into the society that previously rejected them.

Generation evaluation scale ascertains an offenders essentials and risk factors which include the following dynamic factors: substance misuse and support structure; static factors (i.e. age and criminal record), offender risk forecast, and a sentence strategy that ultimately contains all recognized essentials and risk for rehabilitation and managing intentions (Aegisdottir et al., 2006). The NPS with the aid of correctional centre chaplains try to achieve character molding of inmates with sermon sessions and activities like theological courses, prayer sessions and scriptural study services (Asokhia & Agbonlaue, 2013). This is capable of reducing their risk of engaging in further deviant acts upon regaining freedom.

Some correctional centres in Nigeria offer available correctional centre chaplains to support inmates with crisis intervention and support them during times of personal predicament (Tanimu, 2010). However, in South Africa correctional rehabilitation, interference and offender management efforts are hence directed through personal evaluation indicators that also direct and notify correctional psychotherapists and establishment regarding suitable and exceptional offender essentials and risk indicators (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012). In the aspect of other health conditions of inmates, especially diets, CSAA Section 8 Subsection 40 (2008) states that a medical officer could instruct a difference in the approved food to an inmate and the intermission at which the food is dished out, when such a difference is needed for medical grounds.

Section 12 of CSAA (2008) posits that no surgery will be carried out on an inmate without the inmate's consent, or written permission from his or her legal guardian. In the Nigerian context, inmates are examined by correctional centre psychologists and officials responsible in rehabilitation programmes. Hence, as members of the NPS admission board, they are likely to identify inmates' needs and risk indicators. Their observations determine the form of vocational and rehabilitation programmes most suitable for an inmate.

Furthermore, the DCS upholds that reformation is made possible through an all-inclusive judgement forecasting process that occupy offenders at all levels: societal, ethical, religious, bodily, occupational, scholastic, intellectual and spiritual (Magadani, 2007). Also, Section 14 Subsection 5 (2008) of the CSAA states that an “inmate must be allowed freedom of conscience, religion, thought, belief and opinion”. The Act also reveals that an “inmate may attend religious services and meetings held in the correctional centre correctional centre freely and voluntarily and may have in his or her possession religious literature” (CSAA:2008, p.14:5). In Nigeria, churches and mosque committees endow both bodily and religious well-being of inmates through individual and cluster counseling for reintegration and alteration of attitude and behaviour (Tenibiaje, 2010).

With the provision of correctional centre religious reintegration programmes, inmates will be educated for a better future (Prison Rehabilitation and Welfare Actions, 2001). This is achieved through giving inmates practical expertise which can assist them to live self-gratifying lives upon discharge. In some correctional centres, rehabilitation habits would be completely possible, but it relies on the availability of psychologists and social workers, and exact the correctional centre’s overcrowding rate (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012). Psychologists and social workers assist inmates to understand why they are incarcerated, thus helping them adjust to correctional centre life (Ekpe, 1997).

In line with DCS and NPS, the rehabilitation of offenders is based on: needs and risk assessments, including an exceptional profile of every offender, with a summary of needs, risk and interference plan; categorization of risk level (maximum, medium or low); correctional plan strategy specifying the offender’s rehabilitation path; and a quality guaranteed correctional programme (Magadani, 2007) dealing with substance misuse, carnal insult or crime, anger management, parenting expertise, ethical renewal programme, religious care, substitute to aggression project, and crime deterrent (Magadani, 2007). In Nigeria, vocational training provides the inmate with experience in preparation for the workplace; inmates can be proficient and

skilled in carpentry, painting, upholstery and computer programmes (Awopetu, 2011).

Also in South Africa, rehabilitation includes planned schedules, a business procedure shaping exercise, societal restoration and recuperation, sport, leisure, arts and culture, education (e.g. literacy, adult basic education and training), vocational skillfulness or talent and training, specialized therapy, and the provision of essentials-based personal development services to all offenders. The availability of needs based care programmes are intended at upholding the happiness of inmates and societal recuperation. Provision of services concentrated on offenders preparation for discharge and reintegration into society forms part of the rehabilitation procedure of every inmate (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012). Meanwhile in Nigeria, Ezim (2012), observes that “other vocational trainings are available for inmates, especially those who had no stable job before their incarceration” (p. 36). Some programmes are aimed to dissuade inmates from criminality to a more constructive life quest.

Furthermore, contrary to international practices, awaiting trial detainees (ATD) remain the obligation of correctional authorities. Therefore, in the South African context, it is the obligation of DCS to accommodate, protect and cater for them even though they are absolutely the responsibility of the South African Police Service (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012:). In Nigeria, the majority of the inmates are awaiting trial inmates (Ogunye, 2005). NPS accommodates, protect as well as cater for ATP, but past studies reveal that the due congestion, the NPS is unable to adequately classify inmates based on the nature of crime, criminal record as well as age (Esiri, 2011). Awaiting trial inmates are therefore lumped together with convicted inmates, first offenders and hardened inmates. Thus, recidivism is likely to be rampant in this situation.

Moreover, this category of inmates has an exceptional and are defended by a set of privileges. ATD's privileges are preserved in Section 12 and Section 32(2) of the Constitution, and have a precise influence on their confinement (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Act 108 of 1996). As

enshrined in the Nigeria Prison Act (1999), Section 23 of 1932 provides privileges and responsibilities which are different from convicted inmates. Similarly, ATDs in the South African context are not present at rehabilitation and correctional programmes, and they do not wear correctional centre uniforms as worn by convicted inmates (Clack, Preez, & Jonker, 2007), since all ATDs are the lawful responsibility and under the protection of the South African Police Service, despite the fact they are accommodated in the correctional centres (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012). Likewise, NPS practices also reveal that awaiting trial inmates are not obliged to wear uniform, hence it is easy to identify who is a convicted inmate and an awaiting trial inmate from mere appearance (Nigeria Prison Act, 1999).

Furthermore, the ATDs are not among the rehabilitation obligation of the DCS and any and all rehabilitative and/or therapy attempts related to these detainees are set on the shoulders of NGOs and or practicing students (i.e. training social workers and psychologists) who require a fulfilled practical/experimental period for specialized registration/degree objectives (Herbig & Hesselink, 2012). In all Nigerian correctional centres, only convicted inmates are involved in rehabilitation programmes. Worrisome to this practice is that some inmates in Nigeria correctional centres spend over five years awaiting trial and their status as awaiting trial inmates does not permit them to be involved in rehabilitation. Hence, there are more possibilities that they will be idle and may likely become hardened, and upon release may relapse to criminal activities (Ezim, 2012).

Conclusively, this section was able outline and discuss some similarities and correctional centre practices between the Nigeria Prison Service and South Africa's Department of Correctional Services.

3.2.5 Social work and rehabilitation of inmates in Nigeria

Social work is a career which helps individuals to deal with personal, community or group problems to realize and achieve personal, cluster and communal relationship through social work practice (Skidmore et al., 1997). Kelechi (2011) states that "The focus is on the reduction of problem in human

relationship and enriching living through improved human interaction”(p. 3). Social workers can carry out the specified role by acting as a broker, evaluator, teacher, mobilizer and consultant (Okafor, 2004). The significance of a social worker is imminent with probation and parole cases. In Nigeria, this role falls under the promulgation decree which is the reason behind the establishment of a correctional centre and welfare section of the NPS (Federal Republic of Nigeria Constitution, 1999). The purpose is the specific reintegration of felons, which is within the United Nation Minimum Standard for Treatment of Offenders. Ekpe and Mammah (1997) present the following primary purpose of social workers with regard to inmate rehabilitation:

1. Making social examination through personal discussion regarding a felon’s health, family, social relations, place of work and criminal history;
2. To help the felon comprehend why they are where they are and assist them with attuning to correctional centre life;
3. The correctional centre social worker assists not only to make inmates agree to take the life circumstances of the correctional centre but correspondingly admit and familiarize the typology of trade that links with their purpose. This assists in resocializing and reorienting them to live a decent and normal life upon discharge;
4. To assist in inspiring cluster communication among the inmates under observation. This aids the inmates to learn and alter from the experience of others;
5. To serve as a connection between the inmates and their families, progeny, friends and other important persons and organizations;
6. To be a fragment of the felon’s admission process in order to counsel and help ascertain the appropriate placement of the felon inside the correctional centre facilities; and
7. To partake in the pre-release contact with those deemed useful in the inmate’s life outside the institution.

In view of the above, Skidmore et al. (1997) presents the significance of social worker in the rehabilitation of inmates which includes:

1. To assist the inmates comprehend themselves, their relationship with fellow inmates and what is anticipated by them within the society in which they live in;
2. To reintegrate felons in order to assist them returning to and being part of the wider society, and shepherd them towards being comfortable with themselves and their confederate;
3. To alter the values of patrons so that they become consistent in action with the morals of the wider society; and
4. To adjust the surroundings in order to bring about an improved social climate that will be more receptive.

3.2.6 Health (care) delivery in Nigerian correctional centres

Health care services is defined as a programmes directed towards promoting, maintaining, restoring and protecting the health of individuals by health care personnel (Fasuyi, 2001; Chukwuma, 1994; Oladepo, 2000; Kabir, 2009; Samuel, 2004). Chukwuma (1994) feels that such provision of services should be a process of social justice. Contemporary correctional centre institutions in Nigeria have stayed on a colonial inheritance (Rotimi, 1982), but the required reforms to rescue inmates' health in Nigeria necessitate collaborative effort from all stakeholders, especially with the fast worsening state of conditions of correctional centres in Nigeria.

In view of the above and to enhance good health care delivery in Nigeria, the partnership for prison reform in 2006 provides for facilities which include 10–15 bed spaces, clinics, ambulances, counseling centres on drug demand reduction and HIV/AIDS treatment centres for pregnant female inmates; this also aimed to improve medical staff quarters and was unveiled by the Nigerian government in a partnership worth 1 billion Naira. This partnership ensured the provision of correctional centre clinics in Bauchi, Kaduna, Kuje, Kano and Kuje prisons (Amnesty International, 2011). It also employed certified doctors and nurses which improved health care of inmates in correctional centre. In support of the above position, the importance of health care services in correctional centres is paramount to effective rehabilitation of inmates. Lawal et al. (2009) states that it is important to note that Nigeria

identifies with the right to health and has devoted itself to its protection by assuming responsibility under international agreement or treaties and internal legislation which authorize specific conduct with the consideration to the health of persons including that of inmates within its authority.

Thus, it is obligatory that inmates have the right to medical facilities during incarceration (Lawal, 2009). Similarly, the Nigerian government allocated an annual budget to correctional centres to a tune of 20 million, 31.3 million, 30 million, and 44.5 million Naira in 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 financial years, respectively. This indicates its motive to improve medical services in Nigerian correctional centres, and about 20 million was allocated for a drug compounding laboratory (Amnesty International, 2008). In accordance to the Health and Social Welfare Directorate of Nigerian Correctional centres (2011), inmates are equipped with adult and rehabilitative educational programmes (AREP), which not only tries to curb the inmates' anti-social behaviour but also attempts to set them on the path to improve through persuading self rediscovery and concluding modification for the better.

3.3 Challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation of incarcerated Inmates in Nigerian correctional centres

Reformation of correctional centres and inmates in Nigeria still receives chastisement (Kalu, 2002). The belief of rehabilitation was never in the cognizance of correctional centre officials; what they had in mind was to incarcerate felons as a punishment for an offense he or she committed. This is in relation to early inmates in most correctional centres in Nigeria, where inmates were those who affronted or had contradicted the indigenous power rule or offended colonial masters (Omoni & Ijeh, 2011). Correctional institution and its occupants experience adverse problems with reformatory administration in societies. The NPS has several problems, which largely result from the shortcoming of the penal institution. To this degree, correctional centre and detention facilities in Nigeria remain harsh and threatening (Chukwudi, 2012). Several scholars (Dambazau, 1999; Jarma, 1999; Alemika & Chukwuma, 2001; Otite & Albert, 2004) claim that the NPS is shoddier than during colonial rule. In line with antiquity, attitude and approach,

the NPS are not ready to attain any reasonable reformation and rehabilitation of imprisoned felons (Awe, 1968; Odekunle, 1981; Alemika, 1990; Ahire, 1990; Tanimu, 2006).

In view of this, Adeyemi (2000) states that the correctional centre scheme has become very expensive to the economy, mentally and enthusiastically detrimental, communally injurious, ethically repugnant and punitively grievous. Correctional centres across Nigeria thus require exigent amelioration (Ogwezzy, 2011). Ayodele (1993) observes that the velocity at which ex-inmates return to jail in Nigeria is becoming alarming. This may be due to the absence of effective rehabilitation programmes in most correctional centres cutting across the country. Each year, offenders who turn out to be hard-bitten and deadly are discharged as against changed persons by the wider society (Uche et al., 2011).

To this degree, it is well observed that the punitive dogma of restoration and reintegration in Nigeria is consequently a public concealment for modernizing incarceration from the inherited colonial system “geared toward incarceration, prostration and dispossession of imprisoned felons” (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2001, p.23). In relation to inmates, critics have argued the dysfunctional description of correctional centre as a social establishment that brings together the soul acts on the belief, the will and the feelings of inmates (Howe, 1994).

3.3.1 Inhumane living conditions

Infrastructures and logistics in Nigerian correctional centres are neglected which makes them ineffective (Ogundipe, 2006). Ezim (2012) agrees that most correctional centres in Nigeria are not in good condition, “which affects the functioning of the correctional centres and the treatment of inmates” (p. 33). The International Bar Association (2010) argues that throughout the world correctional centres are repeatedly affiliated to hardship and life intimidations. Conditions in several correctional centres are in a startling state of misery with no sense of repair and facelift; this is reflective of the extended disregard by the Nigerian government. Agunbiade (2010) states that correctional centre

conditions in Nigeria are distant from being caring, and correctional centre health is up till now viewed as a profitable social project. Therefore, for years Nigerian correctional centres have been running in awful conditions with an upsurge in challenges among the inmates.

Udoh (2011) holds that the condition in most correctional centres in Nigeria is seen to be destructive to the physical and mental well-being of incarcerated inmates, which in most instances amounts to a greater threat to their health. Oshodi (2010) submits that despite the inhuman condition in most correctional centres across the country, inmates are likely to spend their entire lives behind bars in a horrifying state without ever having been found guilty of a misdeed which may be due to case files being misplaced by police force officials. As a result of the above, Egba (2011) observes that most inmates are incarcerated for a trivial crime while correctional centre officials blame unhurried judicial processes. However, Ezim (2012) points out that state of living in some correctional centres in Nigeria is sickening, horrifying, and also harmful to physical and emotional well-being of the convicted offenders. Ezim (2012), further reveals that in some situation, convicted offenders are expected to survive in the worst living conditions which may include poor sanitation, lack of palatable meals, poor medication and clothing, insecurity and denial visitation by family members and friends. Some problems also outlined inadequate water in rest rooms, hence, restrooms were filled the brim with human waste and the possibility of taking bath were nearly impossible

The condition is deemed stressful and may make several attempts at intricate reintegration. No wonder Dimkpa (2011) suggests that this was the rationale for death of inmates no earlier than they were convicted. In relation to obnoxious human handling, inmates who had not faced trial for their purported wrongdoing slept in indescribable surroundings, even to the degree of sleeping in the midst of their own stools, with no medical support when they were ill. Several correctional centres across the country have no power generating structures, and even where light is present, most correctional centre cells have no electric bulbs (Ojo & Okunola, 2014). This forces inmates to stay idle in dark cells.

The above situation is worrisome as one may wonder if a correctional centre can serve as a reformatory centre in such conditions. Correctional centres in Nigeria not only disappoint in terms of providing services, they mistreat the inmates through patterns of mortification and exclusion (Ikoh, 2011). The poor meals served, lack of adequate toilet facilities, poor clothing, and inefficient rehabilitative programmes are enough to hinder successful rehabilitation, reformation, and resocialization of inmates in Nigerian correctional centres. Some notable correctional centres in Nigeria like Abak, Eket, Ozila, Ubiaja and Kwali (Ayade, 2010) also do not have water system toilets, leaving inmates to resort to pit toilets or in the absence of pit latrines, inmates defecate into buckets and dispose the contents in blocked sewage lines (Ayodele, 1993).

According to Eneku (2001), the above-mentioned correctional centre cells are also poorly ventilated, and in most cases, bathrooms have been turned into rooms. As a result of this, inmates defecate without any form of privacy (Ayade, 2011). Diseases are pervasive in most Nigerian correctional centre cells, which makes them unhygienic and present little aeration, thus resulting in a harmful and hazardous sanitary state (Yelodu, 1991). Therefore, there is brusque disparity of Nigerian correctional centres compared with those of developed countries where siblings, friends and loved ones can visit and in some cases stay for overnight (Solanski, 2004). Additionally, the feeding and health system were poor in most correctional centres across the country, and there has been evidence of fraudulent contractors habitually taking advantage of the system in alliance with correctional centre officials (Aduba, 1983).

Aduba (1993) states that correctional centres can be called homes of crime instead of playing their role as correctional centres. Thus, there is an elevated percentage of recidivism because inmates are not properly reintegrated or reformed (Salaudeen, 2004). Tanimu (2006) submits due to the retaliatory, starving or desensitized state of the Nigerian correctional centre, the avowed goal of modification and reintegration may be difficult to achieve.

Hassan (2010) is of the view that the government has done nothing in relation to support inmates aside from NGOs which offer support through

clothes, food and counseling with an addendum to religious activities. Ultimately, the NPS is facing problems of offender rehabilitation due to inhumane living conditions that need to be solved.

3.3.2 Problems of overcrowding, violence and jailbreak

Alabi and Alabi (2011) perceive that correctional centres across Nigeria have three characteristics: congestion, filthy cells and insufficient medical and reintegration facilities. According to Ojo and Okunola (2014), “Most correctional centre yards in Nigeria are overcrowded beyond the designed population”(p.16). An example is Ikoyi Correctional centre in Lagos which is expected to accommodate 800 inmates but accommodates more than 1200. Congestion has remained as high as 150%, which has led to disease and death amongst inmates (Nosaze, 2004).

Studies show that several inmates have even fallen ill and die before facing litigation or during jail term (Okunola, 2012; Amnesty International, 2008). Salaudeen (2004) found that inmates who died were hurriedly buried without the correctional centre authorities notifying their relatives. With specific reference to correctional centre, congestion and inmates' living condition in correctional centres in Nigeria, Ayuk, Emeka, and Omono (2013) submit that correctional centres in Nigeria are just like living in hell.

The challenge may be due to discrepancy of the criminal system which is unsuccessful in proactively applying for long-term objectives to tackle overcrowding problems, but seemingly offer short-term measures which have made correctional centre crowded (Ayade, 2010). Consequently, inmates in Nigerian correctional centres are mostly crammed with awaiting trial inmates or charges not yet filed against them (Alabi & Alabi, 2011). Alabi and Alabi (2011) found that inmates were in custody between two to fifteen years and in some circumstances they were apprehended for truncated height crimes which may include domestic disagreements and traffic disobedience punishable by forfeiting or trifling imprisonment. Furthermore, Agomoh et al. (2011) revealed that of the entire populace of 42,298 inmates nationwide, 24,953 (59%) were inmates who were awaiting trial.

The astonishing numbers of inmates awaiting trial could be seen as an instrumental factor towards distortion of already brutalizing people as a result of endless deferment in their trials. Numerous circumstances have been associated as influencing correctional centre congestion across the globe (Coyle, 2002; Penal Reform International, 2003). In Nigeria, Agomoh et al. (2001) outlined the following: (a) high remand/awaiting trial populace, crowding, and absence of speedy trial, overuse of incarceration by courts, misuse of arrest powers and bail. Thus, the problem of correctional centre congestion in Nigeria lies mostly with the courts and laborious judicial systems (Agbaegbu, 2011).

The administration of justice is absolutely ineffective, and the few courts and insufficient subsidiary staff in addition to absence of equipment cause overcrowding. Furthermore, there is lack of support, scarce facilities, structural problems relating to conveyance of suspects to court, inadequate in-correctional centre support structures, and insufficient use of non-protective measures. Subsequently, scholars (Atsenwa, 2007; Ibidapo-Obe, Nwankwo, Ehonwa, & Odinkalu, 1991) made powerful cases for the importance of perfect bail conditions and procedures to ease criminal justice across the globe and in Nigeria. This could influence delivery procedures towards a more useful manner, which can also help the decongestion of inmates awaiting trial in Nigerian correctional centres.

Congestion may further lead to poor classification as minor and hardened criminals may be accommodated in the same cell. Resultantly, the NPS depicts a picture of torture, nightmare, congestion and premature death of inmates with recorded instances of infections like scabies, asthma, TB, and HIV/AIDS (Jarma, 1996). According to Tanimu (2010), continuation of these problems has been ascribed to lack of fit between the professed objectives of reintegration and rehabilitation and the correctional centre's practical realities.

In view of the above, Lauer and Lauer (2002) posit that such an environment is traumatic and make several attempts at reintegration challenging. Overcrowding in Nigerian correctional centres further hinders decent

management of the correctional centre system, for example inadequate bedding and sleeping conditions thereby forcing inmates to sleep on the bare floor (Obioha, 2011; Ojo & Okunola, 2014). This violates the basic right of inmates (Egamberdi, 2006). Dimpka (2011) found that in Port Harcourt, 905 inmates who were awaiting trial slept in poor conditions, which lead to sleeping in the midst of their own faeces, with absence of medical attention for those who consequently fell ill. In view of this, congestion leans towards changing the emotional, biological and developmental well-being of the correctional centres. Therefore, these bad conditions prevalent in Nigerian correctional centres indicate that the correctional centres are incapable of yielding the objective of its establishment, that is to rehabilitate inmates to be a good citizen of the state.

Enuku (2001) adds that congestion in most correctional centres in Nigeria may have played a role in the proliferation of communicable disease among both inmates and correctional centre officials. Obioha (2011) states that the terrible condition health condition is responsible for communicable illness such as skin scabies and bilharzia. Obioha (2011), further states that the situation gets worst due to the absence of standard hospital drugs and unqualified medical to treat inmates when they fall ill. In a situation where an inmate is expected to be treated outside the correctional centre clinic, they were serviceable vehicles to transport an ill convicted offender to the hospital.

It is unfortunate that inmates are being admitted into Nigeria's correctional centres with no trace of skin diseases, but are severely infected with such skin diseases when stay there. This worsens due to poor or inadequate medical facilities to effectively treat the ailment. Further to congestion, Imbahekhai (2002) indicates that "correctional centre inmates in Nigeria were subjected to numerous forms of humiliation and inhumane treatment" (p.1). The majority of jailbreaks which occurred in the past across the country were justified by the excruciating inhuman conditions. Inmates were restrained for twenty-three hours for perceived security reasons, most times in murky and lonely cells, which affected their level of literacy (Dandurand et al., 2006). The austere implementation of rules and restriction unconsciously result in inmates'

ongoing nervousness about violating rules and the repercussion of violating them (Okunola et al., 2002). In a situation where correctional centre subcultures rebuff the purpose of the administration (such as reintegration), inmates are unlikely to acknowledge those objectives (Ikoh, 2011). Notwithstanding, Ikoh (2011) further submits that the presence of the inmate's subculture clarifies the wariness between the correctional centre administrators and inmates, ceaseless jailbreak in Nigeria, hard-bitten offenders that emerge from correctional centre, as well as the explosive level of reoffending.

Overcrowding creates hazardous surroundings in correctional centres due to limited facilities overstrained by overcrowded correctional centres, which will invariably lead to violence, breach, insurrection and mugging (Obioha, 1995:). This is the reason why in most Nigerian correctional centres, inmates are restricted due to lack of reformation facilities to make them busy and for fear that they plot and assail correctional centre officials to escape jail. However, Henderson et al. (2000) states that paying additional interest to inmates' interests from the beginning may avert such rebellion.

Another issue raised by Robinson (2009) is that inmates are beaten and ill-treated by some correctional centre staff, which is seen to be a normal behaviour of correctional centre officials. Imhabekhai (2002) criticizes the NPS for being a breeding ground for crime where inmates become hardened criminals (Iriekpen & Ezeobi, 2012). Ugwuoke (2010) adds that correctional centre institution in Nigeria have a disciplinary atmosphere, and it is undoubtedly true that they serve more as a preparation terrain for felonious careers than as efficient reintegration centres.

Congestion in most correctional centres in Nigeria often leads to the unselective mishmash of inmates with an attempt to accommodate everybody; juvenile inmates are placed with mature, aberrant and hard-bitten felons (Ogbozor et al., 2006). This situation may lead to recidivism and the brainwashing of juvenile felons, thereby turning them into hardened and unrepentant criminals. In view of the above, correctional centres are expected to be a venue for alteration and reintegration; however, Nigeria correctional

centres have become a preparation arena for inmates to be toughened. Although inmate training, productivity and cottage industry programmes were available in most Nigerian correctional centres, this kind of training may not adequately prepare for productive occupation and cannot lessen recidivism.

In view of the above, correctional centre administration should inculcate inmates with skills like vocational training and literacy which they may find more useful after incarceration. However, assault by correctional centre guards, overcrowding, poor medical facilities, harsh treatment of inmates, negligence by correctional centre officials and poor sanitary facilities are seen to be peculiar problems faced by inmates in Nigeria. Torture remains habitual in detention centers in the majority of correctional centres in Nigeria perpetrated by correctional centre officials (Ogbozor et al., 2006). In a recent study carried out by Prisoner's Rehabilitation and Welfare Actions (PRAWA, 2014) exploring the effect of torture, it was revealed that habits such as torment or torture can negatively affect effective rehabilitation of ex-inmates into the wider society (Ojo & Okunola, 2014).

The above situation may be as a result of corruption in the correctional centre administration (Esiri, 2016). Consequently, minimal respect is given to inmates due to occurrence of correctional centre riots by inmates, thus most correctional centre environments focus more on punishment. With the presence of administrative segregation, inmates may nurture a punitive attitude which will affect their families and community upon release (Rhodes, 2005). Ojo and Okunola (2014) suggest that correctional centres lead to retrospective evaluation of the failures and success which are amassed over the course of one's life. However, experience in correctional centre is psychologically damaging and mirrors the experience of someone who has witnessed and survived trauma (Davies, 2011).

Torok (1974) supports the position that correctional centres nowadays do more harm than good. Inmates' exit from correctional centre is a worse situation than when the inmate is admitted into the correctional centre (Carney, 1980). Stuffing inmates together into shameful and humiliating establishments may lead to high prevalence of recidivism (Sturup, 1971).

Furthermore, inmates who left idle are more likely to improve their criminal activities through new tricks learnt from other inmates which further enhances recidivism amongst inmates (Adelaja, 2009). Messina et al. (2006) affirm that recidivism is when convicts are re-incarcerated within a period of time which can be between 1 – 3 years, which may be as a result of a new felony conviction or technically violating conditions of parole (Kelso, 2000).

3.3.3 Lack of provision for basic needs: bed, food, and sanitation

In most correctional centres in Nigeria there is scarcity of beds, leaving the majority of the inmates to share beds or sleep on exposed ground, thus exposing themselves to danger. Additionally, the correctional centre environment is polluted, with poor aeration and poor hygienic conditions (Adeleke & Uche, 2015). Therefore, Ahire (1990) describes Nigerian correctional centres as human cages which lack facilities to ensure correctness, rehabilitation, and vocational training.

Salaam (2013) indicates that some other challenges include blocked and overflowing toilets thereby leading to spread of various diseases. The majority of cells do not have toilet facilities, thus inmates are forced to defecate in buckets inside the correctional centre room (Ajayi, 2012). To avoid living in such cells, a new inmate is expected to tip correctional centre officials to ensure getting a better cell. These are called the privileged inmates (Amnesty International, 2008). An investigation by Amnesty International in 2011 revealed that a cell is called the “white house” typically renovated by an ex-inmate, and correctional centre officials only allocate these to inmates who can afford paying for it. Other factors include lack of electricity and water, recreational activities and lack of sufficient books, instructional books and vocational training materials.

The above problems may be due to absence of co-operation among stakeholders in the justice sector (Robins, 2009). Sakaya (2011) affirms that the majority of felons in Nigeria are poor, uneducated and accommodated in a frayed correctional centre environment which lacks basic hygienic products like towels and toiletries that are mostly provided by non-governmental and

religious organizations (Hassan, 2010:31). In countries like South Africa, it was described that correctional centre officials necessitate to see proof of soiled sanitary towels before disseminating another (Sakaya, 2011) Ovienlola (2000) states that inmates are a reflection of hunger-stricken affection and starved of adequate meals. Furthermore, inmates desire for care, love, with indeed no form of attention from concerned correctional institutions.

In line with the above quotation, “some conditions in correctional centres have led to poor and inadequate nutrition of the inmates” (Ojo & Okunola, 2014, p.26). Ogundipe (2006) reports that inmates in most Nigerian correctional centres are in a state of malnourishment, thus leading to poor health, with factors like lack of potable water and inadequate food supply in the majority of the correctional centres. Inmates’ food is seen to be qualitatively inadequate for the consumption of a human being which is described as starvation meals (Okunola et al., 2002). Despite the five hundred Naira stipend earmarked for inmates per day, correctional centre administration spends only one hundred per day (Agbaegbu, 2011). Diabetic or hypertensive inmates are expected to be on a special diet, but most of them have problems in accessing such meals. In other words, the majority of food that is served to inmates is unpalatable and described as indecent for human consumption (Williams et al., 2009). The country thus appears to be uncaring towards inmates (Aduba, 1993). Most challenges faced by most inmates in Nigerian correctional centres are man-made and largely caused by stakeholders of the criminal justice system which includes the police, court and correctional centre. Salaam (2013) points out that correctional centres in Nigeria were set up to ensure safety of individuals who have been legally incarcerated, and also ensure them pertinent treatment and also ensure the provision of necessary rehabilitation for the purpose of adequate reintegration into the wider society. It can be deduced that the objectives above is competent enough to deter inmates from re-offending, the extent to which NPS achieve this role is doubtful in of the overstretched capacity and horrifying physical conditions convicted offenders are accommodated.

However, confinement is extremely cramped with additional issues that include deteriorating spaces; unbalanced food; insufficient treatment for medical conditions; absence of official reports on the mental and physical state of inmates; minimal or complete absence of the control on the identity of with whom inmates are expected to share space, and unlawful denial of visits that are conjugal in nature (Iriekpa & Ezeobi, 2012; Ajayi, 2012; Jetterson, 2007; Okoza, Imhonde, and Aluede, 2010). Adeola and Atere (2003) describe the environmental hygiene conditions of several correctional centres in Nigeria as characterized with walls stained with faeces, cobwebs and spiders and scarcity of water. Nigerian correctional centres thus have poor sanitation as a result of correctional centre congestion and insufficient resources (Robins, 2009). Imhabekhai (2002) opines that welfare services rendered to inmates in Nigeria were not adequate.

This factor is seen to have affected social welfare services and administration (Ibeabuchi, 2008). Suleiman (2011) corroborates this by pinpointing further problems of the NPS which include: (a) Shortage of drugs and ambulances in most correctional centre clinics, thus resulting in soaring occurrence of epidemics and high death rates among correctional centre inmates; (b) insufficient staff due to factors like dismissal, resignation and death; (c) relinquishment of capital projects resulting in correctional centre congestion; (d) Inadequate income for maintaining existing structures; (e) inadequate office accommodation for correctional centre officials; (f) absence of vehicles to transport staff and inmates to places of need like hospitals, courts and correctional centre farms, and (g) lack of promotion to qualified staff resulting in vexation, low morale and by extension low productivity. In spite of the goal of improvement, restoration and recuperation which the correctional centre structure engages in to guarantee that felons become a changed people, realization of this goal has been clogged by many factors (Uche et al., 2011).

Tanimu (2010) opines that regardless of the rehabilitation principle, reform and modification programmes are relatively deficient and antiquated. Therefore, the cardinal objective of correctional centres has become a

massive failure, with retribution given more attention, thereby making “an inmate smell like an inmate”, which is believed to be a recent slogan of correctional administration (Wacquant, 2012, p. 12). Thus, correctional centre cells in Nigeria have become an embarrassment in the international scene and seen as a national scandal. Imhabekhai (2002) concedes that this situation could be as a result of lack of consideration for inmates, thus increasing the rate of recidivism instead of controlling the crime rate.

3.3.4 Poor medical facilities

Contemporary Nigerian correctional centres have stayed on as symbols of colonial heritage (Rotimi, 1982), but the required reorganization to save inmates’ health in Nigeria need definite efforts from all interested parties, particularly with the fast fading state of conditions of correctional centre in Nigeria. Okunola et al. (2002) indicate that correctional centre conditions in Nigeria are characterized by lack medical drugs, and when inmates need more drugs, they are required to raise funds to purchase them outside the correctional centre yard. This clearly indicates that “correctional centres in Nigeria are poorly equipped medically” (Ojo & Okunola, 2014, p. 26). It is a shame that despite the existence of clinics in Nigerian correctional centres since 1971, they are poorly equipped and the meagre facilities in the clinics are used on by most staff and their respective wards (Adeola & Atere, 2003).

Okunola et al. (2002) posit that the health condition of all categories of inmates is a role of the correctional centre administrators. Yet despite health conditions of an inmate being the responsibility of correctional centre administration, Nigerian correctional centres do not care for the health of inmates (Okunola et al., 2002). Robins (2009), attributes inmates’ illnesses due to their inability to be involved in sporting activities because the facilities are lacking.

Therefore, most inmates (men and women) in Nigerian correctional centres have prolonged negative existence (William et al., 2009). Correspondingly, the health condition of inmates during imprisonment is perilously unbalanced, trembling and vulnerable with particular mention of Kagaro, Biu, Gwoza,

Bajoga, Makarfi, Zuru, Eket, Ogoja and Serti correctional centres that have insufficient facilities for those that are incarcerated (Ayade, 2010). The problem of poor health conditions of inmates persists as most correctional centres have no health personnel to attend to inmates (Ayade, 2010). Examples of such correctional centres include Idah, Bama, Makarfi, Zaria and Ikare (Ayade, 2010).

Similarly, Davies (2011) discerns that health problems experienced by inmates imply that they become contingent conjointly upon official and unofficial health attention made available in correctional centres. Furthermore, there is an absence of decent entertainment facilities and basic services in Nigerian correctional centres (Obioha, 2011) which positively contribute to good mental health. Lack of these facilities is therefore a major reason why most inmates in Nigerian correctional centres fall sick and in some instances die in custody. As a result of inadequate facilities, inmates are forced to engage in correctional centre riots or attempted correctional centre break.

Correctional centre officials seem to be ill-prepared to cope with peculiar prerequisites for all inmates and are reluctant to help inmates (Davies, 2011). According to an Amnesty International Report in (2002), most inmates who are on death row develop symptoms of psychiatric problems as a result of mental torture or waiting for the hangmen. Furthermore, suicide, most commonly by hanging, among inmates facing incarceration occurs in higher rates than other inhabitants, accounting for the prominent reason of mortality among inmates across the United States of America (Viano, 2008; Hanser, 2002).

3.3.5 Violation of inmates' rights

Nigerian correctional centres are characterized by violation of inmates' rights, which draws concern from the international community. Agbaegbu (2011) states that the "country is confronted with a tragic situation bordering on human rights violation, caused by a slow judicial process in the country" (p. 36). The Nigerian penal institution weighs down with the purpose of carrying out differing roles (Ugwuoke, 2009). Availability of welfare services cutting

across correctional centres in Nigeria are not sufficient, which contradicts the standard minimum rules for the treatment of inmates. The implication of this leads to violation of the inmates' right and privileges by the NPS. Correctional centre is a reformatory home, which is expected to have all the necessary facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation of inmates. Yet correctional centres in Nigeria are in shambles with a high congestion rate caused by the high number of awaiting trial inmates (Ali, 2011).

Several factors affect offenders' welfare, which contradicts their rights as inmates, despite being incarcerated (King, 2001). Some of the major violations include "provision or insufficient treatment for a serious medical condition, the absence of sufficient health education on disease control, and retraction of conjugal visits and disavowal of access to education" (Ali, 2011, p. 127). To this degree, letters are censored and visitation opportunities are meticulously controlled (Ikoh, 2011). Further, most inmates are subjected to maltreatment, which is not permissible.

In view of this, Robins (2009) found that whipping and cruel treatment by the correctional centre officials is a familiar manifestation in most correctional centres across Nigeria. Similarly, Ojo et al. (2014) claim that the use of foul language by correctional centre officials, congestion of cells, poor medical care, vicious treatment of inmates, official casualness and poor sanitary condition were common problems in correctional centres worldwide. As a result of the above, the dissuasion objective of correctional centres has become a conspicuous disappointment (Wacquant, 2012). Ojo and Okunola (2014), hold that correctional centre deliberately restricts contact of the inmate and the outside world, which also includes lawful representation in some areas.

3.3.6 Poor training, salary package and stress on correctional centre wardens

Inadequate retrain programmes for correctional centre officials may hinder effective rehabilitation of inmates (Oyakhromen, 2008; Salaam, 2013; Esiri, 2016). Due to poor salary packages, some correctional centre wardens in

Nigeria have virtually turned to corrupt practices to augment their monthly pay. Corruption by correctional centre officials may be due to certain challenges they experience in their work. For example, correctional centre officials in Nigeria are exceedingly underpaid and under trained with no lucrative staff incentives in addition to working long shifts. In relation to staff salaries, corrupt correctional centre officials revert to extortion from inmates to get their basic needs like food, bedding, water, space and water (Laham, 2008). Problems still persistent as correctional centres in Nigeria are understaffed (Dambazau, 1999). At the same time, correctional centre officials in most correctional centres in Nigeria are poorly kitted and inadequately paid.

Relatedly, their working atmosphere is seen as stressful and boring to correctional centre officers (Solomon & Okwendi, 2014). Stress comes with an undesirable impetus known as stressors which include conflict, hindrance, conflicting rules and being told to do excessive duties and not being provided with sufficient income and pressures (Butcher, Mineka, & Hooley, 2007; Lambert, Hogan, & Tucker, 2007). In view of the above, Paoline, Lambert and Hogan (2006) suggest that among the most diverse strained employments in law enforcement is the correctional centre warden occupation. According to Whitehead and Lindquist (1986), occupational stress is one of the foremost basis of burnout. Burnout is seen to be harmful to correctional centre officials, friends, families, co-workers and inmates (Paoline et al., 2006). Research has shown that an enormous upsurge has occurred in correctional centre populace across the globe, including Nigeria, and the upsurge in inmates has created job stress and burnout for staff of the correctional centre.

A study by Schanfeld and Peeters (2000) on correctional centre officials and burnout reveals that correctional centre officials face substantial glitches with occupational strain and job burnout. Additional sources of stress and burnout in any correctional centre system among its staff include understaffing, overtime, shift work and handling hardened felons who are not ready to be in the correctional centre (Lambert et al., 2006). Administrative structure by

related to correctional centre staff job stress (Lambert et al., 2006; Dowden & Tailor, 2004). Thus, job allied strain and burnout is out of control and stern among correctional centre officials (Lambert et al., 2006).

The study puts forward that correctional centre environments affect correctional centre staff with a greater level of occupation strain, exhaustion and have destructive consequences, including health problems, ailments, social and psychological as well as reduced job performance (Paoline et al., 2006). Paoline et al. (2006) further submit that people who work in correctional centre surroundings are used for ailments such as heart attacks, hypertension, ulcers and other strain-allied illnesses that can bring about the absence of occupation contentment, upsurge truancy, turnover intent and genuine turnover amid correctional centre staff. Most times, this leads to low levels of job satisfaction, with stress responsible for fatigue amongst correctional centre officials.

Moreover, if correctional centre employees are not adequately trained to work with all categories of inmates, greater work-related stress and exhaustion will probably occur, which can lead to poor occupational performance (Finn, 2008). Inmates' actions towards correctional centre officials further leads to upsurged levels of emotional exhaustion (Garland, 2002). Conclusively, the demerit of working in Nigerian correctional institution far prevails over its intrinsic worth (Omorotionwman, 2005).

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter, which is also a review of empirical literature on the research problem, provided an overview of rehabilitation, exploring the relationship between inmate rehabilitation and correctional centre general practices amongst countries like Nigeria and South Africa. A special focus was given to rehabilitation strategies and treatment practices for inmates. This review also importantly revealed similarities and dissimilarities in the strategy employed and treatment of inmates between Nigeria and South Africa. Although both countries are expected to adhere to the United Nations Standard Minimum for the Treatment of Offenders, unfortunately some practices violate it. Issues

related to social work and rehabilitation of inmates and health care delivery in the context of Nigeria were reviewed. Additionally, key factors to preventing adequate rehabilitation of inmates were outlined and discussed, thus concluding the chapter. This chapter has looked into rehabilitation and reintegration strategies in Nigerian correctional centre as well as challenges affecting effective rehabilitation of convicted inmates in the Nigerian and South African context. In the next chapter to follow, explores in more details the dynamic within the Nigerian prison service.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE NIGERIA PRISON SERVICE: A DISCOURSE ON PRISON REFORM, EXIGENCE AND POTENTIALS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a review on correctional centre conditions and recidivism in Nigeria, and provides a discourse on the exigent of reform, an overview of prison reform efforts by the Nigerian government and lastly, an appraisal prison reform in Nigeria.

4.2 An overview

Alemika (1993) states that unemployment, poverty, urban degradation, failures in the education system and drug abuse, among other challenges, are the fundamental determinants of criminal behaviour in society. Thus, to stem the growing trend of criminal activities in Nigeria, those convicted should be properly and adequately reformed and rehabilitated. Viewed from this perspective, a correctional centre system ought to be hinged on a penal philosophy of reformation and rehabilitation. In the words of Farrington and Welsh (1999, p.93), rehabilitation is also known as “tertiary crime prevention”. This is in line with Webster’s (2004) argument that rehabilitation is a crime prevention strategy rooted in the notion that offenders can change and lead crime-free lives in the community.

Unfortunately, the NPS cannot perform the task of reformation and rehabilitation (Ogunye, 2005). The implication is that the push factors still remain intact. This accounts for why released inmates released return to committing crimes (Ogunye, 2005). In other words, this explains why there is a high rate of recidivism as has become a common phenomenon among inmates in Nigerian correctional centres. According to Soyombo (2009), in 2005 the rate of criminal recidivism in Nigeria at was 37.3%. Wilson (2000) found that 81% of male inmates and 45% of female inmates were rearrested within 36months of discharge from correctional centre custody. This is in

tandem with the findings of Abrifor (2010) who placed the recidivism rate in Nigeria at 52.4% in 2010. Scholars have argued that the NPS is increasingly becoming a breeding ground of recidivism (Aiyedogbon, 1988; Obioha, 1995). Specifically, Aiyedogbon (1988) and Obioha (1995) assert that Nigerian correctional centres are a home for idle minds due to lack of what to do and lack of workshop facilities..

4.2.1 Correctional centre conditions and recidivism in Nigeria

Perhaps the basic problem of the NPS which inhibits its statutory role of reformation and rehabilitation is congestion. The correctional centres are overcrowded, stretching existing welfare facilities to a breaking point (Ogunye, 2005). In 2013 it was recorded that Nigeria had a total number of 234 correctional centres, with an estimated population of 54,144 inmates. Out of this number, 09.5% of the inmates were ATPs. Overall, the correctional centres have a 47,284 inmate accommodation capacity. Regrettably, the occupancy level (based on official capacity) is 114.5% (Nigeria Prison Service, 2013). Moreover, there is no proper classification of inmates in the NPS. Awaiting trial inmates are lumped together with the convicted criminals, and first offenders and offending youth are lumped with hardened criminals, thereby paving way for them to support each other in delinquent behaviour or criminal acts (Esiri, 2016; Greenwood, 2005). Thus, reforming inmates is just a prologue to a further and worst offense or felony (Eze & Okafor, 2007).

Consequently, the pre- trial detainees and first offenders mingle with experienced and hardened criminals and learn criminal attitudes and behaviour. Therefore, correctional centres have become a training ground for criminals instead of reformatory and rehabilitative facilities in Nigeria (Obioha, 1995). Thus, the essence of sending offenders to correctional centre has not yet been met because offenders are likely to be more hardened than they were before imprisonment, and this has been strongly linked to the high rate of recidivism in Nigeria.

According to Gendreau et al. (1999), there is a strong correlation between length of stay by first- time offenders and pre- trial detainees and the

offenders' rate of recidivism. Subsequently, several studies have linked lack of facilities and horrible living conditions in Nigeria correctional centres to the prevalent rate of recidivism in the country. According to Awolowo (1985), there is nothing cheering about Nigerian correctional centre life: the buildings are dull, the cells are semi dark, and the vast majority of inmates are rough in mind and body. Yongo (2000) states it is obvious among other challenges faced, correctional centres lack adequate uniform for correctional officials and convicted offenders. They are no serviceable vehicles to transport sick convicted offenders who require additional medical attention outside the correctional centre clinic. Some of these problems could hinder the cardinal objective of correctional centre which is to reform and rehabilitate convicted offenders.

In line with the above, the NPS provides a fertile ground for breeding or production and reproduction of recidivists. Nigerian correctional centres dehumanize the inmates that pass through them and destroy their health (Ogunye, 2005). Chenube (2009) posits that the destruction of the individual members of the community negates the *raison-d'être* of imprisonment. A convicted inmate at KiriKiri Maximum Prison in Lagos gave the following testimony of conditions in a Nigerian correctional centre reveals some horrible conditions he experienced in NP such sleeping on bare floor, with high rate of congestion and convicted inmates had only option of defecating into buckets located in the cell. Moreover, studies by Obioha (1995) and Adetola et al. (2010), revealed that contact with the correctional centre institution in Nigeria makes less hardened individuals to be more hardened in criminal activities upon release, thus generating a high frequency of recidivism.

There is also a great deal of research evidence where creativity techniques were used to reform or change anti-social attitudes and behaviour of inmates (Eseme, 2009; Animasahun, 2010). Unfortunately, creative programmes are not adequate or improperly implemented in Nigerian correctional centres. According to Loeber and Farrington (1998), programmes would have the largest effect if they could lead to reductions in recidivism. However, shoddy implementation of reformatory and rehabilitative programmes in Nigerian

correctional centres by the Federal Government may be responsible for increasing the rate of recidivism among correctional centre inmates.

It should be buttressed that this is not peculiar to Nigeria. There are psychological consequences of processes that all inmates worldwide go through in correctional centre. The idea of stripping an inmate of their real name and replacing it with a number gives a powerful blow to their ego, along with depriving them of their material possessions. It is equivalent to being stripped of an integral part of self. The worst is a denial of heterosexual relationships.

Lipsy and Cullen (2007) argue that rehabilitation effects are generally larger in the community than within institutionalized settings. Similarly, Ward and Maruna (2007) found that convicts are often not fond of rehabilitation efforts within the correctional environment. Therefore, there is the need for the establishment of a non-institutional correctional environment in order to stem the menace of recidivism among correctional centre inmates in Nigeria. Further, a considerable number of studies such as that of Maikano (2011) found a significant relationship between not having post incarceration support and services (like employment, housing, education, mental health services, substance abuse treatment) and the prevalent rate of recidivism (Jengeleski, 1981; Blackburn, 1981). In support of this, Webster (2004) opines that providing employment opportunities has been shown to work in reducing recidivism, but only for people who were more than 26 years old.

As ex-offenders return to the community, they return to the same negative environment that they left, which is usually plagued by drug addiction, criminal activities, economic depression and societal stigmatization (ex-convict). This scenario makes ex-offenders to be economically unproductive, physically idle and emotionally disturbed, which may propel them to reoffending. Therefore, rehabilitation coupled with post-incarceration support is vital to stop recidivism.

4.2.2 Nigerian correctional centre system: A discourse on exigents of reform

The current state of some Nigerian correctional centres depicts several problems experienced by incarcerated inmates. In view of this, living conditions of correctional centres across the country are horrifying due to congestion, filthy cells, poor sanitation, lack of palatable meals and portable water, and deliberate denial of contact with the outside world such as family members and loved ones. The above violates the United Nations Minimum Treatment of Inmates. To this effect, inmates are forced to accept these living conditions which are appalling.

Additional problems found include: corrupt correctional centre officials extorting inmates for an opportunity to have contact with family members, or to receive medical treatment. Only inmates who could afford to tip correctional centre officials were allowed to seek further medical attention outside. In Nigeria, inmates are not allowed to use mobile phones, but the privileged inmates who can afford to bribe officials are allowed to do so. Obioha (2011) opines that these horrible conditions in Nigerian correctional centres should be identified as a reason to refurbish the whole correctional centre system. The main purpose for a complete refurbishment of the NPS is to transpose the system for it to carry out its constitutional mandate and anticipated function in society, which so far remains insufficient (Obioha, 2011). This entails:

- 1- Transforming the inmates to surpass what they were prior to incarceration;
- 2- Reforming the inmates with an intention of training them with additional skills or perfect their old skills; and
- 3- Isolating inmates from the wider society until they have redressed their sins.

In line with the above, incarceration is a form of punishment unleashed on an offender for violating state laws. This sanction is expected to make an offender remorseful and also serves to deter potential and would be criminals.

Incarceration, as a form of punishment, strips an inmate of certain privileges such as loss of freedom which is unpleasant (Lippke, 2007). To this effect, an ex-inmate may stay clear of criminal behaviour due to loss of certain privileges attributed to incarceration. With certain privileges such as freedom of movement, contact with the outside world, inability to have a heterosexual relationship, and numbers used as a means of identification instead of names; inmates are expected to be treated with some respect and care (Sykes, 1966).

In spite of this, inmates in some Nigerian correctional centres are treated with utmost disrespect. Therefore, it is imperative that the Nigerian government devote more time and inject ample funds to address these problems. Though this has been done to some extent, it is paramount to ensure elimination of problems in correctional centres as further funds injected into the correctional centre system would have been used in other aspects of societal development. In line with the above, the NPS needs reform in certain areas as facilities in most correctional centres are obsolete, worn out and have not developed further from the days of the colonial era. The NPS over the years has developed into an institution which has laid more emphasis on dehumanizing treatment against inmates instead of playing its role as a reformatory centre (Hassan, 2010).

Thus, there should be more focus on current global dispensation and demands for realization of human rights in correctional institutions of member countries who are participants of the International Convention on Human Rights (Oboiha, 2011). Nigeria is a participant in this convention and several other human rights perspective rules, specifically the United Nations Minimum Rules for Treatment of inmates, which surely necessitates Nigeria to obey to these rules (Obioha, 2011). Further, Nigeria, has endorsed the establishment of a number of international and regional human rights such as:

- International Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD), ratified on 4 January 1969;
- African Charter on Human and People's Rights (ACHPR), ratified on 22 June 1983;

- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ratified 19 April 1991;
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), ratified on October 1993;
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESR), ratified on 29 October 1993;
- African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, ratified on 23 July 2001;
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), ratified on 28 July 2001;
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), ratified on 13 June 1985 and its Optional Protocol on 22 November 2004.

Nigeria as a nation is expected to respect the human rights of inmates, yet unfortunately the penal institution has less or little regard to observing the rights and privileges of inmates. Conversely, Amnesty International (2008) states that the fact that an individual has been cramped in a correctional centre suggests losing certain rights, but not all human rights are being lost (United Nations Basic Principles for the Treatment of Inmates, UNBPTP).

This proclamation suggests that as an inmate, one is entitled to the right of life and any form of degrading treatment such as torture or ill treatment must be avoided and the inmate should be respected always. Moreover, Article 10(1) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR, 1976) states that “all persons deprived of their liberty shall be treated with humanity and with respect for the inherent dignity of the human person” (p. 176). Thus, it is paramount for correctional institutions in Nigeria and across the globe to adhere to principles governing decent treatment of inmates as depicted by the United Nations Principle or Treatment of Inmates and International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).

4.2.3 An overview of prison reform efforts by the Nigerian government

Prison reform in Nigeria can be dated back to June 2001 during the tenure of President Olusegun Aremu Obasanjo (Obioha, 2011). The NPS sector

requires extensive refurbishment in terms of facilities in most correctional centres. In view of this, past and present governments have embarked on strategies on how to effectively reform the sector. The cardinal reason for refurbishment was to enhance the correctional centre institution to adequately rehabilitate inmates upon their discharge, review of existing correctional centre laws, train and retrain correctional centre personnel, and review salary packages. With an objective of achieving the precedence set by the correctional centre reform programmes, several strategies were embarked on which include establishing various working groups and boards on correctional centre reform with divergent decrees and terms of reference up to 2007 (Obioha, 2011):

- The National Working Group on Prison Reform and Decongestion (NWGPRD) 2005;
- The Inter-Ministerial Summit on the State of Remand Inmates in Nigeria's Prisons 2005;
- Presidential Committee on Prison Reform and Rehabilitation 2006;
- The Presidential Committee on the Prison Reform of the Administration of Justice (PCRAJ), established 2006; and
- The Committee on the Harmonization of Reports of Presidential Committee Working Justice Sector Reform 2007.

However, the objective of establishing the committees was basically to address the problems bedeviling correctional centres across the country. For example, most correctional centres in Nigeria were congested, making life difficult for inmates. The major reason for congestion was extended court cases as inmates were remanded in correctional centres as awaiting trial inmates. In an attempt to address the problem of congestion, the Federal government in collaboration with the State government came up with a strategy to address the problem by suggesting two systems which include Prerogative of Mercy and Establishment of the decongestion committee which was headed by the then Chief Judge of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (Chukwuemeka, 2010).

To address this particular problem, the National working Group on Prison Reform and Decongestion was established in 2005. It was important to set up such a committee having observed that Nigerian correctional centres accommodated inmates beyond the original size they were meant to. States across the nation came up with several efforts and policies in support of the committee. Thus, their responsible duties included:

- Concede amnesty to inmates who deserved it.
- Frequent visits to correctional centres. This was to probe into the living conditions of inmates in the correctional centre.
- Examine intermittently the cases of those who have been convicted and the suspects who have remained in correctional centre as awaiting trial inmates and liberate them as applicable.

Prior to the establishment of the committee, congestion in most correctional centres across the country remained high. This necessitated the establishment of a decongestion committee to ensure that henceforth correctional centres across the country would not be congested. In an attempt to achieve this, the committee was made up of stakeholders and players in the human rights sector. To this effect, the committee was able to appraise and review 144 correctional centres across the country and disclosed its findings in 2005 that the population in Nigerian was between 40,000 and 45,000 over a period of 10 years and mostly in the state capital (Obioha, 2011). Out of the above stated total figure, 65% of inmates in the correctional centres were inmates awaiting trial. Obioha (2011) reported that in an attempt to decongest correctional centres in the country, funds were sourced to decongest Akure, Goron-Dutse, Kuje, Maiduguri, Orji River and Port Harcourt correctional centre.

In line with the above proclamation, the Nigerian government injected huge sums of money into the correctional centre administration with an objective of decongesting correctional centres across the country. This also reveals the intention of government in resolving different problems which bedevil the correctional centre sector in Nigeria. Having sufficiently addressed the

problem of congestion of correctional centres through recommendations like granting of amnesty and frequent visits to correctional centres, the government resorted to construction of a few new correctional centres and expansion and refurbishment of existing correctional centres. For example, there was a proposition for the construction of a new correctional centre yard in Bayelsa State (Nigeria Partnership for Prison Reform, 2015). With regards to expansion of decayed correctional centres in the country and to tackle the problem of congestion effectively, certain correctional centre such as Oji River and Goron-Dutse were expanded with the intention of reducing the stress on Enugu and Kano Central prisons respectively (Adeola, 2015).

In addition to expansion of some correctional centres, the Nigerian government embarked on renovation of other fast deteriorating correctional centre structures in the country with huge sums of money injected into the system. The National budget of the federation also reveals that ample funds were set aside for the maintenance of the correctional centre system. President Muhammadu Buhari allocated N 3,945,691, 338 was released to Nigeria Prison Service in 2016 fiscal year and N 4,246, Billion to purchase operational vehicles for the transportation of inmates to different courts across the country (Federal Government of Nigeria, Budget, 2016). Figures quoted above suggest that there was a substantial allocation towards the NPS for the execution of capital projects (Osaigbovo, Minister of Interior Press Release, April, 2017), such as refurbishment of the sewage system and construction of water system toilets.

Similarly, with the introduction of the reform programmes and increased funds for the correctional centre system, other problems were also tackled. The law stipulates that the NPS shall accommodate awaiting trial inmates and transport them to the law courts for further investigation. Despite being the responsibility of the institution, there were no serviceable vehicles available to transport inmates to court. In a situation where there were functional vehicles, there was no sufficient gasoline in the vehicle. Thus to address the problem, the reform programmes enacted distributed about sixty-four escort vehicles (Giginyu, 2016)

This huge stride by the Federal Government was able to reduce the challenges of transportation of inmates to a minimum level and improved transportation arrangements in the correctional centre system. For example, according to Amnesty International (2008), “in 2005, 2006, 2007, and 2008 financial years a total of NGN200, 000,000; NGN100, 800,000; NGN 270,000,000 and NGN99, 600,000 respectively was budgeted for the purchase of vehicles (Black Maria) that are used for conveying awaiting trial inmates court” (Obioha, 2011) The Federal Executive Council meeting under the present administration of Muhammadu Buhari approved 3.5 billion Naira for the purchase of 320 operational vehicles to strengthen the Criminal Justice System and to decongest correctional centres (Giginyu, 2016). Purchase of serviceable vehicles will address the problem of transportation amongst correctional centres across the country.

Other successes were recorded in the correctional centre system as allocated funds were able to cater for the purchase of sufficient equipment for correctional centre officials such as rifle and pistol guns to address inmates’ attempted jail breaks (PRAWA, 2016). Prior to the enactment of the reform, correctional centre officials were not armed, but implementation of the reform programmes made this a reality. Furthermore, other problems raised in the correctional centres received prompt and adequate attention from the Federal Government (PRAWA, 2016). Ideally, correctional centres are meant to rehabilitate an inmate during incarceration. This can be achieved by the provision of adequate rehabilitation programmes, vocational training and provision of basic and essential amenities (Uche et al., 2015). These programmes can help in keeping inmates busy and also help in the acquisition of skills which will be of great assistance over the incarceration period.

In view of the perceived importance of rehabilitation programmes on the life of the inmates, the Prison Furniture Cottage Industry was established which armed inmates with vocational training skills and they were able to produce equipment like furniture (Oluwakuyide, 2001). This was possible as Federal Government enacted the take off point of about NGB 1 billion for the provision

of important skills (Partnership for Prison Reform, 2014). Additional programmes like financial assurance assist in the inmates' rehabilitation.

Furthermore, the enactment of the prison reforms was able to address certain problems affecting officials. Several studies revealed the problems of lack of training, poor salary and welfare package faced by correctional centre officials. In an effort to address this, strategies to effectively train correctional centre staff and officials were put in place. For example, the Prison Staff Training Academy was established in Kaduna State, Northern part of the country. The academy has facilities like a library, an information communication technology unit, computer based training, and conference facilities. Thus, "there is an on-going finger print course for selected officials of the correctional centre service" (Obioha, 2011). This was also a retraining programmes to ensure an adequate experience for correctional centre officers and personnel.

Similarly, it is the responsibility of the correctional centre to provide adequate health facilities for all inmates who are accommodated in the correctional centre. With an ample injection of funds, it was able to enhance decent health delivery for inmates. For example, there was provision of health facilities such as ambulances, counseling centres, provision of bed spaces in the correctional centre clinic, and provision of drugs. Further, the enactment of the correctional centre reforms was able to establish correctional centre clinics in Ilesa, Bauchi, Kaduna, Lagos and Kogi in Abuja (Obioha, 2011).

4.2.4 An appraisal of prison reform in Nigeria

The attempt by previous and the present administration in reforming correctional institutions through notable projects such as decongestion was done with good intention. Notable examples of the success of the prison reform include a current attempt by the present administration of General Muhammadu Buhari approved 3.5 billion for the purchase of 320 operational vehicles to ease transportation of inmates to court for trial and to hospitals for treatment. President Muhammadu Buhari stated that the move was aimed at reinforcing the strength of the Criminal Justice System and decongestion of

correctional centres across the country (Fapohunda, 2016). Another success is in Kano Central Prison, which forms part of this study, where vocational training programmes such as the Cobbler Department have improved as inmates have adequate facilities to learn shoe making (Ibrahim, 2016). This was expected to help inmates to fit into the society adequately upon their individual discharge from correctional centres. Similarly, this was able to check the problem of idleness amongst inmates.

Other educational and religious activities such as Bible and Qur'an study played a positive role in inmates' rehabilitation and reintegration into the wider society (PRAWA, 2015). Thus, with the effort by the government in collaboration with enacted prison reform programmes, correctional centres across the country gradually became a place for social rehabilitation. This may be due to the fact that inmates who were once idle were gradually transformed into entrepreneurs. Thus, inmates were inculcated with various vocational skills by the management of the correctional centre service. The reform programmes was also able to check availability of decent medical facilities in correctional centres. For example, Makurdi and Onitsha have correctional centre clinics, which are well equipped with medical facilities (National Human Rights Report (NHRP), 2016).

However, despite some challenges which the reform has experienced, it may be unreasonable to totally declare that the reform process has not yielded the anticipated result with several attempts made for the government to solve problems bedeviling most correctional centres in the country. While there was a decline in correctional centre population from 43, 312 in 2000 to 39,061 in 2015, as reported by Prison Headquarters in Abuja in 2015 (Prison Service Report), Minister of Interior Rtd General Dambazau stated that the current correctional centre population across the country stands at 65,000 and about 70% are inmates awaiting trial (Ibrahim, 2016), thus still contributing to congestion. This has been corroborated by a current investigation by the Daily Trust Newspaper (Jan 9th 2016), which reveals that over 60% of inmates in Kano Central Prison were awaiting trial.

Also, some correctional centres are filled with inmates awaiting execution, with some inmates claiming they were wrongly accused of crimes they never perpetrated and were thus harshly sentenced to execution (Ibrahim, 2016). For example, a 2016 tour by Rtd General Dambazau revealed that an inmate named Mallam Salisu Muhammad, aged ninety (92), has been incarcerated in Kano Central Prison for over fourteen years awaiting execution for stealing a car radio, but were wrongly sentenced to death due to their refusal to register allegiance to the then member of the House of Representative (Ibrahim, 2016). It is in this direction that some human rights organizations have stated that the reform programmes is yet to earn the desired result due to some cases such as the above. If the reform programmes had frequently visited correctional centres as one of the responsibilities of the committee, such cases would have been investigated, with the case likely reviewed and adjusted. Thus, this becomes a reason for unlawful detention resulting in congestion in some correctional centres.

Despite government injecting huge sums of money into the correctional centre system as indicated in the National Budget to cater for correctional centre structure and facilities, inmates are still yet to feel the impact of these expenses. Kano Central Prison was built over 100 years ago during the colonial era, but surprisingly it still accommodates inmates within decaying structures under leaking roofs, with poor bedding facilities, cells without electricity, making inmates reside in dark cells (Tanimu, 2012). Another problem in some correctional centres include absence of medical facilities in clinics or hospitals. Sick inmates are not able to receive adequate medical attention and thus become terminally ill (Ayo & Okagbue, 1991). The National Human Rights Commission Report of 2015 revealed that Wukari, Gembu, and Seri in Taraba State, Ogoja in Cross River State, Elele and Ahoada in Rivers, and Argungu in Kebbi had no clinics. Other correctional centres in the country that had no clinics were Kujama in Kaduna and Lakushi in Plateau State.

The Nigerian correctional centre was known for accommodating inmates whose cases had been stalled for reasons like unavailability of witnesses, cases of missing files, unavailability of investigating police officers and

inmates who could not post bail. The National Human Commission Report (2016) revealed that 4522 inmates were at different occasions granted bail by law courts but were still remanded in correctional centre. Out of this total, 707 inmates were located in North East Zone, 400 in North West, 470 North Central, 976 in South East, 666 in South-South, and 1323 in the South West. Also, with regard to unavailability of witnesses, the report revealed that 1600 inmates had distortions in their cases due to unavailability of witnesses.

Those involved were 369 inmates in North East, 400 inmates in North West, 398 in South West, and 249 in the South West. Others include 132 inmates in Yola Prison in North East Zone, 240 inmates in North Central, and South East recorded 81 inmates (Amnesty International, 2015). Furthermore, the report also revealed that some inmates were faced with the problem of missing files. They include 7 inmates in North East Zone, 11 inmates in North Central, and 4 inmates in North West. South-South had the highest figure with 424 inmates affected by the problem of unavailability of witnesses, 45 inmates in South West, and 69 inmates in the South East (Amnesty International, 2015).

The problem of lack of schools in some correctional centres persists, despite the huge sums of money injected into the system. Thus, the absence of skill acquisition centres compounds the problem of idleness amongst inmates (Ugwumba & Usang, 2014). Though there was the construction of new skill acquisition centres and decayed ones were refurbished, still these plays an insignificant role in the lives of the inmates. Ugwumba and Usang (2014:61) assert that some correctional centres with these centres do not have sufficient equipment and qualified instructors to teach inmates vocational training skills. In view of the above, the training that inmates were exposed to in the workshop seem to be only during the period of incarceration, which may be due to inmates' inability to fit into vocational skills provided in the centres (Aduba, 1993). The above situation reveals some of the shortcomings of the prison reform programmes and as a result the cardinal objective of enacting prison reforms may not have earned the desired result. In addition to the existing inadequacy of the prison reform, Obioha (2011) reveals some level

of computerization which going on, which will ensure keeping convicted offenders to be kept electronically.

The above proclamation again reveals another aspect of the shortcomings of the prison reform programmes. Most correctional centres resort to manual recording and even lack adequate stationery. One correctional centre register was written on a black painted wall at the correctional centre's reception (Ikoh, 2011). Thus, the correctional centre system needs more attention as several problems have indicated the effectiveness of the reform programmes. One of the major reasons the Federal Government established the prison reform programmes was to reform the Criminal Justice System as delayed and prolonged cases in law courts resulted in continuous detention of awaiting trial inmates. According to Amnesty International (2008), regardless of several presidential committees and commissions suggesting a total reform of the Criminal Justice System, these suggestions are yet to be put into use. Rather the government continues to set up fresh committees and commissions to embark on an appraisal, review, analysis and complement earlier suggestions that were proffered. This process takes up a lot of time, thus leading to further problems in correctional centre and which led to a delay in proffering solutions to existing problems (Amnesty International, 2008).

It cost the government huge sums of money to set up the Presidential Committee and Commission due to expenses such as the honorarium for committee members to review and harmonize previous recommendations that would have played a positive role in some correctional centres across the country. Previously, decisions were reached and announced by the Nigerian government to decongest the correctional centre by releasing awaiting trial and condemned inmates, but these decisions were not effected as concerned inmates waited endlessly (Jarma, 1999) This suggests that the government had less concern for inmates and this also indicts the prison reform programme which is expected to have resolved such problems by frequent visits to correctional centres across the country. Thus, it is paramount that the government assimilates and puts into use the recommendations proffered by national and international organizations to effectively tackle the problems

bedeviling correctional centres across the country. This will not only improve the inmates' living conditions of inmates but it will adequately rehabilitate inmates to reintegrate easily into the wider society upon discharge from correctional centre.

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed empirical literature on correctional centre conditions and recidivism in the Nigerian context, which also touched on exigent correctional centre reform in Nigeria. The review further explored the several problems experienced by inmates and the NPS as a whole in its quest in the rehabilitation of inmates. Special focus was given to some disparity of the treatment of inmates by the NPS. Also, issues related to rights of inmates were outlined and discussed. Finally, an overview of prison reform efforts by the Nigerian government were reviewed, detailing some successes and difficulties of the prison reform. The following chapter outlines the theoretical framework for this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains an appraisal of the risk- need- responsivity (RNR) model, which serves as the theoretical framework of reference to the study. It delves deeper by discussing the concepts of the RNR model and its relevance to this research which empirically probed into inmate rehabilitation strategies in the study area.

This research work analyzed and appraised how the RNR model has inspired the development of offender risk assessment and offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres. It also intends to provide evidence on how rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres can lead to important reductions in recidivism amongst inmates when rehabilitation programmes are consistent with the RNR model. Thus, this theoretically explains the underpinning problem of offender rehabilitation in the context of Nigerian correctional centres. In view of this, the following questions will be answered: “How are Nigerian correctional centres organized to achieve the reformation and ultimate rehabilitation of convicts? How do the convicts view all these vis-à-vis their rehabilitation” (Ali, 2011, p.123).

5.2 Development of rehabilitation theory

Over the years, rehabilitation theory has attracted tremendous debate, which may be due the fact that rehabilitation remains highly contested. For example, Bailey (1966) in 1954, Kirby established four studies appraising correctional counseling (Bonta & Andrews, 2007). Also, Logan (1972) Kirby’s (1954) study compared offenders who received treatment and those who had no treatment. The study found that three of the studies demonstrated lower recidivism rates for the group who received treatment (Bonta & Andrews, 2007). Successive evaluation discloses further controlled appraisal

of correctional treatment, establishing that in roughly 50% to 60% of the studies, treatment was effective (Bailey, 1966).

However, in the early United States penal system, inmates passed through a different rehabilitation period known as the Pennsylvania system and the Auburn system during the Jacksonian era of the 19th century,. The Jacksonian era involved institutional correctional centre reforms which emphasized both the moral component of offending and the social conditions to change every individual to a useful, compliant member of the society (Swan, 2011 cited in Ishiyama & Breuning, 2011). The era of the late 19th century practiced secluding offenders from other members of society because they constituted a security risk to the wider society. Also, they were “kept in solitude, reflecting penitently on their sins in order that they might cleanse and transform themselves” (Irwin, 1980, p. 2). The introduction of the Pennsylvania system verified that isolation or solitude was a means of punishment and also offender reformation (Printer, 1828).

In addition to solitary confinement, the Pennsylvania system practices incorporated silent inspection as well as Bible study that was used as a strategy for salvation. With a shift in development, the Pennsylvania system was converted into the Auburn system (Bailey, 1966), which made use of total isolation and seclusion as a means of punishment for wrongdoers (Printer, 1825). Similarly, the system practiced labour and discipline during confinement. Through inculcating inmates with hard work, it was able to alter their actions, thereby making them abandon their criminal behaviour. In line with the above, sanctions also attracted the imposition of corporal punishment. There was once again a shift from previous systems, which was due to the penitentiary surrendering to reformatory. It suggested the rehabilitation of inmates through the inculcation of rehabilitative programmes such as vocational training, educational sessions, as well as recreational activities. This led to proper classification of inmates, which was also responsible for an individualized treatment.

Rehabilitative theorists, such as Thomas Hobbes (1679) and Jeremy Bentham (1832), laid emphasis on the idea of rehabilitation, although they

asserted that offenders should be apportioned with physical punishment for violating state law. This would make offenders and would be offenders choose to resort to good deeds and also make the society punitive in its actions against nonconformist. For example, the medical model came into existence to ensure effective reformation and to replace labour and physical punishment as a means for reformation.

Having introduced this as a means of offender reformation, it was imminent to recruit the services of therapeutic personnel such as psychiatrists into correctional centres in order to administer treatment to inmates who may have developed mental ailment during incarceration. Despite some of the successes the model recorded, it was still criticized by some scholars because they were of the view that the model was too soft, thus making it ineffective in their own context (Looman & Abracen, 2013). A further decline of the model was noticed after Martinson (1974) affirmed that “with few and isolated exceptions, the rehabilitative efforts that have been reported so far had no appreciable effect on recidivism” (p.62).

The problem of rehabilitation theory compounded further in the 1970s, which led to a work by Bottoms and Preston (1980) titled *The Coming Penal Crisis*, wherein several chapters discuss the failure of the rehabilitative model. The discussion was able to point out the imperfections and errors of rehabilitative ideals. One criticism of the rehabilitation model was its wrong judgement on the causes of crime. Thus, this was responsible for the misinterpretation of the nature of crime as it failed to distinguish and identify the ways in which crime is socially theorized. Secondly, the theory was blamed for certain irregularities such as the unequal treatment and targeting forced interference on the disadvantaged populace of the host community.

Thirdly, rehabilitation ideals were also criticized due to the fact that in some situations it contradicted justice. Thus, judgement about liberty was under the control of untrustworthy and biased, professional judgements which were kept from the offender. Moreover, due to the advancement of psychology disciplines, specialists came up with a strategy to identify what was wrong with the offender, which made an offender become a victim as a result of

being deficient of insight. Fourthly, the theory was also criticized because rehabilitation experienced basic ethical problems in its quest to force people to change.

Similar criticism followed due to noticeable inadequacies of the theory. According to Rotman (1990) it was forceful correction. Thus, this affected the level of effectiveness of the penal institutions. In view of this, treatment and therapy programmes were carried out without permission or approval. This also attracted copious criticism which continued to show some of the inadequacies of the theory. To this effect, Bottoms and Preston (1980) proffered guidelines on the manner in which the above problem could be addressed. They include: The declaration of the responsibility of the state to present rehabilitation; the creation of relative confines on the interference opposed; the principal of increasing selection and voluntarism in the procedure, and a devotion to using correctional centre as a means of measure of last options.

In conclusion with regard to the rehabilitation theory, Irwin and Austin (1997) found that inmates who “participated in a wide range of rehabilitation programmes were re-arrested at the same rate as those who did not” (p. 64). Thus, this created further doubt on the effectiveness of the theory. With the falling out of favour of the medical model and due to Martinson’s (1974) publication, the penal policy was enacted in the United States of America during the post-Martinson era. To this effect, the U.S. Supreme Court, in *Misretta v. U.S.* in 1989, confirmed the federal sentencing recommendation that expunged the objective of rehabilitation from thoughtful deliberation when sentencing offenders.

In view of the above, forthcoming sentencing practices will only put into consideration the crime, with negligible emphasis or concern made on factors which may include responsiveness to therapy or treatment. Despite the above assertion, other views still recognize the significance of incarceration as a form of nonconformist rehabilitation and reformation. With a shift in this regard, several scholars suggested different forms of rehabilitation such as advanced computer training, which would help inmates develop computer

skills and can be used by state establishments (Thomas, 1972). This kind of rehabilitation will help inmates upon discharge from correctional centre to fit into the wider society adequately and assist them to secure legitimate means of earning. This in turn can divert their minds from crime related acts. Examples that attest to this includes the Oregon State Correctional Institution in Salem that revealed that rehabilitation programmes reduced the prevalence of recidivism among inmates and the inmates who were granted parole in 2000 was 25%, down from 47% in 1995 (Burnett, 1990). A similar research of meta-analyses on the result of correctional rehabilitation programmes revealed that there was a decline in the recidivism rate, which was attained through the application of “cognitive behavioural treatments”, which “target known predictors of crime change, and intervene mainly with high risk offenders”(Cullen & Gendreau, 2000, p.109).

5.2.1 Basic assumptions of the risk- need- responsivity model

The RNR model is seen as a highly popular strategy in the treatment of offenders across the globe with copious practice and presence in developed countries, notably by scholars in the United Kingdom, Australia and Canada (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). Also, Andrews and Bonta (2003), support the implementation of the RNR principles in determining the course of treatment for specific persons. To this effect, the model became a dominant model for assessment and also treatment of offenders (Ward, Mesler, & Yates, 2007). Due to this, the model was put into use in 1990 (Andrews, Bonta, & Hoge, 2010), and the model was applied in countries like New Zealand, which was responsible for the progress of a collection of empirically obtained and efficient therapy for a variety of crimes (Ward et al., 2007). However, correctional rehabilitation in New Zealand is in general converse to the RNR method and aim, with precise areas of criminogenic need for high risk offenders (mainly violence). The therapeutic community framework has also been adopted in New Zealand with considerable success (Ward, Day, & Casey, 2015).

Ward et al. (2015) state that in Australian correctional centres, offender rehabilitation programmes were enacted with each authority (there are seven,

every of which as its own judicial and correctional system) now presenting a variety of offence attentive programmes, which include sexual delinquents, vicious delinquents, intellectual skills, anger management, drug and alcohol, domestic violence, and victim awareness programmes (Howells et al., 2004). The principle originators of the RNR model of offender rehabilitation include the Canadian researchers James Bonta, Don Andrews and Paul Gendreau (e.g. Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2011; Andrews & Dowden, 2006; Andrews et al., 1990; Gendreau & Andrews, 1996). Moreover, the RNR model signifies a model for the forecast of risk and classification of offenders for therapy based on the proclamation that criminal behaviour can be forecasted, that the risk level of treatment strength and aim of inspiring treatment result (i.e. recidivism), and that these factors relate with offender-based factors in inspiring result (Andrews & Bonta, 2003)

Correspondingly, in 2001 the Singapore Prison Service including juvenile justice agencies also adopted the RNR framework for the supervision and rehabilitation of the offenders in their care. Chua et al. (2014) state that RNR and related risk assessment measures adopted as a framework in Singapore simplified the logical appraisal of youth offenders. Also, Andrews and Dowden (2005) state that the RNR principle has been related to a considerable decrease in recidivism rates, while those interventions that did not abide by the RNR principle had poor outcomes with regards to the decline in recidivism rates. Furthermore, the RNR principle is important in both evaluation and rehabilitation aspects of offender supervision and the suite of level of service risk evaluation measures, which is the most broadly used products related with the RNR framework (Andrews et al., 2011).

Moreover, Chua et al. (2014) affirm that in 2003 the RNR framework was accepted for use in the Ministry of Social and Family Development (MSF; then Ministry of Community Development and Sports) (Chu, Teoh, et al., 2012). The RNR, which is a model of offender reintegration and reformation, started gaining prominence more than twenty years ago (Polaschek, 2012). This model is also used in criminology with an objective of making recommendations on how inmates should be assessed and treated. The

assessment can be based on the immediate risk they present, what the inmates need, and the kind of environment they should be accommodated in order to reduce recidivism amongst them.

Hoge (2002) posits that organized risk assessment measures have obviously provided a more legitimate and consistent assessment of risk for imminent offending deeds and possible treatment needs. However, this model provides a blueprint for the forecast of risk and classification of delinquents for treatment, initial scrutiny of criminal behaviour can be foreseen, indicating that risk interrelates with the level of treatment strength and aim in influencing or persuading treatment outcome (i.e. recidivism), and that the factors interrelate with offender-based factors influencing outcome (Andrews & Bonta 2003) and determining offender treatment. This model has been used across the globe in rehabilitating offenders and highlights the major reason for recurrent criminal actions.

The model also helps with a decrease of offenders' involvement in illegality (Polaschek, 2012). This can be achieved by adequately collaborating with offenders through the provision of certain service interventions which are likely to help curb criminal behaviour amongst offenders. Thus, it is seen to be a risk reduction model. Furthermore, to ensure provision of the basic intervention which can prevent offenders from being involved in crime, certain resources should be provided by the government (Blanchette & Brown, 2006) Andrews and Bonta (2010) affirm that RNR led to considerable and significant gains in terms of dependable assessment of offenders and substantial decline in the rate of repeated crime (recidivism) among offenders who have been treated in the programmes that have embraced the perspective.

Bourgon, Helmus, and Hodgins (2009) posit that more than a few verifications by the RNR principle suggest that it is responsible for the decline of sexual offense recidivism, violent recidivism and general recidivism Tangential to the above, the RNR model is premised on efficient correctional intervention; as a result of this role, it is not referred to as a theory of intrusion (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). Andrews and Bonta (2010) state that certain factors should be

taken into consideration in any inclusive theory of criminal behaviour; some of these factors include biological/neurological issues, social and central factors and temperament. In the light of the above, Andrews and Bonta (2010) outlined three principles for effective and valuable corrections: risk, need, and responsivity, which will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

5.3 Risk

The risk principle of the RNR model posits that delinquents at a greater risk of reoffending will profit most from greater levels of interference which may include high intensity treatment, and that less risk offenders should receive insignificant, usual, or no intervention at all (Tony, Joseph, & Pamela, 2007). Andrews et al. (1990) suggest that the risk principle implies the rate of treatment and management should be suitable with the risk of the offender. Risk refers to the likelihood of destructive consequences occurring (Douglas & Plugge, 2008). Andrew and Bonta (2010) dispute that treatment should be earmarked for more sophisticated and complex risk group of felons as appraised by an actuarial evaluation instrument.

The risk principle encourages changing the concentration of therapy, according to the (static) risk level of a person (Harkins & Beech, 2007). Basically, the risk principle consists of the major parts. Firstly, the possibility of an individual to be involved in criminal deeds varies and the possibilities of this can be a prediction based on certain factors which may include erstwhile criminal actions and present characteristics (Andrew et al., 1990). It also involves the presence of potentially harmful agents which may include factors like toxins, diseases, people, animals and the likelihood that threat related to agents in question will really happen (Denny, 2005)

In terms of the RNR theoretical framework, successful offender rehabilitation needs a precise classification of the offender's level of risk and needs. Moreover, a meta-analysis of risk factors and criminogenic needs with variety of offender groups have a better grasp of the risk factors for re-offending (e.g. Bonta, Law, & Hanson, 1998; Gendreau, Little, & Goggin, 1996; Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005; Lipsey & Derzon, 1998), with available empirical

support for “Big Four” as well as “ Central Eight” risk and need factors (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). However, evaluation of the risk of recidivism is every so often conducted by proficient researchers who work within criminal and juvenile justice systems (Olver, Stockdale, & Wormith, 2009). Furthermore, risk assessment is an unspecified process which usually includes the use of techniques for determining the prospects of a destructive event happening within a stated time period.

Secondly, there should be provision of certain interventions and focused programmes which will help with major reduction with regard to higher risk cases. Additionally, numerous researches have successfully verified that actuarially assessed or evaluated risk is above unstructured clinical judgement (e.g. Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2009). In view of the above, Hoge (2002) submits that risk of recidivism and the availability of criminogenic needs can be deduced from this communiqué, thus informing the dispositional results or outcome and reformation efforts. Similarly, Chua et al. (2014) state that Singapore’s juvenile justice, risk assessment is projected to forecast imminent antisocial behaviours with the intention of handling risk and averting negative results; such assessments have a responsibility in each decision stage in the juvenile justice system. Thus, Champion, (1998), Hoge (2001) and Krisberg and Howell (1998) enable the expression of decisions with regards to intercession, judgement and interference efforts (Hoge, 2002). To this effect, Chua et al., (2014) submit that:

“Effective youth offender risk assessment is therefore essential to inform decision-making processes and risk classification, especially in view of classification, especially in view of increasing demands for optimal resource allocation and the need to provide empirical evidence in judiciary processes” (p. 878).

The above proclamation suggests that experts will be motivated towards the effectiveness of offender rehabilitation efforts which they will be liable for. Andrews and Bonta (2010) as well as Andrews et al.’s (2006) empirical

study revealed that offender reformation and rehabilitation is highly efficient when interferences are suitable to the risk level and needs of the offender, and also take into account the individual's responsivity factors. Certainly, there is an indication that persons at divergent risk levels have distinct responses to therapy (Andrews & Dowden, 2006; Friendship, Mann, & Beech, 2003).

However, risk as a concept is known to be obviously value-based and can be approached from divergent theoretical perspectives (Kekes, 1989). One of these include the positivist approach which compares risk factors as self-sufficient variables to cultural accounts where risk is theorized to be socially and politically conceptualized by divergent groups and not able to be sufficiently measured (Brown, 2009; Young, 1999). Beck (1992) succinctly states: "Basically, one is no longer concerned with attaining something good but rather preventing the worst" (p. 42). This suggests that individuals and the institution are largely bothered about trying to prevent possible reasons for dangers as against holding others liable when harm has occurred.

Similarly, with regards to risk management in the criminal justice process, it suggests that it is the procedure of finding out an individual ability for destructive behaviour in the direction of himself or herself or others (Feeley & Simon, 2002). Assumption of the possibility of risk by advocates of RNR and correctional workers is believed to be an individualist one. The above assumptions suggest that risk factors usually exist autonomously in the world instead of having a reflection on individuals' prejudiced concerns which, once measurable, can be used to approximate precisely the likelihood of unpleasant events with specific reference to recidivism occurring. In the context of the above, the risk factor is referred to as a variable that is indicative of the possibilities that an individual will act in a harmful manner (Blackburn, 2009).

According to Harkins and Beech (2007), the risk principle is the most serious therapy that ought to be given to the utmost risk offenders with little or no therapy given to low-risk offender, which may be due to the fact that they

are unlikely to reoffend even with the absence of treatment. Against this background, correctional institutions across the globe are expected to assess the risk factors of inmates during, before and after incarceration in order to convince them to refrain from committing further offences. This assessment thus goes a long way towards making a positive impact on the life of an inmate. McGuire (2002) affirms that intervention treatment may alter a person's life and may differ depending on people, situations and level of development. Basically, risk factors involve four comprehensive realms:

- (1) Dispositional factors, which may include antisocial personality or psychopathic personality characteristics, cognitive variables and demographic data. Additional factors include poverty, death of loved ones, and mental illness. These factors could lead an individual to committing acts of criminality depending on how he/she responds to these situations. Taking these factors into cognizance then, one could argue that correctional institutions should assess inmates and create strategies on how this factor can be effectively dealt with. These strategies will be determined by an analysis of the risk factors by concerned correctional centre institutions.
- (2) Past factors, which may include unpleasant developmental history, previous history of crime and violence, previous hospitalization and poor treatment obedience. It is paramount for correctional institutions to make an assessment of inmate history in crime related activities. Most times, inmates are locked up in cells without the correctional centre administration having an idea of the previous involvement in divergent forms of crime. Therefore, a point that needs to be raised here is that inmates need different treatment based on their history of crime. This implies that the treatment for a robbery inmate requires different treatment of an inmate who is convicted of a financial crime. O'Leary and Clear (1971) state that supervisory staff should incorporate programmes and services to tackle dynamic need factors, which is a resource allocation model that considers high risk offenders to need more supervision (intensive supervision) than low-risk-offenders. Interventions by the correctional institutions should

be targeted at inmates' specific risk factors. In this regard, the model is of the advantage to the criminal and the society because it successfully makes offenders' standing poles apart from the criminal justice system. Thus, this helped criminals to successfully attain their desired goals (Bonta & Andrew, 2003). Conclusively, it is necessary for correctional centres across the globe to adopt different strategies in offender treatment and rehabilitation.

- (3) Related past history to violence, such as criminogenic needs (risk factors of criminal behaviour), absence of beneficial social supports, and deviant social networks among others. Andrew and Bonta (2010) argued that treatment should put more prominence on criminogenic needs. Looman and Abracen (2013) submit that for needs that are not criminogenic but which compromise on needs, like low self-esteem and personal grief, should be viewed as tertiary and should not be included as a focus treatment with the exception of significance to the third principle of effective correctional treatment, with specific reference to principles. This strategy should serve as a guide to correctional institutions worldwide as some correctional centres recorded high recidivism among incarcerated inmates. Despite some collaborative effort to tackle the problem of recidivism, this has remained a big challenge to the correctional centre administration. Thus, correctional centre authorities across the globe should lay more emphasis on the view that treatment should put more prominence on criminogenic needs of incarcerated inmates.
- (4) Clinical factors such as psychological disorders (bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, and anti-personality disorder), inadequate level of functioning and substance misuse (Andrews & Bonta, 1990; Hollin, 1999). This explains what is obtainable in some correctional centres globally, as mentally ill inmates are accommodated in the same cell with other categories of inmates who are medically sound. The factors mentioned above are regarded as static or dynamic risk factors. However, static factors are risk variables which cannot be altered, such as prior offense history, absence of prolonged relationships and

general criminality. Even though this factor cannot be changed, it is, nonetheless, important for correctional administration to be aware of this general problem. Stable dynamic risk factors are those risk variables that have a tendency to be stable over a period of time, but are open to alteration, that is sexual interests/sexual self-supervision, pro-offending attitudes and general self-supervision. Acute dynamic risk factors are basically those that can be altered and oscillate from one situation to another. This includes situations like mood state and substance abuse. As can be inferred from the above, certain factors may not be altered, while some can be, leading to offending behaviour. For example, bipolar disorder is a mental disorder which has to do with mood state, thus leading to offending. To this effect, mentally ill inmates should be separated from other inmates and treated with a lot of respect and consideration; their stay with other inmates may lead to further offending such as assault or more serious crimes.

5.4 Need

According to Polaschek (2012), the need principle is called target change. Similarly, criminogenic needs believed to have been underscored by an experimental literature is allied to recidivism in criminal inhabitants (Andrew & Bonta, 2010). Also, the need principle suggests that therapy should be modified to tackle the criminogenic needs (i.e. factors that are connected to recidivism) of the delinquent (Harkins & Beech, 2007). These factors can be recognized through an assessment of a person's dynamic risk factors. There is an indication that levels of dynamic risk factors are connected to recidivism (Craig, Thomson, Beech, & Browne, (2000); Hanson & Harris, 2000; Thomson, 2002).

According to Tony et al. (2006), the need principle suggests that only those factors related to decrease in recidivism (criminogenic needs) should be embattled in intervention. Similarly, need as a concept is seen to be related to risk because individuals whose needs are not met may engage in activities that may lead to harm. For one to have a need characteristically denotes that

absence or shortage of any kind, in particular an absence of a significant good(Thompson, 2002).

Furthermore, Hoge (2002) opines that need principle states that the offender rehabilitation programmes should focus on dynamic criminogenic needs which are functionally connected to criminal behaviour so as to lessen the risk of recidivating. Therefore, it is important for correctional institutions to meet the needs of different inmates, as failure to meet individual needs of inmates during incarceration can hinder effective rehabilitation. Provision of these needs should be targeted at factors related to reduction of recidivism. This can be achieved through intervention programmes. Moreover, Deci and Ryan (2000) established a self-determination theory of needs that is mainly beneficial for thinking about needs in the correctional context. Advocates of the RNR model of rehabilitation explain needs more clearly as personal shortages but dispute that only certain of these shortages or deficiencies are related to offending.

For the purpose of a better understanding, advocates of the RNR model outline a clear dissimilarity between two types of needs: criminogenic need and non-criminogenic needs. Criminogenic needs include aspects of antisocial personality, such as precipitateness, drug-abuse problems, pro-offending attitudes, elevated hostility or aggression, annoyance and criminal colleagues(Andrews & Bonta, 2003) Criminogenic needs, according to the RNR model, are characteristics of the individual or his or her conditions that, if altered, may not have a straight influence on recidivism rates. For example, non-criminogenic needs are clinical occurrences which may include low self-esteem (Baumeister, 1994) and mental health problems such as depression or unsettled grief(De Coster & Heimer, 2001).

To this effect, it is hard to differentiate between a criminogenic need and a risk factor as both concepts signify an empirically determined correlation of criminal offending. Moreover, Andrew and Bonta (2010) identified six need factors and divided them into eight comprehensive 'risk/need' factors. This is divided into 'big four' which include anti-social viewpoint, anti-social confederate, anti-social humor/character and a static factor: a history of

dissimilar anti-social deeds. The moderate four include family/marital circumstances, social/work, free time/vacation and substance abuse.

Relative to the above, the RNR model is based on the premise that interpersonal, personal and social factors are significantly involved in the attainment and maintenance of criminal behaviour (Ogloff & Davis, 2004). Andrew and Bonta (2010) argue that treatment should put more prominence on criminogenic needs. Looman and Abracen (2013) jointly submit that non-criminogenic needs, which compromise on needs like low self-esteem and personal grief, have to be viewed as tertiary and should not be included as a focus treatment with the exception of significance to the third principle of effective correctional treatment.

5.5 Responsivity

Responsivity refers to how intervention can help offenders to alter their criminal ways; this is achieved through an engagement with felons (Andrew & Bonta, 2010). Tony et al. (2006) state that responsivity is a principle which dictates that correctional programmes should be suitable for delinquents' characteristics which may include learning style, their level of motivation, and also individuals' personal and relational circumstances. Furthermore, responsivity is also preoccupied with how an individual responds to the treatment environment, covering a variety of factors and circumstances. For example, responsivity in this scenario means how inmates respond to peculiar treatment offered to them by the correctional centre institution. It also means the responsiveness of inmates to correctional agencies. Similarly, another form of responsivity is how correctional agencies are responsive to the inmates' peculiar needs, such as provision rehabilitation or criminogenic needs.

According to Miller and Rollnick (2012), responsivity relatively involves an individual's enthusiasm to be involved in rehabilitation, remedy, treatment or therapy and to obligate to change. Similarly, responsivity is normally understood in therapy literature as mainly concerned with therapist and therapy characteristics and is therefore fundamentally focused on adjusting

treatment delivery in a way that increases change (Horvath & Luborsky, 1993). To this effect, correctional centres should lay more emphasis on treatment characteristics and inmates' adjustment and responsiveness which will increase the possibility of change in their respective behaviour.

Moreover, the responsivity principle affirms that correctional treatment programmes should be suitable for an offender's learning style, level of motivation, as well as personal and interpersonal circumstances. For example, an inmate who was incarcerated for theft certainly requires a different therapy from an inmate who was incarcerated for an offence such as a violation of contract terms. It is imperative for concerned correctional institutions to assess all inmates and supply adequate correctional programmes which will match the inmates' peculiar needs. Thus, responsivity is strictly based on selection of interventions that enable the making of anticipated changes as well as fit the offender's learning style (Andrews et al., 1990:369).

Andrews et al. (1990) states there is a need for careful selection of treatment programmes which inmates should be familiarized with, which will impact on the anticipated changes amongst inmates, that is rehabilitation, reformation and resocialization. Looman and Abracen (2013) state that the responsivity concept of the RNR model comprises of two components: general and specific responsivity. While Polaschek (2012) states that general responsivity denotes an overall technique and processes, Smith, Gendreau, and Swartz (2009) contend that general responsivity is an effective intervention which is inclined to cognitive, behavioural and social learning theories. The above techniques may include the inculcation of additional expertise and strengthen prosocial behaviour (Polaschek, 2012). Specific responsivity is the treatment offered as suitable not only solely to criminogenic needs but also to other characteristics and situations of cases that may earn them probable profit from that treatment (Looman & Abracen, 2013).

According to Polaschek (2012), specific responsivity suggests dissimilarity by criminals in a manner in which they respond to modes of service. Andrews (2001), on the other hand, divides responsivity into two, namely internal and

external responsivity. Attention to internal responsivity factors requires therapists to link the content and rate of sessions to peculiar attributes which may include personality and cognitive maturity. External responsivity means a range of general and specific issues which may include the use of active and partaking methods and consideration of the individual's life, culture and circumstances. In addition, Serin and Kuriychuk (1994) state that external responsivity can be divided into staff and setting characteristics. According to Birdgen (2004) and Ward and Brown (2004), the subject of responsivity to correctional therapy is vital but an underexplored area in criminological research. This may be due to the fact that the topic has received less attention than identifying risk factors or criminogenic needs.

Previous literature reveals that treatment services designed in accordance to the RNR model were effective compared to services that did not employ the RNR approach. In contrast, Andrew and Bonta (2006, 2010) opine that offenders who are not adequately motivated are unlikely to be engaged which may be due to their level of understanding and their attentiveness. This view stems from Zinger et al.'s study (1990), which examined the efficiency of correctional programmes done by a meta-analysis of 80 studies. The meta-analysis revealed that treatment was deemed and coded as suitable (Looman & Abracen, 2013). Furthermore, an analogous study conducted by Dowden and Andrews (1999) on meta-analysis involved 25 studies for treatment of female felons, which revealed that delivery of any treatment programmes leads to an appreciably stronger result than criminal sanctions alone.

In addition, the study also revealed that treatment services that were inclined to the RNR principles were inextricably linked to a significant diminishing level of recidivism, while weak effects were as a result of inappropriate treatment. Thus, meta-analysis proposes that most criminogenic needs perceptible of men were also pertinent for female felons (Looman & Abracen, 2013). Similarly, the treatment targets that were not related to RNR were not related to the decline in repeated crime commission (recidivism) (Dowden & Andrews, 2010). According to Looman and Abracen (2013), "In fact, non-

criminogenically focused family interventions were associated with an increase in repeated crime”(recidivism) (p. 31).

A similar meta-analysis study conducted by Dowden and Andrews (2000), carried out on 35 studies of pugnacious wrongdoers, also revealed that programmes that were inclined to the RNR principle were more effective than other programmes that were not related to the RNR principle. In view of the above, Looman and Abracen (2013) suggest that criminal sanctions alone, devoid of treatment programmes, do not have an effect on recidivism, “while any human service delivery resulted in a significant positive effect”(p. 31). Programmes that were inclined to criminogenic needs are believed to be related to a moderate effect size; in other situations, there was no meaningful decline in repeated crime (recidivism). Looman and Abracen (2013, p.31) state:

“When examining the results according to the degree of adherence to the RNR principle, these programmes deemed inappropriate were associated with no effect on recidivism, while those that adhered to all principles, produced the largest effect sizes. They found that greater effect sizes were achieved through systematic targeting of criminogenic needs, while iatrogenic results were obtained when non-criminogenic needs were targeted.”

Moreover, Hanson et al. (2009) coded 23 investigations of sexual offenders treatment outcome for devotion to the RNR principle. In cognizance to criminogenic needs for general recidivism as outlined above, Hanson et al. (2009) found that criminogenic needs specific for sexual recidivism need to be looked at in relation to divergent sexual interest, sexual obsession, ideas accepting sexual crime, and closeness discrepancy which include conflicts with lovers. Further, sexual recidivism programmes should be regarded as efficient if they target criminogenic needs and are adequately delivered in a way that will be more likely to involve the offender or wrongdoer (Hanson et

al., 2009). Still, Hanson et al. (2009) submit that the RNR principle led to a significant decline in recidivism among sexual offenders which was due to treatment programmes. Therefore, it may be observed then that treatment programmes that were not aligned with RNR principles amounted to negative treatment effect. “Thus, meta-analysis indicates that the RNR approach to programme development and delivery applies to sexual offenders as it does for other types of offenders”(Looman & Abracen, 2013, p.32).

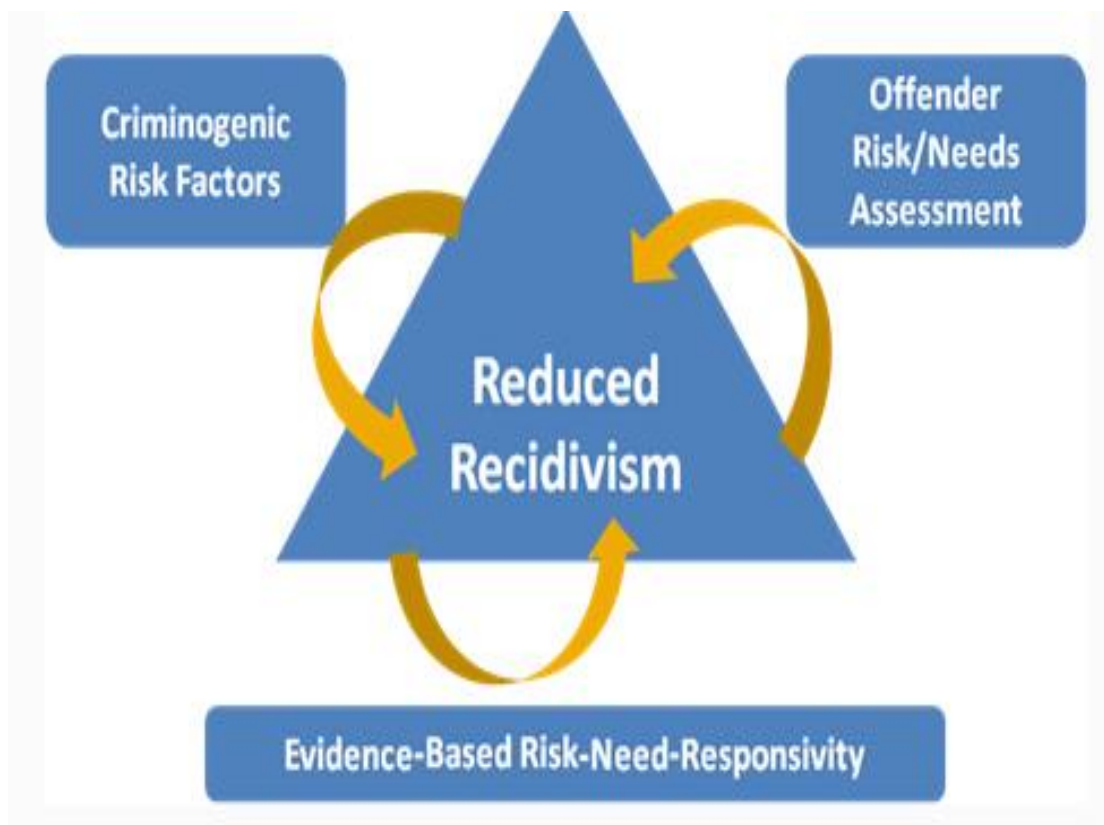


Figure 5. 1: RNR model (Adopted from Andrew & Bonta, 2010, p.4)

5.6 Application of risk- need- responsivity model in offender rehabilitation and in different contexts

This section outlines the application of RNR in different contexts with regards to inmate rehabilitation. To effectively discuss its application, scholarly reviews will be outlined and appraised.

Risk principle is the matching of the rehabilitation of the offenders to the criminogenic risk factors. In order to know the appropriate rehabilitation options, the rehabilitation agencies should carry out risk/need assessment or

analysis of the incarcerated offenders. This will enable them to know the best rehabilitation option. According to this theory, if there is a mismatch between the offenders' needs and their rehabilitation mechanisms, the rehabilitation outcomes will be negative. Furthermore, this principle also suggests that services provided by a correctional institution should assess an offender's risk of reoffending. To this effect, it is unlikely that an inmate will indulge in further criminal deeds.

In relation to this research work, it should be stated that correctional institutions should dedicate more resources to highest risk offenders (inmates). O'Leary and Clear (1985) affirm that supervisory staff should incorporate programmes and services to tackle dynamic need factors, which is a resource allocation model which considers high risk offenders who also need more supervision (intensive supervision) than low-risk-offenders. Interventions by the correctional institution should be targeted at inmates' specific risk factors. This suggests that inmates who have low-risk of reoffending in any correctional centre will receive negligible or no devoted treatment, while offenders with high risk of reoffending will receive particular attention.

Previous studies, such as that of Andrew and Dowden (2006), revealed that treatment services made available for high-risk offenders showed a decline in recidivism compared to treatment for low risk offenders. Similarly, Dowden and Andrew's study (2006) revealed that in 374 tests of the risk principle, treatment which was made available for high risk offenders was associated with an average 10% difference in recidivism (see Figure 5.2). However, the risk level of inmates is usually determined by examining the factors which can be linked to recidivism.

Similarly, these risk factors may be stagnant factors, while in some cases they can be altered; this may include factors like criminal history, age, gender, age of first apprehension, while the dynamic factors, which can be altered through sufficient intervention by correctional institutions, include anti-social personality patterns, pro-criminal attitudes, substance abuse, illiteracy or poor educational background, among others. Furthermore, the risk principle

also suggests that the offender's (inmate) reoffending can be reduced if the level of rehabilitation programmes provided to inmates in correctional institutions is proportionate to the inmates' risk to reoffend.

However, empirical studies reveal that offender reformation and rehabilitation is highly efficient when interference is suitable to the risk level and wishes of the offender, and also take into account the individual's responsivity factors (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Andrews et al., 2006). Basically, this has two principles which include level of treatment and offenders (inmate) need. In other words, for the correctional centres to effectively reduce the offender's possibilities of reoffending, there is need to provide adequate treatment services which will aid in significant reduction in recidivism. The diagram below reveals provision of correctional treatment for low and high-risk offenders.

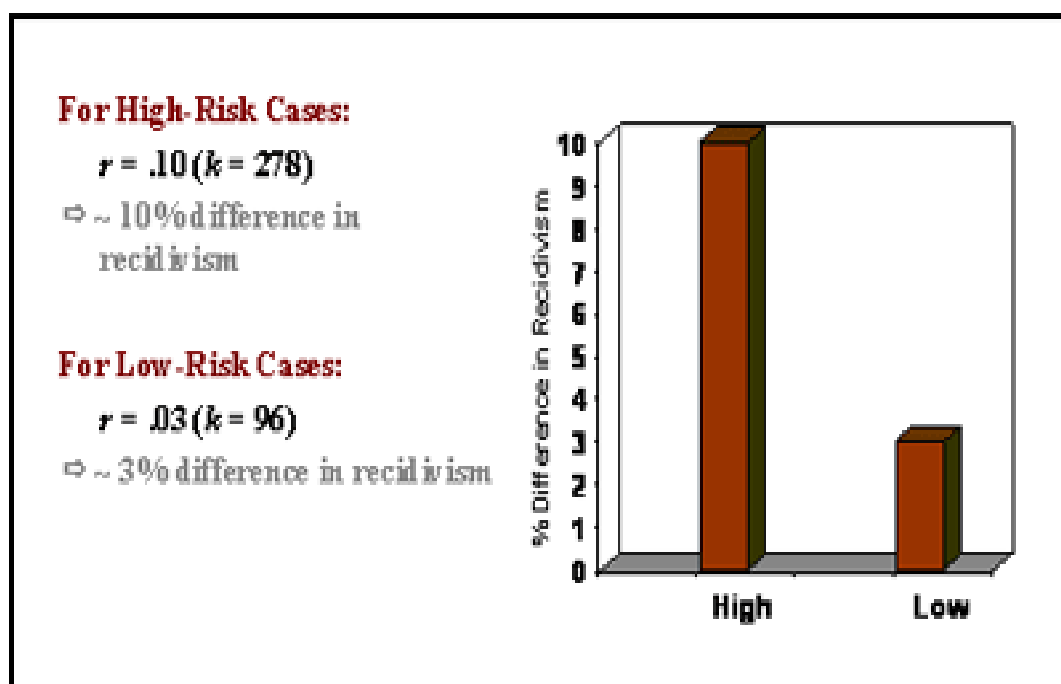


Figure 5. 2: Treatment effectiveness as a function of adherence to the risk principle (Bonta & Andrews, 2007, p.10)

Figure 5.2 reveals that the provision of correctional treatment to low risk offenders is related to a very insignificant effect (about 3% reduction in recidivism) (Andrew & Bonta, 2007:). In view of the above, as stated by low-risk offenders ought not be provided with rigorous interventions so that

interaction with higher risk offenders is minimized (Chua et al., 2014; Andrews et al., 2011). This may be due to the fact that provision of intensive rehabilitative programmes and adequate supervision of low-risk offenders is likely to upsurge their risk of recidivism (Andrews & Friesen, 1987; Lowenkamp & Latessa, 2004). Thus, Figure 5.2 sums up research on providing any treatment to offenders as a function of risk.

Conversely, previous studies have revealed that providing services to low offenders may likely increase criminal behaviour, but at the same time it can also lead to a considerable decrease in recidivism when it is being delivered to higher risk offenders. For example, Bonta, Wallace-Capretta, and Rooney (2000) evaluated a Canadian programme and revealed that low risk offenders who were exposed to negligible levels of treatment had a rate of 15% and low risk offenders who were exposed to the intensive level of services had more than double the recidivism rate of 32%. The same study also revealed that high risk offenders who were not exposed to any intensive treatment services had a recidivism rate of 51%, but the high risk offenders who were exposed to treatment services had almost half the recidivism rate (32%). Thus, the situation fits what may be obtained in correctional institutions across the globe. It suggests that if both low and high risk offenders are not receiving treatment services, recidivism is likely to be high.

To this effect, inmates in some correctional centres learn more upon admission into the correctional centre. Sometimes it starts from petty theft within the correctional centre to more serious crime in the correctional centre. Salaam (2013) posits that inmates become more hardened in their criminal ways. Furthermore, the model has been used in the rehabilitation of sexual offenders. In view of this, a current proclamation of the base rate of sexual offending is roughly 13.7% for another sexual offense within five to six years of being discharged (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005). Similarly, the RNR model has also been used in several instances in Singapore in juvenile justice. For example, the Children and Young Courts and Young Person's Act (CYCYPYA) (Chapter 38) was amended on many occasions with an objective to incorporate additional non-custodial choice as well as to make available

improved community directive to meet a variety of the juveniles' rehabilitation requests (Kamal, 2002). In relation to the belief of restorative justice, the Juvenile Court admits the possibility of positive modification and pursue reintegration of youth offenders into the wider society (The Subordinate Court of Singapore, 2001, 2010). While a recent meta-analytic study on the youth level of Service in Canada revealed that the measure has modest foretelling validity for general recidivism (Kamal, 2002).

A study by Friendship et al. (2003) revealed a considerable lesser rate of violent recidivism in treated individuals in the medium-low risk (2.7% treated vs 12.7% untreated), and medium – high risk (5.5% treated vs. 13.5% untreated); categories contrasted to the untreated sexual delinquent. To this effect, risk grouping was resolved using an actuarial tool for the evaluation of static risk in sexual delinquents-static -99 (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005). While, low risk (1.9% treated vs. 2.6% untreated), and high – risk (26% treated vs. 28.1%) groups revealed trends in the anticipated direction, these were not important due to the low base rates in the low-risk group and an absence of therapy concentration in the high-risk set (Harkins & Beech, 2007). However, the RNR model has also been used in different contexts in the United States of America. For example, the Department of Justice and the National Institute on Drug Abuse dedicated almost two decades on the divergent interference for drug offenders, which include cases such as diversion programmes, drug courts, expert programmes, and therapy programmes in and out of correctional centre (National Institute on Drug Abuse).

However, a meta-analysis revealed that a number of interventions change or modify the behaviour of the delinquents such as those that use intellectual behaviour or therapeutic communities therapy for a period of 90 days, use drug testing, offer a variety of care, use restriction to tackle conformity issues, and aim at higher risk delinquents (Mackenzie, 2000). Other experiments conducted on the RNR principle adopted a method of hypotheses testing for drug offenders (Taxman, Thanner, & Weisburg, 2006; Weisburd & Taxman, 2000). The Office of National Drug Control made available funds for drug therapy and drug testing services in 12 areas in the Washington – Baltimore

corridor, amongst which only had considerable fidelity in the application of the protocol to be included in an experiment. To this effect, the process of examining hypotheses about the RNR principle where the treatment comprised of a unified system of care for drug involved delinquents (Taxman et al., 2006).

Meanwhile, in Singapore it was used as juvenile offending behaviour (JOB) criteria. For example, JOB was established for the pre-sentencing period to provide the Juvenile Court of Singapore with an outline for individual or personalized and impartial sentencing for youth offenders (Ozawa, 2001). Due to this development, social research for young offenders was therefore affiliated to the JOB criteria (Chua et al., 2014). However, this necessitates evaluative procedures in the judicial system to make available differential evaluation or appraisal of individuals, across the combination of components of developmental psychology and criminology (Ozawa, 2001, p.14).

Furthermore, the unified system model include provisions of thorough drug therapy services to hard-core delinquents, for example offenders who had at least two prior apprehension, to drug test offenders on a usual basis, to use graduated restriction and punishment for drug involved offenders, and to make certain that offenders are occupied in treatment for at least six months (Weisburd & Taxman, 2000). Also, in Singapore, JOB criteria take into attention a variety of the youth offender's past and psychosocial functioning, which are measured a first-generation offender risk management (Bonta, 1996), which may be due to the fact that assessment mainly relies on unstructured specialized judgements and instinct (Andrews et al., 2006; Young et al., 2006).

Previous studies on correctional facilities conducted in America, Asia and Europe revealed fast reformation in correctional centres, which was able to provide rehabilitation programmes such as counselling and treatment services as against the use of punishment (Paboojian, Raymond, & Teske, 1997, p.425). Moreover, Moon and Maxwell (2004) posit that correctional goals in South Korea lately improved from the forthright maltreatment and punishment of inmates to reformation and rehabilitation. In view of this,

correctional officers performed their respective duties of managing and inculcating treatment programmes for inmates. Africa was not left out as correctional institutions tilted towards inmate rehabilitation. Thus, “indeed some correctional facilities in Africa have incorporated counseling in an inmate rehabilitation programmes” (Nussbaum, 2000, p.264).

However, risk or criminogenic factors of the each offender should be identified. These risk factors may be sociological, psychological or biological. For instance, the psychological risk factors may include loss of loved ones, job loss, divorce, etc. The sociological risk factors may include poverty and unemployment, peer influence, among others, while biological risk factors may include brain tumors, brain injuries and hereditary factors. It is important for the rehabilitative agencies to have experts in all these areas for the purpose of assessing and analyzing risk and disposing factors to crime or offending. Similarly, the need principle also suggests that concerned correctional institutions should assess an offender’s dynamic criminal risk factors, which is known as criminogenic needs, and devote treatment major risk factors which include substance abuse and antisocial personality patterns.

With regard to substance abuse, assessment of need in the research conducted adopted a drug composite score of the addiction severity index (ASI), a device which normally calculates the severity of use within a 30 day window for all substances ranging from marijuana and cocaine. Thus the treatment need was appraised by a clinician based on total drug use pattern as contrasted to separating out those offenders who used hard core substances, like heroin and cocaine (Taxman et al., 2006, p. 7). In view of the above and even though there were no forms for the ASI, these are usually thought to be low to modest severity scores, suggesting that offenders would derive benefit from lower intensive treatment needs (McLellan et al., 1999).

Furthermore, the correctional centre or institution should lay emphasis on correctional treatment and also address criminogenic needs. In a situation where time is not devoted to such criminogenic needs, which are dynamic

risk factors that are linked to an offender's criminal behaviour, there may be changes in behaviour, leading to an increase in the risk of reoffending. Some problems of rehabilitation in correctional centres across the globe persist as inmates require divergent rehabilitation programmes, but unfortunately not all the available programmes are associated with their criminal behaviour.

For example, an inmate who committed a crime as a result of mental related ailments such as schizophrenia or bipolar disorder needs a different treatment of an inmate who has been incarcerated for committing an act of theft. It should be taken into consideration by any correctional institution that inappropriate matching of treatment can increase offender risk level, which may invariably lead to wasted resources by the concerned correctional centre administration. It is therefore paramount to employ adequate treatment based on the offender's crime history, thereby leading to a significant decline in recidivism.

Previous studies, such as that of Andrew and Dowden (2006), attested to the effectiveness of intervention programmes. For example, Kirby (1954) revealed four studies which evaluated correctional counseling by making a comparison between offenders who were exposed to treatment and offenders who were not exposed to treatment. Three of the studies found lower recidivism rates for offenders who were exposed to treatment. Successive reviews also disclosed more controlled evaluations of correctional treatment and these reviews also revealed that, in just about 50% to 60% of previous studies, treatment was effective (Bailey, 1966). If correctional centres across the globe can embark on adequate correctional treatment for high and low risk offenders, there may be a decline in recidivism. Thus, this signifies the positive impact of rehabilitation programmes on inmate criminal behaviour.

During the early 1950s and 1960s, rehabilitation played a role in reducing recidivism (Taxman et al., 2006). Criminogenic needs are considered under the major predictors of criminal behaviour, usually referred to as eight 'risk/need factors' (Andrew & Dowden, 2006).

5.6.1 Strengths of risk- need –responsivity model (RNR)

The RNR model has played an important role, especially with regard to offender rehabilitation. This was responsible for the model gaining prominence. Thus, the RNR as a model has a strong combined power (Polaschek, 2012). Listwan, Cullen, and Latessa (2009) state that the RNR model is being utilized to have a grasp on the outcome of distinct typology of programmes within the inclusion of inmate re-entry. Andrew and Bonta (2010) observe that RNR as a model engaged in programmes which were believed to be for the benefit of both the criminal and the community at large which is called benefits of human service (i.e. rehabilitative interventions for the criminal). In this regard, the model is seen as useful both to the criminal and the society because it successfully helps offenders refrain from further acts that would make them to be at loggerheads with the criminal justice system. Thus, this helps criminals successfully attain their desired goals (Bonta & Andrew, 2003).

The model has also provided substantial and meaningful explanations. For example, it can adequately provide an explanation why certain programmes can or cannot aid in massive decrease in recidivism. With regards to the programmes inability to reduce recidivism, Paparozzi and Gendreau (2005) propose programmes such as intensive supervision programmes (ISP) and features of the RNR model which adequately reduce the prevalence of recidivism among offenders. The RNR model is geared towards the essential process of building efficient means to tackle criminogenic needs in shaping the progress of and make differentially worthwhile the adoption of positive capacities (Polaschek, 2012). Several RNR programmes organized for highest offenders dedicate the mainstream of treatment to imparting useful skills to them.

For this reason, RNR is integrated into the essential procedure of building up remuneration for non-criminal doings. Thus, this helps in equipping them with communication skills, problem solving and behavioural regulation (Cortoni, Nunes, & Latendresse, 2006). Some of the programmes linked to the RNR model helped in offender rehabilitation, vocational skills,

reintegration into the wider society upon gaining freedom, and assistance in reuniting with family members, friends and loved ones (Polaschek, 2012). As a result of the success of certain programmes, criminals replaced bad deeds with good deeds which may include substituting the expertise of aggression, theft, larceny, lying, with pro-social alternatives which may include academics, vocational skills, and recreational activities. Thus, the criminal will later see the importance of what he or she has learnt.

Another achievement of the model was on relapse prevention (RP) methods of sexual offenders, which still remains very popular in the field. However, a 2009 survey conducted by Mc Grath, Cumming, Burchard, Zeoli, and Ellerby in (2010) in a North American programmes revealed that above 65% of programmes testify the use of a relapse prevention model. Moreover, Dowden and Andrews's (1999) meta- analysis study on treatment for females which established that the distribution of any therapy programmes produced an appreciably stronger effect than criminal punishment alone. A similar meta-analysis of 80 studies conducted by Andrew, et al. (1990) appraised the efficiency of correctional programming. The study revealed that therapy coded as suitable (i.e. devised and dispensed according to RNR principles) was related to greater effect sizes, whereas therapy coded unsuitable or related to criminal punishment were both related to negative effects. At the same time, Hanson et al. (2009) programmed 23 studies of sexual offender treatment result for the devotion to the RNR principle for general recidivism.

Correspondingly, Dowden and Andrews's (2000) research on a meta-analysis on 35 studies of aggressive offenders also found that programmes which were inclined to RNR principles were more effective than those programmes that were not inclined to RNR principle. Furthermore, Hanson et al. (2009) measured criminogenic needs exact for sexual recidivism to be deviant sexual interest, sexual obsession, feelings accepting sexual crimes, and emotional agreement with the children. In view of the above, Andrews and Bonta (2010) affirm that the RP incline to be a cognitive-behavioural approach in practice. However, Looman and Abracen (2013) stated that:

“Thus, taken together, these meta-analyses indicate that: 1) Adherence to RNR principles in the development of correctional treatment leads to greater reduction in recidivism; 2) programmes that address non-criminogenic needs tend to be either less effective or ineffective in reducing recidivism, or may even be associated with increased rates of recidivism; 3) RP approaches, delivered within the RNR framework, are effective in reducing recidivism; 4) these results apply to general recidivism, violent recidivism, and sexual recidivism, as well as female offenders” (p. 31).

In line with the above, it is well understood that the RNR principle when adequately implemented through a proper guide of the principle will be responsible for a significant decline in the rate of recidivism. However, certain scholars have outlined some of the model's shortcomings, which will be discussed next.

5.6.2 Criticisms of risk-need-responsivity model (RNR)

In the last ten years, the RNR model has received tremendous criticism around the globe (Ward & Laws, 2010; Ward, Mann, and Gannon, 2007; Ward & Stewart, 2003). In Australia, substantial reluctance has been conveyed about the suitability and effectiveness of mainstream (RNR), offender rehabilitation programmes for native delinquents (e.g. Mals et al., 2004). There were fears that risk assessment measures may not be legitimate for use with native delinquents (Allan, Dawson, & Allan, 2006), and that interference does not pay adequate attention to the past and social setting in which offending took place (Day et al., 2006, p.520).

The RNR model has been criticized due to the model's inability in explaining certain situations. For example, the model offered an explanation, but restricted it to certain areas. This made it to be theoretically problematic (Ogloff & Davis, 2004). Ward et al. (2003) as well as Ward and Law (2010) state that the cardinal objective of the RNR was largely based on

reduction approaches to treatment rather than on the decrease of a variety of discrepancies in people. As a result of the above, RNR model paid little or no attention to persons. Therefore, the model's complexity was responsible for certain confusion with regards to affiliation between the aspects of the model which include personal, interpersonal and community reinforcement (PIC-R) and the RNR principles (Ward & Maruna, 2007).

Another problem of the model is that it outlined crucial areas where correctional therapy has failed and these have undesirably affected offenders' outcome (Farabee et al., 1999; Taxman & Bouffard, 2002). Taxman et al. (2006) identified three basic areas: the inability to use sound screening and evaluation processes to classify offenders in need of the target residents or populace, and to proffer clinical programming projected to tackle criminogenic factors. More than a few problems and questions were raised directly by scholars on the RNR model (Ward & Stewart, 2003). They were of the perception that as a result of the primary focus of treatment on a person's risk, the RNR model views persons as "disembodied barriers of risk rather than as integrated "(Looman & Abracen, 2013, p.354).

The model was also criticized for concentrating only on criminogenic needs of offenders; this amounted to the creation of gaps in their lives. As a result, the model was faulted for giving imperfect information on a criminal's incentive and engagement in treatment, regardless of the development in motivational interference (McMurrin, 2009). Ward and Brown (2004) state that the theory mainly aimed at its primary theoretical assumptions, their insinuation for practice and absence of practice. Similarly, the theory made more emphasis on the decreasing dynamic risk of factors (criminogenic needs) as essential but not an adequate condition for efficient treatment (Ward et al., 2006).

A vital constituent of this appraisal has been the dispute that it is essential to widen the theoretical expression, application to practice, and the extent of correctional interference to take into account the elevation of human goods (or approach goals) in combination with the decrease of risk variables (Tony et al., 2006). In addition, critics affirm that the RNR is theoretically

impecunious and is incompetent in providing therapists with adequate tools to occupy and work with delinquents in therapy.

In brief, it is alleged that (a) it is intricate to inspire delinquents by focusing mainly on risk decline (e.g. Mann, Webster, Schofield, & Marshall, 2004). (b) The RNR model does not give adequate concentration to the function of personal identity and agency (i.e. self-directed, deliberate actions designed to attain valued objectives) in the alteration process (Maruna, 2001). (c) It works with a restricted idea of human nature and pays no attention to facts that changed or progressed; biologically exemplified, humans naturally search for and need certain goods in order to live personally satisfying (Ward & Stewart, 2003). (d) It pays inadequate concentration to the therapeutic coalition and so-called non-criminogenic desires such as personal anguish and low self-esteem that are significant beyond their probable implications with admiration to delinquent responsivity.

For example, it had been disputed in the past that the conception of a good therapeutic alliance needs a set of interventions which are not directly focused on targeting risk, and it has been revealed that the creation of a decent therapeutic alliance is an essential feature of effective therapy with delinquents (Tony et al., 2006; Marshall et al., 2003; Yates, 2003; Yates et al., 2000). (e) The RNR is basically a psychometric model and leans towards offender risk profiles (or traits) and restrains the importance of contextual and biological factors in delinquents or offender rehabilitation (Ward & Brown, 2004). (f) The RNR is often interpreted in practice into “one-size-fits-all” manner that overlooks the critical individual requirements and values to be taken into consideration.

The familiar application of the RNR essentially pays no attention to its own principle of responsivity or at least makes it difficult to accommodate the distinctive features of delinquents (Tony et al., 2006). Moreover, in its very unsuitable form, the RNR is usually attainable in a psycho-educational format where delinquents are “taught” theoretically significant information (Green, 1995). (g) The RNR is seen not be a unified theory and the three major principles are not adequately hypothetically grounded (Ward & Stewart,

2003). Furthermore, it is asserted that the RNR model neglects “the need to understand the primary human good associated with the commission of offense and the need to ensure that these goods are met in more socially acceptable and individually satisfying ways”(Yates et al., 2000, p. 254-255).Based on the above statement, the RNR failed to take personal needs of an offender into consideration which may be due to the fact that they were not considered as relevant targets. Thus, Ward and Stewart (2003) argue that “the risk need model couches its approach to treatment in negative terms”(Looman & Abracen, 2012, p. 34).

Another criticism was that the RNR model laid more emphasis on the abolition of undesirable attitude, decline of cognitive alteration, and also the elimination or annihilation divergent sexual interest. Some observations were made with regards to the model’s inability to effectively tackle the role to accept personal identity (Ward, 2002). Criticism was also leveled against the model’s stress on the only cause of offending; in so doing, it was argued, it neglected other areas and as a result of this the areas covered were not significant. Similarly, as a model, it ought to have concentrated on assisting offenders to “acquire core competencies constituting valued activities such as being an inmate, managing stress and so on”(Laws & Ward, 2011, p. 176). This implies that the purpose of responsivity is not adequately tackled by the RNR model.

The model was also seen to have ignored the need of giving criminals the basis to want to participate in desistance and alteration (Porporino, 2010). Ward and Maruna (2007) submit that some of the programmes under this model were geared towards the benefit of the community at the expense of the criminal. Due to this, the inmates were idle and unable to acquire new skills and capacities to distract them from crime related behaviour. Moreover, Ward and Stewart (2003) contend that with the prominence on criminogenic needs of the RNR model, substantial issues which will help to impact on the proficiency to indulge in treatment and motivation for treatment, were ignored. This also suggests that criminals’ treatment goals were neglected. With the absence of treatment programmes, recidivism is likely not to

decrease but its presence may have succeeded in a substantial decline in recidivism among criminals. The model was criticized for the imperfection of descriptive depth, and therefore several situations were not clarified because the explanation offered was vague. More than a few criticisms of scholars denote failures to implement the essential standard of the RNR model.

The RNR model is not the 'last word' of an offender rehabilitation (Wormith et al., 2012). Advocates of the RNR model have reacted to the criticism leveled against the model. They contend that there exists a strong theoretical foundation for this important rehabilitation model and that when it is obviously expressed, the criticism discussed above fails (Andrew & Bonta, 2003; Ogloff & Davis, 2004). Scholars who are advocates of the RNR model agree that the theory is habitually presented purely in terms of the principle of risk, need and responsivity, but they assert that this does not mean that the model is deficient in theoretical groundings (Bonta, 2003). To this effect, it is declared that it is a blunder to frame the RNR model entirely in terms of the three rehabilitation principles and its related programmes elements. Instead, the model is encapsulated in Andrew and Bonta's (2003) seminal book: *The Psychology of Criminal Conduct*.

5.6.3 Contribution to knowledge and relevance of risk need responsivity model to this study

In line with the relevance of the RNR model to this research work, a model named *Multi-solutional model of offender rehabilitation* is offered below which emanated from an appraisal and exploration of existing literature on RNR.

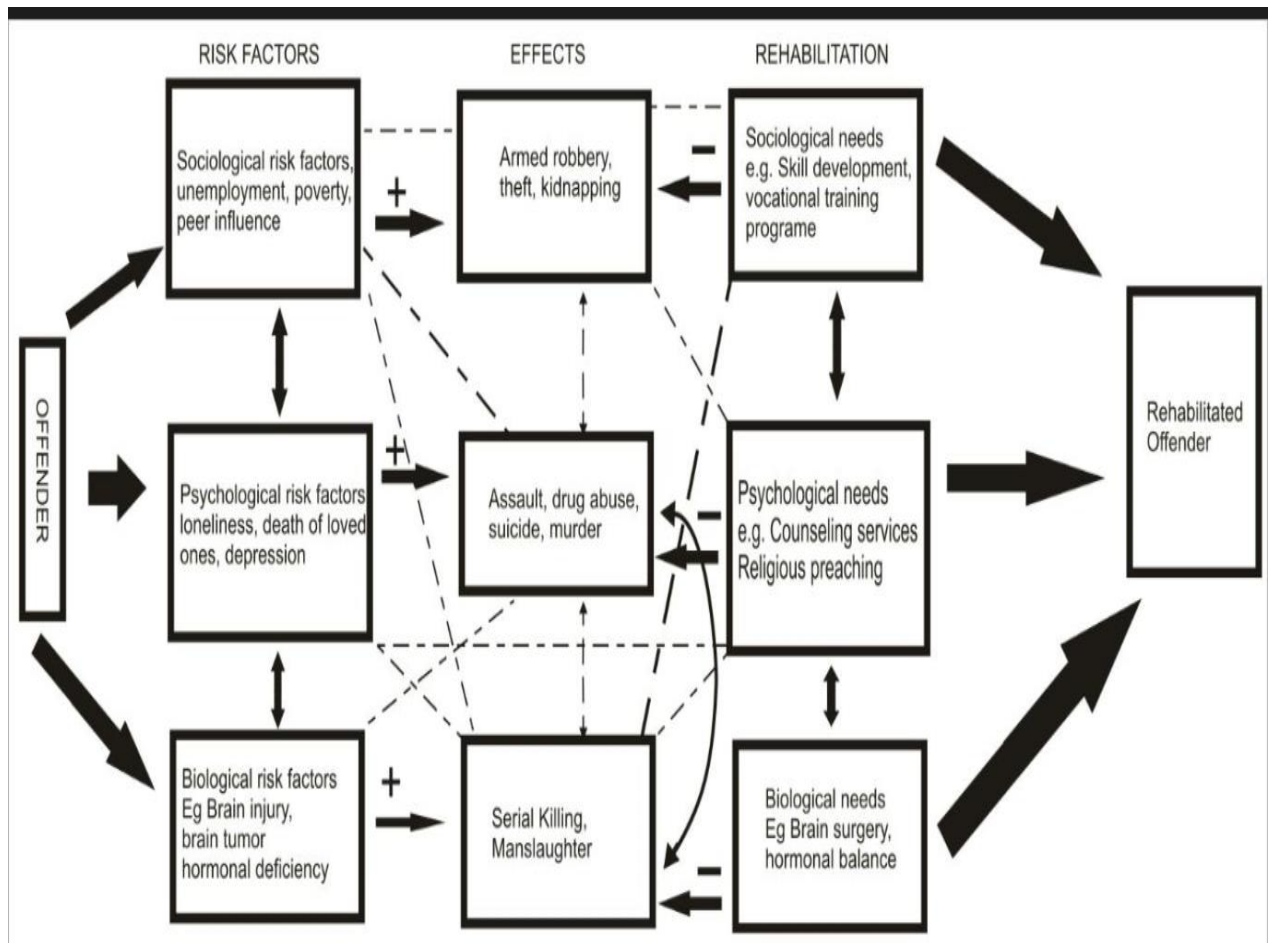


Figure 5. 3: Theoretical model [Researcher's conception (2017)]

The model describes the initial offender, the factors which are responsible for divergent violations of the law, perceived consequences of the factors as well as the rehabilitation strategies and the final product which is the rehabilitated offender. At the initial stage, there is presence of offenders who may be motivated by certain factors such as risk factors.

Sociological factors in this context are the factors which propel an individual into criminality which may include poverty, death of loved ones, unemployment, peer influence, unpleasant developmental history, previous history of crime and violence, previous hospitalization and poor treatment obedience. Related past history of violence, such as criminogenic needs (risk factors of criminal behaviour), absence of beneficial social support, and deviant social networks, among others, are also crucial. This proclamation is upheld by Andrew and Bonta (2010) who argue that treatment should put more prominence on criminogenic needs.

The listed factors above play a significant role in one's involvement in crime. To this effect, individuals who are unemployed cannot afford basic things of life such as shelter, are vulnerable to peer influence, and are more likely to engage in criminal activity. Thus, the risk principle of the RNR model posits that delinquents are at a greater risk for reoffending (Tony et al., 2006). Furthermore, risk consists of other acts which lay emphasis on the possibilities of an individual being involved in criminal behaviour, which is a result of the presence of certain factors such as poverty as mentioned above (Andrews, Bonta et al., 1990). Therefore, individuals with such factors constitute a major threat to the existence of peace and stability to the society.

To this effect, adequate measures should be put in place to prevent them from perpetrating crime related offences. If measures are not adequately put in place, individuals will act in a harmful manner (Blackburn, 2009). In a situation where crime has taken place, there should be an analysis of the risk factors with an intention of checking the possibility of future reoccurrence. This can be achieved by inculcating inmates with some sense of discipline. O'Leary and Duffen (1971) affirm that supervisory staff should incorporate programmes and services to tackle dynamic need factors, which is a resource allocation model which considers high risk offenders who need more supervision (intensive supervision) than low-risk-offenders. For the purpose of a better understanding, advocates of the RNR model outline a clear dissimilarity between two types of needs, which include criminogenic and non-criminogenic needs.

Criminogenic needs include aspects of antisocial personality, such as precipitateness, drug-abuse problems, pro-offending attitudes, elevated hostility or aggression, annoyance and criminal colleagues (Andrews & Bonta, 2003). With perceived consequences of the factors, affected individuals may be involved in criminal acts like armed robbery. Correctional centres are expected to serve as reformatory centres to adequately rehabilitate offenders and therapy should match the offenders' needs. For example, in correctional institutions across the globe, rehabilitation programmes should be used to inculcate inmates with some sense of discipline. This will prevent inmates

from staying idle in cells. Gillis (2000) opines that personal, interpersonal, community-reinforcement perspective (PIC-R) offers a theoretical source forecasting and explaining criminal behaviour. The risk and sociological factors mentioned above, which include unemployment, poverty and peer influence, can serve as a means of explaining criminal behaviour. It is predicted that an individual who is unemployed and lives in poverty may be inclined to bad peer groups, and is more likely to engage in criminal behaviour than anyone who does not have this risk and sociological factors.

Psychological risk factors such as loneliness, depression and death of loved ones could also propel an individual into criminality as well as situations like mood state and substance abuse which can indicate the onset of offending. Different risk factors outlined above suggest that certain factors may not be altered, while some can be altered, leading to offending behaviour. For example, bipolar disorder is a mental disorder which has to do with mood state, thus leading to offending. To this effect, mentally ill inmates should be separated from other inmates and treated with more respect and consideration; their stay with other inmates may lead to offending like assault or more serious crimes.

However, Ogloff and Davis (2004) posit that the psychology of criminal conduct perspective (PCC), as outlined by Andrews and Bonta (2003), “provides directions for the assessment of offenders and their classification of treatment” (p. 232). This suggests that the model has served as a guide to correctional institutions in administering therapy for different inmates. It is paramount for correctional centres across the world to adopt these strategies as previous studies have revealed the relevance of administering different therapy for inmates. With regards to rehabilitation of inmates based on their sociological needs, correctional institutions are expected to provide skill development and vocational development programmes to address the risk factors of incarcerated inmates.

Therapy for inmates with sociological needs may not match therapy for inmates with psychological needs. Thus, a mismatch between the needs and the therapy is likely lead to ineffective rehabilitation. Thus, concerned

correctional institutions should assess the inmates' needs before administering any form of therapy in order for it to be effective.

For example, some correctional institutions employ specialists who provide counseling services to inmates with an objective of reformation of attitude and behaviour. This contact helps in re-socializing inmates, thereby helping them in abandoning their bad habits such as drug and substance abuse. Some correctional centres across the globe have Catholic ministries, preaching to recover lost souls. Correctional centre fellowship in this context is usually designed to provide hope, self-esteem and recovery of life for inmates. This is aimed at making inmates focus on God and begin to ask for forgiveness. It also has a pacifying effect on inmates and leads to moral rearmament.

In some correctional centres across the globe, inmates are provided with the services of chaplain of each denomination. Christians and Muslims are allowed to go to church inside the correctional centre to preach. These sessions are conducted to cater for the spiritual well-being of inmates. Pastoral workers are important in the reformation of inmates and are always encouraged. These programmes are capable of and have offered repentance to the inmates with the hope that they will not go back to crime again. This best fit inmates with psychological risk factors. With a proper assessment of inmates' needs, it is unlikely to have a mismatch of therapy or treatment services in line with the inmates' needs.

Moreover, Andrew and Bonta (2003) assert that general personality and social psychological perspective (GPSPP) on criminal conduct successfully accounts for "multiple routes of involvement in illegal conduct" (p. 165). In view of the above proclamation, biological risk factors such as brain injury, brain tumor, and hormonal deficiency may be reasons for involvement in criminal behaviour. In a situation where they are incarcerated, therapy administered to such inmates will be different from inmates with sociological problems. It is as a result of proper assessment of inmates' needs that correctional institutions will come up with therapy which will match their peculiar needs.

Correctional institutions are known to accommodate inmates who are mentally ill either upon admission into the correctional centre or during incarceration as a result of depression and other factors. To address this problem effectively, correctional institutions should employ a qualified psychiatric doctor attached to correctional centres to attend to inmates with mental problems. In some cases, it may require brain surgery or even hormonal balancing to effectively rehabilitate affected inmates.

In conclusion, one factor cannot explain why certain problems of criminality exist. For this reason, there should be multiple solutions to address the causes of criminality. Accordingly, rehabilitative agencies should adopt “multi-causal” and “multi-solutional approach” (Figure 5.3) in the rehabilitating offenders. Therefore, there are multiple risk factors which can lead offenders to succumb to the temptation of criminality. Thus, in the interest of appropriateness in rehabilitation, the agency should apply multiple solutions that are peculiar to predisposing factors to criminality. The model outlined in this research work, therefore reveals that after adequate implementation of therapy on offenders based on their peculiar needs, the end result is having rehabilitated offenders.

5.7 Summary of gaps and need for further research

According to Andrew and Bonta (2010), the RNR model is seen to be a very popular strategy employed in the treatment of offenders, especially in developed countries like the United Kingdom, Australia and Canada. To this effect, this led to the enactment of the RNR principle in a determination of the course of treatment for specific offenders.

The RNR principle has been related to a considerable decrease in recidivism rates, while those interventions that did not abide by the RNR principle had poor outcomes with regards to recidivism rates (Andrews & Dowden, 2005). Therefore, the model has been used in the context of offender rehabilitation in countries like New Zealand (Andrew et al., 2008), Russia, across the European continent, and in Singapore (Chua et al., 2014). The RNR model was also employed in the juvenile justice agencies, hence relating it to risk

assessment measure which simplified the logical appraisal of youth offenders (Chua et al., 2014). Furthermore, the RNR principle has been substantiated to be important in both evaluation and rehabilitation aspects of offender supervision (Chua et al., 2014). In the United States, the RNR model has been used in different contexts such as the Department of Justice and National Institute on Drug abuse as diversion programmes, and therapy programmes in and out of correctional centre (National Institute of Drug Abuse, National Institute of Justice, 2000).

However, an exploration of literature has yet to reveal that the RNR model has been used in other parts of the world, such as a continent like Africa. This study was conducted in Nigeria and the RNR model was used as a theoretical framework. This study is rare in that it examines the impact of rehabilitation programmes, facilities for effective rehabilitation of inmates from the perspective of convicted inmates, correctional centre officials using population-based facts and mixed method approach. Also, the study addresses the scarcity of evidence on the impact of rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian correctional centres. A uniformly pertinent gap that this study addresses is the scarcity of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the effective rehabilitation of inmates. This study also explains why rehabilitation outcomes of convicted inmates in the Nigerian context remain significantly poor due to unpleasant correctional centre social settings except they are improved upon.

In a setting where rehabilitation programmes and facilities are not available or adequate, there is need to address the shortages of the rehabilitation programmes and should be a primary strategy in improving rehabilitation outcomes. Improving rehabilitation programmes and facilities could result to ineffective rehabilitation of inmates. In addition, this study provides objective data on the impact of the present state of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons.

Lastly, this study proposes a framework for understanding incarceration in the context of inmate rehabilitation. The framework explains offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres and provides evidence on

how rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres can lead to important reductions in recidivism amongst inmates, when rehabilitation programmes are consistent with the RNR model. The RNR model has inspired the development of offender risk assessment and offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres. Therefore, the findings of this study are an important tool for revising rehabilitation policies and strategies in the NPS in order to maximize the use of rehabilitation programmes and repeatedly improve rehabilitation outcomes.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the review of some the foremost theoretical perspectives of offender rehabilitation. The development or origin, basic assumptions, key proponents, its applicability in different contexts, relevance of the theory, as well as strength and weaknesses the model were reviewed. As identified comprehensive in this theory review, no theory can provide sufficient explanation with regards to offender rehabilitation, although the RNR model was employed for the explanation of offender rehabilitation. One major gap identified in this study is that the RNR model was only applied in developed countries like the United Kingdom and Canada. This suggests that its universality doubtful. Hence, the model should be put into use across the globe and not in few countries alone.

With regards to the sufficiency of the model, the RNR as a model of offender rehabilitation has recorded some achievements. Its application by correctional services cutting across the globe has helped towards a decrease in recidivism rates. RNR as a model is among the premiere rehabilitation models used worldwide today and the model has a remarkable research record to its credit. In spite of the contribution and significance of the model, it has been criticized by scholars due to the fact that it failed to address certain key issues. A notable criticism, as suggested by current literatures, suggests that there is a need for a the model to take into consideration with specific regards to the treatment alliance and the needs of offender rehabilitation which may include factors like prior trauma, mental health and mental disorders.

An additional source of criticism of the RNR model was that it failed to explain how divergent risk factors work together to upsurge a criminal's risk of offending. Furthermore, the model was criticized for limiting its scope to the rate of reduced recidivism. Another source of criticism leveled against RNR was the doubt of its potential to provide correctional workers with the direction they will need in the complicated process of assisting individuals turn their lives around.

Most empirical studies and meta-analyses conducted were based on sexual offenders, though it revealed that the model was useful with regards to reducing an offender's risk of sexual recidivism, still it was a source of concern as the model narrowed its scope to reducing rates of recidivism. Despite the shortcomings of the RNR model as discussed in this chapter, the model remains significant in this research work and remains the reason why it was selected as a model for theoretical framework. This chapter explored literature on the Risk need responsivity model which served as a theoretical framework for the study. Thus, the next chapter dwells on research methodology employed in the course of this study by the researcher

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with research methods, research paradigm, research design, research domain and justification of choice. It delves further with discussing the study population, the sampling technique, sample, the method of data collection, in-depth interviews(IDI), questionnaires, data capturing and data transcription. It also includes method of data analysis, research method linked in the research questions, the trustworthiness of the study, transferability, dependability, comformability and ethical consideration.

6.2 Research methodology

Methodology is a combined phrase used to elucidate an organized procedure of conducting a research (Creswell, 2009). In other words, research methodology can also be defined as a process or procedure in which a researcher will execute a research project. Furthermore, research approaches are strategic and the process for the research that spans the steps from comprehensive expectations to a thorough technique of data collection, analysis and explanation (Creswell, 2014). Similarly, De Vos et al.(2011) are of the view that research methodology denotes three imperative features of research which include data analysis, data gathering and research design.

6.2.1 Research approach

Wilson (2010) defines inductive approach as a procedure of developing a theory which normally begins with an observation of specific incidents, a pattern which is under a study with an objective of creating a comprehensive explanation or clarification. Hence, it involves specific examinations concerning the research questions on the basis of which novel theories are established. However, deductive approach involves the use of reputable

theories or the invention of novel theory with an objective to examine them against novel evidence. Furthermore, “deduction approach deals with scientific principles, quantitative data collection of data with a structured approach, with large number of sample size to generalize the findings and conclusion” (Hussain, 2016, p.14). While the inductive approach presents biased comprehension made by humans concerning precise thought or even occurrence, the inductive approach takes care of more precise observation and knowledge with regards to individuals or situations to develop overall clarifications (Wilson, 2010).

6.2.3 Research paradigm

Research paradigm as a set of fundamental suppositions and beliefs on how the world is observed (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Collins, 2010). Further, research paradigm involves how a principal investigator or researcher proposes to carry out the study and collect data which requires understanding the phenomena under study (Creswell, 2009). Similarly, De Vos et al. (2011) state that research paradigm is a structure of clarification which is guided by a set of beliefs. In the context of this study, research paradigm means the way in which Nigerian correctional centres can be observed, hence probing into rehabilitation potential and correctional centre general setting.

6.2.4 Research design

Research design is a typology of review within qualitative and quantitative, mixed methods, and procedures which provide an exact guide for procedures in a research design (Creswell, 2014). Others refer to it as strategies of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). According to De Vos et al. (2011), research design is a strategy which largely comprises of each aspect of an intended research study. The aspects of the research study begin from the conceptualization of the research problem cutting across to the dissemination of findings. Therefore, all research needs a research design which can alter the precise needs of the problem undergoing research (Bless, Smith, & Kagee, 2006). This study was based on a sample survey that will utilize both questionnaires and in-depth interviews with respondents. In this context,

questionnaires were administered to convicted inmates and correctional centre officials in both Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons, and in-depth interviews were conducted with correctional centre officers and personnel in both correctional centres.

Qualitative research design aspires to bestow a scheme for the examination of human knowledge from the viewpoint of those who come across them (Bless et al., 2006). Moreover, explanatory research takes place when the researcher intends to achieve a detailed understanding about certain circumstances, occurrence, and likewise community or the individual (De Vos et al., 2011). Qualitative research is a method for exploring and grasping the meaning persons or groups of persons attribute to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2014). According to Creswell (2014), this kind of research normally involves questions and techniques, data normally collated in the participant setting, data examination and exploration and interpretations by a researcher. Quantitative research is a method for assessing objective theories by observing the connection between variables.

Therefore, this study selected an interpretive paradigm with the intention to have an insider's perspective on rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potentials of the NPS. The justification for this approach in this study was to deal with and describe the perceptions of inmates and correctional centre officials about rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potentials of the NPS. Thus, a qualitative approach in this context is suitable to attain the perceptions of respondents on rehabilitation potentials of NPS. Therefore, this study makes use of descriptive and explanatory research. Babbie (2010) states that the foremost aim of a descriptive research is to explain the situation and events. The researcher noticed and then explain what was perceived with the objective of identifying respondents' perceptions of the rehabilitation potentials in the NPS.

The researcher triangulated the two methods employed in this study, which were quantitative and qualitative methods. The reason for this is that with a view of the fact that all methods have flaws, the collection of both quantitative and qualitative methods will counteract the flaws of each form of data

collection. The study selected the convergent parallel mixed method, a procedure of mixed methods design in which the researcher converges or merges quantitative or qualitative data in order to present a thorough examination of the research problem (Creswell, 2013). Both the quantitative and qualitative data collection was conducted concurrently and then incorporated in the explanation of the results. Table 6.1 places the research questions in line with the research methods as an effort to explain the validity and reliability of the methods and subsequent empirical data.

This variable may be measured with instruments to enable the numbered data to be examined successfully using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014). Mixed method involves a combination of both quantitative and qualitative, incorporating both forms of data, and also using diverse designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretic frameworks (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, De Vos et al. (2011) contend that explanatory research is habitually used when there is an absence of essential information or a divergent area of interest.

The survey population consisted of correctional centre officials and inmates, who were convicted of different acts that violate societal norms and values, in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. Also 28 correctional centre officials were selected purposefully across the two correctional centres to be interviewed. Thus, a total of 28 in-depth interviews were conducted in the study area. The findings of this study were analyzed with the assistance of computer applications such as SPSS and Atlas.ti.6 This study will be mainly descriptive aimed at eliciting information on the inmates' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons in North West part of Nigeria.

Table 6.1: Research methods linked to the research questions and justifications

Research Questions	Data Sources and Methods	Justification
How do inmates perceive rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons?	The survey questionnaire was administered to 250 inmates to elicit information about their perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities.	Survey was preferred because it provides opportunity to reach a large number of inmates. Survey provides factual data that allows for generalization.
What are the perceptions of correctional officials on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron –Dutse prisons?	The survey questionnaire was administered to 207 correctional officials and 28 In-depth or personal interviews were conducted with correctional officials.	Survey was preferred because it provides opportunity to reach a large number of inmates. Survey provides factual data that allows for generalization. In addition, the in-depth or personal interviews allow for in-depth probing of officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes. Overall, the triangulation of both survey and in-depth or personal interviews allows for cross-checking the findings produced by each method.
Are there convergence and divergence in the inmates and prison officials' perception on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons?	Data generated through 250 questionnaires administered to inmates and 207 questionnaire administered to prison officials as well as in-depth or personal interviews were examined.	The use of mixed methods for data collection enabled the research to have in-depth understanding of the convergence and divergence in the inmates and correctional officials' perception on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons and also why there is such convergence and divergence.

6.2.5 Types of investigation

There are different kinds of research investigation, which include exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research. Descriptive investigation aids a researcher to obtain additional information on issues which were researched in the past and later debated in a thorough method (Flick, 2015). This kind of investigation brings about a novel viewpoint on present or current information. The exploratory research evaluates present information in a novel setting with a novel problem or theory (Collins, 2015). With regards to descriptive, it is seen not to probe into a novel dimension, instead it is known to appraise that not previously defined. Thus, explanatory research's aspiration is to examine an existing occurrence to find patterns and come up with pertinent explanations for it.

With specific reference to this study, explanatory research is most appropriate for the research problem. It is seen to be relevant because the objective of this research is to empirically probe into rehabilitation potentials of correctional centres in North Western part of Nigeria. Against this background, explanatory research helps to understand the NPS after an exploration of existing literature.

6.2.6 Research strategy

According to Singh and Nath (2007), research strategy is an overall strategy for resolving a problem or having an overview to research questions. Thus, this involves stating structures and processes or understand and achieve objectives of the research. Hence, it is clear that the research strategy aids the suitable collection of data which is in cognizance with the research aim in order to obtain significant findings from the data. However, Collins (2010, p.41) clarifies that content analysis, case study, action and research survey are strategies employed in a research. However, this research on inmate incarceration and rehabilitation, a cross sectional study of rehabilitation programmes and facilities, employed research in the course of this study.

6.2.7 Research domain and justification of choice

Cresswell (2009) proclaims that a domain is a location where within reach persons are inclined to give information about an occurrence being studied are found. In view of the above definition, it is well understood that domain is also a place where research is conducted where individuals are willing to serve as respondents to the study. The research domain with regards to this study was Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons, North West, Nigeria. The reason for choosing Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons is their proximity to the researcher. Additionally, Kano Central Prison piqued the researcher's interest as it had many cases of incarceration due to violation of criminal law. This facilitated an easy collation of both quantitative and qualitative data.

6.3 Study population

By definition, population is a collection of a unit in which all dimensions of concern to the investigator and researcher is presented and generalized (De Vos et al., 2011; Merterns, 2003; Bowling, 2009). For the purpose of this study, the population is the inmates and correctional centre officials in the correctional centres under study where data will be collected and analyzed. Kano Central Prison, a maximum security correctional centre, was originally situated in Hausawa quarters in Kano metropolitan but was later relocated to its present location by the then Emir in 1910. Goron Dutse Prison was built in 1928 due to congestion in Kano Central Prison. Thus, it served as an annex to Kano Central. According to the Nigeria Prison Service Report of 2016, the correctional centre accommodates 1912 inmates and 232 correctional centre officials. The same report reveals that Goron Dutse Prison accommodates 1576 inmates and 217 correctional centre officials. Out of this number, the target groups for the study include officers and men of the NPS trained specially in vocational programmes for convicted inmates.

6.3.1 Sampling design

In every research conducted, the sample is usually a fraction of the entire population of the study area. According to Mitchell and Jolley (2009), a

representative sample is a diminutive image of the population which is normally under study. The Nigeria Service Report (2015) reveals that Kano Central Prison accommodates 1912 inmates and 232 correctional centre officials, while Goron Dutse Prison accommodates 1576, inmates and 217 prison officials. Therefore, a total of 250 inmates were respondents drawn as a total population sample for this research.

The total population of the respondents is 3488 inmates in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. Structured questionnaires were administered to 250 inmates. Only inmates that were already convicted were eligible to take part in the study. Inmates awaiting trials were excluded. A sample size of 250 was determined using the sample size calculator ([MaCorr Research, 2017](#)) at a confidence level of 95% and confidence interval of $\pm 5.97\%$ out of a population of 3488. Data for this study was generated from 250 respondents. Out of 250 respondents, questionnaires were administered to 140 inmates in Kano Central Prison and 110 questionnaires were administered to inmates in Goron Dutse Prison. The number of respondents in Kano central Prison is higher than that of Goron-Dutse Prison due to disparity in population. This sample selection was done using purposive sampling procedures. The sample comprised both male and female inmates in Kano Central and Goron Dutse prisons. The inmates' duration of stay in correctional centre was also used as criteria for selection of inmates as respondents.

Also, 207 questionnaires were administered to correctional centre officials in both correctional centres. A sample size of 207 was determined using the sample size calculator ([MaCorr Research, 2017](#)) at a confidence interval of ± 5 , confidence level of 95% and population of 449 correctional centre officials. Out of the 207 respondents, questionnaires were administered to 107 correctional centre officials in Kano Central Prison and 100 questionnaires were administered to correctional centre officials in Goron-Dutse Prison. The number of respondents in Kano Central Prison is higher than that of Goron-Dutse Prison due to disparity in population. The selection was done using purposive sampling procedures. Rank involvement was also used as criteria for selection of correctional centre officials as respondents. Furthermore, 28

correctional centre officials were purposely sampled in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons for in-depth interviews.

Purposive sampling is a procedure generally and commonly employed in qualitative research for the recognition and classification of information or knowledge rich cases for the best efficient use of means or resources (Patton, 2002). This includes classifying and choosing persons or groups of persons that are exceptionally well-informed about or proficient with an occurrence of concern (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Similarly, Bernard (2002) and Spradley (1979) note the significance of availability and readiness to partake, and the aptitude to correspond incidence and views in an eloquent, indicative and thoughtful manner. Thus, 14 correctional centre officials from Kano Central Prison were selected using purposive sampling to serve as respondents, and 14 correctional centre officials were selected from Goron Dutse prison. Stratification was employed here based on sex, years of service, rank and participation in vocational and rehabilitation programmes chaplain services which helped inmates in character moulding. In- depth interviews were conducted with 28 respondents, comprising of:

1. Twenty correctional centre officers, ten each in Kano Central and in Goron Dutse prisons;
2. Six rank and file personnels, three each in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons;and
3. Two chaplains, one each in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons.

6.3.2 Sampling techniques

In research there are basically two sampling methods: probability and non-probability sampling methods. The probability sampling method is used with an objective of generalizing the results to a comprehensive populace, while in non-probability sampling the principal investigator does not know the population size or the members of the wider population (De Vos et al., 2011, p.36). However, De Vos et al. (2011) contend that purposive sampling is usually called mental judging. Units are carefully chosen because of the familiar characteristics the sample has under investigation (Bless et al., 2006).

Purposive sampling was employed for this study, which focuses on a particular group of convicted inmates and correctional centre officials in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons respectively. Thus, this kind of sampling method is judgemental which may be due to the fact that it has discretion in deciding information rich cases for in-depth analysis associated to the central issues being investigated or studied. In every research, constituents are carefully chosen due to common characteristics the sample has under investigation (Bless et al., 2006).

Moreover, training received on the rehabilitation programmes like vocational training for officers in the correctional centre and length of service was used as the basis for selecting correctional centre warders and senior officers as respondents. Furthermore, chaplains from both correctional centres were equally selected purposefully to represent the two dominant groups. The selection of both religious leaders is because of the role they play in enlightening and preaching to inmates on the importance of abstaining from crime related acts, which helps inmates from abstaining from further crime. This may prevent reincarceration (recidivist person). Questionnaires and in-depth interviews were used as a means to collect data and criteria to be selected as a respondent included:

1. Convicted inmates and correctional centre officials involved in rehabilitation programmes in Kano Central and Goron -Dutse prisons respectively.
2. Chaplains whose responsibility is to have sermon sessions with inmates in Kano Central and Goron- Dutse prisons. They provide both the physical and spiritual well being of inmates through individual and group counseling for reformation, change of attitude and behaviour. There are Pastoral and Catholic Ministries in correctional centres, preaching to recover lost souls. The correctional centre fellowship of Nigeria usually designs an "onesimus" project, which is done to give hope, self-esteem and recovery of life for inmates and ex-inmates. The same is done by the Muslim Association, which has Tafsir (preaching), Tawheed, and Hadith sessions with inmates to help with counseling.

This is aimed at shifting inmates' focus on God and begin to ask for forgiveness. It also has a pacifying effect on inmates and leads to moral rearmament. The law of Nigeria provides for the services of chaplain of each denomination. Just as Christians are allowed to go to church inside the correctional centre to preach, so are Muslims allowed to preach to their members there. These sessions are conducted to cater for the spiritual wellbeing of inmates. Pastoral works are imperative in the reformation of inmates and are always encouraged. These programmes are capable of and have offered repentance sessions for the inmates with the hope that they will not return to crime. While in correctional centre, it helps them relax their mind.

3. Training received, involvement in vocational programmes, and length of service were used as the basis for selecting correctional centre officers and personnels as respondents.

6.4 Method of data collection

An interview is a collection procedure in qualitative research. To this effect, De Vos et al.(2011) point out that research obtains information normally through a direct interchange with a person or even a group of persons which are recognized or probable to process the knowledge. Data for the research were obtained from two main sources: primary and secondary sources (Myers, Well, & Lorch, 2010). Primary data are novel and from primary sources which also adds something novel to present literature, while secondary data are information that are already in existence (Battaglia, 2010, p.31). Questionnaires, in- depth or personal interviews, official correctional centre records and relevant library materials were used to generate primary data. This research relied on in-depth or personal interviews, which was semi-structured. Moreover questionnaires that were used for this study were used to generate the qualitative data for the purposes of this study.

6.4.1 In-depth or personal interviews

By definition, interview is a strategy to collate data during academic research. In view of this, De Vos et al. (2011) posit that structured interviews are

prepared or prearranged around areas of specific or precise concern or interest, while still permitting substantial, significant flexibility in scope and depth. The research instrument employed in the course of this study was interview guide. In-depth interview (IDI) or Personal interview (PI) guide is a strategy of collating data through a face- to- face interaction between the researcher and the respondent (interviewee) discussing precise topics in-depth. Thus, an in-depth interview is a discussion with an intention (Henrik, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011).

The face-to-face strategy of data collection permitted the researcher to conduct face-to-face interviews with correctional centre officials. The researcher visited correctional centre officials in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. There were no problems as respondents were conversant with such research, so responding to the questions on the stated research were well answered. In view of the above, the cardinal objective of the research was to empirically probe into rehabilitation potentials of NPS with specific reference to Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons.

The researcher showed ethical clearance to the respondents and collation of data commenced through the use of hand-written notes as the researcher was not permitted to record the correctional centre officials' interviews. The correctional centre officials were asked about their rank, designated correctional centre, capacity of correctional centre rehabilitation strategies for inmates, and counseling sessions with inmates done by chaplains in both correctional centres. After collation of data, interviews were transcribed and analyzed immediately to avoid forgetting and damage to electronic device as sometimes wrong formatting can lead to loss of collated data. .

6.4.2 Key informant interviews

With the purpose of having a good comprehension of rehabilitation potentials of some correctional centres in North Western Nigeria, where data was collated, key informant interviews (KII) were conducted as a strategy for data collection. KII entails cross-examining certain individuals on a specific subject matter (Kumar, 1989). Two significant characteristics of KIIs differentiate them

from other strategies of collating data and therefore require more considerations. To ensure this, not many individuals are interviewed. It is pertinent to select few members for an interview session because it is believed they have knowledge, which can be requested by the researcher. In this regard, a key informant is an individual who is knowledgeable in the social occurrence under examination and is prepared to share the information with the researcher. Thus, in this study the key informants were correctional centre officials who were selected because of their privileged perspectives and knowledge on rehabilitation potentials in the NPS with specific reference to two correctional centres in North Western Nigeria. Key informants were selected using a stratified sampling method. Secondly, KIs essentially are qualitative interviews (Kumar, 1989). KIs are usually conducted with the aid of interview guide that itemize themes or questions expected to be discussed during the interview. Here, the investigator structures the definite questions on the progress of the interviews. The environment during interview sessions is informal, reminiscent of discussion among relations or associates. According to Kumar (1989), obviously the unstructured feature of the interviews is what provides them with significance in the current conversation (Kumar, 1989).

Notably, there was a need for a careful selection of key informants in this study, which is normally done by the convenience sampling technique (Marshall, 1996). This study used correctional center officers and personnels as key informants, constituting 28 KIs, with 14 each in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons respectively. The two correctional centres were visited. All KIs were done with research assistants who were responsible for taking notes as the researcher was not allowed to use a tape recorder. The KIs shed light on rehabilitation potentials of correctional centres in North Western Nigeria. Every interview was between 10-15mins. Hence, the researcher deduced that there was disparity and contradicting answers and perceptions to questions which happens to be objective three of this research, which is to find convergence and divergence on issues and rehabilitation potentials of Nigerian correctional centres.

Thus, KIs were utilised to cross-authenticate the answers from correctional centre officers and personnel on rehabilitation potential of Nigerian correctional centres in North Western Nigeria. The interviews that were conducted produced valuable data on rehabilitation programmes, facilities, correctional centre general setting and practices, as well rehabilitation programmes potential and some problems of the NPS.

6.4.3 Questionnaire survey

Quantitative research is a method for testing the actual theories by examining the correlation among variables (Creswell, 2014). The variables, in turn, could be measured, typically on instruments or devices, so that numbered information or statistics can be examined with the aid of statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014). Thus, this research work employed the use of quantitative method in the course of this study, with data collected by the administration of questionnaires to selected respondents. The researcher administered questionnaires to inmates in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons respectively. This implies that data was gathered by use of open and close-ended questions on the questionnaires. Correctional centre administration permitted the researcher to administer the research instruments on inmates and correctional centre officials in the above correctional centres. This was done by the researcher visiting both correctional centres during working hours as inmates and correctional centre officials will only serve as respondents during the stipulated time.

The researcher explained to the respondents that the study was purely academic and any information will be treated with utmost confidentiality. In view of the above, both groups of respondents, that is inmates and correctional centre officials answered the questions as stated in the research instrument. Thus, the researcher spent several hours and days to ensure that inmates were ready to serve as respondents to this study. Respondents were asked questions about their experiences during incarceration and rehabilitation potentials as well as correctional centre social setting and general practices of the NPS.

Research instruments were distributed and any inmates and correctional centre officials who were not clear with questions were provided with further explanations, thus making the respondents understand what the question meant. More challenges were faced with inmates as some of them could only speak local languages (Hausa and Fulfulde). While the researcher was not very fluent in either language, he was still able to communicate with inmates, but it took more time. Questionnaires were retrieved from inmates and correctional centre officials in both correctional centres. Some questionnaires were not returned, but the majority of the figure distributed were retrieved. In all academic research, it is difficult to retrieve all administered questionnaires. After retrieving the questionnaires, data was collated using inferential statistics with the use of Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.

6.4.5 Reliability of instruments

Reliability is the quality of measurement method which puts forward that similar data ought to be collected each time in repetitive observation of the similar experience (Babbie, 2007). Hence, reliability can also be defined as competence of an instrument to assess or quantify reliably. Furthermore, Tavakol and Dennick (2011) agree that the reliability of a device is carefully connected to its validity because a device is likely not to be acceptable except it is reliable. Thus, an instrument in some context could be reliable but may not necessarily be valid. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is generally used in social science research and penology research to test reliability of an instrument. Therefore, alpha was developed by Cronbach to present a measure of the inner reliability of a test (Bland & Altman, 1997). Internal consistency explains the level of which all the elements in a test measure the similar idea, thus it is associated with the inter-relatedness of the items within a test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). This is usually stated as a number between 0 and 1. Different reports have emerged in respect of the most satisfactory value of alpha, thus the closer the Cronbach alpha is to 1.0, the more the internal consistency of the items in the scale (Gliem & Gliem,

2003). Moreover, it appears to be unanimity that an alpha score of 7 to 9 is acceptable (Bland & Altman, 1997).

Gliem and Gliem (2003) make a case that a particular term question refers to a construct which is not dependable and in this should not be used in reaching a conclusion. To ensure avoidance of this kind of common error, 49-item questions were drawn for inmates and 25-item questions for correctional centre officials related to rehabilitation programmes and facilities on a Nigerian correctional centre. Thus, Cronbach's alpha test was carried out on these 45 items to make sure the measure was reliable. The result produced an alpha score of 0.62 on the 49 items measure on the questions related to rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Nigerian correctional centres. Other questions in the instrument were pre-tested and also pre-authenticated by the researcher.

6.4.6 Validation of instruments

Validity precisely measures the concept it envisaged or planned to measure (Babbie, 2007). It appears there is unanimity that the validity of a measure is comparative, as such, face validity, criterion validity, content validity, internal validation, external validation and construct validity are prevalent strategies in ensuring the validity of instruments in academic research (Babbie, 2007; Creswell, 2013). Hence, the researcher in this study made sure that the questions in the instrument had face validity.

Furthermore, Babbie (2007) opines that criterion related validity is an extent to which a measure is associated to peripheral criterion. Babbie's (2007) definition can also be referred to as predictive validity, which is also based on external criteria. Thus, this study ensured that the questions were sets intended to highlight the rehabilitation potential of Nigerian correctional centres. The review of the literature and theoretical perception aided criterion validity in this study. Variables were involved on perceptions from the literature and theoretical framework. Moreover, the researcher ensured construct validity in this study, which was done by making sure that there are at least some theoretical connections among the variables in the study, thus

construct validity is based on the rational connection among variables (Babbie, 2007).

The concept of this study originated from the theoretical postulations in Chapter 5 of this thesis. Content validity is the extent to which a measure deals with the variety of meanings encompassed in a concept (Babbie, 2007). Thus, the researcher ensured the content validity in this study by making use of all dimensions in the construct. For example, the construct of Nigerian correctional centres is not limited to overall supposition of rehabilitation potentials, but it delves further into the provision of adequate rehabilitation programmes and facilities and remuneration of staff among others. Thus, methods of validation of instrument were adopted by the researcher in this study.

6.4.7 Data capturing

The researcher wrote down the answers from the respondents (correctional officials), because correctional officials turned down the researcher's request of recording their individual voices. This happened in both Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons respectively. Also, questionnaires were administered to inmates and correctional officials in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. The data collated were analyzed using SPSS version 22.

6.4.8 Data transcription

After both qualitative and quantitative sessions, data transcription ensued. For qualitative data, there was need to transcribe data immediately because the researcher may fail to recall certain information obtained during interview sessions. Tremendous stress was experienced as the researcher had to conduct several in-depth interviews, most of them written down verbatim while some were deductions from the in-depth interview. For quantitative data, questionnaires were administered to convicted inmates and correctional centre officials to empirically probe into the rehabilitation potentials of the NPS, with specific reference to Kano Central and Goron Dutse prisons.

6.5 Method of data analysis

Data analysis is a procedure of bringing order, structure and also meaning of the mass collected data (De Vos et al., 2011). Furthermore, qualitative analysis alters data into findings through the process of data analysis, which may depend on the typology of research used and the data itself (Bless et al., 2006). The method of data analysis for this study was based on a comparison between Kano Central and Goron Dutse prisons. This comparison was based on whether or not the correctional centres are identical or standing poles apart with regards to the rehabilitation potential for inmates (rehabilitation programmes) and the conventional state of the correctional centres.

6.5.1 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data analysis is *“the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect”* (Ajayi, 2017,p.134). Thus, quantitative data analysis is believed to be laborious and requires some understanding of statistics. The researcher had some knowledge on population, hence it was used in collating data for this study. Data analysis for this study involved three stages. The first stage included giving codes the responses obtained through the questionnaires given to 250 inmates and 207 correctional centre officials, making a total of 457 respondents. The coded data were then captured using SPSS version 22. In the second stage, simple frequencies of all variables were computed. The results obtained were checked for possible errors that might have occurred during data capturing. Observed errors were corrected by referring to the questionnaires.

A simple descriptive statistics were then used to summarize the participants' responses. Results were presented using tables and chart. The third stage of analysis of data involved the use of bivariate analysis (Chi-square test) to investigate association between inmates' and correctional officials' perception of rehabilitation programmes and facilities. To test the study hypotheses, (H₀ there is no statistical significant difference in inmates perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano

Central and Goron Dutse Prisons), (H0 There is no statistical significant difference in correctional officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano Central and Goron Dutse Prisons). The Pearson Chi-Square statistics was employed and a p.vlaue less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

6.5.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data were transcribed from the conducted interview sessions. All in-depth interviews were written down verbatim while some were deductions from the in-depth interviews. To ensure this, firstly, key informants need to be classified and this study used correctional centre officers and personnels as key informants. There were 28 in-depth or personal interviews, with 14 each in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons respectively. The two correctional centres were visited. All in-depth or personal interviews were done with the assistance of research assistants who were responsible for taking notes as the researcher was not allowed to use a tape recorder. The interview session sheds light on rehabilitation potential of correctional centres in North Western Nigeria. Each interview was between 10-15mins. Hence, the researcher deduced that there was disparity and contradicting answers and perceptions to questions, which happens to be objective three of this research, which is to find convergence and divergence on issues and rehabilitation potential of Nigerian correctional centres.

Thus, the purpose of in-depth or personal interviews was to cross-authenticate the answers from correctional centre officers and personnel on rehabilitation potentials of Nigerian correctional centres in North Western Nigeria. The interviews that were conducted were produced valuable data on rehabilitation programmes, facilities, correctional centre general setting and practices, as well as rehabilitation programmes potential and some problems of the NPS.

6.6 Trustworthiness of the study

Credibility in every research is recognized while the research commences (De Vos et al., 2011). Thus, credibility could be best described as a substitute to internal validity with the cardinal objective to explain that the investigation is supervised or conducted in a way to certify that the subject was correctly identified and illustrated. In this study, credibility was ensured through mixed method. According to Creswell (2014), “mixed methods research resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches” (p. 1). Further, mixed research is a method to investigate or review involving the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, incorporating the two forms of data, and using separate designs that may include logical expectation and theoretical frameworks. Thus, the essential postulation of this kind of inquiry is that the mishmash of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more fulfilled understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Creswell, 2014).

However, to ensure a high degree of the qualitative data of this study, Guba’s (1981) criteria was followed. Guba’s (1981) constructs include credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Following these constructs deemed the study trustworthy. With route-planning of distinct data sources of information, the proof was studied from the sources and was used to develop a consistent justification of ideas. Ideas were based on putting together from numerous sources of data from the participants in IDIs. Here, related background of the results was provided to elucidate partiality. The researcher made sure respondents’ voices were echoed in results presentation, and altogether perceptions, even the ones which were dissimilar, were all forwarded and reported. For the purpose of a good understanding, several weeks were spent with an objective to develop a detailed comprehension of the ideas under study.

The researcher also used an external auditor with the objective of scrutinizing and substantiating the study’s results for greater accuracy. In addition to the previous precautionary step that was taken, an expert in the area of

qualitative method was also used to peer-review the study with the purpose of providing an unbiased evaluation to assist in the vindicating of the instruments. An examination gave as much as likely contextual background to the participants' responses in respect of the ideas under discussion in order to direct the transferability of the study results. However, dependability signifies steadiness or reliability, thus all the procedures were well recorded in a manner that can be followed again or by others. Transcripts were well vetted to ensure that there were no errors when transcriptions were carried out. In addition, the researcher ensured the elimination of drift in the process of definition of codes.

Hence, it is imperative to emphasize that to ensure reliability in an academic research is always an unnerving assignment in qualitative studies. Thus, based on the techniques that were used to generate results for this research, if conducted again, it is likely to generate similar results, although may not be exact or completely identical. According to Shenton (2004:), confirmability is interconnected with objectivity. Even though positivists in general believe qualitative research is deficient in objectivity, intensive attempts were put in place to lessen prejudice or partiality entirely from this research work. Conclusively, all forms of prejudice were eliminated by the researcher about the ideas which were under examination and more often than not abridged the respondents' answers to determine if the explanations were a correct expressions of their individual knowledge.

6.6.1 Transferability

Transferability is an outward validity or an overview in which the inconveniences of signifying the suitability of one collection of findings to an additional context lie more with the researcher who would make transference and transmission than the initial investigator (De Vos et al., 2011). Furthermore, Cresswell (2011) asserts that transferability can be attained when the outcome or discovery is suitable for the context outside the study situation and when its listeners view the outcome as significant and appropriate in terms of their own experience. With regards to this research work, transferability was ensured which was done by producing

comprehensive and valuable explanations of backgrounds, with the purpose of giving readers a comprehensive report and a description of the structure of meaning which developed in a particular context. Thus, the understanding in this situation can be transmitted into other backgrounds in subsequent studies, even though it is unlikely for it to be comprehensive which may be due to the restricted figure of respondents or participants who were involved in the study.

6.6.2 Dependability

Dependability is the extent to which a reader can be successfully influenced or persuaded that the discoveries and the outcomes did certainly occur as the researcher asserts they did (Thyer, 2010). With regards to this study, dependability was achieved through a rich and thorough explanation of the data technique and the selection, collection or choice (Taylor, 2011). Thus, it was paramount for the researcher to make available a statement of techniques used to gather and examine data as well as footage or recordings of unprocessed data.

6.6.3 Comformability

Construct of comformability summarizes the traditional idea of neutrality and fairness (De Vos et al., 2011). This tries to ascertain if the revelations of the study could be established by other comparable studies or if the data helps to verify the overall findings and lead to the implication.

6.7 Ethical considerations

Before conducting a research, there is a need for the researcher to foresee the ethical issues which are likely to arise in the process of their study (Siebre, 1998). Saunders, Lewis, and Thomhill (2009) state that several ethical matters may be experienced by researchers at various stages of their research. Therefore, it is pertinent that the researcher knows the importance of quality research. The researcher is expected to decide the nature of documents which may be secondary or qualitative. Thus, research involves assembling data from people, about people (Punch, 2005). In view of this, it

becomes paramount for the researcher to protect respondents who will form part of the study. The researcher also needs to establish trust between them, promote truthfulness of the research, protect them against bad behaviour and indecency that might indicate on their institutions or organizations, and handle new problems (Israel & Hay, 2006).

Ethical questions are obvious today in such issues as individual revelation, validity and reliability of the research report; the function of researchers in cross-cultural context, and subject of individual concealment though forms of Internet data collection. For the purpose of this research, ethical clearance was requested from the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethical Committee (REC) who then issued a certificate. The proposed research received a favourable ethics opinion from the University's Survey Ethics and Quality Committee.

Permission to access the inmates in Kano Central and Goron- Dutse prisons was obtained from the Controller General of the NPS. The Controller General of the NPS instructed the Assistant Controller General of NPS (Administration) to write an approval letter to the researcher to embark on a research trip to Kano Central and Goron- Dutse prisons for the purpose of data collection. Obtaining an approval for this study faced many impediments as it took over 30 working days to secure an approval from the Controller General of the NPS in Abuja. The researcher tried to get an approval from the Kano State Command of NPS, but after several attempts proved abortive and did not yield the desired result. Therefore, submitting an application to the National Headquarters was the only option left.

The several impediments in obtaining approval to conduct the study may be blamed on security reasons. Kano Central prison accommodates several categories of inmates such as murderers, members of the dreaded Islamic sect Boko Haram, which is now a thorn in the flesh of the Nigerian government, and also custody of some members of another Islamic group Shiite, and inmates on death row. In this study, the researcher ensured anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent of the participants in the following ways:

- Not to put their names on any of the pages of the questionnaire or put any marks that might identify them;
- That their participation in the research was voluntary. Return duly completed questionnaires to the researcher;
- That a respondent should not discuss their response with other inmates during the questionnaire submission; and
- The researcher requests that inmates should be kept in a safe place during the administration of questionnaires, accompanied by armed correctional centre officials. Because inmates are vulnerable to emotional trauma, the researcher will seek the assistance of correctional centre officials to handle the problem.

In line with the above, no respondent was hurt in the process of data collection. Hadwick and Worsley (2011) refer to this harm as psychological distress rather than physical distress. In view of this, inmates in both correctional centres will be treated with a sense of respect. Thus, Corey and Corey (2011) posit that a researcher should ensure protection of respondents against harm.

6.8 Some challenges encountered during the fieldwork and methods adopted to mitigate the effects

Conducting research in Nigeria correctional centres, especially North Western Nigeria, which has been bedeviled with insurgency and terrorist attacks, will certainly experience challenges. This may not be unconnected with the incarceration of some suspected members of Boko Haram and Shiate in some correctional centres in North Western Nigeria, who have led to breach of peace. Prior to this, the problem of language was discussed as some inmates in both correctional centres only spoke two local languages: Hausa and Fulfulde. Although the researcher can speak acceptable Hausa, for Fulfulde, the researcher could not speak at all. Researcher assistants assisted in this context. Hence, the researcher ensured that inmates were assisted in filling the questionnaires for the fact that some of them couldn't read or write English. Having envisaged some of these problems and with the

researcher's familiarity of the area, research assistants who could fluently speak Hausa and Fulfulde were recruited and trained to assist the inmates to fill in the questionnaires in English. Thus, this facilitated the easy collection of data.

Secondly, the researcher was allowed to have contact with inmates and correctional centre officials only between 11am to 3pm, thus there was limited time to conduct the research on a daily basis. Hence, the researcher had to visit the correctional centres daily to ensure adequate collection of data. Thirdly, shift duty of correctional centre officials in both correctional centres was also one of the major challenges of this research. The researcher had conducted in-depth interviews with all correctional centre officials who were in the afternoon shift, hence the researcher had to wait for some days to meet another batch of officials on the afternoon shift. This was done to ensure obtaining divergent perceptions on rehabilitation potential of the correctional centres. It was not necessary to interview more officials as it was noticed by the researcher that the answers of the respondents were more similar than dissimilar, although there were some contradictory statements.

Thus, the researcher used Goba's law of saturation to end interview sessions. Furthermore, recruitment and sustenance of recruiting participants remains a challenge in virtually all academic research. Research assistants were resident in Dutse in Jigawa State which is about 120kms away from Kano State which was the study area. Research assistants were transported to and from Dutse as they had requested not to spend a night outside their matrimonial houses. The researcher had to accord them that respect as this had to do with their religious belief. Notably, no research assistant was financially reimbursed. The exigency experienced by the research was unable to prevent adequate data collection for this study.

6.9 Conclusion

In this chapter, the mixed method research approaches selected in this study were discussed in detail. They comprise of the surveys and in-depth interviews (IDI), which are the foremost techniques employed in the course of this study.

Furthermore, this study was shepherded by the design, and the instruments selected were questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results obtained in the course of this study were evaluated with the aid of subject examination, exploration, qualitative data analysis and explanatory statistics for quantitative data. The technique for justifying the instruments as well as the ethics were comprehensive. In this chapter, emphasis were made on discussing the methodology employed by the researcher in the course of this study. Thus, the next chapter of this research provides an analysis and interpretation of the data which were obtained using the methodology described in the current chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS (PART ONE)

7. Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretations of empirical data which were collated through the administration of questionnaires to convicted inmates in the study area. The results are presented according to the study objectives of this study. Factual data on rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the study setting and its potentials for effective rehabilitation of convicted inmates are presented. This chapter also focuses on on part one of the analysis and discussions. Hence, findings of objective one are forwarded in this chapter.

7.1 Theme One: The Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Study Participants

This section presents the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the respondents which include age, gender, marital status, educational background, occupation, monthly income and religion.

Table 7.1: Participants' age distribution

Age	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron- Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Below 20	7 (5.3)	13 (12.0)	20 (8.3)
20-25	13 (9.8)	53 (49.1)	66 (27.5)
26-30	27 (20.5)	18 (16.7)	45 (18.8)
31-35	20 (15.2)	11 (10.2)	31 (12.9)
36-40	26 (19.7)	5 (4.6)	31 (12.9)
41-45	16 (12.1)	5 (4.6)	21 (8.8)
46-50	11 (8.3)	2 (1.9)	13 (5.4)
51 and above	12 (9.1)	1 (0.9)	13 (5.4)

7.2 Age distribution

Table 7.1 illustrates that the majority of the inmates (72.1%) were between ages 20 and 40 years. Chi-square statistics was used to examine the differences between inmates' ages across the two correctional centres and the result shows that inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison were significantly younger compared to inmates in Kano Central Prison. While most inmates in Goron Dutse Prison were 30 years and below (77.8%), only 35.6% of inmates in Kano Central Prison were 30 years and below.

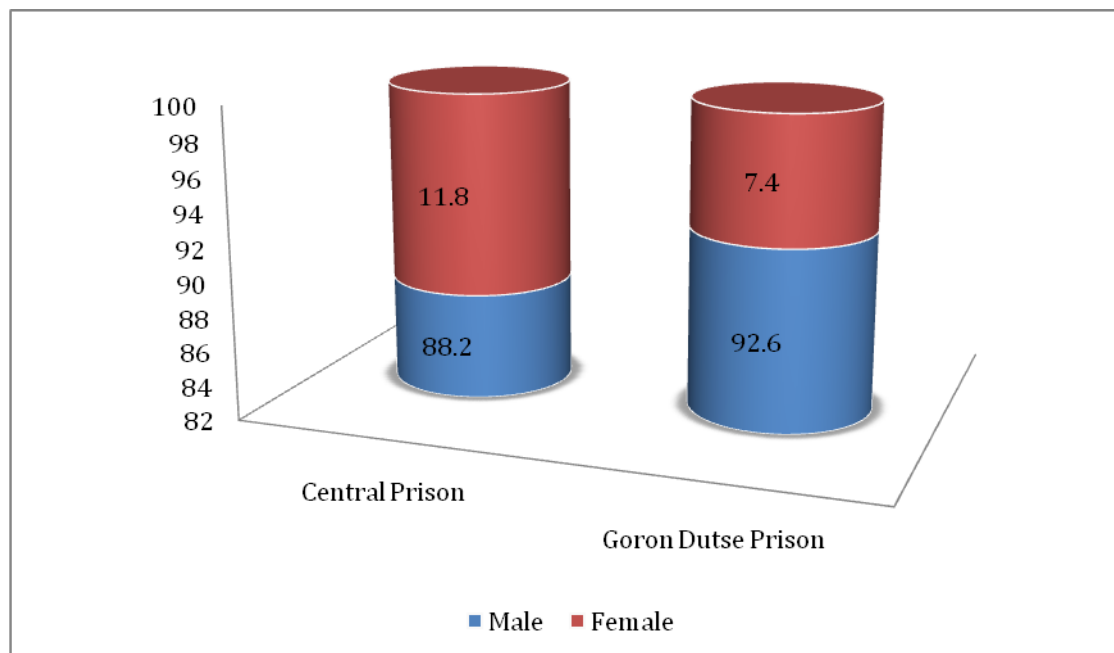


Figure 7. 1: Distribution of participants by gender.

7.2.1 Distribution of participants by gender

Figure 7.1 reveals that the majority of the inmates were males (90.2%); only a few were females. A crosstabulation and chi-square statistics of the association between age and correctional centres reveal that that there was no significant difference in gender composition of inmates between Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons.

Table 7.2: Distribution of participants by marital status

Marital status	Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse n (%)	All n (%)
Single	71 (53.8)	77 (72.6)	148 (62.2)
Married	39 (29.5)	29 (27.4)	68 (28.6)
Widow	7 (5.3)	0 (0.0)	7 (2.9)
Divorced	15 (11.4)	0 (0.0)	15 (6.3)

7.2.2 Distribution of participants by marital status

Table 7.2 illustrates that 62.2% of the inmates were single. However, there is a significant difference in the marital status of inmates between the two correctional centres. While 72.6% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison were unmarried, only 53.8% of those in Kano Central Prison were single.

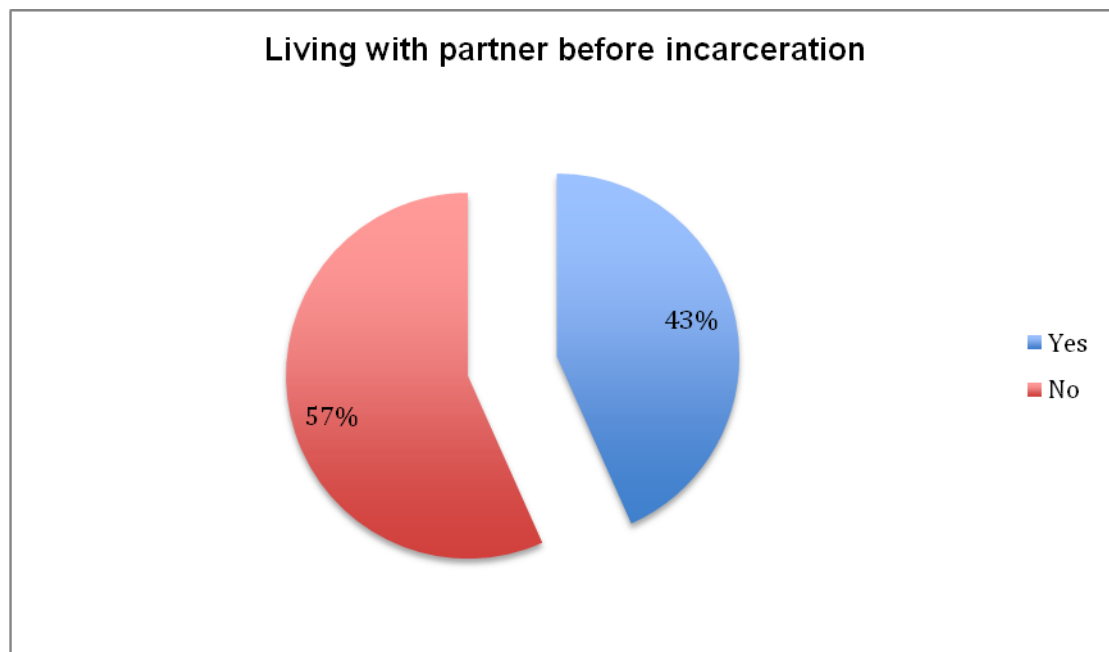


Figure 7. 2: Inmates living with their partners before incarceration.

7.2.3 Proportion of inmates living with their partners before incarceration

As shown in Figure 7.2, 57% of married inmates were not living with their partners compared to 43% of inmates who were living with their partners before their incarceration.

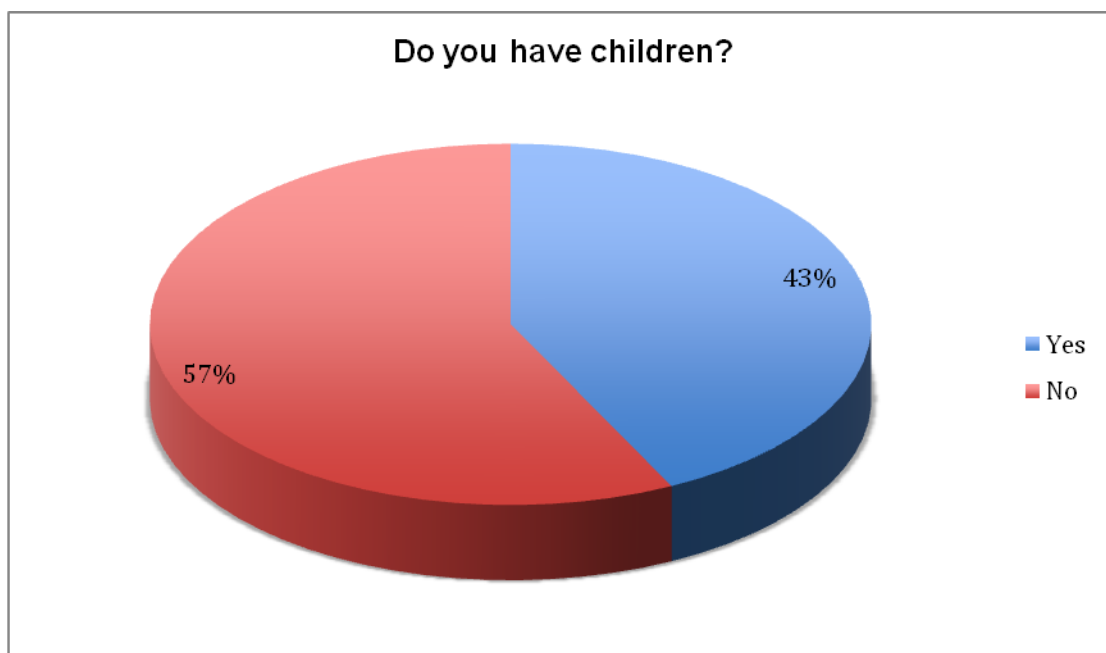


Figure 7. 3: inmates who had children.

7.2.4 Proportion of inmates who had children

As shown in Figure 7.3, 33% of the inmates had children prior to incarceration, while 57% of the inmates had no children prior to incarceration.

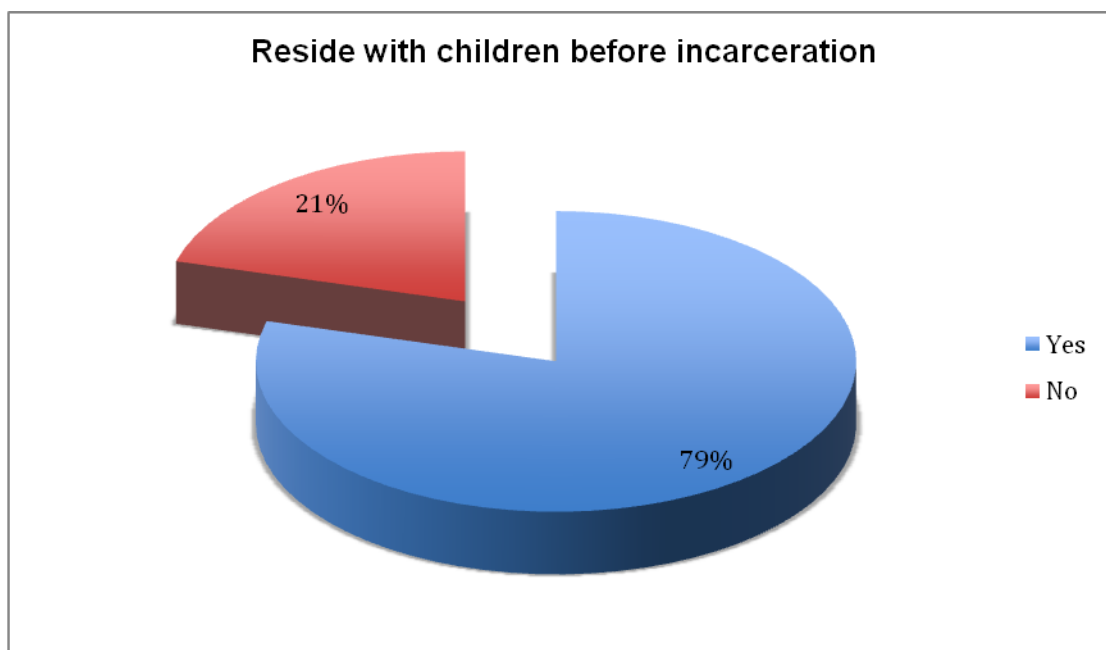


Figure 7. 4: Participants who resided with their children.

7.2.5 The proportion of participants who resided with their children before incarceration

A closer inspection of figure 7.4 shows that the majority of the inmates 79% (n=87) resided with their children prior to incarceration.

Table 7.3: Distribution of participants by highest level of education completed

Highest level of education completed	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron- Dutse n (%)	All n (%)
No formal education	2 (1.5)	1 (0.9)	3 (1.2)
Quran only	18 (13.1)	41 (38.0)	59 (24.1)
Primary school drop out	6 (4.4)	4 (3.7)	10 (4.1)
Primary school graduate	5 (3.6)	7 (6.5)	12 (4.9)
Secondary school drop out	12 (8.8)	22 (20.4)	34 (13.9)
Secondary school graduate	38 (27.1)	25 (23.1)	63 (25.7)
OND/HND/NCE	31 (22.6)	8 (7.4)	39 (15.9)
Degree/ Postgraduate	24 (17.5)	0 (0.0)	24 (9.8)
Others	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)

7.2.6 Distribution of participants by highest level of education completed

The level of inmates' education was probed and the results reveal that 25.7% of them had higher education (Table 7.3). Similarly, 25.7% of the inmates completed secondary education. However, 25.3 % of them did not have any formal education but had Quranic education. While 40.1% of inmates in Kano Central Prison had higher education, only 7.4% of Goron-Dutse Prison

inmates had higher education. Thus, Inmates in Kano Central Prison are more educated than inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison.

Table 7.4: Occupation before incarceration

Occupation	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse n (%)	All n (%)
Civil Servant	29 (21.2)	7 (6.5)	36 (14.8)
Businessman	56 (40.9)	27 (25.2)	83 (34.0)
Artisan	14 (10.2)	25 (23.4)	39 (16.0)
Petty Trading	13 (9.5)	18 (16.8)	31 (12.7)
Farming	14 (10.2)	6 (5.6)	20 (8.2)
Others/transporter	11 (8.0)	24 (22.4)	35 (14.3)

7.2.7 Occupation before incarceration

Table 7.4 reveals that 34% of the inmates were businessmen before incarceration. Nevertheless, Goron Dutse Prison had fewer business men (25.2%) and civil servants (6.5%) compared to Kano Central Prison that had 40.9% and 21.2% respectively. Only 8.2% of the inmates were farmers.

Table 7.5: Monthly income before incarceration

Monthly income	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse n (%)	All n (%)
₦10,000 and below	32 (23.0)	17 (15.7)	49 (19.8)
₦10,001-20,000	26 (18.7)	27 (25.0)	58 (21.5)
₦20,001-30,000	21 (15.1)	22 (20.4)	43 (17.4)
₦30,001 and above	54 (38.8)	29 (26.9)	83 (33.6)
No response	6 (4.3)	13 (12.0)	19 (7.7)

7.2.8 Monthly income before incarceration

As indicated in Table 7.5, 33.6% of the inmates earned above 30,000. Further, inmates in Goron Dutse Prison earned slightly more compared to inmates in Kano Central Prison.

Table 7.6: Distribution of inmates by religion

Religion	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron- Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Islam	97 (71.3)	105 (97.2)	202 (82.8)
Christianity	36 (26.5)	3 (2.8)	39 (16.0)
Others/ Atheist	3 (2.2)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.2)

7.2.9 Distribution of inmates by religion

As shown in Table 7.6, the majority of the inmates were Muslims (82.8%). While 26.5% of inmates in Kano Central Prison were Christians and 16.% in Goron-Dutse Prison.

Table 7.7: Offences which led to incarceration

Offences committed	Kano Central n (%)	Goron - Dutse n (%)	All n (%)
Armed Robbery	34 (25.0)	5 (12.8)	39 (16.1)
Larceny/theft	13 (9.6)	33 (31.1)	46 (19.0)
Financial Crime	40 (29.4)	13 (24.5)	53 (21.9)
Rape	19 (14.0)	11 (10.4)	30 (12.4)
Sodomy	4 (2.9)	1 (0.9)	5 (2.1)
Homicide (murder), fighting, drug peddling/trafficking, vagabond and abduction	26 (19.1)	43 (40.6)	69 (28.5)

7.2.10 Offences which led to incarceration

As indicated in Table 7.7, the most common offences leading to incarceration were armed robbery (16.1%), larceny (19.0%) and financial crime (21.9%). While financial crime (29.4%) and armed robbery (25.0%) were the main offences leading to incarceration in Kano Central Prison, larceny, financial crime, and homicide, fighting, drug peddling and abduction were the main offences leading to incarceration in both prisons.

Table 7.8: Duration of incarceration

Duration of incarceration	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse n (%)	All n (%)
1 month to five years	8 (5.4)	2 (2.3)	10 (4.0)
6 years – 10 years	95 (66.4)	75 (85.2)	170 (68.8)
11 years – 15 years	16 (10.7)	8 (9.1)	34 (13.8)
Longer than 15 years	16 (10.7)	2 (2.3)	18 (7.3)
No response	14 (9.4)	1 (1.1)	15 (6.1)

7.2.11 Duration of Incarceration

As shown in Table 7.8, the majority of the inmates had been incarcerated for more than 6 years. However, there were more inmates who had been incarcerated for more than 15 years in Kano Central Prison (10.7%) than in Goron-Dutse Prison (2.3%).

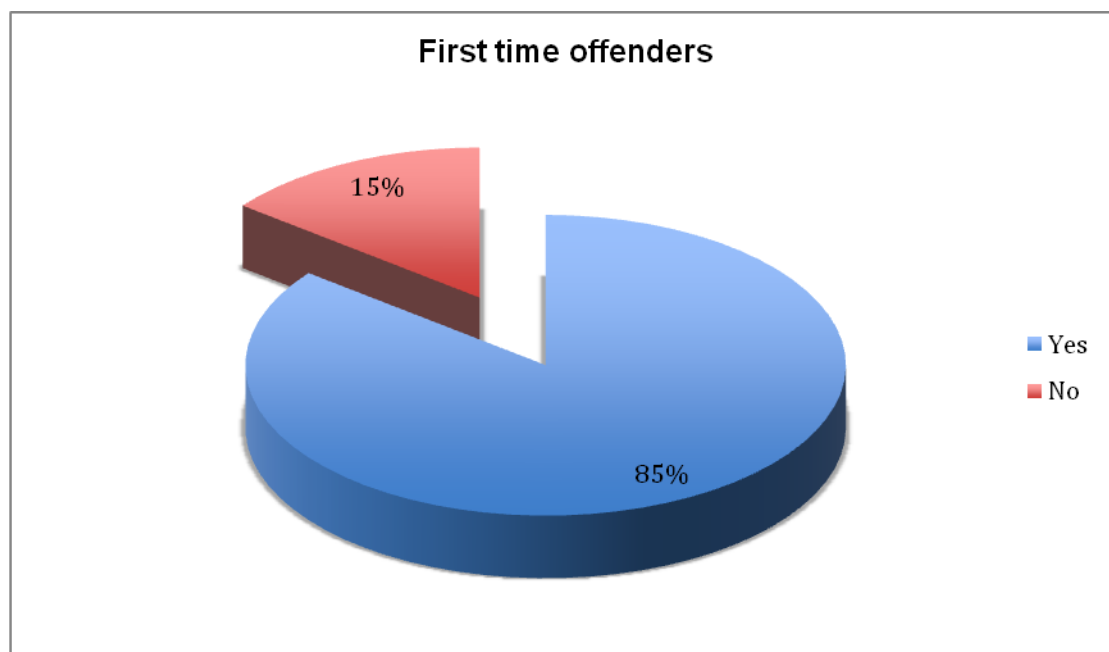


Figure 7. 5: Frequency as first time offenders

7.2.12 Proportion of first time offenders

Figure 7.5 illustrates the proportion of first time offenders. It is apparent that the majority of the inmates (85%) were first time offenders and a minority were repeated offenders of (15%).

Theme Two: Rehabilitation Programmes and Facilities in Kano Central and Goron Dutse Prisons: Participation, Perceptions and Satisfaction

The study assessed the rehabilitation programmes and facilities from the perspective of the inmates and the results are presented under the following subsections:

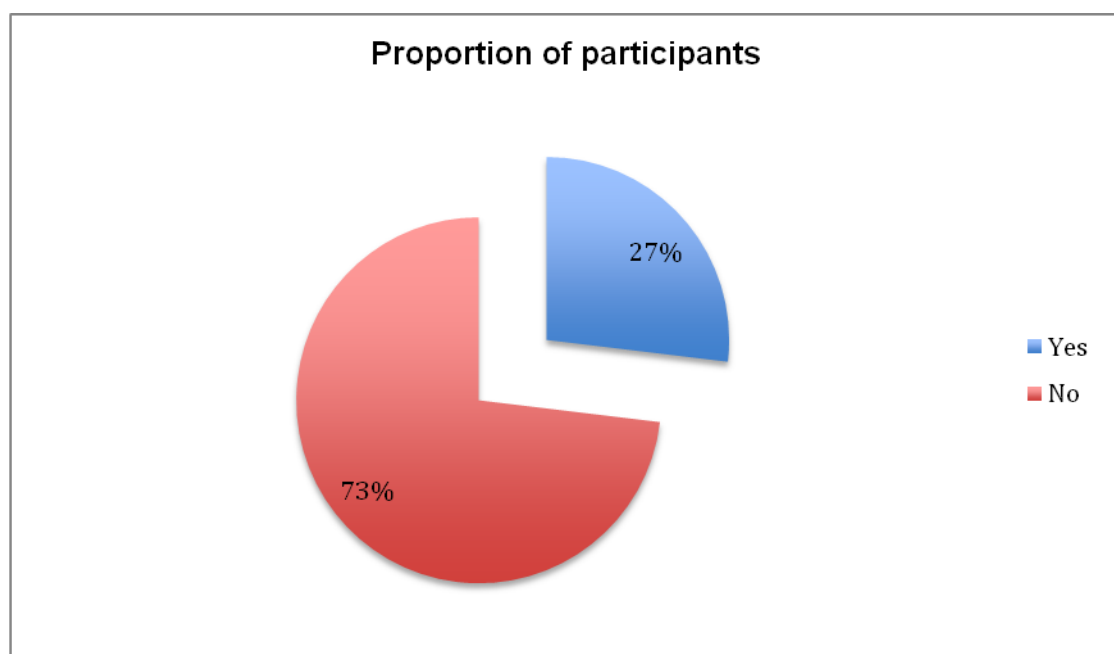


Figure 7. 6: Participation in rehabilitation programmes.

7.3 Participation in rehabilitation programmes

As shown in Figure 7.6, surprisingly only a few inmates (27%) were involved in rehabilitation programmes. The majority of the inmates (73%) were not involved in rehabilitation programmes.

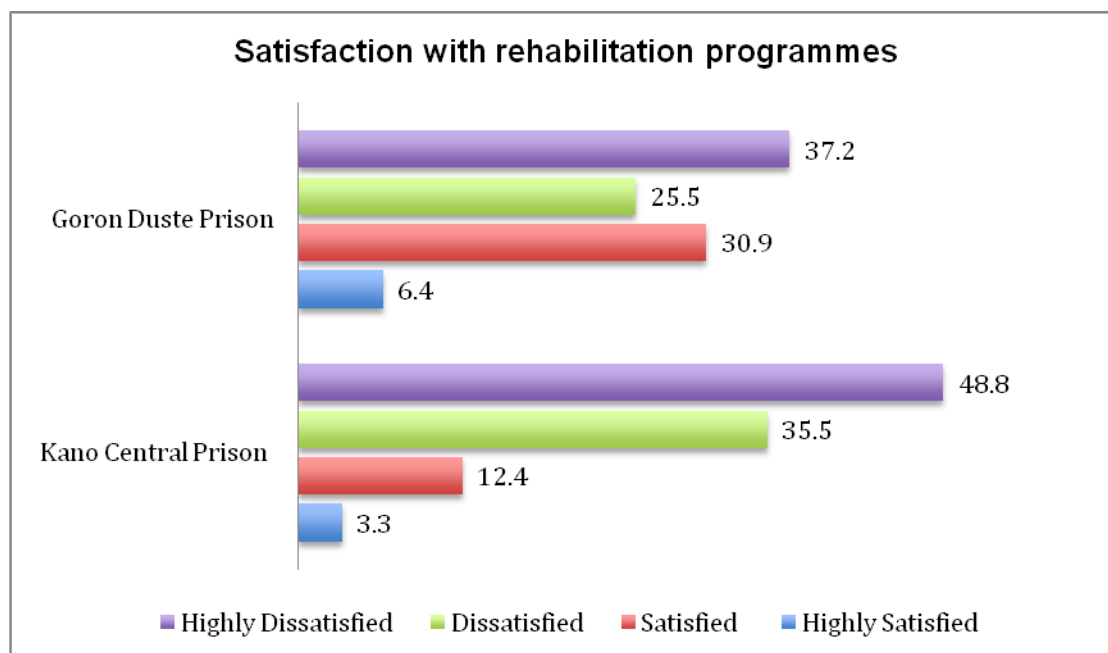


Figure 7. 7: Rehabilitation programmes contentment.

7.3.1 Satisfaction with rehabilitation programmes

The analysis on inmates' satisfaction with rehabilitation programmes reveals that only 26.5% of inmates were satisfied with the programmes. However, as shown in Figure 7.7, there is variation in the level of inmates' satisfaction in correctional centre rehabilitation programmes. While only 15.7% of inmates in Kano Central Prison were satisfied, 37.3% were satisfied in Goron-Dutse Prison. Overall, inmates in Kano Central Prison were more dissatisfied ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$) with rehabilitation programmes compared to inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison. Perhaps the low level of satisfaction explains the poor participation in rehabilitation programmes.

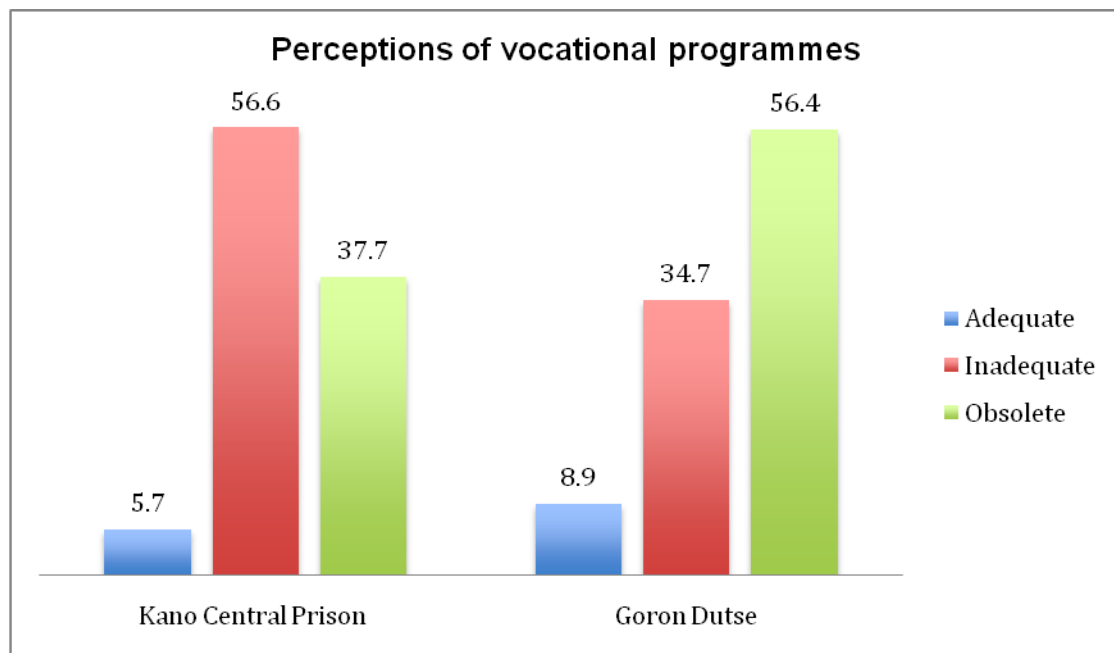


Figure 7. 8: Perceptions of vocational facilities.

7.3.2 Perceptions of vocational facilities

Another striking result that emerged from this study is that only 7.3% of inmates considered rehabilitation programmes adequate. The majority of the inmates, irrespective of the correctional centre, perceived vocational facilities as inadequate and obsolete.

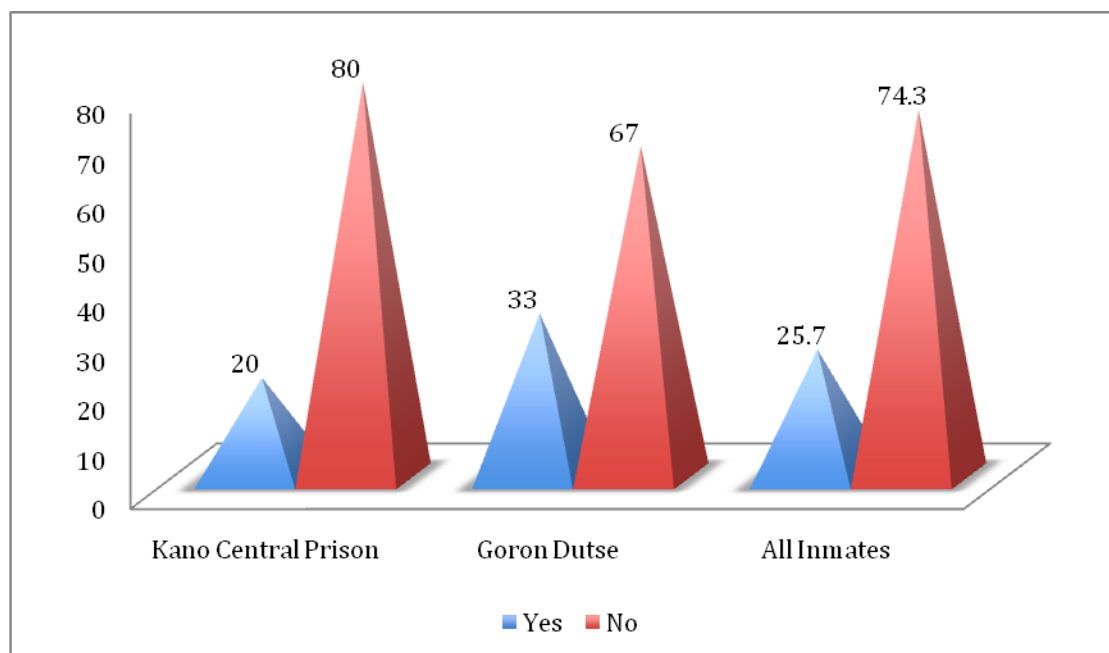


Figure 7. 9: Facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation.

7.3.3 Perceptions of adequacy of facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation

When asked if available facilities were adequate for effective rehabilitation programmes, the majority of the inmates responded negatively. However, the chi-square statistical test revealed that there was a significant variation in the responses of inmates between the two correctional centres ($p.value=0.021$). While 80% of inmates in Kano Central Prison agreed that facilities were not adequate to ensure effective rehabilitation, only 67% agreed in Goron-Dutse Prison (Figure 7.9).

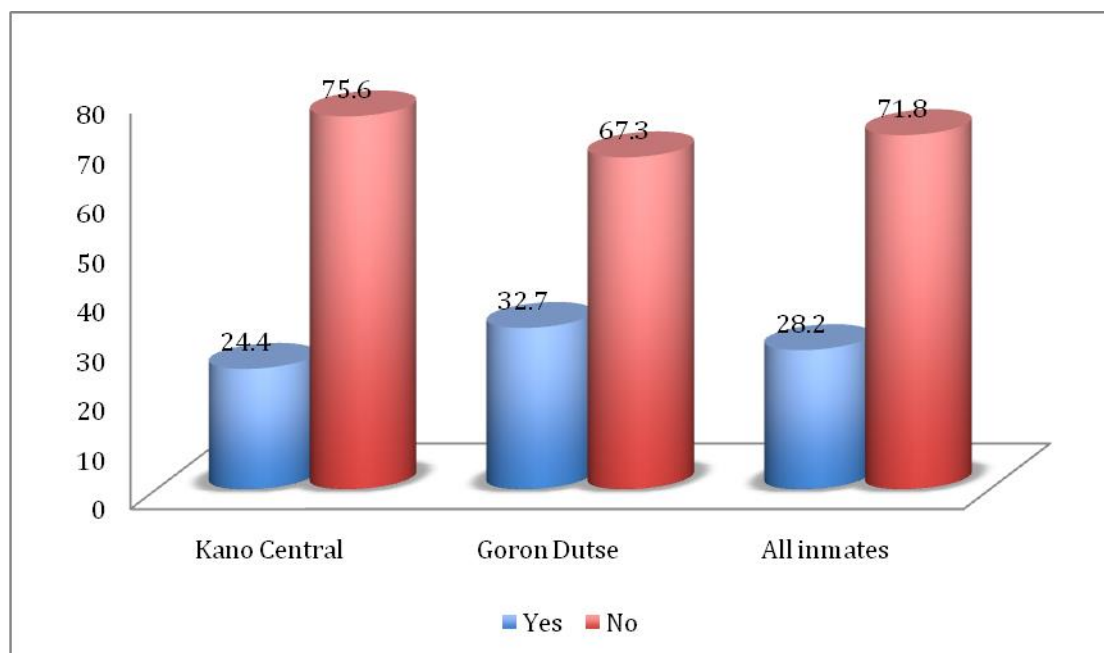


Figure 7. 10: Access to rehabilitation facilities.

7.3.4 Access to rehabilitation facilities

Figure 7.10 illustrates that the majority of the inmates (71.8%) had no access to rehabilitation facilities. However, the proportion of inmates who stated that they lacked access to rehabilitation facilities varied from 75.6% in Kano Central Prison to 67% in Goron Dutse Prison. The possible explanation for this result may be the lack of adequate facilities as stated by the inmates.

7.4 Assessment of correctional centre infrastructure

Table 7.9: Availability of educational training

Availability of educational training	Kano Central Prison n(%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n(%)	All n(%)
Yes	55 (41.4)	84 (77.8)	139(57.7)
No	78 (58.6)	24 (22.2)	102 (42.3)

7.4.1 Availability of educational training

Participants were asked about the availability of educational training and the result shows that 57.7% of the inmates stated that educational training was available (Table 7.9). The majority of the inmates (77.8%) in Goron-Dutse

Prison stated that educational training was available compared to 41.4% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison.

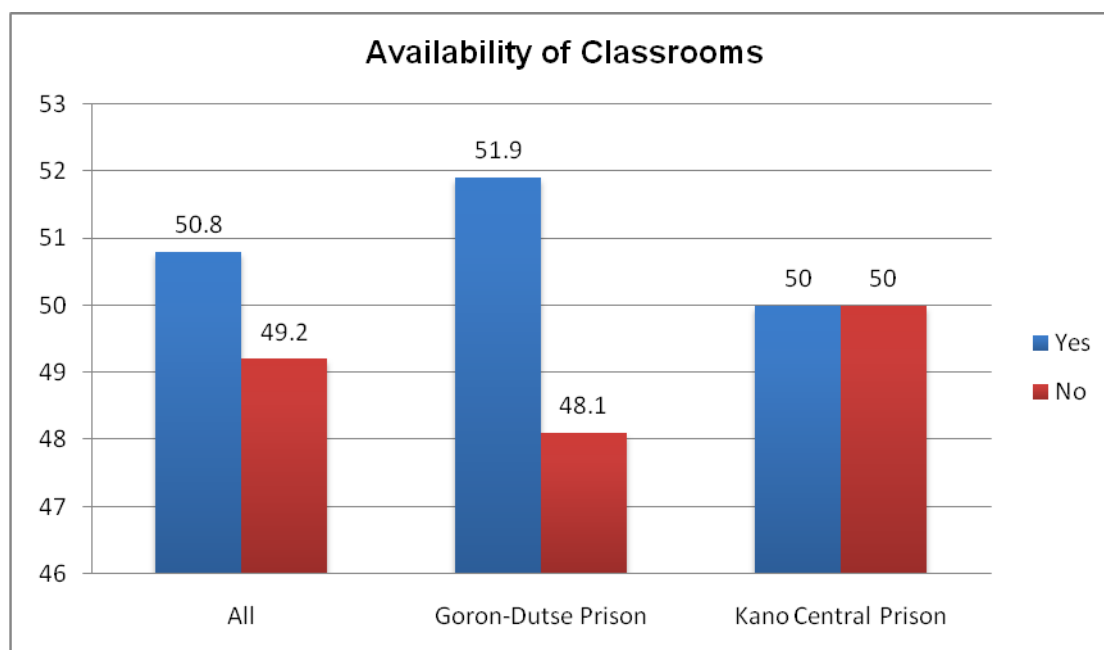


Figure 7. 11: Availability of classrooms.

7.4.2 Availability of classrooms

Respondents were asked about the availability of classrooms. Figure 7.11 reveals that half of the inmates (50.8%) stated that classrooms were available. Further findings reveal that 51.9% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that classrooms were available compared to 50.0% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison.

Table 7.10: Satisfaction with the classrooms

Satisfaction with classrooms	Kano Central Prison n(%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n(%)	All n(%)
Highly satisfied	04 (3.3)	8 (8.2)	12 (5.5)
Satisfied	16 (13.0)	29 (29.9)	45 (20.5)
Dissatisfied	41 (33.3)	29 (29.9)	70 (31.8)
Highly dissatisfied	62 (50.4)	31 (32.0)	93 (42.3)

7.4.3 Satisfaction with the classrooms

Table 7.10 present findings on the level of satisfaction with classrooms and the results show that only 5.5% of the inmates were highly satisfied. A minority of the respondents (8.2%) in Goron-Dutse Prison stated they were highly satisfied with classrooms compared to only 3.3% of the respondents in Kano Central Prison. Further findings show that 42.3% of the inmates were highly dissatisfied with classrooms. A total of 50.4% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison stated they were highly dissatisfied with classrooms compared to 32.0% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison.

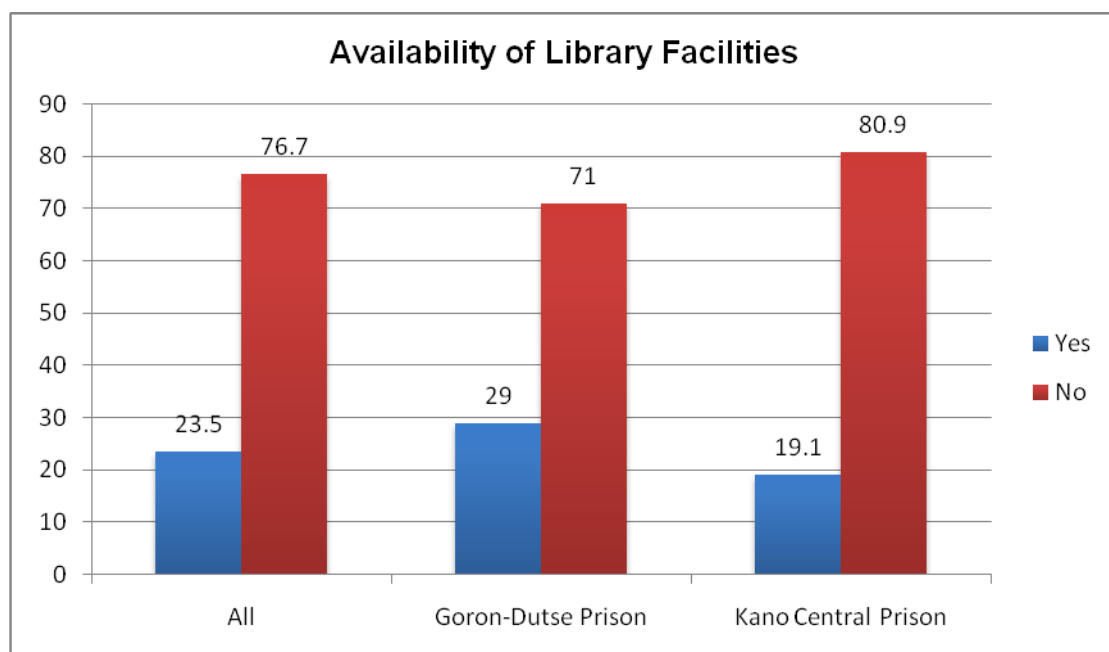


Figure 7. 12: Availability of library facilities.

7.4.4 Availability of library facilities in the correctional centre

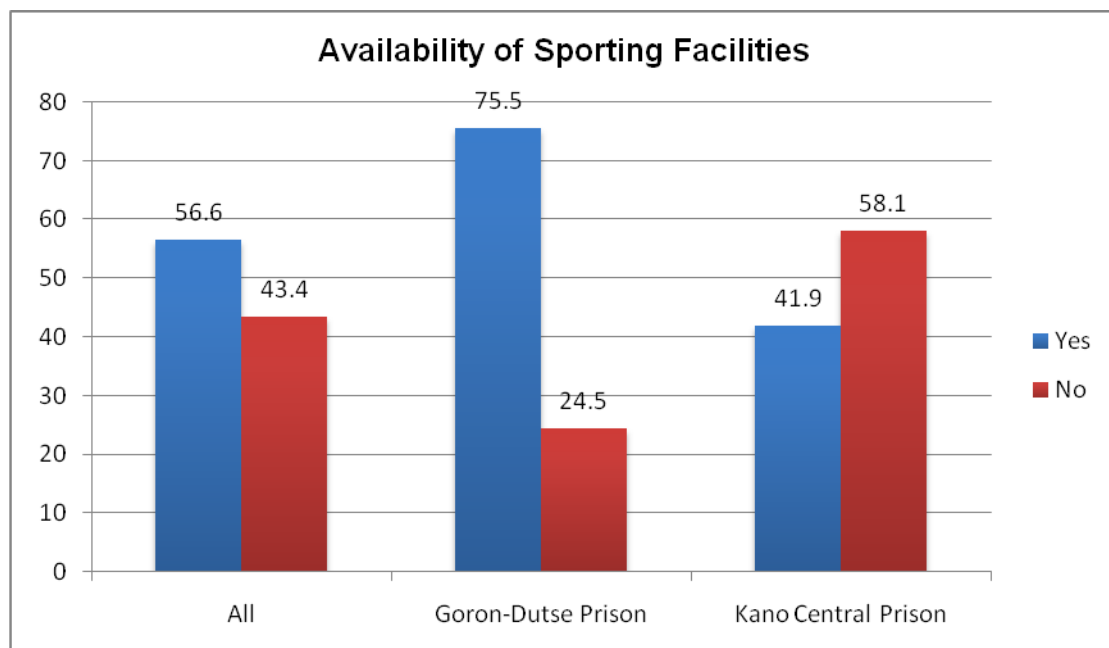
Respondents were asked about the availability of library facilities in the correctional centre. Figure 7.12 illustrates that only 23.5% of the respondents stated that library facilities were available. Only 29.0% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that library facilities were available compared to only 19.1% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison.

Table 7.11: Description of the library

Description of library	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Excellent	00 (0.0)	02 (2.4)	2 (1.0)
Very good	08 (7.1)	03 (3.7)	11 (5.6)
Good	05 (4.4)	18 (22.0)	23 (11.8)
Fair	12 (10.6)	18 (22.0)	30 (15.4)
Poor	88 (77.9)	41 (50.0)	129 (66.2)

7.4.5 Description of the library

Respondents were asked to describe the library facility. The results reveal that very few inmates (1.0%) described the library facility as excellent (Table 7.11), with very good at 5.6%, and good at 11.8%. The majority of the respondents (66.2%) described the library facilities as poor. A total of 3.7% and 2.2% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison described library facilities as very good and good, compared to 7.1% (very good) and 4.4% (good) of the inmates in Kano Central Prison.

**Figure 7. 13: Availability of sporting facilities.**

7.5.6 Availability of sporting facilities

Figure 7.13 presents findings on the availability of sporting facilities. The analysis reveals that 56.6% of the inmates stated that sporting facilities were available. The majority of the inmates (75.5%) in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that sporting facilities were available compared to 41.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. Perhaps some inmates were not aware of the availability of sporting facilities in the correctional centre.

Table 7.12: Satisfaction with the sporting facilities

Satisfaction with sporting facilities	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Highly satisfied	09 (6.9)	17 (16.3)	26 (11.1)
Satisfied	16 (12.2)	50 (48.1)	66 (28.1)
Dissatisfied	55 (42.0)	21 (20.2)	76 (32.3)
Highly dissatisfied	51 (38.9)	16 (15.4)	67 (28.5)

7.4.7 Satisfaction with the sporting facilities

As shown in Table 7.12, 11.1% of the inmates stated they were highly satisfied with the correctional centre's sporting facilities, 28.1% were satisfied, while 32.3% were dissatisfied. In Goron-Dutse Prison, 48.1% of the inmates were satisfied, while 15.4% of the inmates were highly dissatisfied with sporting facilities. In comparison, 12.2% of the inmates at Kano Central Prison were satisfied and 6.9% were highly dissatisfied.

Table 7.13: Availability of places of worship

Availability of places of worship	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Yes	98 (73.7)	101 (95.3)	199(83.3)
No	35 (26.3)	05 (4.7)	40 (16.7)

7.4.8 Availability of places of worship

Table 7.13 illustrates that the majority of the inmates (83.3%) stated that places of worship were available in the correctional centre. A total of 95.3% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that places of worship were available compared to 73.7% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. One possible explanation for these findings is that only a mosque and a church were available as a place of worship in both correctional centres, thus participants who were atheist and free thinkers had no places of worship. The NPS only recognizes Islam and Christianity as religions to be practiced during incarceration.

Table 7.14: Description of the places of worship

Description of places of worship	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Clean	58 (43.3)	101 (100.0)	159 (67.7)
Filthy	76 (56.7)	0 (0.0)	76 (32.3)

7.4.9 Description of the places of worship

Respondents were asked to describe places of worship and the results presented in Table 7.14 show that 67.7% of the respondents described places of worship as clean. Interestingly, the entire group of respondents in Goron-Dutse Prison described places of worship as clean compared to only 43.3% of the respondents in Kano Central Prison.

Table 7.15: How often respondents were allowed to visit the places of worship

Permission to visit places of worship	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Often	66 (48.9)	59 (55.7)	125 (51.9)
Rarely often	49 (36.3)	45 (42.5)	94 (39.0)
Never	20 (14.8)	02 (1.9)	22 (9.1)

7.4.10 How often respondents were allowed to visit places of worship

Respondents were asked about how often they were allowed to visit places of worship. As shown in Table 7.15, 51.9% of the inmates stated that they

were often allowed to visit places of worship. Specifically, 55.7% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that they were often allowed to visit places of worship compared to 48.9% in Kano Central Prison, and 9.1% of the inmates stated that they were never allowed to visit places of worship. One possible explanation for those that were never allowed to visit places of worship could be as a result of complete restriction of condemned inmates.

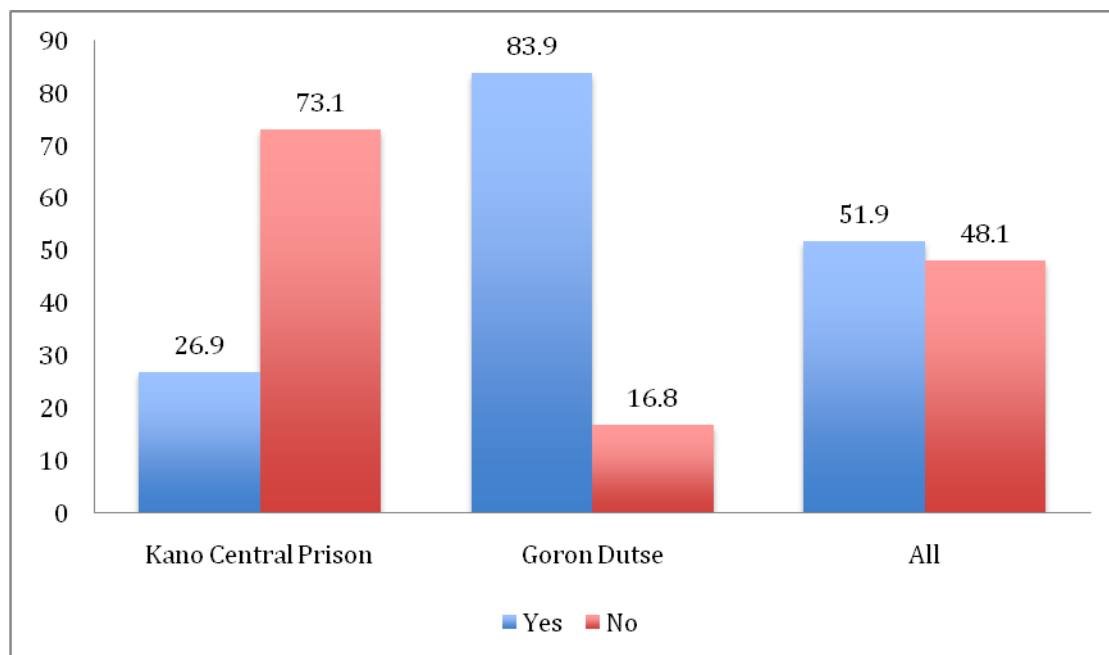


Figure 7. 14: Access to standard toilet.

7.4.11 Access to standard toilet

As shown in Figure 7.14, 51.9% of the inmates reported they had access to a standard toilet. However, there is variation in access facilities in the two correctional centres. While the majority (83.9%) of the inmates in Goron Dutse Prison had access to a standard toilet facility, only 26.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison stated that they no access to a standard toilet.

Table 7.16: Perception to toilet facilities

Perceptions of toilet condition	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Excellent	3 (2.2)	4 (3.7)	7 (2.9)
Very good	6 (4.4)	30 (27.8)	36 (14.8)
Good	12 (8.8)	33 (30.6)	45 (18.4)
Fair	28 (20.6)	20 (18.5)	48 (19.7)
Poor	87 (64.0)	21 (19.4)	108 (44.3)

7.4.12 Perceptions of toilet conditions

Regarding the perceptions of the conditions of available toilets, the results shown in Table 7.16 reveal that 44.3% of inmates opined that toilet conditions were poor. A total of 64.0% of inmates in Kano Central Prison compared to 19.4% in Goron-Dutse Prison considered the toilet conditions to be poor (p-value<0.001). Therefore, the analysis reveals that conditions in Goron-Dutse Prison seems slightly better than that of Kano Central Prison.

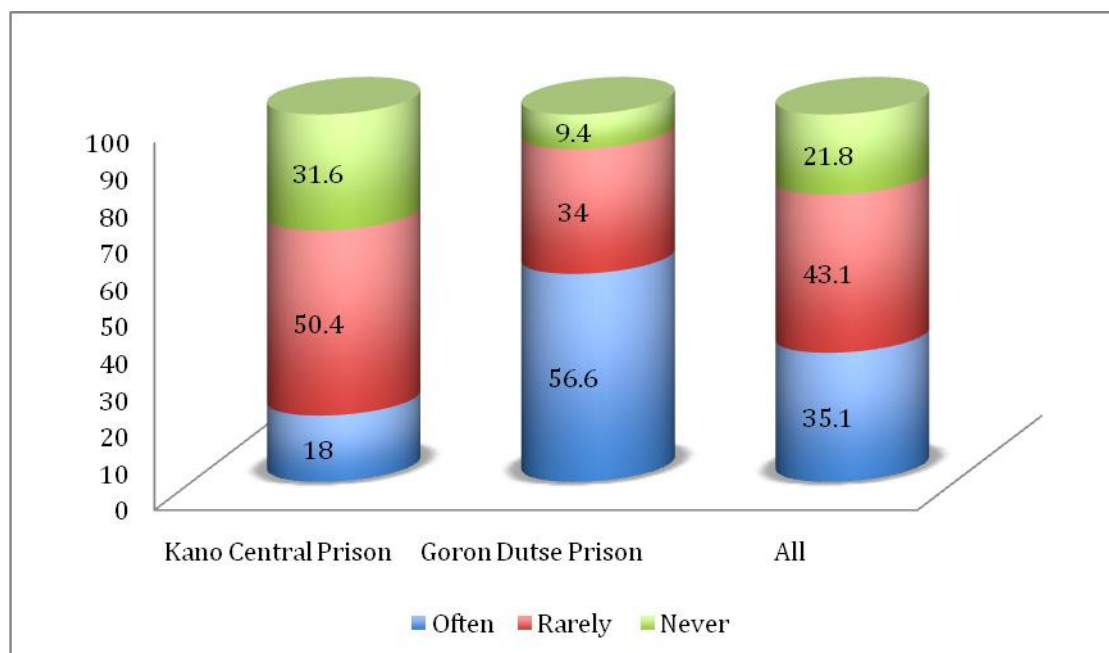


Figure 7. 15: Access to portable water.

7.4.13 Access to portable water

Participants were asked how often they had access to potable water and the findings reveal that only 35.1% reported that they often had access to potable

water, 43% stated that they rarely had access to portable, while 21.8% stated that they never had access to potable water. Inmates in Kano Central Prison were more likely to state that they never access to portable water compared to inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison. Similarly, inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison were more likely to report access to portable water compared to inmates in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.15).

Table 7.17: Perception of quality of water

Perceptions of water Quality	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Excellent	6 (4.4)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)
Very good	5 (3.6)	34 (32.1)	39 (16.0)
Good	23 (16.8)	34 (32.1)	57 (23.5)
Fair	49 (35.8)	19 (17.9)	68 (28.0)
Poor	54 (39.4)	19 (17.9)	73 (30.0)

7.4.14 Perceptions of quality of water

Table 7.17 shows that 30.0% of the inmates were of the view that water quality was poor. A comparison of perceptions of quality of water in the two correctional centres reveals that more inmates from Kano Central Prison (39.4%) view the quality of water was poor compared to only 17.9% in Goron-Dutse Prison (p.value<0.001).

Table 7. 18: Frequency of meals per day

Frequency of meal per day	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron-Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Once	8 (5.9)	8 (7.4)	16 (6.6)
Twice	9 (6.7)	1 (0.9)	10 (4.1)
Thrice	118 (87.4)	99 (91.7)	217 (89.3)

7.4.15 Frequency of meals per day

What is interesting about the data in Table 7.18 is that it reveals that the majority of inmates were served meals thrice a day. This is attested by 87.4% of inmates in Kano Central Prison as well as 91.7% in Goron-Dutse Prison.



Figure 7. 16: Perceptions of food quality.

7.4.16 Perceptions of food quality

Figure 7.16 reveals the inmates' perceptions towards quality of food. What stands out in this chart is that the majority of the inmates (86.4%) in Kano Central Prison and Goron-Dutse (59.4%) agreed that the quality of the meals served was poor (p.value<0.001).

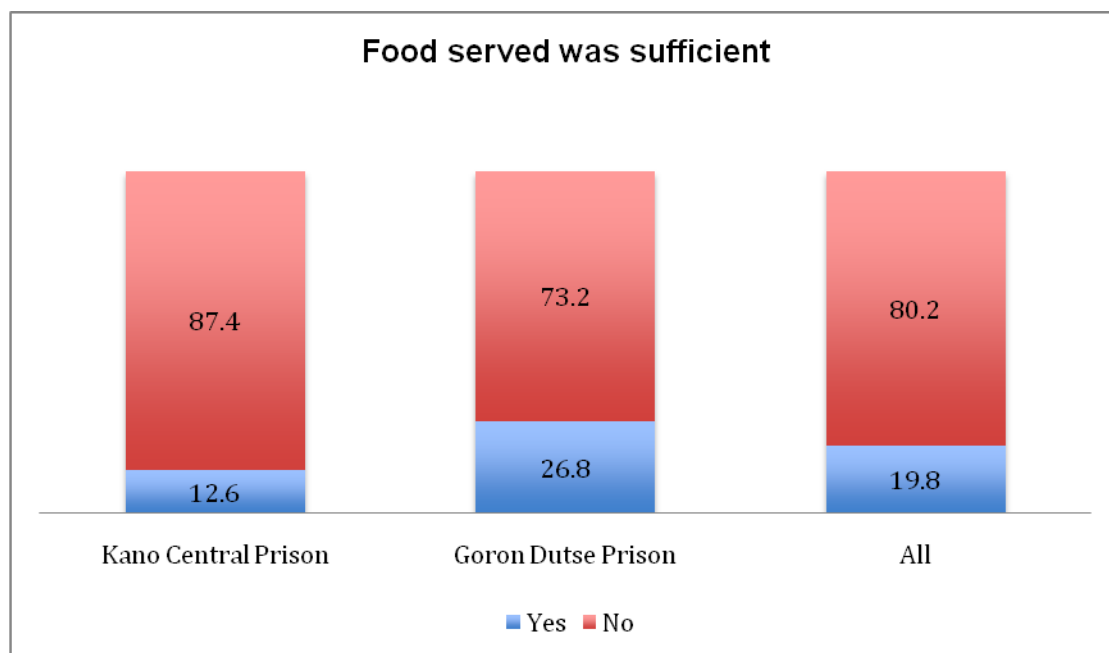


Figure 7. 17: Sufficiency of the food served.

7.4.17 Sufficiency of the food served

Figure 7.17 illustrates that the majority of inmates (80.2%) stated that the food served was insufficient. Thus, the findings on the proportion of food is similar to the findings on food quality.

Table 7.19: Perceptions of bed spacing

Perceptions of bed spacing	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron -Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Excellent	11 (7.9)	0 (0.0)	11 (4.4)
Very good	6 (4.3)	16 (14.8)	22 (8.9)
Good	11 (7.9)	31 (28.7)	42 (17.0)
Fair	49 (25.2)	23 (21.3)	58 (23.5)
Poor	76 (54.7)	38 (33.3)	114 (46.2)

7.4.18 Perceptions of bed spacing

Table 7.19 reveals that 46.2% opined that bed spacing was poor. A comparison of the inmates' perception of bed spacing between the two correctional centres reveals that 54.7% of the inmates in Kano Central found

bed spacing poor, compared to 33.3% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison (p-value<0.001).

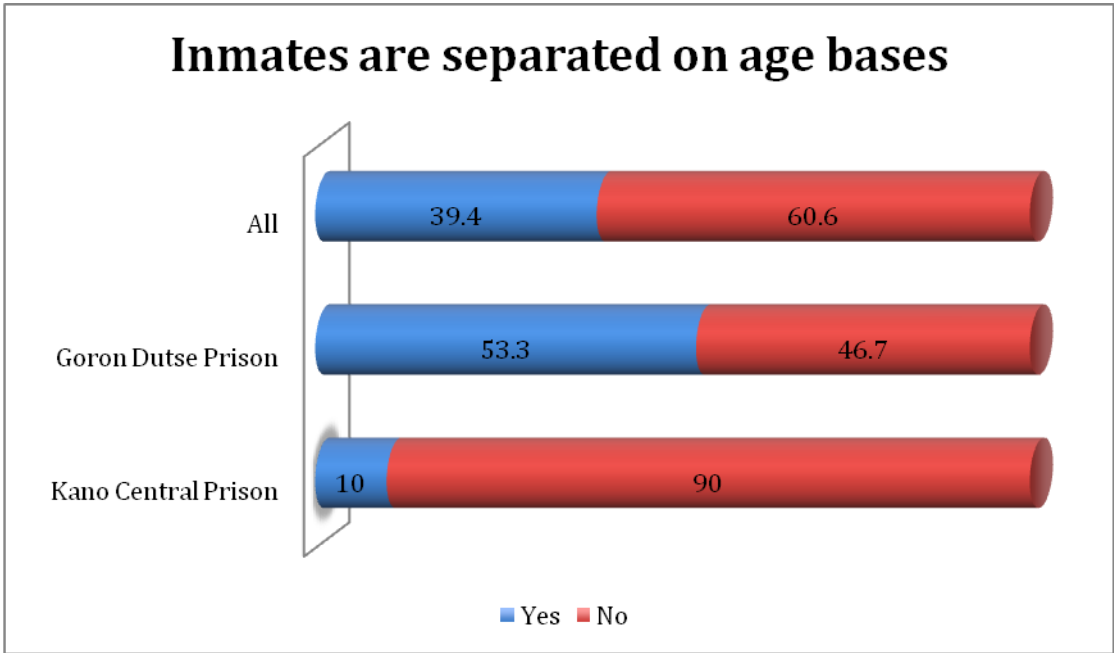


Figure 7. 18: Inmate separated based on age.

7.5 Separation of Inmates

7.5.1 Inmate separated based on age

As shown in Figure 7.18, the majority of inmates (60.6%) stated that they were not separated on an age basis. This is especially so in Kano Central Prison with a total of 90%. The chi-square statistics indicate that there was a significant difference in inmate perceptions of separation on age basis between the two correctional centres(p.value<0.001).

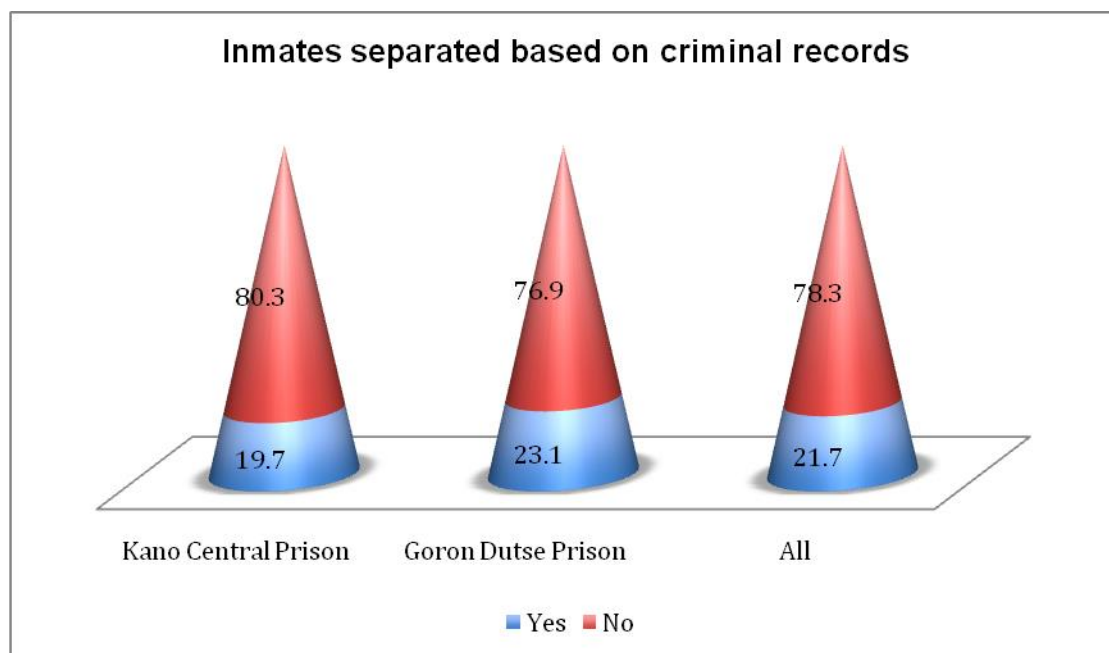


Figure 7. 19: Inmates separated based on criminal records.

7.5.2 Inmates separated based on criminal records

Figure 7.19 presents the findings on inmates' perceptions of separation on the basis of criminal record. It shows that 78.3% of inmates opined that they were not separated based on criminal records. There was no significant difference in inmates' perception on separation based on criminal records in the two correctional centres.

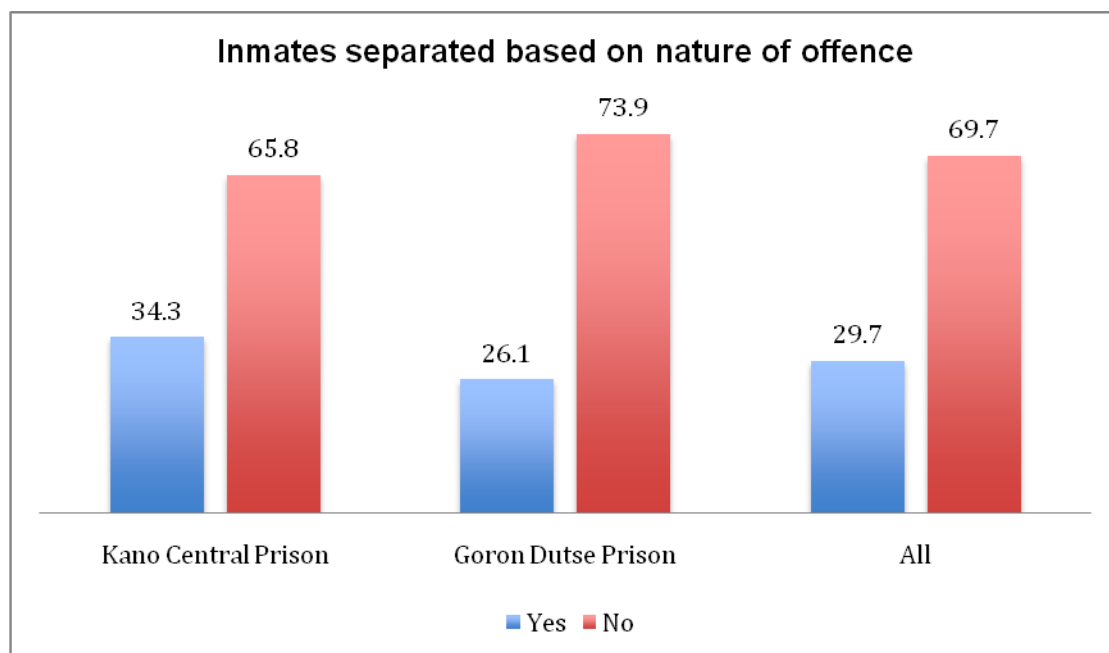


Figure 7. 20: Inmates separated based on nature of offence.

7.5.3 Inmates separated based on nature of offence

Figure 7.20 indicates that the majority of the inmates (69.7%) stated that they were not separated based on nature of offence. While 34.3% of the inmates Kano Central Prison stated they were separated based on nature of offence, only 26.1% stated the same in Goron-Dutse Prisons.

Table 7. 20: Number of inmates accommodated in a cell

Number of inmates accommodated in a cell	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron -Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
10-20	15 (10.8)	13 (12.0)	28 (11.3)
20-30	22 (15.8)	3 (2.8)	25 (10.1)
31-40	17 (12.2)	3 (2.8)	20 (8.1)
41 and above	82 (59.0)	87 (80.6)	169 (68.4)
No response	3 (2.2)	2 (1.9)	25 (2.0)

7.5.4 The number of inmates accommodated in a cell

Table 7.20 reveals that the majority of the inmates (68.4%) stated there were more than 41 inmates in a cell. The overall findings reveal that both correctional centres were congested. The researcher also observed that in one cell in Goron-Dutse Prison accommodated more than 41 inmates.

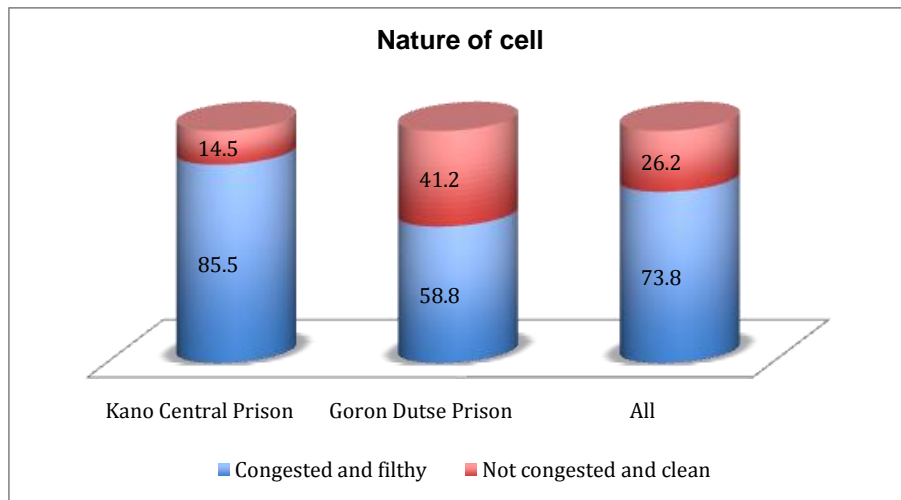


Figure 7. 21: Nature of the cell.

7.5.5 Nature of the cell

Figure 7.21 reveals that the majority of the inmates (73.8%) stated that correctional centre cells were congested and filthy, with 85.5% of Kano Central inmates and 58.8% of Goron-Dutse Prison inmates. Overall, based on the results, the correctional centre condition in Goron-Dutse Prison is slightly better than Kano Central Prison ($p.value < 0.001$).

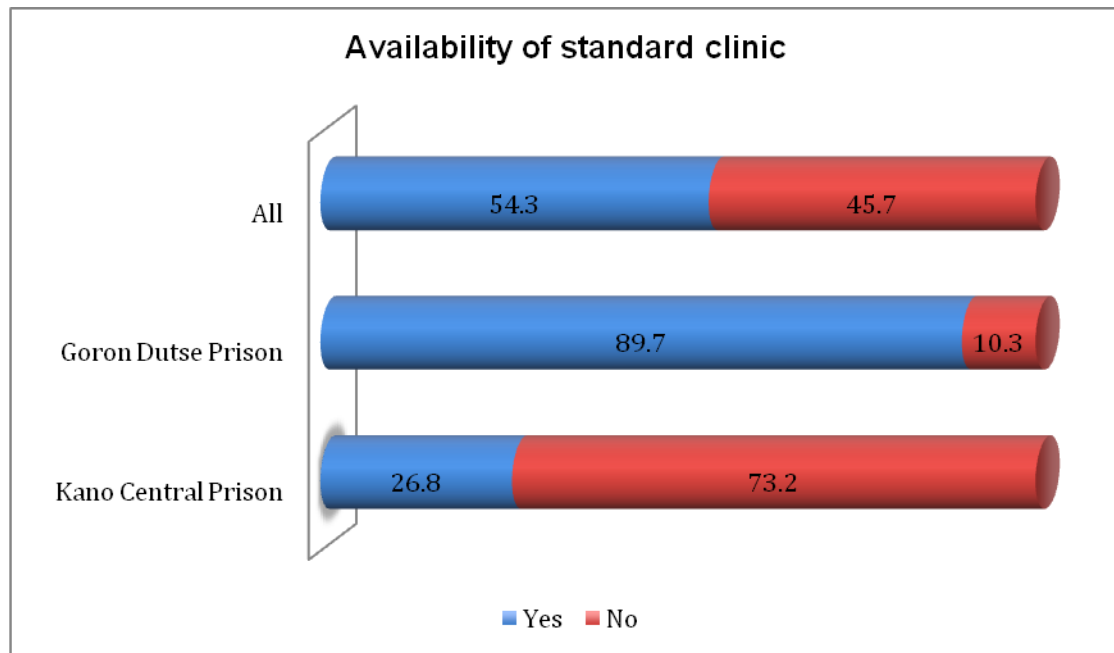


Figure 7. 22: Availability of standard clinic.

7.6 Medical facilities

7.6.1 Availability of standard clinic

Inmates were asked about the availability of standard clinic in the correctional centre facility and 54.3% stated the standard clinic was available (Figure 7.22). Responses revealed that 45.7% of the inmates stated they had no access to a standard clinic. The Pearson chi-square statistics reveal that there was a significant difference between inmates' perceptions of the availability of standard clinic in the two correctional centres ($p.value < 0.001$). The crosstabulation reveals that 89.7% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison opined that a standard clinic was available compared to only 26.8% of the inmates' in Kano Central Prison.

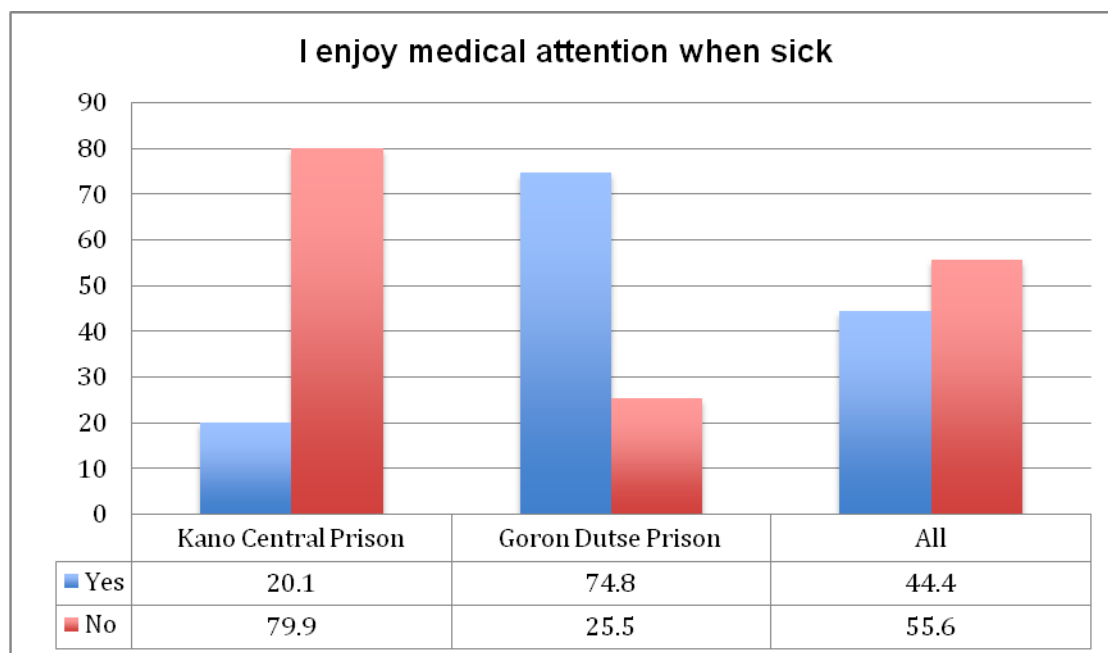


Figure 7. 23: Medical attention when sick.

7.6.2 Delight in medical attention when sick

The study probed into the medical attention inmates enjoyed when ill. As shown in Figure 7.23, only 44.4% stated they enjoyed medical attention when they were ill. The majority of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison (74.8%) stated they enjoyed medical attention when they were ill compared to only 20.1% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison.

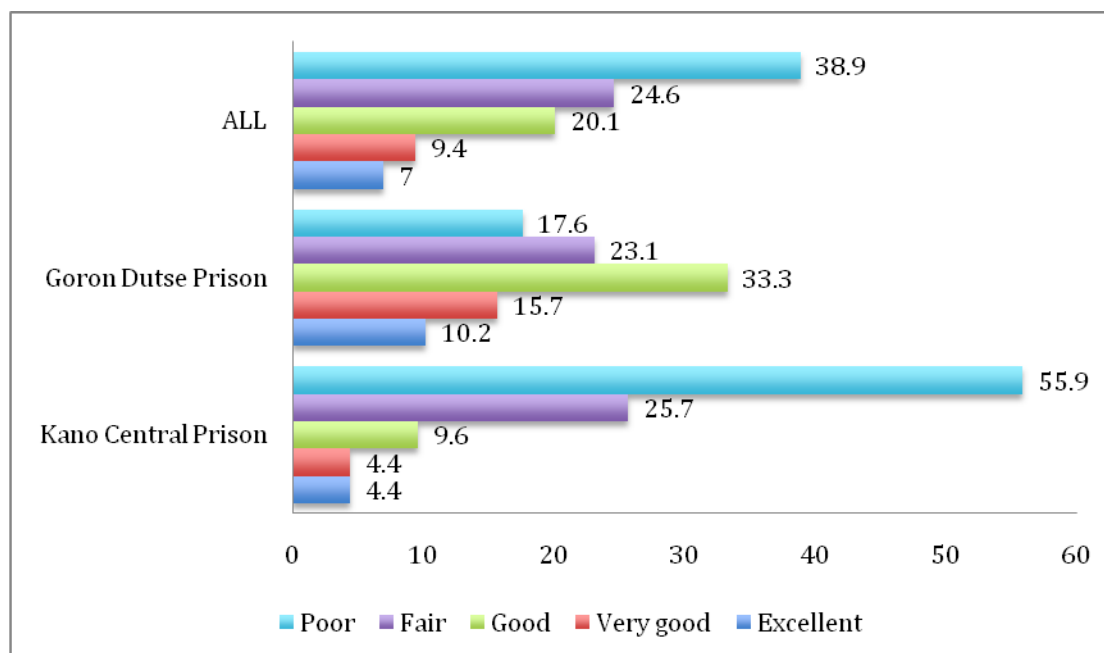


Figure 7. 24: Correctional centre health care services.

7.6.3 Perceptions of correctional centre health care services

This study probed into inmates' perceptions of health care services and the results as shown in Figure 7.24 illustrate that 36.5% of the inmates stated that healthcare services were good, very good and excellent. In Goron-Dutse Prison, 59.2% of the inmates in stated that health care services were good, very good and excellent compared to 18.4% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison ($p.value < 0.001$).

Table 7.21: Nature of medical attention in the clinic

Rate the nature of medical attention in the clinic	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron- Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Excellent	6 (4.4)	2 (1.9)	8 (3.3)
Very good	11 (8.0)	18 (17.0)	29 (11.9)
Good	26 (19.0)	50 (47.2)	76 (31.3)
Fair	28 (20.4)	13 (12.3)	41 (16.9)
Poor	66 (48.2)	23 (21.7)	89 (36.6)

7.6.4 Nature of medical attention in the clinic

Respondents were asked to rate the medical attention they received in the correctional centre clinic. The results as presented in Table 7.21 reveal that only 3.3% of the inmates rated the medical attention as excellent. The majority of the inmates (64.2%) in Goron-Dutse Prison rated the medical attention as good and very good, while only 27% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison rated medical attention as good and very good. A possible explanation for this may be inmates' perceptions of health care services in Figure 7.21.

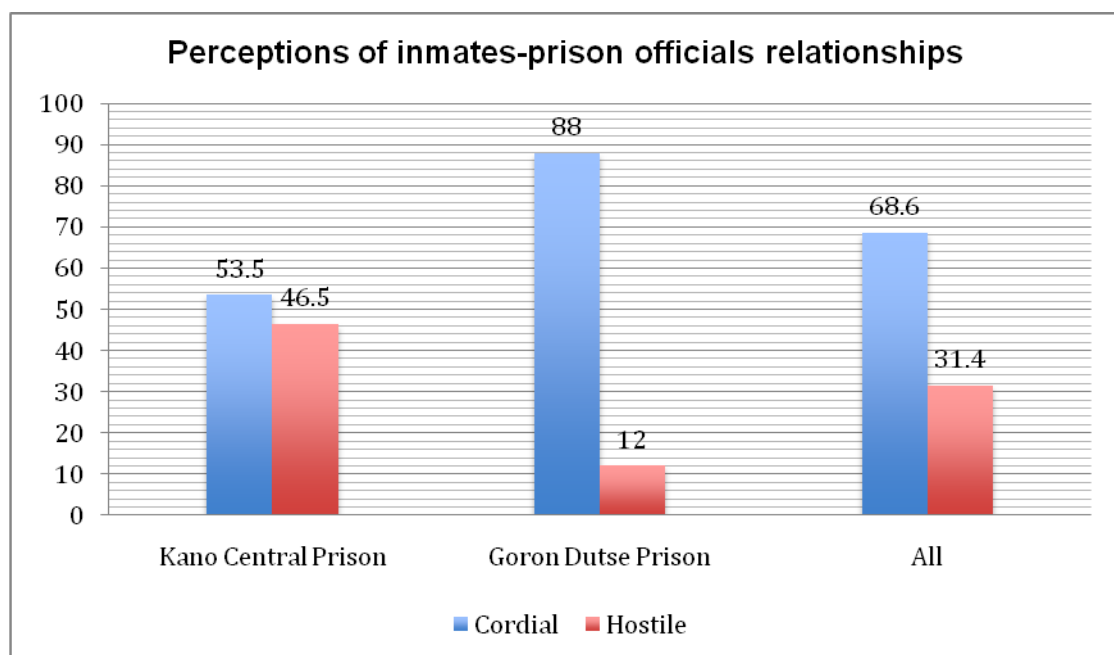


Figure 7. 25: Inmates relationships with correctional centre officials.

7.7 Relationship with correctional centre officials

7.7.1 Perceptions of inmates' relationships with correctional centre officials

Inmates were asked about their relationship with correctional centre officials. Figure 7.25 illustrates that 68.6% of the inmates stated that their relationship with correctional centre officials were cordial, with 88% of inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison compared to 53.5% of the inmates in Kano Central

Prison(p.value<0.001).The variation in the two correctional centres could be attributed to the inmates' divergent perceptions of correctional centre officials.

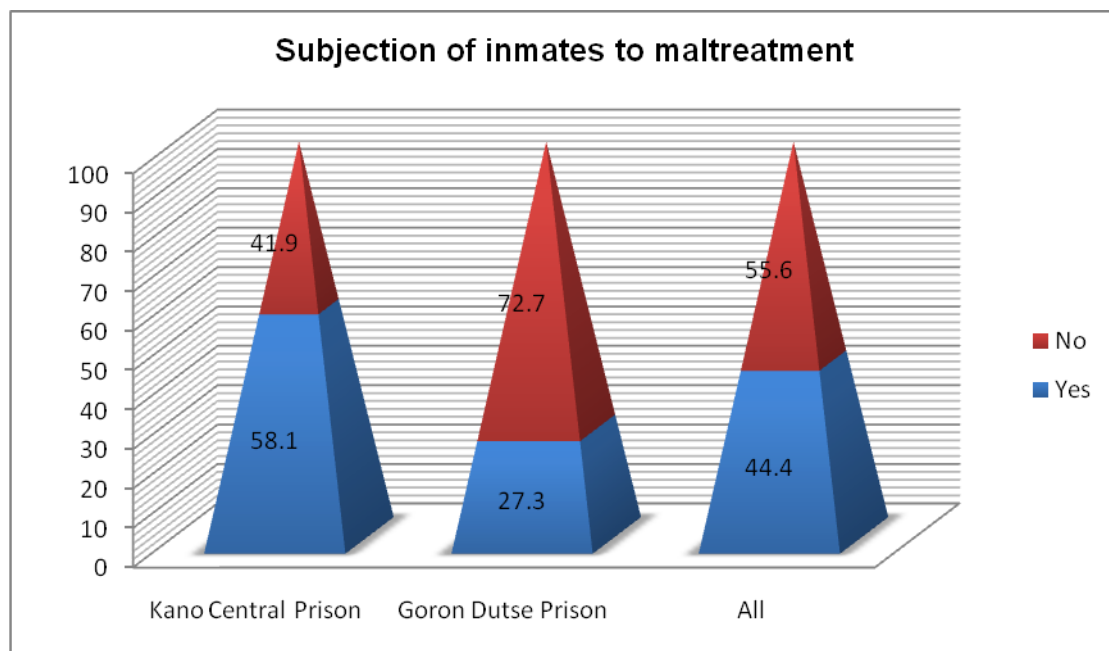


Figure 7. 26: Subjection of inmates to maltreatment.

7.7.2 Subjection of inmates to maltreatment

Figure 7.26 presents findings on whether inmates were subjected to maltreatment. A total of 55.6% inmates stated that they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment. The majority of the inmates (72.7%) in Goron-Dutse Prison stated they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment compared to 41.9% of the inmates Kano Central Prison(p-value<0.001).

Table 7. 22: Maltreatments inmates were subjected to

Types of maltreatments	Kano Central Prison n (%)	Goron- Dutse Prison n (%)	All n (%)
Food Denial	12 (12.6)	11 (44.0)	23 (19.2)
Verbal Insults	37 (38.9)	7 (28.0)	44 (36.7)
Torture	12 (12.6)	3 (12.0)	15 (12.5)
Punishment	18 (18.9)	3 (12.0)	21 (17.5)
Others/ Denial of visits by relatives	16 (16.8)	1 (4.0)	17 (14.2)

7.7.3 Types of maltreatment inmates were subjected to

Inmates were asked about the kind of maltreatment they were subjected by the correctional centre officials. As shown in Table 7.22, food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%), and punishment (17.5) were the prominent forms of maltreatment inmates were subjected to. Food denial (44.0%) was more common in Goron-Dutse Prison, whereas verbal insults (38.9%) was common in Kano Central Prison.

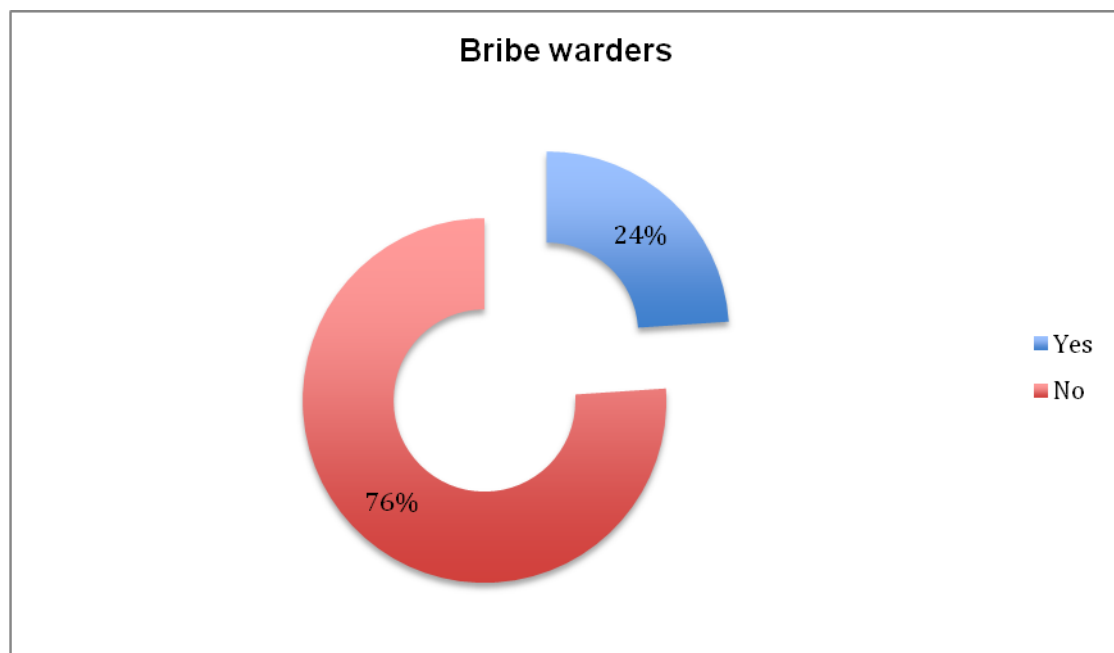


Figure 7. 27: Bribing warders.

7.7.4 Bribing correctional centre officials to enjoy correctional centre facilities

Figure 7.27 reveals that the majority of the inmates (76%) stated that they were not obliged to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy correctional centre facilities compared to 24% of the inmates who stated they were compelled to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy some correctional centre facilities.

7.8 Tests of hypothesis

Perceptions of rehabilitation programmes was operationalized as participation in rehabilitation programmes, the level of satisfaction with rehabilitation programmes, perceptions of vocational programmes, access to rehabilitation facilities, perceptions of facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation, availability of educational training and classrooms, satisfaction with classrooms, availability of the library facility, description of the library. While perceptions of facilities was operationalized as perceptions of quality of water, toilet conditions, food quality, frequency of meals, sufficiency of food, portable water, bed spacing, perceptions of correctional centre health care services, availability of standard clinic, nature of medical attention in clinic, delight with medical attention when sick, availability and satisfaction with sporting facilities, availability of places of worship and description of places of worship, nature of cell, inmate separated based on age, inmates separated based on criminal record and number of inmates in a cell.

Pearson Chi-Square statistics was used to test the study hypothesis—whether there was a statistical significant difference in inmates perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison— and the findings are summarised as follows:

The analysis shows that there was a significant difference in the perception of rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central and Goron-Dutse prisons. Specifically, there was a statistical difference in the level of satisfaction of rehabilitation programmes, perceptions of adequacy of facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation, perceptions of toilet conditions, perceptions of quality of water, perceptions of food quality, perceptions of bed spacing, inmate separated based on age, availability of standard clinic, perceptions of correctional centre health care services, perceptions of inmates relationship with correctional centre officials and subjection of inmates to maltreatment between Kano central and Goron-Dutse prison.

1. H0 there is no statistical significant difference in inmates perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison.

H1 there is a statistical significant difference in inmates perception of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prison.

7.8.1 Conclusion

This chapter analyses data that were collated through the administration of questionnaires to convicted inmates in both correctional centres under study. This chapter successfully probed into the perception of inmates towards rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potential of the NPS as well as correctional centre social setting. Quite a number of interesting revelations were made by inmates on the above subjects. This chapter has looked into the first part of analysis and discussion of data obtained from convicted inmates in the study area. Hence, the next chapter continues the analysis and discussion of data with exploring the second part of the data acquired.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS (PART TWO)

8. Introduction

This chapter answers the second research question of this study. Its objective is to investigate the perceptions of correctional officers of rehabilitation programmes and facilities to enhance effective rehabilitation of convicted inmates and to examine how these perceptions influence or impinge the effective rehabilitation of convicted inmates in the study area. Perceptions of correctional officers towards correctional centre social setting and general practices could derive from personal experience. Thus, this chapter lays focuses on the second part of the discussion of data and contributes on from the previous chapter. By triangulating both quantitative and qualitative methods, this chapter also puts forward robust empirical findings on the perceptions of correctional officials and its' effectiveness in the rehabilitation of convicted inmates in the study area.

8.1 The demographic and characteristics of the study participants

In this section, the findings on the second objective of the study are presented. It begins with a description of the demographic characteristics of correctional centre officials. The following statistics are presented first to facilitate the analysis of their perceptions about the rehabilitation programmes and correctional centre facility.

Table 8. 1: Demographic characteristics of correctional centre officials

	Kano Central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Age			
Below 25	7 (6.5)	0 (0.0)	7 (3.4)
25-30	23 (21.5)	24 (24.0)	47 (22.7)
31-35	45 (42.1)	49 (49.0)	94 (45.4)
36-40	20 (18.7)	18 (18.0)	38 (18.4)
Above 40	12 (11.2)	9 (9.0)	21 (10.1)
Rank			
Officer cadre	56 (52.3)	66 (66.0)	122 (58.9)
Rank and file	51 (47.7)	34 (34.0)	85 (41.1)
Marital Status			
Single	16 (15.0)	9 (9.0)	25 (12.1)
Married	85 (79.4)	89 (89.0)	174 (84.1)
Window	1 (0.9)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)
Divorced	5 (4.7)	2 (2.0)	7 (3.4)
Sex			
Male	82 (49.7)	83 (50.3)	165 (79.7)
Female	25 (59.5)	17 (40.5)	42 (20.3)
Highest level of education			
OND/HND/NCE	37 (35.2)	40 (40.0)	77 (37.6)
Degree/postgraduate	21 (20.0)	26 (26.0)	47 (22.9)
School certificate	47 (44.8)	34 (34.0)	81 (39.5)
Years of service in NPS			
Less than 5 years	32 (29.9)	2 (2.0)	34 (16.4)
6-10 years	32 (29.9)	41 (41.0)	73 (35.3)
11-15 years	34 (31.8)	41 (41.0)	75 (36.2)
More than 15 years	9 (8.4)	16 (16.0)	25 (12.1)
Years of service in this prison			
Less than 5 years	69 (64.5)	65 (65.0)	134 (64.7)
6 years and above	38 (35.5)	35 (35.0)	73 (35.3)

Key: Nigeria prison service

8.1.2 Demographic characteristics of correctional centre officials

Table 8.1 illustrates that most of the correctional centre officials were over 30 years old. The most frequent age group was 31-35 years of age (45.4%), and majority were males (79.7%). While there was significant variation in gender compositions in the two correctional centres, there was no significant variation

in the ages of correctional centre officials. Most of the officials interviewed belong to the officer cadre (58.9%). Also, the majority (84.1%) of the correctional centre officials were married. The level of education of correctional centre officials were probed and the result reveal that 39.5% of them had school certificates. Similarly, 37.6% of the correctional centre officials completed OND/HND/NCE. Most correctional centre officials that took part in this study had been in service with Nigeria prison authority for over 6 years, and 36.2% between 11-15 years. Nevertheless, Kano Central Prison had fewer officials (31.8%) who had spent 11-15 years as duration of service compared to 41.0% in Goron-Dutse Prison. As indicated in Table 8.1, the majority of the correctional centre officials (64.7%) had spent less than 5 years in prison service where they currently work.

8.1.3 Correctional centre officials perceptions

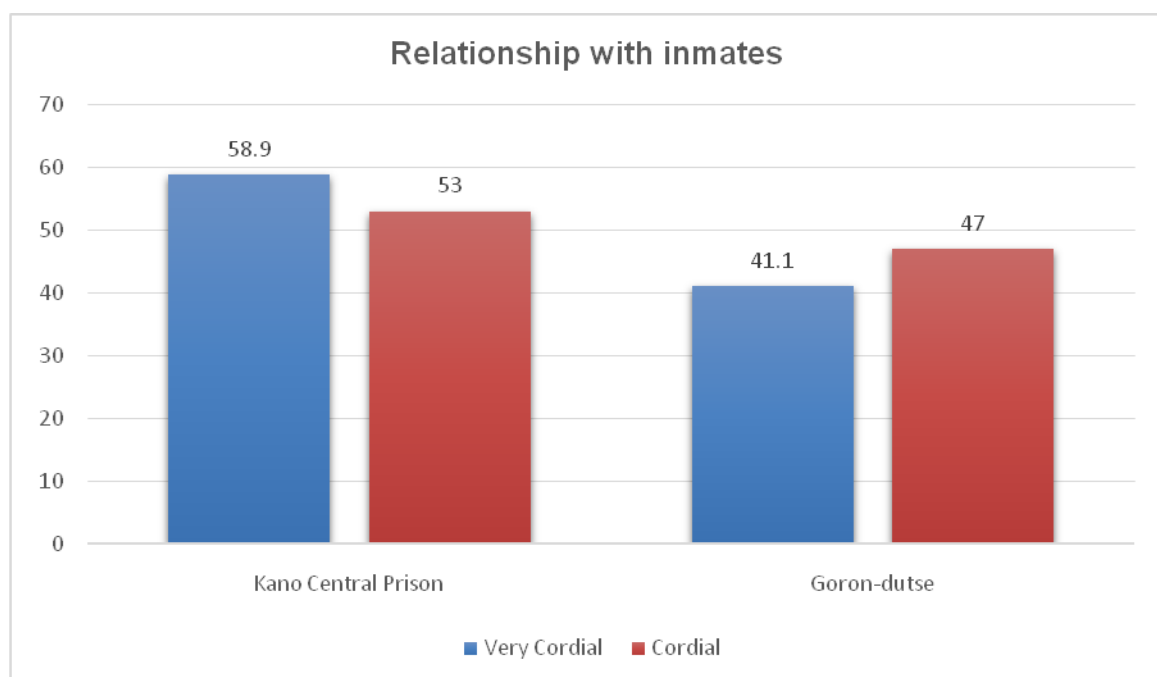


Figure 8. 1: Relationship with inmates.

8.1.4 Relationship with inmates

Figure 8.1 reveals that more correctional centre officials (58.9%) stated that their relationship with inmates was very cordial compared to those of Goron-Dutse Prison (41.1%). Generally, only half of correctional centre officials reported that they have cordial relationship with inmates. Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the relationship with inmates between the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$).

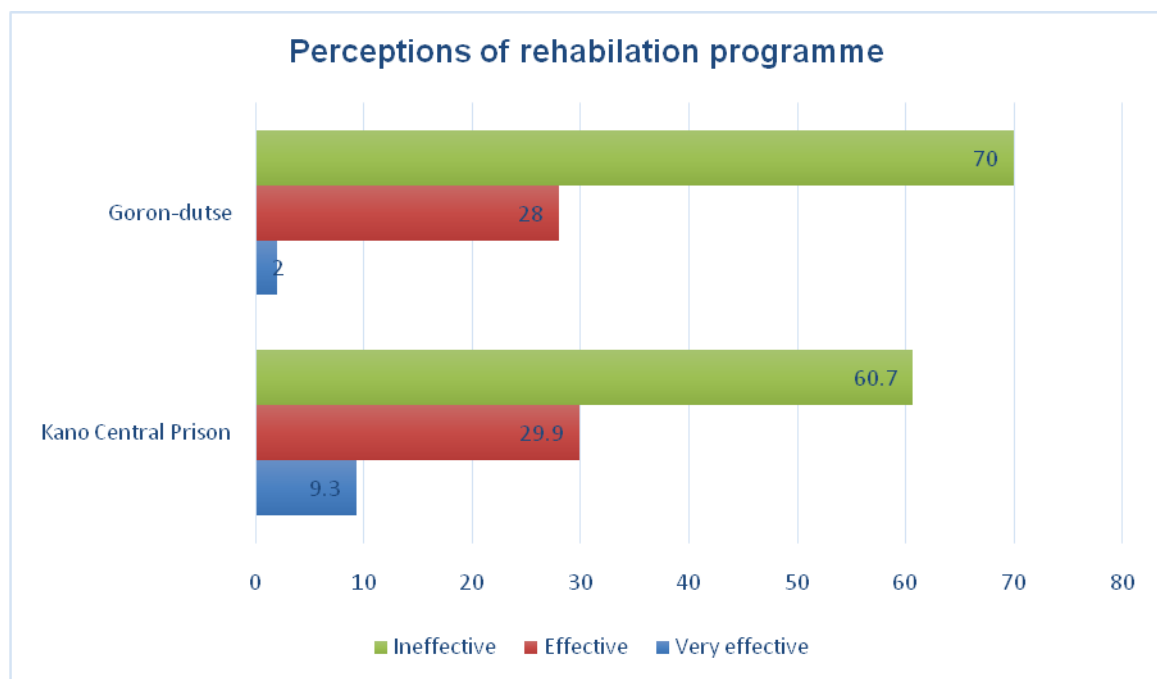


Figure 8. 2: Perceptions of rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.5 Perception of rehabilitation programmes

Figure 8.2 presents findings on correctional centre officials' perception of rehabilitation programmes. The majority of the correctional centre officials in Goron-Dutse Prison (70%) and Kano Central Prison (60.7%) stated that rehabilitation programmes were ineffective. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$).

Table 8.2: Involvement in rehabilitation programmes

Involvement in rehabilitation programmes	Kano Central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Yes	37 (34.6)	25(25.0)	62(30)
No	70 (65.4)	75(75.0)	145(70)

8.1.6 Involvement in rehabilitation programmes

When correctional centre officials were asked about their involvement in rehabilitation programmes, only 30% of them stated that they were involved in rehabilitation programmes (Table 8.2). Slightly more correctional centre officials in Kano Central Prison (34.6%) were involved with rehabilitation programmes compared to Goron-Dutse Prison (25%). The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of involvement in rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres (p.value>0.05)

Table 8.3: Areas of involvement in rehabilitation programmes

	Kano Central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Carpentry	13 (12.1)	1 (1.0)	14 (6.8)
Welding	11 (10.3)	11 (11.0)	22 (10.6)
Electrical	12 (11.2)	7 (7.0)	19 (9.2)
Laundry	5 (4.7)	6 (6.0)	11 (5.3)
No application	66 (61.7)	75 (75)	141 (68.1)

8.1.7 Areas of involvement in rehabilitation programmes

Officials who reported being involved with rehabilitation programmes were asked to name which programmes they were involved in. The most common rehabilitation programmes were carpentry, welding, electrical and laundry. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of areas involvement in rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres (p.value>0.05)

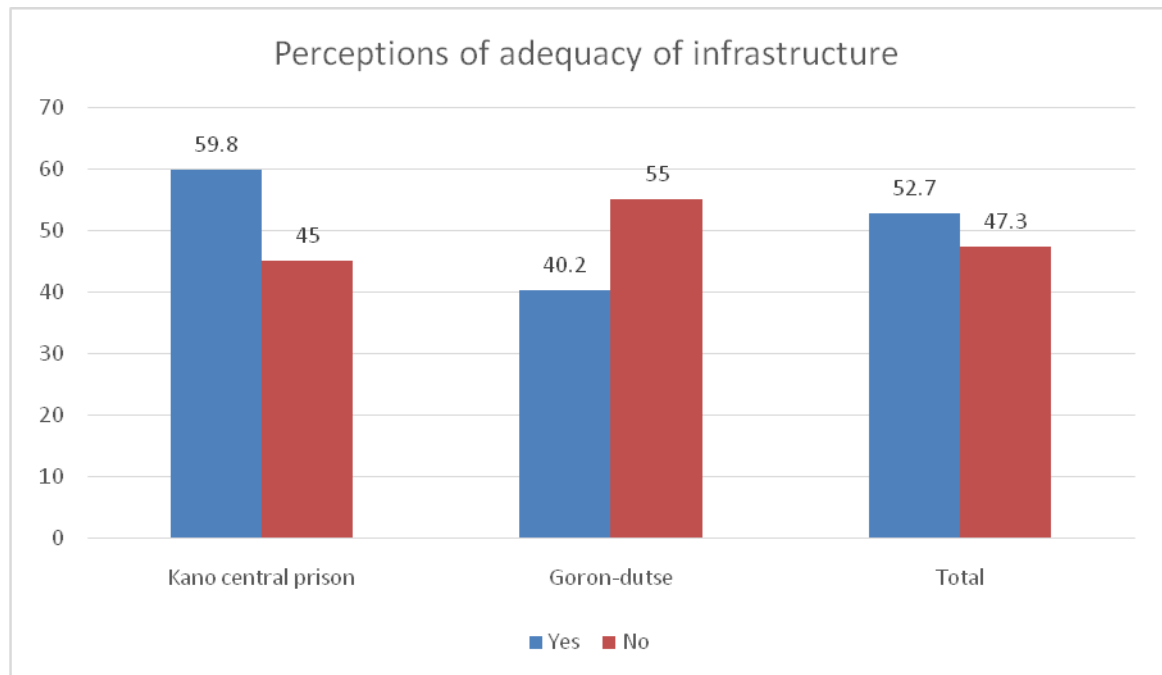


Figure 8. 3: Perceptions of adequacy of infrastructure.

8.1.8 Perceptions of adequacy of infrastructure

Participants were asked about their perception of the adequacy of the correctional centre infrastructure and the findings revealed that over half of them (52.7%) opined that the available infrastructure was adequate (Figure 8.3). The majority (59.8%) of the respondents in Kano Central Prison stated that infrastructure were adequate compared to only 40.2% of officials in Goron-Dutse Prison. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the adequacy of infrastructure in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

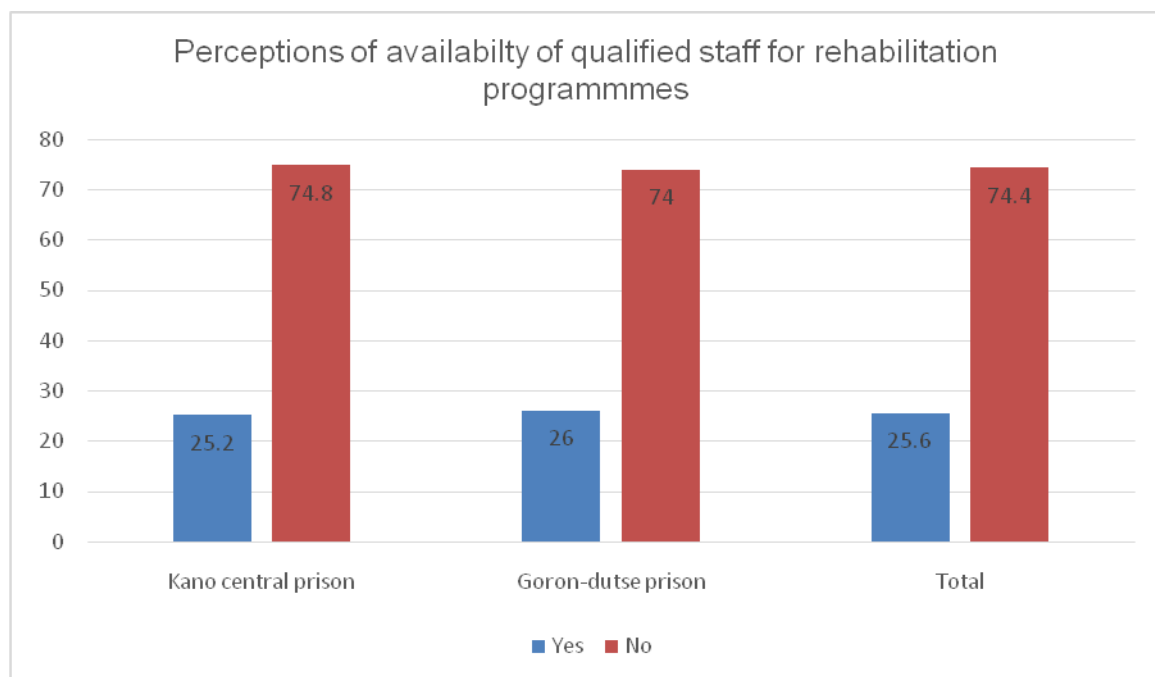


Figure 8. 4: Availability of qualified staff for rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.9 Availability of qualified staff to handle all aspects of rehabilitation programmes

Figure 8.4 shows that only 25.6% of the correctional centre officials considered there to be qualified staff available to handle rehabilitation programmes. This appears true for both correctional centres. The dominant perception was that the available staff were inadequate to provide effective rehabilitation programmes. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the availability of qualified staff to handle all rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

Table 8.4: Rehabilitation programmes available to inmates

Rehabilitation programmes	Kano Prison	Central Goron- Dutse Prison	Total
Vocational	28 (26.2)	28 (28.0)	56 (27.1)
Educational	26 (24.3)	23 (23.0)	49 (23.7)
Carpentry	32 (29.9)	36 (36.0)	68 (32.9)
Electrical	12 (4.7)	7 (7.0)	19 (9.2)
Laundry services	5 (4.7)	6 (6.0)	11 (5.3)
All	4 (3.7)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.9)

8.1.10 Rehabilitation programmes available to inmates

According to the correctional centre officials, of all the rehabilitation programmes only vocational and educational programmes were available to inmates. Specifically, carpentry, electrical and laundry services were the common vocational programmes available (Table 8.4). The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the rehabilitation programmes available to inmates in the two correctional centres (p.value>0.05)

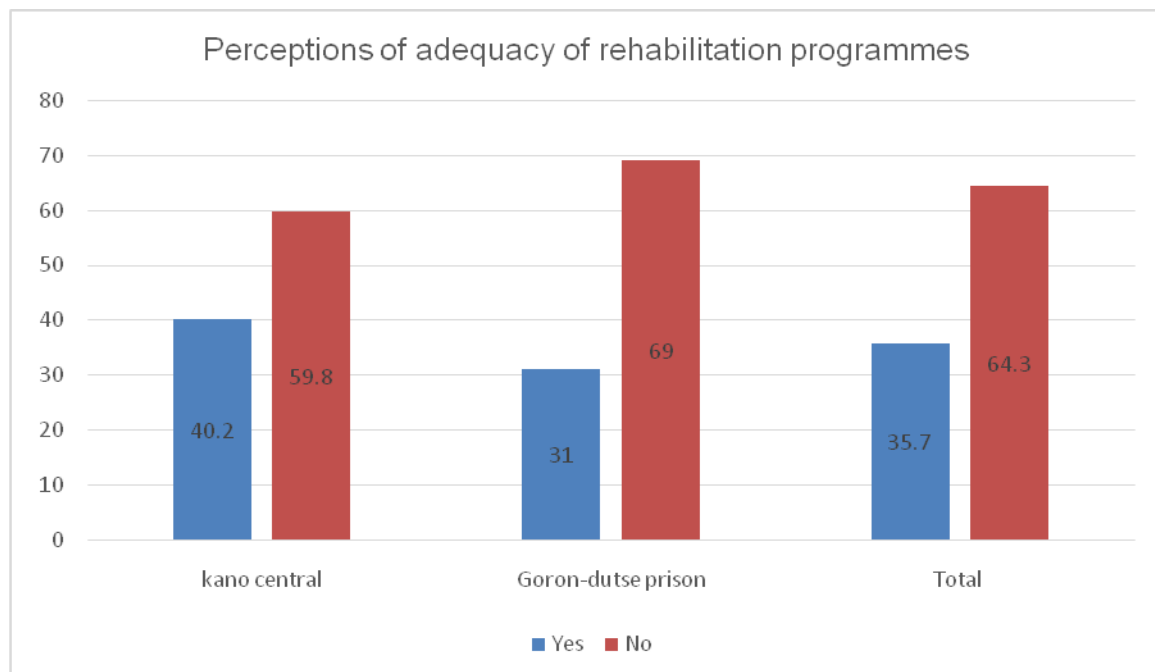


Figure 8. 5: Perceptions of adequacy of rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.11 Perceptions of adequacy of rehabilitation programmes

Figure 8.5 reveals that only a few correctional centre officials (35.7%) agreed that rehabilitation programmes were adequate. However, 40.2% of officials in Kano Central Prison agreed that rehabilitation programmes were adequate compared to 31% of correctional centre officials in Goron-Dutse Prison. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of adequacy of rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

Table 8.5: Source of funds for rehabilitation programmes

Sources of funds	Kano Central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Non governmental Organisation	46 (43.0)	47 (47.0)	93 (44.9)
Individuals	47 (43.9)	32 (32.0)	79 (38.2)
Ex-inmates	14 (13.1)	21 (21.0)	35 (16.9)

8.1.12 Source of funds for rehabilitation programmes

As shown in Table 8.5, three sources of external fundings were mentioned by the correctional centre officials when asked to name the correctional centre's sources of funding. Non-governmental organisation, individual donations and donation from ex-inmates were the common external funding used to augment the paltry and inconsistent funding from the government. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of source of funds for rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

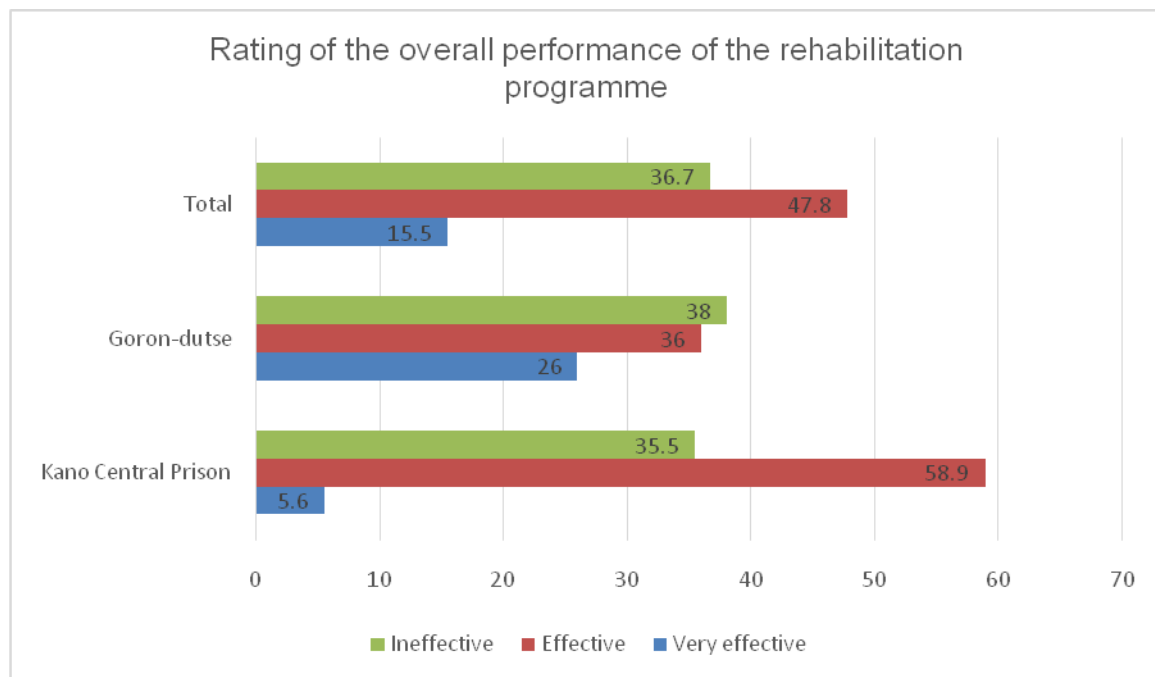


Figure 8. 6: Overall performance of the rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.13 Overall performance of the rehabilitation programmes

Correctional centre officials were asked to rate the overall performance of the rehabilitation programmes. As shown in Figure 8.6, most officials rated the rehabilitation programmes as effective or very effective. However, slightly more officials from Goron-Dutse Prison compared to Kano Central Prison rated the rehabilitation programmes as very effective. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of overall performance of the rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$)

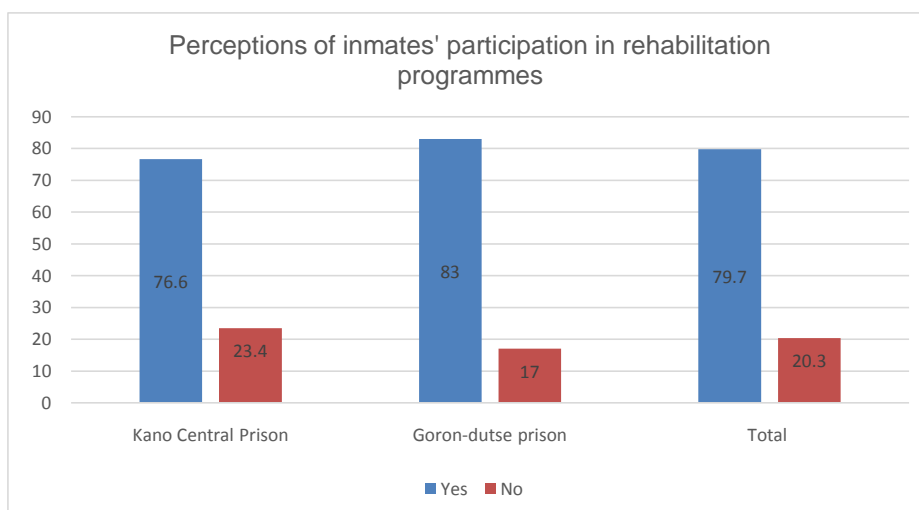


Figure 8. 7: Correctional centre officials' perception of inmates' participation in rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.14 Correctional centre officials' perceptions of inmates' participation in rehabilitation programmes

Figure 8.7 shows that the majority of officials in both correctional centres (79.9%) believed that inmates often participate in rehabilitation programmes. However, there was a slight variation in the proportion of officials who reported that inmates regularly partake in rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of inmates' participation in rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

Table 8.6: Possible reasons for inmates' lack of participation in rehabilitation programmes

Reasons for lack of participation	Kano Central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes	60 (56.1)	58 (58.0)	118 (57.0)
Lack of correctional centre officials to handle programmes	37 (34.6)	28 (28.0)	65 (31.4)
Lack of interest from inmates	10 (9.3)	14 (14.0)	24 (11.6)

8.1.15 Possible reasons for inmates' lack of participation in rehabilitation programmes

The possible reasons for lack of participation were probed, and the main reasons mentioned by officials were absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes, lack of correctional centre officials to handle certain programmes, and lack of interest on the part of inmates (Table 8.6). The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of possible reason for inmates' lack of participation in rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres (p.value>0.05)

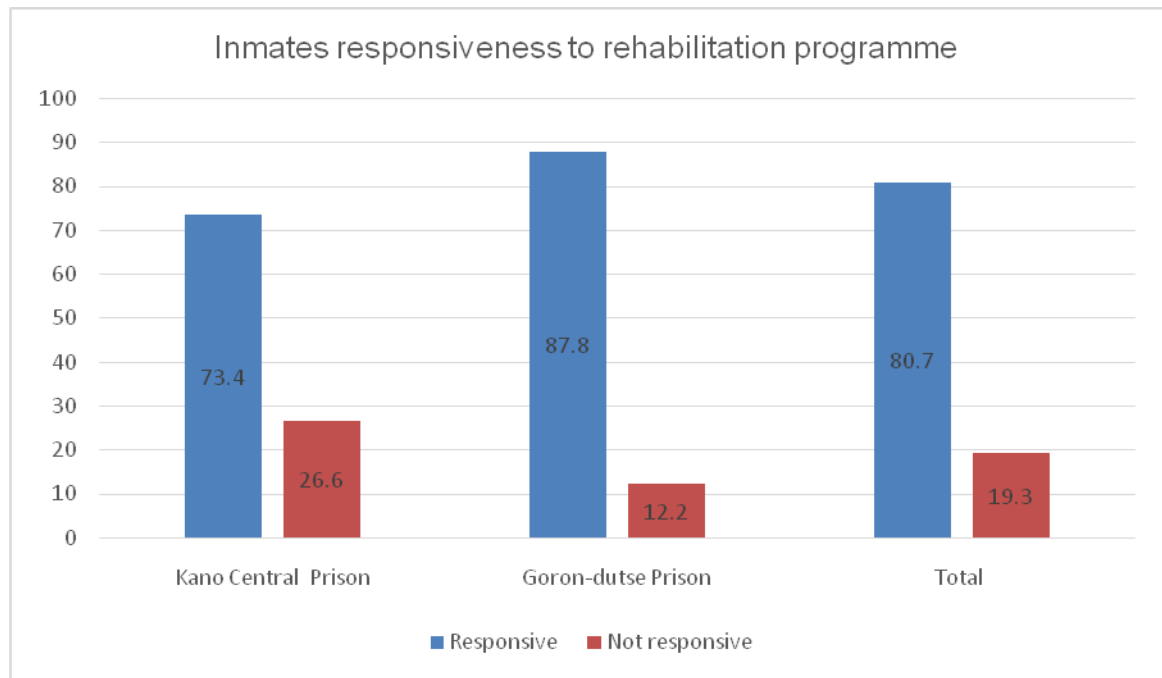


Figure 8. 8: Inmate responsiveness to rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.16 Inmate responsiveness to rehabilitation programmes

Most officials in both Kano Central Prison and Goron- Dutse Prison stated that inmates were responsive to rehabilitation programmes (Figure 8.8). The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of inmates' responsiveness to rehabilitation programs in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

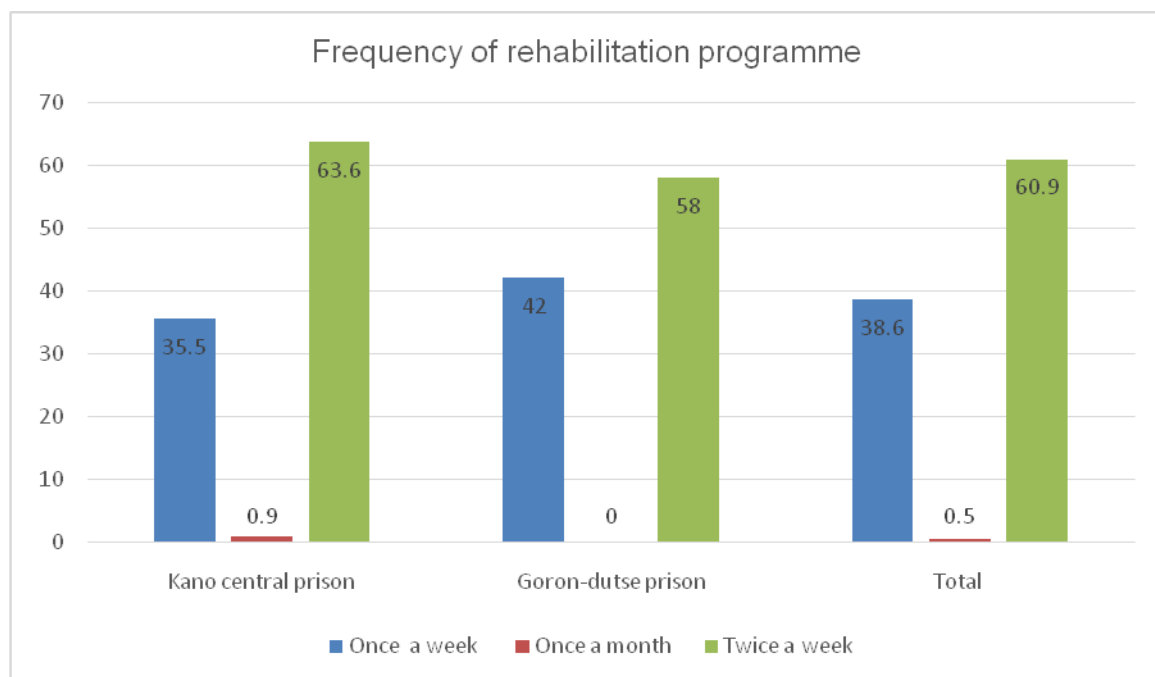


Figure 8. 9: Frequency of rehabilitation programmes.

8.1.17 Frequency of rehabilitation programmes

As shown in Figure 8.9, twice a week was the most reported frequency of rehabilitation programmes. The variation in the reported frequency of rehabilitation programmes could be as a result of differences in the rehabilitation programmes officials were referring to. Nonetheless, there appears to be consensus that inmates attend rehabilitation programmes at least once or twice a week. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of frequency of rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres (p.value>0.05)

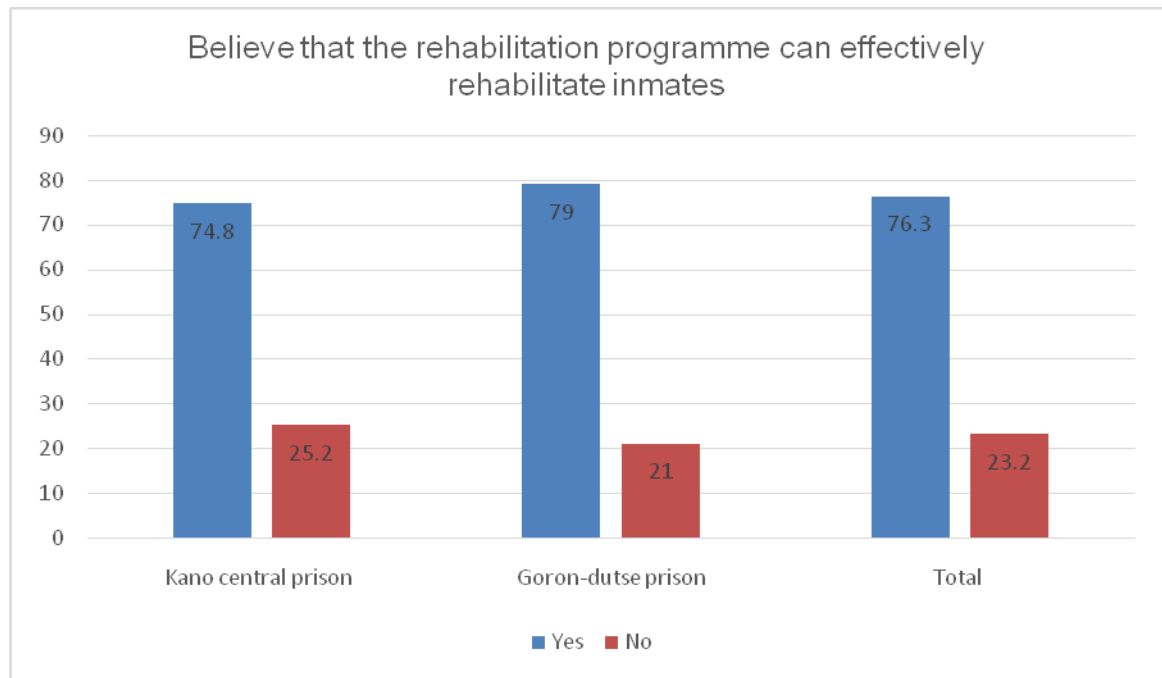


Figure 8. 10: Effectiveness of programmes to rehabilitate inmates.

8.1.18 Effectiveness of programmes to rehabilitate inmates

Correctional centre officials were asked to assess whether the rehabilitation programmes can effectively rehabilitate inmates and the findings as shown in Figure 8.10 reveal that most officials in both correctional centres (76.3%) opined that the programmes can effectively rehabilitate inmates. Only a few officials were of the view that the rehabilitation programmes cannot effectively rehabilitate inmates. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes to rehabilitate inmates in the two correctional centres (p.value>0.05)

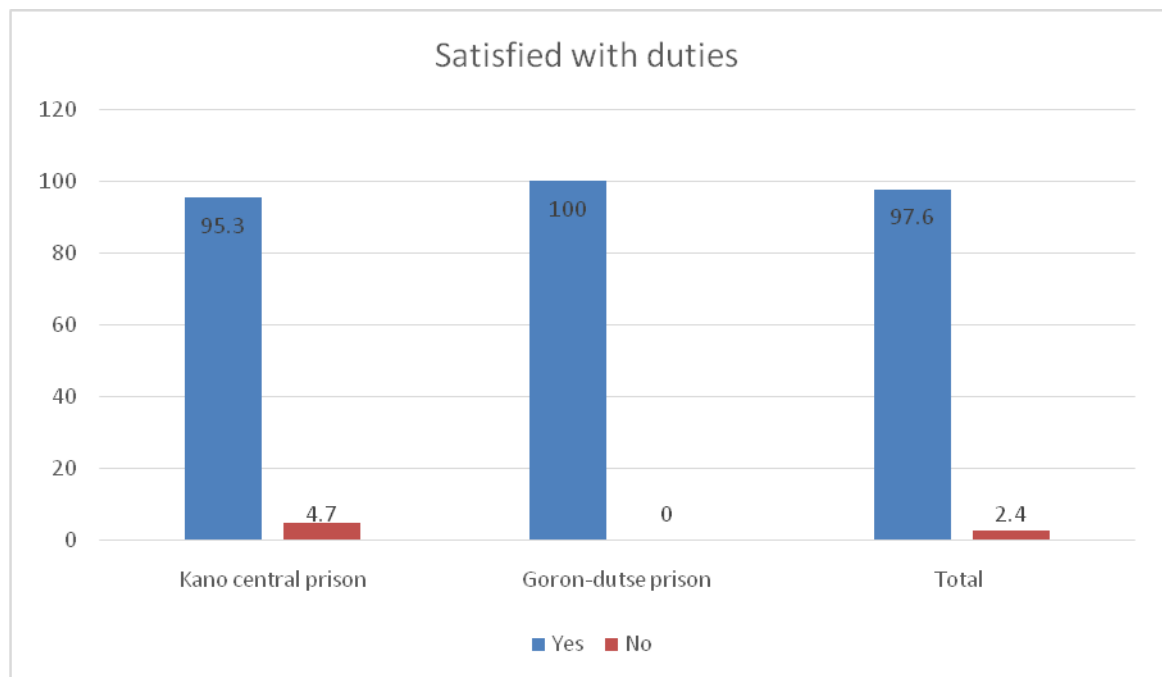


Figure 8. 11: Satisfied with duties as correctional centre officials.

8.1.19 Satisfied with duties as correctional centre officials

Almost all of the correctional centre officials stated that they were satisfied with their duties. In fact, all officials in Goron-Dutse Prison reported that they were satisfied with their duties. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions on satisfaction with duties as correctional centre officials in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

Table 8.7: What resources would you consider inadequate to enable effective rehabilitation

	Kano central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Lack of funds	33 (30.8)	20 (20.0)	53 (25.6)
Scarcity of tools for rehabilitation programmes	35 (32.7)	29 (29.0)	64 (30.9)
Facilities	30 (28.0)	39 (39.0)	69 (33.3)
Inadequate number of correctional centre staff	9 (8.4)	12 (12.0)	21 (10.1)

8.1.20 Inadequate resources for effective rehabilitation

Correctional centre officials were asked to comment on the current resources inadequate, for effective rehabilitation. These included: lack of funds, scarcity of tools, poor facilities and shortage of correctional centre staff (Table 8.7). The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of the inadequate resources for effective rehabilitation in the two correctional centres ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$)

Table 8.8: Perception of correctional centre conditions

	Kano Central Prison	Goron-Dutse Prison	Total
Manageable	10 (9.3)	17 (17.0)	27 (13.0)
Reasonable	26 (24.3)	13 (13.0)	39 (18.8)
Appalling	22 (20.6)	21 (21.0)	43 (20.8)
Decent enough for correctional activities	9 (8.4)	15 (15.0)	24 (11.6)
Decaying structures	12 (11.2)	13 (13.0)	25 (12.1)
Satisfactory	28 (26.2)	21 (21.0)	49 (23.7)

8.1.21 Perception of correctional centre conditions

Finally, officials were asked to rate the overall condition of the correctional centre, and surprisingly, most correctional centre officials considered the correctional centre to be in acceptable condition for rehabilitation. One in five officials in Kano Central Prison viewed the correctional centre's condition as satisfactory, 24.3% as reasonable and 10% as manageable. Similarly, 21% of officials in Goron-Dutse Prison viewed the correctional centre condition as satisfactory, 17% as manageable, and 13% as reasonable. Nonetheless, a fifth of the officials considered the correctional centre's condition to be appalling. The Pearson Chi-square statistics showed that there was no statistical difference in correctional officials' perceptions of correctional centre conditions in the two correctional centres ($p.value > 0.05$)

8Theme Three: The Establishment of Correctional Centre and the Official Capacity of Correctional Centre Facility

8.2 Establishment of correctional centre

Respondents were asked about the establishment of the correctional centre facility. A correctional officer stated an exact date when Kano Central Prison (KCP) and Goron-Dutse Prison (G-DP) were established. Kano Central Prison was established in 1910 which was during the colonial era (PI Correctional centre official 1 KCP) and Goron-Dutse prison was built in 1928. Hence, congestion of KCP led to the establishment of G-DP, serving as an annex to KCP (PI Correctional centre official 1 GDP). Therefore, the Nigerian government took a bold step in establishing G-DP to address correctional centre congestion in KCP. This shows the readiness of the government in curtailing congestion of correctional centre formations.

8.2.1 On official capacity of the correctional centre facility

Previous narratives by respondents revealed that KCP was congested. To ascertain the authenticity of the narrative, it was imperative to confirm the official capacity of the correctional centre formation. In view of this, when

respondents were asked about the official capacity of the correctional centre, an officer revealed that the official capacity of the KCP is 690, but currently the correctional centre facility accommodates 1912 inmates, comprising of 779 convicts and 1,133 awaiting trial inmates, and include both males and females (PI Correctional centre official 2 KCP).

Regarding the official capacity of Goron-Dutse Prison, a respondent revealed. A discussant stated that the official capacity of the correctional centre is 630 but the current lock up is 1576, which comprise of 651 convicts, 925 awaiting trial inmates, 40 long- term inmates, 40 short term, 1 lifer and 1 debtor 1 as well (PI Correctional centre official 2 GDP).

The results of the conducted in-depth interviews (IDI), personal interview (PI) is a clear testimony that Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons at the time this research was conducted could be described as congested. As stated by some of the respondents, congestion is due to majority of inmates who were awaiting trial. This suggests how cumbersome the judicial process is in Nigeria. Inmates are left to languish in correctional centres without facing court trials, not knowing their fate for several years. Hence, it is evident that almost two thirds of the inmates were awaiting trial in the two correctional centre facilities.

8.2.2 Frequency of renovation

Narratives revealed high congestion rates in the two correctional centre formations, thus it was pertinent to probe into the renovation practice of the correctional centres. In view of this, respondents were asked when renovation takes place. A correctional official (GDP,1) stated that renovation has not been carried out of recent but specific renovation is always. There has not been any renovation for the past four years. There are only renovations by individuals, NGOs. I can categorically say there has not been any renovation by the federal government for the past four years. PI Correctional centre official 3 GDP said that at that time one cell was being renovated not by government but an NGO. Inmates had been relocated to other cells pending

the completion of the renovation, and another cell would soon be renovated as well.

In a bid to further understand the rate at which correctional centres were renovated, in-depth interviews were conducted separately. A respondent in Kano Central Prison stated that one look at the structures will indicate that there has not been any renovation of any kind. Since three years ago, no renovation of any kind was recorded (PI Correctional centre official 3 KCP). The respondent further shared:

“But at the end of 2016, contract was awarded for general renovation such as the admin block (one story building, tiling of existing offices, painting, roofing and also a new building in the process). Some cells were expanded in the form of apartments to accommodate more inmates. There are also cells upstairs, a parameter wall is on renovation too, a walkway to go round the entire correctional centre at night incase of attempted escape by an inmate”(Correctional Centre Official 3 KCP).

From the above response it can be deduced that there is a concerted effort by the Nigerian government in making sure that the conditions of correctional centre formations in Nigeria is habitable. Other renovations were carried out by the Federal Government of Nigeria and state government. Shekarau and Kwankwaso as previous Governors of Kano State also built and renovated KCP structures (PI Correctional centre official 3 KCP). However, from the interviews, respondents argued that the majority of the renovations were not conducted by the federal government, but rather by NGOs and individuals, although when the study was conducted, a contract had been awarded to build a new administrative block and renovation of some cells in Kano Central Prison, but even at that, renovation was rarely conducted. These suggest that there was no fixed period of renovation, thus implying that the two correctional centres where the research were rarely renovated.

8.2.3 Divergent views on lack of renovation

With the findings of renovation in the correctional centres, it became important to find out the reason for insufficient renovations. Thus, respondents were asked about the reasons behind lack of renovation. Respondent PI Correctional centre official 4 KCP said:

“Inability to renovate decaying cells and entire correctional centre could be blamed on lack of funds. Although we are managing the structure we have, I think it should be renovated. As I earlier pointed lack of funds, sometimes one could blame it on timely disbursement of funds allocated to prison service in the national budget. Due to lack of commitment from leaders, nonchalant attitude, I don’t want to say diversion of funds, but some subscribe to that, delayed or non-remittance of funds allocated to the NPS from the national budget and so on.”

The above confirmation is a clear testimony that lack of funds, lack of commitment from leaders, and the government’s inability to make available ample funds to cater for renovation were some of the reasons why the correctional centres under study were not renovated. Respondent PI Correctional centre official 4 GDP added that:

“Authority is more concerned on inmates than existing facility. This led to a decline governments willingness in renovating prison. Some major concerns government is really bothered about include feeding. Also, lack of funding, political inaction could be a reason for non-renovation of correctional centre. Stakeholders are also ignorant with correctional centres; they assume it is for the rejected members of the society, politicians have also ignored prison formations.”

Another respondent stated that one of the probable reasons why correctional centres were rarely renovated was that people felt that correctional centres remain a place for those who have violated the law and have rejected those individuals, thus renovating such a place was a waste of resources. Respondent PI Correctional centre official 4 GDP stated that:

“When correctional centres are built, politicians are insulted for taking prisons to their localities. They respond by saying what he or she could do was to bring prison so that our children will be locked up. As a result of this, politicians have ignored correctional institutions. Politicians see prison as only a government owned property, forgetting that they can make an ample contribution.”

Overall, complaints about the government's inability to renovate the correctional centres under study was a dominant response from the majority of the respondents. Thus, most respondents were dissatisfied with the government's renovation policies.

8.2.4 Inmate classification

Previous in-depth or personal interviews revealed congestion and lack of renovation in both correctional centres under study. Hence, probing into inmate classification practices by the two correctional centres was imperative. Therefore, correctional centre officials were asked about inmate classification practices. A respondent stated that classification of inmates in GDP is done based on offence committed, age, and gender (PI Correctional centre official 5 GDP). Contrastingly, another respondent stated that due to congestion, it was almost impossible to classify inmates properly based on their criminal record or nature of the offence. Correctional centre official 4 KCP stated

We try to practice the right way to classify inmates, but of recent we are unable to put it into practice due to congestion. We just accommodate them in

one cell irrespective of their offence. But I confirm that we separate condemned inmates from other inmates because their movement is restricted in the correctional centre. Also separating males and females was a classification we never violated”

Another respondent stated that due to lack of adequate cells, decaying structure, and congestion due cumbersome judicial process, they are unable to separate inmates based on age, offence committed and criminal record (PI Correctional centre official 5 KCP). PI Correctional centre official 3 GDP explained:

“We are expected to separate inmates based on criminal records, offence committed, age, gender, but we are unable to do so. Congestion is the main reason. We have no option other than accommodating them in one cell. For example, someone was incarcerated for breach of contract and we had no space for him, so we had to accommodate him with other inmates. From all indications he does not look like criminal, it was a case failed delivery of goods, but we had to accommodate him in the same cells with other offenders. In an ideal situation, first timers are being separated from jail birds; there is the need to strike a balance between what is obtainable outside and within the prison. Gender, by their crimes, length of incarceration, inmates of war, lodgers, debtors, condemned inmates, recidivists should also kept alone. Space is a problem, so we have abandoned that strategy. If space permits us, we practice, but of recent we are unable to practice that. Also, mentally ill inmates from mentally stable inmates. Special cells for those inmates with communicable disease.”

With specific reference to the Nigeria Prison Act (CAP,1999, 25:26), inmates are expected to be separated based on gender, awaiting trial from convicted inmates, juveniles under sixteen years of age from adults, and debtors and other non-criminal inmates from criminal inmates. The quote above certifies that the two correctional centres under study are thus unable to practice

proper classification of inmates. Even though the correctional centres were able to classify some inmates based on gender and separating condemned inmates from other inmates, several lapses were still noticed. In the case of Kano Central Prison, congestion became imminent, which majority of the respondents blamed on the slow judicial process. Goron-Dutse Prison had similar problems of poor classification. Although the correctional centre, separated inmates with communicable diseases, condemned and mentally ill inmates, other proper classification was violated.

8.3 Correctional centre clinic

8.3.1 Provision of drugs

Some inmates do fall ill during incarceration, which may be due to some factors such as depression. In a situation where they fall ill, the correctional centre clinic is expected to treat all inmates except in a situation where the ailment cannot be handled by the correctional centre and must receive treatment outside the correctional centre facility. Thus, it was imperative to probe into the provision of drugs by the Nigerian government. A narrative by a correctional officer revealed that:

“Drugs are supplied by the Federal Ministry of Health and Health Inspection. It is not the only source we get drugs from, [also] non-governmental organizations. But that of the Nigerian government is the only one we are sure it will be supplied from, others may come in a period we least expect. We also demand for drugs and are supplied from the headquarters. Drugs are supplied depending in the season, for example, malaria drugs and inhalers are supplied during summer and winter seasons respectively” (PI Correctional centre official 6 KCP)

From the argument raised above, it can be deduced that the correctional centre had several channels through which drugs were supplied but the supply always expected is from the Federal Ministry of Health. Another

interview also revealed that ideally drugs are supposed to come frequently from the Ministry of Health, but the drugs are not supplied, making inmates buy drugs themselves when they are ill (PI correctional centre official 6 GDP). The striking thing about the above narrative suggests that the supply of drugs were not sufficient. Another respondent stated that:

“Ex and serving inmates also denote drugs prison clinic. We do entertain that, or from NGOs or individuals. But I must state that we also get supply of drugs from the Federal Ministry of Health” (PI Correctional centre official 6 GDP).

8.3.2 Treatment of inmates

The NPS is charged with the responsibility of treating inmates under their custody as stipulated by the Nigerian Prison Act (1999). Inmates are entitled to medical attention within or outside the correctional centre depending on the ailment. With the removal of inmates to the hospital, the Nigeria Prison Act (Chapter 366, 1999:7) states that due to serious illness, any inmate can be taken to a hospital provided that a medical officer has endorsed it. Treating inmates also includes provision of drugs and other accepted ways to treat inmates. Though government provided drugs, they were unlikely to be sufficient. PI Correctional centre official 7 GDP stated:

“Most times drugs prescribed for inmates are not in the correctional centre clinic, inmates have the only option of bearing the financial implication. The drugs are bought by inmates or inmate relatives or liaise with the authority to get them drugs outside the correctional centre.”

It is clear that inmates who had no funds or relatives to purchase drugs for them were made to settle for drugs provided by the correctional centre clinic even if it was not the prescribed drug for their respective ailment. The negative implication is that inmates are likely to fall ill without receiving the desired medical attention. An observation during the research confirmed that

some inmates were abandoned while some were incarcerated in correctional centres in areas where they had no relatives. The question now is that when such inmates fall ill and the correctional centre clinic is unable to provide them with prescribed drugs, who provides the drugs?

8.3.3 Harsh weather

The study area, the average temperature in the summer season is about 38 degrees adding to inmates' discomfort in the congested correctional centre cells. With regards to this, PI Correctional centre official 7 KCP revealed that:

“During the summer, most of inmates complain of malaria, most times we run out of drugs to treat all inmates. It is in this situation that inmate relatives may have to buy the drugs for inmates. Blocked sewage lines and stagnant water led to the breeding of mosquitoes, causing malaria.”

Another respondent revealed that:

“During the cold weather, the best we could offer were inhalers and flu tablets which we barely had enough. While for the inmates we advise them against cold because we don't have special ways of preventing of preventing asthmatic patients” (PI Correctional centre official 7, GDP).

Narratives revealed that preventive measures were mapped out on how to address inmates' ailments, but these preventive measures were not available as the only practiced preventive measure was advising inmates against exposing their body and provision of drugs and inhalers to asthmatic patients. However, drugs against flu were also made available.

8.3.4 Inmate request

A correctional centre is a total institution, thus forcing inmates to live a regimented lifestyle. Even at that, inmates have rights and privileges. The NPS has made concerted effort to abide to the right and certain

privileges. The Nigerian Prison Act (CAP, 1999:26) provides that inmates can consume tobacco and liquor under a written order of a medical officer. Inmates are also allowed to receive meals from relatives, especially those who need to be on special diets like diabetic patients. PI Correctional centre official 7 GDP stated:

“Inmates who were suppose to be on special diet were allowed to receive food from their relatives. Some were diabetic, some were hypertensive, meals served could affect their health, based on medical advice from the clinic, they were allowed to get special diets from their relatives.”

Thus, the NPS has kept to this law based on the request of inmates. When respondents were asked about the inmates' various requests, one official stated that some inmates who wanted to smoke, only tobacco, not banned substances, were allowed and some who could not do without it to avoid a condition like depression were permitted (PI Correctional centre official 7 KCP).

A similar narrative revealed that

“Inmates who were suppose to be on special diets were allowed to receive food from their relatives. Some were diabetic, some were hypertensive, meals served could affect their health, based on medical advise from the clinic, they were allowed to get special diets from their relatives. (PI Correctional centre official 7, GDP)”

From the interviews conducted, it can be comprehended that the two correctional centres under study adhered to the Nigerian Prison Act (CAP, 1999:26), a policy which permits inmates to consume substances based

on the approval of a certified medical practitioner. The permission must also identify the quantity to be served to the inmate as well as be written in the inmate's journal.

8.4 Rehabilitation programmes for inmates

An interview with an officer in charge revealed that:

"We have different rehabilitation for inmates. We have educational and vocational training programmes. This can help in checking idleness amongst inmates. It can also help them with their respective reintegration into the society that once rejected them" (PI Correctional centre official 8 KCP).

Therefore, rehabilitation programmes are imparted to inmates to aid in their successful reintegration into the wider society. However, it was imperative to impart inmates with vocational skills as most inmates are stigmatized, hence making it difficult to secure payable jobs. Another in-depth interview with a correctional officer revealed that they try to make use of all the available programmes, however not all rehabilitation programmes were functioning (PI Correctional centre official 8 GDP).

8.4.1 Clarification on rehabilitation programmes

After stating the availability, it was pertinent to clarify the programmes that were available. Respondent PI Correctional centre official 8 KCP shared:

"The main aim of incarceration was not to punish offenders, but to correct them as well. When they are admitted into the correctional centre, we [have them] face the admission board, a group of different specialists. This helps the welfare board to ascertain the problem of the inmate, medical officer assesses the status, vocational department will also try to know where to fit an inmate for

rehabilitation programme. They include carpentry, leather workshop, welding laundry, electrical. For females we have knitting, hairdressing, tailoring.”

It appears that correctional centre officials understand that incarceration is not only about punishing or restricting an inmate's movement, but also to provide rehabilitation, reformation and reintegration. It is deduced from the narrative above that rehabilitation starts from admission of an inmate, as admission can ascertain which rehabilitation or vocational programme an inmate fits. This was important because some inmates have talents in some areas, and placing them in other programmes may hinder their performance. For example, during this study, a correctional officer stated that after an interaction they discovered an inmate had skills of being in the cobbler unit. Hence he was posted to that rehabilitation programmes. Similarly, a correctional officer stated:

“Rehabilitation does not stop at acquiring skills, there is also psychotherapy. We have a psychologist who is a member of the admission board who ascertains their problems for further rehabilitation. A psychiatric is involved in the process. Learning skill is also part of rehabilitation so that they become self-reliant. Many skills are taught such as welding and many programmes to keep them busy and learn useful things while in prison” (PI Correctional centre official 8 KCP).

Another respondent shared:

“We do organize different rehabilitation programmes for the inmates in areas like tailoring, carpentry, just to mention a few. Social workers, members of Muslim society and Christian also came around for sessions with inmates. These played a role in their rehabilitation. Also, both

Muslim and Christians engaged inmates in sermon sessions” (PI Correctional centre official 8 GDP).

Further, IDI Correctional centre official 8 GDP added:

“We have aftercare in Goron-Dutse prison. This is arranged for inmates when they are discharged. This will help them to reintegrate back into the society. Inmates who had produced the goods during incarceration, the proceeds were kept for them and the amount recorded in our exercise books. We also have guidance and counseling unit.”

Therefore, the majority of the respondents felt the rehabilitation and vocational programmes were capable of adequately rehabilitating inmates. However, some of the programmes were not functional due to factors like insufficient or obsolete facilities or lack of officials to run the programmes.

8.5 State of infrastructure

In describing the state of the infrastructure in the correctional centre, a correctional officer stated:

“As you can see infrastructure in this prison are decaying every passing day, facilities are worn out, with little or no attention from the government. Even we as officers, we experience hardship with regards to decaying structures. For the inmates, it is even worse as they live in congested cells, with blocked sewage leading to an unpleasant smell. I will describe the current state of infrastructure as appalling. Although the government of recent has embarked on renovation of this correctional centre, it shows some signs of willingness to address the problem of worn out structures in this prison” (PI Correctional centre official 9 KCP).

From the verbatim quote above, it is clear that the Nigerian government has made some efforts in addressing problems of worn out structure in correctional centres, but some respondents were of the view that government has done minimal in addressing the situation.

PI Correctional centre official 9 GDP stated that:

“The structure is currently overstretched. This particular correctional centre is expected to accommodate 630 inmates, but look at our record, we are currently accommodating 1576, doubling the official capacity. What do you expect if not a decaying structure.”

Conversely, another correctional officer attested that“...

the current infrastructure is fair. I personally feel we can manage the current situation, although some officers have a different view, but I feel it is fair enough” (PI Correctional centre official 10 GDP).

There was significant variation in describing the state of the infrastructure of the correctional centre facility. This indicates a sharp contrast of correctional centre officials’ perception of correctional centre facilities. Hence, this answers objective three of this research which is to identify the convergence and divergence on the perceptions of inmates and correctional centre officials.

8.6 Availability of correctional centre officials to handle programmes

A correctional officer shared:

“Of course, we have personnels that engage in rehabilitation exercise. In each of the workshop, namely carpentry, cobbler, welding, tailoring and laundry. They assist in training inmates on various skills, afterward, inmates are left to improve their

skills on the programmes they have received” (PI Correctional centre official 11 KCP).

IDI Correctional centre official 9, GDP added:

“We have different officials who are assigned to inculcate different skills to the inmates like carpentry. Presently we have about four correctional centre officials who are handling different rehabilitation and vocational training programmes.”

With only four correctional centre officials handling various rehabilitation programmes raises concern regarding the availability of the concerned correctional centre officials. Therefore, PI Correctional centre official 9 KCP revealed:

“We do not have staff in all the rehabilitation programme. The staff and workshops are inadequate for training all the inmates in this prison. We manage though, but it is quite frustrating. We hope that construction of a new workshop will soon be over. A lot of effort must be put in place to improve rehabilitation programmes in this prison. For example, the official handling the electrical workshop was transferred four months [ago], upto now, there has not been any replacement. Inmates in that area now are idle. In the tailoring centre, the sewing machines we have are not adequate, although what we have are put into use, but we struggle with it.”

Another respondent stated:

We have insufficient staff in training of inmates. Some workshops are available, but the facilities are obsolete, inadequate, in some cases there are officials to handle the programmes. If we hold any

rehabilitation programme, we just manage the facilities to ensure distribution. Electrical workshop remains a problem in this prison due to unavailability official to teach the inmates. We have reached a point where inmates teach themselves or some inmates had the talent before they were arrested. We capitalize on that and allow them teach themselves. For example, as you can see, inmates in the cobbler unit and laundry services are only supervised but were not taught. Only carpentry at the moment has an officer in charge, even though he has to do with obsolete equipment, inmates were still able to learn carpentry skills” (PI Correctional centre official 11 GDP).

Even though some respondents complained of unavailability of correctional centre officials to handle rehabilitation sessions, obsolete or inadequate rehabilitation facilities, it can be deduced from their narratives that despite some of the listed challenges, inmates were able to learn some vocational skills, which are capable of playing a role in their rehabilitation. For example, Goron-Dutse Prison inmates were much involved in laundry and cobbler sessions, thus making these units very productive. This would not have been achieved without the proper guidance of correctional centre officials.

8.6.1 Efficiency of programmes in character molding

When respondents were asked about the efficiency of programmes in the character molding of inmates, a PI Correctional centre official 12 KCP stated:

“Some of the inmates do benefit from the few rehabilitation programmes. We train some inmates with the assistance of other institutions, e.g. Bayero University Kano who assist us with materials, sewing machines, carpentry tools. We train them and they learn and benefit a lot from such programmes. For example, one of the female inmates here who I don’t want to mention her identity was incarcerated for a

violent act and looked hostile. Hence, it was important to engage her in sermon and rehabilitation programmes. This aided in her character molding; as we have noticed, she is improving on a daily basis.”

The same official was also asked about the role of rehabilitation and vocational programmes in the character molding of inmates who were involved in rehabilitation programmes.

“Even though not all inmates had the opportunity to be involved rehabilitation programmes due to inadequate facilities, to some extent it has checked idleness amongst those that are involved in some rehabilitation programmes. We are managing the facilities we have at the moment, although we would we have done better with more rehabilitation facilities. If only we had all necessary facilities, all inmates would be involved in the rehabilitation programme”(PI Correctional centre official 12 KCP).

The respondent further stated that:

“Other programs such as guidance and counseling, reading holy books like the Quran and Bible, and sermon sessions has made some of them to be remorseful, regretting their actions that led to their imprisonment has aided in character molding. For example, an inmate who was incarcerated for raping a minor showed signs of remorse after accepting guilt and promised not to return to such an illicit act upon gaining freedom. I can categorically say that this programmes played a positive role in the character molding of the inmates. All we are requesting from the government is to provide adequate rehabilitation programmes and tools for these programmes. With this, we can

record significant success in inmate rehabilitation”
(PI Correctional centre official 12 KCP).

Furthermore, a different correctional from GDP stated that:

“Rehabilitation programmes has helped in inmates character molding; they feel excited to be part of vocational skills sessions, thus making them busy not idle, preventing them from depression. One inmate was always worried about his incarceration, until he joined vocational skill sessions, we saw he felt better. We hope he keeps improving. Due to separation of inmates, female inmates were only involved in weaving which was within the building designated for them as female inmates. This was deliberately done to avoid them having any contact whatsoever with the male inmates” (PI Correctional centre official 12 GDP).

A subsequent in-depth interview session with the same correctional officer revealed that:

“Religious activities was able to mold their character. The Muslim Students Society and Fellowship for Christian Students engaged inmates with character molding. Inmates also [participate in] recreational programmes such as ludo and football sessions. As you can see, a football tournament is going on now and the winner will be presented with a trophy, this motivates them” (PI Correctional centre official 12 GDP).

Conversely, another official declared:

“With only a few engaged in vocational programmes, we can say the majority of the inmates remained idle, with depression, sometimes leading to mental illness, but the ones undergoing

training could have their character well molded”
(PI Correctional centre official 13 GDP).

Overall, as deduced from the narratives by the respondents, there is variation on how they perceive inmates’ response to rehabilitation programmes and its ability to help in character molding. Although, some narratives revealed inmates were idle, other views stated that inmates responded positively to rehabilitation programmes, vocational training, and sermon sessions with both Muslim and Christian associations made available to them.

8.6.2 Inmates response to rehabilitation programmes

Participants were asked about how inmates were responding to rehabilitation programmes. PI Correctional centre official 13 KCP stated that:

“Inmates who were engaged in rehabilitation programmes responded well. Some inmates were admitted without any vocational skill, but upon discharge, they could boast of some vocational skills courtesy of the rehabilitation. I can say that some of the inmates were responding to rehabilitation programmes they were involved in during their incarceration.”

Another correctional officer shared:

“Inmates are responding well. When we are admitting an inmate, we ask them about their specialty and place them in available vocational programmes. These may play a role in their individual response to some programmes because some inmates prefer certain programmes to the other. As you can see, inmates in tailoring are all doing well; we have divided them into different sections, some of them do sewing, some are involved in embroidery. Hence, I can say that inmates are responding well to rehabilitation programmes. Although we have a shortage of

facilities, we are managing the ones that are made available” (PI Correctional centre official 14 KCP).

A similar qualitative data also revealed that:

“Inmates in carpentry responded better to programmes because they had an officer, [but] those that were in electrical couldn’t learn further because the officer had been transferred which led to some of them losing interest in vocational programmes. Hence they were all redeployed to carpentry” (PI Correctional centre official 13 GDP).

The results of the in-depth interviews suggest that inmates who were involved in rehabilitation programmes responded well, thus helping in character molding. Although some of the respondent complained of shortage of facilities, their narratives suggest that a majority of the inmates who were involved in rehabilitation programmes played a positive role in their character molding. It is therefore pertinent to state the two correctional centres under study to some extent are able to rehabilitate inmates with the rehabilitation and vocational programmes available in the correctional centre.

8.6.3 Funds allocated to cater for rehabilitation programmes

With regards to funds allocated to cater for rehabilitation programmes, PI Correctional centre official 14 KCP said:

“Honestly, we don’t receive any funds, government just makes provision for workshops, even though the workshops are not adequate, we still try to manage the tools we have. As it is, I can confirm to you that no funds have come from the government with regards to funding rehabilitation programmes. Sometimes, we do get donations from corporate and non-governmental organizations or individuals. Also, for the benefit of doubt, funds may be coming from the government, but not to my knowledge because

the funds allocated to cater for rehabilitation may not be used for that.

The respondent further stated that NGOs assist with rehabilitation programmes, but not in cash. They normally provide tools to assist inmates with rehabilitation (PI Correctional centre official 14 KCP). According to IDI with Correctional centre official 14 GDP, the Federal Government gives little funds which is what they manage with. Sometimes, these little funds come thrice a year; there is no fixed period, but funds are expected annually. Overall, correctional centre officials had differing views of funding. While some state that funds are never made available for rehabilitation programmes, others feel the majority of donations come from NGOs and private individuals and that government sometimes gives funds but at random times.

8.6.4 Problems inhibiting effective rehabilitation of inmates

During an in-depth interview session, a correctional centre official stated that:

“Lack of funding, staffing was a major problem bedeviling effective rehabilitation of inmates in this prison. Although rehabilitation at the moment is present in the prison, we experience several challenges. Sometimes we do have officials and do not have the facilities and vice versa. It is really unfortunate that sometimes inmates spend more time locked up in the cells instead of being engaged in vocational training” (PI Correctional centre official 14 GDP).

If the government provided adequate rehabilitation programmes, there may be minimal challenges faced by both inmates and correctional centre officials. Also, some perceived problems which may have hindered effective rehabilitation of inmates may not be blamed on the government's inability to provide adequate rehabilitation and vocational programmes alone, but congestion of cells, inhumane living condition, violation of inmates' rights, the

absence of basic facilities such as bed spacing among others. PI Correctional centre official 12 GDP stated:

“Lack of interest from inmates on rehabilitation programmes also hindered effective rehabilitation. This may be not be unconnected to availability of prison officials to handle training, lack of motivation, and inadequate workshop facilities. This made inmates to remain indoor as they preferred to be locked up in cells.”

Another respondent from Goron-Dutse Prison stated that:

“The class started with 40 inmates, but only five are currently attending the session. Lack of facilities may have been the reason for their continual refusal. For example, inmates avoided sessions like shoe making session because there was no official attached to the unit” (PI Correctional centre official 13 GDP).

Regarding the same issue, PI Correctional centre official 12 KCP said:

“Lack of funds, as some of the inmates are willing to learn, but there are no adequate facilities. Get me clear, I am not saying we don’t have facilities, but they are not adequate. If we have shortage of tools, then it remains a problem to us and the inmates as well. The staff that are involved in rehabilitation programmes are expected to go for retraining, but unfortunately we have not had any of such. We also lack training facilities.”

The respondent further stated that lack of motivation of staff and stress of handling large number of inmates affected effective rehabilitation of inmates (PI Correctional centre official 12, KCP). PI Correctional centre official 13 KCP added:

“They were made to remain idle due to absence of adequate facilities. As a result of this, inmates remained idle as well, thus hindering effective rehabilitation. We the facilitators also forgot some of the basic skills because we were redundant and didn’t have facilities to keep us busy.”

An additional issue highlighted is:

“Transfer policy also affected effective rehabilitation. Facilitators were transferred without immediate replacement. For example, in this correctional centre, it has been four months since the electrical workshop official was transferred. As I am talking to you now, he has not been replaced, affecting rehabilitation of inmates” (PI Correctional centre official 12 GDP).

It appears from the in-depth interviews conducted that the majority of the respondents complained of availability of programmes, including the absence of retraining courses for correctional centre officials, and lack of interest by inmates which may be blamed on the absence of functional rehabilitation programmes. Also, other problems deduced from the in-depth interviews were lack of motivation such as incentives and salary review for correctional centre officials. Hence, it is imperative the Nigerian government address the identified problems.

8.6.5 Improving rehabilitation programmes

To ensure the improvement of rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centre, a correctional centre official stated that:

“There is need to have funds, staff should be going for training seminars, and more workshops should be constructed. People outside should patronize products made by inmates such as chairs and tables This can improve the morale of the inmates.

The government should have ample funds to cater for rehabilitation programmes as the funds that are allocated are not sufficient, even though these funds are rarely sent to the NPS. Government can also try to ensure a fixed period when these funds are expected to be disbursed” (PI Correctional centre official 11 KCP).

Further, PI Correctional centre official 13 GDP said:

“Government should ensure provision of professionals, provision of equipment, funding, good management, if this are all in place, it will help.”

Contrastingly, PI Correctional centre official 12 GDP succinctly argued:

“Allocation funds alone cannot solve the problem. Allocation of more funds may not necessarily help the situation, hence, government should judiciously manage funds as it is believed [that if] funds are made available the desired result of adequate rehabilitation of inmates [will be] satisfactorily met. We also wish private donors and non-governmental organizations continue to assist with the little they can as previous donations have helped.”

Theme Four: 8.7 Analysis of convergence and divergence of inmates and correctional centre officials’ perceptions

Participants were divided and chosen based on conviction (convicted inmates) as well as rank, gender and involvement in rehabilitation programmes for correctional centre officials. Qualitative data from Table 8.1 revealed that most correctional centre officials interviewed belong to the officer cadre (58.9%), most involved in this study were males (79.7%) compared to females (20.3%), and only 30% stated that they were involved in rehabilitation programmes (Table 8.2). Furthermore, the most common

rehabilitation programmes, correctional officials stated were carpentry, welding, electrical and laundry. Quantitative data revealed that only a few numbers of inmates (27%) were involved in rehabilitation. In addition to, correctional officials' perception also reveals that there were inadequate rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centres under study (Figure 7.6). This could be a possible reason why only a few number of inmates were involved in rehabilitation programmes.

Additional quantitative data upheld the initial result of poor rehabilitation as correctional centre officials in Goron-Dutse (70%) and Kano Central Prison (60.7%) stated that rehabilitation programmes were ineffective (Figure 7.9.2). These findings show a convergence between the perception of inmates and correctional centre officials with regard to rehabilitation programmes; coincidentally, it answers objective three of this research work.

Quantitative and qualitative data revealed inmates and correctional centre officials' perceptions towards rehabilitation programmes and facilities. Quantitative data from inmates revealed that the majority (73%) of the inmates were not involved in rehabilitation programmes (Figure 7.6). The study also found out that there was a lack of interest in rehabilitation programmes by inmates, although it may be blamed on inadequate rehabilitation programmes, although inmates failed to report that they were not interested in some rehabilitation programmes. For example, Correctional centre official 13 GDP, stated that a rehabilitation class started with 40 inmates, but later it shrank to only 5 inmates, suggesting that inmates deserted rehabilitation classes due to lack of interest. Although it may be blamed on inadequate rehabilitation programmes. Quantitative data obtained from correctional centre officials showed that possible reasons for lack of participation included absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes, lack of correctional centre officials to handle certain programmes and lack of interest on the part of the inmates (Table 8.6). Although, inmates failed to attest that there was a lack of interest from them, only qualitative and quantitative data from correctional centre officials was able to reveal this problem.

Another factor which could affect inmates' interest in rehabilitation was the level of correctional centre officials' involvement in rehabilitation. For example, when correctional centre officials were asked about their involvement in rehabilitation programmes, only 30% of them stated that they were involved (Table 8.2). Slightly more correctional centre officials in Kano Central Prison (34.6%) were involved with rehabilitation programmes compared to Goron-Dutse Prison (25%). With this finding, it was pertinent to probe into areas of involvement in rehabilitation programmes. Officials who reported being involved with rehabilitation programmes were asked to name which programmes they were involved. The most common programmes correctional centre officials stated were carpentry, welding, electrical and laundry (Table 8.3).

The study also revealed that three forms of classifications were never violated: gender, condemned inmates from other inmates, as well as inmates with communicable diseases such as whooping cough. This reveals a convergence of inmates and correctional centre officials on the perception of inmate classification. The findings of this study revealed that the majority of the inmates stated that they were not separated based on age, with 90% from Kano Central Prison. Qualitative data revealed that due to congestion, it was impossible to classify inmates based on age, nature of offence, criminal records, nature of offence (Correctional centre official, 3 GDP). Hence, there is convergence in this aspect as both inmates and correctional centre officials affirmed that proper inmate classification were not practiced.

Participants were asked about the efficiency of correctional centre infrastructure and facilities. Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed interesting results. For example, responses revealed that 45.7% of the inmates stated that they had no access to a standard clinic. Interestingly, 89.7% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that a clinic is available compared to 26.8% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.22). Also, 74% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse prison stated they enjoyed medical

attention compared to only 20.1% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.23). Contrastingly, qualitative data revealed that correctional centre clinics lacked funds, hence drugs were not available so inmates had to be treated outside correctional centre clinic and in some situations inmates' relatives had to purchase the drugs with the permission of the correctional centre authority (Correctional centre official 7, GDP). One would therefore wonder how 74% of inmates enjoy medical facilities when the correctional centre clinic lacked adequate drugs to cater for sick inmates.

This suggested that only a few inmates were attended to when they were ill. But quantitative data from the inmates revealed that 44% of the overall inmates enjoyed medical attention when they fell ill, with a majority of the inmates (74.8%) in Goron-Dutse stating they were treated when they fell ill, although only 20.1% of the inmates in Kano central prison stated that they enjoyed medical attention when they were ill (Figure 7.23). A divergent view is reported in this context, showing divergence in the level of perception of correctional centre clinic. Qualitative data from correctional centre officials contradicted inmates' perceptions of enjoying medical attention and provision of drugs. For example, a correctional centre official stated that inmates often have to bear the financial implication for drugs to treat their illness (PI Correctional centre official 7 GDP).

A recurring sub-theme reveals that 36.5% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison rated medical attention as good and very good compared to 59.2% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. Clearly inmates had divergent perceptions of health care services. It can be deduced from the qualitative data that the correctional centre condition is not suitable for decent treatment. One now wonders how inmates could describe the health care services in this context as good and very good.

Another reoccurring sub-theme on the perception of inmates on the nature of medical attention received when they fell ill was able to reveal that 64.2% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that medical attention was good and very good (Table 7.21). Qualitative data revealed inmates enjoyed

treatment such as preventing malaria with only tablets during the summer and inhalers during winter for asthmatic patients (Correctional centre official 7 GDP). These are not the best ways to treat the above ailments. Even at that, quantitative revealed that the majority of the inmates were satisfied with the nature of the treatment they received in Goron-Dutse Prison while qualitative data revealed a contradictory perception or result. Narratives revealed that preventive measures were mapped out on how to address inmates' ailments, but these preventive measures were not available as the only practiced preventive measure was advising inmates against exposing their body and provision of drugs and inhalers to asthmatic patients. Drugs against flu were also made available.

Another finding was probing into the infrastructure of the two correctional centres under study. Hence, quantitative and qualitative strategies were employed to obtain data from inmates and correctional centre officials respectively. For example, 57.7% of the inmates stated that educational training was available (Table 7.9). Also, half of the inmates 50.8% stated that classrooms were available. Findings on level of satisfaction with classrooms and show that only 5.5% of the inmates were highly satisfied. A minority of the respondents (8.2%) in Goron-Dutse Prison stated they were highly satisfied with classrooms compared to only 3.3% of the respondents in Kano Central Prison. However, quantitative data from correctional centre officials revealed that most officials rated the rehabilitation programmes as effective or very effective (Figure 8.10), while deductions from the responses of inmates suggests that rehabilitation could be less effective as expected. Hence, it can be deduced that there are divergence in the perceptions of inmates and correctional centre officials towards some rehabilitation programmes such as level of satisfaction of some rehabilitation programmes.

Data also revealed that only 23.5% of the respondents stated that library facilities were available. Very few inmates (1.0%) described the library facility as excellent (Table 7.11) very good (5.6%) and good (11.8%). The majority of the respondents (66.2%) described the library facilities as poor. Figure 7.13 presents findings on the availability of sporting facilities. The analysis revealed

that 56.6% of the inmates stated that sporting facilities were available 75.5% in Goron-Dutse Prison compared to 41.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. Perhaps some inmates were not aware of the availability of sporting facilities in the correctional centre. Data also revealed that a few of the inmates (11.1%) stated they were highly satisfied with the correctional centre's sporting facilities, 28.1% were satisfied, while 32.3% were dissatisfied (Table 7.12).

Further findings also revealed that slightly over half (51.9%) of the inmates reported they had access to a standard toilet (Figure 7.14). Perceptions of the conditions of available toilets were probed and the results shown in Table 7.9 reveal that 44.3% of inmates opined that toilet conditions were poor. This was a probe of correctional centre infrastructure from the perspective of inmates, hence it was imperative to probe correctional centre infrastructure from the perspective of correctional centre officials. Findings revealed that over half of the correctional centre official stated that it was adequate (Figure 8.3). One in five officials in Kano Central Prison viewed the condition as satisfactory, 24.3% as reasonable and 10% as manageable. Similarly, 21% of officials in Goron-Dutse Prison viewed the correctional centre condition as satisfactory, 17% as manageable, and 13% as reasonable. However, this finding differs from the inmates' perspective as the majority were dissatisfied with correctional centre infrastructure. This answered the research question three of this research work. Therefore, the outcomes share similarities and differences (Table 8.8).

Qualitative data from correctional centre officials was able to probe into the current state of the infrastructure of the two correctional centre formations. This was done to find out if they may be divergent perceptions. A narrative by a correctional centre official described the correctional centre as a decaying structure as facilities were seen to be worn with little or no attention. The narrative also revealed that even correctional centre officials faced several challenges with regards to this decaying structure such as blocked sewage lines, hence there was an unpleasant smell. Another perception was that the government were doing their best to address the problems, while another

respondent stated that due to congestion, infrastructure was overstretched (Correctional centre official 9 GDP).

A different respondent described it as fair, suggesting that the current state of the correctional centre could be managed (Correctional centre official 10 GDP). Quantitative data corroborates this view as 23.7% of the correctional centre officials described the current state of infrastructure as satisfactory (Table 8.8). Data obtained which were analyzed and transcribed showed similarity and dissimilarity in the perception of inmates and correctional centre towards rehabilitation, which answered research question three of this research work. For example, half of the inmates 50.8% stated that classrooms were available (Figure 7.11). This suggests that inmates perceived the current state of infrastructure as satisfactory, this corroborates quantitative data obtained from correctional officials as one in five correctional officials in Kano Central Prison viewed the condition of the correctional centre as satisfactory, 24.3% as reasonable and 10% as manageable.

The findings of this study also revealed that the two correctional centre formations were congested when this study was conducted. Findings revealed the official capacity of Kano Central Prison is 690, yet there were 1912 inmates, comprising of 779 convicts and 1,133 male and female awaiting trial inmates. This verifies inmates' responses as quantitative data revealed that the majority of the respondents (68.4%) stated that there were 41 and above inmates in a single cell (Table 7.20) This reveals a convergence between the perception of inmates and correctional centre officials, suggesting both prison formations at the time the research was conducted were congested. This answers objective three of this study. Also an observation by the research confirmed that in one of the correctional centre formations, a single cell accommodated 171 inmates. This corroborates some existing literature in Nigeria such as that of Ali (2011), which suggest that correctional centres in Nigeria are in shambles with regards to overcrowding.

Another reoccurring sub-theme was the issue of inmate and correctional centre official relationships. It was stated in Chapter 1 that inmates' perception

of correctional centre official attitudes towards them and also implication for reintegration principles were thoroughly appraised. Hence, quantitative data revealed that 68% of the inmates stated that their relationship with correctional centre officials was cordial, with 88% in Goron-Dutse Prison and 53.5% in Kano Central Prison respectively. The variation in the two correctional centres could be attributed to the divergent perceptions of correctional centre officials by inmates (Figure 7.25). Quantitative data also revealed that the majority of the inmates (72.7%) stated that they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment, while only 41.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison reaffirmed their position. (Figure 7.26). However, reported cases of maltreatment included food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%) and punishment (44.0%).

Although, they were reported cases of maltreatment which were food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%) and punishment (44.0%), but quantitative data was able to reveal that the majority of the inmates (72.7%) of the inmates said they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment (Table 7.22). Also, quantitative data revealed that the majority of the inmates (76%) stated that they were not obliged to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy facilities compared to 24% of the inmates who stated they were compelled to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy correctional centre facilities (Figure 7.27). The inmate and correctional centre official relationship was further probed via questionnaires that revealed that most correctional centre officials (58.9%) stated their relationship with inmates were very cordial. Generally, only half of correctional centre officials reported that they have cordial relationship with inmates (Table 8.1). This finding reveals convergence or similarity between the perception of inmates and correctional centre officials, hence answering the third research question of this research work. This finding contradicts or supports some literatures on Nigerian correctional centres, which states that the majority of inmates in Nigerian correctional centre are maltreated. For example, Iriekpan and Ezeobi (2012) stated that inhumane treatment imposed on inmates by correctional centre officials such as torture, denial of food, extortion and sexual abuse (largely in the case of

female inmates) are seen as major reasons for the ineffective rehabilitation of inmates. However, the findings showed that no case of sexual assault was reported by any of the female convicted inmates, hence contradicting the claims of Iriekpan and Ezeobi (2012). Thus, this reveals a convergence between the relationship of inmates with correctional centre officials as cordial.

8.9 Tests of hypotheses

Perceptions of rehabilitation programmes was operationalized as perceptions of availability of qualified staff to handle rehabilitation programmes, rehabilitation programmes available to inmates, perceptions of adequacy of rehabilitation programmes, source of funds for rehabilitation programmes. It further involves perceptions of overall performance of rehabilitation programmes, correctional officials' perceptions of inmates' participation in rehabilitation programmes, perceived reasons for lack of participation in rehabilitation programmes, inmates' responsiveness to rehabilitation programmes and the effectiveness of programmes to rehabilitate inmates. While perceptions of facilities was operationalized as perceptions of adequacy of infrastructure and perceptions of correctional centre conditions. Pearson Chi-Square statistics was used to test the study hypothesis— whether there was statistical significant difference in correctional officials' perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano central prison and Goron Dutse prisons— and the findings are summarised as follows:

The analysis shows that there was no significant difference in correctional officials' perceptions of rehabilitation programmes and facilities between Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons.

8.10 Conclusion

This chapter analyses data that were collated through the administration of questionnaires to convicted inmates as well as transcriptions of in-depth interviews with correctional centre officials in both correctional centres under study. This chapter concludes that there was disparity in the perception of

inmates and correctional centre officials towards rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potential of the NPS. There was a sharp contrast in the perception of correctional centre officials towards correctional centre infrastructure. A notable contrast was when a respondent described correctional centre infrastructure as appalling, while another respondent described it as satisfactory. The following chapter will discuss the findings. This chapter analysed data obtained from correctional officials in the study area and the next chapter provides a discussion of some of the key findings from the study and highlighted in the current and previous chapters on data analysis and discussion.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

9.1 Introduction

The foremost objective of this study was to assess correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities in North Western Nigeria. Thus, the objective was feasible through a comprehensive analysis of perceptions, description and knowledge of convicted inmates and correctional centre officials. Particularly important to the researcher was how respondents perceived rehabilitation potentials of the NPS and what insinuation such perceptions has on the correctional centre social setting and overall practices.

This chapter discusses the findings, which were put forward in Chapter Seven. The discussion commences with an evaluation of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the study context; here evaluation was made between perceptions of respondents. This chapter also contains a detailed evaluation of rehabilitation strategies and understanding the practices in contemporary Nigerian penology. The theoretical framework for this study guided this analysis. Hence, the findings were put side by side with literature in instances where it became essential.

9.2 Summary of the key findings

The foremost objective of this part is to review the important experimental results of this study with the intention of making it meaningful to a reader. An exploration of existing, scholarly literature for this study was identified in Chapter One and clarified in consequent chapters. As stated and disputed in Chapter One, the overall practices of the NPS to an extent contradicts the law establishing the penal institution. According to Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), the NPS was established as an institution to rehabilitate offenders, penalize and transform an inmate and to supplement or

balance the procedure of permissible intercession and law implementation. However, some correctional centre formations in Nigeria contradicted the above law and thus violate the United Nations Minimum Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders (1984). This can be corroborated by literature that states that correctional centres in Nigeria were bedeviled with several problems such as congestion, decaying infrastructures, inadequate retraining programmes (Esiri, 2016; Nwankwoala & Ushi, 2014; Salaam, 2013). This led to further criticism as Adetula et al. (2010) stated that the interaction with the correctional centre administration in Nigeria makes inmates who are less toughened to become hard-bitten in felonious events after discharge from correctional centre, leading to more tendencies than not of them relapsing into criminal activities, which leads to higher frequency of recidivism. This painted a bad image of the NPS.

Conversely, some scholars argue that correctional centres in Nigeria have been able to rehabilitate inmates successfully. For example, workshops for skills acquisition were established to train inmates in the skills of shoemaking, printing and tailoring (Ayuk et al., 2015). Additionally, some correctional centres in Nigeria provided vocational training which enables inmates to manufacture doors, office equipment, and household furniture (Oluwakuyide, 2001). This will help inmates to eke out a living upon regaining freedom without reverting into crime (Ayuk, 2003), thus countering the claim that inmates relapse into further criminal activities upon regaining freedom.

The main argument in Chapter One is that correctional centre facilities in the Nigerian context have not been effective in the rehabilitation of inmates. This may not be unconnected with the fact that very few studies have revealed that correctional centres in Nigeria have adequately rehabilitated inmates. With an exploration of existing literature in Nigeria, it appears that there are impediments hindering effective rehabilitation of inmates in the Nigerian context which has attracted attention, hence receiving major attention from scholars. These hindering factors include congestion of cells, inadequate rehabilitation programmes and facilities, absence of retraining of staff, and inhumane living conditions among others.

The literature review in Chapter Two laid emphasis on the events in correctional centre as a correctional institution. The cardinal objective of correctional centres was not only to punish but also to reform offenders, with specific attention to:

- Highlighting that inmates were individuals who were cramped in correctional centre as convicted or awaiting trial inmates.
- Correctional centre emerged in accordance with established and prescribed rules.
- Punishment is a deliberate infliction of pain on an offender which may be in the form of incarceration. Thus, it remains legal action.
- Incarceration was meant to punish offenders, although it is likely to improve them upon attaining freedom, hence suggesting that incarceration plays a positive role in preventing an offender from venturing into further criminal activities.
- There are different scholarly perceptions of incarceration. It is stated that incarceration results in denial of freedom, curtailing movement, and other basic rights., Madaki (2011) submits that although inmates are accommodated for a purpose, as a result of their custody, some consequences are seen to affect their personalities, their families and other economic activities. Logan (2007) also states that one of the consequences of incarceration is the irreparable damage it is seen to make on parents and likewise their legal status as parents when they are detained in correctional centre.
- During incarceration, inmates are bound to learn new basic skills. Obioha (1995) emphasized that inmates who learn basic skills through education and training are more probable not to return to reoffending than inmates who are without basic skills. Carney (1980) said that corrections commence when correction requires classification procedures to make sure that some responses to some treatment strategies shall be chosen and screened into treatment programmes. The NPS ensured that inmates face the admission board, hence determining which correctional programme an inmate will fit into.

- Other scholars corroborated the above assertions. For example, Bonn (1984) indicates that the purpose of corrections, which may come in the form of sanctions, is a retributive punishment where society, through various ways, inflicts pain on an offender as a vindictive step for wrongs committed. Ultimately, Murray and Cox (1990) conclude that there is a relatively high reduction in recidivism rates of participants in various correctional programmes.

To ensure a thorough exploration or evaluation of inmate incarceration in the background of offender rehabilitation, this thesis chose the RNR model to explain strategies for effective rehabilitation of offenders. As detailed in Chapter Five, the RNR model shepherds the essential postulations of this study. The method of data collection and evaluation were presented in Chapter Seven. It is pertinent to state that ethical consideration and challenges that were experienced during the period of collection of data were expounded upon. The results of this study generated from quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were presented in Chapter Seven.

Before a presentation of the results of the findings of objective one of this study, key findings of inmate assessment of rehabilitation programmes and facilities, as well as an evaluation of the inmates' opinion of the correctional centres' social setting, overall practices, inmates' perception of correctional centre officials' attitudes towards them and also its implication for reintegration principles are presented. The key findings on inmates' perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the study area are thus being forwarded. It was pertinent to look at the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. The results on demographic characteristics of respondents in the study area are as follows:

- A total of 90% of the inmates were males, only a few were females and a significant number (62.2%) were single (Figure 7.1).
- Quantitative findings reveal that 57% of inmates who were married were not living with their partners, while 57% of the inmates had no children prior to incarceration (Figure 7.2). This may be due to stigmatization that has to do with incarceration, suggesting that when

an inmate regains freedom, it is likely they may face rejection from spouses and members of the community. Stern (1998) corroborates that inmates are less probable to be married as correctional centre breaks marriage as marriages of those that are incarcerated for five to ten years mostly come to an end. In substantiating the above view, Kizinger (2003) opines that inmates who were detached from their spouses, children and siblings developed symptoms of mental and physical problems which may be as a result of being sexually abused, lack of educational background coupled with the unsafe correctional centre environment.

- Data reveals that the majority of inmates resided with their children prior to their incarceration, while level of education reveals that only 25.7% of the inmates had attended higher education (Table 7.3). One possible explanation is that inmates are less likely to be educated. This is tantamount with the view of Kizinger (2003) who states that inmates lack of educational background coupled with the unsafe correctional centre environment.
- The quantitative findings reveal that only 34% of the inmates were businessmen before incarceration (Table 7.4). This corroborated with Mattbolt's (1991) view that inmates experience difficulty in securing jobs after release. Hence, most inmates or ex-inmates due to stigmatization are unable to find payable jobs, and thus they resort to personal entrepreneurship. This is substantiated by Pettit and Lyons (2002) who stated that as a result of the weakening connections to a stable job, opportunities, incarceration as well as prior criminal behaviour may lead to a disadvantage to ex-inmates on the effect of employer discrimination.
- Data revealed only a few of the inmates (33.6%) earned above N30,000 monthly (Table 7.5). For this reason, it could be stated that the earnings of ex-inmates may not be sufficient for their basic need. Kevin et al. (2009) argue that there is a devastating economic consequence of incarceration on individuals which also include families and the community they live in. Quantitative data also

revealed that a significant percent (82.8%) of the inmates were Muslim (Table 7.6).

- Quantitative findings were able to reveal that the most common offense was armed robbery (16.1%) (Table 7.7). The majority of the inmates in Kano Central Prison had spent more than fifteen years in correctional centres. This long stay in correctional centre is likely to play a negative role in the inmate's life. This is corroborated by Latessa and Holsinger (1998) who stated that inmates who have spent an extensive amount of duration in correctional centre are more likely to recidivate than those who stayed less in correctional centre. Another negative implication of a prolonged stay in incarcerated is also expatiated by other scholars. For example, Brundt (2012) holds that "incarceration can exacerbate illness, increase the risk of suicide and cause long-term psychological damage" (p. 541).
- Data obtained revealed that the majority of the inmates had been incarcerated for more than 6 years. However, there were more inmates who had been incarcerated for more than 15 years in Kano Central Correctional centre (10.7%) than in Goron-Dutse Prison (2.3%).
- Data presented revealed that the majority of the inmates (85%) were first time offenders and 15% were repeated offenders (Table 7.7). For this reason, inmates were persuaded into committing more criminal acts due to certain factors. For example, this is corroborated by Petersilia (2003) who explains that due to stigma associated with incarceration, the majority of ex-felons may find it difficult to secure jobs and decent housing. This may encourage ex-inmates into committing further criminal acts. Furthermore, Western et al.(2001) concede that ex-inmates experience several challenges in securing occupation, education and housing in their own community, as well as alienation from the political process as they are disenfranchised, thus leading to a weakening of family ties and distrust of authority, which can lead to a breakdown of social capital – a mechanism of an informal social control. Overall, these problems could inspire ex-inmates in venturing into more crimes as the quantitative data revealed that 15%

were repeated offenders, suggesting recidivism and becoming jail birds. This is substantiated by Eze and Okafor (2007) who state that reforming the inmates is just a prologue to a further and worst offense or felony.

The first question needed to investigate the inmates' perception of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities. The analysis on this question led to the following results as proffered.

- Only a few number of inmates (27%) were involved in rehabilitation programmes as data revealed that the majority of the inmates (73%) were not involved in rehabilitation programmes (Figure 7.6). This suggests that the majority of inmates were idle due to the absence of inadequate or obsolete retraining programmes. This clarifies Adetula's (2010) view that the interaction with the correctional centre administration in Nigeria makes inmates who are less toughened to become hard-bitten in felonious events after discharge from correctional centre, leading to more tendencies than not of them relapsing into criminal activities, which leads to higher frequency of recidivism. Hence, Ali (2011) posits that welfare services rendered to inmates are inadequate. Inadequate funding and multiple problem, make the Nigerian correctional centre ineffective which is due to an absence of rehabilitative facilities (Williams, 2000; Abdullahi & Zango, 2003).
- Despite a concerted effort by the Nigerian government in providing adequate rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres such as the correctional centre reform agenda and rehabilitation programmes, meeting inmates' basic needs was still unsatisfactory.
- That quantitative findings revealed that only 26.5% of inmates were satisfied with rehabilitation programmes. This shows a variation in the level of inmates' satisfaction with rehabilitation programmes and facilities (Figure 7.7).
- Interestingly, only 7.3% of the inmates considered vocational programmes as adequate (Figure 7.8). This suggests that the majority of inmates, irrespective of the correctional centres, perceived

vocational training as inadequate. This is tantamount to the findings of Curtis (2003), who submits that an ex-convict is likely to indulge in reoffending deeds due to poor rehabilitation in the correctional centre due to absence of vocational training and formal education during incarceration.

- Surprisingly, findings revealed that the majority of inmates (80%) responded negatively when they were asked about the adequacy of facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation (Figure 7.9). This finding here indicates the rehabilitation potential of the correctional centres under study. No wonder scholars have criticized the NPS on their inability to adequately rehabilitate inmates. This is substantiated by Webster (2004) who reviewed significant literature on this subject and concluded that programmes that are implemented improperly have the potential to do more harm than no programme implementation at all. This may be a possible explanation for inmates' negative perception towards vocational programmes in correctional centre.
- Another surprising finding revealed that the majority of the inmates (71.8%) had no access to rehabilitation facilities (Figure 7.10). Consequently, the majority of inmates were idle. For this reason, correctional centre is unlikely to play its role as a reformative home. The negative implication in this context may lead to recidivism among the inmates. Subsequently, literature such as that of Esiri (2016) has shown that institutionalization of correctional centre inmates accounted for the increase in recidivism.
- Despite the fact that the majority of inmates stated they had no access to vocational and rehabilitation facilities, qualitative data revealed that some inmates were not interested in engaging in rehabilitation programmes, hence making them to have a positive perception of rehabilitation programmes.
- Quantitative findings reveal that 57.7% of inmates stated that educational training were available. Specifically, the majority (77.8%), of the inmates in Kano Central Prison said educational programmes were available (Table 7.9), thus indicating its the rehabilitation

potential. This is corroborated by Oluwakuyide (2001) who stated that introduction of industry succeeded in training inmates as they were able to produce equipment like beds and household furniture.

- Similarly, half of the inmates stated that classrooms were available, with 51.9% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison compared to 50.0% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. However, only 5.5% of the inmates stated they were highly satisfied while 42.3% of the inmates were highly dissatisfied with classrooms (Figure 7.11). The situation above is confirmed by Ugwumba and Usang (2014), who assert that some correctional centres with these centres had insufficient equipment and qualified instructors to teach inmates vocational training skills.
- A follow-up question probed into inmates' level of satisfaction with classrooms. Data revealed that only 5.5% of the inmates were highly satisfied. A majority of the respondents (8.2%) in Goron-Dutse Prison stated they were highly satisfied with classrooms compared to only 3.3% of the respondents in Kano Central Prison. Further findings show that 42.3% of the inmates were highly dissatisfied with classrooms, 50.4% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison compared to 32.0% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison.
- The data also show that 23.5% of the respondents stated that library facilities were available. Surprisingly, only 1.0% described the library facility as excellent while the majority (66.2%) of the respondents described the library facilities as poor (Figure 7.12). The Nigerian government has made an effort to equip correctional centre formations with adequate facilities. For example, the Prison Staff Training Academy was established in Kaduna State, in the northern part of the country. The academy has facilities like a library, an information communication technology unit, computer based training, and conference facilities (Obioha, 2011).
- The study also found that 56.6% of the inmates stated that sporting facilities were available. This is corroborated by Tanimu (2010) who states that inmates engage in playing indoor games like drafts and

Ludo. Unfortunately, only a few of the inmates (11.1%) stated that they were highly satisfied with the correctional centre's sporting facilities, 28.1% were satisfied, while 32.3% were dissatisfied (Figure 7.13).

- Another reoccurring sub-theme in the inmates' perception of rehabilitation programmes and facilities revealed that the majority of the inmates (83.3%) stated that places of worship were available in the correctional centre. Only a few of the inmates (16.7%) stated that places of worship were not available (Table 7.13). One possible explanation may be that other faiths, excluding Muslims and Christians, were unable to find places of worship. The two correctional centre formations are located in North Western Nigeria, where a majority are Muslims, which may be a possible reason. Moreover, 67.7% of the respondents described places of worship as clean (Table 7.14), and 51.9% of the inmates stated that they were often allowed to visit places while 9.1% of the inmates stated they were never allowed to visit places of worship (Table 7.15). One possible explanation for non-attendance at places of worship may be due to the status of some inmates who were condemned. As observed by the researcher, condemned inmates were permanently restricted in their cells, therefore they were expected to practice their faith in the cells.
- Perception towards toilet facilities recorded several contrasts as 51.9% of the inmates reported they had access to a standard toilet while below half of the inmates (44.3%) opined that toilet conditions were poor (Table 7.16). The findings of this study can be corroborated with some literature on Nigerian correctional centres such as that of Salaam (2013) who opines that some challenges also include blocked and overflowing toilets thereby leading to the spread of various diseases. An observation by the researcher confirmed that in one of the correctional centre formations, name withheld for ethical reasons, 171 inmates accommodated in one cell used one toilet facility. This confirms some criticisms about some toilet facilities in correctional centre formations in Nigeria.

- Further investigation on the condition of available toilets were probed and the results shown in Table 7.9 reveal that 44.3% of the inmates opined that toilet conditions were poor, with 64.0% of inmates in Kano Central compared to 19.4% in Goron-Dutse Prison. The analysis reveals that conditions in Goron-Dutse Prison seem slightly better than that of Kano Central Prison.
- Another reoccurring sub-theme in the inmates' responses was on access to portable water. Below half of the inmates (35.1%) stated they often had access to portable water, while 21.8% reported they never had access to portable water (Figure 7.15). No wonder several past studies revealed that inmates were dehydrated in cells. An observation by the researcher in the course of this study confirmed that inmates in one of the correctional centre under study had only a cup of water in 24hours. Most of them also complained of their inability to have access to water for cleansing themselves (spiritual bath) before prayers. Hence, they used sand to perform cleansing themselves before prayers. Ogundipe (2006) opines that portable water remains a problem in most correctional centres in Nigeria. The implication was noticed by the findings of this study as 30.0% of the inmates perceived that the quality of water was poor (Table 7.17).
- Inmates' overall and general perception of meals revealed that the majority of the inmates (87.4%) reported that they were served meals thrice a day (Table 7.18). Further findings revealed that the majority of the inmates (80.2%) reported that food served was insufficient (Figure 7.17). The findings of this study on quality of food corroborate an assertion by Williams et al.(2009) who stated that the majority of food that is served to inmates is unpalatable and described as 'the worst meal' which is not decent for human consumption. Similarly, Okunola et al. (2002) said that inmates' food is seen to be qualitatively inadequate for the consumption of a human being which is described as starvation meals. A final finding revealed that the majority of the inmates (80.2%) stated that the food served were insufficient. The

findings on the proportion of food is similar to the findings of food quality (Figure 7.17).

- That 46.2% reported that bed spacing was poor (Table 7.19). This is connected with the assertions of Iriekpen and Ezeobi (2012) that Nigerian correctional centres have inadequate beddings as most inmates sleep on the bare floor, sometimes on mats and even take turns to sleep and in some cases, they sleep with each other. Other assertions have contradicted the above, for example, Oluwakuyide (2001) stated that the introduction of this industry succeeded in training inmates as they were able to produce equipment like beds and household furniture.
- A reoccurring sub-theme in the inmates' responses was the strategies of inmate separation. However, the findings of this study revealed that they were not separated based on age. This violates the policy of the Nigeria Prison Act (CAP 366). It is expected that age should be a strategy to separate inmates. The implication of this is that other strategies for inmate separation may be violated as well. Therefore, the majority of the inmates (78.3%) reported that they were not separated based on criminal records (Figure 7.19) on nature of offence (69.7%) (Figure 7.20). The inability to separate inmates ideally may be blamed on congestion. Hence, this is connected with the proclamation of Ojo and Okunola (2014) who state that "most correctional centre yards in Nigeria are overcrowded beyond the designed population" (p. 16). The implication was this could lead to a high number of inmates in a correctional centre cell. Thus, above half of the respondents stated they were more than 41 in a cell (Table 7.20). This corroborates the earlier view which the researcher observed that one of the correctional centres accommodated more than 171 in a single cell. This is connected with Awopetu's view of (2014) that overcrowding in Nigerian correctional centres ensues where the number of inmates surpasses correctional centre size to an extent that inmates cannot be accommodated in a caring, healthy and psychological manner.

- Figure 7.21 reveals that the majority of the inmates (73.8%) stated that correctional centre cells were congested and filthy, with 85.5% of Kano Central prison inmates and 58.8% of Goron-Dutse Prison inmates. Overall, based on the results, the correctional centre condition in Goron-Dutse Prison is slightly better than Kano Central Prison.
- The study also found out that more than half of the inmates stated that a standard clinic were available. Interestingly, 89.7% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that a standard clinic was available (Figure 7.22). This is in line with the prison reform efforts as some correctional centre formations across the country were equipped with facilities to ensure proper treatment of inmates. In this context, 44.4% of the respondents stated that they enjoyed medical attention when they fall ill. This suggests that the correctional centres adhered to the Nigeria Prison Act (CAP, 366) by ensuring that inmates were treated when ill. The findings of this study also revealed 36.5% of the respondents perceived health care services as good, very good and excellent. In Goron-Dutse Prison, 59.2% of the inmates stated that health services were good, very good and excellent compared to 18.4% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. Further findings revealed that the majority of the inmates (64.2%) in Goron-Dutse Prison rated medical attention as good and very good, while only 27% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison rated medical attention as good and very good. A possible explanation for this study may be inmates perceptions of health care services
- Another recurring theme in the inmates' response was their individual perception towards correctional centre officials. The majority of the respondents (68.6%) reported that their relationship with correctional centre officials was cordial (Figure 7.25). Hence, this study probed into an inmates' perception of correctional centre officials' attitudes towards them and also its implication for reintegration principles. Moreover, inmates in Nigeria, in general, are "subjected to various forms of degradation and inhuman treatment" (Imhabekhai, 2002). The

above findings contradict Imhabekhai's (2002) view as inmates in the correctional centre studied hardly reported cases of maltreatment. Further findings revealed that 55.6% of the inmates reported that they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment. In addition to this figure, 72.7% of the respondents reported that they were never subjected to any form of maltreatment, although 44.4% of the inmates were subjected to maltreatment, with specific reference to the ones that they experienced: food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%) and punishment (17.5%) (Figure 7.26). This, however, violates inmates' rights and the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders (UNSMRTO,1984). Conclusively, the majority of respondents (76%) reported that they were not obliged to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy correctional centre facilities. This suggests that the relationship between inmates and correctional centre officials in both correctional centres was cordial.

The key findings on correctional centre officials' perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the study area are outlined below. It was pertinent to look at the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. The results on demographic characteristics of respondents in the study area are as follows:

- Most of the correctional centre officials were over 30 years old (Table 8.1).
- Quantitative findings reveal that the most frequent age group was 31-35 years of age (45.4%). The also data presented that most of the correctional centre officials belong to the officer cadre (58.9%). Also, findings revealed that the majority (84.1%) of the correctional centre officials were married, and most involved in this study were males (79.7%) compared to 20.3% of females (Table 8.1).
- Data also revealed the level of education of correctional centre officials: 39.5% of them had school certificates and 37.6% had completed OND/HND/NCE. Further quantitative findings also revealed most

correctional centre officials that took part in this study had been in service with the NPS for over six years. Furthermore, 36.2% of the respondents' years of service were between 11-15years. Nevertheless, Kano Central Prison had fewer officials (31.8%) who had spent 11-15years as duration of service compared to 41.0% in Goron-Dutse Prison. It also revealed that the majority of the correctional centre officials (64.7%) had spent less than 5 years in service in correctional centre where they currently work (Table 8.1).

The second question needed to examine how correctional centre officials perceive rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons and what implication such perception had. The analysis of data on this question produced the following results:

- More correctional centre officials (58.9%) stated that their relationship with inmates was very cordial compared to those of Goron-Dutse Prison (41.1%). Generally, only half of correctional centre officials reported that they have a cordial relationship with inmates in the correctional centres under study (Figure 8.1). Moreover, inmates in Nigeria, in general, are 'subjected to various forms of degradation and inhuman treatment' Imhabekhai (2002:23). The above findings of this study contradict Imhabekhai's view as inmates in the correctional centre studied hardly reported cases of maltreatment. Although, further findings revealed that 55.6% of the inmates reported that they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment. In addition to this figure, 72.7% of the respondents reported that they were never subjected to any form of maltreatment by the officials. , although 44.4% were subjected to maltreatment, with specific reference to the ones that they experienced. Food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%) and punishment (17.5%), were the forms maltreatments inmates were subjected to (Figure 7.26). This reveals that there was low prevalence of maltreatment of inmates in the correctional centres studied.

- The quantitative findings of this study also revealed that the majority of the correctional centre officials in Goron-Dutse Prison (70%) and Kano Central Prison (60.7%) stated that rehabilitation programmes were ineffective (Figure 8.2). This corroborates with Adetula's (2010) view that the interaction with the correctional centre administration in Nigeria makes inmates who are less toughened to become hard-bitten in felonious events after discharge from correctional centre, leading to more tendencies than not of them relapsing into criminal activities, which leads to higher frequency of recidivism.
- When correctional officials were asked about their involvement in rehabilitation programmes, only 30% of them stated that they were involved (Table 8.2). Slightly more correctional centre officials in Kano Central Prison were involved with rehabilitation programmes compared to Goron-Dutse Prison (25%).
- Quantitative data revealed that when officials reported the rehabilitation programmes they were involved in, the most common were carpentry, welding, electrical and laundry (Table 8.3).
- Participants were asked about their perception of the adequacy of the correctional centre infrastructure and the findings revealed that over half of them (52.7%) stated that it was adequate (Figure 8.3). The majority of the respondents in Kano Central Prison (59.8%) stated that infrastructure was adequate compared to only 40.2% of officials in Goron-Dutse Prison. The qualitative data found that most of the respondents complained of decaying structures in both correctional centre formations, although there was a contradictory statement by one respondent who described the structure of the correctional centre as fair and felt that the structure could be managed (Correctional centre official 9 KCP).
- Only 25.6% of the correctional centre officials considered there to be qualified staff available to handle rehabilitation programmes. This appears true for both correctional centres (Figure 8.4). The dominant perception was that the available staff were inadequate to

provide effective rehabilitation programmes. Qualitative data also probed into the availability of officials to handle rehabilitation programmes and obtained some results. The majority of the responses affirmed that there were correctional centre officials to handle rehabilitation programmes, although some programmes were faced with the challenge of absence of an instructor with specific reference to electrical in both Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons (Correctional centre official 14 GDP). Due to the above, inmates had to train themselves in some programmes. Overall, it can be deduced that most of the programmes had instructors with the exclusion of electrical with both correctional centres not having any at the time this study was conducted.

- Quantitative data revealed that lack of funds, scarcity of tools, poor facilities and shortage of staff were the commonly mentioned barriers impinging on the effective rehabilitation (Table 8.7). This corroborates views of Nwankwoala and Ushi (2014) and Esiri (2016) which revealed the problems faced by the NPS with its quest for effective rehabilitation of inmates. The problems include : lack of infrastructure and inadequate retraining programmes for inmates. Further quantitative data revealed that only vocational and educational programmes were available to inmates. Specifically, carpentry, electrical and laundry services were the common vocational programmes available (Table 8.4). Qualitative data obtained this result as a participant stated that the correctional centre had different rehabilitation programmes which aided inmates' re-integration upon regaining freedom. Notable rehabilitation programmes as stated by respondents include carpentry, leather workshop, electrical, laundry and knitting. Inmates that needed counseling were counseled by psychologists who are members of the admission board. As observed, Muslim and Christian associations engaged inmates in rehabilitation sessions. Some of the inmates reported that some rehabilitation programmes were not functional due to factors like insufficient or

obsolete facilities, lack of replacement of previous officers attached to some programmes. Hence, potential of inmate rehabilitation was minimal (Correctional centre official 11 GDP).

- Only a few correctional centre officials (35.7%) agreed that rehabilitation programmes were adequate, with 40.2% of officials in Kano Central Correctional centre compared to 31% of officials in Goron-Dutse Prison (Figure 8.5).
- In Kano Central Prison official capacity is 690 but at the time of conducting this study, the correctional centre accommodated 1912 inmates. The official capacity in Goron-Dutse Prison is 630 but it accommodated 1576 inmates. The deductions from this finding suggests that both correctional centre formations are violating inmates' rights and Nigeria Prison Act (CAP 366).
- The majority of respondents gave different reasons for non renovation of correctional centre structures. For example, government showed little willingness to renovate decaying structures and politicians and administrations were insulted for building or establishing correctional centres in certain locations. Hence, there was less attention given to correctional centre in terms of building new ones and renovating existing structures.
- Surprisingly, majority of the respondents stated that proper classification was unable to be practiced due to congestion in both correctional centre formations. This is in line with the views of Esiri(2016) and Obioha (1995) who pointed out that correctional centres in Nigeria accommodated inmates beyond the original infrastructure plan to accommodate more inmates, thus leading to an infrastructure stretch. However, the only classifications that never violated in the correctional centres studied were separation of male and female inmates as well as condemned inmates with other categories of inmates. The Nigeria Prison Act (CAP, 1999, 25:26) submits that inmates are expected to be separated based on gender, awaiting trial from convicted inmates, juveniles under sixteen years of age from adults, debtors and other non-criminal

inmates from criminal inmates, but the findings revealed a contradictory practice (Correctional centre official 4 KCP).

- A reoccurring sub-theme in the responses of the correctional centre officials was about the provision of drugs, although it was stated by respondents that provision was made by the Federal Ministry of Health and Health Inspection, but they were erratic. There were other channels through which drugs were provided, but these were donations. Therefore, there was no fixed period for drugs to be expected. A respondent also stated that some serving and ex-serving inmates donated drugs to the correctional centre (Correctional centre official 6 KCP). This difficulty regarding the provision of drugs in NPS corroborates the views of Okunola et al. (2002) who indicated that correctional centre conditions in Nigeria are characterized by lack medical of drugs, and when inmates need more drugs, they are required raise funds to purchase them outside the correctional centre yard. This clearly indicates that “correctional centres in Nigeria are poorly equipped medically” (Ojo & Okunola, 2014).
- A participant stated that inmates do fall ill during incarceration, hence it becomes the responsibility of the correctional centre to treat inmates. The participant stated that the correctional centre clinic treated inmates when they fall ill, but in situations where treatment cannot be done in the correctional centre clinic, inmates are treated outside the correctional centre formation. Most of the responses elucidated on the lack of drugs in the correctional centre clinic, hence treating inmates outside the formation was imminent (Correctional centre official 7 GDP).
- However, the findings of this study also reveal that the correctional centre clinic got a supply of malaria drugs during the summer season and inhalers during winter. Hence there was no special strategy on how to prevent malaria and asthma attacks other than the strategies such as provision drugs during the summer season as well as inhalers for asthmatic patients. Another reoccurring sub-

theme in the responses of correctional centre officials provides that inmates were allowed to consume substances like tobacco and special diets, such as for hypertensive or diabetic patients, on the prescription of a medical practitioner (Correctional centre official 7 GDP).

- In the methodology it was stated that chaplains in both correctional centres will serve as part of the study with regards to inmate character molding. The study found out that due to engaging inmates in rehabilitation programmes, character molding was imminent. For example, one involvement in rehabilitation programmes led to the character molding of one female inmate incarcerated for violent and hostile behaviour (Correctional centre official 12 KCP). Qualitative data found out that even though there were shortage of rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centre, the ones that were functional checked the prevalence of idleness amongst inmates. Further findings through quantitative strategy revealed that most officials in both correctional centre (76.3%) opined that the programmes can effectively rehabilitate inmates (Figure 8.10). Only a few inmates were of the view that rehabilitation programmes could not effectively rehabilitate inmates. Hence, inmates would have been less idle if all rehabilitation programmes were available. Another respondent stated that inmates read the Quran and the Bible, which also helped in their character molding. Sermon sessions with both Imams and Pastors played a key role in inmates' character molding, thus inmates were remorseful and turned to God.
- The availability of some rehabilitation programmes no doubt played a positive role in the inmates' life. Hence, it was pertinent to probe into the level of responses by the inmates. Quantitative data revealed that most officials rated the rehabilitation programmes effective or very effective. However, slightly more officials from Goron-Dutse Prison compared to Kano Central Prison rated the rehabilitation programmes as very effective. Furthermore,

qualitative obtained this result as a respondent stated that inmates who were admitted into the correctional centre without any trace of vocational skills were able to boast of learning some skills upon their discharge from correctional centre (Correctional centre official 11 KCP). This is in line with Ayuk et al. (2013) who stated that NPS has made concerted efforts to rehabilitation such as provision of workshops for skills acquisition established to train inmates in the skills of shoemaking, printing and tailoring.

- Quantitative findings revealed that most officials in both Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons stated that inmates were responsive to rehabilitation programmes. Qualitative data found out that inmates responded well with the few rehabilitation programmes that were made available to them. Although there were instances where inmates could not learn further due to the absence of an instructor in electrical training, hence inmates were transferred to other units and responded successfully to the rehabilitation programmes (Correctional centre official 13 KCP). This is in line with Ayuk (2003) who states that inmates survive with their new skills upon regaining freedom, without reverting into crime.
- Quantitative data revealed that the most reported frequency of rehabilitation programmes was twice a week. The variation in the reported frequency programmes could be as a result of differences in the rehabilitation programmes officials were referring to. Nonetheless, this appears to be consensus that inmates attend rehabilitation at least once or twice a week (Figure 8.9).
- Quantitative data revealed that the majority of officials in both correctional centres (79.9%) believed that inmates often participate in rehabilitation programmes. However, there was slight variation in the proportion of officials who reported that inmates regularly partake in rehabilitation programmes in the two correctional centres (Figure 8.7).
- Quantitative data revealed that three sources of external funding were mentioned by the correctional centre officials. NGO, individual

donations and donations from ex-inmates were external funding used to augment the paltry and inconsistent funding from the government (Table 8.5). Qualitative findings revealed that there were many challenges faced with the funding of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes. The majority of the respondents reported that incoming funds were not catering for rehabilitation programmes. Ideally, funds were expected from the government, but to the correctional centre officials' knowledge this fund rarely came. A respondent affirmed that NGOs and individuals made a contribution to rehabilitation programmes but not in cash. Another respondent stated that funds came but were insufficient (Correctional centre official 14 KCP).

- An exploration of existing literature on challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation of inmates, such as that of Salaam (2013), was discussed in Chapter Three, hence it was pertinent to see if they tallied with some of the problems stated by correctional centre officials. Quantitative data probed the possible reason for lack of participation and the main reasons mentioned by officials were absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes, lack of correctional centre officials to handle certain programmes, and inmates' lack of interest (Table 8.6). Qualitative responses of the correctional centre officials revealed that lack of funding, stress on correctional centre officials due to a large number of inmates leading to congestion of cells, absence of correctional centre officials to handle rehabilitation programmes, absence of rehabilitation of well equipped workshops, lack of interest by inmates, and obsolete or absence of facilities hindered effective rehabilitation. Hence, it can be deduced that majority of the inmates blamed the above problems for hindering effective rehabilitation of inmates in correctional centre (Correctional centre official 14 GDP).
- Another reoccurring sub-theme was the perception on how rehabilitation programmes could be improved upon. A respondent stated that staff should be well trained during seminars as

qualitative findings revealed that lack of retraining of correctional centre officials was one of the strategies to improve rehabilitation programmes. Further qualitative findings revealed that if inadequate provision of professionals, equipment, funding and good management were tackled, this could improve rehabilitation programmes (Correctional centre official 11 KCP). This corroborates literature on Nigerian correctional centre such as that of Ogundipe (2006), Oyakhiromen (2008), Aloyious (2010), and Salaam (2013), who stated that inadequate retraining programmes for correctional centre officials remains a problem for effective rehabilitation of inmates.

- Finally, quantitative data surprisingly revealed that most correctional centre officials consider the correctional centre to be in acceptable condition for rehabilitation. One in five officials in Kano Central Prison viewed the condition of the correctional centre as satisfactory, 24.3% as reasonable and 10% as manageable. Similarly, 21% of officials in Goron-Dutse viewed the correctional centre condition as satisfactory, 17% as manageable, and 13% as reasonable. Nonetheless, a fifth of the officials considered the correctional centre condition to be appalling (Table 8.7).

The third question explored the convergence and divergence of inmates and correctional centre officials towards rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potentials in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons. The key findings revealed the following:

- Participants were divided and chosen based on convicted inmates as well as rank, gender and correctional centre officials' involvement in rehabilitation programmes. Quantitative data from the inmates revealed that few inmates (27%) were involved in rehabilitation. In addition to the above perception by inmates, correctional centre officials' perceptions revealed that there were inadequate rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centres under study (Figure 7.6). This could be a possible reason why only a few number of inmates were involved in rehabilitation programmes. Conversely, quantitative data obtained from

correctional centre officials revealed that the majority of officials in both correctional centres (79.9%) believed that inmates often participate in rehabilitation programmes. This shows a disparity in results as the perception of inmates differed from the correctional centre officials (Figure 8.7).

- The study also found that there was a lack of interest in rehabilitation programmes by inmates, hence inmates failed to report that they were not interested in some rehabilitation programmes. For example, Correctional centre official 13 GDP stated that a rehabilitation class started with 40 inmates but later it shrank to only 5 inmates, suggesting that inmates deserted rehabilitation classes due to lack of interest. However, further findings from quantitative means revealed that the main reasons mentioned by officials were absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes, lack of correctional centre officials to handle certain programmes as well as inmates' lack of interest.
- The findings of this study revealed that the majority of the inmates stated that they were not separated based on age, with 90% from Kano Central Prison. Qualitative data revealed that due to congestion, it was impossible to classify inmates based on age, nature of offence, and criminal records. Hence, there is convergence in this aspect as both inmates and correctional centre officials affirmed that proper inmate classification was not practiced (Figure 7.18).
- The findings of this study also revealed that the two correctional centre formations were congested when this study was conducted. Correctional centre official 2 KCP revealed that the official capacity of Kano Central Prison is 690 but at the time there were 1912 inmates, both male and female, which compromised 779 convicts and 1, 133 awaiting trial inmates. This verifies inmates' responses as quantitative data revealed that the majority of the respondents (68.4%) stated that they were 41 and above in a single cell (Table 7.20). This reveals a convergence between the perception of inmates and correctional centre officials. Also an observation by the research confirmed that in one of the correctional centre formations, a single cell accommodated

171 inmates. Furthermore, an exploration of existing literature reveals that some correctional centre formations are congested, which is a true reflection of what was transpired in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Correctional centres. This also corroborates existing literature in Nigeria, such as that of Ali (2011), which suggest that correctional centres in Nigeria are in shambles with regards to overcrowding.

- The study also revealed that three classifications were never violated: sex, condemned inmates from other inmates, as well as inmates with communicable diseases such as whooping cough. This reveals a convergence of inmates and correctional centre officials on the perception of inmate classification (Correctional centre official 3,GDP).
- Participants were asked about the efficiency of correctional centre clinics. Quantitative and qualitative data revealed interesting results. For example, responses revealed that 45% of the inmates stated that they had no access to a standard clinic. Interestingly, 89.7% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that a clinic is available compared to 26.8% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. Also, 74% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse prisons stated they enjoyed medical attention when they were ill compared to only 20.1% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.22). Contrastingly, qualitative data revealed that correctional centre clinics lacked funds, hence drugs were not available as inmates had to be treated outside the correctional centre clinic and in some situations inmates' relatives had to purchase the drugs with the permission of the correctional centre authority. This suggested that only a few inmates were attended to when they were ill. But quantitative data revealed that 44% of the overall inmates enjoyed medical attention when they fell ill, with a majority of the inmates (74.8%) in Goron-Dutse Prison stating they were treated when they fell ill. A divergent view is reported in this context, showing divergence in the level of perception of the correctional centre clinic (Figure 7.23).
- Another reoccurring sub-theme was the issue of inmate and correctional centre official relationships. It was stated in Chapter One

that inmates' perception of correctional centre officials attitudes towards them and also implication for reintegration principles were thoroughly appraised. Hence, quantitative data reveals that 68% of the inmates stated that their relationship with correctional centre officials was cordial with 88% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison and 53.5% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison. Quantitative data revealed that the majority of the inmates (72.7%) stated that they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment, while 41.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison reaffirmed their position. Although, there were reported cases of maltreatment, including food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%) and punishment (44.0%), quantitative data showed that the majority of the inmates (72.7%) said they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment (Figure 7.22). Quantitative data from correctional centre officials (Figure 8.1) revealed that more correctional centre officials (58.9%) from Kano Central Prison consider their relationship with inmates to be cordial compared to those of Goron-Dutse Prison (41.1%). Generally, only half of correctional centre officials reported that their relationship with inmates was cordial. This finding contradicts some literatures on Nigerian correctional centres, which states that the majority of inmates in Nigerian correctional centre are maltreated. For example, Iriekpan and Ezeobi (2012) stated that inhumane treatment of inmates by correctional centre officials included torture, denial of food, extortion and sexual abuse (largely in the case of female inmates), which are seen as major reasons for the ineffective rehabilitation of inmates. However, no case of sexual assault was reported by any female convicted inmates, hence contradicting the claims of Iriekpan and Ezeobi (2012).

- A reoccurring sub-theme reveals that 36.5% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse rated medical attention as good and very good, while 59.2% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison rated medical attention as good and very good (Table 7.21). A possible explanation for this may be inmates' divergent perceptions of health care services. It can be deduced from the qualitative data that the current correctional centre

condition is not suitable for decent treatment as stated by Correctional centre official 7 GDP. It was opined that most times drugs which are prescribed for inmates are not in the correctional centre clinic. One now wonders how inmates could describe the health care services in this context as good and very good.

- Another reoccurring sub-theme is the inmates' perception on the nature of medical attention received when they fell ill. Data revealed that 64.2% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that medical attention was good and very good (Table 7.21). Meanwhile, qualitative data revealed inmates enjoyed treatment against malaria with only tablets during the summer and inhalers during winter for asthmatic patients. These are not the best ways to treat the above ailments. Therefore, it suggests that the majority of the inmates were satisfied with the nature of treatment they received in Goron-Dutse Prison while qualitative data reveals a contradictory perception or result.

9.3 Discussion and key deductions from the findings

The findings of this study validate the essential contention of this thesis presented in Chapter Six (see section 6.2.4) that although the introduction of rehabilitation programmes has enhanced character molding and rehabilitation potentials of the NPS, several challenges still persist in the correctional administration. The introduction of vocational and training programmes sought to instill discipline to the inmates, hence molding their character; this will help ex inmates to reintegrate adequately into society upon regaining freedom. The findings of this study clearly indicate that a few number of inmates were not involved in rehabilitation despite the government's concerted effort to ensure adequate provision of rehabilitation programmes in correctional centre formations. There was an insignificant level of satisfaction by inmates toward rehabilitation programmes in both correctional centres. However, it is important to explain rehabilitation strategies and on which population it worked for, just as it is essential to state if rehabilitation programmes are effective in correctional centres.

Against this background, it is imperative to state that the extent to which inmates perceived rehabilitation programmes, facilities and implication for reintegration principles to be successful as well as inmates' view of correctional centre social settings. This is so because convicted inmates were of the perception that absence of adequate programmes was not the only problem in the study area. As a matter of fact, the study setting provided two different scenarios where convicted inmates perceived vocational facilities. In Kano Central Prison, for instance, only 15.7% of the inmates were satisfied with rehabilitation, while Goron-Dutse Prison had 37.3% (Figure 7.7). It can therefore be deduced that the majority of the inmates were more dissatisfied with rehabilitation programmes. This brings into sharp focus on the rehabilitation potential of the NPS. The majority of inmates' overall perception was that vocational facilities were obsolete and inadequate. The result on the adequacy of facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation had significant variation: 80% inmates in Kano Central Prison agreed that the facilities were not adequate to ensure effective rehabilitation, compared to only (67%) agreed in Goron-Dutse Prison. Additionally, the majority of the correctional centre officials in Goron-Dutse Prison (70%) and Kano Central Prison (60.7%) stated that rehabilitation programmes were ineffective (Figure 8.2). Thus, there is a correlation between the perception of inmates and correctional centre officials with regards to rehabilitation programmes.

Another striking result was that the majority of the inmates (71.8%) reported that they had no access to rehabilitation programmes (Figure 7.10). Thus, there is no doubt regarding the concerted effort by the Nigerian government, individuals and NGOs regarding the contribution of a massive reinforcement of rehabilitation programmes in correctional centre formations across the country. However, as deduced from the findings, the rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centres under study are not sufficient, hence hindering possible effective rehabilitation of inmates. Contrastingly, quantitative data revealed that the majority of correctional centre officials in both correctional centres (79.9%) believed that inmates often participate in rehabilitation programmes (Figure 8.7). Furthermore, the study setting revealed a pendulum swift contrast with regards to educational training in

correctional centres that were under study. In Goron-Dutse Prison, for example, the majority of the inmates (77.8%) stated that educational training was available compared to slightly below half in Kano Central Prison. Clearly, in this aspect the level of accessibility of educational training has improved. Inmates' access to educational training as generated by quantitative data suggests that inmates are likely to be engaged instead of being idle, hence rehabilitation is likely.

However, the researcher noticed a huge disparity between what inmates reported on the availability of educational training and access to rehabilitation facilities. One possible explanation for this is that some inmates were not interested in such programmes, therefore inmates are more likely to state that they had no access to rehabilitation and educational facilities. A follow-up on the availability of educational training was made and the findings of this study revealed that slightly above half of the inmates stated that classrooms were available. Further deductions from the quantitative data revealed that only 5.5% of the inmates were highly satisfied with classrooms in the correctional centre (Table 7.10).

Considerably, there is a decline in quality of education in this context. For example, only a minority of the inmates reported that library facilities were available while only 1.0% of the inmates described the library facility as excellent. Other responses include very good (5.6%) and good (11.8%) (Table 7.11). The study setting also provided further quantitative data which revealed that slightly above half of the inmates reported that sporting facilities were available. A majority of the inmates (75.5%) in Goron-Dutse Prison reported that sporting facilities were available compared to 41.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.13).

Also, the findings of this study revealed that the majority of the inmates (83.3%) reported that places of worship were available with 67.7% of the stating that they were allowed to visit them (Table 7.13). Thus, the availability of places of worship to inmates suggests that this could help in character molding. This was also attested by correctional centre officials during an in-depth interview in the course of this study. Additional findings of this study

revealed that the majority of the inmates (83.9%) had access to a standard toilet facility compared to 26.9% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison, while an inmate perception reveals that 44.3% opined that the toilet facility was poor, particularly in Kano Central Prison with 19.4%. Hence, an analysis reveals that toilet conditions in Goron-Dutse Prison were slightly better than Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.14).

Quantitative data revealed that only 35.1% of the inmates stated that they had access to portable water and only 25% described the water as excellent, 16.0% very good, and 23.5% good (Figure 7.15). The inmate perception on meals reveals that the majority of the inmates (89.3%) stated that they were served meals thrice a day. Clearly, this shows consistency in terms of meals inmates were served. However, the majority of inmates stated that the food quality was poor. The findings of inmates' food are consistent with literature by Okunola et al. (2002) and Williams et al. (2009) who state that inmates' food is seen to be qualitatively inadequate for the consumption of a human being which is described as starvation meals.

Quantitative data revealed that slightly below half stated that bed spacing were poor (Table 7.19). This can be corroborated by an exploration of existing literature such as that of Obioha (2011) who states that cells are not decent for human habitation due to absence of bedding facilities, thereby causing inmates to sleep on the bare floor. Further findings revealed that 60.6% of the inmates stated that they were not separated based on age. An interview with correctional centre officials also affirmed that proper classification was not practiced due to congestion in both correctional centres. This is in line with the study of Awopetu (2014) which reveals that overcrowding in Nigerian correctional centres ensues where the number of inmates surpasses correctional centre size to an extent that inmates cannot be accommodated in a caring, healthy and psychological manner. The above view is upheld by Esiri (2016), and Obioha (1995), who at different periods pointed out that correctional centres in Nigeria accommodated inmates beyond the original infrastructure plan to accommodate more inmates, thus leading to an infrastructure stretch.

Thus, Alabi and Alabi (2011) perceive that correctional centres across Nigeria have three characteristics: congestion, filthy cells and insufficient medical and reintegration facilities. Correctional centre overcrowding as attested by Enuke (2001) is likely to contribute to the proliferation of communicable disease among inmates in most Nigerian correctional centres. The findings of this study is in line with the explored literature above, as 78.3% of the inmates stated they were not separated based on criminal records (Figure 7.18). This is also in line with qualitative response from Correctional centre official 4 KCP which reveals that proper classification were not adhered as the only classification that was not violated was separation of male and female inmates, but other classifications were violated such as that of age separation as affirmed by inmates.

According to the Nigeria Prison Act (CAP 366), inmates are supposed to be classified based on sex, age, nature of offence, debtors, length of incarceration, recidivist from first time offenders, and mentally ill inmates from other inmates. However, quantitative data also reveals that the majority of the inmates stated that they were not separated based on nature of offence (Figure 7.18). This may lead to poor classification as minor and hardened criminals may be accommodated in the same cell. This corroborates the study of Ali (2011) who states that congestion and inadequate accommodation was responsible for poor classification. This is supported by the quantitative data from this study which reveals that 68.4% of the inmates stated that there were more than 41 inmates in a cell (Table 7.20). Therefore, accommodating more than 41 is likely to affect the condition and the nature of the cell. Thus, a majority of the inmates (73.8%) stated that correctional centre cells were congested and dirty (Figure 7.21).

Slightly above half of the respondents stated that the clinic was available, while 44.4% of the respondents stated that they enjoyed medical attention when they were ill (Figure 23). Further quantitative data revealed that only 36.5% of the respondents reported that health care facilities were good, very good and excellent, while 64.2% of respondents in Goron-Dutse Prison rated the medical attention as good and very good compared to only 27% in Kano

Central Prison (Figure 7.24). As deduced from quantitative data, it is clear that medical attention in Goron-Dutse Prison is widely better than medical attention in Kano Central Prison. Most respondents stated that the correctional centre had several channels through which drugs were supplied such as from the Federal Ministry of Health, NGOs as well as ex and serving inmates. Even at that, drugs were not sufficient. Therefore, in some cases, inmates had to receive treatment outside the correctional centre or relatives had to purchase drugs for the inmates with the approval of the correctional centre authority (Correctional centre official 7 GDP). Inmates were vulnerable to falling ill during certain seasons. As deduced from the findings of this research, only inhalers and flu tablets were frequently made available to combat asthma attacks and malaria in winter and summer sessions respectively. However, inmates were allowed to make requests based on individual medical condition. For example, the Nigeria Prison Act (CAP,1999:26) provides that inmates can consume tobacco and liquor under a written order of a medical officer. Inmates were also allowed to receive meals from relatives, especially those who were to be on special diets like diabetic patients. Thus, the NPS has kept to this law based on the request of inmates.

Additional findings revealed that the majority of the inmates (88%) in Goron-Dutse Prison reported that the relationship with correctional centre official was cordial compared to 53.5% of the inmates in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.25). This cordial relationship is likely to be a true reflection of what transpired between inmates and correctional centre officials as a majority of the inmates (72.7%) in Goron Dutse stated they were not subjected to any form of maltreatment compared to 41.9% in Kano Central Prison (Figure 7.26). There were reported cases of maltreatment with food denial (19.2%), verbal insults (36.7%), torture (12.5%) and punishment (17.5%) (Table 7.22). Conclusively, the majority of the respondents stated that they were not obliged to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy correctional centre facilities compared to 24% of the inmates who stated they were compelled to bribe correctional centre officials to enjoy certain correctional centre facilities (Figure 7.27). There were contrasting findings to the inmates' perception as

quantitative data from correctional centre officials revealed that more correctional centre officials (58.9%) stated that their relationship with inmates was very cordial (Figure 8.1) compared of Goron-Dutse Prison (41.1%). Generally, only half of correctional centre officials reported that they have cordial relationship with inmates.

When respondents were asked about official capacity of correctional centre formation, the majority of the respondents stated that the number of inmates accommodated in both correctional centres outweighed the official capacity of the correctional centre (Correctional centre official 5 GDP). In fact, respondents complained of a decaying structure. Notably, at the time this research was conducted, a major renovation was going on in Kano Central Correctional centre as well as in Goron-Dutse Prison, which was not as thorough compared to that of Kano Central. Similarly, there were complaints on frequency of renovation and clearly the overall perception was that correctional centres were not frequently renovated due certain factors such as lack of funds and commitment from leaders, among other problems. With the lack of renovation, one would wonder how inmates lived in decaying structures. However, quantitative data was contrasting, for example, correctional centre officials stated that available infrastructure was adequate (Figure 8.3). The majority of the respondents in Kano Central Prison (59.8%) opined that infrastructure were adequate compared to only 40.2% of officials in Goron-Dutse Prison (Figure 7.9.3)

A probe into rehabilitation potential revealed different, interesting results as respondents stated that there several rehabilitation programmes were put in place for inmate rehabilitation. Both quantitative and qualitative data were obtained. Quantitative data revealed that revealed only vocational and educational were available to inmates. Specifically, carpentry, electrical and laundry services were the common vocational programmes available. Qualitative data revealed carpentry, leather works, welding, laundry, electrical and weaving as the rehabilitation programmes which were meant to rehabilitate inmates. Astonishingly, only a few of the programmes had correctional centre officials to teach inmates the basic skills apart from having

to manage obsolete and insufficient tools. Although, respondents attested that despite managing the little tools and facilities that were made available, inmates were able to learn skills which kept them busy, making them learn useful things while in correctional centre. Looking at the availability of officials to anchor rehabilitation programmes, both Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons at the time this research was conducted had no correctional centre official to anchor the electrical workshop.

It can be deduced from their respondents' narratives that despite some of the listed challenges, inmates were able to learn some vocational skills, which are capable of playing a role in their rehabilitation. For example, Goron-Dutse Prison inmates were very much involved in laundry and cobbler sessions, thus making these units highly productive.

Additionally, the correctional centre officials were included in the study to probe into the role the correctional centre plays in character molding of the inmates. In the interview sessions, Correctional centre official 12 KCP stated they engaged inmates to read the Quran and Bible during sermon sessions, hence this was able to make some of them remorseful, making them regret their actions. Religious engagement with the Muslim Students Society (MSS) and Fellowship of Christian Students (FCS) was able to aid in character molding as deduced from the qualitative data. Furthermore, quantitative data revealed most correctional officials rated the rehabilitation programmes as effective or very effective. However, slightly more correctional officials from Goron-Dutse Prison compared to Kano Central Prison rated the rehabilitation programmes as very effective (Table 8.6). Overall, there is a variation on how they perceive the inmates' response to rehabilitation programmes and its ability to help in character molding. Although, some narratives revealed inmates were idle, other stated that inmates were responsive to the rehabilitation programmes, vocational training and sermon sessions with both Muslim and Christian associations made available to them.

The findings of this study also revealed that inmates were responding to the rehabilitation programmes. Quantitative data revealed that most correctional centre officials in both prison Kano central and Goron-Dutse Prison stated that

inmates were responsive to rehabilitation programmes (Figure 8.9). This applies to the model of RNR developed by the researcher in Chapter Five where it was stated that correctional institutions are expected to inculcate inmates with certain rehabilitation programmes and measure how responsive they are to them. In a situation where inmates are not responsive, it is expected that the concerned correctional administration should administer a new rehabilitation programmes because sometimes inmates prefer certain rehabilitation programmes to others (Correctional centre official 14 KCP). This is in line with one of the narratives by Correctional centre official 13 GDP, which reveals that inmates in carpentry responded better because they had an instructor, while inmates in electrical lost interest due to absence of instructor. Thus, inmates were redeployed to carpentry. This explains the rationale for using the RNR model in this study. The implementation of rehabilitation programmes would not be possible without the allocation of funds, hence its availability was empirically probed in this study.

However, the findings of this study revealed that funds were not made available, hence government provided the correctional centres with rehabilitation tools. Quantitative data revealed three sources of external fundings which were mentioned by the correctional centre officials when asked to name the correctional centre's sources of fundings. Common external funding used to augment the paltry and inconsistent funding from the government included NGOs, individual donations and donations from ex-inmates (Table 8.5). It was also stated that NGOs made non cash donations. But other qualitative data revealed that funds were made available three times a year, although it was stated that it was not sufficient (Correctional centre official 14 GDP). Overall, it can be deduced from the in-depth interviews that correctional centre officials who were involved in the rehabilitation of inmates were of the view that funds were never made available for rehabilitation programmes, although one official stated that they were possibilities that funds were made available but remains not their knowledge. The absence of funds could hinder effective implementation of programmes as well as rehabilitation of inmates. Some of the challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation of inmates formed part of the literature (Chapter Three).

The findings deduced that some notable problems of hindering effective rehabilitation include lack of funding, obsolete and inadequate facilities for rehabilitation programmes, stress on correctional centre officials due to congestion of cells, absence of retraining programmes for correctional centre officials, absence of basic facilities such as bed spacing among others, and inmates' lack of interest toward rehabilitation programmes, which can be blamed on obsolete and absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes facilities (Table 8.6). For example, Correctional centre official 13 GDP revealed that due to inmates' lack of interest, a majority of 35 withdrew from attending rehabilitation programmes sessions which may be due to lack of adequate facilities. Having perceived some the problems, strategies to improve the current situation was thoroughly examined. The strategies include the re-training of staff, provision of adequate tools to equip rehabilitation programmes, as well as judicious management of the funds as a respondent stated that another problem may be corruption among senior correctional centre officials.

9.3.1 Explaining rehabilitation potentials: An exploration of divergent perceptions

Even though narratives and quantitative data revealed that most respondents were not too satisfied with the rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potential of the NPS, rehabilitation strategies were still put in place. This clearly indicates that rehabilitation strategies in the Nigerian correctional centres were present, but it is unlikely that the correctional administration will record success in effective rehabilitation of inmates. The three objectives of this study were designed with a view to understanding these impediments. On the first objective studied the perception of inmates towards rehabilitation programmes and facilities and it revealed that only a few of the inmates stated that they were involved in rehabilitation programmes. Only a small percentage (27%) of inmates were satisfied with rehabilitation. Perhaps the low level of satisfaction explains the poor participation in rehabilitation programmes.

The second objective found that the present state of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the correctional centres under study could impede successful rehabilitation of inmates, which is the cardinal objective of establishing the correctional centres as enshrined in the Nigerian Constitution (1999). However, despite some of the challenges, to some extent narratives revealed that inmates were still rehabilitated and engaged in rehabilitation programmes. Also, in the second objective, the study employed qualitative data, hence perceptions of correctional centre officials were explored. The study found divergent views on rehabilitation programmes, facilities as well as rehabilitation potential of the NPS. For example, a respondent (Correctional centre official 9 KCP) described the state of infrastructure as appalling, a different respondent (Correctional centre official 10 GDP) described the state of infrastructure as fair and could be managed, and a large number of inmates described infrastructure as obsolete. Furthermore, quantitative data revealed correctional centre officials surprisingly described the correctional centres to be in acceptable condition for rehabilitation. One in five officials in Kano Central Prison viewed the condition of the correctional centre as satisfactory, 24.3% as reasonable and 10% as manageable. Similarly, 21% of the officials in Goron-Dutse Prison viewed the correctional centre condition as satisfactory, 17% as manageable, and 13% reasonable (Table 8.8). Nonetheless, a fifth of the officials considered the correctional centre condition to be appalling. Coincidentally, investigating the convergence and divergence of perception of rehabilitation programmes and facilities happens to be the third objective.

The third objective examined the convergence and divergence of inmates and correctional centre officials' perceptions of rehabilitation potential of the NPS. There were divergent perceptions of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities. For example, inmates' perception of the nature of medical attention received when they fell ill revealed that 64.2% of the inmates in Goron-Dutse Prison stated that medical attention was good and very good (Figure 7.24). Meanwhile, qualitative data revealed inmates received treatment against malaria with only tablets during the summer and inhalers during winter for asthmatic patients. These are not the best ways to

treat the above ailments (Correctional centre official 6 KCP). Therefore, it suggests that the majority of the inmates were satisfied with the nature of the treatment they received in Goron-Dutse Prison while qualitative data reveals a contradictory perception or result. The study also revealed that three classifications were never violated: sex, condemned inmates from other inmates, as well as inmates with communicable diseases such as whooping cough. This reveals a convergence of inmates and correctional centre officials' perception of inmate classification.

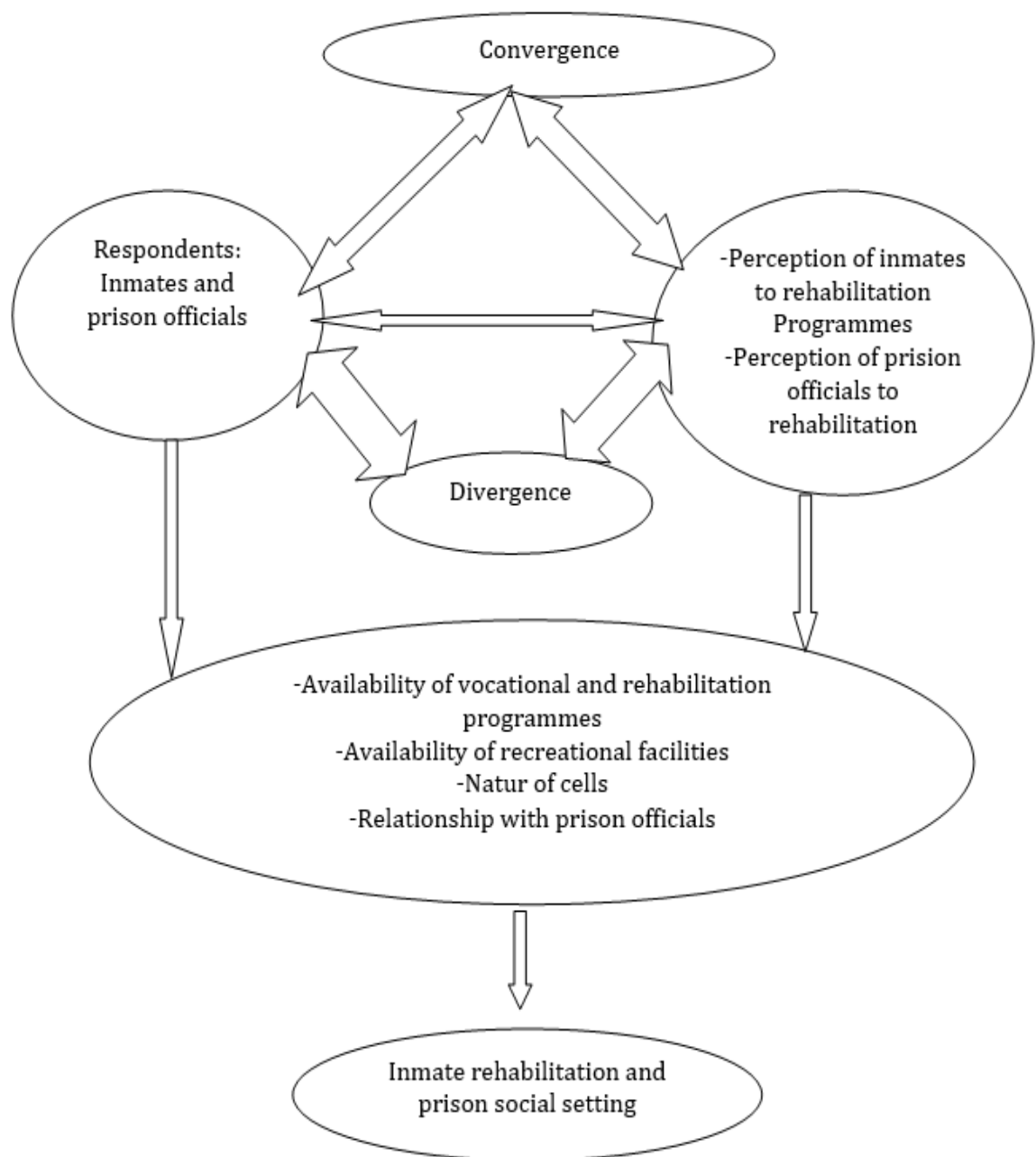


Figure 9. 1: Reseacher's conception (2017)

9.3.2 Policy implications

Despite the fact that the Nigerian government has tried to improve correctional centre conditions across the study area, there were still significant challenges in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons hindering effective rehabilitation of inmates, especially the provisions of adequate rehabilitation programmes for long-term sentence inmates. Inmates were found to be more idle than engaging in rehabilitation programmes, the result of which tends to have a poor rehabilitation outcome on inmates who are hence exposed to greater risk of perpetrating more crime upon regaining freedom. Thus, there should be adequate provision of rehabilitation programmes in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons in particular and correctional centres in Nigeria in general. Congestion remains a peculiar problem to the correctional centres that were studied, suggesting that classification was likely to be contravened.

A particular approach to address these problems should be adhered to as enshrined in the Nigeria Prison Act (CAP 366). In Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons for example, there is a need to focus on improving rehabilitation programmes to ensure effective rehabilitation of inmates. Also, there is need to develop strategies in which these rehabilitation programmes can be sustained in a situation where it has been improved upon. Decongesting Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons and Nigeria in general will entail improving the effective rehabilitation of inmates. The findings of this study also revealed implications of congestion on effective rehabilitation in the study area. Congestion is a significant problem with the NPS and requires major attention, thus an ideal way to address this problem is pertinent and vital.

Going by the findings of this study, it seems proper classification of inmates was not put into consideration while admitting inmates into the correctional centre. Consequently, several inmates were cramped in congested cells. This issue seems to be ignored by the correctional centre authority, with little effort made to address the problem. Therefore, the importance in addressing the problem of congestion in order to facilitate improved rehabilitation requires

key intervention. Thus, Carney (1980) indicates that rehabilitation presumes an application of inflectional modes of activity which is normally aimed at the redirection of behaviour.

9.4 Conclusion

This chapter, summarised the key findings. The literature discussed in Chapter One and subsequent chapters was explored in relation to the findings. For example, Chapter One discussed the overall general practices of the NPS. Arguments were raised that correctional centre facilities in the Nigerian context which may have not been effective in the rehabilitation of inmates. This may not be unconnected with the fact that very few studies have revealed that correctional centres in Nigeria have adequately rehabilitated inmates. The identified factors that contribute to this issue include congestion of cells, inadequate rehabilitation programmes and facilities, absence of re-training staff, inhumane living conditions, among others.

Chapter Two laid emphasis on correctional centre as a correctional institution. Particularly, comprehensive analysis of incarceration and it revealed that inmates were individuals who were cramped in correctional centre as convicted or awaiting trial inmates, that correctional centre emerged in accordance with established and prescribed rules, and punishment is a deliberate infliction of pain on an offender which may be in the form of incarceration. Thus, it remains a legal action. It is stated that incarceration results in denial of freedom, curtailing movement, and other basic rights. Madaki (2011) submits that although inmates are accommodated for a purpose, as a result of their custody, some consequences are seen to affect their personalities, their families and other economic activities. Logan (2007) also states that one of the consequences of incarceration is the irreparable damage it is seen to make on parents and likewise their legal status as parents when they are detained in correctional centre.

To ensure a thorough exploration or evaluation of inmate incarceration in the background of offender rehabilitation, this thesis chose the RNR model to

explain strategies for effective rehabilitation of offenders. As detailed in Chapter Five, the RNR model shepherded the essential postulations of this study. The method of data collection and evaluation was presented in Chapter Seven. It is pertinent to state that ethical consideration and challenges that were experienced during the period of collection of data were expounded upon. Before a presentation of the results of the findings of objective one of this study, key findings of inmate assessment of rehabilitation programmes and facilities, as well as an evaluation of the inmates' opinion of the correctional centres' social setting, overall practices, inmates' perception of correctional centre officials' attitudes towards them and also its implication for reintegration principles was presented and discussed.

The three research questions were discussed in sub themes. The first question investigated the inmates' perception of correctional centre rehabilitation programmes and facilities. The analysis on this question led to the following results: only a small percentage of inmates (27%) was involved in rehabilitation programmes as data revealed that the majority of the inmates (73%) was not involved in rehabilitation programmes (Figure 7.6). This suggests that majority of inmates were idle due to the absence of inadequate or obsolete retraining programmes. This clarifies Adetula's (2010) view that the interaction with the correctional centre administration in Nigeria makes inmates who are less toughened to become hard-bitten in felonious events after discharge from correctional centre, leading to more tendencies than not of them relapsing into criminal activities, which leads to higher frequency of recidivism. Hence, welfare services rendered to inmates are not adequate (Ali, 2011) and inadequate funding and multiple problems make the NPS ineffective which is due to an absence of rehabilitative facilities (Williams, 2000; Abdullahi & Zango, 2003).

The second question examined how correctional centre officials perceive rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Correctional centres and the implications thereof. The analysis of data on this question produced the following finds. For example, most officials in both Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons stated that inmates were responsive

to rehabilitation programmes (Figure 8.8). Further findings revealed that most officials in both correctional centre (76.3%) opined that the programmes can effectively rehabilitate inmates (Figure 8.10). Participants were divided into training received, involvement in vocational programmes, rank, length of service as well as chaplains for both correctional centre formations. For example, most officials interviewed belong to the officer cadre (58.9%). Also, the majority (84.1%) of the correctional centre officials were married (Table 8.1). In Kano Central Prison official capacity is 690 but at the time of conducting this study, the Correctional centre accommodated 1912 inmates while Goron-Dutse Prison official capacity is 630 but it accommodated 1576 inmates. The deductions from this finding suggests that both correctional centre formations are thus violating inmates' right and Nigeria Prison Act (CAP 366).

The third question explored the convergence and divergence of inmates and correctional centre officials towards rehabilitation programmes, facilities and rehabilitation potentials in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons. Participants were divided and chosen based on convicted inmates as well as rank, gender and involvement in rehabilitation programmes for correctional centre officials. Quantitative data revealed that only a small percentage of inmates (27%) was involved in rehabilitation. In addition to the above perception by inmates, correctional centre officials' perception reveals that there were inadequate rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centres under study (Figure 7.6). This could be a possible reason why only few numbers of inmates were involved in rehabilitation programmes. There were contradictory and similar results from correctional centre officials; for example, only a few correctional centre officials (35.7%) agreed that rehabilitation programmes were adequate (Table 8.5), other results reveals most correctional centre officials rated rehabilitation programmes as effective or very effective (Figure 8.6), also most officials in both correctional centres (76.35%) opined that the rehabilitation programmes can effectively rehabilitate inmates. Only a few officials were of the view that the rehabilitation programmes could not effectively rehabilitate inmates (Figure 8.10). The next chapter will conclude the study. From the data obtained from convicted

inmates and correctional centre officials, it can be concluded that the correctional centres studied accommodated inmates beyond its' original capacity, hence, affecting the daily living standard of incarcerated inmates. Thus, it is recommended that the Nigerian government and correctional centre service should adopt parole system which could help in the decongestion of correctional centre cells.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the main contribution of the study as well as proffers some recommendations. Conclusions are drawn from this study, hence suggestions for further research are forwarded.

10.2 Main contributions of the study and some recommendations

The importance of this research is in updating knowledge about rehabilitation strategies and understanding the practices in contemporary Nigerian penology. In Nigeria and elsewhere, correctional centres emerge in accordance with established or prescribed rules. In essence, the NPS was established as an institution to improve, penalize and transform inmates and to supplement or balance the procedure of permissible intercession and law implementation (Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). The NPS is part of the Nigerian criminal justice system's reform policy which is believed to be in accordance with the global trend to change correctional centre services. This is from a disciplinary and retaliatory penal system to a rehabilitative and reformatory system in which the well-being of offenders will be given adequate attention.

However, rehabilitation programmes are often not appraised by correctional centre authorities and in a situation where they are evaluated, this study for the most part relied on academic literature on Nigerian penology and respondents' perception of on correctional centre rehabilitation programmes, facilities and its influence on successful rehabilitation of incarcerated inmates. Furthermore, appraisal studies evaluating the impact of rehabilitation programmes on inmate rehabilitation were quantitative and qualitative. The methodological bias unnecessarily obscures respondents' perceptions on the impact of rehabilitation programmes on rehabilitation of inmates. Consequently, several scholars have criticized the present condition of some

correctional centres in Nigeria in ensuring effective rehabilitation of inmates (Salaam, 2013; Okwendi et al., 2014; Esiri, 2016). An evaluation of the NPS without considering the perceptions of inmates, correctional centre officials and members of the host community is considered to be deficient. Likewise, the evaluation of the potential of the Nigerian correctional centres in the rehabilitation of incarcerated inmates. This study addressed the foremost incompetence by concentrating on a population of convicted inmates in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons. From a theoretical perspective, this study commences with the assumption of inmate incarceration and rehabilitation. Using the RNR model of offender rehabilitation, this study explains the association between incarceration and rehabilitation of inmates.

This study is rare in that it examines the impact of rehabilitation programmes, facilities for effective rehabilitation of inmates from the perspective of convicted inmates and correctional centre officials using population-based facts and mixed method approach. Also, the study addresses the scarcity of evidence on the impact of rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian correctional centres. A uniformly pertinent gap that this study addresses is the scarcity of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the effective rehabilitation of inmates. This study also explains why rehabilitation outcomes of convicted inmates in the Nigerian context remain significantly poor due to unpleasant correctional centre social settings except they are improved upon.

In a setting where rehabilitation programmes and facilities are not available or adequate, there is need to address the shortages of the rehabilitation programmes and should be a primary strategy in improving rehabilitation outcomes. Improving rehabilitation programmes and facilities, as a strategy, could result to effective rehabilitation of inmates. In addition, this study provides objective data on the impact of the present state of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in Kano Central and Goron-Dutse Prisons.

Lastly, this study put forward a framework for understanding incarceration in the context of inmate rehabilitation. The framework explains offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres. It also provides evidence on how rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres can lead to important

reductions in recidivism amongst inmates, when rehabilitation programmes are consistent with the RNR model. The RNR model has inspired the development of offender risk assessment and offender rehabilitation programmes in correctional centres. The findings of this study would be an important tool for revising rehabilitation policies and strategies in the study setting in order to maximize the use of rehabilitation programmes and repeatedly improve rehabilitation outcomes. Also, evidence from this study provides that rehabilitation can be successful in the study setting when rehabilitation programmes are consistent with the RNR model. Consequently, it will provide pertinent strategies for any country or state that plans to implement new strategies for effective rehabilitation of incarcerated inmates.

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proffered:

- Provision of rehabilitation programmes remains an important strategy. to enhance the rehabilitation of inmates, hence correctional administrations across the globe should lay emphasis on how to ensure adequate provision of rehabilitation of inmates. The Nigerian correctional centre service has made concerted efforts to provide rehabilitation for convicted inmates. Quantitative data from Figure 7.6 revealed that rehabilitation programmes were made available in both correctional centres that were studied.
- Across the globe, countries such as South Africa which formed part of the literature of this study practiced parole system. The Nigeria prison service as at the time the researcher was carrying out this study, was not practicing parole. Some inmates who committed trivial offences and others who had almost completed their individual sentences were cramped in correctional centre till the last day of their sentences. This often resulted in congestion. Based on the findings and observations of this study, one significant reason why the two correctional centres are congested can be leaned on absence of parole system. For example, table 7.20 reveals that the majority of the inmates stated there were more than 41 and above in a cell. It is recommended that the

NPS should adopt parole system so as to address problem of congestion in correctional centre cells.

- Correctional administration should engage inmates with rehabilitation programmes, which is beneficial to both the offender and the community at large.
- Correctional centres are expected and meant to correct inmates and not to punish. That is to serve as a correctional institution. The name NPS portrays to be offensive, especially to ex and serving inmates, thus leading to labeling and stigmatization. Hence, this study suggest that it should be changed from Nigeria Prison Service to Nigeria Correctional Department.
- There is a need for correctional institutions to ensure implementation of rehabilitation programmes which can assist incarcerated inmates in a massive decrease in recidivism. In this case, it is imperative to know which programmes can reduce recidivism and which ones that can not. Quantitative data from this study revealed that only a small percentage of inmates (27%) was involved in rehabilitation programmes, and the majority of the inmates (73%) was not involved in rehabilitation programmes. This suggests that it is more likely that inmates will be idle, hence up surging recidivism rates amongst them.
- There are indications that several correctional centres in Nigeria have not adopted the RNR model as a strategy of offender rehabilitation. Hence, it is imperative that the NPS should employ the RNR model as a strategy for offender rehabilitation. The RNR model for offender rehabilitation implies providing all inmates with basic needs, thus playing a positive role in their rehabilitation process. For example, quantitative data from Figure 7.22 revealed that (45%) of the inmates stated they had no access to a standard clinic. This contradicts the RNR model due to the fact that basic criminogenic needs of inmates were not adequately met.
- Rate of congestion remained high in the study setting as inmates were cramped in congested cells. Thus, addressing the problem of congestion should be a primary strategy of improving rehabilitation

outcomes in the NPS. For example, quantitative data revealed that the majority of the inmates (68%) stated they were more than 41 in a cell. Thus, the overall findings revealed that both correctional centres were congested. In the course of this study, the researcher also observed that cell in Goron-Dutse Prison was congested with 171 inmates in one cell.

10.3 Dissemination of findings

The findings of this study will be disseminated to correctional centres across the country, as already one of the conditions for granting permission to the researcher was to submit two copies to the National Headquarters in Abuja and a copy each to Kano Central and Goron-Dutse prisons. Thus, this dissemination can serve as a contribution to the existing body of knowledge, thereby enriching the existing literature that may serve as a guide to other subsequent researchers and also serve as a guide for improving correctional centre conditions by the Prison Reform (PR) and National Human Right Commission (NHRC).

10.4 Conclusion and suggestions for further research

This study assessed rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the context of inmate rehabilitation and also appraised the correctional centre setting and the overall practices. In probing into some correctional centre facilities, the findings indicate that rehabilitation strategies had improved; however, a considerable impact is recorded with the availability of classrooms which would aid in the rehabilitation of inmates. The findings on the perception of rehabilitation programmes suggest that only a few of the inmates in both correctional centre formations participated in rehabilitation programmes. Also, only a few of the respondents were satisfied with the available rehabilitation programmes and facilities.

The study concludes that the identified challenges inhibiting effective rehabilitation of inmates require earnest interferences to initiate adequate provision of rehabilitation programmes in order to have an ideal outcome on

inmate rehabilitation. Where there is capacity to deliver effective rehabilitation and where there are inadequate rehabilitation programmes, it is imperative to employ new strategies to further rehabilitate inmates by the concerned correctional administration. Conversely, where there is limited capacity to provide decent facilities and there is a shortage of these facilities to ensure effective rehabilitation, an overhaul of these facilities is required to improve effective rehabilitation. Forthcoming studies should investigate and employ a quasi-experimental design to determine the correlation between provision of rehabilitation programmes and effective rehabilitation of inmates in a correctional centre social setting and overall practices.

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APPENDIX A

ETHICS RESEARCH CONFIDENTIALITY AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I Sadiq Ewaoda Amali of the Department of Criminology, University of Fort Hare am conducting research regarding inmate incarceration and rehabilitation: A cross sectional study of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in correctional centres in North Western Nigeria.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary, hence respondents have the right to refuse to answer any question, for whatever reason. The research is purely for academic purposes and whatever information is provided will be treated with optimum confidentiality.

No names of respondents will be used in this study, either in the final thesis or in any publication that emanate from the result of this study, Anonymity and confidentiality are fully protected. Any questions or queries regarding the study or this questionnaire may be directed to me as the principal researcher.

The interview will last for about fifteen minutes. I will be asking you questions which I presume you will be sincere in answering the questions. Some questions may be personal or perceptions towards rehabilitation programmes and facilities in the correctional centre social setting.

Any answer you provide will be captured as an answer to the question as no answer will be considered as wrong or right answers. In a situation where there is a review of a previous answer, we will return to the previous question.

INFORMED CONSENT BY PARTICIPANT by Participant

I hereby accept to partake in the research probing into inmate incarceration and rehabilitation: A cross sectional study of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in a correctional centre social setting. Kindly comprehend that I am contributing liberally and devoid of in any way to do so. I also comprehend that I can halt this interview at any instant should I not wish to continue and that this choice will not in any way influence me undesirably.

I comprehend that the objective of this research thesis is not of necessity to profit me in person.

I have retrieved the telephone details of a person to contact should I require to talk to about several subjects.

I comprehend that this approval form will not be related to the questionnaires; any answers will stay intimate or censored.

I comprehend that if all possible, response will be given to my neighborhood on the results of the finalized research.

Signature of participant

Date.....

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1-Age of respondent

- (a) Below 20
- (b) 20-25
- (c) 26-30
- (d) 31-35
- (e) 36-40
- (f) 41-45
- (g) 46-50
- (h) 51 and above

2-Gender of the respondent

- (a) Male
- (b) Female

3- Marital status

- (a) Single
- (b) Married
- (c) Widow
- (d) Divorced

4- Before conviction, did you live with your wife?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

5- Do you have children?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

6- Before conviction, did you live with your wife?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

7-Highest educational qualification

- (a) Non
- (b) Qu'ran only
- (c) Primary school(drop out)
- (d) Secondary school(graduated)
- (e) Secondary school(drop out)
- (f) Secondary school(graduated)
- (g) OND/HND/NCE
- (h) Degree/post graduate
- (i) Others specify

8-Occupation before incarceration

- (a) Civil servant
- (b) Business man
- (c) Artisan
- (d) Petty trading
- (e) Farming
- (f) Others(specify)

9- Monthly income before incarceration

- (a) Below 10,000
- (b) 10,001-20,000
- (c) 20,001-30,000
- (d) 30,001-40,000

10- Religion

- (a) Islam
- (b) Christianity
- (c) Others (specify.....)

11- What offence resulted in your incarceration?

- (a) Armed robbery
- (b) Larceny/theft
- (c) Financial crime
- (d) Rape
- (e) Sodomy
- (f) Others (Specify.....)

12-How long have you been incarcerated?

- (a) 1month to five years
- (b) 6years to 10 years.
- (c) 11 years- 15 years
- (d) Longer than 15 years
- (e) No response

SECTION 1: REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES AND FACILITIES IN KANO CENTRAL AND GORON-DUTSE PRISON: PARTICIPATION, PERCEPTIONS AND SATISFICTION

13- Are you undergoing any rehabilitation / vocational programme?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

14- How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the rehabilitation programme?

- (a) Highly satisfied
- (b) Satisfied
- (c) Dissatisfied
- (d) Highly dissatisfied

15- How would you describe facilities for vocational programme?

- (a) Adequate
- (b) Inadequate
- (c) Obsolete

16-Are there adequate facilities to ensure your effective rehabilitation?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

17-Do you have access to rehabilitation facilities?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

18- Do you have access to educational training?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

19- Do you have classrooms in the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

20- How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the classrooms?

- (a) Highly satisfied
- (b) Satisfied
- (c) Dissatisfied
- (d) Highly dissatisfied

21- Do you have library facilities in the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

22- How would you describe the library facility?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Very good
- (c) Good
- (d) Fair
- (e) Poor

23-Do you have sporting facilities in the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

24- How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the sporting facilities?

- (a) Highly satisfied
- (b) Satisfied
- (c) Dissatisfied
- (d) Highly dissatisfied

25-Were the places of worship provided for you within the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

26- How would you describe the places of worship?

- (a) Clean
- (b) Filthy

27- How often were you allowed to visit places of worship in the correctional centre?

- (a) Often
- (b) Rarely often
- (c) Never

28- Do you have a standard toilet in the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

29-How will you describe toilet facilities in the correctional centre?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Very good
- (c) Good
- (d) Fair
- (e) Poor

30- How often do you have access to potable water?

- (a) Often
- (b) Rarely often
- (c) Never

31-How would you describe the water you had access to?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Very good
- (c) Good
- (d) Fair
- (e) Poor

32- How many times were you served with meals a day?

- (a) Once
- (b) Twice
- (c) Thrice

33- Describe the food you were served with.

- (a) Good
- (b) Poor

34- How sufficient was the food served?

- (a) Sufficient
- (b) Insufficient.

35-How would you describe the bed spacing in the correctional centre?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Very good
- (c) Good
- (d) Fair
- (e) Poor

36- Were you separated based on age the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

37- Were you separated based on criminal records?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

38-Were you separated based on nature of offence?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

39- How many inmates are accommodated in a cell?

- (a) 10-20
- (b) 20-30
- (c) 31-40
- (d) 41 and above
- (e) No response

40- How would you describe the cells?

- (a) Congested and filthy
- (b) Not congested and clean

41 -Do you have a standard clinic in the prison?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

42- Do you enjoy medical attention when sick?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

43- How would you describe the medical facility and attention you received in the clinic?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Very good
- (c) Good
- (d) Fair
- (e) Poor

44- How would describe your relationship with correctional officials?

- (a) Friendly
- (b) Cordial
- (c) Hostile

45- Were you subjected to maltreatment?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

46- If yes, which one?

- (a) Food denial
- (b) Verbal insults
- (c) Torture
- (d) Punishment
- (e) Others (specify.....)

47- Do you have to bribe warders before enjoying some facilities?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE (CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS)

SECTION A: SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1 Age of respondent

- (a) Below 25
- (b) 25- 30
- (c) 31-35
- (d) 36-40
- (e) Above 40

2 Sex

- (a) Male
- (b) Female

3 Rank

- (a) Officer cadre
- (b) Rank and file cadre

4 Marital status

- (a) Single
- (b) Married
- (c) Widow
- (d) Divorced

5 Highest educational qualification

- (a) OND/HND/NCE
- (b) Degree/post graduate
- (c) Others (Specify.....)

6 How long have you been serving the Nigerian Prison Service?

- (a) Less than Five years
- (b) 6-10years
- (c) 11years-15years
- (d) More than 15years

7 How long have you been serving in this particular correctional centre?

- (a) Less than 5 years
- (b) 6years and above

SECTION 1: PERCEPTION OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS OF REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES AND FACILITIES

8 How would you describe the relationship between the NPS and the inmates?

- (a) Very Cordial
- (b) Cordial
- (c) Not cordial

9 If not cordial, what could be the possible reason?

- (a) Verbal insults
- (b) Request for bribe.
- (c) None of the above

10 What is your assessment of the rehabilitation programme in the correctional centre?

- (a) Very effective
- (b) Effective
- (c) Ineffective

11 Are you involved in the rehabilitation of inmates?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

12 If yes, specify in which area:

- (a) Carpentry
- (b) Welding
- (c) Electrical
- (d) Laundry services
- (e) Others (specify.....)

13 Is the infrastructure adequate for effective rehabilitation of inmates?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

14 Are there qualified correctional centre staff to handle all the rehabilitation programmes in the correctional centre?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

15 What are the rehabilitation programmes available at inmates disposal?

- (a) Carpentry
- (b) Welding
- (c) Electrical

- (d) Laundry
- (e) Others (specify.....)

16 Are the prison rehabilitation programmes adequately funded?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

17 If no, how do you source funds to maintain the programmes?

- (a) Non governmental organization
- (b) Individuals
- (c) Others (specify.....)

18- How will you rate the overall performance of the programmes?

- (a) Very effective
- (b) Effective
- (c) Ineffective

19- Do prison inmates participate in rehabilitation programmes?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

20- If no, what could be the possible reason?

- (a) Absence of adequate rehabilitation programmes
- (b) Lack of correctional officials to handle programmes.
- (c) Lack of interest from inmates

21- How responsive are the inmates to rehabilitation programmes?

- (a) Responsive
- (b) Not responsive

22- How often do you provide rehabilitation programmes for inmates?

- (a) Once a week
- (b) Once a month
- (c) Twice a week
- (d) Others (Specify.....)

23-In your opinion, do you think these rehabilitation programmes can effectively rehabilitate inmates?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

24- Do you gain satisfaction from your duties as a member of a orrectional official?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

25- What resources would you consider inadequate to enable effective rehabilitation?

- (a) Lack of funds
- (b) Scarcity of tools for rehabilitation programmes
- (c) Inadequate number of correctional centre staff

26- How would you rate the general condition of the correctional centre?

- (a) Manageable
- (b) Reasonable
- (c) Appalling
- (d) Decent enough for correctional activities
- (e) Decaying structures
- (f) Satisfactory

Semi-structured in-depth interview guide (Correctional Officials)

- I.** When was this correctional centre built?
- II.** What is the current capacity of the correctional centre?
- III.** When last was this correctional centre renovated and how often it is renovated?
- IV.** If no, what may be responsible?
- V.** How do you classify an inmate in the facility?
- VI.** Provision of drugs and inmate medical treatment?
- VII.** Do you organize rehabilitative programmes for inmates?
- VIII.** If yes, clarify the programmes?
- IX.** Elucidate the state of infrastructure in the correctional centre.
- X.** Illuminate on the availability of officials to handle rehabilitation, education and vocational training?
- XI.** Enlighten how effective are these programmes in molding character of the inmates?
- XII.** Expound on inmate's response to rehabilitation programmes?
- XIII.** Shed light on funds allocated to adequately take care of rehabilitative programmes?
- XIV.** If yes, how often are funds allocated for rehabilitation programmes?
- XV.** What are the problems that hindered impacting rehabilitation programmes on inmates?
- XVI.** How can the rehabilitation programmes be improved upon?

DECLARATION FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

31 August 2017

To whom it may concern

I hereby confirm that I have edited *Inmate incarceration and rehabilitation: A cross sectional study of rehabilitation programmes and facilities in prisons in North Western Nigeria* by Sadiq Ewaoda Amali from the University of Fort Hare.

This editing is done in a systematic way using the Windows "Tracking" system to enable the author to accept or decline suggested corrections which indicate spelling, grammatical, syntactical, referential, spatial or typographical errors within the text. The author is responsible to use his own judgment when making the suggested changes if he feels the intended meaning has been compromised.

Lauren Wainwright
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NPS 536/S3/132

Our Ref:.....

10 January, 2017.

Date:.....

Dr Mustapha Danjuma Hussein
Head of Department
Department of Sociology Federal University of Dutse
Ibrahim Aliyu Bye-pass
PMB 7156
Dutse, Jigawa State.

Re: Letter introducing Mr Sadiq Ewaoda Amali
CGPs Approval to conduct a research on comprehensive study of
inmate incarceration and rehabilitation in Kano central and Goron
Dutse Prisons kano state of.

With reference to your letter referred above dated 13 December 2016; I am directed to convey the Controller General of Prisons approval for Mr Sadiq Ewaoda Amali's request.

2. It is to be emphasized without any ambiguity that the approval is subject to the understated conditions:
 - i. That four (4) copies of the project must be released for keep by Prison formations as follows;
 - One copy of the project to be submitted to Kano Central Prison.
 - One copy of the project to be submitted to Goron Dutse Prison.
 - Two copies of the project to be submitted to Prisons National Headquarters, Abuja.

3. Mr Sadiq Ewaoda Amali is expected to carry out the study within the purview of the extant prison rules and regulation, and without compromising the security of the prisons during and after the exercise.

Accept the best regards and high considerations of the Controller General of Prisons.



CP LA SHOWUMI

CP OPERATIONS

For: Controller General of Prisons.

CC

The Controller of Prisons
Nigeria Prisons Service
Kano State Command
Kano.

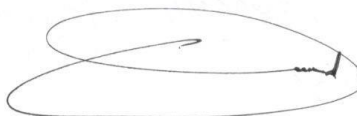
Overleaf is for your information and necessary action please.

The Superintendent-in-Charge,
Kano Central Prison
Kano State command.

Overleaf is for your information and necessary action, please.

The Superintendent-in-charge
Goron Dutse Prison,
Kano State Command.

Overleaf is for your information and necessary action, please.



CP LA SHOWUMI

CP OPERATIONS

For: Controller General of Prisons.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: PET011SAMA01

Project title: **A comparative study of inmate incarceration and rehabilitation in Kano central and Goron Dutse prisons, North West Nigeria.**

Nature of Project: PhD

Principal Researcher: Sadiq Amali

Supervisor: Prof T Petrus

Co-supervisor: Prof J Barkhuizen

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

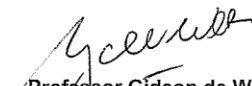
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely


Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

29 June 2016