**EVALUATING CRIME CONTROL AND REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES IN KIRIKIRI AND KUJE PRISONS**

**BY**

**EZEAJUGHU, MARY CHUKWUAGOZIE PG/16/019163/ASS**

**BEING**

**A THESIS PRESENTED TO DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES, IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY OKADA, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTORATE DEGREE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

**PROFESSOR B.O. AGARAH SUPERVISOR**

**JANUARY 2020**

**CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION**

# Background to the Study

Generally, news of crime and criminal acts elicit different reactions from the people. Sometimes people are intrigued, attracted or repelled, amused or frightened. While interest in crime has usually been high, understanding why it occurs and what to do about it has always been a problem. As every other area of life and human behavior, there is no shortage of experts and experts’ opinion starting from public officials, politicians, philosophers and the academes. The inability of the society and its agencies to prevent crime stems from our failure to understand criminal behavior and why there is crime in the first place.

The reality is that crime is inevitable and has both positive and negative roles to play in human society. However, the worsening economy of most of the sub-Saharan African countries including Nigeria, have contributed a lot to the level and sophistication of crime in the world. Intensity of crime has also been deepening with crises in the economy such that level and sophistication of crime has also changed over time in terms of sophistication of weaponry and the level of intelligence employed especially in cybercrime related incidents. In traditional societies, criminal activities manifested in petty crime such as stealing, burglary, rape among others. However, with increase in the level of unemployment and education, Nigeria has now witnessed high level of criminal activities.

With the rise in the number of urban areas and the depletion of the rural areas, crime has also become intensified. While majority of the states in Nigeria are rapidly urbanising due to modernisation and technological advancement, ironically, attendant to this affluence is also a rise in the level of criminality experienced in those states. The level of criminality experienced has moved from petty crime to highly sophisticated and intellectual crimes such as kidnapping, vandalisation of oil pipelines, daylight bank robberies with a high level of sophistication and armaments that surpassed even those of the police who are supposed to assured the society of its safety.

State response to this development has not been encouraging even to the extent that it has been opined that the state has no answer to these crimes. The sophistication and intensity of crime appears to have overwhelmed state response and agencies ability to curb or control it. It would seem that while the criminals are developing with time in terms of sophistication of weapons and gallantry, the state institutions seem to have remained static and stagnant, often times bereft of ideas and innovation on how to combat crime. The reason for this is not farfetched and can be located in institutional decay, corruption and general malaise of governance that have affected both the society and security agencies, which are part of the larger society. At the level of governance, there is an intellectual pit, which has not been able to forge a link between the increasing level of crime and the deepening crisis of the state political economy. The crisis is also a reflection of the state’s inability to provide and also give an assurance of the provision of the basic necessity of food, shelter, clothing and security of life and property for the citizenry.

The result is that in the quest for orderliness there has been a propensity in human societies to control and reduce offending behavior from citizenry. However, when prevention fails the option of punishing the offenders through legal systems and imprisonment remains a widely used method of formal punishment during which offenders are deprived of the freedom they previously enjoyed. This underscore, the use of prison services as institutions for the control and reform of criminals.The underlying principle of modern prisons system therefore, is to improve, rehabilitate, deter the offender and others, and prepare him to play a fit and proper part in society once released. Prison therefore provides a confinement where socially and legally interned people who wronged the society are kept for reformation, rehabilitation and possible reintegration (Ugwuoke, Utido & Nura, 2015).

Although McCorkle and Korn (1954) have defined prison as a physical structure in a geographical location where a number of people live under highly specialized conditions that is different from the larger society, the idea behind imprisonment is to separate for transformation, those that society considers unfit or as threat to cohabit with due to their criminal behavior.Generally, imprisonment becomes an aspect of punishment, just as the reattribute and the deterrent philosophers have stressed.Thus, a deviant is punished in order to pay him back for his actions and to deter him/her or others from committing similar offence or crime (Obioha, 2011). As crime control measure, imprisonment is most appropriately conceived as a formal perspective of inflicting pain on the individuals, which has been an aspect of the traditional criminal justice system in various society including Nigeria.

# Background to the Nigerian Prison Services

Generally, imprisonment serves specific functions in the society and for the offender. According to Ugwuoke (2013), these functions include protection of the society, deterrence, retribution and rehabilitation. Just punishment of the offender will, in addition, counts as part of the functions imprisonment serves. To achieve these noble objectives to both the society and the individual offender, the Nigerian Prisons Services (NPS) was established as a service provider for prison inmates in order to restore them to fullest physical, mental, psychological, social vocational and economic usefulness which they are capable of (NPS Manual, 2011). The NPS Manual (2011) posited that the realization of reformation and rehabilitation of convicts are to be done through a complex set of mechanism such as conscientization, group work, case work session, recreational activities, religious services adult and remedial education programmes, educational development project, skills acquisition programmes, mid-range industrial production, agricultural service and after-care service programme.

The Nigeria prison service is under item within the exclusive legislative list by virtue of this provision; it is only the federal government that can make laws that regulates prisons. This by implication mean that, states cannot legislate on matters that concerns prisons. Prisons are placed under the supervision of the Ministry Internal Affairs now Ministry of Interior. However, the prisons service is under the direct supervision of the Controller General of prisons. But the formulation of policies and management of prisons, immigration and custom services is under the Custom and Immigration Board. Under this structure, the prison service was decentralized and the Controller General is assisted by the five deputy Director in charge of: Administration, Finance

and Budget; Inspectorate; Welfare; Operations and Training. The Deputy Directors are assisted by eleven Assistant Directors at the Headquarters located at Abuja.

The prison system is divided into six Zones manned by Controller of Prisons who are respectively responsible to the Controller General of prisons acting as coordination. It seems to operate a unitary system, one single chain of command. Each prison unit is under the control of officer in charge not below the rank of superintendent. There are different classes of prisons. This classification determined the prisoners to be intern in such a facility, condemned prisoners and persons serving life sentences would only be held in maximum security prison while persons sentenced to terms not less than 2 years are kept in convict/medium security prison. While Borstal institutions are to serve as a training institution for children. District prison/lock ups are prisons for first offenders or minor offenders. And prison farms are mechanized farm for prisoners. There is one open prison which is not operational. Nigerian prisons consist of 232 prisons, 9 prions farm with five poultry farm, 4 training schools, 3 Borstal institution, one prison Staff College.

Majority of prisons in Nigeria where built by the “Colonial administration” and “Native authority” predating the era Nigeria gain independence in 1960 (See Table 1 below). The conditions of these prisons are in an “alarming state of disrepair with no sense of “Maintenance culture or renovation reflection of long neglect by the Nigeria government. In fact most of the prisons constructed at this period are old fashion, in bad shape and at the brinks of collapse. However, few prisons have been constructed with most substandard materials, which are a far cry from modern prisons. Examples of such new prisons include, Funtua (2003) Gusua Medium Security Prison Kirikiri (1993), Kebbi New Prison (1991), Oyo and Eket Prisons (2007) respectively.

The NPS was established in accordance with three forms of penal legislation which operate alongside each other in the country; the Penal Code and the accompanying Criminal Procedure Code Cap 81 Laws of the Federation 1990 (CPC); the Criminal Code and the accompanying Criminal Procedure Act Cap 80 Laws of the Federation 1990 (CPA) and the Sharia penal legislation in 12 northern states (which applies to only Muslim members of these states). By its establishment philosophy, the Nigerian prison service is an institution meant to administer penal treatment to adult offenders. Its importance is in the bid to reduce crime in the society. On the basis of imprisonment policy, the prison service was established to manage criminals in prison yards. This constitutional function empowers the Nigerian prison operatives to:

* keep convicted offenders (prisoners) for safe custody,
* keep awaiting trial inmates in custody, until law courts ask for their production
* punish offenders as instructed by the law courts
* reform the convicted prisoners
* rehabilitate and to re-integrate prisoners who have completed the sentences in the prison (extract from prison training manual) (cited in Adetula et al. 2010)

# Statement of the Problem

Controlling crime and criminality through prison rehabilitation programmes have been of great concern to many citizens and the Nigerian government in general. This is not only because many inmates come out worse-off than they came-in but also because Nigerian prisons have been enormously characterized by some problems which several studies have indicated to be the reasons for the inadequacy of the system as a corrective institution. For instance, Nigerian prisons is overly regimented to the extent that there is strict control in virtually all activities of the inmates. This often leaves the prisoners in a mentally brutalized manner with broken body and spirit, which destroys the individuals. Thus we could insinuate that Nigeria prison system tend to destroy the individual members of the community as against its essence of rehabilitation.

Obioha (1995) and Adetula, Adetula & Fatusan (2010) have asserted that contact with the prison institutions in Nigeria makes the less hardened individuals to be more hardened in criminality activities upon release with more tendencies than not to relapse to criminal activities, which generates high frequency of recidivism. In the same vein, the penal institutions sub-systems; the justice, the police, prison yard and the operatives ways of administering and enhancing criminal behaviour and recidivists than serving deterrence, repentance, reformatory and reconciliatory attitudes between reconvicts and people in free society to enhance confidence in physical and conceptual security (Adetula et al, 2010). A cursory look at the lock-up pattern and content of most Nigerian prisons leaves much to be desired. For instance, the remand and convicts populations, the minor and serious offenders, the younger and older inmates are not systematically sorted out in different cells according to the Standard Minimum Rule (SMR) for imprisonment, which prescribes that prisoners should be locked up according to their various categories.

Another problem that tend to characterize most Nigerian prisons is human resources wastages and idleness among the inmate as most old time trade ideas and occupations have almost disappeared. The SMR prescribed the establishment of trade and skills acquisition centres within the prison yards, where these are found in Nigerian prisons, they are either not functioning or unsuitable for some of the inmates who prefer other trades and educational learning processes that are not existence in the prisons rehabilitation curriculum. Thus, most Nigerian prisons may be described as a home of idle minds due to lack of what to do, lack of workshop facilities and lack of good skills which the prisoners would like to learn.

Social infrastructural facilities are other important requirements for effective rehabilitation in prison system are most often non-existence. Where in existence, these facilities which include social and recreational facilities have been reported to be in bad shapes. Some ex-convicts have reported poor infrastructures and housing facilities of some Nigerian prisons. Many prisons still parade the structure built over fifty years ago with the rooms and cells not good for human habitation while the bedding are absent in most cases. These poor living conditions could be partly responsible for most jailbreaks and maladjustment behaviour witnessed among most inmate. Studies have also shown that the correlation between population of inmates and the outcome of rehabilitation. As such, overcrowding of prison inmates was found to be positively correlated with maladjusted problems after release (Ifiomu, 1987; Obioha, 1995). A cursory observation of most Nigerian prisons showed that they hold more population of inmates than they were originally planned to accommodate. This inturn overstretches the use of available infrastructure beyond their limits of functioning capacity due to human pressure. This problem of prison congestion may be closely related to the outbreak of some killer diseases and deplorable health condition. Painfully, there are no readily designated hospital and enough health personnel and drugs to heal the sick inmates. These problems of overcrowding seems to be an age-long problem of Nigerian prisons system which successive administration have been contending with.

Inferring from the above, the main aim of establishing the prison institution in all parts of the world including Nigeria is to provide a rehabilitation and correctional facility for those who have violated the rules and regulations of their society. However, the extent to which this maxim is true in practice has been a subject of controversy. Instances abound where the prisons have become a training ground for criminals instead of rehabilitation home in Nigeria (Obioha 1995). A casual observation of the population that goes in and out of the prisons in Nigeria presupposes that there

are some problems in the system, hence the prisons system has not been able to live up to its expected role in Nigeria. The worry about the manifestation that Nigerian prisons has not lived up to expectations in terms of impacting positively on lives and vocations of inmates has raised several questions that have not yet been completely addressed on the system’s functions and existence. Against this background of the existing gap arising from the questions of functionality of the prisons in Nigeria, this study articulates the problems that exist in the Nigeria prisons and the reform processes that have been put in place by successive governments to address them. The extent to which these reform agendas have been implemented and the impacts they have had on the overall prison system in Nigeria will also be discussed.

# Research Questions

These research questions below set the trajectory which this study followed.

* + 1. To what extent has the Nigerian Prison System achieved the mandate of crime control through prisons rehabilitation?
    2. How functional are the Nigerian Prison Systems in rehabilitating inmates?
    3. What are the problems responsible for the inability of NPS to perform?
    4. How effective are the present programmes in controlling crime?
    5. How can the NPS be positioned for effective crime control?

# Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to assess the effectiveness of crime control and rehabilitation programmes in Nigerian prisons. Specifically, this study focuses on achieving these objectives;

* + 1. To determine the extent to which NPS have performed its mandate of controlling crime through its rehabilitation and programs.
    2. To assess the functionality of the Nigerian Prison Systems in rehabilitating inmates.
    3. To determine the factors hindering the performance of NPS in crime control
    4. To examine the efficiency of the present programmes in controlling crime.
    5. To recommend ways through which NPS can be repositioned for effective crime control.

# Research Hypotheses

In conjunction with the research questions above, the under listed hypotheses are tested using relevant data.

H01: Nigerian Prison Services have not significantly achieved inmate rehabilitation. H02: Prison rehabilitation has not significantly affected the level of recidivism.

H03: Prison services programs have not significantly controlled the level of crime relapse among inmates.

# Significance of the Study

The conduct of this research is apt at this time when the federal government of Nigeria, has just changed the Nigeria Prison Service (NPS) to Nigeria Correctional Services (NCS) through legislation of the National Assembly in his quest to reposition the agency. Over the years, the Prison services has been under the attack of the civil society organization, legal practitioners, and other professional bodies on the poor state of prison facilities and rehabilitation services offered. However, the change of name of the agency from NPS to NCS is not enough as details study like this would provide far reaching data about the state of affairs in the NPS with a view to setting the pace for comprehensive reform.

Data obtained in this study, its findings and recommendations will add to the existing pool of academic resources for reference. It will also serve as a working tool for government and non- governmental organisations and other stake holders in crime, criminality and crime control.

Nigeria Correction Service and other security agencies will find the findings and recommendations useful in controlling crime through correctional programming.

In addition, the outcomes of this research will be a veritable tool for legislative review of the existing laws establishing the agency as well as the mandate of the organization. Members of National Assembly will be in position to have firsthand information on the various aspects of the NPS Act that was repelled that are not consistent with global best practices in the world. This will not only douse the tension of civil society on human right but also reposition Nigeria in the comity of nations. This study will enable professionals such social workers, psychologists, medical doctors, psychiatrics and other health practitioners update their records and develop manuals for intervention programmes for inmates and ex-convicts in Nigeria.

The findings of this study will also enrich literature on correctional services and new conceptual framework that would be produced by this study would challenge the existing theoretical paradigm on correctional services and create a new paradigm for scholars and researcher to adopt in their research endavour.

# Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study sets out to examine crime control and rehabilitation programmes in prison services in Nigeria. Two Nigerian prisons are proposed for study, and these are, Kirikiri Maximum prisons in Lagos State and Kuje Prison in Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja. The limitations which undermined this study is the evocation of the Official Secret Act by the officials of the NPS and hence the challenge to interview them and the inmates. However, relevant requests were made to

the authorities of the NPS and relevant approvals were obtained and the permission assisted us to gain access to the two prison formations to conduct the research.

# Operational Definition of Terms

The following terms and concepts used in this study are defined as and will be measured as follows;

* + 1. **Crime Control:** Crime control is defined in the context of the prisons services for convicted offenders and would include imprisonment functions such as rehabilitation, deterrence, retribution and protection of the society.
    2. **Rehabilitation:** Rehabilitation in the context of this study refer to the process of changing and improving the behaviour of prison inmates. This would be assessed by the number and quality of rehabilitation programmes embarked upon by management of the selected prisons for the study. These programmes include religious, counselling, vocational skill acquisition, academic education training, recreational, psychological therapy, medical and health therapy among others.
    3. **Retribution:** Retribution is the act of inflicting punishment on the offenders more than he/she has caused so that the harm the offender has caused will be paid back and the scales of justice balanced.
    4. **Deterrence:** Deterrence asserts that punishing offenders will cause them not to commit crime because they will have been taught that crime does not pay.
    5. **The Protection of the Society:** This is an act of reducing crime by “caging” or incarcerating offenders. Purring offenders behind bars is seen to incarcerate crime and make it impossible for the offenders to be free in the society where innocent citizens would be criminally victimized.

**CHAPTER TWO:**

**LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

# Conceptual Review

A number of concepts implicated in this study were reviewed to avoid ambiguity. These concepts, which have been studied by various scholars in some details, will be reviewed briefly here. However, a more detailed review will be done in the later course of the work. These concepts are crime and crime control, punishment, rehabilitation, prison and prison services

# Crime and Crime control

Because of the absence of a utopian society, crimes are committed at one time or another in spite of various preventive method by the police. Those crimes that escape prevention are detected through professional techniques. Crime detection is thus the next biggest policing methodology after patrols and the most effective. Detectives are able to stake out criminal hideouts and arrest them before or after their criminal acts. Crime detection is an exclusive field of police professionalism. Thus, the police are capable of smashing criminal syndicates by the application of various investigative techniques (Onyeozili, 2008).

It involves very large number of detectives who are usually not in uniform. The detectives are responsible for the collection of information about crime (intelligence gathering) and undercover operations, penetrating criminals’ syndicates or pose as people willing to commit illegal act (agents’ provocateur), such as receiving stolen property, buying drugs, offering bribe, soliciting a prostitute etc. Criminal investigation as will be discussed in subsequent chapters involves

interrogation of criminal suspects, victims of crime, witnesses, and informants alike, in order to discover the author (s) of crime and provide evidence of guilt.

Coleman (1984) defines “crime as a violation of the criminal law”. Furthermore, “a crime is defined as an act or omission prohibited by law for the protection of the public and punishable by the state in a judicial proceedings in its own name”. To commit a crime is to face the risk of official punishment. Thus a crime includes both an act and a state of mind. The Holy Bible said in Mathew 5:28 ”Whosoever looks on a woman to lust after her has committed adultery with her already in his heart”. Crime against the person, includes such deviant acts as murder, manslaughter, assault, child trafficking, slave dealing, rape and crime against property, especially burglary, Forgery, robbery, house breaking, are core crimes. These are the centre of the criminal law, the nucleus of the legal system. In every society with minor varieties, they are recognized as crime (Radzinowlez and king 1977). Abrataaser and David (1980) noted that although both offended and law-abiding citizens have some personality make up known as social constructive and distinctive traits, they both act and react differently to the stimulus of their personality make-up. Taylor (1973) believed that societies were characterized by inequalities in wealth and power lay the root of crime and as such, the dimensions include, survival, material wellbeing, cultural attainment of specific goods and personal fulfillment.

Basically, there is what is commonly called the ‘legal’ or ‘legalistic’ definition of crime. This definition, simply put, sees crime as “a human act that violates the criminal law” (Barlow, 1984, p. 5). Deriving from this legal perspective, there are two important connotations. The first is that crime involves behaviour, that is crime is a behavioural problem, and secondly, it is identified in terms of law, hence the concept of ‘criminal law’ which implies a special type of law which deals

with crime and criminal behaviour. Further implication of this is that for an act to be considered a crime and the actor or perpetrator to be called a criminal, a number of specific criteria must be met. First is that there must be a conduct. In other words, mere thoughts or merely thinking about committing a criminal act is not a crime by itself. Second is that the act or conduct or behaviour must constitute a social harm, that is, it must be injurious to the state or other people. Third is that the conduct must be prohibited by law, it must be such acts that are repugnant to the state and peaceful co-existence of the people. Fourth is that the conduct must be performed voluntarily, without coercion or duress or compulsion of force being applied. Hence, the fifth is that the conduct must be performed intentionally, thereby leading to the concept of criminal intent as expressed by the idea of *mens rea* (guilty mind). The sixth is the harm which the behaviour has caused must be proven to be causally related to the conduct. Finally, the conduct must be such that it can be punishable by law, that is, the punishment must be speicified in advance of the conduct.

Over the years, two major opinions have been formed about the legalistic definition of crime. The first opinion is of the view that the legalistic definition is the “only possible definition of crime.” According to Michael and Adler (1933, p.2), this definition is not only adequate but precise and unambiguous. Their argument is based on three common observations that (1) the legalistic definition recognizes a common thread binding instances of human conduct, that is, they are legally identified as criminal; (2) the word ‘crime’ is reserved for a class of acts to which stigma is attached by virtue of their illegality, and (3) this definition identifies clear-cut boundaries for criminology which distinguishes it from other areas such as nonconformity and deviance. The second set of scholars have taken up issues with the legalistic definition because the legalistic definition has not answered the questions such as “why do people engage in behaviour that violates the law,” “why are the laws, how did they come about and who created them?” these scholars

considered the law side of the coin as primarily a formal cause of crime; it creates crime by identifying acts that violate it and hence it is not an integral part of the crime. Their argument is hinged on the fact that the significance of crime as a legal phenomenon lies not so much in the idea that an act happens to violate the law but, rather, in the quality the act takes on when the machinery of law acts upon it (Reckless, 1950; Korn and McCorkle, 1957).

Crime varies from individual to organized crime. Cressey’s (1969, p. 319), which because of its conciseness, even the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) has adopted; “An organized crime is any crime committed by a person occupying, in an established division of labour, a position designed for the commission of crimes providing that such division of labour includes at least one position for a corrupter, one position for a corruptee, and one position for an enforcer.” Agara et al (2016) have further enumerated the list of crimes to include; crime against persons (murder, manslaughter, attempted murder, suicide, grievous harm/wounding, assault, child stealing, slave dealing, rape and indecent assault, kidnapping and unnatural offences), against property (armed robbery, demanding with menace, theft and other stealing, burglary, house breaking, store breaking, false pretense and cheating, forgery, receiving stolen property, unlawful possession and arson), and others (forgery of currency notes, gambling, threat to life, malicious damage, abduction, breach of peace, affray, human trafficking, escape from lawful custody, defilement, and bribery and corruption).

Of great significance is the Labeling perspective which treats crime as status rather than behaviour. According to this perspective, crimes are distinguished from other acts precisely because they have been defined as crimes by those in a position to react to them (Quinney, 1970, pp. 5-6). The argument of the proponents is that the activities of those who administer the criminal law that lead

to the imposition of the label crime on a behaviour. Whatever label is impose on an act notwithstanding, the social significance of such act is in the reactions it creates. Durkheim (1964) has alluded to this fact, that a crime is “every act which .. invokes against its author the characteristic reaction we term punishment.” Relating this to deviance, Becker (1963) has stated that;

… deviance is not a quality of the act the person commits, but rather a consequence of the application by others of rules and sanctions to an offender. The deviant is one to whom the label has been successfully applied: deviant behaviour is behaviour that people so label.

Thus, what make criminal behaviour distinctive is the kinds of reactions it calls forth. The distinctive thing about criminal behaviour is that the behaviour has been labeled crime. The implication of this is that if we are to restrict ourselves to crime as legal status, then we are in effect treating acts as crimes only when they are so labeled by those who create and administer the criminal law. Criminal law in action sets the condition under which labels can be applied and in theory, it restricts the range of behaviours that can be appropriately defined as crime. As Barlow (1984, p. 8) has noted, when viewed from this perspective, crime has five distinct meanings depending on the stage in the legal process that we are considering.

For instance, at the stage or level of the legislatures and other agencies whose responsibility is to create legal definitions of what is criminal behaviour, these formulations identify acts that violate them and which can then be considered as crimes. At the stage of those whose responsibility is to enforce the criminal law, they also define it by the act of arresting the offender by applying the crime label. However, persons who are not arrested escape the imposition of the crime label on their actions, hence, whereas the behaviour might be a crime, it is not a crime at the arrest stage

since no arrest has been made. At the level of prosecution and conviction stages, specific interpretations of conduct are made within the framework of criminal law. Finally, at the fifth stage during which punishment is meted out, the conduct reaching this stage may be considered to constitute crime at all levels of meaning. With all these conceptualizations in mind, crime can then be defined as “a label that is attached to human conduct by those who create and administer the criminal law (Barlow, 1984, p. 9).

# Punishment

What then is Punishment? According to Barlow (1984, p. 476), punishment is defined as any action designed to deprive a person or persons of things of value because of something that person has done or is thought to have done. Turk (1969, p. 19) has expatiated on the concept of ‘things of value’ as “liberty, civil rights, skills, opportunities, material objects, less tangible forms of wealth, health, identity, life and - perhaps most crucial – significant personal relationships.” On the other hand, the term ‘designed’ in the definition above implies that who punish do so knowingly and intentionally. Hence, punishment is a reaction intended to deprive the punished of something the punisher assumes is valued.

There are basically three major categories of criminal punishment. The first category is ‘official criminal penalties’ which consists of legal punishments as provided for by law and imposed by lawful representatives of a state, community or group according to the directives of law. Examples of this include fines, prison terms and probation. The second category is made up of punishments designated as ‘extra-legal penalties’ which while not illegal, are not provided for by law nor designated as punishments to be applied by officials of the state. Such penalties are diverse and

include refusal to marry a person because of his/her criminality or nonphysical harassment of a prisoner by a guard. Finally, is the third category which consists of illegal penalties such as torture or that is applied illegally such as lynching of a convicted offender.

Over the years, two schools of thoughts have emerged to support the idea of punishment. The first stresses the need of punishment as a moral responsibility and just and this school of thought is called the Retributivists. The second school of thought argued for the justification of punishment in terms of its capacity to deter or to reform. Proponents of this school are the Utilitarians such as Cesare Beccaria and Jeremy Bentham. Thus, punishment is expected to serve a number of purposes or functions the primary of which is to maintain or maximize social security. However, basically three broad functions which punishment is expected to serve are discernible. These are (i) just retribution; the possibility and fear of retributive punishment do, to some extent; restrain some potential criminals from committing criminal acts. (ii) Reformation which aims at reforming or changing the character of the criminal element. The primary reason for this is to transform the criminal person into a decent person while at the same time, ensure that others are free from the evils which his criminality may inflict on them. (iii) Deterrence which is aim at preventing others and those being punished from committing crimes.

The idea of retribution should not be seen as synonymous with revenge (Grupp, 1971; Ezorsky, 1972). The retributive conception of legal punishment emphasizes the principles of justice and due process, rather than the subjective seeking of vengeance. The thrust of the retributivists’ argument is that punishment is deserved when morally responsible persons are guilty of willfully violating the moral order of the society in which they are members. On its own part, the society has the

moral right and the duty to punish the guilty because the integrity of its moral order has been violated. Not to do so, negates the very idea of crime and renders moral responsibility meaningless. For the retributivists, a specific penalty is justified when the guilty person has received a punishment reflecting the gravity of the offense. This raises a fundamental question as to how to make the punishment for the crime. This is done in various ways such as (1) to make the punishment mirror the crime itself (*lex talionis* – an eye for an eye); (2) adjust the severity of penalties according to the social harm resulting from different offenses, and (3) link the penalties to the moral outrage or indignation felt by a majority of citizens.

However, in recent times, the emphasis has shifted from the retributivist’s conception of punishment to punishment as a means of preventing future or further crime, or in some way reducing instances and occurrence of crimes. As Ross (1929) had stated, preventing crime is “the sole justification of punishment known to the social scientists, seeing the justification of punishment and in its preventive capabilities. This view was first expressed by the Italian philosopher, Cesare Beccaria in the 18th century in his *Essay on Crimes and Punishments.* For him, a just punishment is one that is proportionate to the offense and sufficient to outweigh the pleasure derived from it. For the utilitarian, the greatest happiness for the greater number of people is their guiding principle and hence, any action that has the capability of producing pleasure or happiness for someone can also produce pain. So, in seeking their happiness, people may cause others pleasure or pain, hence others’ lives are often affected by our actions. Whereas crime produces pleasure for the perpetrator, it also produces pain and hence utilitarians consider it bad along with punishments that also produce pain. However, if by punishing an offender, we prevent crime, then

we give more pleasure to the entire society at the expense of the few whose behaviour is bad. Thus, punishment is justified by the utilitarian for producing pleasure for more.

This contention, therefore, raises a larger question of how to punish such that it prevents other crimes from been committed. In this respect, punishment is seen as a means of reforming criminals so that they would no longer commit crimes. The original idea of imprisonment and penitentiary was to fulfill this ideal of reformation and hence prevention of crimes. Second is that punishment is seen as a way to prevent crime by incapacitating the offenders so that they would not be in a position to commit more crimes. Third is the issue of deterrence which is based on the belief that punishment could be made to deter individuals from committing crime. On the basis of this, Bentham and the utilitarians generally justified punishment. They believed that since people seek pleasure, then they would avoid anything that causes pain such as punishment for wrong doings. Accordingly, punishment can prevent crime by its threat of pain.

The contention that punishment can prevent crime has occupied a lot of scholarly focus primarily because it has enjoyed more empirical scrutiny than the other nine preventive mechanisms, which Gibbs (1975) has enumerated and which is fully discussed below. It is important to note that in scholarly literature it has become conventional to distinguish between specific (or individual, or special) deterrence and general deterrence (Andenaes, 1974). This distinction recognizes two sets or classes of offenders who may refrain from crime because they fear punitive sanctions. These two are (1) those who have directly experienced punishment for a crime they committed in the past – specific deterrence, and (2) those who have not experienced punishment but are deterred from crime by the threat of punishment – general deterrence. As simple as this distinction seems,

some scholars disagree with this distinction. Rather, Gibbs (1975), for instance, has shown preference for the distinction between absolute and restrictive deterrence. In reality, this amounts to the fact that some people refrain from a particular criminal act mainly because they fear the gravity and type of punishment attached to that criminal act (absolute deterrence), whereas others refrain, modify or curtail their criminal activities for a period of time basically because of the growing risk of punishment if they persist (restrictive deterrence).

Some criminologists (Andenaes 1974, pp. 84-104, Waldo and Chiricos 1972, pp. 527-40, 1970, pp. 200-17) have argued punishment may deter only some offenders from committing certain types of offences. In this respect, Chambliss (1967, pp. 703-19, and 1970, pp. 368-72) has made an important distinction between instrumental crimes and expressive crimes. The distinction is that instrumental crimes are those directed toward some material ends such as burglary, occupational crimes, tax evasion, parking violations, robbery and such like. On the other hand, expressive crimes will include such acts as that are ends in themselves, that articulate desires such as murders, and assaults, drunkenness, sex offences, taking and possession of drugs etc. In Chambliss view, the deterrent effect of punishment may be greater for instrumental crimes since crimes under this purview will involve some element of premeditation, some degree of planning and risk assessment. But expressive crimes are usually impulsive and emotional; they are crimes committed in response to extrinsic and intrinsic pressures of the moment, not to what might happen in the future.

Andenaes (1966, pp. 949-83) had also attempted to distinguish types of offences by adopting the classical dichotomy between *mala in se* crimes (meaning crimes that are evil in themselves such as rape, murder, arson and robbery) and *mala prohibita* crimes (meaning crimes that are evil

because they are forbidden such drug offences, traffic violation and embezzlement). The major differences between these two types of offences is simply that one is ‘evil in themselves’ and the other is considered ‘evil because it is prohibited.’ Andenaes based his argument and distinction on the ground that *mala in se* crimes support and are supported by the moral codes of society, whereas *mala prohibita* crimes are simply illegal based on the law alone. However, a closer look at the distinctions by Chambliss and Andenaes would pose some analytical problem for us. For instance, offences such as burglary and robbery would be found in the ‘less deterrable’ column for Andenaes whereas it would belong to the ‘more deterrable’ column for Chambliss. This leaves us with the proposition that may need more scientific and empirical investigation and research that it is possible that crimes that are both instrumental and *mala prohibita* are more deterrable than offences that are both expressive and *mala in se* which are least deterrable.

In summary, Hart (1968, p. 27) has argued that “society is divisible at any moment into two classes,

(i) those who have actually broken a given law, and (ii) those who have not yet broken it, but may.

To make reform as the dominant objective would be to forego the hope of influencing the second”. Deterrence can then be seen to be of two kinds; general and individual. General deterrence is achieved when punishment is executed in such a way that it scares others from performing such or other criminal acts. Individual deterrence is the deterrence of individual from further perpetuating criminal acts due to having served some form of punishment for former acts. (iv) Compensation where punishment is seen as compensating the offender for his anti-social acts and where, in some cases, he is further ask to pay or return what may have been loss back to the wronged individual. In traditional African system, punishment is fashioned mainly to achieve compensation and

retribution, as Clinard and Abbot (1973:269) have suggested after their case study of crimes in Uganda;

Restitution to the victim or compensation to the victim has particular merit as a substitute for both fine and imprisonment in less developed countries. This was the traditional method of settling offences in most countries and it still remains so in the rural areas, particularly in African societies.

No matter how much or hard criminals are punished in order to deter them or others, unlike the underlying contradictory relations of the capitalist society is solved, crime seems to be a permanent feature of the horizon. This has made some scholars to view punishment as “an abstract measure of justice” as Bittner and Platt (1966, p. 81) have note;

The separation of the crime from the real grievance that it occasioned

… makes its punishment an abstract measure of justice. This is so because we cannot look at the real harm inform us about the gravity

of the offense and we are not free to elect a punishment that has a direct compensatory relevance to the real harm. If to commit a crime means to offend society then it is not all clear what the dues shall be that will expunge the offence and restore the violated order to its original state of integrity. The rule that someone who steals must spend some time

in prison establishes a symbolic equivalence between act and sanction that is inherently arbitrary. The crime and the punishment do not stand in a reciprocal relationship, one causing a deficit and the other restoring

the balance. Rather, they are, in a sense, analogous actions demonstrating that two wrongs can make a right.

# 2.1.3. Prisons and Prison Service

A prison can be sociologically defined as a confinement where socially and legally interned people who have wronged the society are kept for reformation, rehabilitation and possible reintegration. Ideally and as obtained in other developed climes, the prison is the last place for the transfiguration of those who the society dim unfit to cohabit with it owing to the fact that their continued stay in

the society is inimical to the continued co-existence of the members of the society. Prisons are very important to the survival and continued existence of every society. Infact, the importance of prisons cannot be over-emphasised (Ugwuoke, 2015).

Prisons are designed to keep custody of the legally interned, and by doing so, it helps to make the society safe from misdemeanants and lawbreakers who disturbs the peace of the society. Many are oblivious of this fact. When criminals and other dangerous elements are locked up in the prison, the society is insulated from their nefarious activities, thereby making the society safe for habitation and cohabitation. Hence, the prison is a vital part of the security set up of every society (Ugwuoke, 2015).

Not only does prison keep custody of the legally interned, they go further to identify the causes of their anti-social behaviour. The prison is like a hospital where psychopathic deviates and people who are in conflict with the law are treated. Before treating a sick person, the doctor would first of all identify the cause(s) of the ill-health; in other words, there must be a diagnosis to know the causative factor before administering treatment. Ideally, every prison must have behavioural scientists like the psychologists, social workers, occupational therapists, guidance and counselors, and so on. These professionals are very important and necessary in the operation of every prison, goal, correctional facility or penitentiary. The psychologist is of paramount importance because he or she is a behavioural engineer or modifier. The psychologist employs psychological techniques using psychological tests and psychotherapy to identify the real cause of the antisocial behaviour of the legally interned. There are factors that cause one to engage in social deviation and criminality. Some of them could be social, economic, and familial and so on. The psychologist

and social worker among others are indispensable to the day-to-day operation of the prison (Ugwuoke, 2015).

The core function of the prison is to reform and rehabilitate prisoners. This is requisite for the prison to achieve its mandates. Rehabilitation entails the act and process of changing and improving the behaviour of the legally interned. The major aim of imprisonment is for rehabilitation. And it is achieved through the use of religion, psychology, counseling, vocational and skill training, medical, recreation and education. Most prisons have chaplains from different religious organizations who help to improve the spirituality of the legally interned. Again, psychologists, social workers and other behavioural scientists are employed in most prisons to provide psychological services to the inmates. Industries and workshops are basic features in the prison. Most prisons are equipped with workshops where inmates are trained in vocational techniques, entrepreneurship, and skills which will help them make a living after they have left the four walls of the prison. It is no news that many inmates, especially in Nigeria and elsewhere have acquired basic and higher education in the four walls of the prison. Many inmates have become graduates while in prison. This is the beauty of imprisonment. Therefore, the prison is a centre for rehabilitation of the socially deformed.

From a study of life in a maximum-security prison, Sykes (1958) had coined the phrase “pains of imprisonment” from the observation that prison means much more than mere deprivation of freedom. First, he noted, there is a deep sense of rejection by the free community. There is a daily reminder of this rejection and the psychological toll on the individual is heavy. Second is that prisons are not hotels but places of involuntary confinement that lack most of the amenities that free men take for granted. Deprivation of a lasting relationship, particularly heterosexual relations

constitutes the third pain of imprisonment. The inmates are “figuratively castrated by involuntary celibacy.” They are denied both the physical and psychic pleasure of sex, which they have enjoyed as free men in the society. Fourth is also the deprivation of autonomy, the lack of independence that is typical of total institutions such as prisons, mental hospitals and military installations. Fifth, and final pain is forced association with other criminals. This involuntary association has many aspects, which according to Sykes (1958), the most threatening been those that undermine an inmate’s sense of physical security. Explaining incidents and effects of prison violence, Toch (1977, p. 53) stated that;

Jails and prisons … have a climate of violence which has no free-world counterpart. Inmates are terrorized by other inmates, and spend years in fear of harm. Some inmates request segregation, others lock themselves in, and some are hermits by choice. Many inmates injure themselves. The ‘testing out’ of new arrivals by their peers leaves many a first offender feeling vulnerable. Rumours of danger are rife. In jails, inmates who have already spent time in the ‘pen,’ or who claim to know what happens there, spread horrifying tales about brutality. Recipients of such accounts arrive

in prison expecting to struggle for their survival. Such fears cause problems beyond the immediately obvious ones. In prison, fear is a stigma of weakness and it marks men as fair game for exploitation … Inmate norms contain implicit threats of violence. Unpaid debts call for violence; group loyalties prescribe retaliation for slights to group members. There is also the norm of ‘fight or flight.’ Beleaguered inmates are told to do battle unless they wish to seek refuge in segregation.

# Rehabilitation in Prison Services

Rehabilitation is derived from the Latin word rehabilitate which literally means ‘making fit again’ (Wikipedia, 2015). In the prison context, it means readying prisoners to rejoin society after serving their jail terms, as useful, productive and law-abiding members of the wider community. Rehabilitation is of the assumption that crime is a behaviour, which is causal. This means that

crime is not as a result of the person’s freewill, but some factors which are as a result of nurture. The decision to commit a crime is determined, or at least heavily influenced, by the environment, psychological development, or biological makeup. People are not all the same—and thus free to express their will—but rather are different. These individual differences shape how people behave, including whether they are likely or not to commit crime. When people are characterized by various criminogenic risk factors— such as a lack of parental love and supervision, exposure to delinquent peers, the internalization of antisocial values, or an impulsive temperament—they are more likely to become involved in crime than people not having these experiences and traits (Wikipedia, 2015).

Rehabilitation is important on the assumption that criminal behavior is caused and not merely a freely willed, rational choice. If crime were a matter of free choices, then there would be nothing within particular individuals to be fixed or changed. But if involvement in crime is caused by various factors, then logically reoffending can be reduced if correctional interventions are able to alter these factors and how they have influenced offenders. For example, if associations with delinquent peers cause youths to internalize crime-causing beliefs, then diverting youths to other peer groups and changing these beliefs can inhibit their return to criminal behavior.

Sometimes rehabilitation is said to embrace a medical model. When people are physically ill, the causes of their illness are diagnosed and then treated. Each person's medical problems may be different and the treatment will differ accordingly; that is, the medical intervention is individualized. Thus, people with the same illness may, depending on their personal conditions (e.g., age, prior health), receive different medicines and stay in the hospital different lengths of time.

Rehabilitation in prison shares the same logic: Causes are to be uncovered and treatments are to be individualized. This is why rehabilitation is also referred to as treatment (Crewe, Liebling and Hulley, 2011). Prison rehabilitation and medical treatment are alike in one other way: they assume that experts, scientifically trained in the relevant knowledge on how to treat their "clients," will guide the individualized treatment that would take place. In medicine, this commitment to training physicians in scientific expertise has been institutionalized, with doctors required to attend medical school. In prison rehabilitation, especially in Nigeria, however, such professionalization generally is absent or only partially accomplished (Ugwuoke, 2013).

The aims of imprisonment are for retribution, deterrence, protection of the society, and rehabilitation (Ugwuoke, 2013). The distinctiveness of rehabilitation can be seen by contrasting it with the three other aims of imprisonment. The first goal - retribution- is distinctive in its own right because it is non-utilitarian; that is, it is not a means to achieving some end, which in this case is the reduction of crime; but rather is seen as an end in and of itself. The purpose for retribution is thus to inflict punishment on the offender so that the harm the offender has caused will be paid back and the scales of justice balanced. In this case, punishment which is aim at inflicting pain on the offender is seen as justified because the individual used his or her free will to choose to break the law.

The second goal, deterrence, is utilitarian and asserts that punishing offenders will cause them not to return to crime because they will have been taught that crime does not pay. This can also cause other people in the society to refrain from crime because they witness offenders' punishment and fear suffering a similar fate. Finally, the third aim of imprisonment, protection of the society,

makes no assumption about offenders and why they committed crimes. Instead, it seeks to achieve the utilitarian goal of reducing crime by "caging" or incarcerating offenders. If behind bars and thus incapacitated, crime will be impossible because the offender is not free in society where innocent citizens can be criminally victimized (Otodo and Ugwuoke, 2015).

In comparison, rehabilitation differs from retribution, but is similar to deterrence and protection of the society, in that it is a utilitarian goal, with the utility or benefit for society being the reduction of crime. It fundamentally differs from the other three perspectives, however, because these other goals make no attempt to change or otherwise improve offenders. Instead, they inflict pain or punishment on offenders either for a reason (retribution in order to "get even" or deterrence in order to "scare people straight") or as a consequence of the penalty. In contrast, rehabilitation seeks to assist both offenders and society. By treating offenders, they hope to give them the attitudes and skills to avoid crime and live a productive life. At times, this attempt to help offenders exposes rehabilitation to the charge that it coddles offenders. This view is shortsighted, however, because prison rehabilitation's focus is not simply on lawbreakers but also on protecting society, by making offenders less criminal, fewer people will be victimized and society will, as a result, be safer.

Many rehabilitation services for prison inmates are widely available around the world (Asokhia and Agbonluae, 2013). Each of these rehabilitation services targets specific groups of people with specific needs for reform. A rehabilitation service provides education in prison about various aspects of life. These are useful for getting inmates prepared for life outside the prison system. The place of rehabilitation services in the reformation and transformation of prison inmates have continued to be on the front burner of public discourse in recent time (Tanimu, 2010). Leading this discourse are professionals like adult educators, counsellors, social workers, psychologists and

medical doctors. These professionals seem to be at a consensus that rehabilitation programmes or services in prisons will help prison inmates acquire the much needed social skills, vocational training, attitudinal and behavioural changes, and education to be more useful to themselves and the society upon release.

To achieve the above, rehabilitation services in Nigerian prisons have been defined as services provided for prison inmates in order to restore them to fullest physical, mental, psychological, social, vocational and economic usefulness which they are capable (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1989). According to the Nigerian Prison Service Manual (2011), the realization of one of the major objectives of the prisons service - the reformation and rehabilitation of convicts are to be done through a complicated set of mechanisms consisting among others: conscientization, group work, case work session, recreational activities, religious services and adult and remedial education programmes, educational development project, skills acquisition programme, mid-range industrial production, agricultural service and after-care service programme. The prison’s services providers should not only identify the causes of the prisons’ inmates anti-social behavior but also endeavours to set them on the road to reform through induced self-rediscovery and eventual change for the better. According to Federal Government of Nigeria (1989), some of the specific objectives of rehabilitation services in Nigerian prisons are to: ensure effective management of crisis situation of the prison inmates; ensure an appropriate training for the prison inmates in order to reduce dependency; and to promote the provision of adequate and accessible recreational and sporting facilities for the prison inmates.

# Rehabilitation Programmes and Roles of Prison Rehabilitation Services

Rehabilitation service provides education in prison about various aspects of life. These are useful for getting inmates prepared for life outside the prison system. The place of rehabilitation services in the reformation and transformation of prison inmates have continued to be on the front burner of public discourse in recent time (Tanimu, 2010). Leading this discourse are professionals like adult educators, counsellors, social workers, psychologists and medical doctors. These professionals seem to be at a consensus that rehabilitation programmes or services in prisons will help prison inmates acquire the much needed social skills, vocational training, attitudinal and behavioural changes, and education to be more useful to themselves and the society upon release. To achieve the above, rehabilitation services in Nigerian prisons have been defined as services provided for prison inmates in order to restore them to fullest physical, mental, psychological, social, vocational and economic usefulness which they are capable (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1989). According to the Nigerian Prison Service Manual (2011), the realization of one of the major objectives of the prisons service - the reformation and rehabilitation of convicts are to be done through a complicated set of mechanisms consisting among others: conscientization, group work, case work session, recreational activities, religious services and adult and remedial education programmes, educational development project, skills acquisition programme, mid-range industrial production, agricultural service and after-care service programme. The prison’s services providers should not only identify the causes of the prisons’ inmates anti-social behavior but also endeavours to set them on the road to reform through induced self-rediscovery and eventual change for the better. According to Federal Government of Nigeria (1989), some of the specific objectives of rehabilitation services in Nigerian prisons are to: ensure effective management of crisis situation of the prison inmates; ensure an appropriate training for the prison inmates in order to reduce

dependency; and to promote the provision of adequate and accessible recreational and sporting facilities for the prison inmates and punitive approaches used in prisons. Farkas (1995) asserts that prior to 1956 the role of a guard was clearly defined; maintaining security and internal order. Indeed, the term “guard” suggests a custodial identity and function indeed, the change of the title to “correctional officer” reflects the introduction of the rehabilitative philosophy to the field of corrections (Gatotoh, Omulema and Dankitt, 2011).

In the mid-1970s there was move towards use of punishment to rehabilitate inmates indeed rehabilitation oriented policies were blamed for causing trouble in prison. Literature in the 1970s suggested “nothing worked” in offender treatment (Lipton, Martinson, and Wilks, 1975; Martinson, 1974). Then the sentencing landscape changed to “get tough” laws, and community corrections followed suit by moving back to surveillance and punishment models. In the 1990s there was another paradigm shift in inmate rehabilitation in response to new research findings. A new way of summarizing studies, a meta-analysis, gave researchers a better look at rehabilitation outcomes (Cullen and Gendreau, 2000). Research pointed out that the 1970s approach could not have been realistic. Many treatment models reduced recidivism with most punishment-oriented approaches not being effective in fact, some punishment-oriented programs that lacked a treatment component actually increased recidivism (Taxman, 2000).

Recent studies urge probation and parole officers to shelve the conviction that confrontational approaches are necessary in behaviour change in correctional facilities. Stohr and Zupan (1992), argue that the role of the correctional officer as a service provider is likely to solidify, rather than dissipate in the correctional facilities of the 1990s and beyond. This assertion is supported by recent

studies which have shown that most correctional facilities across the globe have followed the aforementioned shift correctional approaches (Gatotoh, Omulema and Dankitt, 2011).

Studies have shown that correctional facilities in Asia, America and Europe are rapidly reforming their prisons so as to offer inmate rehabilitation, correctional counselling and treatment services as opposed to punishment (Kolind, 2010). This however, has not been without challenges, as (Kolind, Frank and Dahl, 2010) notes, the availability of prison based drug treatment has increased markedly throughout Europe over the last 15 years in terms of both volume and programme diversity. However, prison drug treatment faces problems and challenges because of the tension between ideologies of rehabilitation and punishment. Kolind et al (2010) indicate that the correctional goal in South Korea has recently changed from the straightforward punishment of inmates to rehabilitation. Emphasis is being placed on education, counselling, and other treatment programs. These changes have consequently begun to also change the correctional officers’ roles from a purely custodial role to a human service role, in which officers are expected to manage rehabilitation and treatment programs. The same trend is reported in China in a study by Zhang, Liang and Zhou (2009). Correctional facilities in Africa are also moving towards behaviour change approaches for inmate rehabilitations. Indeed some correctional facilities in Africa have incorporated correctional counselling in inmate rehabilitation programmes (Gatotoh, Omulema and Dankitt, 2011).

The degree of success in implementing behaviour change approaches in these correctional facilities however wants. Tenibiaje (2010), argues that in spite of the fact that prisons are supposed to be a place for transformation and rehabilitation, Nigerian Prisons have become training ground for inmates to become hardened criminals. This raises the question as to whether correctional

officers have the requisite attitudes to match the paradigm shift in correctional facilities (Gatotoh, Omulema and Dankitt, 2011).

Lariviere, (2001) argues that, because of their number and influence, correctional officers are ideally placed to rehabilitate and influence the inmates positively. This can mainly be done during their frequent interaction. It is important, therefore, to gain insight into their attitudes, particularly as these attitudes relate to inmates and the prison system. The findings by Lariviere, (2001) indicate that correctional officers’ attitudes towards inmates would be associated with better work adjustment. In a study conducted by Farkas (1999), the orientation of correctional officers towards inmates was examined. The study indicated that despite the punitive sentiment among the public and policymakers, correctional officers still do not express a punitive attitude toward inmates and generally support rehabilitation programs for inmates.

The study also looked at the impact of several individual characteristics and work variables on officer attitudes. Results showed work variables are strongly associated with attitudes among correctional officers. Reising & Lovrich, (1998) found out that individual attitudes, positional characteristics and managerial practices had an effect on correctional officers’ job attitudes. Furthermore, researchers have found some problematic associations between the rigid, paramilitary structure employed by many prisons and personnel affected attitudes towards their work (Jurik and Musheno, 1986). Problems occur in prison when prison personnel are unsure of which roles can be relaxed and under what set of conditions. Furthermore the negative effects of role problems on job attitudes have been consistently reported in prison personnel literature (Hepburn 1987; Poole & Regoli, 1980). Among individual characteristics, age, gender, and education have been the most frequently examined as determinants of correctional orientation.

Several studies that examined the relationship between the level of education and officers’ correctional orientation found no significant relationship between them (Farkas, 1999), whereas other studies (Poole & Regoli, 1980; Lariviere, 2001) found a positive relationship between level of education and support for rehabilitation.

Nigerian prisons have the following rehabilitation programmes and services:

* + - 1. **Welfare/Counselling Services:** The welfare unit in Nigerian prisons is involved in linking the incarcerated inmates with their families. The unit comprised of social workers, guidance and counsellors, occupational therapists and other professionals who serve as links between the inmates and the outside world. Their functions are varied. They help to facilitate inmates’ visits and also make purchases for them. They also provide phone call services to the inmates. The welfare unit has phones where inmates can make phone calls to their relatives and legal representatives. They also facilitate legal services by linking the inmates with their attorneys. The welfare unit also is involved in the counselling of inmates and their families. The unit also organizes and oversees recreational activities in the prisons.
      2. **Psychological Services:** Most prisons in Nigeria have psychological services unit which are ineffective, and where functional, tend to inmates psychological needs. The unit is responsible for drug dependence treatment, psychotherapy and other psychological services. They identify the causes of inmates’ antisocial behaviours, and employ psychological techniques to resolve them. They also make referrals to psychiatrists where necessary. They engage in the assessment and treatment of psychopathology among the inmates. The unit is comprised of general, clinical, prisons and counselling psychologists.
      3. **Medical Services:** Nigerian prisons are also equipped with clinics and sick bays where inmates receive medical services. The clinics are involved in the treatment of physical ailments of the inmates. They also provide laboratory and testing services. There are myriads of health professionals in the prisons who help to rehabilitate the inmates medically and health-wise.
      4. **Chaplaincy services:** There are also chaplaincy services where the inmates are rehabilitated spiritually. Most prisons in Nigeria are provided with Christian and Muslim chaplains who coordinate religious activities in prisons. Also prisons liaise with religious organisations in their locale to preach to the inmates and also provide for their spiritual needs.
      5. **Skills Acquisition programmes:** Prisons in Nigeria are equipped with workshops and industries in various aspects of skills acquisition such as in carpentry, metal, shoe-making, soap making, tailoring, salon, barbing, footmat and so on. Inmates are trained in various skills so that by the end of their jail terms, they will have something to fall back to that will be a source of livelihood for them.
      6. **Aftercare services:** Nigerian prisons have aftercare units that do follow up services of inmates who have served their terms. The aftercare unit is responsible for resettling the discharged inmates, and also provides them with funds and materials to start up new trades which they have learnt in prison. The unit’s personnel visit the exoffenders from time to time to assess their level of reintegration. The unit is also responsible for the orientation of the ex-offender’s family on their responsibilities towards him or her.
      7. **Educational services:** There are also educational services in the prisons. The prisons are equipped with schools where inmates are taught how to read and write. They are also taught various subjects. Most prisons have primary, secondary and even university educations. There are study centres of the National Open University in some prisons such as Port- Harcourt, Enugu, Kirikiri, and Agodi prisons.
      8. **Recreational services:** Most prisons in Nigeria have recreational facilities which help to ameliorate the pains of imprisonment among the inmates. Such recreational facilities include football pitches, volleyball, tennis, chess, scrabble and other sporting facilities which help to occupy the inmates. These facilities help to keep the inmates physically and mentally fit.

# Theoretical Framework

A number of theories provide the perspectives from which this study will be viewed. These are explained below.

# The Concept of Political Economy

Afanasyev et al (1974:46) have defined Political Economy as “the study of the system of social production and various development stages”. It is interesting to note that the use of Political Economy as a tool of analysis had never been the exclusive preserve of Marxist scholars although its current popularity as a tool of analysis of society and its development stages came when Marx adopted it from Liberal scholars. Its checkered history started from the period of petty commodity production and this has been traced to ancient China and Greece. Mang-Tse in China and Plato and Aristotle would be the first recognised political economists as they were the first to attempt to analyse the instability that accompanied petty commodity production and to find ways to overcome it on behalf of the communal society. Thereafter, it featured prominently during the period of the Mercantilist which also coincided with the period of Europe’s expansionism, colonialism and imperialism, when discovery and conquest of new geographical areas led to new flows of capital to and from the New World of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

The classical Liberal later adopted it as both an analytical and methodological tool. The prominent scholars of this period were Adam Smith who was the first to formulate a labour theory of value which reduces the value of commodities to the amount of labour contained in them and David Ricardo who argued for the accumulation of capital as the basis for economic expansion. Equally prominent was Thomas Malthus who contributed a theory of population to political economy. He argued that population reproduces faster than food production and unless population growth was

checked, the masses would face starvation and death. He, however, concluded that government should not aid the poor, for such action drains wealth and income from the higher echelons of society.

As used by Marxists, Political Economy attempts to juxtapose development in all spheres especially the political with economics which form the basis and the spring board for development and social relations in a society. Put differently, political economy arises from the conviction that any social system has an economic base which is the aggregation of all the relations of production in that social system. It is the economic base which informs and determines all other social relations which jointly form the superstructure. Ilyin and Motylev (1986:37) have explained the superstructure as consisting of “all political, legal, ethical, philosophical religious and other views and ideas and corresponding organizations and institutions (the state, political parties, judicial, cultural, religious and other institutions).” Political Economy singles out, specifically, the primacy of politics in the superstructure (that is, the political use of the state and its apparatus) and attempts to use it in conjunction with the economic base in analyzing the development of a state system. As Engels (1975:170) puts it, “Political Economy is therefore essentially a historical science. It deals with material which is historical, that is, constantly changing, it first investigate the special laws of each individual stage in the evolution of production and exchange.”

The classical Marxian conception of Political Economy differs greatly from the Liberal analysis. The Marxian conception takes its cue from the fact that economic relations are the basis of all social life and proceeds on to the analysis of the process of production, labour process and the social relations of people in relation to the production process. Marx and Engels have demonstrated

quite convincingly that there are specific social relations in every society which are directly linked with the production process. By this distillation of relations, the subject matter of Political Economy emerged.

The methodology of Political Economy is as Marx (1970:205) had stated; “When examining a given country from the standpoint of political economy, we begin with its population, the division of the population into classes, town and country, the sea, the different branches of production, export and import, annual production and consumption, prices etc.” The methodological use of Political Economy as a tool of analysis of African and non-industrialised social systems is a much recent phenomenon. For this, we have scholars such as A.G. Frank (1981), Arrighi and Saul (1973), S. Amin (1972, 1974), W. Rodney (1972), G. Williams (1976) and Claude Ake (1981) among others to thank.

# Current Theories Linking Crime with Political Economy Conditions

The problematic this section is concerned with is to examine some other existing theoretical postulations that link and justify our intellectual stance and show that crime is actually a function of political and economic conditions of a society. This is necessary in the face of the poverty of other positivist and liberal theoretical assumptions and explanations of urban crime and criminology. Using Marxist or what has now been popularly refer to as Radical Criminology perspective (Bohm, 1993:148), we hope to show how economic and political conditions influence aggregate rates of crime. Although this appears to be particularly straightforward issue, years of research have failed to provide a satisfactory answer and a limited understanding of the relationship between macro-level economic and political structures and crime continues to characterize current criminology. Although this tendency is not peculiar to analysis of crime in Nigeria alone,

nevertheless, this limitation is particularly problematic due tothe increasing relevance of the structural changes that have reshaped Nigeria’s post colonial economy under the influence of corruption and globalisation and which has resulted in shifts in the composition of labour markets, as well as significant changes in the very nature of employment, a phenomenon that America has also experienced (Bluestone and Harrison 1982; Rubin 1995). Largely due to such shifts, the Nigerian state, at both national and local levels, have experienced changes that have had significant effects on crime and for which current theories seem to be inadequate to offer plausible explanation for or are ill equipped to explain. Although a growing number of scholars have documented these weaknesses (Greenberg1993; Hagan 1994; LaFree 1999; Zahn 1999), the current body of research and theory has yet to sufficiently clarify the relationship between trends in rates of crime and changes in the political economy of cities.

Renewed interest in the structural causes of aggregate crime rates has spawned significant theoretical advances. Of prominence among these theoretical postulations are the Social Disorganization Theory, Strain Theory and Critical (or Radical) Criminology which have each expanded our understanding of the causal mechanisms behind variance in crime rates across nations, cities, and communities. Hence, research that can improve our understanding of the effects of economic and political conditions on crime rates remains both important and timely in the current context of rapid economic and political urban reorganization. In his 1991 American Society of Criminology presidential address, John Hagan (1992) decried the “poverty of a classless criminology.” This is as a result of the fact that too little contemporary criminology actually attempts to put crime in context. In as much as crime is generally recognised as a social phenomenon that involves individuals, it is also important to acknowledge that it involves time,

place and structure (Findlay 1999). This is not to say that understanding individual motivation and the psychological underpinnings of crime is not essential to understanding crime (Agara, 1997); but it is instead to say that it should not be emphasized at the sacrifice of context (Taylor 1999).

Social disorganization explanations of crime draw heavily on the early works of Shaw and McKay (1942, 1969). According them, community distress creates social disorganization, which they define as the disruption of primary relationships, the weakening of norms, and the erosion of shared culture (Kornhauser 1978). In sum, the contemporary social disorganization theory of crime contends that the loss of urban social structure has precipitated the decline of social control, thereby leading to increases in rates of crime. The social disorganization model defines communities as systems of interrelated networks (Kasarda and Janowitz 1975). The primary role of an urban community network is to maintain itself through the continued socialization of its members, including, but not limited to, the application of negative sanctions to deviant members. However, the maintenance of this system is usually undermined by social disorganization manifested at the community-level as weak social networks, limited participation in local organizations and little social control. As the antithesis of social disorganization, each aspect of social organization (networks, organizations, and control) forms the social fabric of a community (Kasarda and Janowitz 1975).

Classical strain theory, on the other hand, asserts that a culture establishes certain values that are equated with shared definitions of success (Merton 1938). Structural conditions, however, frequently block large segments of the population from reaching this shared definition of success. This limited access to culturally defined success therefore yields a division between aspirations

and expectations; and this causes strain. Society therefore applies strain on individuals by its standard of success and most individuals with aspirations and expectations to achieve societal value of success but have their access blocked may resort to crime. In this regard, strain is conceptualized as the difference between aspirations and actual achievements or to encompass the differences between expectations and actual achievements. According to Merton (1938) and other early strain theorists (Cloward and Ohlin1961; Cohen 1955), two responses to strain may lead to criminal involvement. Individuals may respond to strain by utilizing illegitimate means to achieve legitimate goals or they may respond to strain by replacing legitimate goals with new goals and new means of achieving them (both of which are often illegitimate).

In attempting to re-modify the traditional strain theory, Agnew (1992; 1999) proposed a General Strain Theory in which he identifies three mechanisms that lead to strain. First, strain can be the result of the failure to achieve goals. Similar to traditional strain theory, general strain theory asserts that this form of strain occurs when a society or community places great emphasis on certain goals for which the means of achieving are structurally limited. Expanding on traditional strain theory, Agnew (1992) argues that blocked access to goals encompasses three types of strain inducing divisions. This indicates an important difference between aspirations, that may be unrealistic, and actual expectations based on evaluations of the achievements of common referents (Agnew 1992). Strain can also take the form of the difference between equitable outcomes and actual achievements. Drawing on social justice literature, Agnew (1992) further argue that strain is the result of an infringement on a sense of equity. It is not that the individual doesn’t get what they want or what they think they deserve, but that they do not get out of an interaction what they

put into it. Strain results when the individual does not receive equitable rewards, especially relative to others.

Second, strain, according to Agnew (1992), may result from the loss of positive stimuli. At the individual level the loss of positive stimuli could take the form of the loss of a parent or adult mentor (Brezina 1996). Agnew (1992) differentiates between blocked access to goals (especially when goals have never been experienced directly) and the actual loss of positively valued stimuli. Strain results from the loss of something of value as the individual attempts to prevent the loss, substitute the lost stimuli for another stimuli, or seek retribution for the loss. Third, strain can be the result of the presence of aversive stimuli. At the individual level, aversive stimuli could be anything from criminal victimization to child abuse (Brezina 1996). Strain results from the attempt to avoid noxious stimuli, end those stimuli, or again, retaliate against the source of those stimuli (Agnew 1992; Brezina 1996).

Of importance and relevance to our intellectual standpoint is the contemporary critical (radical) criminology which emerged in the late 1960s and 1970s (Reid, 2003, Bohm 1993). Bohm (1993: 148-163) has attempted to differentiate between radical criminology and its antecedent conflict criminology (Greenberg 1993). Although conflict criminology challenged the then dominant liberal perspectives on crime in terms of the definition of crime, the role of power and the relationship between crime and the state, radical criminology is more specific in its identification of the explanatory variables that account for crime. According to Keller (1976:283), the radical school is very specific about the political economy of capitalism as the criminogenic factor. Of all the theories, “only the critical (radical) school specifies the political and economic structures that

promote conflict and therefore produce crime.” Whereas social disorganization theory and general strain theory take urban social problems as a given, critical criminology explores their root causes in capitalism. From the critical perspective, crime is a latent outcome of capitalist crises of production and consumption (Colvin and Pauly 1983; Lynch, Groves and Lizotte 1994; Taylor 1999). Hence, changes in the structure of capitalism will necessarily yield changes in the scope and form of crime. The neo-Marxist approach argues that escalating crime is the result of capitalist crisis based on the contradiction between production and consumption. From this perspective, economic distress actually taps business cycles, thus economic contraction may increase crime rates (Wallace and Humphries 1993; Wright 1981). If structural conditions create crime, then crime cannot be eliminated without first eliminating the causal structural conditions. The nature and extent of crime, therefore, will not change without a radical restructuring of contemporary capitalism.

Scholars and policymakers have ignored the influence of general and contextual factors behind the scale and distribution of traditional crime and violence rates in large metropolitan areas. Crime and violence result from and contribute to the development (or lack of development) of a metropolitan region. Explaining crime rates as compared to the incidence of crime across individuals requires structural frameworks that account for both the development of a metropolis and its crime and violence problems. Motivations for crime vary across society in terms of their intensity and content. Status considerations are important for many different types of behaviours and actions as they are for crime. Achieving and maximizing status requires resources. The generation and distribution of resources result from the organization of important social, economic,

and political structures and the differential positioning and access of individuals and groups in these structures (Marwah, 2006).

Several years ago, crime and criminal behavior were thought to have been the result of influence of evil spirits and demons. However, in the face of development, spiritual determinism gave way to the classical school of criminology as developed through the works of Jeremy Bentham and Cesare Beccaria. They argued that human beings are rational creatures with free-will and pursue happiness and pleasure but avoids unhappiness and pain. Bentham and Beccaria were noted for their insistence that punishment should be such that it is sufficient enough to deter criminal behavior. The neoclassical school did not represent any intellectual break from the classical school other than to challenge the notion of absolute free-will (Vold, 1958). Their position is that the exercise of free-will can be diminished by pathology, incompetence, mental disorder or other conditions that may mitigate personal responsibility. The positivist school as elaborated in the works of B.F. Skinner, Cesare Lombroso and later Enrico Ferri and Raffaele Garofalo insists on empirical evidence and what is observable as the primary sources of the most valid knowledge.

All theories of crime have certain underlying assumptions about human nature. This perspective has been enlarged by Robert Merton’s Strain theory which posits that human beings are fundamentally conforming beings who are strongly influenced by the values and attitudes of the society in which they live. The attitude and values of the postcolonial capitalist states like Nigeria revolved around accumulation of wealth and status. The strain theorists therefore argued that since humans are fundamentally conforming, they will readily comply with this value constellation. However, since access to and means of accumulating wealth are not easily available to everyone,

then crime and delinquency will occur as a result of the “perceived discrepancy between the materialistic values and goals cherished and held in high esteem by a society and the availability of the legitimate means for reaching these goals. Under these conditions, a strain between the goals of wealth and power and the means of reaching them develops. Groups and individuals experiencing a high level of this strain are forced to decide whether to violate norms and laws to attain some of this sought-after wealth or power or give up the dream and go through the motions withdraw or rebel (Bartol, 1995:13).

The second perspective assumes that human beings are nonconformists and undisciplined creatures, who without restraints imposed by rules and regulations, would flout society’s conventions and commit crime indiscriminately. This perspective tallies with the social control theory which contends that “crime and delinquency occurs when an individual’s ties to the conventional order or normative standards are weak or largely nonexistence. This position [therefore] perceives human nature as ‘bad’ or ‘antisocial’, an innate tendency that must be controlled by society. In this sense, social control theory subscribes to Darwinism (Bartol, 1995:13). The third perceptive sees human beings as neutral, neither conforming nor nonconforming, learning all their behavior, beliefs and tendencies from their social environment. Thus, criminal behavior is a learned habit through social interaction with other people. It is not the result of any emotional disorder, mental illness or innate quality of good or bad. This leads us to attempting to define crime and criminal behavior. Crime has been defined as “an intentional act in violation of the criminal law committed without defense or excuse and penalized by the state as a felony or misdemeanor” (Tappan, 1947:100). Given this, criminal behavior will then be “an intentional behavior that violates a criminal code” (Bartol 1995:17) by intentional it implies that

such a behavior did not occur accidentally or under duress. So, to be held criminally liable, a person must have known that such an act is wrong.

Crime has become one of the most visible areas of public concern in recent years in Nigeria. Yet, there is a poverty of statistics and quantitative data dealing with crime rates across the country and especially in cities and urban centers prominently known for crime, although these rates may vary tremendously across Nigerian cities. A number of works especially by western scholars have examined city-level variation in crime rates (Lee 2000, and Parker 2004). These studies have variously emphasized a number of social and economic factors such as poverty, family disruption, ethnic heterogeneity and urbanization as responsible for the variations.

Scholars have also suggested the variations in crime rates may be due to levels and extent of urbanization of each city. Sampson and Groves (1989) have suggested that cities with larger populations may have a decreased capacity for informal social control and hence higher crime rates. Urbanization is therefore thought to weaken local friendship ties, increase anonymity, and impede participation in local affairs, forcing larger cities to rely more heavily on formal social control mechanisms of the state (Liska et al.,1998; Messner and Golden, 1992; Shihadeh and Steffensmeier, 1994). In this respect, some studies have consistently showed that as population increases crime increases (Land et al., 1990, Nolan 2004). Thus, the weight of these studies suggests that urbanization and crime are positively related.

**CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

# Research Design

Cross-sectional descriptive research design is proposed for this study. Being a survey research, relevant characteristics of the population were examined without manipulating any of them. The cross-sectional descriptive design is the study of the sample across carious sections of the population but also enable indepth description of all the variables of interest the way they appear on the field.

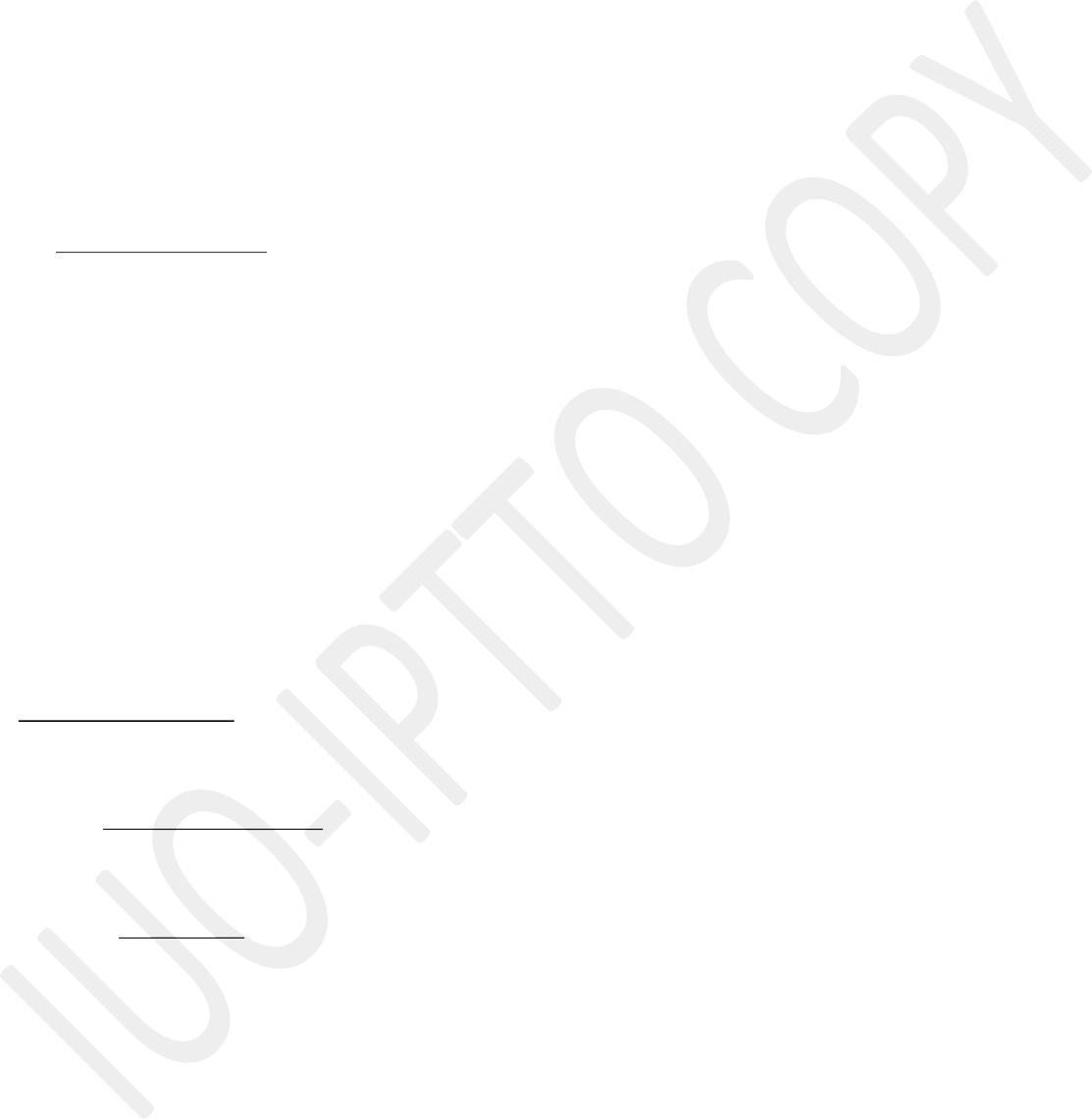
In this study therefore, sample were drawn across inmates from Kirikiri Maximum Prisons in Lagos and Kuje in Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. These inmates will across age groups, ethnic origin, educational status, marital status, education and religious faith. In the same manner, the selection of Key-informants among the top prisons staff across gender, educational background, ethnic origin from the two selected prisons.

# Population of the Study

The population of this study is the whole inmates in Kirikiri maximum prisons in Lagos and Kuje Prisons in FCT Abuja. The lists of the inmates were sourced from the management of these two prisons after obtaining relevant approvals from the Nigerian Prisons Services. The prisons register obtained contains bio-data of the inmates such as the age, sex, State of origin, educational status, marital status, offence committed, jail term, history of crime and criminality, and other personal information of the inmates. Data on the list of infrastructures and social amenities as well as the programmes of rehabilitation were obtained from the Prison Authorities.

# Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

* + 1. **Sample Size**

According to Nwabueke (1993), a sample is the portion of the total population of the universe to be studied. Since the population of study is a finite one, application of statistical formula becomes imperative in determining the sample size using Taro Yamane formula of sample size, a total of 450 inmates would be selected from the two prisons. Taro Yamane formula is given as:

n = N

1+ N (e)2

Where:

n = Sample size

N = Finite population

e = Level of Significance = 5% or (0.05) 1 = Constant

= 3328

1+ 3328 (0.05)2

= 3328

1+ 3328 (0.0025)

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| = | 3328 |
|  | 9.32 |
| = | 357.08154506 |

n = 357

# Sampling procedure

A combination of quota random and purposive sampling techniques was used for the selection of inmates and prison management staff that took part in this study. After obtaining, the register of inmates from the two prisons (Kirikiri and Kuje Prison) quota sampling technique was used for the selection of inmates that sampled from the two Prison formations. The quota sampling enabled proportionate representation of inmates in the sample selected for the study. Thus, the higher the number of inmates the higher the number in the sample.

The second stage of selection is the selection of inmates to take part in the study. This will be done using random sampling method. Random sampling method is a probability sampling method that gives equal chance of appearance to every item of the population (in the case, inmates) for being selected. With this frame, the required number of inmates from the sample frame is “7”, every inmate at 7th interval on the register will be selected for the study.

However, purposive sampling method would be used for selecting key informants from the two prisons for the conduct of oral interview. Key top prison facilities, rehabilitation programmes as well as other relevant information about the prisons and inmates would be selected purposively for the study. Any officer who by virtue of his/her schedule of work and accepted to take part in the study would be selected from the two prisons.

# Method of Data Collection

* + 1. **Quantitative Data Collection Instrument**

Questionnaires were used in collecting data from the selected inmates. The questionnaire consists of 20-items of both open ended and close-ended questions. The open-ended items were designed

to obtain socio-demographic data of the respondents while the close-ended questions bothered on the feelings and opinions of the participants on services, programmes as well as the facilities available to inmates. The close ended items were designed in a “Yes” or “No” response format to give room for specific responses while open ended questions were asked to allow them freely expresses their judgment on the issue under discuss (See Appendix II).

# Qualitative Data Collection Instrument

Sessions of oral interview were conducted on relevant key management officers and professional to obtain further information required for this study. These officers and professionals would include, Director of Prison services, Health care practitioners such as Doctors, Nurses assigned to prisons designed hospitals, psychologists, etc. where available.

Structured oral questions were asked from the selected the Key Informants. Fives questions were asked from each of these selected people based on their areas of expertise (See Appendix 2).

# Method of Data Analysis

The types of data generated were analyzed using different methods of analysis which are descriptive and inferential analysis.

# Descriptive Analysis of Data

Socio-demographic characteristics of the participants such as age, sex, educational status, religion, marital status, State of origin were generated and analysied. Also the responses of the participants to the research questions summarized and analyzed descriptively. Data were described in tables of frequencies and percentage. Descriptive statistical tools such as percentages, frequency description, cross-tabulation etc. will be used to analyze these data.

# Inferential Analysis of Data

The hypotheses propounded for this study were analyzed using inferential statistical tools in order to make meaningful conclusion. Specifically, chi-square statistical technique was used to test the stated analysis.

# Ethical Consideration

Before the conduct of this research, relevant approvals were obtained from appropriate Boards and associated ethics for scientific research were followed. For instance, the Postgraduate Academic Board of the Department of Political Science and Public Administration of Igbinedion University Okada were consulted for approval and necessary referrals. A letter of Introduction was obtained from the Postgraduate school which enabled us to proceed to the field after obtaining special permissions from other authorities. These were done in two stages:

1. A letter of permission was obtained from the authorities of the Nigeria Prison Service after perusing my research proposal and formal request to access the prison facilities.
2. Copies of Informed Consent Forms were distributed to the inmates to identify those among them who consented to participating in the research, consequent upon which the instruments were distributed to them.

**CHAPTER FOUR**

**DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

# Introduction

In this chapter, both the quantitative and qualitative data collected from the field are presented. In other words, data collected from the questionnaire administered (quantitative data) and responses from the oral interview (qualitative data) are presented. Also, the analysis of the hypotheses tested and results are equally presented in this chapter.

# Analysis of Quantitative Data

Three types of sub data were analysed from the quantitative data collected i.e. the analysis of socio- demographic characteristics and the test of hypotheses

# Analysis of Socio-demographic Data

Some socio-demographic characteristics from participant from both Kuje and Kirikiri Maximum Prisons were obtained and presented in this section. These characteristics include age, sex, State of origin, religion, marital status and responses to research questions. This analysis is presented in table 4.2.1, 4.2.2 and 4.2.3.

# Analysis of Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 4.2.1: Socio\_demographic Characteristics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Characteristics** |  |  | **Kuje**  (N=360  ) | **Kirikir i**  (N=360) |  |
| **S/ N** |  | **Level** | **F** | **%** | **F** | **%** |
| 1 | Sex | Male | 360 | 100 | 220 | 61.1 |
|  |  | Female | 000 | 00.0 | 140 | 38.9 |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 2 | Age | 21-24 | 20 | 5.6 | 15 | 4.2 |
|  |  | 25-28 | 35 | 9.7 | 45 | 12.5 |
|  |  | 29-32 | 64 | 17.8 | 65 | 18.1 |
|  |  | 33-36 | 36 | 10 | 70 | 19.4 |
|  |  | 37-40 | 80 | 22.2 | 70 | 19.4 |
|  |  | 41-44 | 35 | 9.7 | 30 | 8.3 |
|  |  | 45-48 | 45 | 12.5 | 25 | 6.9 |
|  |  | 49-52 | 35 | 9.7 | 10 | 2.8 |
|  |  | 53-56 | 5 | 1.4 | 1.4 |  |
|  |  | 57-60 | 5 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 15 |
|  |  | Total |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | Religion | Christia n | 195 | 54.2 | 205 | 56.9 |
|  |  | Islam | 165 | 45.8 | 155 | 43.1 |
| 4 | Marital Status | Married | 130 | 36.1 | 160 | 27.8 |
|  |  | Single | 190 | 52.8 | 175 | 48.6 |
|  |  | Divorce | 40 | 11.1 | 25 | 23.6 |
| 5 | Number of years served | 1 – 3 | 160 | 44.4 | 160 | 44.4 |
|  |  | 4 – 6 | 140 | 38.9 | 165 | 45.8 |
|  |  | 7 – 9 | 45 | 12.5 | 30 | 8.3 |
|  |  | 10 - 12 | 15 | 04.2 | 05 | 1.4 |
|  |  | Total | 360 | 100.0 | 360 | 100.0 |

Source: Author’s Field Survey 2019



# Sex

Results in table 4.2.1 reveals that three hundred and sixty (360) prisoners was interviewed in both Kuje and Kiri prison but 61.1% (580) of the respondents were male in Kirikiri prison while 38.9%

(140) were female but in Kuje prison, all the respondents were male (100%). This implies that majority of the prisoners in both Kuje and Kiriri prisons were male and that male commit more crimes than the female.

# Age Bracket

Results in table 4.2.1 also shows that 5.6% (20) of the respondents in Kuje prison were between the age of 21-24years, 9.7% (35) were between 25-28years,41-44years and 49-52years, 17.8%

(64) were between the age of 29-32years, 10% (36) were between the age of 33-36years, 22.2%

(80) were between the age of 37-40years, 12.5% (45) were between the age of 45-48years,1.4%

(5) were between the age of 53-56years and 57-60years while for Kiriri prison 4.2% (15) of the respondents were between the age of 21-24years and 57-60years, 12,5% (45) were between the age of 25-8years, 18.1% (65) were between the age of 29-32, 19.4% (70) were between the age of 33-36years and 37-40years, 8.3% (30) were between the age of 41-44years, 6.9% (25) were between the age of 45-48years and 2.8% (10) of the respondent were between the age of 49- 52years. This implies that most of the prisoners in both Kuje and Kirikiri prison were between the age of 37-40years (150), 29-32years (129) and 33-36years (106). This also implies that majority of the prisoners were youth.

# Religion

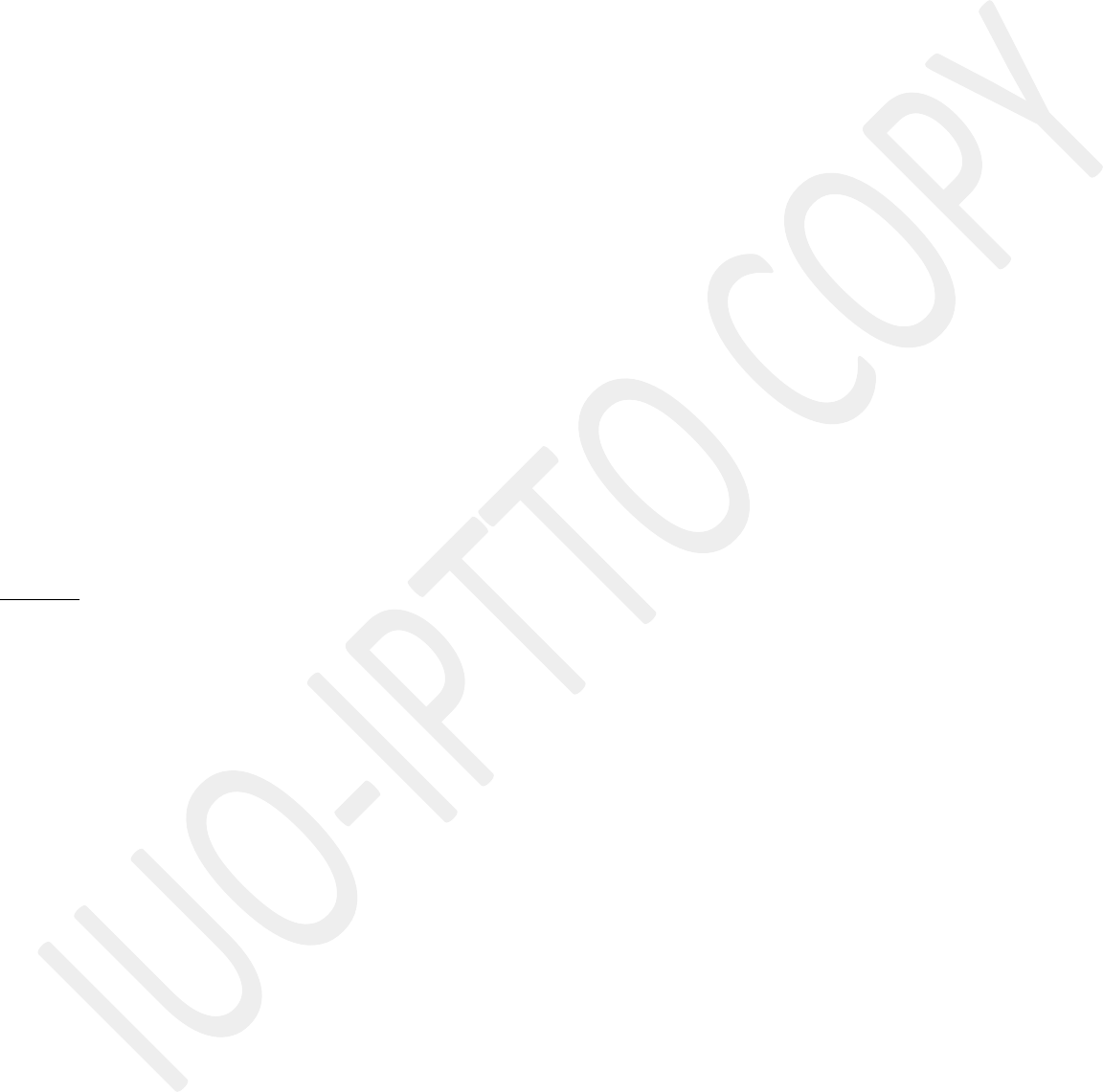
Table 4.2.1 also revealed that 54.2% (195) of the prisoners in Kuje prison were Christian while 45.8% (165) of the prisoner in Kuje practice Islamic religion. However, 56.9% (205) of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison were Christian while 41.7% (150) of the prisoners practiced Islamic religion. In all four hundred (400) of the respondents were Christian while three hundred and fifteen (315) of the respondents practiced Islamic religion. This means that most of the prisoners were Christian.

# Marital Status

Table 4.2.1 revealed that 36.1% (130) of the prisoners in Kuje prison are married, 52.8% (190) are single and 11.1% (40) are divorced while in Kirikiri prison 27.8% (160) of the prisoners are

married, 48.6% (175) are single and 23.6% (85) are divorced. This implies majority of those convicted for one crime or the other are youth and married men.

# Number of Years Served

Table 4.2.1 also revealed that 44.4% of the prisoners in Kuje prison have been in prison for the past 1-3years, 38.9% between 4-6years, 12.5% between 7-9years and 4.2% between 10-12years while in Kirikiri prison the findings revealed that 44.4% have been in prison for the past 1-3years, 45.8% between 4-6years, 8.3% between 7-9years and 1.4% between 10-12years. This implies that majority of the prisoner have been in prison for nothing less than 6years ago.

# Analysis of Responses to Questionnaire Items

The table below presents an analysis of the responses to questions on section two of the questionnaire.

Table 4.2.2 Analysis of Participant Responses to Questionnaire Items

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Characteristics** |  |  | **KUJE** | **KK** |  |
| **S/N** |  | **Level** | **F** | **%** | **F** | **%** |
| 6 | Years of Jail Term | 2-4yrs | 75 | 20.8 | 35 | 9.7 |
|  |  | 5-7yrs | 120 | 33.3 | 85 | 23.6 |
|  |  | 8-10yrs | 70 | 19.4 | 85 | 23.6 |
|  |  | 11-13yrs | 35 | 9.8 | 55 | 15.3 |
|  |  | 14-16yrs | 50 | 13.9 | 50 | 13.9 |
|  |  | 17-19yrs | 10 | 02.8 | 50 | 13.9 |
|  |  | Total | 360 |  | 360 |  |
| 7 | Have you served Jail Term Before | Yes | 200 | 55.6 | 145 | 40.3 |
|  |  | No | 160 | 44.4 | 215 | 59.7 |
|  |  | Total | 360 |  | 360 |  |
| 8 | If yes, How many times | Once | 180 | 90.0 | 105 | 72.4 |
|  |  | Twice | 20 | 10.0 | 40 | 27.6 |
|  |  | Total | 200 |  | 145 |  |
| 9 | Do you think the Cell is overcrowded | Yes | 340 | 94.4 | 290 | 80.6 |
|  |  | No | 20 | 05.6 | 70 | 19.4 |
|  |  | Total | 360 |  | 360 |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 10 | Has the Prison Rehabilitation Programme helped you in a way | Yes | 300 | 83.3 | 290 | 80.6 |
|  |  | No | 60 | 16.7 | 70 | 19.4 |
|  |  | Total | 360 | 100.  0 | 360 | 100.0 |

Source: Author’s Field Survey 2019

# Years of Jail Term

Table 4.2.2 reveals that 20.8% of the prisoners in Kuje prison were asked to serve between 2- 4years, 33.3% between 5-7years, 19.4% between 8-10years, 8.3% between 11-13years, 13.9% between 14-16years 2.8% between 17-19years while 9.7% of those in Kirikiri prison are serving between 2-4years, 23.6% between 5-7years, 23.6% between 8-10years, 12.5% between 11- 13years,13.9% between 14-16years and 17-19years respectively. This implies that majority of the prisoners serving in both Kuje and Kirikiri prisons are going to be using nothing less than 7years in prison.

# Ever served Jail term before?

Table 4.2.2 also revealed that 55.6% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 40.3% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison have served jailed term before while 44.4% of the prisoners in Kuje Prison and 59.7% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison have not served jailed term before. This implies that most of the prisoners are imprisoned for the first time in their life.

# Terms of Jail term served

Table 4.2.2 also revealed that 50% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 29.2% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prisons have been convicted for a crime once before while 6.9% of prisoners in Kuje prison and 11.1% of prisoners in Kirikiri prison have been in prison twice before. This implies that majority of the prisoners have been convicted for one crime or the other which landed them in prison once before.

# Whether Cell is overcrowded

Table 4.2.2 reveals that 94.4% of the prisoners in Kuje thinks the cell is overcrowded and 5.6% thinks otherwise while in Kirikiri prison 80.6% of the respondents thinks the cell is overcrowded and 19.4% thinks it is not overcrowded. This implies that majority of the prisoners did not find the prison conducive and thereby affecting the rehabilitation programme of the prison.

# Effects of Rehabilitation Programme

Table 4.2.2 reveals that 83.3% of the prisoners in Kuje prison agreed that the rehabilitation programme of the prison has helped them in a way and 16.7% of the prisoners agreed otherwise while at Kirikiri, 80.6% of the prisoners also agreed that the rehabilitation programme has helped them in one way or the other while 19.4% of the respondents agreed otherwise. This implies that majority of the prisoners agreed that the rehabilitation programme of the prison has affected their lives one way or the other.

# a Analysis of participants Responses

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Variables | Kuje  Yes No  F (%) F (%) | Kirikiri  Yes No  F (%) F (%) |
| Services promotes criminal activities | 215 (59.7) 145 (40.3) | 170 (47.2) 190 (52.8) |
| Strong rehabilitation to prevent relapse of criminal activities | 235 (65.3) 125 (34.7) | 215 (59.7) 145 (40.3) |
| Prison environment promotes criminal activities | 245 (68.1) 115 (31.9) | 170 (47.2) 190 (52.8) |
| Preferred school to vocational Centre | 210 (58.3) 150 (41.7) | 240 (66.7) 120 (33.3) |

**Services provided promote relapses of criminal activities in released inmates**

Table 4.2.3 shows that 59.7% of the prisoners in Kuje and 47.2% of the prisoners in Kirikiri agreed that the services provided in the prison promote relapses of criminal activities in released inmate while 40.3% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 51.4% of prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed

otherwise. This implies that most of the prisoners agreed that services provided in prison encourages released inmate to go back to criminal activities which also mean that the prison programmes has little or no effect in the lives of the inmate.

# Is rehabilitation provided strong enough to prevent relapse of criminal activities among released inmates

Table 4.2.3 revealed that 65.3% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 34.7% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed that the rehabilitation provided in the prison are strong enough to prevent relapse of criminal activities while 34.7% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 40.3% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed otherwise. This implies that majority of the prisoners agreed that the rehabilitation programmes provided in the prison is strong enough to prevent relapse of criminal activities among released inmate.

# Do you think Prison Environment could promote relapse of criminal activities among released inmates?

Table 4.2.3 revealed that 68.1% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 47.2% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed that the prison environment promote relapse of criminal activities among released inmate while 31.9% of prisoners in Kuje and 51.4% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed otherwise. This implies that most of the prisoners agreed that the prison environment is not decent enough and that it could actually promote relapse of criminal activities in released inmate.

**Would you have preferred to go to school than Vocational Centre if given the opportunity?** Table 4.2.3 also revealed that 58.3% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 66.7% of prisoners in Kirikiri prison would prefer to go to school than vocational center if given the opportunity while 41.7% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 33.3% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agree otherwise.

This implies that majority of the prisoners are willing to go to school and do something new with their lives if given the opportunity.

# 4.2.3b: Rating of Prison Rehabilitation Programmes

**How will you rate the state of the prison rehabilitation programmes?**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Variables | Kuje Kirikiri  F (%) F (%) |
| Bad | 20 (5.6) 155 (43.1) |
| Not that bad | 210 (58.3) 205 (56.9) |
| Good | 130 (36.1) 00 (00.0) |
| Total | 360 (100.0) 3600 (100.0) |

Author’s field survey, 2019

Table 4.2.3b also shows that 5.6% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 43.1% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed that the state of the rehabilitation programme is not good enough while 58.3% of the prisoners in Kuje prison and 56.9% of the prisoners in Kirikiri prison agreed that the state of the rehabilitation programme is not that bad and 36.1% of the prisoners in Kuje prison agreed that the state of the rehabilitation programme is very impactful and effective. This implies that majority of the prisoners agreed that the state of the rehabilitation programme is not that bad but can be improved upon.

# Analysis of Qualitative Data

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **S/N** | **Respondents** | **Questions** | **Reactions: Kirikiri** | **Respondents** | **Reactions: Kuje** |
| 1. | ***ID1***  Commandant | How many years have you been in this service, the correctional service? | I have served here more than 20 years, in fact, I can say that I am one of the oldest in this system. | ***ID1*** | I have served more than 15 years now to be precise. |
| 2. |  | How many inmates are in this prisons? | We have over 1662 inmates, with 1342 being male, while 320 are female. |  | Currently, we have 728 inmates and they are male only. |
| 3. |  | What type of | There are a lot of |  | We have good and |
|  | rehabilitation | rehabilitation | effective |
|  | programmes do you | programmes on | rehabilitation |
|  | have in the prison for | going in the prison. | services, we have the |
|  | the inmates? | We have | medical services |
|  |  | rehabilitation | where doctors take |
|  |  | programmes such | care of the inmates |
|  |  | as education on | and the sick ones |
|  |  | drugs, medical | among them. |
|  |  | doctors | Although, our |
|  |  | administering  drugs to sick | hospitals are not  equipped to render |
|  |  | inmates, psychiatry | quality services to the |
|  |  | doctors, who | inmates. we also |
|  |  | provide mental | have the skill |
|  |  | care service for the | acquisition |
|  |  | mentally unstable | programmes, |
|  |  | inmates. Also are | whereby we teach |
|  |  | some certain skill | them hand works like |
|  |  | acquisition | baking, barbing, shoe |
|  |  | programmes, | making, tailoring, |
|  |  | which have aided | hairdressing etc. we |
|  |  | the smooth running | have the drug law |
|  |  | of the prison, like | enforcement agency |
|  |  | the skill acquisition | personnel, giving the |
|  |  | programmes | inmates education on |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | (baking, shoe |  | drug abuse, the |
| making, | dangers, damages, |
| hairstyling, soap | and side effects of |
| making, carpentry, | drugs. We enlighten |
| catering). | them the ways of |
|  | controlling misusage |
|  | of drugs. In records, |
|  | some of the inmates |
|  | before their |
|  | convictions were |
|  | drug addicts, into the |
|  | intake of hard drugs |
|  | like tramadol, |
|  | marijuana, etc. |
| 4. |  | What is your opinion | The rehabilitation |  |  |
|  | regarding the effect | programmes in the |
|  | of the rehabilitation | prisons is at its |
|  | programmes on the | maximum, it is on |
|  | inmates. | a 100% scale of |
|  |  | effectiveness and |
|  |  | efficiency. All the |
|  |  | programmes have |
|  |  | yielded positive |
|  |  | returns, in that |
|  |  | inmates are fast |
|  |  | developing and |
|  |  | also agile enough |
|  |  | to grasp them. |
|  |  | There is little or no |
|  |  | record of any form |
|  |  | of throw back from |
|  |  | them, they are |
|  |  | enthusiastic about |
|  |  | all the programmes |
|  |  | and even ask for |
|  |  | more programmes |
|  |  | to be established. |
|  |  | So the programmes |
|  |  | are effective and |
|  |  | efficient. |
| 5. |  | What then accounts | The reason for the |  | The relapse among |
|  | for the relapse | relapse among | the inmates mainly |
|  | among the prison | some prisoners | occur due to the |
|  | inmates mainly after | after their release, | influence from the |
|  | release. | can be attributed to | cell mates. Their |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | the professionals |  | characters usually get |
| allocated by the | worsen when they are |
| government, who | being influenced by |
| issue out the | co-mates, some of |
| rehabilitation | them learn how to |
| training to the | smoke, take drugs |
| inmates. In the | and other new drug |
| sense that many of | substance in their |
| them are after their | criminal oppressions. |
| pockets, they tend | Also, relapse among |
| to be little or less | inmates is caused by |
| arrogant, and worst | the failure of |
| still resentful in | professionals |
| dishing out their | assigned to them. |
| duties to the | Instead of them being |
| prisoners. In some | reformed they are |
| cases, we found | deformed. |
| most of them |  |
| hostile, and |  |
| inflicting pains on |  |
| the prisoners. They |  |
| are not down to |  |
| earth in dispensing |  |
| their duties, they |  |
| are so self-minded. |  |
| In the fact that, |  |
| many of them |  |
| failed to issue out |  |
| their duties to the |  |
| inmates, as they |  |
| offer half-service. |  |
| 6. |  | The commandant | I will appeal to |  | I will ask the |
|  | was asked to suggest | both the federal | government to be |
|  | on the areas that need | and state | more committed and |
|  | changes or reforms | government to | consistent with this |
|  | on Rehabilitating the | inject more funds | programmes, by |
|  | inmates. | to the programmes | releasing sufficient |
|  |  | in order to fully | funds to the |
|  |  | achieve its | professionals to |
|  |  | mandates. If more | administer, improve |
|  |  | funds are allocated | and encourage the |
|  |  | to rehabilitation | rehabilitation |
|  |  | programmes and | programmes to the |
|  |  | skill acquisition | inmates. |
|  |  | training, we |  |
|  |  | believe that we will |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | be reaching a scale of over a hundred, in the fact that we will cover all the loopholes, in the intellectual, mental, and the psychological upbringing of our inmates. Again, the federal government should look into the issue of professionals sent to various prisons, to ensure that only qualified and disciplined medical personnel are sent to issue out the training. if this requests of more funds are met, more programmes will be incorporated in which in turn will positively transform the inmates, make them productive and be useful to themselves, distinguishing between good and bad, and also be of help to security agencies, giving them vital security information around them. |  |  |
| 7. |  | How can you rate the state of their mental health? Is it stable or  unstable? |  |  | Their mental health is very stable and ok. |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8. | ***ID2:*** Female Official Respondent | Please ma, how many years have you been in the service? | I have been in the service for more than 12 years now. | ***ID2:*** Officer in Charge of Operations |  |
| 9. |  | How many inmates currently are in the prison? | Currently in Kirikiri maximum prison, we have 1662 inmates, we  have 1340 male, and 320 are female. Although, these number increase and decrease every day, some inmates leave, while some come in. |  |  |
| 10. |  | What type of rehabilitation programmes is currently on going in the prisons? | Currently, the rehabilitation programmes we  have are: the educational skill, which we provide for our inmates. Which is very effective, some of them are taking their certificates  from Open University, we provide for them skill acquisition programmes such as baking, soap making, and carpentry for those interested. we teach our girls especially how to cook, we provide for them psychological rehabilitation services, which takes care of the  mentally deranged. |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11. |  | What also is the prisons doing about drug addiction programme? Is the NDLEA here? | The NDLEA unit is here, educating the inmates of the dangers of drugs.  Yes. I can say that ten that were psychological deranged have improved immensely and  thanks to the NDLEA staff. |  |  |
| 12. |  | It is in the news that some of your inmates are still taking drugs substances. Is it true or false? | No is not true. We take good care of our inmates and we do not tolerate any smuggling of drugs from any side in the prisons, we search our inmates before they go out and before they come in, our personnel handle every situation at hand. |  |  |
| 13. |  | What is your opinion on the rehabilitation programmes on your inmates? Is it good enough? | The rehabilitation programmes is a very good idea, it works and it’s also very effective on the inmates. |  | The rehabilitation programmes here are not very effective but we provide  rehabilitation programmes like psychological services with our professionals providing psychological care for psychologically deranges inmates, we provide medical services providing medical care for the sick inmates. we  provide skill |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  | acquisition programmes like soap making, carpentry, baking etc. we give educational services, but our inmates do not want to improve on their educational system, which is reflected in their performance. We teach them on how to farm and the NDLEA personnel educate prison inmates on the dangers of drug abuse and smoking. |
| 14. |  | What reason can you give for the relapse among the inmates? | Firstly, it depends on the professionals assigned to carry out the functions. Some of them are not qualified and not professional enough to take the offer. Second of all, environmental impact is another factors considered to cause the relapse. An environment where all manner of crimes are  committed can lead to the relapse, compared to an environment where good morals and religious tenets are kept. |  | The reasons are lack of professionals which do not provide enough rehabilitation services and because of this, the inmates are idle and this idleness makes the inmates with low mindset engage with other inmates and due to this, they influence them on the strategic ways to kill, rob, steal, drug peddling etc. |
| 15. |  | What are the areas that need change or  reforms in improving | The area of more funds be allocated  to the programmes |  | I will suggest that the programmes should  introduce more basic |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | the rehabilitation programmes on the inmates? | to introduce more meaningful rehabilitation programmes, to educate inmates; the provision of more personnel is essential, as the 50 number of  personnel currently in the prisons cannot adequately and effectively run its operations. |  | education, because as you can see, the inmates are not improving to this modern system of education, but the former system, of education, and the government should provide more psychiatric doctors as there are many mentally deranged inmates in the prisons. There are poor medical facilities in the hospital to  adequately cater for the inmates, shortage of beds and drugs to treat the inmates, and as you can see, some of them are suffering from one illness or the other. |
| 16. |  | How can you rate the state of the mental health of the inmates? | The state of their mental health is 70/30. The 70%  being those that are psychologically deranged but are now stable, while those that are 30% are the  psychologically deranged but are improving gradually, there are now able to identify things, faces and those taking care of them. The 70% are speedily  recovering. |  | It is stable and not stable. But the NDLEA agency here, provides enough services to the inmates. if not for the NDLEA services here, things would have gone out of hands. We need enough psychiatric doctors to provide for our inmates because so many of them are psychologically deranged and sick.  Yes the hospital is  not well equipped. We do not have |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | Compared to the 30% gradually recovering. |  | enough professionals, enough medical doctors to take good care of the inmates. |
| 17. | ***ID3***: Inmate Attendant | How many years have you been in this service? | I have been in this service for 17 years to be precise. | ***ID3***: Officer in charge of Health and social  welfare of the prisoners |  |
| 18. |  | What are you in charge of in the prison? | My position here is the inmate  attendant, I take the inmates complaints to the management, for inmates do not have direct access to the management. I also take visitors and attend to visitors that are here to meet with inmates. |  |  |
| 19. |  | Please sir, what is the number of awaiting trials and the already convicted? | We have currently 1662 inmates, 1342 are male, while there are 320 female.  Ok, the number of awaiting trials so far, we have 650 are awaiting trials, and 1012 are already convicted. |  |  |
| 20. |  | What type of rehabilitation programmes are currently on ground and how effective are they? | We have the rehabilitation programmes for the education of drugs, which the member of the NDLEA educate prison  inmates on the |  | We offer them a wide range of  rehabilitation programmes ranging from educational programmes, where we teach them on  how to read and |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | dangers of drugs, the ways drugs react in the body, they enlighten them on hard drugs like cocaine, tramadol etc. we also, have the medical services, where we have our medical doctors administer drugs to sick inmates. we have psychiatrists who are assigned to take care of inmates with mental issues, we also have rehabilitation programmes for skill acquisition where we teach inmates on how to bake, shoe making, hairdressing, tailoring, barbing etc., in fact, the programmes are very effective. |  | write, we also have skill acquisition programmes, outlined for them. For instance, we have skill acquisition programmes where we teach them on how to bake like make bread and other house hold make, hairdressing, shoe making etc. on the aspect of drug control, we have the personnel from the NDLEA, to teach them the basis and dangers of drug abuse, such as tramadol and marijuana. On this ground, we have been able to impact and pass information to them, so we believe that by the end of these rehabilitation programmes, they will turn out to be better citizens to themselves. |
| 21. |  | How is the impact of the rehabilitation programmes on the inmates? | The rehabilitation programmes are sufficient, very ok, reliable, we have good professional teachers, that counsel them on life issues and other life challenges. |  | Why not, its  effective, the programmes have really changed many of them. Many who came in hardened are now been  rehabilitated and now renewed, some who left are now ok.  Many of them have turned from their bad |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  | ways and have been embellished and have been taught the influence of what such bad acts might land them and so many of them have changed due to the rehabilitation programmes provided for them. |
| 22. |  | What of how to read and write? | The inmates are picking up and responding to the rehabilitation programmes. |  |  |
| 23. |  | What reason can you give for the relapse among the inmates? | The major reason for the relapse among the inmates is idleness. When the inmates are idle, you start seeing them sharing their lives experiences, which leads to teaching themselves all sort of bad things they have done in time pass. The inmates who are criminally inclined influence vulnerable ones and this leads to the relapse. |  | On that ground, I will attribute that to idleness, the reason is that their fellow inmates are influencing them on the bad things they had done before entering the prison, for an instance, a particular inmate was telling another on how he smoked marijuana and how he felt after smoking it, soon afterwards, the inmates developed the love for marijuana and started making signs and behavioral patterns that showed that he would love to taste that. With such attitude, the inmate instead of being informed turns out to  be deformed. With |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  | taste and obsession of smoking. So with that idleness, the inmates that are meant to be reformed are influenced. The only problem they have among themselves is the idleness and the wrong information being passed by some few hardened inmates. |
| 24. |  | In case you are asked to suggest the areas that needs to be changed or reformed in prison rehabilitation programmes, what areas will that be? | I suggest that the government should fund the  programmes for a better result and for the good of the inmate and the society where everybody wins. |  | I would want both the federal and state governments allocate or disburse more fund to this programmes in such a way that more programmes be introduced where the inmates get to learn and explore more in the area of education. |
| 25. |  | How can you rate the state of the inmate mental health? Is it stable? | The mental health issues of the inmates are very stable, they are responding to the treatment given to them, the psychiatric doctors  are taking very good care of them. |  |  |

Source: Field Work

**CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

From the analysis of the questionnaire retrieved from the respondents who are mainly inmates of the two most prominent maximum security prisons in Nigeria, the following were derived for further interrogation;

**#1.** There are more male inmates than female, thereby implying that male commits more crimes than female.

**#2.** Data shows that majority of the inmates are youth;

**#3.** That most of the inmates are Christians,

**#4.** That most of the inmates who are youth are also married;

**#5.** That majority of the inmates have been in prison for less than six (6) years

**#6.** Also that majority are serving jail terms of not less than 7 years;

**#7.** That there are more cases of recidivism in Kuje than in Kirikiri, however, most inmates are first-timers;

**#8.** That overall, majority of the inmates have been convicted and imprisoned at least once before;

**#9.** Majority agreed that overcrowding of cells adversely affects rehabilitation

**#10.** That the prison rehabilitation efforts have positively affected them;

**#11.** However, most also agreed that rehabilitation programs provided by the Prison Services are not sufficiently adequate enough and hence have no effect on them

**#12.** Majority blamed the prison environment for relapse.

**#13.** Most of the inmates prefer school (formal education) to vocational training

**#14.** Most rated the present rehabilitation services as ‘not that bad’ but need improvement.

# Discussions of Factors.

**Factor #1, #2, #3,** and **#4**

The demographic or bio-social distribution of the inmates in these two maximum prisons show that there are more male inmates than female, thereby implying that male commits more crimes than female. We are also presented with the fact that majority of the inmates are youth; mostly Christians, and are married. The spatial distribution showed that of the 1,662 persons incarcerated in Kirikiri alone, only 320 were female and when added to the Kuje population, there was a total of 2,070 male. This is not surprising, particularly when we surmised that in our society, the man has tremendous and numerous responsibilities to himself, immediate and extended families.

Certain things are constant in every society; these are the search for the essentials of life such as food, cloth and shelter. The search to assure that these can be provided, especially in a period of scarcity and mass poverty occasioned by unemployment and absence of jobs has led to increase in crime, violence and conflict. The worsening crises of the economy have contributed a lot to the level and sophistication of crime in Nigeria and the world. Intensity of crime has also been deepening with crises in the economy such that level and sophistication of crime has also changed over time in terms of sophistication of weaponry and the level of intelligence employed especially in cybercrime related incidents. Prior to this time, crime has been limited to petty crime such as stealing, burglary, rape and other social vices. However, with increase in the level of unemployment and education, Nigeria has now witnessed high level of criminal activities.

With the rise in the number of urban areas and the depletion of the rural areas, crime has also become intensified. Most major cities in Nigeria are rapidly becoming urbanised and this is due to

oil related exploitation and the affluence this brings also. Ironically, attendant to this affluence is also a rise in the level of criminality experienced which, has moved from petty crime to highly sophisticated and intellectual crimes such as kidnapping, vandalisation of oil pipelines, daylight bank robberies with a high level of sophistication and armaments that surpassed even those of the police who are supposed to assured the society of its safety. The Nigerian state has no answer to these crimes. The sophistication and intensity of crime appears to have overwhelmed state response and agencies ability to curb or control it. It would seem that while the criminals are developing with time in terms of sophistication of weapons and gallantry, the state institutions seem to have remained static and stagnant, often times bereft of ideas and innovation on how to combat crime. The reason for this is not farfetched and can be located in institutional decay, corruption and general malaise of governance that have affected both the society and security agencies which are part of the larger society. At the level of governance, there is an intellectual pit, which has not been able to forge a link between the increasing level of crime and the deepening crisis of the state political economy. The crisis is also a reflection of the state’s inability to provide and also give an assurance of the provision of the basic necessity of food, shelter, clothing and security of life and property for the citizenry.

While it is generally accepted that the government cannot of itself only and alone provide for all needs of its citizens, other bodies have taken it as part of their contributions to the society to assist the people and in the case of religious bodies and organisation to assist their members. The Christian organisations, bodies and denominations have embarked on this, however, it is still pertinent to note that majority of the persons incarcerated in both maximum security prisons are Christians. In an article presented by Agara (2019), he pointed out the effectiveness of the

Pentecostal churches in soul-winning through encouraging their members to share their personal testimonies with others, to live their lives with an eye to "holiness", to embrace good works as part of the "Spirit-filled" life, to be open to the sovereign movement of the Holy Spirit through charisms, signs and wonders, and to support the work of the church through regular tithing. However, he was quick to also point out that Pentecostalism has not been able to meet the physical and financial needs of many on the margins of society. He questioned the extent to which it has synergize with the government towards elevating the level of poverty of its members and making them self-reliant rather than living in poverty and penury.

Today, most Pentecostal churches and leaders have encouraged and preached what is now called a "prosperity theology", proclaiming that God wills both the spiritual and physical (including material) well-being of God's people. Churches such as the Universal Church of the Kingdom of God and the Pentecostal Church God Is Love that emerged in the 1980s in Brazil are controversial even among other Pentecostal churches, for the extent to which they emphasize this teaching. In Nigeria, quite a number of them have emphasized on this thereby erroneously encouraging that wealth and affluence should be desired. Rather how and at what cost? The preachers and church leaders are silence about this. This has been seen as a subtle encourager for people who cannot afford wealth within the realm of legitimate work can acquire using criminal methods.

Of equal importance is the individualism of today Christianity, unlike the Moslem religion that emphasise and still maintain service and assistance to members of the religious group or sect. However, a cursory look of the Bible shows that this had not been the case. The Book of Acts of the Apostles noted that one of the things the early Christians were noted for was the sharing of

bread and all things equally amongst themselves (Acts 2;42-47). It is a sign of the failure of Christianity and its wholesome adoption of capitalist ideology of individualism and concept of modernity that our prisons have more Christians than any other religion.

# Factors #5 and #6.

Factors #5 and #6 point us to the fact that majority of the inmates have been in prison for less than six (6) years and that majority are serving jail terms of not less than 7 years. In most modern societies today, there are three basic penalty types commonly in practice and these are physical detention (imprisonment), fines and probation. In other societies, particularly in Islamic states and some parts of Africa, the list could include torture, branding, maiming, deportation, banishment, loss of property, corporal punishment, forced labour, coerced penitence, self-denial and of course death. However, Sutherland and Cressey (1974, p. 303) have simplified this list into four categories of types or principal methods of punishment – (1) removal from group, (2) physical torture, (3) social degradation and (4) financial loss.

Death, banishment, transportation and imprisonment are examples of this type of punishment – removal from group. This type of punishment removes the offender from familiar everyday life and social interactions with friends, family, acquaintances and other regular associates. Death sentence has its root from the ancient Mosaic code and that of Hammurabi law and was usually prescribed for such offenses as witchcraft, incest, kidnapping and negligence resulting in death. In ancient Greece, Rome and among the Germanic tribes, death was a common penalty and this has also been noted among ancient Egyptians, Assyrians and Hindus. According to Newman (1978), death penalty is “probably the most ancient of all forms of formal punishment” and “the pivotal

criminal punishment in Western society from ancient times until the 19th century.” Today, most societies of the world had abolished the death penalty (see Table 5.1 below).

# Table 5.1: Abolition of the Death Penalty in the World Community

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| States | Year Abolished | State | Year Abolished |
| San Marino | 1848 | Venezuela | 1863 |
| Mozambique | 1867 | Portugal | 1867 |
| Costa Rica | 1880 | Netherlands (a) | 1886 (b) |
| Ecuador | 1897 | Norway (a) | 1905 (b) |
| Uruguay | 1907 | Colombia | 1910 |
| Panama | 1915 | Sweden (a) | 1921 |
| Argentina | 1922 | Dominion Republic | 1924 |
| Denmark (a) | 1930 | Mexico (c) | 1931 |
| Iceland | 1940 | Switzerland (a) | 1942 |
| India, Trevencore | 1944 | Italy (a) | 1944 |
| Brazil (a) | 1946 | West Germany | 1949 |
| Finland (a) | 1949 | Greenland | 1954 |
| Honduras | 1957 | Netherlands, Antilles (a) | 1957 |
| Bolivia | 1961 | Monaco | 1962 |
| Great Britain | 1965 | Northern Ireland | 1966 |
| Austria | 1968 |  |  |

* + 1. Permits the death penalty during time of war or under military rule
    2. Executed Nazi collaborators after WWII
    3. 29 of the 32 states in Mexico abolished the death penalty between 1931 and 1970

# Culled from: Barlow (1984, p. 485)

By exile is implied transportation and banishment but these are rarely used today, although aliens and foreigners can be deported as a form of banishment. In the olden days, however, banishment was a way of ridding wrongdoers and offenders from the tribe, village or community. Usually perceived as worse than death, banishment dislocates and separates the individual from the support of the group, without which the individual becomes a prey to both animals and other hostile groups. Significantly, banishment rendered the banished an outcast, not only in territorial terms, but also in normative terms as the outcast is considered outside from the prevailing moral order and as such

members of the group are not in any way committed to, or under any obligation to treat such person as they would others.

Transportation was used to achieve two things simultaneously by England and other colonial powers in the 17th century. First was that while the home country could be rid of its dangerous criminals, the colonies could also benefit from a continuing supply and influx of new labourers even though these were the rejects and undesirables by the colonial powers. Through this medium, hundreds of thousands of convicts were transported to places as America, Australia, and South Africa. However, by the second half of the 19th century this form of punishment was finally abolished.

Another type of official criminal penalty is removal from the society by direct imprisonment. Today, this has become the most common way by which criminals and offenders are punished, although its use as a specific punishment upon conviction is of relatively recent origin. Ancient or earlier societies rarely used this form of incarceration and when used at all, it was (1) as a means of pretrial detention and surveillance, or (2) because the offender has not paid his fines, or (3) because it was deemed necessary if certain kinds of penalties such as torture, execution, banishment, etc. were yet to be imposed. According to Durkheim, prisons became notably in the punishment of criminals with the emergence of modern cities and a technology capable of constructing buildings sufficiently large, private and secure enough to operate as detention centers on a regular basis. Thus, early prisons were attached to royal palaces, temples and churches, city walls and even private houses of court officials, nobility and those in positions of wealth and privilege. Once accepted as a place of incarceration, prison then served a punitive role and those

who were unfortunate to be incarcerated in them were subjected to abominable degradation and deprivations such as chained to walls, living in filth and among vermin and not fed sufficiently or adequately enough. Today, the ostensible reason that justifies the use of prison is to remove offenders from their normal habitat, to deprive them of their freedom. This modern conception of imprisonment has now gained much popularity and acceptability.

Torture, at one time or the other, has been used by societies as a just retribution for offences and offenders as a criminal punishment. As a penalty alone, not in addition to another, physical torture has mainly taken the form of flogging or whipping. This form of punishment is known to have been practiced by ancient Jews and it commonly featured in Roman and Greek punishment. In England, this form of punishment was long considered as adequate for vagrants, vagabonds and beggars. Under the Anglo-Saxon kings, whipping is considered as an alternative to monetary compensation. In America, flogging continues to be an official criminal penalty mainly for slaves. Torture as punishment is used extensively as a device for extracting guilty pleas and confession and may take the form of mutilation. Nigerian prisons, at least, the two visited, are not devoid of physical or corporal punishment, marks and scars could be seen on some of the inmates, although it was not clear whether these were inflicted by the other inmates or officials for some form of misbehavior. Even in modern and advanced societies, recent disclosures have indicated that cruel and vicious physical abuse has not totally disappeared from the prison systems. Apart from the frequently cited beatings and floggings administered in the name of discipline, other physical atrocities are common for recalcitrant inmates.

Social degradation is another form of punishment. In Nigeria, this was practiced as a form of deterrent where offenders are sent to jails located in their states of origin or locality. Another form of stigmatization was the public shooting of criminals sentenced to death in their local governments. All these were under the military, particularly, under Murtala and later Buhari military administrations. In Sweden, for example, convicted criminals were sometimes tied on a wooden horse and left to the derision of the locals (Barlow, 1984). Although modern states have decried this, other forms of social degradation commonly in use involve the removal of civil or other rights as specified in law as automatic penalties on conviction for certain offences.

A stronger social degradation usually overlooked is that ex-convicts must contend with the stigma such labels carry. For instance, they are considered outsiders, seen as untrustworthy, suspicious and threatening and their social identity is redefined by emphasizing their criminality to the exclusion of other personal attributes (Goffman, 1963; and Shoham, 1970). In addition to this, convicted persons often face isolation, hostility and fear from those who know about their incarceration and are perceived by people, friends, acquaintances, landlords and even employers as unworthy of marriage, friendship, employment and even a place in the community. In fact, according to Shoham (1970), Schwartz and Skolnick (1962) and Chapman (1968), the people least likely to be stigmatized by the criminal process and to suffer punitive consequences are those in business, politics and the professional who committed occupational crimes. In Nigeria, experience has shown this, over and over again, to be true. Rather than been ostracized, they are venerated and awarded chieftaincy titles and accolades, thereby, rendering ineffectual the preventive mechanism of stigmatization. As Shoham (1970, p. 9) has further noted;

…the social stigma of conviction is probably the most deterrent to potential offenders. A person who is not a professional or habitual

criminal or a lawyer is rarely aware of the exact or even the approximate penalty he is likely to suffer for the offence he is about to commit, though he is, of course, aware of the possibility of detection and punishment. The fear of stigma is probably much stronger than the fear of punishment for

the average law-abiding citizen. He is afraid of losing job, of being ostracized by his business associates and friends, of the possible alienation of members of his family, of having to leave his neighbourhood or even his town.

Financial penalties is taking over justice in Nigeria. Imagine a former governor convicted of stealing, diverting and embezzling public funds to the tune of billions of Naira being asked to pay just one million as a result of plea bargain. From antiquities, monetary payments in the form of damages or compensation have been made to victims of wrongs. This was meant to replace direct retaliation against the offender which had had disruptive and bloody consequences. Davidson (1965) and Jeffrey (1962) have argued that the threat to property and life posed by victim retaliation was an important factor to the development and initial popularity of financial penalties. However, the use of this form of punishment because almost 80% of those fined are unable to pay and hence end up in jail. Many a times, the fines or bail stipulations are such that the individual is unable to pay. A case in point was the bail term given to Sowore and co. by contrast, fines are a relative boom to those who can afford them and thus avoid the alternative punishment. For the middle class offender or corporation, a fine is akin to a slap in the wrist, and in the light of prevailing criminal stereotypes, merely reinforces the view that it is the ‘dross of the society,’ the ‘dangerous classes’ who belong in jail.

# Factors #7 and #8.

These pointed to the fact that there are more cases of recidivism in Kuje than in Kirikiri. However, despite the fact most inmates are first-timers, data from the field actually showed that the overall, majority of the inmates have been convicted and imprisoned at least once before. As far back as

1870, at the meeting of the American Prison Congress, the idea was muted that reformation, rather than suffering, should be the basis of the penal practice. In addition, it was agreed that indeterminate sentences should be adopted to enable authorities to release early, or to keep longer those inmates who had succeeded or failed in demonstrating their rehabilitation This meeting gave birth to what later became known as the Reformatory Movement. By the 1900s, this movement was on the decline and there was a revert to the old harsh prison discipline of hard labour and strict regimentation. The Reformatory Movement failed because of a number of reasons; (1) lack of high quality leadership and staff, especially in the key areas of education. This concern has also been shown by the prison officials interviewed, for instance *ID1* from Kirikiri prison has opined that;

the reason for the relapse among some prisoners after their release, can be attributed to the professionals allocated by the government, who issue out the rehabilitation training to the inmates. In the sense that many of

them are after their pockets, they tend to be little or less arrogant, and worst still resentful in dishing out their duties to the prisoners. In some cases, we found most of them hostile, and inflicting pains on the prisoners. They are not down to earth in dispensing their duties, they are so self-minded. In the fact that, many of them failed to issue out their duties to the inmates.

(2) lack of recognition that reformation and architecture might somehow be related. By this, the strong walls and the barbed wires and iron gates, all done to enclose the inmates do have some form of psychological impact on them. (3) overcrowding which led to a breakdown in the already clumsy efforts at classification, grading, and behavior modification. According to *ID1* from Kuje;

The relapse among the inmates mainly occur due to the influence from the cell mates. Their characters usually get worsen when they are being influenced by co-mates, some of them learn how to smoke, take drugs and other new drug substance in their criminal oppressions. Also, relapse among inmates is caused

by the failure of professionals assigned to them. Instead of them being reformed they are deformed.

He further suggested that may have been due to (4) overemphasis on the custodial function of prison by administrators and perhaps most important, (5) lack of official commitment to reforms in the form of supporting policy and resources. In Nigeria, jail term has been used as punishment those convicted of all sorts of crime from misdemeanor and petty offences to crime bordering on homicide and other serious offences. Agara et al (2016) have used data from Edo State in Nigeria to show the different offences for which persons were jailed (see Table 5.2 below).

**TABLE 5.2: TYPES OF OFFENCES (JAN-DEC)**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| ***S/N*** | ***YEAR*** | ***AGAINST***  ***PERSONS*** | ***AGAINST***  ***PROPERTY*** | ***AGAINST***  ***LOCAL ACTS*** | ***OTHERS*** | ***TOTAL*** |
| 1. | 2002 | 3414 | 3321 | 151 | 464 | **7350** |
| 2. | 2003 | 4090 | 2867 | NIL | 270 | **7227** |
| 3. | 2004 | 3197 | 2344 | NIL | 313 | **5854** |
| 4. | 2005 | 2907 | 2418 | NIL | 337 | **5662** |
| 5. | 2006 | 2632 | 2615 | NIL | 496 | **5743** |
| 6. | 2007 | 1569 | 1781 | NIL | 265 | **3615** |
| 7. | 2008 | 1135 | 1348 | NIL | 155 | **2638** |
| 8. | 2009 | 1140 | 1108 | NIL | 156 | **2404** |
| 9. | 2011 | 752 | 755 | NIL | 90 | **1567** |
| **TOTAL** |  | **20836** | **18557** | **151** | **2546** | **42060** |

# Source: YEARLY CRIME STATISTICS RETURNS FOR EDO STATE (Agara, et al 2016)

Jail term as punishment has become popular in Nigeria that statistics we got from our findings shows that a total of 1,662 inmates are in Kirikiri alone made of 1,342 male and 320 female whereas in Kuje all are male and are 728 in number. These inmates are either awaiting formal adjudication, and some has simply been unable to make the required bail.

When we punish a person for wrongdoing or for a misdemeanor, our action signifies two things; a disapproval of both the offending act and the person who commits the act. As a retributivist, we will be concerned with the question of guilty and just retribution for the person’s action; not on the consequences of the punishment. All we will be concerned with is getting the offender to suffer for his action by serving a punishment commensurate with the severity of his offence. However, if on the other hand, we are advocates of deterrent; holding strongly to the view that punishment should prevent further crime from being committed, then the consequences of punishment should be our major concern. In this case, we will want punishment to work, to prevent recidivism, relapse into crime and prevention of further crime. Gibbs (1975, pp. 57-93) has identified ten (10) different ways punishment can prevent crimes. The first is that certain forms of punishment can incapacitate the potential offender by removing or diminishing the opportunities to commit crimes. Incapacitation in this case may mean actual execution or total removal of the offender. The second way is when the offender is placed under surveillance. In modern societies where inmates can be allowed out on parole and probation, punitive surveillance may work to prevent crime simply because it increases the visibility of an offender’s behavior, although Gibbs is skeptical that surveillance of probationers and parolees does prevent a substantial amount of crime.

Enculturation is the third preventive mechanism as Gibbs (1975) had enumerated. The idea is that people are socialized into the society by acquiring knowledge that a certain kind of behavior would attract certain kinds of punishment and this knowledge furthers their respect for the law and reluctance to break it. The logic here is that people will refrain from committing a criminal act if they have learned that it is wrong through the punitive response to it. In this case, the punishment establishes the criminality of the act and hence the reason for refraining from doing it and hence

force people to accept the precept of “obedience to the law.’ Fourth on the list is reformation, based on the idea that the experience of punishment alters an offender’s behavior. Essentially, this argument hinges on the fact that punishment conveys to the offender a sense of shame, remorse and stigmatization and this promotes subsequent conformity to the law. Fifth is through normative validation which echoes Durkheim’s (1964) earlier submission that punishment provides an opportunity to reaffirm and possibly intensify the condemnation of a crime. This reiterates the fact that punishment reminds the offender, and also others, that the rule of law is valid, that violation is to be condemned. Therefore, normative validation means the maintenance or enhancement through punishment of already existing condemnation of certain behaviours.

Sixth is retribution. As Gibbs (1975) had asserted, where there exists a demand for the guilty to be punished, not to do so would encourage private vengeance, the extreme form of which is armed vigilantism. As he puts it;

Even in societies with “law,” the certainty and severity of punishment

could become so negligible that the citizens would seek personal retribution and what the injured party would take to be justifiable vengeance could be criminal assault, criminal homicide, robbery, extortion, kidnapping or theft. So no imagination is required to see that retribution “outside the law” Generates crime. Hence, retribution through legal punishments may prevent crimes.

Gibbs’s (1975) seventh crime-prevention mechanism is stigmatization. This identifies the perpetrator as criminal and punishment “thereby becomes a criterion for subsequent social condemnation. It is expected that people would refrain from crime not because of the punishment alone but also because of the anticipated stigmatization such as loss of job, denial of alternative employment opportunities, exclusion from voluntary associations, and termination of all manner

of other social relations. The eighth preventive mechanism by Gibbs is normative insulation. In Gibbs’s view, at least three types of punishments have the effect of insulating us from the normative influence of offenders – execution, imprisonment and banishment. The ninth is habituation which Zimring and Hawkins (1973) have argued that people develop the habit of conforming to the law quite uncritically and that punishment contributes both to the development and maintenance of this habit. Though it is difficult to separate habituation from deterrence, habituation is implied when people tend to obey and follow the law even in the absence of monitoring or enforcement. Finally, Gibbs (1975) mentioned deterrence as a way crime can be prevented. Though incapacitation through execution would have been a sure way to prevent further criminality, it will be preposterous to recommend such remedy for all types of offences.

This brings to the fore again the distinctions made by Andenaes between *mala in se* crimes and *mala prohibita* crimes and Chambliss’s distinction of instrumental and expressive crimes. To fully understood the issue of punishment as deterrence and what offences are more deterrable or less deterrable, it may be necessary to know a lot more about the mental and behavioural capacity of the offender. This opinion is predicated on the fact that, after all it is people who are deterred and not the acts they commit. After all, as Barlow (1984) has noted some people are more amenable to deterrence than others. In this respect, Chambliss (1967, 1969) has offered us some insights by suggesting that we distinguish between persons with relatively high commitment to crime as a way of life and those with relatively low commitment. The professional criminal; that is, those with relatively high commitment to crime will always relapse and are the recidivists because crime for them is a way of life, are involved in crime on a regular and professional basis and prominent in the subcultures providing group support for their actions. This types of offenders are less likely to

be deterred, they are likely to be used to incarceration and punishment which they have learned to live with and the threat of punishment may be offset by the support they enjoy from other members of their subculture. Whereas, the occasional thief, shoplifter, forger etc. may not see himself as a professional criminal and hence, may be denied the benefits of the supportive role provided by the recidivists. For this type of offenders, mere fear of further punishment or even going through such punishment again may prove an important factor in turning them from crime. Finally, we echo Barlow’s (1984) submission here that there is room for further investigation of the following predictions’ (1) Fear of punishment is most likely to deter low commitment individuals who engage in *mala prohibita* crimes that are also instrumental crimes. (2) Fear of punishment is least likely to deter high commitment individuals who engage in *mala in se* crimes that are also expressive crimes.

# Factors #9, #10, #11. and #12.

Our findings show that majority agreed that overcrowding of cells adversely affects efforts at rehabilitation, they nevertheless agreed that in spite of this, the prison rehabilitation efforts have positively affected them. While most agreed that the rehabilitation programs provided by the Prison Services are not sufficiently adequate enough to negate relapse, they do blame the prison environment for relapse. A number of the officials interviewed have attested to overcrowding as having a negative impact and has enabled bad behviour to be passed to other inmates due to proximity and influence. Conrad (1975) has opined that the rise in inmate population is as a result of society adopting a hard line in the administration of justice. He further suggested that this has resulted from a combination of things such as (1) an escalation in public anger at the criminal; (2)

an increase in public disenchantment with social meliorism, and finally (3) rising crime rates in urban areas helping to exacerbate already high levels of social conflict in our cities.

Urban jails in general are overcrowded places lacking even modest amenities. Barlow (1984) has contended that jail time is generally more punitive, dangerous and degrading. There is, in addition, to serving sentences, the mixing of technically innocent people with convicted offenders, not to mention petty offenders with hardened criminals. As Gibbs (1975) has argued, although imprisonment reduces the opportunity to commit crimes, it does not rule out the fact that all manner of offences may still be committed and may actually encourage some, for example, homosexual rape, smoking and involving in drugs. Thus, Gibbs (1975) frowned at the fact that the terms reformation and rehabilitation have usually been used as if they are synonymous. He argued that;

… the meaning of the terms should be distinguished. Criminal rehabilitation

is the alteration of an offender’s behavior by non-punitive means, so that he or she no longer violates the law. Criminal reformation is the alteration of

an offender’s behavior *through punishment,* so that he or she no longer violates the laws.

Overcrowding negates what Gibbs (1975) has called normative insulation or what Sutherland and Cressey (1974) have referred to as the ‘theory of different association,’ which implies that people may learn attitudes and values favourable to law violation in their intimate association with others. Overcrowding therefore, offers the basis for assuming that the more we associate intimately with persons who are not law-abiding, the more we are likely to adopt their normative orientation. *ID2* and *ID1* in their response on why there was relapse, pointed out that overcrowding was responsible for relapse, leading to assumption that if it were possible for inmates to escape the undue influence of cell mates, perhaps normative orientations would be more abiding, inmates would not adopt other behaviours antithetical to law abiding.

# Factor #13.

Most of the inmates prefer school (formal education) to vocational training. Going by the response from *ID1* (on p.64) from Kirikiri, there are a number of skills acquisition programmes aimed at ensuring the ex-convicts’ smooth transition to life after jail and to ensure their economic well- being and sustenance thereafter. When asked about his opinion of the effect these programmes have on the inmates, the respondent was affirmative of the enthusiastic which the inmates have shown to all the programmes and hence concluded that in Kirikiri, the programmes were effective and efficient (p. 65 above). Furthermore, respondent *ID2,* who happened to be a female officer in Kirikiri, confirmed the fact that some of the inmates are currently studying with the Open University. This is in addition to the skill acquisition programmes of the prison such as baking, soap making and carpentry (p. 68 above). This assertion was further affirmed by *ID3* from Kuje Prison (see p. 72-73), who when asked to rate the impact, responded that “many who came in hardened are now been rehabilitated and now renewed; some who left are now ok, may have turned from their bad ways and have been embellished and taught the influence of what such bad acts might land them and so many have changed (pp. 73-74).

However, records got from our findings showed that in Kirikiri prison, of the 1662 inmates, 1342 were male and 320 were female. Of this total, 842 male and 210 female signified interest in pursuing formal education, while 610 showed no interest in formal education. For vocational and skill acquisition programmes, the distribution of inmates according to interest was baking (male 415 and female 72), sewing (male 150 and female 150), shoe making and repairing (male 200 and female 10), soap making (male 435, female 187), welding (male 580, female 3), barbing (male 580

and female 3), and tailoring (male 130 and female 180). In Kuje Prison, the data is as follows; from a total inmate of all male (728), only 420 have signified interest in acquiring formal education whereas, for vocation and skills training, 308 have shown interest. Of this number, 86 are for shoe making, 110 for baking, 118 for sewing, 180 for barbing, 200 for tailoring, 170 for mechanic and 200 for dry cleaning. The table below presents the data succinctly.

**TABLE 4: BREAKDOWN OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING/SKILL ACQUISITIONS FOR INMATES OF NIGERIAN PRISONS.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **VOCATIO NAL**  **SKILLS** | **BAKI NG** | **BARBI NG** | **TAILOR ING** | **MECHA NIC** | **DRY CLEAN**  **ING** | **SEWI NG** | **SHOE MAKI**  **NG** | **SOAP MAKI**  **NG** | **WELDI NG** |
| KIRIKIRI PRISON | 415  72(F) | 580  3(F) | 130  180(F) | NIL | NIL | 150  150(F  ) | 200  10(F) | 435  187 | 580  3(F) |
| KUJE  PRISON | 110 | 180 | 200 | 170 | 200 | 118 | 86 | NIL |  |

From the records available to us from the two prisons, 842 male inmates and 210 female from Kirikiri showed interest in acquiring formal education while from Kuje, 420 inmates opted for formal education. The probably reason for this may not be far from the fact of stigmatization of ex-convicts. Even with formal education, the chances of former inmates to survive in our society are either slim or none. The stigma of being an ex-convict becomes a label for life such that employment and many social benefits of the society are automatically denied them. Would-be employers look at them with suspicions, former friends and family members withdraw their trust and possible assistance. Stigmatization becomes a life-long emblem and mark in the life of an ex- convict. By this stigmatization, leading to isolation and withdrawal of help and assistance, usually drive the inmate to commit more crime in order to survive. The case here is that such inmate has become adept at committing crime and escape the long arms of justice. In prison, a network of former inmates who have so far relapsed into crime and have evaded being caught is always

available for the newly relapsed ex-convict. What society has denied, they are readily offered by accomplishes and friends in crime.

In respect with those who opted for vocational and skills acquisition, they case is even worse more so because they suffered similar stigmatization but also because they seem to be abandoned by the government for needed assistance. The overall purpose of skill acquisition training is to make the recipient of the training self-independent and eventual, an employer of labour himself. However, the acquisition of skills may be free, translating it into a means of sustenance require funds and space, which it would seem neither the society nor the government have provided, nor seem ready to do. The failure of the government to provide funds or acquire for the inmate trainee the required instruments such as sewing machines, vulganising machines, soap making requirements and others make nonsense of the training acquired since at the end of their jail terms, they cannot put in practice what they have learned nor translate it to a means of livehood for lack of a start-up fund or capital. In many cases, families do not trust the ex-convict enough to assist, no entrepreneur is ready to invest and no established factory or company is ready to employ them to utilize the skills learned in the prison rehabilitative program. In some cases, the prisoners themselves do not take these trainings seriously because they know the daunting task before them before they can be accepted as respectable and rehabilitated citizens. It would seem that the only option left open to them is a relapse to a life of crime in order to survive.

# Factor #14.

Most rated the present rehabilitation services, as ‘not that bad’ but still need improvement. It has become conventional to talk of ‘corrections’ whenever government’s involvement in punishment

of wrong doers or offenders are discussed. The term ‘correction’ as in everyday usage implies ‘putting someone right who has gone wrong.’ Implicit here is also the fact that we know what is ‘right.’ However, the problem here is that in modern societies with its complexity, the concepts of right and wrong are not so neatly delineated. In practical terms, no one has been able to isolate the effects of reformation and rehabilitation from those of other forces affecting the behavior of ex- offenders. Apart from the other possible consequences of punishment as discussed earlier such as stigmatization, incapacitation, deterrence and so on, there are many other things likely to influence behavior of a person after release from prison or correctional supervision. Criminologists are very concerned about an offender’s attitude and behavior and hence evaluate correctional outcomes by looking at recidivism.

According to Barlow (1984), recidivism means relapse into crime, hence recidivists are those who once again commit crime. Recidivism signifies the failure of the rehabilitation or correctional programs and therefore, the rate of recidivism will be proportional to the number of offenders who relapsed into former criminal behaviours or, on whom the rehabilitation/correctional programs do not have any positive impact. The focus on recidivism implies that correctional programs are successful to the degree that former offenders who have been through them are weaned from crime. Using a hypothetical case and subject named ‘George,’ who has been arrested and convicted of armed robbery and has gone through correctional process, including specific efforts to reform and rehabilitate him, Barlow (1984, pp. 519-20), has argued that one or more following statements will apply to him. During the rest of his lifetime, George;

1(a). *never* again commits armed robbery 1(b) commits armed robbery *once* again

1(c) commits armed robbery *more than once* again

2(a) *never* commits an offence *similar* to armed robbery (that is, one involving instrumental use of violence).

2(b) commits a similar offence *once*

2(c) commits a similar offence *more than once* again

3(a) *never* commits *a more serious* offence than armed robbery 3(b) commits a more serious offence *once*

3(c) commits a more serious offence *more than once*

4(a) *never* commits a *less serious* offence than armed robbery 4(b) commits a less serious offence *once*

4(c) commits a less serious offence *more than once*

According to Barlow (1984), if George belongs to categories 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a, he cannot be said to have relapse or that the rehabilitation programs have failed on him. He might been seen as a successful case of rehabilitation and hence, absolutely reformed or rehabilitated. On the other hand, if George has fallen into categories 1c, 2c, 3c, and 4c, then he is a disaster, a classic case of failure of rehabilitation programs. George has not only relapse totally, the rehabilitation programs he underwent while in prison did not have any effect on him.

Visualizing rehabilitation programs in this way may show that efforts at rehabilitation have different effects on different inmates depending on the crime and their natural dispositions. Some can be reformed, while others are hardened by circumstances and revert to crime when other means of living and sustenance are not available. When we see that majority are youths and married with a family to take care of after been released into society, but with no means of doing so, crime becomes the only alternative and the criminal becomes more adept in crime that quite a number of them may actually go un-apprehended. Hence, the rate of recidivism may not be directly related to the quality of rehabilitation programs but rather to society providing the ex-convict with alternative means of sustenance other than crime.

Accurate rate of relapse or record may be difficult to come by, however, any new criminal behavior, no matter how petty or minor, would be evidence of a person’s recidivism. At the same time, simply showing that someone has not been arrested or convicted does not prove that such a person has stayed clear of crime or rehabilitated. To prove rehabilitation, the person would need to be observed at all times. More important, is that society must provide alternative source of living for the ex-convict. Releasing them into the society without this is criminal on the part of the government. Conversely, low recidivism rates does not means that inmates are ‘corrected’ or that the rehabilitation programs are working, it could actually mean that they have learned or more careful and are more adept at dodging established traps for catching offenders or now have criminal sub-group support to evade detention.

There are several schools of thought concerning the connection between correctional efforts/rehabilitation programs and relapse/recidivism. There are those who argued also that reform and rehabilitation will not work in a prison setting. Scholars of this thought relates their stand to the nature of prison organization and management. According to Jeffrey (1977, p. 88), “wardens (prison officials) are paid fro running quiet prisons, not for reforming inmates. Any attempt to establish rehabilitation programs in prison are opposed by both staff and inmates because it makes more difficult for all concerned.” Another scholar has expressed the view that “the actual experience of imprisonment for most persons imprisoned … in this century has been simply punitive” (Hawkins 1976, p. 48) and hence, of no real effect in reforming the prisoners.

Another view has expressed that physical confinement breeds its own version of tyranny as seen in the relationship between guards and prisoners and between inmates themselves. The tyranny of

confinement by itself is antithetical to reform and rehabilitation; “prisoners adjust to the environment of the prison, not to the environment of free men.” As Jeffrey (1977) has pointed out, it is the community, and not the prison, that is the key to rehabilitation, although this has been argued against by Klapmuts (1977, p. 439) thus,

If prisons do not rehabilitate, and if the goal of correction is to reduce recidivism through integration of offender and community it seems axiomatic that treating the offender without removing him from the society will be more effective. Unfortunately, while one may express the opinion that, since prisons are not effective, then one might as well retain offenders in the community, one cannot assume without the support of adequate research that the best rehabilitative possibilities are to be found in the community. The most rigorous research design generally have found that offenders

eligible for supervision in the community in lieu of incarceration do as well in the community as they do in prison or training school.

When intervening variables are controlled, recidivism rates usually appear to be about the same.

**CHAPTER SIX:**

**SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

# Summary

In summary, this work has focused on evaluating crime control and rehabilitation programs in two Nigerian maximum prisons (Kirikiri Maximum Prison in Lagos and the Kuje Maximum Prison in Abuja). Our intention is to ascertain whether these rehabilitation programs have helped in controlling crime and criminal activities in Nigeria, on one hand, and effective in checking relapse among former inmates of Nigerian prisons. The narrative started with a background that while society agrees that offenders and criminals should be punished, the punishment is generally accepted and supposed not to be punitive but to serve the purposes of correcting, rehabilitating and reforming the offenders while at the same time deterring both the offenders and would-be-future offenders from doing or committing similar offence. To be able to do this, we decided to assess how well the prison systems have worked in Nigeria by critically looking at two maximum prisons. We focused our attention on a total number of 720 inmates (360 from each prison), out of a total of 2,390 inmates (1,662 in Kirikiri made up of 1,342 male and 320 female and 728 inmates in Kuje). A combination of both interview (qualitative), and questionnaire (quantitative) methods of data gathering were utilized and the data gathered were duly analysed. Our findings revealed that majority of the inmates were youth, married and have been to prison more than once, thereby showing a high level of recidivism and the failure of the rehabilitation programs in the Nigerian Prison System from causing relapse. From the interview with the officials of the prison, it was gathered that this may be due to the attitude of the professionals employed by the government to rehabilitate the prisoners. Majority of the prisoners also averred that the prison environment and overcrowding may also be responsible for this. The study therefore concluded that government

will have to revisit its operational method if the level of relapse is to be reduced and the rehabilitation programs are to have positive effect.

# Conclusion

It is the tendency in society to perceive criminals as social deviants in as much as deviance refers to a breach of social order. This notwithstanding, the criminal as a social deviance must be seen and understood within the context of his relationship to specific forms of socioeconomic organizations. This becomes more pertinent especially in a capitalist society, which is ultimately defined by “the process that transforms on one hand, the social means of subsistence and of production into capital, on the other hand the immediate producers into wage labourers” (Marx, 1967, p. 714). The post-colonial state of Nigeria is experiencing a rapid rate of urbanization with all its attendant social, political and economic problems. The post-colonial state is purely and essentially a capitalist state and there are two features of the capitalist state that are essential for an understanding of urban crime. The first is that capitalism as a mode of production forms the foundation or infrastructure of every society. The implication of this is that any analysis and understanding of urban crime must be derive from the understanding of the economic organization of capitalist societies and the impact it has on all aspects of social life. Secondly is that capitalism contains certain inherent contradictions which affect social, political and intellectual activity of the society. It is within these contradictions of capitalism that urban crimes and deviance emerge.

In class societies as engendered by capitalism, the hegemony of the ruling class is preserved by the superstructure through a system of class control institutionalized in the family, religious centers, private associations, media, schools and the state. Thus, the existence of crime and criminal behavior actually threatens and brings to question the social relations of production in

capitalist societies. As Spitzer (1993, p. 143) has pointed out, urban crime not only points out to the inadequacies of the existing social relations in the society but also questions any of the following;

1. Capitalist modes of appropriating the product of human labour (e.g. when the poor steal from the rich)
2. The social conditions under which capitalist production takes place (e.g. those who refuse or are unable to perform wage labour because they couldn’t get one in the first place)
3. Patterns of distribution and consumption in capitalist society (e.g. those who use drugs for escape and transcendence rather than sociability and adjustment)
4. The process of socialization for productive and nonproductive roles (e.g. youth who refuse to be schooled and those who deny the validity of family life) and
5. The ideology which supports the functioning of capitalist society (e.g. proponents of alternative forms of social organisation).

The criminals, therefore, constitute part of what Spitzer (1993) has termed “problem population” and are prevalent in the urban settings. Agara et al (2016), have tried to show from the data available to them (see Table 5.1 below), the fact that crime rates are high in all urban centers primarily because they are the melting pot or the meeting point of all elements of the problem population who have congealed in the urban centers for opportunities to share in or have a part in the wealth of the society.

# Table 5:1 URBAN AND SUB-URBAN CRIME RATES FOR EDO STATE (2005)

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| ***S/N*** | ***Urban Areas*** | ***Crime Rates*** | ***Sub-Urban Areas*** | ***Crime Rates*** |
| 1. | Ekiadolor, Benin | 18 | Abudu | 8 |
| 2. | Airport Road, Benin | 7 | Igueben | 17 |
| 3. | Oba Market, Benin | 26 | Afuze | 24 |
| 4. | Ehor, Benin | 18 | Agenebode | 4 |
| 5. | Uromi, Benin | 70 | Iguobazuwa | 9 |
| 6. | New Benin | 132 | Fugar | 5 |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 7. | Ugbekun, Benin | 123 | Akoko Edo | 8 |
|  | ***Total*** | ***394*** | ***Total*** | ***75*** |

**Source: Agara et al (2016)**

A subclass that is included among the second category of problem population will be those who having had the requisite education are unable to get meaningful employment because the capitalist class and its elites have turn it into rent-seeking and means of securing gratification from the populace. This particular educated and schooled class has congregated naturally in urban centers in the hope of securing jobs and denial or non-availability of this has led many into crimes. Among the crime they are notable for are armed robbery, kidnapping and false pretence (419). However, because of the threat of possible reprisals and loss of life, threats against the victims, many of these peculiar cases go unreported partly due also to the inability of the police to do anything about them.

Although marginal employment and chronic joblessness may be more illustrative of current trends in urban labour markets (Bluestone and Harrison 1982; Moore and Larramore 1990; Rubin 1995; Wilson 1996; Wilson, Tienda and Wu 1995), however, changes in urban employment may result in a greater need for informal, and possibly illegitimate, sources of income (Allan and Steffensmeier 1989; Freeman 1997; Skinner 1995; Tilly 1991, 1992; Wilson 1996). So these unemployed urban population is actually symptomatic of a problem population created in two ways; “either directly through the expression of fundamental contradictions in the capitalist mode of production or indirectly through disturbances in the system of class rule” (Spitzer, 1993, p. 143). Marx’s (1967, p. 631) analysis of the “relative surplus population” is of great relevance here because the emergence of this surplus population but educated class has led to the emergence of a

class of economically redundant population that is ever increasing every year given the number of tertiary institutions that are in the country. Insofar as the conditions of economic existence determine social existence, this group therefore posits a class that is both threatening and vulnerable at the same time. The paradox here is that this certain but increasing population is both useful and menacing to the accumulation of capital. This particular class which belongs to the educated elites of the society and a necessary product of and condition for the accumulation of wealth on a capitalist basis, also creates a form of social expense which must be neutralized or controlled if production relations and conditions for increased accumulation by the bourgeois capitalist element in the society are to remain undisturbed.

We must be quick to reiterate the fact that crime is not exclusive to capitalist societies only, but societies where the few controls and appropriates the resources of the society to the exclusion of the many can only breed anger, resentment and crime. The capitalist society is well noted for alienating its own people by denying them access to basic human needs. Marx has identified four main characteristics of alienation: man’s alienation from nature, from himself, from his specie being and from other men. This alienation has therefore made available a ready ‘battalion, troops and foot soldiers’ who are ready for anything and anywhere and to whom crime has become a way of life, sustenance and existence. The major concentration of these boys is in the urban centers such as Lagos and Warri (where they are called ‘area boys’), Port Harcourt (where they are called ‘ofio boys’), Ile-Ife (where they are referred to as ‘omo-ita’), Calabar (where they are popularly known as ‘agaba boys’) and in Kano (where they are called ‘yandaba’). Amuta (2000, p. 12) has also rightly observed that;

The existence of vast reservoirs of unemployed miscreant youth has led to the unconscious recognition of an underground

republic in the country. It is called the republic of hoodlums, a reservoir of almost limitless supply of hungry, angry, willing and able fighters for murky causes. It is from this army that the various ethnic militias are drawing their cadres.

Given this scenario, what to do become of great importance. The effectiveness of any law as a social inhibitor of corruption rests on the effectiveness of its monitoring, the swiftness and harshness of the punishment. Despite Barnes (1930, p. 6) submission that “history shows that severe punishments have never reduced criminality to a marked degree” the Nigerian experience under Murtala and Buhari belied this proposition. Implicit in the philosophical consideration or justification of punishment are the twin issue of morality and free will and the intentionality. The issue of free will or freedom of the will in philosophical discourses is rather vague, an ambiguous metaphysical notion. The issue assumed a prominence mainly because in conventional law and morality, responsibility is defined in terms of free will and punishment or blame is justified solely on this basis. Immanuel Kant, the famous German Philosopher, has argued, rather erroneously, that morality would be impossible if free will or freedom of the will were non-existent. We believe that what would have been impossible without free will is blame and punishment not morality because most law recognizes that a person may not be criminally responsible for an act which occurs independently of the exercise of his will or which he did under duress. Thus, a person, as Oruka (1976:11) bluntly puts it, “is criminally responsible for a crime if in committing or allowing the crime, his action was intentional and avoidable”. The notion of intentionality is of two fold. First is the intention of the authorities inflicting the punishment and the intention which the punishment is expected to serve. The intention of the authorities inflicting the punishment has nothing to do here mainly because it is assumed that it is the law that punishes only through its agents. Thus, the law does not concern itself with the intention or the psychological motives of its agents. What the law concerns itself about is upholding justice. No matter how much or hard criminals are punished

in order to deter them or others, unlike the underlying contradictory relations of the capitalist society is solved, crime seems to be a permanent feature of the horizon.

# 5.3 Recommendations

Our recommendations are derived primarily from what we noticed when we visited the two prisons for fact-findings and majorly from the interview conducted with the officials of the two prisons. We perceived the six (6) officials interview as authorities because between them they have put in a total of 64 years in the service of the Prison system in Nigeria, hence we took their suggestions seriously. Among the facts that we could gleaned from their responses and which we took as part of our recommendation are that;

1. Proper funding of the prisons, to help revive their ailing workshop and industries for proper rehabilitation.
2. Qualified professionals should be recruited for adequate rehabilitation of inmates.
3. Government should attempt to provide jobs for inmate after their serving jail term in order to discourage joblessness which serves as one of the reasons for relapse.
4. Government should build rehabilitation villages for discharge persons before final reintegration back into the soceity.
5. Public enlightenment has to be done to educate the public that prison is not the best place for their wards.
6. Ex-Convicted should be politically accommodated, that is, have the right to vote and be voted for

# References

Adetula, G.A; Adetula, A., and Fatusin, A. F. (2010). *The Prison Subsystem Culture: Its Attitudinal Effects on Operatives, Convicts and the Free Society*. *Ife Psychologia*. 18(1): 232-251

Afanasyev, L. (1974): *The Political Economy of Capitalism,* Moscow, Progress Publishers. Agara, Tunde (1997); Problems in the Sociological Analysis of Deviance among Students in

Tertiary Institutions: Implications for Counseling. *Journal of Educational Research and Development,* vol.1,

Agara, Tunde, Chizea, Bonaventure and Oarhe, Osumah (2016). When Works Disappear, Crime Appears: A Political Economy Analysis of Urban Crime in Edo State, Nigeria. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences and Humanities,* vol. 2, no. 4, 2016.

Agara, Tunde (2019). African Pentecostalism and Millennium Development Goals: A Case for a viable Corporate Social Responsibility. Paper presented at the International Conference on African Pentecostalism (ICAP, 2019) on *African Pentecostalism: Civic Roles and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR),* organised by the Redeemed Christian Bible College RCBC) in conjunction with the Department of Religious Studies, University of Ibadan, and the Redeemer’s University, Ede, on 16-18 July.

Agnew, R.(1999); A General Strain Theory of Community Differencesin Crime Rates.

*Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 36: 123-55.

Agnew, R. (1992); Foundation for a General Strain Theory of Crime and Delinquency.

*Criminology* 30: 47-87.

Ake, C. (1981): *A Political Economy of Africa,* Longman, England

Amin, S. (1974): *Accumulation on a World Scale: A Critique of the Theory of Underdevelopment,* London, Monthly Review Press.

Amuta, C. (2000): “Ethnic Militias and National Security” *THISDAY,* 28th July, Andenaes, J. (1974). *Punishment and Deterrence.* Ann Arbor, Univ. of Michigan Press. Andenaes, J. (1974). Deterrence and Specific Offenses. In Andenaes, J. *Punishment and*

*Deterrence.* Ann Arbor, Univ. of Michigan Press.

Andenaes, J. (1965). The General Preventive Effects of Punishment. *University of Pennsylvania Law Review*, 114

Arrighi, G. and Saul, J.S. (eds.) (1973): *Essays in the Political Economy of Africa* London, Monthly Review Press.

Asokhia, M. O., and Agbonluae, O. O. (2013) *Assessment of Rehabilitation Services in Nigeria Prison in Edo State. American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, Vol. 3

(1): 224-231

Barlow, H.D. (1984). *Introduction to Criminology,* 3rd ed. Boston, Little, Brown and Coy. Barnes, H.E. (1930): *The Story of Punishment,* England, Strafford Co.

Bartol, C.R. (1995); *Criminal Behavior: A Psychosocial Approach.* Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall. Becker, H.S. (1969). *The Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance.* New York, Free Press Bentham, J. (1948). *The Principles of Morals and Legistions.* New York, Hafner Publishing

Bittner, E. And Platt, M. (1966). The Meaning of Punishment. *Issues in Criminology,* 2.

Bluestone, B. and Harrison, B. (1982); *The Deindustrialization of America*. New York: Basic Books. Bohm, R.M. (1993); Radical Criminology: An Explication, in Pontell, H.N. (ed), *Social*

*Deviance: Readings in Theory and Research,* Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall. Brezina, T. (1996); Adapting to Strain: An Examination of DelinquentCoping Responses.

*Criminology* 34: 39-60.

Chambliss, W.J. (1967). Types of Deviance and the Effectiveness of Legal Sanctions. *Wisconsin Law Review*

Chambliss, W.J. (1969). *Crime and the Legal Process.* New York, McGraw Hill. Chapman, D. (1968). *Sociology and the Stereotype of the Criminal.* London, Tavistock

Clinard, M.B. and Abbot, D. (1973): *Crime in Developing Countries,* New York, John Wiley and Sons

Cloward, R. and Ohlin, L.(1961); *Delinquency and Opportunity*. New York: Free Press. Cohen, A. (1955); *Delinquent Boys: The Culture of Gangs*. New York: Free Press.

Colvin, M. and Pauly, J. (1983); A Critique of Criminology: Toward an Integrated Structural- Marxist Theory of Delinquency Production. *American Journal of Sociology* 89:513-51.

Conrad, J. (1975). We Should Never have promised a Hospital. *Federal Probation.*

Crewe B, Liebling A, Hulley S and McLean C (2011) Prisoner quality of life in public and private prisons.

Cullen, F.T., and Gendreau, P. (2000). *Assessing correctional rehabilitation: Policy, practice, and a. prospects. In J. Horney* (ed.), Criminal Justice 2000, Volume 3: Policies, Processes, and Decisions of the Criminal Justice System, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice. NCJ 182410.

Chambliss, W. J. (1967). Types of Deviance and the Effectiveness of Legal Sanctions. *Wisconsin Law Review*, 703-719.

Davidson, R. (1965). The Promiscuous Fine. *Criminal Law Quarterly,* 8 Durkheim, E. (1964). *The Division of Labour in Society.* New York, Free Press.

Ezorsky, G. (1972). *Philosophical Perspectives on Punishment.* Albany, State Univ. of New York Press

Farkas A, M. (1999) *Correctional Officer Attitudes toward Inmates and working with Inmates in a “get*a. tough” *Era Journal of Criminal Justice* Volume 27, Issue 6, November-December

Farkas, M. A. (1995). *Correctional Officer Types: Dimensions, Relationships, and Sources.*

Unpublished a. Doctoral Dissertation, College of Social Science, Michigan State University, Michigan.

Findlay, M. (1999); *The Globalisation of Crime: Understanding Transitional Relationships in Context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frank, A.G. (1981): *Crisis: In the Third World,* London, Heinemann

Gatotoh, A. M., Omulema, P. E., and Dankitt, N. (2011) Correctional Attitudes: An Impetus for

a Paradigm Shift in Inmate Rehabilitation. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science,* Vol. 1 (4):

Gibbs, J.P. (1975). *Crime, Punishment and Deterrence.* New York, Elsevier

Goffman, E. (1963). *Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice Hall

Grupp, S.E. (ed.) (1971). *Theories of Punishment.* Bloomington, Indiana Univ. Press Hepburn, J.R. (1987). The Prison Control Structure and its Effect on Work Attitudes: The

Perceptions and Attitudes of Prison Guards. *Journal of Criminal Justice* 15

Greenberg, D. F. (1993); *Crime and Capitalism: Readings in Marxist Criminology*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Hagan, J. (1994); *Crime and Disrepute*. Thousand Oaks: Pine Forge Press.

Hagan, J. (1992); The Poverty of a Classless Criminology - *The American Society of Criminology* 30: 1-19.

Hart, H. (1968): *Punishment and Responsibility,* Oxford, England, Oxford Univ. Press. Hawkins, G. (1976). *The Prison: Policy and Practice.* Chicago, Univ. of Chicago Press Ilyin, S. and Motylev, A. (1986): *What is Political Economy?,* Moscow, Progress Publishers.

Jeffrey, R. (1962). Criminal Justice and Social Change. In James Davis et al (eds.), *Society and the Law,* New York, Free Press

Jeffrey, C.R. (1977). *Crime Prevention through Environmental Design.* Beverly Hills, Calif. Sage.

Jurik, N.M and Musheno, M (1996). The Internal Crisis of Corrections: Professionalization and the Work Environment. *Justice Quarterly* 3: 45780

Kasarda, J. and Janowitz, M. (1975); Community Attachment in Mass Society. *American Sociological Review* 39

Keller, R.L. (1976); A Sociological Analysis of the Conflict and Critical Criminologies. Ph.D Dissertation, University of Montana, as quoted in Bohm, R.M. (1993); Radical Criminology: An Explication, in Pontell, H.N. (ed), *Social Deviance: Readings in Theory and Research,* Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall

Klapmuts, N. (1977). Community Alternatives to Prison. In Robert G. Leger and John R. Stratton (eds.), *The Sociology of Corrections: A Book Readings.* New York, Wiley

Kolind. T, Frank V.A, Dahl. H, (2010). Drug Treatment or Alleviating the Negative Consequences of an Imprisonment? A Critical View of Prison based Drug Treatment in Denmark. Volume 21, Issue 1, Pages 43-48 (January 2010)

Korn, R.D. and McCorkle, L. (1957). *Criminology and Penology.* New York, Holt. Kornhauser, R. (1978); *Social Sources of Delinquency*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. LaFree, G. (1999); Declining Violent Crime Rates in the 1990s: Predicting Crime Booms and

Busts. *Annual Review of Sociology* 25: 145-168.

Land, K. C., P. L. McCall, and L. E. Cohen. (1990); Structural Covariates of Homicide rates: Are there any Invariances Across Time and Social Space? *American Journal of Sociology* 95

Lariviere, M. (2001) Antecedents and Outcomes of Correctional Officer Attitudes towards Federal Inmates: An exploration of Person-Organization Fit. (Unpublished doctoral thesis).Ottawa,On:Carleton University

Lee, M. R. (2000); Concentrated Poverty, Race, and Homicide.*Sociological Quarterly* 41 Lipton, D., Martinson, R., and Wilks, J. ( 1975). *The Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment: A*

*Survey of Treatment Evaluation Strategies*. New York: Praeger.

Lynch, M. J., Groves, W.B. and Lizotte, A. (1994); The Rate of Surplus Value and Crime: A Theoretical and Empirical Examination of Marxian Economic Theory and Criminology. *Crime, Law and Social Change* 21.

Martinson, R. (1974). What works? Questions and answers about Prison Reform”. *The Public Interest,* 35,

Marwah, S. (2006); *Suburban Crime: The Interplay of Social, Cultural and Opportunity Structures.* New York, LFB Scholarly Publishing LLC.

Marx, K. (1970): *A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy,* Moscow, Progress Publishers.

McCorkle, L., and Korn, R., (1954). Resocialization within Walls. *The Annuals of American Academy of Political Science*, 293 (1): 88-98.

Merton, R. K. (1938); Social Structure and Anomie. *American Sociological Review* 3:

Messner, S. F. and Golden, R.M.(1992); Racial Inequality and Racially Disaggregated Homicide Rates. *Criminology* 30.

Michael, J. and Adler, M. (1933). *Crime, Law and Social Science.* New York, Harcourt Brace.

Newman, G. (1978). *The Punishment Response.* Phil. Lippincott.

Nigerian Prisons Service Manual, (2011). *Nigerian Prisons Service, Abuja, Nigeria*.

Nolan, J. J. III. (2004); Establishing the Statistical Relationship Between Population Size and UCR Crime Rate: Its Impact and Implications. *Journal of Criminal Justice* 32: 547-555.

Obioha, E. E., (1995), *Prison Culture in Nigeria; A Study of Life within Agodi Prison Community, Ibadan. M.Sc Dissertation*, Unpublished. Ibadan: Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan.

Obioha, E. E., (2002). *Punishment in Society.* In: UC IsiugoAbanihe, A.N Isamah , O Adesina ‘Jimi (Eds.): *Currents and Perspectives in Sociology*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited,

Otodo, I. and Ugwuoke, K. A. (2015) *The Role of Formal Education in the Rehabilitation of Prisoners in Nigeria:* A Case Study of Jos Prison, Nigeria. *Journal of Studies in Management and Planning*, Vol. 1 (11): 34-55.

Parker, K.F. (2004); Industrial Shift, Polarized Labor Markets and Urban Violence: Modeling the Dynamics Between the Economic Transformation and Disaggregated Homicide.

*Criminology* 42.

Poole, E., and Regoli, R. (1980). *Role Stress, Custody Orientation and Disciplinary Actions: A Study of Prison Guards. Criminology* 18 [16]

Quinney, R. (1970). *The Problem of Crime.* New York, Dodd, Mead Reckless, W. (1950). *The Crime Problem.* New York, Appleton-Century

Reid, L.W. (2003); *Crime in the City: A Political and Economic Analysis of Urban Crime.* New York, LFB Scholarly Publishing LLC.

Reising, M., and Lovrich, N. (1998). Job attitudes Among Higher – Custody State Prison Management a. Personnel; A Cross – Sectional Comparative Assessment, *Journal of Criminal Justice,* Vol. 26, No 3.

Rodney, W. (1972): *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa,* Tanzania, Tanzania Publishing House. Ross, E.A. (1929). *Social Control.* New York, Macmillan.

Sampson, R. J. and Groves, W.B.(1989); Community Structure and Crime: Testing Social- Disorganization Theory. *American Journal of Sociology* 94.

Schwartz, R.D. and Skolnick, J.A. (1962). Two Studies of Legal Stigma. *Social Problems,* 10. Shaw, C. and McKay, H. (1969); *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas, Revised Edition*.

Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Shaw, C. and McKay, H. (1942); *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Shihadeh, E.S. and Steffensmeier, D.J. (1994); Economic Inequality, Family Disruption, and Urban Black Violence: Cities as Units of Stratification and Social Control. *Social Forces* 73.

Shoham, S. (1970). *The Mark of Cain.* Dobbs Ferry, N.Y. Citadel

Spitzer, S. (1993); Toward a Marxian Theory of Deviance, in Pontell, H.N. (ed), Social Deviance: Readings in Theory and Research, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall.

Stohr, M. K. & Zupan, L. L. (1992). Street-level Bureaucrats and Service Provision in Jails: The Failure of Officers to Identify the Needs of Inmates. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, Volume XVI, Number 2.

Sutherland, E.H. and Cressey, D.R. (1974). *Criminology,* 4th ed. Philadelphia, Lippincott. Sykes, G.M. (1958). *The Society of Captives.* Princeton, N.J., Princeton Univ. Press.

Tanimu, B. (2010). Nigeria Convicts and Prison Rehabilitation Ideals. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa.* (Vol. 12 (3)

Taylor, I. (1999) *Crime in Context: A Critical Criminology of Market Societies*. Boulder: Westview Press.

Tenibiaje, D.J. (20100). Counselling For Productive Employment of Prisons Inmate; *European Journal of Educational Studies* 2(3),

Toch, H. (1977). *Police, Prisons, and the Problems of Violence.* Rockville, Md., National Institute of Mental Hospital.

Turk, A.T. (1969). *Criminality and Legal Order.* Chicago, Rand McNally

Ugwuoke, K. A. (2013) *Release from prison and Reintegration of Prisoners: A case study of Akwa-Ibom state*. An unpublished MSc thesis submitted to the Postgraduate School, University of Uyo, Nigeria.

Ugwuoke, K. A. (2015) *Nigerian Prisons: A Recycling Industry or Garbage Bin.* Daily Trust, [www.dailytrust.com/letters](http://www.dailytrust.com/letters)

Vold, G.B. (1958), *Theoretical Criminology,* New York, Oxford Univ. Press.

Waldo, G.P. and Chiricos, T.G. (1972). Perceived Legal Sanctions and Self-Reported Criminality: A Neglected Approach to DeterrenceResearch. *Social Problems,* 19

Waldo, G.P and Chiricos, T.G. (1970). Punishment and Crime: An Evaluation of Some Empirical Evidence. *Social Problems,* 18.

Wallace, D. and Humphries, D. (1993); Urban Crime and Capitalist Accumulation, 1950-1971. in D. Greenberg (ed.) *Crime and Capitalism: Readings in Marxist Criminology*.

Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Williams, G. (ed.) (1976): *Nigeria: Economy and Society,* London, Rex Collins. Wright, K. N. (1981); *Crime and Criminal Justice in a Declining Economy*. Cambridge:

Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain Publishers.

Zhang, .J, Liang. B, Zhou. Y, Brame. W. (2009) *Prison Inmates’ Suicidal Ideation in China: A Study of Gender Differences and Their Impact,* Published online before print September 30, 2009, doi: 10.1177/0306624X09348200 Int J Offender Ther Comp Criminol December 2010 vol. 54 no. 6 959-983.

Zimring, F.E. and Hawkins, G.J. (1973). *Deterrence: The Legal Threat in Crime Control.* Chicago, Univ. of Chicago Press.

**APPENDIX I**

**TABLE 1: YEAR AND WHO BUILT THE PRISON**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **ADAMAWA STATE PRISON** | **YEAR** | **BUILT BY WHICH AUTHORITY** |
| Ganye | 1960 | Native Authority |
| Jada | 1930 | Native Authority |
| Jimeta | 1938 | Native Authority |
| Numan | 1953 | Native Authority |
| Micheka | 1932 | Native Authority |
| Yola central | 1914 | Native Authority |
| **Bauchi state** |  |  |
| Azare | 1916 | Native Authority |
| Bauchi | 1820 | Native Authority |
| Medium Security Prison Jama are | 1996 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Ningi | 1827 | Native Authority |
| Misua | 1831 | Native Authority |
| **Borno State** |  |  |
| Bama | 1942 | Native Authority |
| Biu | 1912 | Native Authority |
| Gwoza | 1946 | Native Authority |
| Maidugari Farm | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Maidugari New | 1952 | Native Authority |
| Maidugari | 1992 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Gombe State** |  |  |
| Bajoga | 2000 | Government of Nigeria |
| Gombe | 1919 | Native Authority |
| Tula | 1932 | Native Authority |
| Taraba state |  |  |
| Gembu | 1946 | Native Authority |
| Jalingo | 1912 | Native Authority |
| Serti | 1961 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Wukari | 1992 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Yobe state** |  |  |
| Nashua | 1925 | Native Authority |
| Nguru | Nil |  |
| Postiskum | 1988 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Jigawa state** |  |  |
| Kazaure | 1908 | Colonial Government |
| Prison Farm, Benin Gudu | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Kaduna State** |  |  |
| Makarfi | 1918 | Colonial government |
| Kujama prison farm central | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Binin Gwari | 1958 | Colonial Government |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Kaduna prison | 2002 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Bostal Training institute Kadana | 1962 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Zaria Prison Kaduna | 1903 | Colonial Government |
| Ikara | 1979 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Convict prison Kaduna | 1915 | Colonial government |
| Kafanchan | 1933 | Colonial government |
| **Kastina State** |  |  |
| Kastina prison | 1918 | Colonial government |
| Funtua | 2003 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Kebbi State** |  |  |
| Zuru prison | 1927 | Colonial government |
| Brinin Kebbi old | 1912 | Colonial government |
| Medium security Kebbi new | 1991 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Argungu | 1988 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Yelwa Yauri | 1960 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Sokoto State** |  |  |
| Sokoto Central | 1908 | Native Authority |
| Bislam Farm |  |  |
| **Zamfara State** |  |  |
| Gusua | 1993 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Kano State** |  |  |
| Kano central | 1910 | Colonial Government |
| Wudil Divisional prison | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Goron Dutse prison | 1935 | Colonial Government |
| **North central** |  |  |
| **Niger State** |  |  |
| Agaie | 1932 | Native Authority |
| Bida | 1887 | Native Authority |
| Kagara | 1887 | Native Authority |
| Lapai Prison | 1952 | Native Authority |
| New Bussa | 1968 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Nasarawa State** |  |  |
| Keffi prison | 1930 | Native Authority |
| Lafia prison | 1977 | Native Authority |
| Nasarawa prison | 1912 | Native Authority |
| Wamba prison | 1919 | Native Authority |
| **Kwara State** |  |  |
| Ilorin State | 1914 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Lafiagi prison Farm | 1966 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Kogi state** |  |  |
| Ankpa Prison | 1915 | Native Authority |
| Dekina prison | 1916 | Native Authority |
| Idah prison | 1901 | Native Authority |
| Kabba Prison | 1945 | Native Authority |
| Icoton-Karfe | 1933 | Native Authority |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Medium Security Okene | 2007 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Plateau State** |  |  |
| Lantang prison | 1979 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Jos prisons | 1936 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Hakushi Farm | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Jos prison | 1936 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Shendam prison | 1933 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Wase prison | 1933 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Benue State** |  |  |
| Gboko prison | 1932 | Native Authority |
| Makurdi | 2001 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Otukpo | 1929 | Native Authority |
| **FCT Abuja** |  |  |
| Kuje | 1944 | Colonial Government |
| Suleja | 1989 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Abia State** |  |  |
| Umuahia | 1913 | Colonial Government |
| Aba prison | 1911 | Colonial government |
| **Eboyin State** |  |  |
| Abakaliki | 1946 | Colonial Government |
| Afikpo | 1911 | Colonial government |
| **Enugu State** |  |  |
| Enugu prison | 1924 | Colonial government |
| Orji river | 1992 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **Imo state** |  |  |
| Owerri | 1920 | Colonial government |
| Okigwe | 1913 | Colonial government |
| **Anambra state** |  |  |
| Onitsha | 1915 | Colonial government |
| Awka | 1904 | Colonial government |
| Orreh Farm | 1992 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Arochuku | 1901 | Colonial government |
| Ibite-olo | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| **South-West** |  |  |
| Kirikiri Female | 1963 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Kirikiri Medium | 1954 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Ikoyi Prison | 1961 | Native Authority |
| Badagry | 1838 | Native Authority |
| Shagamu | 1938 | Native Authority |
| Ilaro | 1938 | Colonial government |
| Ado Ekiti | 1929 | Colonial government |
| Owo | 1910 | Colonial government |
| Okitipupa | 1935 | Native Authority |
| Agodi | 1895 | Colonial government |
| Oyo | 2007 | Federal government of Nigeria |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Ilesha | 1920 | Colonial government |
| **Ondo State** |  |  |
| Ondo Prison | 1910 | Colonial government |
| Ile Ife | Rebuilt 2001 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Abeokota Borstak Institute | 1984 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Abeokuta Ijebu-Ode | 1925 | Colonial Government |
| **South-South** |  |  |
| **Akwa Ibom State** |  |  |
| Abak | 1926 | Colonial government |
| Eket | 1902 | Colonial government |
| Ikot Ekpene | 1955 | Colonial government |
| Uyo | 1956 | Colonial government |
| **Cross river state** |  |  |
| Ikom | 1926 | Colonial government |
| Obubra | 1928 | Colonial government |
| Ogoja | 1928 | Colonial government |
| Obudu | 1914 | Colonial government |
| Calabar | 1918 | Colonial government |
| **Delta State** |  |  |
| Agbor | 1909 | Colonial government |
| Kwale | 1920 | Colonial government |
| Ogwashiuku | 2007 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Sapele | 1909 | Colonial government |
| Warri | 1880 | Colonial government |
| **Edo State** |  |  |
| Auchi | 1922 | Colonial government |
| Benin city | 1908 | Colonial government |
| Oko Medium | 1988 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Ogba | 1945 | Colonial government |
| Ozalla | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Ubiaja | 1920 | Colonial government |
| **Rivers state** |  |  |
| Ahoadu | 1910 | Colonial government |
| Elele | 1976 | Federal government of Nigeria |
| Port Harcourt | 1918 | Colonial government |

**SOURCE: Field Work**

**APPENDIX II**

**DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY OKADA, EDO STATE**

# Questionnaire

Dear Respondent

This questionnaire is aimed at investigating some welfare issues relating to the inmates and purely for academic work. The information supplied would be treated with total confidentiality, therefore do not put your name or any personal mark with which it can be traced to you. Please note that you can opt out this study at any time you so desire.

Thanking you in anticipation of your acceptance and sincere response.

**EZEAJUCHU, MARY CHUKWUAGOZI**

Please tick/fill as appropriate

1. Age: 2. Sex: M F

3. State of origin: 4. Religion:

5. Marital Status: Married Single Divorce Widow/widower

6. No of years served: 7. Years of Jail term

1. Offence convicted for
2. Have you served jail term before this? Yes No
3. If yes, how many times?
4. If yes, where? 12. When?
5. How many are you in the cell?
6. Do you think the cell is overcrowded? Yes No
7. Has the prison rehabilitation programs helped you in any way? Yes No
8. Could the services provided here promote relapse of criminal activities in released inmates? Yes No
9. Do you think the rehabilitation programmes provided strong enough to prevent relapse of criminal activities among released inmates? Yes No
10. Do you think the prisons environment could promote relapse of criminal activities among released inmates? Yes No
11. Would you have preferred going to school than vocational centre if the Nigeria prison services have given you the opportunity? Yes No
12. How can you rate the state of your mental health? Very Stable Unstable Deteriorating

