



A SOUTH AFRICAN MODEL OF COMMUNITY
CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES: A SOCIAL
WORK PERSPECTIVE

by

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PRETORIA



"ONE SIZE DOES NOT FIT ALL"

"He doesn't thresh all grains the same. A sledge is never used on dill, but it is beaten with a stick. A threshing wheel is never rolled on cummin, but it is beaten softly with a flail. Bread grain is easily crushed, so he doesn't keep on pounding it". Isaiah. 28:27-28



DEDICATION

THIS STUDY IS DEDICATED TO THE FOLLOWING PERSONS:

My husband Gerhard for all his moral support, love and encouragement through long years of study

My children Werner, Stephanie, Andreo and Julani for all their love and special understanding

My mother for all her prayers through the years

To all offenders in need of community-based corrections, according to their individual needs



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TO GOD ALL THE GLORY

SOLI DEO GLORIA!

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ABSTRACT

A SOUTH AFRICAN MODEL OF COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES: A SOCIAL WORK PERSPECTIVE

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Prisons are overcrowded because not all the offenders who are in prison, should be in prison. Prisons are for serious criminals. Non-serious offenders can be successfully served in community-based facilities such as community corrections residential centres (CCRCs) and, at the same time, be employed in the community, taking responsibility and being accountable for their own lives. The researcher's view is that sentences should fit the individual offender as well as the crime.

The aim of this study was to investigate community corrections residential centres (CCRCs) and, as an outcome, develop a South African model for CCRCs.

The research design of the study was exploratory and both quantitative and qualitative data gathering methods were used in the study. The qualitative data were gathered during May 2000, in Denver, Colorado where the researcher utilised non-scheduled structured interviews with four CCRC programme directors and one programme director of a day

reporting centre (DRC). This qualitative data provided an international perspective and guidelines with regard to the functioning of CCRCs and DRCs. The quantitative data, gathered by means of a self administered questionnaire to social workers employed by the Department of Correctional Services in all nine provinces, provided clear direction for the establishment of CCRCs in South Africa.

Based on the key findings of the study a model for CCRCs in South Africa was proposed. The proposed South African model is an integrated model, providing for sub models of reintegration, diversion and DRCs and include the following components: Public-private partnerships, managing agencies, community support, selection criteria, accountability, funding, personnel and programmes. The primary recommendation of the study was that the proposed model for CCRCs in South Africa should be adopted by policy makers and politicians and should be implemented and evaluated by various role-players through a phased strategy. The study concluded with specific recommendations to help facilitate this process.

KEY TERMS

Community corrections

Community corrections models

Community corrections residential centre (CCRC)

Day reporting centre (DRC)

Reintegration

Diversion

Offender



Alternative sentencing options

Community corrections programmes

Community corrections partnerships



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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In South Africa, one of the most frequently discussed subjects is that of crime and the crippling effect it has on all South Africans in general. Murder, rape, high-jacking and armed robbery are the order of the day. The South African Crime Pages reflect that *"21 000 people were murdered in S.A. last year"*, whilst *"a woman is raped every 23 seconds"* (www.hixnet.co.za/home/kel/sacp.html).

These crime statistics depict South Africa as a very violent society. When innocent citizens personally experience the devastating effects of crime on their lives, they are left with emotional trauma, pain and hatred for the criminals who have a general disrespect for life and personal belongings. Against this background, the ordinary law-abiding citizen wants all criminals behind bars for as long as possible. The reality,

however, is that although offenders participate in pre-release programmes in prison before their being released on parole, this does not adequately prepare them for meaningful reintegration into society after having been in prison for a long time. To safeguard the community from further harm, these offenders need specialised programmes in a facility between prison and home so that effective rehabilitation can take its course. If this is true for the so-called "*hardened criminal*", then it becomes essential to find an appropriate punishment for the petty offender other than prison with its subsequent reintegration problems. The question is, whether the community can really expect petty offenders, first time offenders and non-violent offenders to receive the same type of punishment as violent and hardened criminals. The researcher is of the opinion that, in this context, "*one size does not fit all*". This is to say that the punishment should fit the crime and the individual offender. Therefore, by giving non-violent offenders the opportunity to serve their sentence in the community, rather than in prison, they will most probably have a better chance of being rehabilitated and, at the same time, to be proactively protected from becoming hardened criminals. This emphasis calls for clarity on the role of the

community with regard to crime and appropriate punishment and/or sentencing options.

Society expects the State to safeguard its citizens from criminal harm. If the crime statistics are taken into account, it is clear that solving crime cannot be the sole responsibility of the State, police, courts and the criminal justice system. To curb the violence and crime in South Africa, the community should not only be an important role-player in reporting and preventing crime, but also, along with other role-players, in taking co-responsibility for the rehabilitation and reintegration of the offender into society.

It is against this background that the focus of this study is on community corrections. The research study aims, as an outcome, to develop a South African model of community corrections residential centres, where, through specialised programmes in the form of alternative sentencing options, non-violent offenders can receive a second chance in life to rehabilitate themselves.

This chapter serves as a general introduction to the study. It contains the motivation for the study; the problem statement; a brief overview of the research methodology utilised for the study; the ethical issues; the definition of key concepts; the

limitations of the study; and finally, the contents of the research report.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE CHOICE OF SUBJECT

Van der Westhuizen (1997:115) concluded in her study of *"Halfway house facilities for offenders in Gauteng Province: a social work perspective"*, that a definite need exists for the establishment of halfway houses for offenders. The present study is thus an extension of the earlier study.

Three factors contributed to the researcher's motivation to pursue this research study, namely:

- international trends;
- South African welfare policy; as well as
- personal motivation

1.2.1 International trends

The traditional *"halfway houses"* focussed on residential services without formal programmes. The scope of halfway houses, however, has developed over the years to include broader purposes than merely *"halfway-in"* and *"halfway-out"* houses. Likewise, the International Halfway House Association has changed its name to mirror the broader purposes, as well

as the clients served by residential programmes. Their present name is "*The International Association of Residential and Community Alternatives*" which paved the way for the concept of "*Community Corrections Residential Centres*" (CCRCs).

Latessa and Travis III (1992:177) highlight the following about the future of CCRCs that evolved from the traditional halfway houses:

- The development into *multiservice agencies*.
- Continuation in growth and programme development.
- The primary role of the private sector in the future growth and management of residential correctional programmes. The private sector's delivery of more cost-effective services is the reason for its adoption of the CCRC concept.

In 1990 the Federal Bureau of Prisons, U.S. Department of Justice, already had 279 contracts with private and public agencies, to deliver services at CCRCs. The use of CCRCs is, according to Quinlan (1990:79), in accordance with the Bureau of Prisons' policy, namely to send offenders to "*the least restrictive, yet accountable facility that is required*".

To verify this international trend, the researcher did an extensive search on the Internet. The web sites of Missouri

State Government, International Community Corrections Association, and St. Leonard's Society of London: Residential, confirmed that an expansion of CCRCs has taken place. It is against this background that this study adopted the concept "*community corrections residential centres*" (CCRCs) as opposed to the concept of "*halfway houses*". In the opinion of the researcher, CCRCs include centres managed by the private sector, as well as those managed by the Department of Correctional Services. The term "*community corrections*" identifies itself with a correctional mission because

- (a) only offender populations are served at the CCRC in the community, and
- (b) it includes specialised rehabilitation programmes and shows a partnership between corrections and the community.

1.2.2 Welfare Policy

A second motivation stems from welfare policy in South Africa.

The establishment of CCRCs is in accordance with the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). Guidelines for a welfare

strategy address, amongst others, the following aspects relating to offenders and alleged offenders:

"Employment programmes, skills training and retraining opportunities for ex-offenders will be developed, as well as halfway houses and community-based temporary shelter arrangements. Institutionalisation will be a last resort. Only offenders who pose a serious threat to society should be imprisoned. Alternative forms of sentencing will be considered" (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997:84).

Despite this intent, CCRCs are not yet in place in South Africa. In fact, institutionalisation is still very much a reality and is not utilised only as *"a last resort"*.

1.2.3 Personal Motivation

The third factor stems from the researcher's personal motivation.

When the researcher was doing her honours degree in social work, her field placement for group work was at Pretoria Central Women's Prison. During the group work sessions the women discussed their anxiety about being released from prison with no money and no place to stay. It was at this point in time that the idea of establishing CCRCs for offenders was

born within the researcher. In addition, the researcher was also a religious worker in the Pretoria Central Women's Prison for four years. This further motivated her to do something to help this group of women with their special needs.

The researcher's Masters degree explored the subject of "*halfway houses*" as mentioned earlier, and the present study is a step forward in that direction with a focus on CCRCs. The research report is available in the library of the Department of Correctional Services in Pretoria and the results have already been utilised by various persons in the Department of Correctional Services. Mr H. Bruyn, the former Commissioner of the Department of Correctional Services, personally requested a copy of the research report. Mr E. Kriek (2002) informed the researcher telephonically that he was under the impression that certain officials in the Department of Correctional Services consulted the said report prior to the pre-release centre's establishment in Devon, Gauteng Province. The Department of Correctional Services regarded the establishment of CCRCs as a matter of priority in 1998. A letter dated 3 February 1999 was sent to the researcher by Dr. A.L Hlongwane, director of community corrections, in which he stated that the letter "*serves to confirm that the Department of Correctional Services is forging ahead with the*

implementation of halfway houses in South Africa". He also stated in the same letter that the Department of Correctional Services was sending an investigation team on a study tour to Georgia in the U.S.A. This was to "*observe the functioning and operation of the private/state halfway houses in order to obtain a model for the implementation of halfway houses in South Africa, as a matter of high priority*". (Appendix A contains a copy of the letter.) After their visit to Georgia certain documents were supplied to the researcher regarding the pre-release model which are managed in Georgia by the Department of Correctional Services. It is based on this model that the South African Department of Correctional Services is currently managing the first pre-release centre which was opened in South Africa early in 2002, in Devon, Gauteng Province.

1.3 FORMULATING THE PROBLEM

During 1998 when the researcher submitted the proposal for this study, no systems were in place in South Africa catering solely for offenders who are without any support systems on their release from prison. However, in the early 1970s a few "*halfway houses*" operated under the auspices of the National Institute for Crime Prevention of offenders (NICRO). The researcher was unable to obtain more information on these

"halfway houses" from Mr L. Muntingh (Deputy Executive Director) of NICRO. He referred the researcher to Dr. Graser who is presently the co-ordinator of post-graduate programmes in Probation and Correctional Practice at the Department of Social Development, University of Cape Town.

In a telephonic interview with Dr. Graser (8 November, 2002), he confirmed the existence of *"halfway houses"* in the early 1970s in Durban, Port Elizabeth, Cape Town, Pretoria and Johannesburg and that he had been the National Director of NICRO at that time.

According to Graser, these *"halfway houses"* catered mainly for eight to ten ex-offenders or parolees at one centre. Social workers at NICRO counselled these offenders, helping them with employment, other accommodation and reintegration with their families.

Within the context of this study, it was important for the researcher to know why these centres were closed down. In addition, the researcher was surprised to realise that high profile officials of the current Department of Correctional Services (Community Corrections) had no knowledge of *"halfway houses"* ever having existed in South Africa.

In the absence of documentation, Graser shed some light on explaining why these "*halfway houses*" had closed down (telephonic interview, 8 November, 2002). He informed the researcher that although there had been a partnership between the Department of Correctional Services and NICRO, it was merely on paper. Secondly, Graser expressed his conviction that politics played a major role, in that the then Department of Correctional Services experienced NICRO as being too liberal and posing a threat. Consequently, the said Department made insufficient referrals (cases) to NICRO to keep the "*halfway houses*" open.

This information provides clear lessons to be noted, within the context of this study. The importance of partnerships and political commitment stand out as key elements for the establishment of sustainable CCRCs.

This same challenge is posed to the pre-release centre, which opened in Devon, Gauteng Province, on 7 March 2002 with accommodation for 600 sentenced offenders. The researcher requested to visit the centre but the project was in the initial phase and the Department of Correctional Services was not yet ready to receive visitors. This centre caters solely for pre-release offenders. The centre only receives offenders from prison and not from the courts or other referral

agencies, according to the Draft Policy Document of the Department of Correctional Services (undated: 2). This initiative is a very positive step towards the reintegration of offenders into the community. However, this centre is for sentenced offenders who are not yet released on parole. This constitutes only one alternative model of the reintegration model for CCRCs and what South Africa needs are more alternative sentencing options where qualifying offenders can serve their sentences in CCRCs in the community.

During 2001, Mr H.A. Coetzee (Assistant Head, Community Corrections, Pretoria) informed the researcher in a personal interview that a new centre, POPUP, was being utilised for offenders. POPUP functions under the auspices of the Doxa Deo church group in Pretoria. The researcher visited the POPUP centre and although it has various programmes, it caters primarily for homeless people from the streets. This centre is therefore not suitable for the specialised needs of the offender. In addition, supervision does not take place 24-hours per day.

Van der Westhuizen (1997:116) concluded in her study that the existing care centres, mostly for homeless people, neither fulfil the needs of offenders for various reasons nor are they willing to serve and promote offenders only. However, the

CCRC concept that is investigated in this study, does not focus solely on finding a home for the offender. As already indicated, CCRCs would serve as a sentencing option for offenders and, in addition, accommodate parolees for rehabilitation, especially in the case of parole violators, who, in South Africa, would normally be sent back to prison for technical violations. The need for such centres is even more critical if offenders are unexpectedly released because of the overcrowding of South African prisons.

Prisons are so overpopulated in South Africa that the Cabinet agreed in 2000 to set free 18 000 offenders. This process started on Monday 17 September 2000 when 11 000 awaiting-trial prisoners were released. The next group of 7 000 prisoners, who were due for early parole nine months before their parole date, were released at the beginning of October 2000 (Saturday Star, 2000). Society should be protected against such decisions, because offenders, who are not rehabilitated for reintegration into society, pose a threat to society. In a personal interview with Mr H. A. Coetzee (2001) (Assistant Head of Community Corrections, Pretoria), he stated that due to this early release, proper pre-release programmes with the offenders were not possible. The researcher agrees with Mr H.A. Coetzee who stated that this

is not sound policy and a wide range of CCRCs is urgently required in South Africa to counteract the problem of overpopulated prisons. In line with international research, the researcher affirms that incarceration should only be for the most violent type of offenders, in the interests of public safety. However, treatment of non-violent, first, and petty offenders can take place in the community, as already mentioned in this chapter, provided they are in need of a CCRC facility. In essence, this is to assert that more alternative measures are needed in the criminal justice system.

In the Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, (1999:vii) Mr T.E. Nxumalo is of the opinion that the overcrowding of prisons "*remains the single most important challenge facing the Department*". This is, however, not only a tendency in South Africa, but is also a world-wide phenomenon.

Msimang (2000) quoted the former president of the South African Prisoner's Organisation for Human Rights (SAPOHR) who stated that 50 000 prisoners could easily be dealt with by placing them under alternative forms of correctional supervision. The suggestion of this organisation included the following: "*placing petty offenders, most of whom are serving time for offences like theft, fraud and shoplifting, on support*

structures like community service, house arrest and under a monitoring programme in a halfway house”.

It is against this background that this study enquires into various options of alternative forms of sentencing in a community context. The researcher is of the opinion that more measures are needed in the criminal justice system to meet the individual needs of offenders. Consequently, the specific focus of the study is on CCRCs as -

- alternative sentencing options in the community as opposed to straight imprisonment
- pre-release centres where prisoners can be rehabilitated before they are paroled into the community.

It has already been mentioned that community corrections residential centres are necessary to bring relief to the overcrowded prisons. However, the primary reason should be rehabilitation and reintegration into society. Incarcerated offenders face many obstacles within themselves and in relation to their environment and if they are not rehabilitated within a caring, supportive environment, they will fall prey to crime again. The following discussion highlights the problems that parolees, as long-term offenders, could encounter.

When the release of the long-term offender takes place on the scheduled parole date, s/he carries a burden of uncertainty about the future. The released offender could experience some of the following problems:

- Alienation from family, friends as well as the community;
- no place of residence; and
- unemployment, with little hope of employment if the high unemployment rate of 29% (Morning Live, SABC 2, 27 March, 2002) in South Africa is taken into consideration.

In comparison to the U.S.A., and in particular Denver, Colorado which the researcher visited, the picture in South Africa is very bleak with regard to employment. At the time of the researcher's visit, the unemployment rate in Denver, Colorado, was less than 4 percent and the demand for jobs was lower than the availability of jobs. This meant that most offenders would find a job within a month of being released from prison.

In South Africa the national Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) will need to be more specifically challenged to find solutions for unemployment.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that both parolees and probationers experience certain problems when

released from prison into the community. However, the Department of Correctional Services also has its own problems with parolees and probationers absconding after they have been released into the community after a prison sentence.

The problem of parolees and probationers absconding is a serious cause for concern for the Department of Correctional Services. (Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, 1998:9).

When long-term offenders are released on parole and probationers are set free into the community, officers of the Department of Correctional Services, (Community Corrections) supervise them. The Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (1998:9) cites the following contributing factors to the absconding of parolees and probationers:

- *unemployment, illiteracy and lack of skills*
- *insufficient release preparation before placement*
- *ignorance and lack of responsibility on the part of the offenders*
- *lack of adequate support and care systems in the community*



- *almost daily change of place of residence of offenders in informal settlements”.*

The aspects discussed above lend evidence to the importance of preparation for release, as well as the need for adequate support systems in the community such as CCRCs. The researcher compiled the statistics regarding the community corrections population according to the Annual Reports of the Department of Correctional Services for the periods December 1998 and 1999 as well as 31 March 2001. It should be noted, however, that the statistics regarding absconders are not for a one year period, but are given as follows:

- For the 1998 period, the statistics are from 1 January 1992 to the end of December 1998.
- For the 1999 period the statistics are from 1 January 1992 to the end of December 1999 (Annual Reports 1998:8, 1999:15 and 2000/01:110).

TABLE 1: COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS POPULATION AS AT 31 DECEMBER 1998, 31 DECEMBER 1999 AND 31 MARCH 2001

Category	Under supervision		Absconders		Total
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
Probationers					
December 1998	9 431	1 399	4 747	363	15 940
December 1999	13 017	1 926	4 184	326	19 453
March 2001	15 317	2 439	4 158	336	22 250
Parolees					
December 1998	20 874	645	18 840	328	40 687
December 1999	22 904	753	18 178	318	42 153
March 2001	26 771	942	16 529	273	44 515

The above Table 1 clearly shows a decrease in the total number of absconders in both the categories of parolees and probationers. This may be due to the fact that absconding is now a punishable offence according to Section 117 (e) of the Correctional Services Act, Act 111 of 1998 (Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, 1999:13). Table 1 shows that the community corrections population has grown

tremendously over the past three years and therefore proper management of this population is essential. CCRCs may be one of the measures needed in the criminal justice system to counteract problems such as absconding.

During a personal interview (2001) with the Assistant Head of Community Corrections, Pretoria, Mr H.A. Coetzee stated that offenders are only allowed to stay in the community with close family members such as mothers, fathers, brothers, sisters, husbands or wives. They must have permanent addresses. However, they do allow older offenders without support systems to stay at missions. If offenders are unable to produce a permanent address with close family members, they have to complete their sentences inside prison without any parole. CCRCs, therefore, may also be the answer to this specific problem of parolees staying inside prison because they do not have permanent addresses.

Recent statistics were received in a letter from Mr J. Engelbrecht (2001) of the Branch Prison Services, regarding prisoners in custody. The figures indicate the total number of offenders incarcerated for a period of two years up to a life sentence, as indicated in Figure 1:

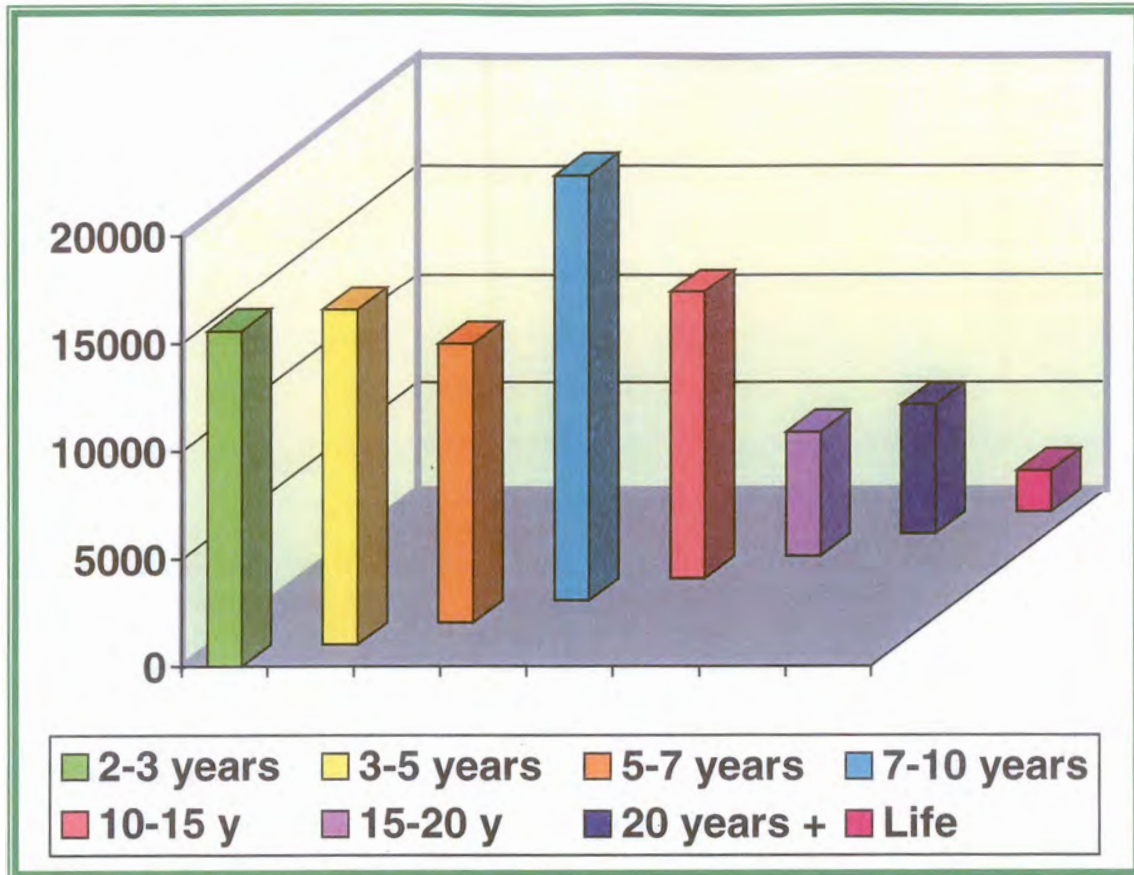


FIGURE 1: PRISON FIGURES: TWO YEARS - LIFE SENTENCE

The researcher would like to draw attention to the 7-10 year group which totals 19 697. Of this total number, Gauteng has the highest number of offenders of the nine regions in the R.S.A., namely 5 310, according to the statistics received from Mr J. Engelbrecht (2001).

It is these long-term sentenced offenders that would have a much better chance of rehabilitation if they could be accommodated in pre-release centres at least six months



before their due parole date, where their needs, problems and the challenges of successful reintegration into society are addressed. Sufficient planning should be proactively undertaken to accommodate the parolees to be released in the future into the community. The alarming statistics of the prison population on 31 March 2001, is reflected in Table 2.

TABLE 2: COMPOSITION OF THE PRISON POPULATION AS AT 31 MARCH 2001

Adults			Juveniles		
Category	Males	Females	Males	Females	Total
Sentenced	98 771	2 719	12 814	233	114 537
Unsen- tenced	41 714	1 067	13 390	251	56 422
Total	140 485	3 786	26 204	484	170 959
Percentage	82.17	2.21	15.33	0.28	100

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (2000/01:73).

These prisoners are kept in 238 prisons country-wide, namely:

- *"8 prisons for female prisoners only*
- *13 youth correctional facilities*
- *113 prisons for male prisoners only*
- *100 prisons accommodating both male and female prisoners"*
(2000/01:73).

If sufficient support systems such as *CCRCs* are not in place, these persons will certainly fall prey to recidivism.

In summary, community corrections already play an important role in the sentencing of offenders in South Africa where offenders are placed under community supervision with various conditions to comply with. The pre-release centre at Devon in Gauteng Province is also a step in the right direction. However, these options are not, by any means, adequate to fulfil the total need. It is the premise of this research that *CCRCs* can play a vital role in accommodating all the various categories of needs and types of offenders. This study was aimed at investigating the various options and, as an outcome, developing a model for *CCRCs* in South Africa.

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim and objectives of the study were as follows:

1.4.1 Aim

The aim of this study was to investigate community corrections residential centres (*CCRCs*) and, as an outcome, develop a South African model for *CCRCs*.

1.4.2 Objectives

- To explore public and private (for profit/ not for profit) international models of CCRCs in view of the limited models in South Africa.
- To identify new trends and developments in the field of community corrections internationally, as well as in South Africa.
- To determine a South African perspective of social workers employed by Community Corrections Offices, with regards to CCRCs.
- To explore programmes utilised by international CCRCs in relation to programmes in South Africa to make recommendations regarding possible programmes for CCRCs in South Africa.
- To develop a South African model of CCRCs as an outcome of the study.

1.5 HYPOTHESIS(ES) OR ASSUMPTIONS FOR THE STUDY

Mouton and Marais (1992:45) state that hypotheses should rather follow the exploratory study than being guided by it.

Hofmeyr (1996:4) agrees with this statement and states that the exploratory study does not make use of a hypothesis.

De Vos and Fouche (1998:78) refer to the exploratory designs as "*hypothesis-developing*". Therefore, this study is not guided by a hypothesis. The following research questions were formulated for this study:

- Are there sufficient alternative sentencing options in the community corrections system to address the overcrowding of prisons in South Africa?
- Are more measures needed in the community corrections system in order to ensure that punishment fits individual offenders?
- Can less serious offenders be treated successfully in the community?
- How safe is the community corrections option for the community if more offenders serve their sentences in the community?
- Is there a need for CCRCs in South Africa?
- What type of models should be implemented in South Africa if there is a need for CCRCs?

- Who should manage community corrections sentencing options in South Africa?

1.6 RESEARCH APPROACH

With regard to the study's research approach, the researcher had a choice between a quantitative, qualitative, or a combined approach as described by de Vos, Schurink and Strydom (1998:3). Neuman is of the opinion that exploratory research often uses qualitative data (1997:19,32). This study utilised both approaches and specifically the dominant-less dominant quantitative-qualitative approach of Creswell (1994:179). De Vos (1998:359) suggests that it is necessary for the researcher to define what is meant by triangulation. Guided by this triangulation approach the researcher utilised the quantitative phase as the dominant phase and the qualitative phase as the minor, less dominant phase of the study.

1.7 TYPE OF RESEARCH

Baker (1994:68) is of the opinion that applied research is applicable when "*practical use is an outcome*" of the research study.

De Vos, Schurink and Strydom (1998:9) refer to applied research by using the term "*intervention research*" as

developed by Rothman and Thomas as a type of research also with practical use as an outcome. Neuman (1997:22) also stresses the practical use of applied research where solutions are pursued for specific problems.

As the aim of this research study specifically intends practical use as an outcome, the type of research followed was applied research with specific developmental elements. Based on the research findings, the researcher, as an outcome of the study developed a model of CCRCs for the South African context.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

An exploratory design was the choice for this research study for the following reasons:

- Research studies on CCRCs in South Africa are few. However, international research on this topic is traceable but is not always of a recent date. As already mentioned, this research study is an extension of the researcher's Masters degree with the title: "*Halfway house facilities for offenders in Gauteng Province: a social work perspective*".
- The establishment of CCRCs in South Africa is a new trend, as opposed to more extensive international utilisation.

In accordance with Rubin and Babbie (1989:86), exploratory studies take place to explore a topic where the subject is relatively new and unstudied. (Compare Neuman, 1997:19 and Mouton and Marais 1992:38.)

As already indicated, the exploratory design guided the research to develop hypotheses. (Compare Mouton and Marais, 1992:45 & De Vos and Fouche, 1998:78.)

1.9 RESEARCH PROCEDURE AND STRATEGY

The research procedure and strategy for the study will subsequently be discussed.

1.9.1 Research procedure

Specific research considerations are important when doing exploratory research. It is necessary to keep the research strategy flexible and open. In order to gain insight into data collection, certain methods may be utilised such as literature review, interviews, informants and case studies, according to Mouton and Marais (1992:45). In this study the researcher utilised literature review, interviews, informants, and studied case studies on the electronic media.

1.9.2 Strategy

In this study, triangulation was used in the data collection process in two phases. The first phase which was qualitative, entailed a visit to Denver, Colorado and the second quantitative phase was conducted with social workers employed by Community Corrections in the Department of Correctional Services.

The research process unfolded as follows:

- Interviews were conducted with various experts in the field of community corrections, from the Department of Correctional Services to gain a broader perspective on the research topic. These experts included Dr. A.L. Hlongwane, Director of Community Corrections, Pretoria, Mr. H.A. Coetzee, Assistant Head of Community Corrections, Pretoria and Advocate A.J Strydom, office of the Provincial Commissioner of Gauteng Province, Department of Correctional Services.
- The Internet was also used extensively to gain a comprehensive perspective on CCRCs.
- Due to a lack of information on the research topic in African and other developing countries' contexts, the researcher

had to explore international links with more developed countries. Mr H.A. Coetzee, Assistant Head of Community Corrections, Pretoria, supplied the researcher with the name of a Mr J. Thurston in Denver, Colorado. The researcher contacted him via the electronic media. This contact had a snowball effect and led the researcher to contact other people suggested by Mr J. Thurston. Personal interviews were arranged to take place during the researcher's visit to their facilities. This visit entailed the following:

- Non-scheduled, structured interviews (see Appendix B) were conducted with programme directors in Denver, Colorado, in order to gain an international perspective on the functioning of CCRCs. The CCRCs and DRCs visited, as well as the programme directors with whom the researcher had personal interviews with, were as follows:
 - Independence House, South Federal CCRC, combined with a DRC and serving both males and females. Programme Director: Ms L. Sullivan.
 - Independence House, Pecos centre, a CCRC serving males only. Programme Director: Mr D. Carrigan.

- Independence House, Fillmore Street, a CCRC facility which serves both males and females. Programme Director: Mr T. Everett.
- Tooley Hall, a CCRC serving females only, although the centre works closely with Williams Street, a CCRC that serves males and which is also combined with a DRC. Programme Director: Ms S. Carst.
- BI Incorporated who is serving as a DRC facility. Programme Director: Mr A. Maglia.

The qualitative data gathered from the above-mentioned programme directors was of paramount importance for the construction of the questionnaire in the second quantitative phase of the study. The findings of the qualitative study are reflected in an integrated manner with the literature and the findings of the quantitative study in the respective chapters of the research report.

- Finally, a questionnaire was administered to social workers employed by Community Corrections in the Department of Correctional Services within the nine regions of South Africa to gain their perspective on the possibility of establishing CCRCs in South Africa.

1.10 PILOT STUDY

Strydom (1998:179) states that the literature sources referring to a pilot study are few. He therefore supports the opinion of Cilliers (1970:132), stating that a pilot study should begin with a literature study, followed by the experience of experts. Thereafter a general outlook on the field of investigation is required and, if necessary, an intensive study of a few cases should follow.

As already mentioned above, the researcher's Masters degree examined the concept and functioning of "*halfway houses*" whilst the current research is an extension of the former study to a model for CCRCs in South Africa. The research for the Masters degree therefore, formed part of the pilot study of the current research. In addition however, the researcher extended the literature study for the sake of a broader orientation to the field of study. The researcher had also to establish contacts with experts who specialise in the field of community corrections. The pilot study thus consisted of the following elements: a literature study; interviews with experts; a preliminary exploratory study as well as a study of strategic units.

Strydom (1998:181) mentions the importance of preliminary exploratory studies with the practical planning of the research project in mind. He refers to aspects such as transport costs, the financing of the project as well as the importance of the time factor. The researcher took note of Strydom's view of possible problems that may arise later in the main investigation.

1.11 LITERATURE STUDY

A thorough search was conducted both on the electronic media, such as the Internet, and communication with international experts via electronic mail. This search also extended into a literature study regarding the subject of CCRCs. To gain a broader perspective on the subject of CCRCs, complementary fields were searched for information.

1.12 CONSULTATION WITH EXPERTS

Various experts in the field of community corrections and Criminology were consulted for a broader perspective regarding the research topic. These experts included both the internal team of the Department of Correctional Services who undertook a viability study during 1998 regarding the establishment of community-based care centres, to which the researcher was invited, as well as other important role-players.

All of these role-players confirmed that CCRCs are of the utmost importance to help offenders to reintegrate successfully into the community. The role-players were the following:

Mr H. A. Coetzee - Assistant Head, Community Corrections, Pretoria

Mr H. Makhubela - Head, Community Corrections, Boksburg

Mr C. Groenewald - Head, Social Work Services, Johannesburg

Mr L. Holtzhausen - Social Worker, Johannesburg Prison

Ms M. Siebert - Community Corrections, Pretoria

Adv. A.J. Strydom - Office of the Provincial Commissioner of Gauteng Province, Department of Correctional Services, Pretoria

Dr. A.L. Hlongwane - Director, Community Corrections, Department of Correctional Services, Pretoria

Dr. D. van der Berg, lecturer, Department of Criminology, University of Pretoria

The last two experts were not part of the internal team of the Department of Correctional Services who undertook the viability study on "*halfway houses*".

One of the recommendations of this internal team of the Department of Correctional Services (1998:11) in the viability study, was the following:

"The research, planning and establishment of a Community-based Care Centre (Pilot project) for the accommodation, training and reintegration of the offender are hereby recommended".

As a result of this viability study, the Department of Correctional Services sent a task group to Georgia in the United States of America to observe the functioning of CCRCs managed by the State. The researcher studied these documents which she received from the Department of Correctional Services regarding the Georgia model of CCRCs, managed by the *"public sector"*. To obtain knowledge on the *"private model"*, the researcher established contact via electronic mail with Denver, Colorado. As a follow-up the researcher paid a visit to CCRCs in Denver, Colorado during May 2000.

The affirmation of these experts that CCRCs are of the utmost importance to help the offender to reintegrate successfully into the community, confirmed the relevance of this research topic and study.

1.13 FEASIBILITY OF THE STUDY

Rubin and Babbie (1989:81) draw attention to the importance of the feasibility of a research study. Research problems should not be too narrow so that they are not worth doing, or too grandiose that they are not feasible.

Strydom and De Vos (1998:191) state that to study whole populations would be too costly and time consuming. This calls for the use of samples of populations. Time and cost are also important aspects to consider.

The cost of this study was very high due to the inclusion of all social workers employed by the Department of Correctional Services at all Community Corrections Offices in the nine South African provinces, as well as a visit to Denver in Colorado, U.S.A.

As the research study's aim was to develop a South African model of CCRCs it was necessary to include as many opinions as possible about the components and functioning of such a model. The researcher therefore concluded that although the cost aspect for this study was very high, it was necessary to include all the social workers in the nine regions in South Africa as respondents for this study. Although the visit to Denver in

Colorado was expensive, their expertise and experience of CCRCs made an invaluable contribution to this study.

1.14 PILOT TEST OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher constructed the questionnaire with inputs received from various resources, including the following:

- CCRCs in Denver, Colorado.
- Officials at the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa, with an extensive knowledge of parole and community corrections.
- Literature review.

The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire for content validity and reliability in December 2001. Two social workers employed at the Community Corrections Offices pre-tested the questionnaire, which resulted in a few changes in the questionnaire.

1.15 RESEARCH POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHOD

De Vos and Fouche (1998:100) state that the population in most cases differs from the study's sample, although in many cases it may be the same. Rubin and Babbie (1989:89) confirm

that in studies that have individuals as the unit of analysis, the individuals are the population.

De Vos and Fouche (1998:100) are of the opinion that it is necessary to describe both the study's sample as well as sampling strategy while the following aspects should be taken into consideration:

- It is necessary to specify the unit of analysis, for example what is going to be studied, namely persons or things.
- What are the precise procedures followed to select the sample?
- What were the reasons for choosing the specific procedures?
- The number of persons or things that will be included in the sample.

The research population for the quantitative study consisted of social workers employed by the Department of Correctional Services (Community Corrections), in all nine regions of South Africa:

1. Eastern Cape
2. Free State



3. Gauteng
4. Kwa Zulu Natal
5. Limpopo
6. Mpumalanga
7. Northern Cape
8. North West
9. Western Cape

In early March 2002, the researcher had established telephonically from Ms M. Venter (administrator) of the Department of Correctional Services' Head Office, the total number of social workers employed by the Community Corrections Offices in all nine regions of South Africa.

According to Ms M. Venter (2002), the social workers employed by the Department of Correctional Services at the time of the empirical study totalled 454. This number included both social workers employed at prisons, as well as those employed at Community Corrections Offices in the nine regions of South Africa. The total number of social workers employed at the nine regions' Community Corrections Offices at the time of the empirical study was 134. Accordingly, 134 self-

administered questionnaires were sent to the social workers at Community Corrections Offices.

Stoker, as quoted by Strydom and De Vos (1998:192), gives guidelines concerning the size of samples. According to this author, the sample percentage suggested for a population of 500, is 20 percent, and the number of respondents 100.

According to Neuman (1997:222), a larger sample size is necessary for populations under a thousand. This author suggests a 30 percent sampling ratio.

By means of purposive sampling, the researcher targeted all the social workers employed at the Community Corrections Offices in South Africa. However, those serving sentenced offenders were excluded. One hundred and thirty-four (134) social workers out of the population of 454 gave a sampling ratio of 29,5 percent, which falls within the range suggested by Stoker and Neuman, as discussed.

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:95), describe purposive sampling as a type of non-probability sampling. It is also called judgmental sampling because it is the researcher who decides who will be included in the sample. The criteria for inclusion in the purposive sampling were as follows:

- Social workers (males/females).
- Employed by Community Corrections.
- Providing correctional supervision to parolees and probationers as clients under community corrections.

Barnett (1991:13) agrees with the above authors but draws attention to the "*deliberate subjective choice*" of the researcher in this regard. This author states that if the researcher is of sound judgement the results of this procedure may be good. However, Strydom and De Vos (1998:199) warn that the judgement of the researcher is too important in this type of sampling method.

The research approach for the qualitative study has already been described under paragraph 1.9.2. of this chapter.

The researcher agrees that probability-sampling procedure is by far the best where "*each element has an equal chance of selection independent of any other event in the selection process*" (Rubin and Babbie 1989:197-198). Yet, it is also true that under certain circumstances the non-probability sampling procedures are the best as is the case in the present research study. Non-probability sampling is defined by Rubin and Babbie (1989:65) as "*a sample selected in some fashion other than*

those suggested by probability theory. Examples include judgmental (purposive), quota, and snowball samples”.

1.16 ETHICAL ISSUES

The researcher did not conduct any interviews with incarcerated offenders. However, the researcher signed an agreement with the Department of Correctional Services stipulating certain conditions by which the researcher must abide (see Appendix C). The Department appointed an internal guide to monitor the research study. One of the conditions was that the permission of the Department of Correctional Services is also required to publish the research findings.

1.17 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Relevant concepts will be defined in subsequent chapters. In this chapter, the key concepts for the study are defined.

1.17.1 Community Corrections

The South African Correctional Services Act, (1998:12) defines community corrections as *“all non-custodial measures and forms of supervision applicable to persons who are subject to such measures and supervision in the community and who are under the control of the Department”.*

Clear and Dammer (2000:414) define community corrections as "*non-incarcerative programmes for offenders who remain within the community while serving their sentences*".

According to Latessa and Allen (1997:3) community corrections refer "*to numerous and diverse types of supervision, treatment, reintegration, control and supportive programmes for criminal law violators*".

In South Africa, probationers, parolees and awaiting trial prisoners fall under the direct supervision of Community Corrections (Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, 2000/01:42). Offenders are placed under community supervision or parole supervision and they must then comply with certain "*conditions*", such as being placed under house detention; doing community work (only probationers); paying compensation to victims, attend programmes and are monitored regarding payment of maintenance where applicable. Monitoring is done physically and telephonically. The international community refers to "*intermediate sanctions*" where various options are included, as discussed in chapter two of this study.

1.17.2 CCRC - Community Corrections Residential Centre

The concept of CCRCs is defined differently by various authors, institutions as well as counties and states. The concept ranges from halfway houses, residential centres, community release centres, transitional facilities, to community corrections residential centres and others. The following table shows the various names adopted by various authors, counties and states, to name only a few:

TABLE 3: VARIOUS NAMES ADOPTED FOR CCRCs

REFERENCE	NAMES FOR CCRCs
Missouri State Government (http://www.corrections.state.mo.us/)	<i>Community Release Centres</i>
Georgia Department of Correctional Services. (Hand out document)	<i>Transitional facilities</i>
Quinlan (1990:75-76)	Various names developed over the years: <i>pre-release guidance centres</i> , followed by <i>community treatment centres</i> where extra services were included, such as drug counselling and support services for probationers and parolees. <i>Community corrections centres</i> when the Federal Bureau of Prisons contracted services to public and private agencies.

Latessa and Travis III (1992:167) and Latessa and Allen (1997:350).	<i>Community Corrections Residential Facilities</i>
McShane and Krause (1993:211)	Distinction between CCRC and halfway house. CCRC takes in pre-released offenders before due parole date. Halfway houses take in offenders who have already been released from prison.
Pennsylvania Department of Corrections http://www.cor.state.pa.us/ccrole.htm	<i>Community Corrections Centres are state operated halfway houses.</i>
John Howard Society of Alberta (1998:6) http://www.johnhoward.ab.ca/PUB/C29.htm	Distinction between privately owned residential facilities and those managed by the government known as <i>community correctional centres</i> .
The Department of Correctional Services in Missouri http://www.corrections.state.mo.us/	<i>Residential treatment facilities.</i>
The New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:30)	<i>Temporary place of residence for people from residential facilities with a view to continued treatment and integration into the community.</i>
The Task Team of the Department of Correctional Services (1998:1)	<i>Community Educare Centre (CEC)</i>

Given the various concepts documented and used in practice, South Africa will have to decide on an appropriate term. As

indicated earlier in this chapter, it is the opinion of the researcher that South Africa should not revert to the old term of "*halfway-house*", but should rather use the more recent term namely, Community Corrections Residential Centres (CCRCs). This proposal is in agreement with Latessa and Travis III (1992:167), and Latessa and Allen (1997:350). CCRCs should be holistic, one-stop agencies in partnership with the Department of Correctional Services and other role-players who are constantly networking with each other. This term may include residential facilities for juveniles but in the present study it refers to residential facilities for adult offenders or the alleged offenders in court cases.

The task team of the Department of Correctional Services who did the viability study on "*halfway houses*" in 1998, preferred the term "*Community Educare Centre*" as already mentioned and referred to three different phases namely, the input-phase, the throughput-phase and the output-phase. The first phase is the input-phase where placement of offenders from different categories takes place at the CEC.

The throughput-phase is referred to as a "*bridging*" concept where the provision of one-stop services takes place at the CEC.

The output-phase is when reintegration of the offender into the community takes place.

1.17.3 One-stop services

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:95) defines the above term as follows:

"Centres which offer a range of generic social services with the focus on appropriateness".

Within the context of CCRCs, a one-stop service can be regarded as what Latessa and Travis III (1992:177) refer to as *"multiservice agencies"*. According to these authors, multiservice agencies are residential facilities that evolved from traditional halfway houses.

It is the opinion of the researcher that a CCRC should function as a one-stop service with various services being provided by the community at the centre. These services could include specialised programmes for residents, day reporting centres, as well as job creation projects.

1.17.4 Offenders

Latessa and Allen (1997:443) define a criminal offender as *"an adult who has been convicted of a criminal offence"*.

The New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:43) defines an offender as: "a *person who disrupts the order in society by misbehaviour or an act or omission punishable by law*". A client, according to the New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:10), refers to an "*individual, family, group or community to whom a social worker renders services*". Therefore, within the context of social work services a client can also include an offender in the criminal justice delivery system.

Both the offenders as well as the community are clients of the social worker, because the well being of the offender and the safety of the community are of equal importance. Social workers should thus be accountable to both (Graycar, 2000:14).

In this study, the researcher refers mostly to the terms "*offender*" and "*client*". However, variation will be used according to the offender context of the discussion. The researcher found that within the criminal justice system, offenders are referred to by various names, depending on the context in which they are. Some of these names include the following: *clients, daily parolees, parolees, probationers, sentenced offenders, inmates, prisoners, unsentenced offenders, awaiting-trial offenders, alleged offenders, defendants, diversion offenders, life-style offenders and*

absconders. When using some of these terms in this study, the researcher is referring to the offender. Mostly, however, the researcher will refer either to offenders or clients.

1.18 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The major limitation of the study was the limited information on CCRC models in South Africa as well as within the context of Africa and other developing countries. As a result, the researcher had to reach out to Denver, Colorado as a first world country. Although there is a huge discrepancy between developed and developing countries, the researcher is nevertheless of the opinion that principle lessons can be learnt from the CCRCs she visited in the U.S.A.

1.19 CONTENTS OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

The contents of this report are divided into six chapters. The outline of these chapters is as follows:

Chapter One provides a general introduction and orientation to the study.

Chapter Two conceptualises and contextualises the concept of community corrections.

Chapter Three discusses models and critical management aspects for community corrections residential centres.

Chapter Four focuses on programmes and partnerships for CCRCs.

Chapter Five reflects the presentation and interpretation of the findings of the empirical study.

Chapter Six presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study as well as a proposed South African model for CCRCs.

CHAPTER TWO

COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the theoretical conceptualisation of community corrections and on the intermediate sanctions applicable in a community context as alternative sentencing options, i.e. day fines, community service, restitution, probation, day reporting centres (DRCs), CCRCs, electronic monitoring, intensive supervised probation, house arrest and split sentences. To understand the context of community corrections, the historical development of prisons, as well as the philosophies of the offender in the community throughout history will be discussed.

The link between the overcrowding of prisons and community corrections will be outlined as well as the current trend of restorative justice. When discussing electronic monitoring, reference will be made to BI Incorporated as well as other

international DRCs as case studies in Denver, Colorado. The modern technology utilised by BI Incorporated DRC such as the Sobrietor, SkyGuard 200 and electronic monitoring will be discussed. Other international as well as national examples will also be included in this chapter. The concept of "*community corrections*" as defined in chapter one of this study refers to all non-custodial sentences where offenders are supervised and controlled in the community by the Department of Correctional Services, through various means and conditions.

The theoretical framework relevant for this study will subsequently be discussed.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The researcher regards community corrections as an empowering, capacity building approach which theoretically can be founded in a community development strategy.

The New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:12) defines community development as follows: A "*process enabling people to mobilise and manage forces and resources in a community by creating opportunities for democratic decision-making, active participation and co-operation, selfhelp, development of leadership and utilisation of education opportunities to*

promote the intrinsic potential and forces in the community as a whole".

Rubin and Rubin (1992:3) state that community development *"occurs when people form their own organisations to provide a long-term capacity for problem solving"*.

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:20) reflects that community development is both multi-sectoral as well as multi-disciplinary, and concludes that strategies for community development *"address basic material, physical and psycho-social needs"*.

Community-based correctional programmes should be multi-sectoral and interdisciplinary in order to render holistic comprehensive services to the offender. Community development as a method and process provides this holistic context where offenders take a primary position at the centre of the process and in so doing take charge and ownership of their future development.

From a developmental social welfare perspective, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:20) emphasises the facilitation of the community development process and community capacity building programmes. Since community development and economic empowerment are strategies of social development

(compare Midgley, 1995:118), the premise for this study is that community-based correctional programmes are embedded in a social development theoretical framework and consequently in a developmental social welfare paradigm. Social development implies the harmonising of social and economic policies and is defined by Midgley (1995: 25) as follows: "*...a process of planned social change designed to promote the wellbeing of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development*".

The social development theoretical framework, as applied to this study, implies that through a community development intervention strategy, community-based correctional programmes should be targeted at the development of human, social and economic capital (Compare Midgley 1995:195.) Human capital refers to the development of skills such as life skills for personal empowerment. Social capital includes development of social networks and infrastructure which will facilitate empowerment on an interpersonal level; whilst economic capital entails income generated through job creation which will, in turn, empower individuals on macro socio-economic and political levels.

It is within this theoretical framework that the researcher regards community corrections as a sentence where programme

design should be holistic and comprehensive to ensure complete reintegration into society. Community corrections have developed historically and this will be discussed in the following section.

2.3 COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Smykla (1981:10) reports that community-based corrections can be traced back for many centuries, although the same term may not have been used. The author discusses the historical development of community corrections from early history up to the twentieth century.

During early history (before 800) no jails, state prisons, probation, parole or CCRCs were utilised. Common forms of punishment included reparation and compensation to the victim or his/her family by the offender, the obligation to do public service, execution, expulsion or dismemberment. These punishments had a strong public nature. This however, changed with time.

Smykla (1981:10) states that community programmes for specialised groups can only be traced between the period 800 and 1200 and that the first incarceration facility was built at the Assize of Clarendon and authorised by Henry II in 1166.

During the Middle Ages (5-15th century), the state became the sole author of the administration of justice. Punishments started to become less severe and royal pardons were granted to the accused.

McShane and Krause (1993:8) discuss how prisons came into being throughout the country in the early part of the 1800s. These institutions moved away from inhumane to more humane alternatives. The only problem was that these prisons became quickly overcrowded and reports came in regarding these institutions as breeding grounds for disease, violence and despair.

From the discussion thus far, it is evident that offenders were not sent to institutions or prisons from early times. Developments in this regard only took place at a later stage. Allen and Simonsen (1995:655) confirm that community-based corrections is in reality one of the oldest forms of either treating or punishing the offender in the community. Initially therefore, the sentencing of offenders began with community-based corrections and then moved to the building of prisons and the consequent incarceration of offenders.

McShane and Krause (1993:8) state that the following two developments took place as a result of the correctional reform movements in the early 1900s:

- Reform inside prison with the prison community model in mind developed by Thomas Mott Osborne. He spent a week inside the New York Auburn prison as one of the prisoners in order to gain firsthand insight into the situation in prison.

He concluded that good behaviour indicated progress with regard to the rehabilitation of the prisoner and that release from prison had to be earned. Open-ended sentences, also called "*indeterminate sentences*", were the order of the day and release from prison was the decision of prison officials. McShane and Krause (1993:9) are of the opinion that this specific model worked well especially with indeterminate sentences, because of the fact that prison officials had time to judge all inmates individually regarding their progress and adjustment. According to these authors, this model was later utilised in the establishment of community-based residential facilities where smaller and less serious offender populations came to be served. According to these authors it is still utilised to "*build responsibility, self-esteem, and citizenship skills*" (Mc Shane and Krause,

1993:9). The second development happened in the area of community corrections.

- McShane and Krause (1993:9) explain how the community was increasingly used. At first, before prisons existed in America, relatives and volunteers played a significant role in supervising certain categories of offenders, for instance alcoholics and the mentally ill. These authors claim that “*probation-like*” sentences were being used informally by judges according to their own judgement at the beginning of the 1800s.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that history provides lessons for current community corrections. Some of these lessons can be found in various philosophies of the offender in the community.

2.4 PHILOSOPHIES OF THE OFFENDER IN THE COMMUNITY THROUGH HISTORY

Philosophies of the offender in the community developed through four historical eras according to Clear and Dammer (2000:59-62).

2.4.1 The Reform Era (mid- 1800s to 1930s)

Clear and Dammer (2000:59) explain how the reform era thought of offenders as morally imperfect. These offenders needed to change into respectable citizens. The Protestant ethic guided this orientation. It was expected of offenders to be good fathers or mothers, support their own families and be a regular churchgoer. On the other hand, correctional officers were expected to be mentors to offenders, to give advice and also to threaten them, when necessary, in order to make them reformed members of society. However, this philosophy was incomplete as the offender needed employment and not only role models.

2.4.2 The Rehabilitation Era (early 1900s)

According to Clear and Dammer (2000:60) the reform era was followed by the rehabilitation era which adopted the views of Sigmund Freud. Criminal behaviour in this era was attributed to faulty mental and emotional functioning. Psychotherapy and psychology developed from this notion and as a consequence resulted in the medical model of corrections. Punishment in prison was replaced by treatment of the perceived problems which led to the crime. Offenders were approached as persons afflicted with

mental illness. Accordingly, correctional officers needed mental health skills in order to treat offenders with the primary technique of interpersonal counselling. Correctional officers quitted field visits and "clients" came to see them by appointment at their offices. However, this rehabilitation philosophy was also imperfect. Offenders were not all mentally ill and all correctional officers were not skilled psychotherapists. This era led to the reintegration era.

2.4.3 The Reintegration Era (1960s)

Clear and Dammer (2000:61) report that in this era penologists thought that offenders needed strong ties with the community which led to the following developments:

- *"job-training programmes for ex-offenders*
- *creation of special employment opportunities, and*
- *an emphasis on community-based programmes".*

The most important development during this era was the use of non-custodial alternatives in dealing with offenders with probation and parole as the main methods. This era initiated the era of war on crime.

2.4.4 War On Crime (1970s through the 1990s)

According to Clear and Dammer (2000:62) this era started with President Nixon's "war on crime". The slogan "get tough" on crime had a far greater impact on the general public than the treatment of offenders. The public felt that correctional programmes failed to rehabilitate offenders. During 1976 the U.S. Supreme Court made a way for states to reinstate the death penalty. Laws restricted the use of probation and parole. Some states eliminated parole altogether. As could be expected, the increased use of prison was aligned with the general public becoming more and more intolerant with crime. A consequence, however, was the overcrowding of prisons. An understanding of overcrowding, as well as of current trends is important to understand the future of prisons, and on the other hand, the search for alternatives to imprisonment during the first three decades of the twentieth century.

2.5 OVERCROWDING, CURRENT TRENDS AND THE FUTURE OF PRISONS

It is a world-wide phenomenon that prisons are overcrowded. Fallin (1989:72) comments that states are beginning to realise "that they will not be able to build their way out of the crisis".

Latessa and Allen (1997:78) also discuss the effects of the overcrowding of prisons and they argue that due to overcrowding, fewer programmes are available to offenders, including recreational activities. According to Latessa and Allen (1997:78) the greatest danger of prison is in the areas of safety and health. With the continuously increasing rates in the prison population "*death, suicide, homicides, inmate assaults and disturbances*" occur more and more whether the confinement is in a maximum, medium or minimum security. Unfortunately this is not where it ends. Various infectious diseases, colds, tuberculosis that is resistant to drugs, sexually transmitted diseases, psychological disorders as well as psychiatric crises are all related to crowding (Latessa and Allen, 1997:78). If one looks at these circumstances it is easy to see that overcrowding leads to conditions that are inhumane and that the offender cannot be successfully rehabilitated in such degrading circumstances.

Allen and Simonsen (1995:258) discuss the future of imprisonment. They state that various findings in the 1920s, 1930s, 1960s, 1970s, 1980s as well as the early 1990s confirmed that prisons for adults managed by the state, could not successfully rehabilitate and reintegrate offenders. Nevertheless, the building of maximum-security prisons

continues. Latessa and Allen (1997:85) propose three alternative options to reduce prison crowding:

- The building of more prisons in what they call the “*bricks and mortar*” building programme.
- “*Front-end*” solutions that include intermediate punishments (alternative sentencing options). This option will be discussed under the heading of intermediate sanctions in this chapter.
- “*Back-end*” solutions refer to “*early-out*” or “*extended limits*” options. Certain strategies and innovations are implemented while the offender is in prison. The “*early-out*” option refers to earlier parole eligibility where the offender is placed on parole before the due time. “*Extended limits*” is where the offender is allowed to leave prison to take part in approved programmes in the community.

Not only is there a trend to build more prisons, but also to move towards the privatisation of prisons. The Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa (2000/01:115) mentions public-private partnerships where contracts exist between the public and private sectors. In this instance the private sector will “*design, build, finance, operate and maintain a prison*”. The government, on the other hand,

pays for services rendered. The Correctional Services Act (1998:82) also emphasises joint venture prisons in South Africa. This Act states that the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Public Works, may *"enter into a contract with any party to design, construct, finance and operate any prison or part of a prison established or to be established in terms of section 5"*.

Allen and Simonsen (1995:259) mention the following factors influencing the move towards privatising prisons:

- *"Prison crowding*
- *law suits over conditions and practices,*
- *high staff turnover rates,*
- *increased rates of incarceration of offenders,*
- *explosive budgetary growth, and*
- *perceived lack of innovation in institutionalised corrections"*.

Although more prisons are built and privatisation is becoming a reality, there is at the same time a movement toward community-based corrections. This tendency occurs for many reasons, including the following:

- The more humane treatment in the community.

- Escalating recidivism rates.
- Extremely high costs of institutional programmes.

Allen and Simonsen (1995:656) confirm that the prison philosophy of seclusion as the only answer was reversed with a philosophy of community involvement with offenders. These authors are of the opinion that a good balance should be maintained between *"small, humane, programme-oriented maximum security institutions and community-based programmes"*. Allen and Simonsen (1995:656) warn, however, that to sell community-based programmes for all offenders is misleading. They argue that for the safety of the community it would still be necessary to keep certain offenders in prison in future, whilst the rest of the offender population should be able to participate in community-based programmes.

The researcher agrees that certain offenders should still be kept in prison due to their high risk for the safety of the community and does not foresee that this will change in the future. It is, however, not necessary to keep the less violent, petty crime offenders, first offenders, drunk drivers and drug users, who are non-violent, in prison. Community corrections, however, is not only concerned with the offender, but also with

the victim. This current development in community corrections is referred to as restorative justice.

2.6 RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

Reparation of the victim, or "*restorative justice*" is a current popular concept, which agrees with early historical practice. The victim and the offender are central in the restorative justice process, whilst the state plays a minor role. The process focuses on the healing of both the offender and the victim as well as on society. Crime is seen in this process as an offence between individual persons and not primarily against the state. According to Consedine (1999:183) reparation, and not punishment, takes on the central theme in restorative justice. The author also elaborates on biblical justice which has been misquoted to justify the current justice system. The author concludes that biblical justice always looks forward to the future and not back to the past as is the case with the modern Western system. Biblical justice is dynamic and does not uphold the status quo but seeks to "*protect the weak, the vulnerable and the poor*" and therefore it is societies that have to change (Consedine 1999:154).

Wilkinson (1997:1) talks about "*community justice*" as a more holistic approach. This author agrees with Consedine in seeing

crime "as a violation against individuals, their families, and the community in which they live". The objectives of the process are to negotiate, to mediate, to empower and to repair the damages done to the victim and the community. This takes precedence over "vengeance, deterrence and punishment" (1997:1).

Richards and Storr (1999:6) state that restorative justice is one of the most significant recent developments. The victim plays a central role in this development. His/her feelings regarding the crime play a role in the decision about retribution, reparation as well as the rehabilitation of the offender. On the other hand, the offender has the chance to show his/her regret and also to make reparation to the victim. This approach is then to the advantage of all three parties namely, the offender, the victim as well as the community. In support of this approach, Richards and Storr (1999:6) argue that crime is a problem of the community and therefore, in order to reach solutions, community involvement is of paramount importance.

Graycar (2000:12) also discusses the emerging trend of the restorative justice approach within community corrections. According to Graycar this approach condemns crime, helps to reform the offender, reaches out to victims and softens the



blow of their suffering caused by the crime. Through the restorative justice process, crimes can be prevented by means of community involvement and the cost of administering justice can be kept low.

The Department of Correctional Services in South Africa (2000/01:98) supports the restorative justice approach where the needs and rights of the offender, victim, as well as the community are addressed in a balanced manner. In this process reparation and forgiveness are advocated.

The researcher is in agreement with the restorative justice process and sees it as a mature and balanced approach where the offender takes on the role of a responsible citizen, being accountable for his/her actions. The offender will also be able to take on the role of a responsible citizen when placed under community corrections in the community by means of intermediate sanctions or what South Africa calls the conditions of parole or probation as already mentioned in chapter one of this study.

An overview of intermediate sanctions follows. As the focus of the study is on CCRCs and DRCs, these two forms of intermediate sanctions will be discussed in more depth. In

addition, BI Incorporated DRC in Denver, Colorado will be described as a case study.

2.7 INTERMEDIATE SANCTIONS

Petersilia, Lurigio and Byrne (1992:ix) define intermediate sanctions as those that fall between prison and routine probation. As alternatives, they fall within the "*either/or*" sentencing policy.

Latessa and Allen (1997:52) state that intermediate sanctions differ in harshness from day fines to boot camps (shock incarceration).

Langan (1998:42) asserts that when the offender receives an intermediate sanction s/he falls under the supervision of a probation officer. Such an offender, would be closely monitored other than with routine probation. This may be done through electronically monitored house arrest, regular meetings with the probation officer and drug testing. Split sentences, heavy fines and community service may form part of additional punishments.

The County of Roscommon, Michigan, 2001, (www.roscommoncounty.net/ccab) uses the term "*alternative sentencing*", when referring to the intermediate sanctions.

They state that it is a sentence that eases overcrowding in prisons and jails, whereby placement of non-violent offenders takes place in the community without harm to public safety. Usually these offenders have to participate in certain programmes in the community as a condition of their diversion. Community work serves as a way for offenders to offer restitution to the community in which the crime took place.

As early as 1976 The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1976:504) referred to the major community alternatives as diversion, probation and parole.

Petersilia *et al.*, (1992:ix-x) state the purposes of intermediate sanctions:

- *"to save taxpayers money by providing cost-effective alternatives to incarceration for prison and jail-bound offenders*
- *to deter offenders (specifically) and the public (generally) from crime*
- *to protect the community by exerting more control (than does traditional probation) over offender behaviour*
- *to rehabilitate offenders by using mandatory treatment requirements, which are then reinforced by mandatory*

substance abuse testing and the swift revocation of violators."

According to Latessa and Allen (1997:52) the following examples serve as intermediate sanctions ranging from the least to the most severe punishment approaches:

2.7.1 Day fines

Judges decide on the amount of the day fine the offender should pay after consideration of how much punishment the offender deserves. *"The punishment units are then translated into monetary units based on how much money the offender makes per day"* (Latessa and Allen, 1997:53).

Byrne and Pattavina (1992:300) note that it is difficult to know the effect of fines on the subsequent behaviour of offenders because they concentrate primarily on money collection.

Hillsman and Greene (1992:128) state that as a sentencing option fines did not play such an important role in the USA compared to Western Europe. However, they conclude that the reason for this was confusion regarding fining procedures, rather than clear sentencing preferences. After involvement in a pilot project by the Staten Island Criminal Court about day-fines and their success, these authors concluded that day

finer are less complicated than one might think (1992:133). The day fine concept continues to develop within the U.S. perspective and is regarded as a sentencing option with great potential (Hillsman and Green, 1992:135).

2.7.2 Community service

In this option offenders are assigned to do community service free of charge usually at welfare organisations or public service agencies. The offender has to do a certain specified number of hours in the community (Latessa and Allen, 1997:53).

McDonald (1992:185) asserts that in community service the offender serves the community and restitution is not made to the victim.

Wilkinson (1997:2) notes that community service has several uses including the following:

- assists with skill-building
- provides meaningful work to offenders in the community
- keeps offenders busy and
- community restitution takes place

From the above it is clear that community service serves various purposes and can take different forms. As already

mentioned in chapter one of this study, only probationers do community service in South Africa.

2.7.3 Restitution

Latessa and Allen (1997:54) state that the court orders the offender to make reparation to the victim, as a condition of probation. The offender has to restore the damages done to the victim whether they are financial, physical or emotional. However, the offender usually provides financial reparation to the victim.

McShane and Krause (1993:173) affirm that where property was damaged the court may order that restitution be made to the victim for losses entailed. According to these authors, this has the specific goal of making offenders accountable for their actions and also to take responsibility for the consequences (1993:174). They also state that certain types of crimes should be excluded from restitution such as assault, child abuse and when people sell drugs (1993:175).

In summary, the focus of restitution is on the victim.

2.7.4 Probation

Latessa and Allen (1997:55) describe probation as a conditionally granted freedom to an offender wherein s/he is

obliged to meet certain conditions. If the conditions are met, a written report in this regard is sent to the court or referral agency, by a specified time, and no further court action is taken. McShane and Krause (1993:95) comment that probation can be applied to various offences from minor to more serious crimes. When an offender is placed on probation, unique decisions are made which differ from offender to offender (1993:96).

As already mentioned in chapter one of this study, probationers, parolees and awaiting trial persons fall under the direct supervision of community corrections (Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, 2000/01:42). According to the Correctional Services Act (1998:48) the following persons qualify:

- a) *"those placed under correctional supervision in terms of sections 6 (1) (c), 276(1) (h), 276(1) (i), 276A(3) (e) (ii), 286B (4) (b) (ii), 286B (5) (b) (iii), 287 (4) (a), 287 (4) (b), 297 (1) (a) (i) (ccA), 297 (1) (b) or 297 (4) of the Criminal Procedure Act;*
- b) *while out of prison, prisoners who have been granted temporary leave in terms of section 44;*



c) while out of prison, those placed on day parole in terms of section 54;

d) those placed on parole in terms of section 73; and

e) those placed under the supervision of a correctional official in terms of sections 62 (f), 71, 290 (1) (a) and 290 (3) of the Criminal Procedure Act."

The persons placed under community corrections (probationers and parolees) also have certain conditions with which they must comply and the court, Correctional Supervision and Parole Board, the Commissioner or any other body with the statutory authority may order that the person -

(a) "is placed under house detention;

(b) does community service;

(c) seeks employment;

(d) takes up and remains in employment;

(e) pays compensation or damages to victims;

(f) takes part in treatment, development and support programmes;



- (g) participates in mediation between victim and offender or in family group conferencing;*
- (h) contributes financially towards the cost of the community corrections to which he or she has been subjected;*
- (i) is restricted to one or more magisterial districts;*
- (j) lives at a fixed address;*
- (k) refrains from using or abusing alcohol or drugs;*
- (l) refrains from committing a criminal offence;*
- (m) refrains from visiting a particular place;*
- (n) refrains from making contact with a particular person or persons;*
- (o) refrains from threatening a particular person or persons by word or action;*
- (p) is subject to monitoring;*
- (q) in the case of a child, is subject to the additional conditions as contained in section 6" (Correctional Services Act, No. 111, 1998:48-49).*

Of interest to this study is the fact that in section 64 (1) the above-mentioned Act refers to programmes as follows:

"The court, Correctional Supervision and Parole Board or other body which has the authority to impose treatment, development and support programmes in terms of section 52 (1) (f) may specify what programmes the person subject to community corrections must follow" (No. 111, 1998:54).

In summary, probation is a sentence where the offender is placed under community corrections and cared for by a probationer officer. The probationer has to comply with certain conditions applicable to probation. Certain offenders could also be sentenced to a CCRC directly as a condition of court to take part in certain specified programmes. However, in South Africa it will first be necessary to make amendments to a section of the Criminal Procedure Act in order to activate this type of sentencing.

2.7.5 Community corrections residential centres (CCRCs)

Smykla (1981:12) explains that the establishment of CCRCs in the nineteenth century started in the private sector under the auspices and sponsorship of groups such as the Salvation Army and the Volunteers of America. The author states that the

Isaac T. Hopper House, established by the Quakers, has operated in New York City since 1845.

McCart and Mangogna (1976:544) argue that the purpose of these early CCRCs was to meet primary needs such as temporary housing, food, clothes, advice and sometimes to give assistance to gain employment. Treatment formed no part of these early CCRCs according to these writers (1976:546).

McCart and Mangogna (1976:545) further comment that the early CCRCs did not form a partnership with the correctional system and that this might have been the reason why they failed to function properly. The researcher is of the opinion that it is of the utmost importance that a partnership exists between CCRCs and the Department of Correctional Services in order to ensure that co-ordination takes place and it is a joint venture between the two parties.

In the early years in the growth of CCRCs no support came from the government. The movement showed strong religious and social conscience connotations, according to the history and traditions of the former International Halfway House Association (http://www.iccaweb.org/About_icca_info.asp). The original attempts were haphazard and did not develop into what could be called a "*movement*". Strong opposition came

from the public that nearly resulted in the closure of all the programmes.

Latessa and Travis III (1992:168) confirm the opposition of the public, but state however, that these hardened attitudes were only of a temporary character. These authors conclude that CCRC facilities have grown as a reaction to overcrowded prisons.

McCart and Mangogna (1976:546) comment about two issues that sparked off a revival of CCRCs, namely:

- the diverse problems of the ex-offender after release from prison; and
- high recidivism rates which in turn led to the beginning of a national CCRC movement.

Smykla (1981:12) states that the real CCRC movement was only born after the penetration of correctional institutions by Maude Booth, co-founder of the Volunteers of America.

Latessa and Travis III (1992:168) reflect that certain specialised groups of offenders were placed into the traditional CCRC programmes during the 1950s. This however, was not the case with the ordinary criminal offender. For these offenders, placements in CCRCs were rare.

After the 1989 Stigma Conference, the International Halfway House Association's name changed to the "*International Association of Residential and Community Alternatives*".

Latessa and Travis III (1992:167) argue that the term "*halfway house*" no longer adequately described the various residential programmes used with the correctional population. These authors conclude that a "*role expansion of the traditional halfway houses*" took place because of additional categories that were included in the name, such as corrections centres, pre-release centres, and restitution centres (Latessa and Travis III, 1992:167). The researcher agrees with these authors about the role expansion of the traditional halfway houses because of the more diverse population they serve as well as the broader correctional role they play. According to Latessa and Travis III (1992:167) the most recent name given to these types of programmes is that of "*community corrections residential facilities*". Other more recent names given to these facilities, as already mentioned, include "*community corrections centres, pre-release centres, and restitution centres*" (Latessa and Travis III 1992:167).

The researcher also referred to various names in chapter one of this study. However, the recent name changes are not generally accepted by all. Handwerk (2001) stated that

although there has been an attempt to move away from the old term of "*halfway house*" in Ohio, it has not been very successful. Hence, the old term still takes precedence over more recent terms.

Lindley (2001:2) refers to "*halfway house or work centre*" where offenders are free to go to school or work or treatment at these centres. For the rest of the time they are restricted to the centres.

Latessa and Travis III observed that traditional halfway houses are still operating with direct services delivered to residents. These authors point out, however, that where more recent programmes are operated by corrections departments, the impression is gained more of a "*minimum-security prison than a rehabilitative community*" (1992:170).

The researcher agrees with Latessa and Travis III and would like to point out that programmes implemented by corrections departments might not be as successful as programmes operated by private agencies due to the fact that correctional departments project the atmosphere of a formal prison. The offender should rather be placed in a CCRC in the community, which reflects a more homelike atmosphere and is driven by the community. The researcher is of the opinion that where

corrections departments manage the CCRC the goal of reintegration may not be so easily attainable. The fact is that the offender will still experience the centre as a smaller size prison, controlled by prison officials.

Latessa and Travis III (1992:170) also point out that in current CCRCs a harsher stance is taken, which was not the case in earlier days. They conclude that the contemporary growth of these facilities has a more diverse character because of the following reasons:

- Today these facilities serve a diverse group of clients, for instance persons are diverted from court before they are convicted. They also serve those who have been convicted and are released from prison.
- The population sizes range from less than ten residents to hundreds of residents.
- Programme services also differ. Some facilities supply a full range of services whilst others offer very few direct services to clients.

Latessa and Allen (1997:56-57) make it clear that CCRCs offer a growing range of services, not only to correctional clients, but also to victims, for instance the treatment of "*battered*

women, drunk drivers, mentally ill and sex offenders". According to these authors, the one constant factor in all these facilities is that residents live there for a certain period of time and are free to leave at certain prescribed times without being escorted (Latessa and Travis III, 1992:170). They state that it is not possible to portray the typical residential facility because of the difference in population, programme, size and structure (1992:170). According to these authors, an answer to the impact of these facilities is not an easily attainable assessment task. What is known is that these facilities play an enormous role in serving convicted offenders and they also play a vital and increased role as alternatives to imprisonment (Latessa and Travis III, 1992:170).

There are two outcomes that are of great importance when programme effectiveness is assessed, namely:

- the reduction in recidivism; and
- changes in anti-social behaviour of the clients.

In summary, the above discussion centred on CCRCs and their development from the nineteenth century when the private sector such as the Salvation Army and Volunteers of America, were involved. At that stage, primary needs were attended to and no partnership existed between the correctional system

and these CCRCs and they also received no support from the government. A role expansion of the traditional halfway houses took place during the late 1990s and the old term of "*halfway house*" no longer adequately described the correctional population. Courts and prison could now also decide to utilise DRCs as part of the intermediate sanctions for selected offenders who could benefit from these services.

2.7.6 Day reporting centres (DRCs)

According to Maglia (2000), BI Incorporated, CCRCs are not such a recent development in the criminal justice system, compared to day reporting centres with which the researcher fully agrees.

Junger-Tas (1994:19) talks about "*day-centres*", "*attendance-centres*", "*day probation*" with the aim as an alternative option to prison, but including intensive monitoring.

Clear and Dammer (2000:414) define DRCs as follows:

"Offenders on pre-trial release, probation, or parole are required to appear at a certain location on a regular basis to receive supervision or participate in rehabilitation programmes".

According to the researcher, a DRC differs from a CCRC in that it is non-residential. Offenders report on a daily basis and must comply with certain conditions and participate in specific programmes according to their needs. Monitoring is of a more stringent nature and more violent offenders are served than is the case at CCRCs.

According to Latessa and Allen (1997:54), DRCs serve certain clientele, namely:

- those on pre-trial release
- those on probation, and
- those on parole.

These persons have to report on a regular basis to the centre where various programmes and activities take place. If they fail to report to the DRC it is viewed as a violation of the conditions and their specific order is then cancelled.

According to Nuffield (1997:1) DRCs have been extensively utilised in England for a period of decades. They are also now extensively utilised in the U.S. Nuffield elaborates that British DRCs focus less on controlling the offender and focus more on programmes. The offender has to take part in these programmes either on full- or part-time basis.

McDevitt and Miliano (1992:152) state that the utilisation of DRCs in the correctional field as an intermediate sanction is relatively new. In addition, because of the uniqueness of each DRC an exact definition is not possible. Some specific elements are shared such as frequent contact with offenders, substance abuse testing and structured schedules. However, that is where the similarity ends.

McDevitt and Miliano (1992:153) discuss the DRC concept as it currently functions in Massachusetts. They also consider its relationship with other types of intermediate sanctions, such as intensive probation supervision (IPS) as well as electronic monitoring (EM). They also give attention to the possibility of whether DRCs could function as an alternative corrections programme.

McShane and Krause (1993:235) commented that DRCs were originally used in Massachusetts in 1986 for early released offenders from prison. Junger-Tas (1994:30) saw this early release as an option rather than as an alternative sanction. The advantage of DRCs is that offenders stay at home but report to the DRC on a daily basis.

McShane and Krause (1993:235) mention that evaluation of the DRC in Springfield, Massachusetts took place in 1988 after

serving an average of 100 clients over a 15-month period. Seventy six percent of persons formerly incarcerated and eighty three percent of those with no previous incarceration had successfully completed the programme. Only one person committed a new crime for which an arrest took place. The programme therefore seems to be successful and pose no harm to public safety.

Byrne and Pattavina (1992:299-300) discuss two types of facilities, which were of a more recent nature at that time, namely CCRCs and DRCs. They indicate that little research had been done on the effectiveness of CCRCs and DRCs. For them, basic evaluation research was of primary importance looking at both the implementation as well as the impact of these programmes.

2.7.7 Electronic monitoring (EM)

McCarthy and McCarthy (1991:125) comment that "*electronic monitoring provides technological verification of an offender's whereabouts*".

Renzema (1992:43) confirms the above definition when he states that "*current EM equipment simply reports through telephone lines whether or not an offender is present at a single location*".

The Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa (2000/01:111) reported that electronic monitoring provides greater control over offenders but does not necessarily prevent crime.

Latessa and Allen (1997:325) stated that first of all EM was used to monitor the whereabouts of mental patients. Furthermore, they comment that currently a broader range of offenders is included and monitored under the EM system, as was previously the case. According to them, these offenders now include the following:

- Probationers
- follow up of persons after incarceration
- control of those on community corrections
- monitoring of those in pre-trial situations prior to sentencing.

Allen and Simonsen (1995:225) describe both active as well as passive EM. They state that in active monitoring, transmission takes place from the offender's wrist or ankle and this is conveyed by means of a home telephone to a central office where it is monitored. Passive monitoring, on the other hand, calls the offender at random by means of a computer

programme when s/he is supposed to be confined at home. Allen and Simonsen (1995:226) also reported about recent evaluations of the EM system, that indicated regular success in Oklahoma, Florida, Los Angeles, California, England, Wales, Lake County, Illinois and Texas.

Renzema (1992:45) mentions another type of EM used by the Florida Department of Corrections, called the "*programmed contact or PC*" system. He states that different systems exist, such as the following:

- "*nonbiometric*" - concentrating on something that the offender wears, such as an anklet or bracelet device.
- "*biometric*" - recording a "*biologically unique feature of the offender*". In this case it may be the face or voice.

To give a more in-depth understanding of the functioning of a DRC and the use of modern technology to monitor offenders, the BI Incorporated DRC in Denver, Colorado will be presented as a case study. In the discussion of this DRC, the researcher will integrate data obtained from her visit to other similar centres visited in Denver, Colorado.

2.7.7.1 Case study - BI Incorporated and other international DRCs

According to BI Incorporated DRC (Maglia, 2000), not everybody qualifies for EM at their facility. The following requirements prevail:

- A place to live
- A telephone
- Electricity
- Ability to pay the daily fee.

Maglia, (2000) further reports that the offender should be in full-time employment that must be verified, unless the Department of Corrections or other referring agency lays down other conditions. If there are medical or personal reasons why the offender cannot work, these must be verifiable. A further condition before enrolment is that the offender must make a full personal financial disclosure.

If the offender fails to pay the fees agreed upon, this will result in the immediate withdrawal of the programme and s/he then will be returned to custody if the referral agency is not prepared to pay the costs.

BI Incorporated DRC only allows the offender into the programme after s/he has signed a contract and agreed to all the terms and conditions, according to Maglia (2000).

Maglia (2000) regards security as of cardinal importance. The EM device is secure and is not removable without detachment. It has to withstand any kind of activity and can transmit for a year. The offenders can, for example, both swim and bath with it. Females at Tooley Hall wear the EM device on their wrists (Carst, 2000). Maglia (2000) commented about the women's views with regard to EM, that ranged from weirdness to linking it to a fashion trend. However, Maglia (2000) holds the opinion that the device worn on the wrist looks more like a transmitter as opposed to a watch.

The requirements that BI Incorporated DRC expects of clients will not be as successful in South Africa, because they will exclude high numbers of offenders, due to their being unemployed and/or homeless. Nevertheless, some offenders would be successfully served by a DRC provided they have homes with telephones and are able to pay for the EM services provided. Two different aspects of EM were used in South Africa during the time of the pilot project, namely, "*Continuous EM*" and the "Drive-by EM". According to the Pretoria Community Corrections Office (1997:5) continuous EM "*refers*

to the situation where an electronic monitoring device is constantly present in the home of the offender to monitor curfew compliance of the offender on a continuous basis. This home monitoring device, known as the Field Monitoring Device (FMD), is also in direct contact with the Central Monitor Office to report any violations immediately".

The Pretoria Community Corrections Office (1997:5) defined "Drive-by EM" as follows:

"This type of electronic monitoring is in principle similar to normal physical monitoring, where the monitor officials visit offenders at home, but without having to leave their vehicles, using a remote drive-by radio receiver (known as Drive-By) to determine if an offender is home, at work or attending a community programme. This will typically be used in areas where no electricity or telephone infrastructure exists. This remote reader is able to receive any offender transmitter signal within a 150m radius".

The above discussion has centred on electronic monitoring used primarily by international companies. The two different monitoring systems included in the pilot project in South Africa a few years ago, was the "Drive-by EM," which was used where the offenders had no telephones in their homes and

"*Continuous EM*" was used for offenders with telephones at home. Unfortunately, EM was not resumed after the pilot project in South Africa, because there were "*some phrases in the tender documents that were confusing and the tender was withdrawn*" (Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, 2000/01:111).

Besides the EM systems that have been discussed, there are two other modern devices available, according to Maglia of BI Incorporated DRC (2000). One of them, SkyGuard 200, was incorporated into the monitoring system. This device randomly contacts offenders telephonically at home and takes an in-home breathalyser from a distance. This technology is so advanced that it guarantees that the correct person is taking the test because of sophisticated voice pattern devices. The feedback of the test's results takes place by telephone to the monitoring centre. The Sobriator and EM are linked in order to reach the objectives of monitoring offenders. This device is used with offenders found guilty of alcohol abuse and who received a suspended sentence subject to sobriety (Maglia, 2000).

Maglia (2000) stated that with SkyGuard 200 it was possible to monitor a person anywhere in the community. SkyGuard combined with the BI 9000 electronic monitoring system

provides for a more effective monitoring system, although it requires extensive integrated supervision. SkyGuard in combination with Sobrietor, the remote alcohol-testing device, provide an even stronger monitoring system.

The burning question is how successful these devices are with regard to the monitoring process of offenders? To further complicate this problem, is the reality of constrained budgets, as well as unmanageable caseloads. The Corrections Connection Technology Network (2001:1) found a solution for the problem that probationer officers had in New York City in tracking down offenders who failed to report to the Department of Probation. Accordingly, New York City developed a sophisticated system to supervise probationers. Those offenders with a good prognosis and who do not pose a serious risk to the community report at automatic reporting kiosks similar to automatic teller machines (ATMs). The offenders report at the kiosks instead of going to the agency. Offenders are identified by means of personal identification numbers and hand geometry, i.e. the shape of the hand. According to this report, a "talking head" video is used which takes the probationer through the process of becoming linked to the system. The reporting at these kiosks takes less than four minutes, according to the Corrections Connection Technology

Network (2001:1). If this technology could be used in South Africa, it would save many hours as well as solving monitoring problems. Again, this tool will only serve a certain type of offender, which serves to confirm the researcher's opinion that "*one size does not fit all*" when it comes to sentencing options.

Another tool, according to the Community Corrections - Public Safety Initiatives (2000:1) in the management of offenders in the community is a "*warning cards system*". Warning cards are given to offenders prior to release, warning them about the new increased time they will have to serve for both violent as well as non-violent offences, if they do not comply with the prescribed conditions. Nowadays on the sports field, players are sent off the field with yellow and red cards for unacceptable behaviour. In the opinion of the researcher, this could be a similarly useful tool to use in the monitoring of offenders. The researcher is of the opinion that in South Africa this could be enforced by Section 117 (e) of the Correctional Services Act, (Act 111 of 1998), where it states that "*absconding is now a criminal offence*".

It may be noted from the above discussion, that technology could assist countries in the monitoring of parolees and probationers in a new way. As already indicated in this

chapter, BI Incorporated DRC manages the offenders within the context of a certain formula or model. At this DRC it is believed that proper monitoring linked with programmes, will bring about appropriate monitoring responses from the offenders (Maglia, 2000). This, in turn, will lead to reduced recidivism and enhanced public safety, (Lasater, 1999:12), as indicated in Figure 2.

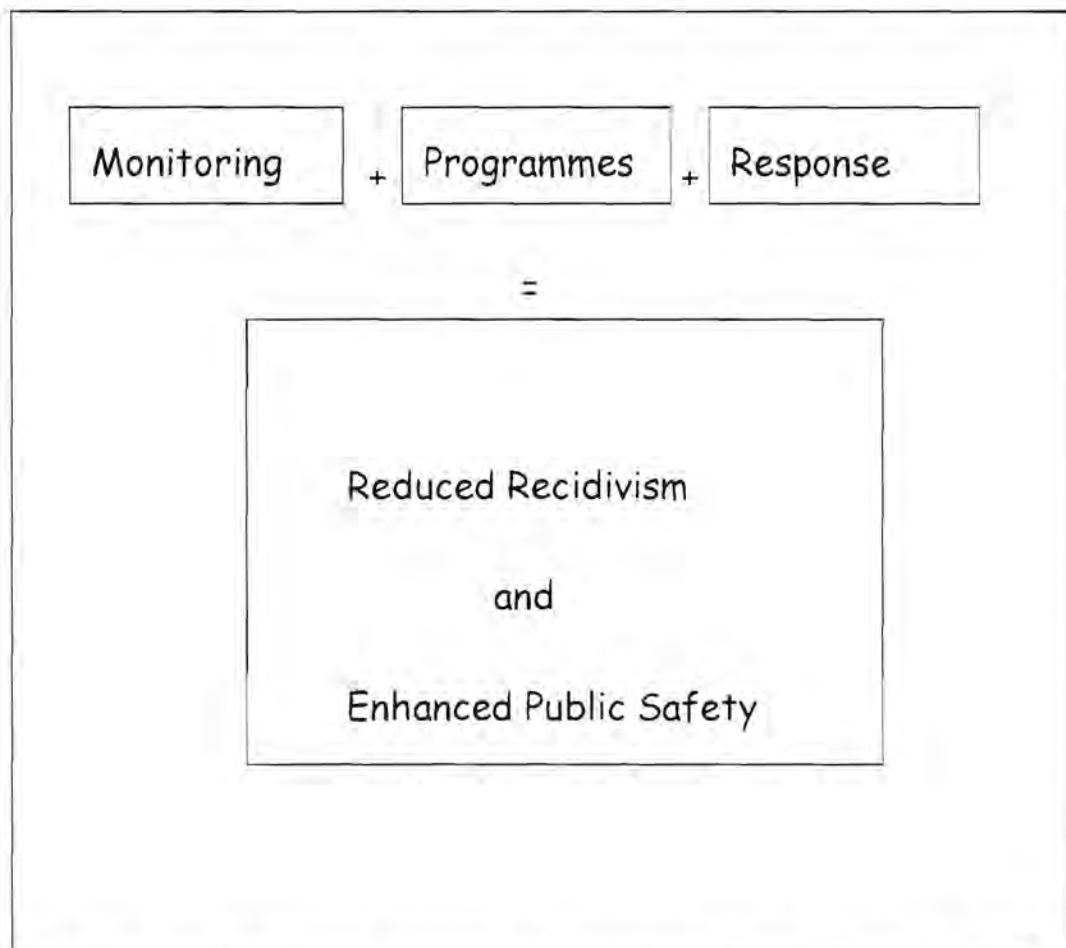


FIGURE 2: BI INCORPORATED STRATEGY FOR SUCCESS WITH CLIENTS (Lasater, 1999:12).

In summary, BI Incorporated DRC in Denver, Colorado includes in their technology of monitoring their clients the use of EM, SkyGuard 200 as well as the formula outlined in Figure 2 above. The programmes and monitoring of the BI Incorporated DRC does, however, not come cheaply. For this reason, it is necessary to ensure a constant flow of funds to make the project sustainable.

Maglia (2000) mentioned that they did not experience a lack of funds. He informed the researcher that the DRC had four sources of income, namely

- Contracts with the Department of Correctional Services.
- A Federal contract.
- A State contract with the Criminal Justice Department.
- Clients pay for their own services.

Maglia (2000) stated that BI Incorporated DRC would take an offender off the criminal justice contract if the DRC discovers that s/he earns a big income. Other offenders who are unable to pay for their programmes would then be placed on the criminal justice contract where funds are made available to pay for services rendered. However, if offenders earn a higher income, they do not pay more for services, as there is a set

rate for the services. The DRC utilises sliding scales to adjust rates, although a certain amount is not exceeded.

The referred DRC delivers services to the following types of offenders:

- Parolees
- Pre-trial offenders
- Probationers, including speciality reports.

Maglia (2000) further informed the researcher that offenders who are pre-released to CCRCs before their due parole dates, still have the status of sentenced offenders and that they are referred to participate in pre-release programmes. Offenders come straight from prison or from a CCRC to the DRC. These offenders are monitored through urine analysis (UA) testing if they are on certain contracts, such as antabuse monitoring and breathalyser testing. The breathalyser works as follows:

When the breathalyser is used, the results are recorded within two seconds. When the reading is point 003 it is taken as positive. The person then has to face the personnel, rinse his/her mouth and give a drug sample. If the drug sample is zero everything is in order, whilst a measurement of over point

001 is proof of drug taking. The following steps are then taken:

- The offender has to do a urine screening.
- Group meetings are cancelled for the next 40-48 hours.
- The parole officer is immediately paged and will physically report at the DRC within half an hour.
- The offender is arrested and there will be a hearing within 3-4 days.
- Assessment takes place on a four-point scale. After the evaluation, the offender is either sent back to a CCRC or to prison for 3-4 days or during the weekend. Apparently, not all offenders are returned to prison. The probation and drug courts offenders go to a CCRC for 30 days and are then returned to the DRC.

BI Incorporated DRC does, however, experience certain problems while serving the offenders. Maglia (2000) commented that they receive many verbal abuses from offenders during the course of the monitoring and stressed the point that BI Incorporated DRC practices zero tolerance towards offenders. He stated that accountability for their actions is expected from offenders. He was of the opinion

that in prison there is no accountability. He argued that if offenders are taken straight from prison to be monitored at a DRC, in the absence of CCRCs, a very good parole programme is needed. When offenders come straight from prison to the DRC, there is also a need for government funding. Maglia (2000) expressed the opinion that offenders who come straight out of prison could not afford the services at the DRC, even if they take all the money they have earned whilst in prison.

Maglia (2000) reported the success rate of BI Incorporated DRC as being a tough issue. He was of the opinion that the facility provides the offenders with the necessary tools but these can never be one hundred percent successful. For him, it was up to the offenders. Success to him was when an offender masters at least one tool, maintains sobriety and is productive in society. This is the goal of BI Incorporated DRC. Maglia (2000) was convinced of the fact that to build new prisons does not alter or fix any problems and that the focus should rather be on educational intervention methods. It was apparent that BI Incorporated DRC serves a diverse clientele namely, violent offenders, sex offenders, armed robbers, drug related offenders, as well as murderers (Maglia, 2000). With DRCs it is possible to serve the more violent offenders

because of the intensive supervision programmes (ISP) for offenders.

Carrigan (2000), programme director of Independence House, Pecos Street, was of the opinion that it is necessary that offenders progress through many small steps because the criminal justice system works better when broken down into specific steps. He was convinced that DRCs cannot replace CCRCs because they are but one step in the total system.

According to Carst (2000) the model where a CCRC, e.g. Williams Street CCRC, links with a neighbouring DRC, is an ideal one. She nevertheless argued that there is a place for both types of facilities. In this regard there was no contact between the Williams Street CCRC and DRC offenders. The non-residential offenders visited the DRC through a side passage.

The Independence House South Federal CCRC is also linked with a DRC situated on the top floor of the CCRC. According to Sullivan (2000) this system was not so successful because of the fact that the DRC offenders meet the residential CCRC offenders in the building and then sell drugs to them. During the researcher's visit this CCRC planned to change the structure inside the building as a way of addressing the

problem. She was convinced that a combination of a DRC with a CRC is the answer. Whilst some offenders need 24-hour supervision, others need housing. She stressed that it was not possible to monitor a person all the time even at a DRC.

In summary, the above discussion centred on DRCs and the utilisation of modern technology in order to manage and monitor offenders. Attention has been given to EM and SkyGuard 200, the Sobriator, the formula used by BI Incorporated DRC, as well as the "*warning cards system*" and "*kiosk reporting*". It was concluded that DRCs are only one step in the criminal justice system and that they cannot replace CCRCs.

As mentioned earlier, the BI Incorporated DRC also serves the more violent type of offender. This requires additional intermediate sanctions, namely intensive supervised probation, which is to a more stringent type of supervision with community safety as a primary objective.

2.7.8 Intensive supervised probation (ISP)

The term "*intensive*" already indicates a more stringent type of supervision. Usually probation officers supervise these offenders and have very small caseloads. These probation officers may at any time do drug and alcohol testing or apply

other appropriate punishment on the offenders (Latessa and Allen, 1997:55).

McShane and Krause (1993:150) discuss the characteristics of intensive supervision programmes (ISP). They include the following characteristics:

- *"Small caseloads*
- *More frequent contacts between officer and client*
- *Periodic performance reviews*
- *More restrictions on offenders and more use of curfew and house arrest*
- *More use of drug and alcohol testing*
- *More use of teams of officers*
- *More frequent use of revocation"*

Carst, (2000) reported that ISP takes place prior to parole at Tooley Hall CCRC. ISP candidates have to wear ankle bracelets until the granting of parole. The Department of Correction Division of Community Corrections supervises these offenders. An offender may be sent back to a community corrections facility if they violate the prescribed conditions. House arrest

is yet another more stringent option to monitor offenders in the community in their own homes.

2.7.9 House arrest

In this instance the offender remains in his/her house under arrest, other than for work and other small exceptions. These offenders should stay alcohol and drug free as a condition of this order. They may also be expected to wear electronic monitoring devices or undergo electronic breath analyser tests (Latessa and Allen, 1997:55).

McShane and Krause (1993:116) discuss three levels of home confinement. They state that it can vary from the least restrictive to the most restrictive and that each level has its own specific conditions:

- Curfew - lowest level
- Home detention - more restrictive
- Home incarceration - most restrictive

House arrest is also utilised in South Africa, according to Coetzee (2000), the Assistant Head of Correctional Supervision of the Department of Correctional Services and is

not regarded as a “*soft option*”, contrary to the community’s perspective.

2.7.10 Split sentences

As the term indicates, this is a kind of double sentence. Initially, the offender is incarcerated in a local jail and then placed on probation in the community. Variations exist, including the following:

- “*Jail plus*” - where the offender is employed in the week but spends weekends in jail.
- The offender is required to take part in shock incarceration programmes at boot camps in a “*quasi-military*” programme which serves as a short jail term. According to Latessa and Allen (1997:58) these are relatively new community corrections programmes.

An important issue when making decisions about intermediate sanctions, is that of public safety. The public’s fear of having offenders in their midst in communities needs to be understood and addressed when the establishment of CCRCs is promoted. Models for CCRCs need to integrate a component of community safety.

2.8 COMMUNITY SAFETY

Studies have shown that offenders serving under community corrections within the community are not primarily responsible for crime in the community (Clear and Braga, 1998:217). According to these studies they only constitute a small percentage of all the crimes committed. These authors make the point that the question should rather be asked about how the management of the offender should take place in the community, as opposed to the question whether offenders should be "*on the streets*". With regard to this issue, they argue as follows:

- *"Intervention programmes are promising when applied to higher risk offenders;*
- *Expanded use of non-prison alternatives does not need to result in expanded criminal behaviour, if low-risk offenders are diverted from prison;*
- *The relaxation of stringent program requirements for low-risk cases need not be associated with increased criminality;*
and

- *The levels of criminality, as indicated by arrests, in traditional community programs are low in most jurisdictions"* (Clear and Braga, 1998:217).

Latessa and Allen (1997:314) note that there are two primary concerns facing intermediate sanctions, i.e. offender diversion and public safety. They state that long-term prison sentences are unsuitable for some offenders. On the other hand, straight probation may also not serve a good purpose if public safety is in danger. With the intermediate sanctions, punishment is more effectively adapted because both the types of the crime and the criminal are considered. With the intermediate sanctions, offender accountability is of great importance (Latessa and Allen, 1997:314).

Cullen, Wright and Applegate (1996:72) comment about the popularity of intermediate punishments. Strong resistance to these punishments does not occur because a wide range of alternatives can be given to the satisfaction of everyone concerned. They reason that for the first time it is possible to reduce the use of incarceration with viable options as well as to reduce costs. According to Cullen, Wright and Applegate (1996:72), the community also has little to lose with the use of the intermediate sanctions.

The researcher agrees with a wide range of alternative sentencing options, also referred to as intermediate sanctions. However, the researcher understands the fears of communities regarding the safety issue from their point of view. These fears need to be addressed when a CCRC model(s) is designed for South Africa. Nevertheless, the community should also be educated to see that alternative sentencing options are not necessarily "*soft options*". The community must learn that offenders who work and stay in the community can be to the benefit of the community. When offenders contribute to the local economy and financially take care of their own families, they can become proud citizens as opposed to being perceived as "*welfare recipients*".

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed various aspects of community corrections. It referred to philosophies of the offender in the community throughout history, where the researcher noted that the concept of community corrections is not a new term within a historical context. A more recent development in community corrections, i.e. restorative justice was also discussed, bringing to community corrections a balanced approach of restoring justice to victims and the community, a process in which the state plays a minor role.

The intermediate sanctions or alternative sentencing options were discussed, including day fines, community service, restitution, probation, electronic monitoring, intensive supervised probation, DRCs and CCRCs and split sentences. The particular focus on CCRCs and DRCs indicated how these two intermediate sanctions could be supportively utilised despite their respectively unique places within the criminal justice system, as separate intermediate sanctions. It was concluded that the intermediate sanctions utilised for community corrections should take the safety of the community as a primary objective when dealing with offenders in the community.

The availability of a broad range of the intermediate sanctions in South Africa, would counteract the current narrow sentences of either going straight to prison or being placed on probation. Having such a variety of intermediate sanctions available would also confirm that "*one size does not fit all*" when it comes to the sentencing of offenders.

In chapter three models and critical management aspects of CCRCs will be discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

MODELS AND CRITICAL MANAGEMENT ASPECTS OF COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

To contextualise the relevance of models for community corrections residential centres (CCRCs), it is important to understand who qualifies for such alternative forms of sentencing. The following scenario may happen to anyone:

Experimentation with drugs caught me up into a web of lies, theft and fraud. I am a clever young male, intelligent with a bright future ahead of me. I do not have a criminal record and I am not a violent type of person. Unfortunately, I have a drug problem. I have tried to come free of this habit but could not escape. I needed money, and a lot of it, to pay the Nigerians who sold the drugs to me. I was caught up in this web

of deception. This is where I started to make a plan. I worked out a whole system to defraud my employer to embezzle his money to pay for my drug habits. Nobody knew about this until one day, all of a sudden, my lies, theft and fraud caught up with me. People started talking and in the end my employer found out about everything. I wondered whether I will go to prison and how I am going to cope in prison? I am afraid of the gangs in prison. Will they rape me or take me further down into the downward spiral of drugs? If I go to prison, I would have a record with no hope for job satisfaction in future. That is if I will find a job with my kind of record. I think that I deserve a second chance in life. On the other hand, the victim, my employer also needs to get his money back. How am I going to pay him back if I am in prison? Would it not be better if I receive an alternative sentencing option in the community? I am prepared to undergo specialised programmes to set me free of my drug habit. If I was sentenced under community corrections I would be able to work and pay back my employer. Is this a reasonable request given my problem?

In chapter three the discussion on community corrections, that was initiated in chapter two, is pursued further. The focus of this chapter is on the three models of community corrections, namely diversion, advocacy and reintegration (Smykla, 1981:14). The "*rehabilitative component*" of the reintegration model falls within the medical and adjustment models and hence these models will also be briefly discussed.

Within the reintegration model, Latessa and Allen (1982:156) distinguish between three alternative models that are based primarily on referral services, i.e. the standard, pre-release and parole violator models. These three models will be discussed in this chapter.

CCRC and DRC models can only be effective, if they are well managed. The latter part of the chapter will discuss the critical aspects of these models that impact directly on the management of CCRCs, including the following:

- managing agencies
- funding
- selection criteria
- size of CCRCs

- gender of residents
- average length of stay
- problems experienced
- community support and
- explicit identification of CCRCs.

In this chapter's discussion, the findings of the qualitative research of this study, i.e. the visit to CCRCs and DRCs in Denver, Colorado, will be integrated appropriately with the literature review.

3.2 MODELS

Bailey (1987:317) defines a model as *"a representation of a system that specifies not only its parts or components, but also the relationships among the components"*.

Bailey states that a model differs from the genuine object in some way. Latessa and Allen (1997:352) agree with Bailey and define a model as *"A picture or representation showing the parts of a system"*. These authors make it clear that models are ways of explaining the different segments of the criminal justice system, how they fit together and relate to each other.

This implies that when change takes place in one segment, it affects the rest of the system.

According to Smykla (1981:14) community corrections is based on three models, namely diversion, advocacy and reintegration. The models of diversion and reintegration will be discussed in more depth because of their relevance to the development of CCRCs, whilst the model of advocacy will be discussed more briefly.

3.2.1 Model of diversion

Latessa and Allen (1997:436) define diversion as follows: *"The official halting or suspension, at any legally prescribed processing point after a recorded justice system entry, of formal criminal or juvenile justice proceedings against an alleged offender, and referral of that person to a treatment or care programme administered by a non-justice agency or a private agency, or no referral"*.

In support of this view, Clear and Dammer (2000:414) define diversion as *"a strategy that seeks to avoid formal processing of the offender by the criminal justice system"*.

Diversion is thus a way of bypassing the criminal justice system at any time before an offender is sentenced, and is

accompanied by certain conditions, or no conditions. For the researcher, it is within this context that community development provides the theoretical framework for community corrections as a sentence where programme design should be holistic and comprehensive in order to ensure complete reintegration into society.

The diversion model's premise is that prison should only be for serious criminals. Diversion is a way to keep petty crime offenders out of prison and treat them in the community. This treatment which then takes place in the community should be without the threat of imprisonment. However, this is not always the case according to Smykla (1981:15), as accused persons are often coerced into participation in corrections programmes.

McShane and Krause (1993:17) mention that a person could be diverted at various points before charges are brought against him/her, namely before arrest, before charges are laid, or before trial. What is important, according to these authors, is that neither the adult, nor the juvenile is convicted or judged. Offenders, who are diverted, bypass the criminal justice system and do not have criminal records, provided they comply with the stipulated conditions.

Allen and Simonsen (1995:658) discuss three basic models emerging from the model of diversion categorised according to the agencies initiating the action for diversion, namely community-based, police-based and court-based diversion programmes. These are now explained.

3.2.1.1 Community-based diversion programmes

Allen and Simonsen (1995:658) are of the opinion that programmes linked with intervention and services in the community not only avoid incarceration, but also eliminate the criminal label. This diversion process does not replace probation services, but serves those offenders against whom charges can be dropped and who are not eligible for probation. Nevertheless, these authors are convinced that diversion should be accompanied by formal agreements with offenders, in return for the removal of their criminal arrest records. A range of services and residential settings should be made available to these diverted offenders in order to help them to solve their problems.

Clear and Dammer (2000:91) state that formal diversion differs in that the offender has to attend certain programmes as a condition of the diversion. The criminal process is suspended in favour of a non-criminal process. If the offender

completes the programme successfully, the original case is closed. In this way the offender is given a second chance in life.

3.2.1.2 Police-based diversion programmes

The police may intervene in the case of children in conflict with the law by diverting them from the criminal justice process. However, their responsibility does not end with the children. Through an intervention approach, they also need to help the families who are in crisis when family violence occurs. The police should have "*trained family crisis intervention officers*" available, who can respond appropriately to family violence (Allen and Simonsen, 1995:659).

Clear and Dammer (2000:91) refer to "*informal*" as well as "*formal*" diversion strategies. Informal diversion is, for example, where the police decide to warn an offender instead of arresting him/her for some or other minor offence. In the formal diversion process, criminal proceedings are suspended in favour of non-criminal proceedings (Clear and Dammer, 2000:92).

3.2.1.3 Court-based diversion programmes

According to Allen and Simonsen (1995:659), "*pre-trial intervention programmes*" are aimed at dropping charges against the offender, based on the outcome of participation in the intervention programme. If performance was not according to expectations, a further extension of programme time may be given. The offender may also be returned to court, "*without prejudice, because of unsatisfactory performance in the programme*".

Austin, Bloom and Donahue (1992:16-19) mention that one hundred existing community programmes were evaluated in the U.S.A. of which 83 percent were managed by non-profit organisations. Sixty-two of these programmes offered residential care to females. The authors refer to pre-trial diversion programmes and court sentenced programmes. In the pre-trial diversion programmes, female offenders are diverted from the criminal justice system and prosecution is halted if they complete programmes successfully.

In the case of court-sentenced programmes, the courts order and sentence offenders to take part in these programmes as a condition of their diversion from prison or jail (Austin *et al.* 1992:16-19). In the U.S.A. prisons refer to "*facilities reserved*

for the confinement of persons convicted of serious crimes" (Clear and Dammer, 2000:416), whilst jails are "*facilities authorised to hold pre-trial detainees and sentenced misdemeanants for periods longer than forty-eight hours"* (Clear and Dammer, 2000:415).

Allen and Simonsen (1995:26) are convinced that diversion should be utilised for those who are arrested for being drunk in public and those who use drugs for the first time. However, it may then be necessary to send them to detoxification centres, depending on their condition.

Clear and Dammer (2000:93) mention that the main goal of diversion is to make services available to offenders, with the specific intention of rehabilitating them, instead of sending them to prison.

A second goal of diversion, according to Clear and Dammer (2000:93), is that rehabilitation is promoted by taking away the stigmatisation consequences of the criminal process. An offender, passing through the criminal justice process, is left with a great deal of damage. The offender is "*labelled*" as a criminal and this, in turn, may lead to further criminal behaviour, whereby the offender acts out the role that is expected from her/him.

Clear and Dammer (2000:93) assert that a third goal is possible in diversion programmes. The offender can rehabilitate because of the fact that specific services that are needed may be provided in order to address the offender's problems, i.e. alcohol, drug or family counselling.

Further benefits mentioned by Clear and Dammer (2000:93) that may be reaped through the diversion process are as follows:

- The financial aspect. It is cost effective. The offender does not need to be represented by lawyers in court.
- The offender can keep his/her job in the community.

Bartollas (1985:89) states that the main characteristic of diversion is that sub-divisions of the Department of Justice maintain power over the offender. Diversions are frequently utilised with youth offenders. This author evaluates the use of diversion programmes and comes to the conclusion that the value of diversion programmes is that they keep youthful offenders out of the juvenile justice systems. He adds, however, that in recent years, diversion is not so readily accepted because of a number of reasons, such as:

- The widening of the web of the juvenile justice system;

- not taking into consideration the "*due process rights of juveniles*"; and
- the stigmatisation of those who take part in these programmes.

In South Africa, diversion is the responsibility of the Department of Social Services according to Brown (2002), the provincial probation co-ordinator of Gauteng Social Services. However, she stated that this Department does not have the capacity for the diversion of adults although this is included in their future planning. The current focus is more on the child under eighteen years of age in conflict with the law. Coetzee (2002), Assistant Head of Community Corrections, Department of Correctional Services, Pretoria, informed the researcher telephonically that adults who qualify for diversion are referred, at this stage, to social workers at the Department of Correctional Services (Community Corrections in Pretoria), for participation in diversion programmes. If they complete the diversion programmes successfully, the charges are dropped against them, leaving them with clean records. Important to note, however, is that there should be an agency that is responsible for co-ordinating the diversion of adults if the Department of Social Services does not have the capacity to

do so. Coetzee (2002) is of the opinion that adult diversion services could be outsourced to the private sector.

Diversion offenders normally remain at home whilst attending specified programmes as part of the stipulated conditions. However, it may well be that a sufficient support system does not exist at the home of the offender, and it is then advisable to refer such an offender to a residential facility specialising in the needs of the diverted offender.

During the researcher's visit to Denver in Colorado, it was observed that many diversion clients are served not only in CCRCs, but also at Day Reporting Centres (DRCs). According to the programme directors of CCRCs, those on diversion are difficult to work with, compared to pre-release or transitional residents. The transitional offender comes directly out of prison and is pre-released before the due parole date to the CCRC. This type of offender accepts the CCRC more readily because of its informal nature, compared to prison. On the contrary, diversion clients have never experienced prison due to having been diverted from the criminal justice system right from the start and therefore perceive CCRCs as more problematic. It is thus clear that the model of diversion has its own specific challenges that must be met.

Clear and Dammer (2000:94) assert that although diversion may appear to be a wise option, there are often disagreements with regard to this option. These programmes are sometimes seen as too lenient, whilst neglecting the needs of the victim. They may also encourage "*net widening*", which in essence means "*when some programme or form of social control is given to an individual who otherwise would not be part of the system*" (Clear and Dammer, 2000:415). These authors explain that successful diversion programmes are cost-effective, improve the lives of offenders, suit victims and also provide services to the community. However, Clear and Dammer (2000:94) admit that it may be true that the criminal justice system neglects the feelings and needs of the victim whilst focussing on the offender's needs and cost saving. They propose, though, that the baby should not be thrown out with the bath water, but rather that the victim should be involved in the diversion process, without the necessity of closing the diversion programme. Victims of offences should, according to them, be present at court hearings to make an input on the decision whether the offender should receive a diversionary sanction.

The researcher realises that the ordinary South African citizen may feel that the law should take a harsher stand against criminals because of the fact that they unfamiliar with

the benefits of these programmes and hence would not support them. It is therefore important that the design, development and implementation of the diversion model incorporate a focus on community involvement and education.

In summary, the diversion model's value lies in the fact that the offender is diverted from prison and, in this way, receives a second chance in life by escaping from a criminal record.

3.2.2 Model of advocacy

This model claims that it is the community that should be changed, as opposed to the client. Resources should be improved or developed by the responsible agencies for utilisation by the client (Smykla, 1981:16).

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1976:494) explains how the causation theory of crime developed in the 1960s with a social as opposed to an individual causation. The focus is thus on the social milieu and not on the individual offender. Although structural changes to the social milieu are important, they can only have meaning and relevance if undertaken in interaction with offenders. The reintegration model provides this link.

3.2.3 Model of reintegration

In order to reduce crime, Smykla (1981:16) indicates that reintegration focuses both on the individual offender as well as the community. This model's premise is that individuals do crime because of undesirable conditions at home and in the community. Resources should thus be found in the community to help the offender to take on new and desirable roles in the community. CCRCs, work-release programmes, study-release programmes, group homes, and pre-release centres are programmes that are included under this model (Smykla, 1981:16).

During 1968 the researcher listened to a programme that was broadcast on Springbok Radio with the title "*The Broken Link*". This programme reported about the "*youth revolt against the Establishment*". Rose and Chilvers captured this broadcast programme in a book in 1969. The broadcast was about the strong generational gap between parents and children, especially teenagers and young adults, the abuse of drugs and alcohol and sexual deviancy. At the end of the programme it was concluded that South Africa had no facilities for the treatment and aftercare of drug users. Thirty four years ago, that programme suggested CCRCs should be established and

managed on the same basis as the international models which the researcher refers to in this study.

It was further suggested in the broadcast that a person should stay in a CCRC for no longer than six months before being further reintegrated into society. This, however, did not imply an end to such a person's association with the CCRC, but attendance of aftercare and follow-up programmes. It was already proposed at that time that a CCRC should be a community project, and that everyone in close association with the delinquent person should have access to the head of the CCRC (Rose and Chilvers, 1969:173-4).

According to the Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (2000/01:112), an amount of R51, 4 million was allocated in the 2000/01 budget for the reintegration of offenders. This report discusses the fact that reintegration is an ongoing process that begins after admission to prison. In essence, reintegration prepares the offender for his/her role as a law-abiding citizen in the community after being released from prison. Involvement of the community in this regard is of paramount importance.

Bartollas (1985:25) links the rehabilitative component of the reintegration model with that of the medical and adjustment models which will be briefly discussed next.

- **The medical model**

The main premise of the medical model is that the causes of crime can be identified and treated successfully. Offenders should not be punished, as it will not help to resolve their already negative self-image but will rather reinforce it. This model defines that the offender is unable to use freedom of choice and advocates that more use should be made of mental health facilities. Therefore, persons trained as experts in counselling techniques should preferably be in charge of decision-making in both the juvenile and adult justice systems (Bartollas, 1985:26).

- **The adjustment model**

Supporters of the adjustment model, in the same way as the medical model, believe that offenders differ from non-offenders and that they are in need of treatment and can be cured. However, they also believe that these offenders still have freedom of choice. According to this model, offenders should not be punished, as this tends to reinforce negative

behaviour. According to Bartollas (1985:27), four assumptions underpin the adjustment model:

- Offenders are in need of treatment in order to conform to the expectations of society.
- Offenders are able to live a crime-free life. The emphasis of intervention should be that offenders are accountable for their present actions, despite a possible history of emotional and social deprivation.
- Interaction between the larger society and the offender is important in the understanding of antisocial behaviour.
- Offenders can be trained in new alternatives enabling them to live crime-free lives. Various therapies are available such as *"reality therapy, transactional analysis (TA), guided group interaction (GGI), positive peer culture (PPC), milieu therapy, [and] the therapeutic community and behaviour modification"* to help offenders cope with various aspects of their lives (Bartollas, 1985:27). The proponents of this model do not emphasise individual pathology, as in the case of the medical model. Instead, they help offenders to make a better adjustment to society. They also do not advocate the primary use of imprisonment for offenders (Bartollas, 1985:27).

From the above discussion it can be concluded that the medical and adjustment models, situated within the reintegration model, reflect the view of affecting change within the offender and society.

The researcher is of the opinion that South Africa will be able to identify closely with the model of reintegration because of the vast numbers of families living in undesirable conditions in the community, which could well be regarded as a strong breeding ground for crime. Many long-term offenders are without support in the community and are therefore in need of CCRC facilities when pre-released from prison.

Smykla (1981:16) discusses three rationales in support of the reintegration model that the researcher will mention briefly:

- The detrimental effect of life inside prison as well as the status of sentenced offenders.
- Modern life with its diversity, which gets proportionally more difficult each day.
- The disapproving attitude of the community.

Smykla (1981:16) concludes that the goal of reintegration is *"to provide equal access to opportunities and to reduce class, sexual, and racial biases toward offenders"*.

The researcher agrees that it would be very difficult to change the negative attitude of the community towards criminals in South Africa. Crime has reached crisis proportions and citizens are no longer safe in their own homes, vehicles, and communities. One can rather expect on the one hand, the community to take a "*get tough*" attitude and the state, on the other hand, to take the so-called "*soft options*" with criminals by placing them in the community either as diversionary measures or under correctional supervision as probationers. Matthews and Francis (1996:1) report that countries, such as America and Britain as well as a number of other countries, take a harsh stand towards crime and criminals. These authors also comment on the high costs of incarceration as well as the effect which isolation has on both offenders and their families. For this reason, they state that policymakers have been forced to search for new alternatives other than incarceration (Matthews and Francis, 1996:2).

The education of communities regarding the establishment of CCRCs is therefore of utmost importance. The advocacy model could be utilised to institute change within the community. For community reintegration programmes to be successful, it is necessary to form a close partnership with the community. Networking should take place and services should be delivered

that benefit the offender as well as the community. Smykla (1981:16) warns that CCRCs, group homes, as well as work-release centres can easily be utilised only as a replacement of one institution (i.e. prison) for another in the community. In this regard, the same author states that reintegration, with its classification of CCRCs, group homes, as well as work-release centres should, however, not be accepted per se as community corrections. In this context, CCRCs is a replacement of one institution by another. Smykla (1981:17) argues that if a person cannot leave a CCRC freely as s/he wishes without threat, the concept of custodial coercion still applies.

Lewis and Darling (1990:100) point out that community corrections is not really an alternative to traditional methods, but rather an extension. They state that although a new relationship has developed between the state and the private sector, this relationship is not easily distinguishable and an extended system has developed with the result that the boundaries have become undetectable. In turn, it has become complicated to know who is in charge at any time as well as to discern the experiences of the clients who are treated (Lewis and Darling 1990:103).

Smykla (1981:9) alludes to three common errors with regard to community corrections:



- The location of the programme. A programme is not community-based simply because it is located in the community.
- The perception that less control makes it community-based.
- That the operation of programmes by private agencies is community-based. Smykla (1981:10) concludes that these three errors commonly fail to see how important meaningful ties are with the community.

In summary, the basic philosophy of the reintegration model is that the criminal behaviour of the offender should be resolved in the community where it started and that the community should solve its own problems (Bartollas (1985:27). Meaningful ties with the community are also advocated in order to achieve the objectives of the reintegration model. The proponents of this model argue that change is most likely to take place in community-based programmes than in institutions such as prisons.

According to Bartollas (1985:28), the reintegration model utilises internalisation as a means through which change takes place in the individual. In order to reach this ideal, it is necessary to provide the offender with various options such as education, employment, recreation and whatever else is

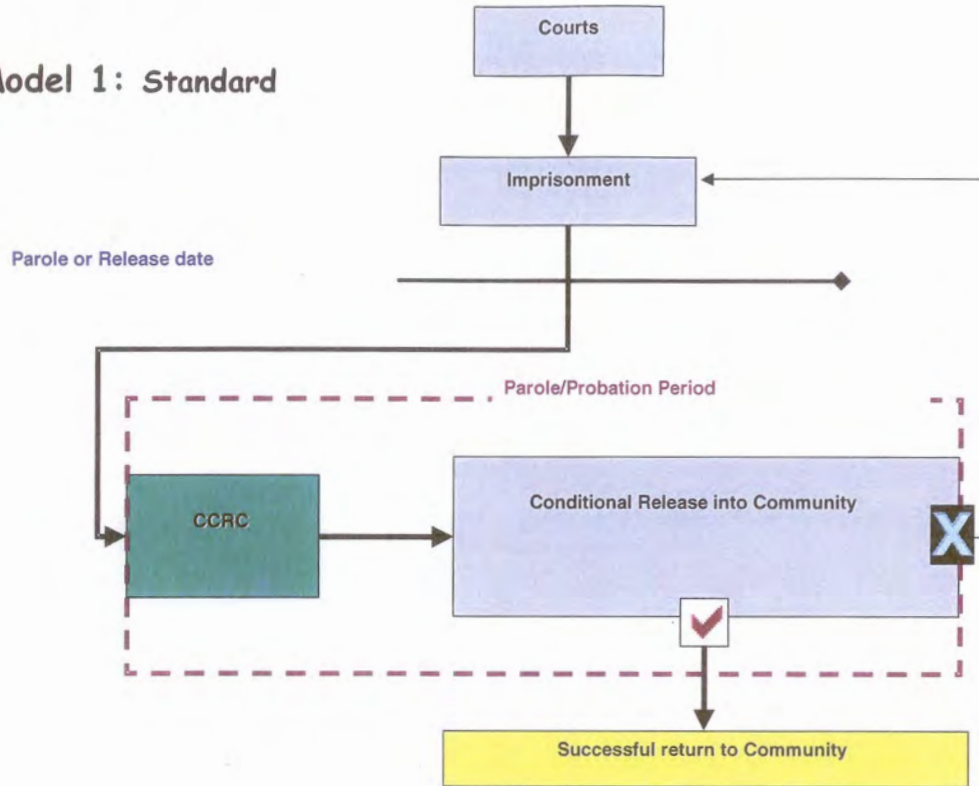
necessary to help him/her to reintegrate successfully into the community. These provisions link with the goal of reintegration "*to provide equal access to opportunities and to reduce class, sexual and racial biases toward offenders*" (Smykla, 1981:16). This ideal will, according to the philosophy of reintegration, only be reached through community-based corrections (Bartollas, 1985:28). The researcher supports the view of the reintegration model because the offender has the opportunity to be accountable for his/her behaviour in the community while rehabilitation and upliftment takes place. This is not always the case when offenders are incarcerated.

The reintegration model provides a more balanced approach to community corrections since it takes both the offender and the community into account. Three alternative models, according to referral services, fall under the reintegration model and will subsequently be discussed.

3.2.3.1 Alternative models to the reintegration model

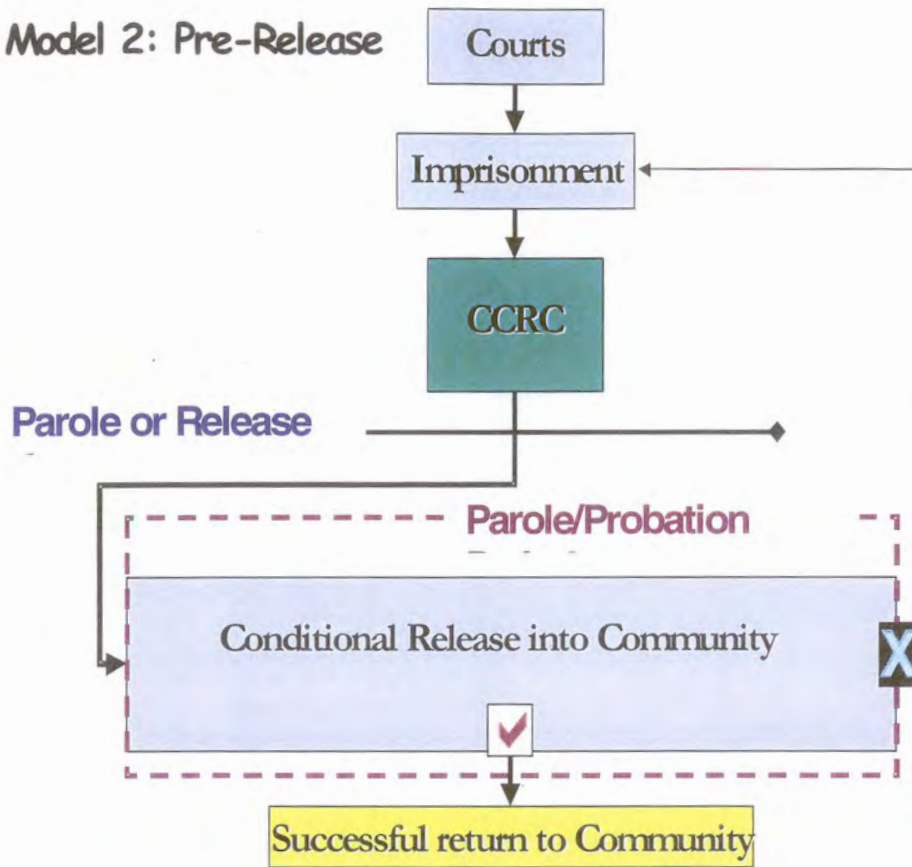
The three alternative models grouped under the reintegration model of corrections, are outlined in Figure 3, according to Latessa and Allen (1982:156) on the following three pages:

Model 1: Standard





Model 2: Pre-Release



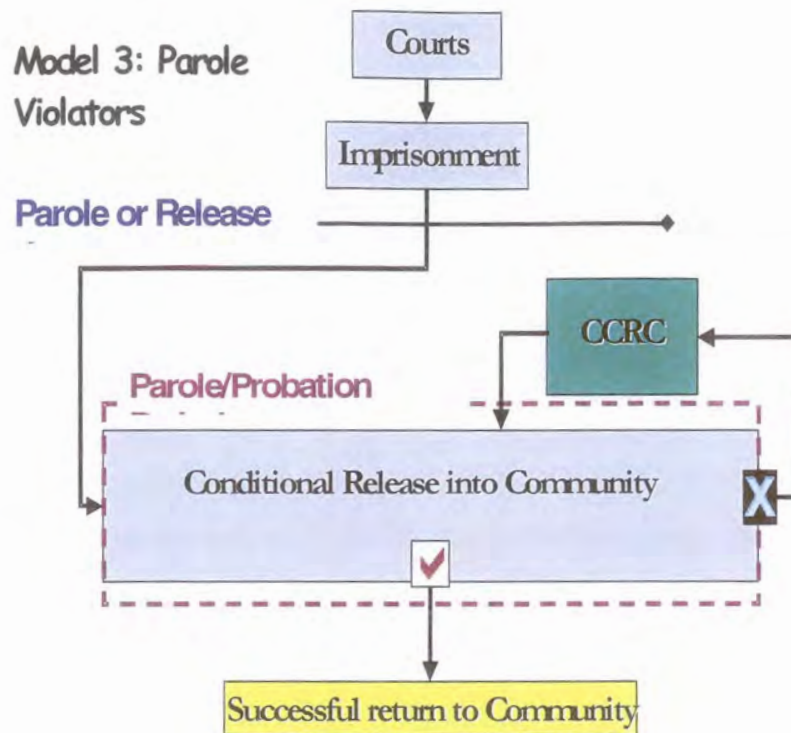


FIGURE 3: ALTERNATIVE MODELS TO THE REINTEGRATION MODEL, BASED ON REFERRAL SERVICES. Source: Latessa and Allen (1982:156)

Model One: Standard

According to Latessa and Allen (1997:353) the standard model has the following focus:

- The sentenced offender receives a conditional release.
- S/he enters the CCRC in the "initial stage of parole".
- The CCRC provides services to support "parolees" in need.

The parolee will still be on parole supervision after completion of the CCRC period.

Knapp, Burke and Carter (1992:1-25) re-analysed 647 CCRCs in the U.S.A. which were surveyed in 1989, followed-up by eight case studies of such facilities in 1991. For the purposes of their study they defined a CCRC as a facility where -

- Residence is provided for adult offenders.
- Federal, State or local criminal justice authorities refer at least 70% of the residents to a CCRC.
- It operates independently from a jail, prison or other corrections institution.
- Residents normally leave the CCRC during the day for work, education or community programmes.

With reference to model one, Knapp *et al.* (1992:6) also describe '*backdoor referrals*'. These are offenders referred to a CCRC from a state prison by a parole board, with the classification of parolees.

Model Two: Pre-release

Latessa and Allen (1997: 353) discuss how model two functions:

- The prisoner is also in the CCRC in the "*initial phase*". However, CCRC placement occurs "*before the granting of parole*".

- These residents receive a definite parole release date before their placement in a CCRC.
- They retain the status of sentenced offenders while residing in the CCRC, where they serve the balance of their sentence.
- The CCRC provides a transitional service to these clients.
- These pre-release clients return to prison if problems arise.

Latessa and Travis III (1992:170) describe transitional clients under the term "pre-release." These "pre-release" sentenced offenders usually reside in large CCRC facilities in the months before their release on parole or before they are eligible for release on parole.

According to the draft policy document of the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa (undated: 2), a pre-release centre is defined as follows:

"A Pre-release Centre is a correctional institution, which accommodates selected offenders for skills training and exposure to development programmes with the aim to ensure the successful re-integration of the offender into the community".

Pre-released offenders at CCRCs are known as Department of Corrections (DOC) clients in the U.S.A. They are under the supervision of the Colorado Department of Corrections, and have the status of sentenced offenders. At the Tooley Hall CCRC, these sentenced offenders can only leave the CCRC when granted parole, or if they enter the Intensive Supervision Programme (ISP), or when they are discharged by the Department of Corrections (Carst, 2000).

In conclusion, a pre-release, or a transitional facility serves sentenced offenders, a few months before they are due for parole. During this time the offender is prepared by means of pre-release programmes to successfully reintegrate into society.

Knapp *et al.* (1992:6) comment that these "*backdoor referrals*" still have the legal status of a sentenced offender when referred to the CCRC from a state prison. They indicate that this kind of referral focuses on a transitional service with residential placement, as well as employment. Knapp *et al.* (1992:6) also mention that the referral source for almost half of the CCRCs they surveyed, came from "*backdoor referrals*". They refer to Southern Arizona Correctional Centre as an example of a "*back-door*" facility for transitional offenders. This facility houses 144 males, although they also serve a small

proportion of "halfway-back" parolees who lost either their employment or place of residence.

Transitional facilities thus refer to pre-release centres where the resident has the status of a "sentenced offender".

Model Three: Parole violators

Latessa and Allen (1997:353) emphasise the following aspects of model three:

- Allocation of probationers and prisoners granted parole takes place within the community without residing in a CCRC during the initial period.
- When the client experiences problems and needs to participate in certain programmes, the CCRC may be a solution.
- The ideal is that these clients should return to a lower supervision level as soon as they are ready.

Knapp *et al.* (1992:6) refer to this model as a "front-door" referral where post-conviction placement takes place.

McShane and Krause (1993:235) discuss what they call the "halfway in". This type of centre provides services for parole violators. The parole violator is at this point more intensively

monitored. This then serves as an intermediate step with the potential of returning either to lower supervision in the community, or to prison. This type of CCRC serves to monitor violators who cannot succeed in their own home settings.

The problem in South Africa is that if CCRCs are not in place, a parole violator may be sent back to prison, due solely to a technical violation such as losing his/her place of residence, despite the serious overcrowding of South African prisons. This is also not a fair deal for parolees.

Up to now in this chapter, models for CCRCs have been discussed primarily from the literature perspective. The following discussion will focus on how the three CCRC models apply to CCRCs in Denver, Colorado.

3.3 COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS MODELS UTILISED BY CCRCs IN DENVER, COLORADO

To contextualise the discussion in this section the CCRCs and DRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, are again briefly listed:

- Independence House South Federal serving both males and females and combined with a DRC. Programme Director: Ms. L. Sullivan.

- Independence House Fillmore Street serving males and females who are Federal clients. Programme Director: Mr T. Everett.
- Independence House, Pecos Centre, serves males only. Programme Director: Mr D. Carrigan.
- Tooley Hall Incorporated, serving females only. Programme Director: Ms S. Carst.
- Williams Street Centre is a centre for males only and is combined with a DRC. Both centres are incorporated with Tooley Hall CCRC. The Programme Director, Ms Carst of Tooley Hall, took the researcher on a visiting tour of Williams Street CCRC.
- BI Incorporated DRC. Programme Director: Mr A. Maglia.

Whilst the following discussion will focus on CCRC and DRC models, brief reference will be made to the linkages between models and programmes. However, chapter four will focus particularly on the programmes relevant to CCRCs and DRCs.

The CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, mostly utilise the pre-release reintegration model of community corrections, namely Model 2, in combination with the diversion model of community corrections in serving their CCRC clients. Those offenders

referred from the "State" are usually referred to as transitional or pre-release offenders, whereas those who are diverted from the criminal justice system are referred to as "city" clients.

As a non-residential facility, BI Incorporated DRC serves those on parole or probation as well as those on pre-trial release. Although these offenders are not served in a CCRC, the same reintegration and diversion models of community corrections are utilised to reach the goals of this DRC.

All the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado serve both transitional and diversion clientele simultaneously at the same centre. However, all the directors of the CCRCs, as well as the programme director of BI Incorporated DRC, complained about the difficulties diversion offenders experienced in adjusting to the community corrections programme. Apparently, this is not the case with transitional offenders.

There is a correlation between findings in Denver, Colorado and models utilised in Ohio. According to Handwerk (2001), the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Corrections contracts with twenty-three private non-profit agencies. In Ohio, the following models are used in providing services to offenders:

- Diversion (according to the diversion model of community corrections)
- Transitional (model two of the reintegration model, i.e. pre-release)
- Offenders who violate post release supervision requirements (model three of the reintegration model, i.e. parole violators).
- Other offenders stay at CCRCs after a prison or jail sentence, referring to the standard model (model 1) of the reintegration model.

The above-mentioned CCRCs include services for parolees and probationers after their release from prison or jail, and serve women in a pre-release status. This group includes parole violators. Models one, two and three of the reintegration model are applicable in this instance (Austin *et al.*, 1992:16-19).

Although the above-mentioned models refer to either the reintegration or the diversion models of community corrections, specialisation may also take place according to clients or to a treatment modality. Allen and Simonsen (1995:127) comment that if the CCRC for instance, treats females or males only, they specialise according to clients. If

the CCRC, for example, specialises by taking in alcohol or drug abusers only, it is according to the treatment modality.

In summary, the researcher has described the three alternative models of the reintegration model, according to referral services (Latessa and Allen, 1982:156). The models utilised by the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado were mostly linked with the diversion model and the reintegration model of community corrections. BI Incorporated DRC also utilises the same models, namely the reintegration and diversion models of community corrections, but does not supply residential services. The models discussed and utilised internationally, function either according to type of offenders or treatment modality.

CCRC and DRC models can only be implemented successfully if they are well managed. This raises the questions of who should manage (state / private organisations) and what should be managed (critical aspects).

In the discussion that follows, these questions will be answered by means of an integration of literature and the findings of the researcher's visit to Denver, Colorado.

3.4 MANAGEMENT OF CRITICAL ASPECTS OF COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS MODELS

In this section, critical aspects impacting on the management of community corrections models will be discussed, namely agencies, funding, size of centres, gender, length of stay, problems encountered, community support and explicit identification.

3.4.1 Agencies

According to McShane and Krause (1993:232), the following types of agencies usually manage CCRCs:

- Private non-profit agencies
- Private for-profit agencies
- The State or local government

These authors state that if the government runs the CCRC, either the Commissioner of Corrections or the County Department of Human Services will supervise the facility.

Knapp *et al.* (1992:17) indicate the difference in the percentage of operating agencies when they re-analysed the survey data of 647 CCRCs in the U.S.A. and compared it with

data from eight case studies of residential facilities as indicated in Figure 4:

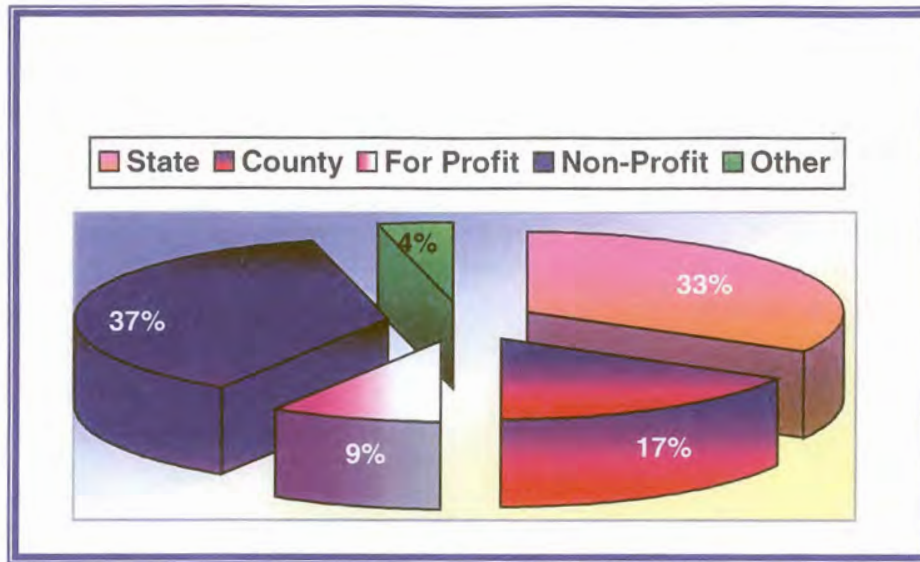


FIGURE 4: OPERATING AGENCIES Source: Knapp *et al.* (1992:17).

The above Figure 4 clearly shows that it is the non-profit agencies in the U.S.A. that operate the largest number of programmes, followed by the State. Latessa and Travis III (1992:170) observe that traditional "*halfway houses*" are still operating with direct services delivered to residents. These authors point out, however, that where more recent programmes are operated by Corrections Departments, the impression is more that of a "*minimum-security prison than a rehabilitative community*".

When the State therefore, manages CCRCs, it moves away from a rehabilitative community to that of a minimum-security prison. The following example shows how the Department of Correctional Services manages the Atlanta Transitional Centre in Georgia on such a basis, that can be described as military.

The Resident Rules and Regulations Handbook of the Atlanta Transitional Centre in Georgia, (undated: 11) states that a "*military protocol will be observed on a twenty-four hours a day basis*" (undated: 11). The document also states that the "*military protocol will be strictly enforced by all staff*". This includes, although is not confined to, the following:

- Residents must stand to attention when a staff member is present and greet them specifically.
- When there is a group of residents, the first resident should call "*attention on deck*" and then the group should greet the staff member together.
- When a staff member is passed or approached, residents should move away, halt and come to the attention position while a proper greeting is extended.

The above discussion leads to the conclusion that it is not advisable that State departments should manage their own

transitional centres because they do not project a rehabilitative atmosphere and this is to the disadvantage of sentenced offenders utilising the facility. Management should rather be left to non-profit private agencies that manage most of the CCRCs as evident in the two research studies undertaken by Knapp *et al.* (1992).

In South Africa, a new draft policy document exists for pre-release centres. As already mentioned in chapter one, the Department of Correctional Services established such a centre in Devon, Gauteng Province with its official opening that took place on 7 March 2002. The centre only admits sentenced offenders from prisons in South Africa, whereas no intake takes place from the South African Police Services or the courts (undated: 7).

The researcher is of the opinion that this pre-release centre still leaves a gap in terms of the management of other categories of offenders in the community. Marketing of CCRCs should take place at the Department of Justice as alternative forms of sentencing options. More sentencing options should be available to the Department of Justice to sentence non-violent offenders in the community whilst the more violent and dangerous offenders should remain in prison. However, if the necessary funds are not available to support CCRCs in the

community, it will only erode and devastate them. Financial resources must be carefully planned and used. As a result, the funding challenges should be taken into consideration when planning for CCRCs in South Africa.

3.4.2 Funding

According to Allen *et al.* (1978:10), funding is the most critical aspect of CCRCs on an administrative level. Problems include the following:

- Insufficient funds to render services;
- the uncertainty of grants;
- cash flow problems; and
- adjustment of programmes with less money available from grants.

Austin *et al.* (1992:28) regard funding and its stability as a critical aspect in the successful functioning of CCRCs or DRCs. They warn about the fact that when non-profit organisations rely too heavily on a few sources of income this could lead to a crisis in sustaining services. Austin *et al.* (1992:28) suggest that the more projects receive an income from various sources such as public funds, private and corporate grants, and

donations from individuals as well as organisations, the more sustainable they become.

The CCRCs visited in Denver are all for-profit, privately driven and have contracts with the City/State, the Federal Government and the U.S. Department of Justice.

Tooley Hall CCRC makes use of other referral agencies such as the Denver drug court, city and county, respectively. They have no problems with finances due to the funding received from contracts with various referral agencies. The centre operates at full capacity in terms of bed occupancy. Carst (2000) explained that at times offenders had to wait from one to three months in prison before an opening becomes available at the Tooley Hall CCRC.

All the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, only had contracts for a certain number of offenders. Over and above these contracts, residents pay for services received. Federal clients pay 25 percent of their gross income. However, 25 percent from the billing is deducted to the Federal Government. City and State clients pay \$13 per day. This aspect of offenders paying rent to the CCRC might pose a serious problem in South Africa because of the high unemployment rate. Pro-active

thinking and planning on a national and inter-departmental scale, should be a high priority.

For the private for-profit CCRCs in the U.S.A. it is a matter of managing a business and making a profit in the process. However, according to Carrigan (2000) for-profit CCRCs such as the Independence House, Pecos Centre, are not allowed to accept donations from the community because of their for-profit registration.

Nevertheless, the non-profit agencies also make money, according to Handwerk (2001). In her view, the only difference is that disbursement of profits does not fall to stockholders as in the case of for-profit companies, but rests with the non-profit agency that also earns tax breaks. In addition, non-profit agencies may receive donations from the community.

The Report on Consultations (www.sgc.gc.ca) noted that the funding per diem (per day) allocated to the four CCRCs in Ontario who deliver services to women, was so low that needs could not be met. In order to stay open for services, other resources outside corrections have to be utilised. A careful consideration of the allocation of funds is therefore necessary

before embarking on the establishment of CCRCs in South Africa.

Clearly, the employment of offenders in the community affects the funding of CCRCs and DRCs. If offenders are employed in the community, they must be accountable to the CCRC and pay for services which they receive. As already mentioned, a serious problem exists in South Africa because of the high unemployment rate. The demand for jobs is far greater than their availability. The researcher acknowledges that South African economic conditions are not as stable as in Denver, Colorado. According to Everett (2000), programme director of Independence House, Fillmore Street, the unemployment rate in Colorado was below 4 percent in 2000. The directors of the various CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado all reported that if an offender resident did not have a job within one month, it was because they did not want a job or were retarded. The picture in South Africa is completely different. This specific aspect of employment would be one of South Africa's greatest challenges when embarking on the establishment of CCRCs. The researcher envisages that all CCRCs should have job creation projects on the premises to counteract the problem of unemployment, especially for those offenders who will never qualify for the open labour market.

The funding issue relates directly to the selection criteria for CCRCs and DRCs.

3.4.3 Selection criteria

Donnelly and Forschner (1992:349) note that the CCRC Cope House did not accept certain types of offenders, namely, *“chronic violent offenders, rapists, severe drug and alcohol users, clinically diagnosed arsonists, psychotics or the severely retarded”*.

Austin *et al.* (1992:35-37) discuss thirteen promising CCRCs for females. All of these applied various selection criteria before accepting females at their centres. Offenders with any of the following characteristics or history are not accepted: Mental disabilities, convictions for serious, violent offences, arson, crimes against children, child molestation, violence against the elderly, use of psycho-tropic medications, physical disabilities, women who failed in the programme previously. The offender's criminal history is therefore an important criterion for selection.

All the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado utilised selection criteria for the admission of offenders, including the following:

- no violent offenders

- no arsonists
- no sexual offenders
- no persons with histories of escaping
- no persons with mental health problems
- age
- criminal history
- geographic area
- availability of family in the recovery of the offender
- behaviour and attitude
- the ability to manage the offender in the community
- failure of probation
- parole pattern
- criminal activity

Although the above selection criteria state that no persons with mental health problems will be selected at CCRCs, Sullivan (2000) had a small therapeutic community with mentally ill offenders as a pilot project at Independence House, South Federal. According to her, it was doubtful whether the

project was successful with mentally ill offenders who were also abusing substances. She added that they also had very long criminal and violent histories. According to Sullivan, she would not have admitted them were it not for the pilot project. She informed the researcher that State funded psychiatric hospitals did not exist in Denver. However, Denver has a psychiatric prison with only 250 beds. This accounts for the fact that only 15% of those in prison are mentally ill. She stated that there are high numbers of mentally ill offenders being kept at diversion centres in the community. She would rather send a psychiatric offender back to prison where s/he can at least get psychiatric help and medication. If one of these mentally ill patients escapes, the whole centre is in a state of panic because of the risk to the safety of the community.

South Africa differs from Denver, Colorado, as there is a number of State funded psychiatric hospitals available to the mentally ill. However, according to Korkie and du Preez (2002), only Weskoppies and Sterkfontein Psychiatric Hospitals have "*halfway houses*" (CCRCs) available for the mentally ill, which leaves a great gap in primary services available to this group of special needs clients. Again, the demand is greater than the supply of these services.

According to Korkie and du Preez (2002) some of the psychiatric hospitals helping patients are the following:

- Bopolong, North West province
- Weskoppies and Sterkfontein, Gauteng province
- Valkenburg and Lenteguur in the Western Cape province
- Oranje-Hospital, Free State province
- Fort England, Eastern Cape province

The above discussion described selection criteria of CCRCs in Denver, Colorado and the specific problems of the psychiatric offender who is managed in the community. It is obvious that a violent or potential violent offender should not be selected for placement in a CCRC.

Everett (2000), programme director of the Independence House, Fillmore Street, recommended that anyone who is reviewing cases for placement in CCRCs should take a course in the assessment of potential for violence in order to be skilled in determining whether someone will be violent or not.

The Independence House, Pecos Centre limits the intake of violent offenders to the minimum, according to Carrigan (2000). However, Carrigan (2000) was of the opinion that most

people have the potential to be violent. According to him, drug sellers are sometimes more dangerous than murderers. He also stated that through a sifting system certain offenders would never reach the level of CCRCs. Regarding this statement, Sullivan (2000) of the Independence House, South Federal agreed. Carst (2000) of Tooley Hall, reported that their own case managers selected sentenced offenders in prison or jail. After the preliminary selection, offenders go to Denver Community Board where final selection takes place by the Board. However, the CCRC still have the choice to accept the selected offenders or not.

The researcher is of the opinion that in South Africa this is where the Parole Boards could play an important role in deciding which offenders will qualify for community corrections. However, the researcher agrees that the CCRC should have the final decision on whether an offender qualifies for the centre or not.

From the above discussion, it is clear that it is important to apply selection or admission criteria before admitting offenders to a CCRC. The size and space of the CCRC, however, also influence selection and the final intake.

3.4.4 Size of a CCRC

Keller and Alper (1970:15) are convinced that CCRCs should be small in size with the aim of furthering the idea of informal and close interaction between residents. At many CCRCs this is still the case. Austin *et al.* (1992:17) indicate that the one hundred female residential programmes they surveyed, the populations were generally small with a daily average of less than 20 females. On the other hand, Latessa and Travis III (1992:170) report that large facilities now exist with hundreds of residents. This is typical of pre-release centres where offenders stay before their release on parole or in the final months before release. It is also the case at Devon Pre-release Centre in Gauteng, South Africa. This centre can house up to 600 sentenced offenders at a time. However, at Weskoppies Hospital only a few mentally ill prisoners reside in the "halfway house" (CCRC).

Everett (2000), programme director of the Independence House, Fillmore Street stated that size should be related to profit making. He argued that if CCRCs are too large, adequate services cannot be delivered. He suggested an optimum number between 40-85 in order to be able to provide the services required and also to survive and be profitable.

In conclusion, it is clear that CCRCs will meet different needs and those needs will determine the size of the facility. Size is directly related to the gender of residents since bigger facilities will be required if a centre serves both males and females.

3.4.5 Gender of residents

Robinson (1992:255) refers to "*Our New Beginnings - A model for Women's Sanctions*". Our New Beginnings (ONB) serves as an alternative to incarceration in Portland, Oregon. The founder member, an ex-prisoner, established this CCRC to provide services according to the needs of women offenders.

A point of great importance made by Robinson (1992:258) is that state departments of corrections must address the individual needs of women offenders and that they should recognise that differences exist in race and class. If they do not consider these differences, it may hinder programme success.

The researcher already referred in this chapter to what Smykla (1981:16) states in this regard. He mentions that the goal of reintegration is "*to provide equal access to opportunities and to reduce class, sexual, and racial biases toward offenders*". The researcher agrees with the above

statement of Smykla (1981:16) and would like to suggest that recognition should rather be given to the diversity of people in order to accommodate each person uniquely, in contrast to a view based on prejudice and discrimination.

Robinson (1992:258) also makes the interesting point that community safety does not only refer to the protection of the community. He argues that one also has to look at the contributions which the women offenders can make to the community after receiving the necessary services to better their own and their children's lives. This author unequivocally states that *"the development of individual programme plans tailored to individual women, comprising treatment components responsive to their particular life-course characteristics, present the strongest model for intermediate sanctions for female offenders"* (Robinson, 1992:259).

The Advanced Recovery Centre (ARC) in Delray is an example of a CCRC that provides gender specific programmes (www.arc-hope.com/). Males and females attend separate meetings, where possible, although they stay together at the treatment centre in separate sections. ARC tries to keep a healthy balance regarding mixed and gender-specific educational and therapy groups. They hold the view that males and females have different issues to discuss in recovery and therefore

they need to separate the groups where each can address gender sensitive issues. Whilst the programme(s) addresses issues separately according to need, it also makes provision for joint sessions where issues justify it. Gender specific programmes include mother-and-infant- or mother-and-baby-programmes. Mothers with their infants live in seven small, community-based facilities, with the objective to promote the relationship between mother and child while the mother is serving her sentence. These facilities provide a home-like atmosphere within a stable, caring environment, whilst the mother learns certain skills. To qualify for this programme, a mother must not have more than six years to serve and must have been the primary caretaker of her children before incarceration. In addition, children must be under six years old and pregnant mothers are allowed. These programmes are operated by the private sector with State contracts. Mother-Infant Programmes are found in six Californian cities namely, Oakland (2), Sante Fé Springs, Pomona, Bakersfield and Salinas (www.cdc.state.ca.us/).

With regard to South Africa, the Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (2000:01-76) reports that young children are allowed to stay with their mothers in prison until they are five years of age. Mother and Child units

function in eight of the nine provinces, in South Africa. The following Table 4 compares the infants and children in prison in South Africa as at 31 March 2000 and 31 March 2001.

TABLE 4: INFANTS AND CHILDREN IN PRISON AS AT 31 MARCH 2000 COMPARED TO 31 MARCH 2001

	31 March 2000	31 March 2001
Born in detention	2	3
Admitted with mothers	231	221
Total	233	224

Source: The Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (2000/01:76).

A recent workshop was held in Johannesburg Prison on 25-26 September, 2002 regarding *"Babies behind bars"*, hosted by the Finlore Trust and Zantie Swanepoel (Ms UN International and Ms SA 2001). It was decided that for the present time in South Africa, babies and infants would stay with their mothers inside prison, but that it should not continue in the future. Various speakers attended this workshop, for instance Prof. Pat Carlen of the UK. Her paper referred to various options for *"Mother and Baby Units"*. One was a transitional prison (pre-release centre) namely, the Parramatta Transitional Prison in Australia. Offenders are allowed to serve the last part of

their sentences at this transitional facility. They work in the community and are also allowed to let their children attend nurseries in the outside community (Carlen, 2002:2).

The researcher is of the opinion that Mother and Baby Units could successfully be managed by CCRCs in the community, provided the mothers are carefully selected and do not have violent histories. This is in order to intervene in the lives of these children to save them from harm and criminal lives in the future. The slogan which says "*prevention is better than cure*", is applicable here. In the interests of children, they should be accompanied by their offending mothers and receive the best possible solutions for their lives outside of prison. Prof. Pat Carlen referred to the slogan "*the future of a society is the future of all its babies*" (2002:8).

Two of the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, cater for male residents only, namely Williams Street CCRC and Independence House, Pecos Centre, whereas Tooley Hall caters for women only. Carst (2000) stated that the reason for catering for women only in Tooley Hall, is that they have an all-male centre at the Williams Street Centre. They also have a mixed facility for both males and females, although they stay in separate wings. Both genders, however, come together in the cafeteria and the smoking section. From her experience, she was of the

opinion that it is not good to mix males and females in a residential setting but also stated that it is sometimes good to have mixed therapy sessions.

Carrigan (2000) of the Independence House, Pecos Centre which caters for males only, is convinced that there are fewer management problems if CCRCs cater for either males or females. Independence House, Fillmore Street and Independence House South Federal cater for males and females at their centres.

Sullivan (2000), programme director of Independence House South Federal, agreed that it is very difficult to manage both males and females at one centre. She stated that they have many problems with residents meeting each other for sexual reasons which means that staff must watch them closely most of the time. To address the problem of intrusion by the opposite sexes at the Independence House, Fillmore Street, Everett (2000) informed the researcher that they use closed circuit television systems to monitor the rooms. This makes management of the centre not only more expensive but also more problematic.

According to Korkie and du Preez (2002), males and females are not allowed in the opposite gender's rooms at Weskoppies Hospital in South Africa.

From the above discussion, there is ample evidence showing that CCRCs should rather manage either males or females, as opposed to both sexes at the same centre. If, however, they are mixed at the same CCRC, it should be in different wings. It is also clear that a mix of gender leads not only to management problems, but is also more expensive as already mentioned.

Since there is a waiting list for CCRCs in general and particularly a scarcity of CCRCs for females internationally, the decision on the average length of stay of offenders at facilities is a crucial one.

3.4.6 Average length of stay at a CCRC

According to the literature, the average length of stay at a CCRC ranges anywhere between eight to sixteen weeks (McShane and Krause, 1993:230), three to four months (Latessa and Allen, 1997:332) and four months to one year (Austin *et al.*, 1992:17). The various CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, reported as follows:

According to Carst (2000) of Tooley Hall, the average length of stay is six months. She reported that some offenders stay two months, others stay for more than a year whilst the Department of Corrections's (DOC) offenders stay the longest. The majority of offenders leave on intensive supervised parole (ISP), although if they do not do well they are brought back to the CCRC. Carrigan (2000) of the Independence House, Pecos Centre, indicated that a person might stay at the CCRC for two and a half years. At the Independence House, South Federal, different type of offenders, such as the DOC transitional offenders, diversion and Federal offender stay for different periods of time at the centre (Sullivan, 2000). It is obvious that the diversity of the offenders at a CCRC has an impact on the length of their stay.

This diversity is also evident at the Independence House, Fillmore Street, where Everett (2000) reported that the length of stay could vary anything from three weeks to a year and a half. This is due to the fact that offenders released from the Federal boot camps stay at the CCRC for one and a half years before they are eligible for release.

With regard to psychiatric patients or mentally ill prisoners, Korkie and du Preez (2002) are of the opinion that a six-month stay at a psychiatric facility is too short because of these

patients' various and unique problems. Two new "*halfway houses*" were opened at Weskoppies Hospital recently (2002). The Department of Social Services expects the hospital to keep their clients in the CCRC for not longer than six months.

In summary, the above discussion makes it clear that the average length of stay varies according to the special needs of offenders and that the length of stay should therefore be flexible and only general guidelines should be in place. The CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado all reported their unique problems and these will be subsequently discussed.

3.4.7 Problems at CCRCs in Denver, Colorado

The various programme directors of the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado reported the following problems:

- Security level problems. Dismissal of residents takes place because of substance abuse.
- Males and females at the same centre are problematic (as already discussed in this chapter).
- Serving different jurisdictions' clients (Federal, city and state).

- Chronically mentally ill offenders are a danger to the safety of the community.
- Highly affiliated Hispanic teenager gangs in the community near the CRC, shooting at each other as well as at the CCRC's buildings.
- Problems in living in harmony with each other amongst the female offenders.
- Some offenders smuggle and deal in drugs or alcohol at the facility, whilst others engage into fights with each other.

All these CCRCs had solutions for the problems encountered such as good relationships with the community, case managers who facilitate solutions to problem solving, using the "zero tolerance" approach and removing disruptive offenders permanently from the facility. In South Africa, psychiatric offenders at Weskoppies "halfway house" do not get a second chance if they are found with alcohol and/or drugs on them. For problems such as these they are permanently removed from the facility. For lesser problems, offenders receive a warning and are sometimes temporarily removed from the centre. Psychiatric offenders sign a contract at Weskoppies Hospital where they undertake to submit themselves to the house rules.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that problems are to be expected at CCRCs and that careful planning of how they will be managed is essential to counteract such problems.

As indicated, the CCRCs in Denver, regard good relationships with the community as important to address the problems they encounter. Community support is therefore not only critical in the initial phase when a CCRC is planned, but should be an ongoing process after the CCRC has been established.

3.4.8 Community support

Doeren and Hageman (1982:208) argue that the success of the CCRC is dependent upon the support of the community. Rachin (1976:574) agrees that it is bad strategy not to take into consideration the support of the community. Both the community's acceptance of the CCRC as well as their involvement are of cardinal importance.

Most of the programme directors interviewed were not in their position at the start of the CCRC. According to Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street, (2000), the laws in the U.S.A. require CCRCs to gain community support because it is in the centre's own interests. To achieve community support, he advised that a community advisory board should be formed. Politicians, persons of the police

department, someone from the district attorney's office as well as someone from the public defender's office should serve on such a board. The criteria for establishing the board is to find people that can work together and who understand what is going on in the community. He stated that reintegrated offenders are a benefit to the community and in this way, the CCRC serves the community. Long-term offenders who are directly released from prison into the community do not have the same chances of reintegration as those served by CCRCs (Everett, 2000).

Community support from the initiation phase is possible, according to Carrigan (2000), who reported that Independence House, Pecos Centre, had had the support from the community from the beginning and he confirmed its importance and value. Also Sullivan (2000) witnessed that the Independence House, South Federal, networks with the surrounding community and the community supports the centre tremendously in many ways. Carst (2000) mentioned that the community supported the Tooley Hall centre by providing jobs to residents.

Closely related to the issue of community support at the initial phase of the CCRC project, is the decision of whether the CCRC should make its identity known to the community, by means of a name sign outside the building.

3.4.9 Identity explicitly known

According to McShane and Krause (1993:230), most CCRCs prefer to keep a low profile in the communities in which they function. Rachin (1976:575) suggested that CCRCs should function quietly with no signs and flags that can distinguish them. This was also the trend that the researcher observed in Denver, Colorado.

The CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, preferred to call their CCRCs after the name of the street in which they function. Tooley Hall had no visible identification on the outside of the building. The researcher enquired about this and Carst (2000) stated that they preferred it this way, as they do not want to advertise that there are many women at the CCRC situated in the industrial area where mostly men are employed.

In conclusion of the discussion on the management of critical aspects of CCRCs, it is clear that literature and the experiences from Denver, Colorado can be utilised as guidelines when South Africa embarks on the design, development and implementation of CCRCs.

3.5. CONCLUSION

In chapter three the three models of Community Corrections, namely, diversion, advocacy and the reintegration model were discussed. The alternative models to the reintegration model, i.e the standard, pre-release and parole violators based on referral services were also highlighted.

The discussed models for CCRCs from a literature perspective were used to compare the CCRCs which the researcher visited in Denver, Colorado. It was concluded that these CCRCs make use of the diversion and reintegration models respectively.

Critical aspects of the management of CCRCs were identified and discussed within the context of literature, research findings of visits to CCRCs in Denver, Colorado and where applicable, in South Africa. When a CCRC model is designed, developed and implemented, the following critical aspects should be taken into consideration from a management point of view: Managing agencies, funding, selection criteria, size, gender, length of stay, problems encountered, community support and explicit identification.

In chapter four the focus is on programmes and partnerships for CCRCs with reference to job creation and the contracting of services to the private sector and public/private



partnerships. Further aspects of discussion will be the role of social workers as case managers, accountability, multi-disciplinary teams and advisory boards.

CHAPTER FOUR

PROGRAMMES AND PARTNERSHIPS FOR COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four reports about programmes and partnerships for CCRCs. National and international programmes will be discussed, in particular the functioning of CCRC programmes in Denver, Colorado. As already referred to in previous chapters, the visit was for the purpose of qualitative research data. Relevant to the discussion of CCRC programmes, various types of offenders, such as HIV Aids, drug abusers, low intelligence, sex, lifestyle and mentally ill offenders, who need services according to their special needs, will be discussed. In this chapter, emphasis is also placed on job creation projects at CCRCs for offenders who would not qualify for the open labour market.

Finally, the role of social workers as case managers, public/private partnerships, accountability, multi-disciplinary teams, advisory boards and volunteers will be discussed as relevant components for CCRC programmes.

4.2 PROGRAMMES

Graycar (2000:9) commented that the only way to find out whether a treatment programme is effective is to look at its "*therapeutic integrity*". In order to reduce recidivism, proper implementation of programmes is necessary by trained personnel, which also includes ample time for the completion of the programme.

Graycar (2000:10) advises that programmes without rehabilitation are not effective in reducing recidivism of either adult or juvenile offenders. He is of the opinion that future criminal behaviour is not successfully targeted if non-criminogenic factors such as depression, anxiety and self-esteem are addressed. Although he acknowledges that there is a link between self-esteem and criminal behaviour, it does not imply that a change in self-esteem will necessarily change criminal behaviour in future.

McShane and Krause (1993:328-331) discuss programmes for juvenile offenders and conclude that effective programmes

share certain principles. These principles, which the researcher regards as applicable to programmes with young adult offenders, are as follows:

- Address actual needs identified by the offenders themselves.
- Keep close contact with the surrounding community to help the client with successful reintegration.
- Personnel should be flexible and act as good role models.
- Rules and discipline should go hand in hand in programmes. This infers that every resident should know all the rules and know what the consequences are for violating them.
- The programme must have a reward system for good behaviour.
- Job training and readiness to take up a job must form part of the programme in order to give the offender the necessary tools for employment.
- The offender must take part in the decision-making process at the CCRC (McShane and Krause, 1993:331).

These principles should guide all relevant programmes of CCRCs that range on a continuum from supportive to interventive programmes.

4.2.1 Supportive to interventive programmes

Allen, Carlson, Parks and Seiter (1978:5) state that programmes can be either interventive or supportive. The interventive programme takes as its aim the treatment of the offender with his/her unique problems in personality and social adjustment as the point of departure. Professional personnel's intervention includes a process of diagnosis, classification and treatment.

The supportive programmes, on the other hand, utilise the available resources in the community, for example community agencies, to meet the needs of offenders. Allen *et al.* (1978:5) maintain that one cannot make a clear division between the two above-mentioned programmes and that most CCRCs will operate somewhere between supportive and interventive programmes.

The CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado all provide various types of programmes. In agreement with Allen *et al.* (1978:5), all the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado operate according to a combination of supportive and interventive programmes. These programmes will subsequently be discussed from the programme directors'

perspectives as well as the researcher's observations. Where applicable, literature will be integrated to give a broader international perspective and reference will also be made to the South African context.

4.2.2 CCRC programmes in Denver, Colorado

Sullivan (2000) of Independence House, South Federal CCRC stated that individual assessment is necessary to find out which programme fits which offender. The programmes the facility provides, focus on the following:

- mental health
- drug and alcohol
- cognitive thinking skills
- anger management
- decision-making skills
- parenting programmes
- domestic violence and
- literacy programmes

The success of these programmes is measured in two ways. On the one hand, offenders can move to a lower level of

supervision. However, if a person is sent back to prison, Sullivan (2000) also referred to this as a success because of the protection the community received from the person's crimes whilst the offender had been in the CCRC.

At the Independence House, Fillmore Street, each offender is pre-programmed, during the intake process, to learn in which programmes they will take part (Everett, 2000). This CCRC has a

- drug education course;
- transitional service programme;
- life skills course for people that need this specific course. The life skills course, according to Everett (2000), includes anything from balancing a chequebook to signing a lease for obtaining a residence. It also includes planning to buy groceries and setting career goals.

Carst (2000) stated that 87 percent of the offenders of Tooley Hall, successfully complete their programmes. She noted that the success rate is higher than other centres because this CCRC tries to limit contacts with the outside world. She informed the researcher that many activities are provided at the centre and for the first few months offenders

do not go home on special passes. The percentage of offenders who return to higher custody due to programme violations is very low. The 13 percent is made up of those who returned to higher custody as well as those who escaped. She also mentioned that they have evening visiting times and once a month they have a spaghetti dinner with the families of offenders. Staff then inform the family about the CCRC's programmes as well as about the support groups the residents will need when they leave the centre.

Of great importance is the fact that encouragement of appropriate offender conduct takes place by means of an incentive-oriented system of graduated privileges (Carst, 2000). This view is in line with McShane and Krause's (1993:328) programme principle of a reward system for good behaviour. Tooley Hall CCRC addresses the following issues in their programmes:

- how to dress properly
- health care issues
- nutrition
- social skills
- leisure time

- GED (general educational classes)
- literacy
- drugs and alcohol (classes twice per week and Cocaine Unanimous meets on Saturday evenings)
- relapse prevention (once a week)

According to Carst (2000), the majority of the residents at Tooley Hall have problems with drug abuse and if they received sentences for theft, it is because they stole to satisfy their drug needs. In addition to Cocaine Unanimous, this CCRC also has a drug and alcohol rehabilitation treatment programme (DART), which runs for forty-two days, at the Williams Street Male Centre. In the first thirty-five days they usually have eight to twelve hours of treatment per day. During this time no contacts take place with the outside world with either friends or family. However, they do have a "buddy support system" in place where a friend is with them at all times. After thirty-five days certain paperwork is completed to prepare them for employment. After forty-two days they go back to the Tooley Hall CCRC as regular clients, either of DOC (Department of Corrections) or as diversion clients. To qualify for the DART programme, interviews take place for the take-in. A long waiting list exists for this programme. They usually

stay for thirty to sixty days after the completion of the programme at Tooley Hall CCRC. Only therapists or case managers rehabilitated from a drug and alcohol problem qualify as group leaders. According to Carst (2000) the success rate is 90 percent.

The programmes of Summit House CCRC are described by Austin *et al.* (1992:45) under the "*Bringing It All Back Home Family Teaching Model*" where behaviour changes are also stressed by utilising a system of rewards as well as consequences. This system correlates with the system utilised by Carst (2000) of Tooley Hall CCRC, as already indicated.

The researcher agrees that a system relying on both rewards and consequences, could motivate offenders to positively change their behaviour. She recommends that community corrections in South Africa adopts this system in its work with offenders, not only in the community, but also in prison. Small successes will eventually lead to further change and more successes on the part of the offender.

At the Independence House, Pecos Centre, Carrigan (2000) informed the researcher that the success rate of the programmes at the CCRC is 76 percent. They normally give people ample chances to successfully complete the

programmes. When they are eventually sent back to prison, it is because they did not comply or they failed to utilise the opportunities. The researcher found that this programme director supported the offender residents tremendously. Offenders are returned to higher custody only for serious violations such as alcohol and drug abuse and burglaries.

It was observed and noted by the researcher that the programmes utilised by the various CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado are in accordance with the type of offenders they serve. Other international examples of such programmes will suffice in the discussion that follows.

Austin *et al.* (1992:39) report that the Elizabeth Fry Centre in San Francisco, serves women State prisoners with their children under six years of age, although only one child is allowed to stay with the mother. They ensure a homelike atmosphere for the residents, despite the fact that it is highly secured. The programmes they provide include the following:

- Parenting education
- Recovery counselling
- General education (GED) tutoring
- Training on job readiness

- Money management and other life skills.

The Elizabeth Fry CCRC not only provides programmes for women, but also takes care of their pre-school children in the form of a pre-school educational programme (Austin *et al.*, 1992:39).

The above authors also refer to the Neil J. Houston House/Social Justice for Women in Boston, Massachusetts that cares for pregnant offenders. At this CCRC they receive intensive pre-natal care as well as alcohol and drug abuse treatment (Austin *et al.*, 1992:40).

The above two projects need to be commended in terms of the comment made by Graycar (2000:5). He mentions that cost benefit studies reveal that financial input in early intervention, for instance "*maternal health, pre-school enrichment, remedial education, truancy reduction [and] family support*" have proved to be good crime control investments. Graycar suggests that it is better to aim for "*productive tax paying citizens*" than "*long term welfare recipients*" (2000:5).

In essence, Graycar is suggesting a much earlier input and investment in the lives of families, mothers and their children with a focus on developmental issues in order to safeguard the children against the effects of crime later on in their lives.

Project Greenhope Services for Women, Inc. in New York offers residential services (CCRCs), day treatment facilities, as well as permanent housing for women. They serve awaiting-trial offenders, those sentenced by the courts, probationers and State parolees. They are either felony defendants or offenders. This project focuses on sobriety and, in so doing, addresses the factors contributing to women's addiction, such as sexual abuse, domestic violence and anger. All three programmes focus on the needs of the African-American and Hispanic women and are gender-specific. This facility utilises a volunteer mentoring programme in which African-American professional women are matched with the participant in order to increase cultural and vocational opportunities (Austin *et al.*, 1992:42).

Austin *et al.* (1992:46) refer to the Talbert House for Women in Cincinnati, Ohio that serves women in this CCRC at various offender levels in the criminal justice system. Their programmes focus on the empowerment of women to take responsibility for their life decisions. They provide the following programmes:

- alcohol and drug counselling
- employment development

- GED (General education) preparation
- training in life-skills
- health care
- counselling on domestic violence and co-dependence (Austin *et al.*, 1992:46).

A key factor in providing effective programmes at CCRCs is space. If a facility does not have the necessary space available, programme activities cannot be delivered at the CCRC and it will require additional arrangements. The programme directors at the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado reported the lack of programme space as being a critical issue.

Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street, mentioned that not only was the space of this centre inadequate for programmes, but that he also had storage problems. He suggested that when a new facility is planned or an old one renovated, provision should be made for programme and storage space and advised that whatever is foreseen in terms of space, should be multiplied.

Carst (2000), however, alluded to the fact that even when a CCRC has the necessary space to do programme activities, like at the Tooley Hall CCRC, some programmes still take place in

town as well as at the Williams Street CCRC. They network with the community regarding existing programmes such as women's focus groups. This centre also offers aftercare services for clients up to six months.

Carrigan (2000) of Independence House, Pecos Centre confirmed this practice and provided examples of programmes that take place at the Day Reporting Centre, South Federal, including programmes on

- drugs and alcohol
- speaking skills and
- male health.

Another model is that programmes can utilise the CCRC facility, but the programmes are provided by someone from the community. (Compare Carrigan, 2000 & Sullivan, 2000.)

In summary, although CCRCs should make provision for programme space, they should also use facilities and expertise from the community for programmes. This will promote networking with the community and also the offender's reintegration into society.

When CCRCs are embarked upon in South Africa, the importance of programme space should thus not be underestimated. The researcher is of the opinion that it would be to the advantage of South Africa if CCRCs could operate as one-stop services in the community where a holistic approach is followed and the majority of services can be delivered under one roof. This would include using skilled agencies in the community for reasons already outlined above.

The fact that programmes should be linked to the special needs of specific offenders has already been mentioned in this chapter. It has also been emphasised that needs identification by offenders themselves is one of the principles underpinning a programme. (Compare McShane and Krause, 1993:328.) It is therefore important that CCRCs are well informed about the special needs that classify offenders into special clients when they design and develop programmes. A chapter on CCRC programmes, therefore, justifies a more in-depth discussion of these clients.

4.3 SPECIAL NEEDS CLIENTS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Clear and Dammer (2000:361-365) argue that offenders have specific problems or criminogenic needs which need to be

handled differently. McShane and Krause (1993:427-437) refer to "*offence specific programmes*". What they suggest in essence is that one should not only look at the needs of offenders, but also at the type of crimes they committed when they are engaged in programmes at CCRCs.

Within the criminal justice system, offenders with special needs include the following:

- Offenders with HIV/AIDS
- Sex offenders
- Arsonists
- Fire-setters
- Shoplifters
- Mentally ill offenders
- Low-intelligence offenders
- Lifestyle offenders
- Substance abuse offenders

Compare McShane & Krause (1993:427-437) and Clear & Dammer (2000:361-365).

In the discussion that follows, a selection of the above-mentioned offenders will be discussed.

According to McShane and Krause (1993:402), identification of these clients and their needs should take place in order to provide them with specific programmes.

4.3.1 Offenders with HIV/ AIDS

The AIDS pandemic has reached crisis proportions internationally as well as nationally. This pandemic has not escaped the prison community. Offenders engage in unsafe sexual activities either voluntarily through homosexual activities, or involuntarily through homosexual rapes, thus spreading the AIDS virus. (Allen and Simonsen, 1995:501-502).

Allen and Simonsen (1995:502) are of the opinion that *"prison administrators can expect increases in the numbers of infected inmates, HIV-related illnesses and deaths in prisons, intra-prison transmissions and, inevitably, a growing stream of HIV-infected prisoners returning to the community through parole and other release mechanisms"*.

The AIDS pandemic in prison is thus also a community concern when sentenced offenders are released from prison into community-based corrections. It is thus of great importance

that an HIV/AIDS policy for community-based corrections should be in place to address the issue and to counteract specific problems in this regard.

4.3.1.1 HIV/AIDS policy for community-based corrections

Clunies-Ross (undated: 274) refers to an HIV/AIDS policy for community-based corrections. He explains the necessity for providing both offenders as well as personnel with the most recent information in order to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS. According to him, it is of the utmost importance that programmes in community-based corrections give specific attention to communicable diseases, how they are transmitted as well as their prevention.

Allen and Simonsen (1995:503) agree with Clunies-Ross in that policies should be developed and implemented so that personnel can be trained and educated regarding the diagnosis, management and treatment of the HIV/AIDS infection. However, it is also the offender who should be educated in this regard.

The Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (2000/01:83) reported that 464 prisoners were trained in 2000, who, in turn, provided fellow prisoners with an opportunity to have access to information on HIV/AIDS. In

July 2000, the Department itself demonstrated that the spread of AIDS in prisons is taken seriously, by its attendance of the X111 International HIV/AIDS Conference in Durban.

Clunies-Ross (undated: 275) suggests that any offender with a communicable disease such as HIV/AIDS, just as any other offender, should receive treatment according to his/her individual needs in terms of a case plan. Managers of offenders should take responsibility for knowledge about safe sexual behaviour and link offenders with appropriate resources in this regard. However, in the final instance it is the offender who must take control and responsibility for his/her own behaviour. This responsibility is linked to the offender's right to confidentiality (Clunies-Ross, undated: 275). Management and personnel should respect this right and not discriminate against persons with communicable diseases. This author unequivocally states that the mere knowledge of an offender having HIV/AIDS is not sufficient grounds for suspending his/her programme requirements.

Clunies-Ross (undated, 275) further comments about policy on infection control in case of any blood spillage. According to him, it should be normal procedure to treat any blood spillage as infectious. The necessary equipment to stop blood spillage should be part of the first aid kit at all CCRCs.

In summary, CCRCs should provide access to knowledge and resources on HIV and AIDS to their clients. An HIV/AIDS policy should be in place to prevent the spread of the virus. This includes the education of clients to take responsibility for their own behaviour.

4.3.2 Drug abusing offenders

Clear and Dammer (2000:361) are of the opinion that drug abusing offenders always have the potential for relapse. On the one hand, the offender must be supported, but on the other hand, swift action must be taken when there is evidence of a relapse. These authors maintain that drug abusing offenders commit more crimes when using drugs, as confirmed by research, and therefore pose a serious threat to the community. Clear and Dammer (2000:361) propose that drug abusing offenders can be addressed through community case management that includes treatment, testing, consequences and progress.

Treatment

Drug offenders are not able to free themselves of their drug habit without some form of treatment. Some only need drug counselling, whilst others need detoxification. The latter

requires residential treatment for a certain period which may vary from 30 up to 180 days.

Drug testing

Drug treatment is accompanied by drug testing. Initially, frequent drug tests are necessary. Later, however, this could be reduced to sporadic, but random drug testing.

Consequences and progress

There are also consequences resulting from the positive testing of drugs which take the form of curfews that could lead to detention. Clear and Dammer (2000:362) disagree with the "*zero tolerance*" approach for drug offenders. According to them it can be expected that these offenders will have small relapses and a too stringent approach would make them all likely to fail. They suggest that one should rather look at the progress made by these offenders, such as if they remain involved in treatment. Questions that can be asked include the following: Are the failures small and minor? Does the offender have longer periods of sobriety between these failures?

Programmes for drug abusing offenders, therefore, need to include detoxification, residential treatment over a certain

time span and specific guidelines with regard to the consequences and the progress made on the way to recovery.

4.3.3 Sex offenders

Clear and Dammer (2000:363) describe three keys to prevent a relapse of sex offenders which is related to the fact that many sex offenders behave compulsively. These three keys are *knowledge*, *signal detection* and *multiple sources of contact*:

- The offender's **knowledge base** regarding inappropriate sexual behaviour must be built.
- Their case managers must have a knowledge base regarding the symptoms of re-offending. **Signals** of relapse must be monitored and these may include inconsistent behaviour, buying sex magazines and changes in daily routines.
- **Multiple sources of contact** should be established with the offender, his/her family, employers, neighbours and other associates. However, this should be done sensitively and not through intensive surveillance.

In summary, the intensive monitoring of the sex offender and linkages with support systems are important components of programmes for this type of offender.

4.3.4 Mentally ill offenders

Clear and Dammer (2000:364) describe how difficult it is for the mentally ill offender to comply with regular reporting, curfews and finding a job. According to these authors, mentally ill offenders are not resistant to supervision, as might be thought. What appears to be resistance, is only a manifestation of their mental illness. The authors suggest that, in order to reduce the risk of relapse of mentally ill offenders, it is necessary to work hand in hand with mental health treatment agencies. This working agreement should be mutually supportive (2000:364). Weskoppies Hospital has three "*halfway houses*" in place to meet this need.

Korkie and du Preez (2002) have observed how the mentally ill patients at Weskoppies Hospital have an impaired drive, known as a psychomotor retardation. They experience side effects because of the medicines they take, which makes them drowsy and also requires that they see their doctors frequently. Treatment and prevention programmes must therefore make provision for this impact on patients/clients, including the time span of programmes. In this regard, Korkie and du Preez (2002) are of the opinion that a six-month period of intake is too short for psychiatric patients. In their view, the community corrections system needs an additional step

between the mental hospital (halfway houses) and the community. When a patient is ready to function more independently, he/she can then be released into the community in a form of assisted care CCRC. This type of care need not have a wide range of personnel, but only one person who takes charge and reports to the personnel at Weskoppies Hospital. Korkie and du Preez (2002) are convinced that mentally ill patients in such a special care CCRC would have the benefit of support from Weskoppies Hospital.

It can be concluded that the mentally ill offender needs intervention from a mental health organisation or hospital. The release of such an offender into the community will require closer monitoring by a special care unit CCRC.

4.3.5 Low intelligence offenders

Clear and Dammer (2000:365) state that approximately one third of prisoners, probationers and parolees function on a low intelligence level. As with psychiatric patients, this group also suffers from unpredictable behaviour. They have difficulty with instructions and rules and their social interactions are accordingly impaired. These offenders, because of their low intelligence, easily fall prey to the influence of others that may tempt them back into criminal behaviour.

For this type of offender, the supervision goals must be short-term and very basic. They are able to do well under supervision as long as their special needs are met (Clear and Dammer, 2000:365).

Low intelligence offenders, therefore, require that rules, procedures, programmes and supervision are conducted in a simple manner which meets their level of understanding.

4.3.6 Lifestyle offenders

According to Clear and Dammer (2000:365), lifestyle offenders pose the greatest difficulty because of their commitment to criminal activities as a lifestyle. These authors discuss the offender as a gang member with a range of anti-social influences that overrides the pro-social influences. Supervision typically includes that the offender may not have any contact with gang members, a condition that is not easy to realise or meet. Some of these gang members desire jobs, a home and a family and if these goals can be met, pro-social behaviour may be developed.

Lifestyle offenders, pose a threat to the criminal justice system because of constant recidivism and therefore CCRCs need to manage their needs with great care.

In this section, the special needs of specific offenders have been discussed. The slogan "*one size does not fit all*" is particularly appropriate for the special needs group of offenders. However, over and above the special needs of these offenders that have been discussed, all of them have a specific need to be placed in a job, or at least be prepared for a job in job creation projects at CCRCs. Even if offenders are placed at CCRCs in the community and receive specialised rehabilitation programmes, they will not reintegrate successfully into society if no employment is available for them. CCRCs, therefore, need to make provision for job creation projects. The dire need for job creation projects for offenders in community corrections can be contextualised within the national need for job creation.

Graycar (2002:12) argues that the restructuring of the economy is driven by globalisation which results in creating both winners and losers in terms of job opportunities. According to this author, the losers are young and angry males, who are unemployed with little chance of employment in the future. He makes a statement about the contradictions of current times. On the one hand, "*we can send people to the moon, and automatic robots to explore Mars, yet we can't find jobs for our young people; or appropriate accommodation for*

people leaving prisons. We can fill our cities with glitzy and expensive office blocks which remain empty, yet we can't provide sufficient early childhood interventions which will reduce criminality. We can build jails that work on smart cards, yet we don't do too well at stopping the revolving door" (Graycar, 2002:2). These words pose a challenge to South Africa to create jobs for the unemployed through job creation projects. This challenge is even more applicable to the offender since all offenders will not qualify for employment in the open labour market and will therefore rely on special job creation projects to meet their needs.

It is against this background that job creation projects will be discussed as a need applicable to all offenders, whether in prison or released into community-based corrections.

4.3.7 Job creation projects

Mamaila (The Star, 25 July 2002) reported President Mbeki to say that government plans to produce a comprehensive plan of action to reduce unemployment in South Africa in weeks to follow.

As already noted, the economic situation in South Africa is of such a nature that the demands for jobs are larger than the supply. The high rate of unemployment in South Africa has a

direct influence on offenders, who, as a special vulnerable group, are unable to find jobs. On *"Morning Live"* (SABC 2) it was announced on 27 March, 2002 that the unemployment rate had risen from 4,2 million to 4,5 million in South Africa in September 2001. This represented a percentage increase from 26,5% to 29%. In effect, this means that the unemployment rate rose by 300,000 people. As indicated in chapter one of this study, South Africa needs to challenge the national strategy, GEAR, to counteract the problem of unemployment. If South Africa is compared to Denver, Colorado where the demand for jobs is lower than supply, and where offenders find jobs within a month after release from prison, the challenges facing this country are more specifically realised.

Motsoatsoe reported in the Pretoria News of 27 March, 2002 about the loss of one million jobs between February and September 2001 (Statistics South Africa's Labour Force Survey as released on 26 March 2002). This has a direct influence on all those who are unemployed and more so on offenders. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1976:489) points out that the emphasis placed on the employment of the offender, is related to the awareness that an unemployed offender easily falls prey

to recidivism. To place offenders in CCRCs without training and creating jobs for them would be disastrous. The researcher is of the opinion that a comprehensive national strategy, built on interdepartmental collaboration and consultation, is the only way to succeed in this regard.

McShane and Krause (1993:238) maintain that over the years research has confirmed that employment is one of the most dependable predictors of success when a person is on parole. They comment that a study in Illinois during 1985 pointed out that 65 percent of recidivists who were re-arrested, were unemployed.

Similar findings are made by Latessa and Travis III who evaluated treatment programmes at CCRCs and found that "*employment services and enrolling in an educational programme reduced recidivism*" (Latessa and Allen, 1997:333).

The researcher observed at the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado that offenders stay at the CCRCs at night and are employed during the day in the community. Through employment, offenders become responsible and accountable, not only to meet the needs of their families, but also to pay for services provided by CCRCs. In addition and where applicable, restitution monies could also be deducted to pay the victims of

crime as an order. In Denver, offenders also have to pay the State for the crimes they have committed, according to Carst (2000) of Tooley Hall.

At Weskoppies Hospital, Korkie and du Preez (2002) reported that some of the psychiatric patients in their CCRCs ("*halfway houses*") are involved in sheltered employment. Korkie and du Preez (2002) suggest shared jobs for these patients in the community where three persons can each work for a third of the day in sheltered employment. Psychiatric patients need sheltered employment because of their limited skills due to illness.

Offenders released from prison, not only need jobs; they also need help in initial job-seeking skills, as well as in other skills training. However, McShane and Krause (1993:238) caution that training programmes should be appropriate to the current job market. They suggest the provision of "*supported work training*" in sheltered workshops similar to that for people with disabilities. In such an environment, offenders will not only master the necessary technical skills successfully, but will also develop good employment behaviour. McShane and Krause (1993:239) also indicate the possibility of giving companies tax breaks if they are prepared to employ offenders or ex-offenders.

In South Africa, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:84) gives a guideline for a strategy in services to offenders, victims and their families regarding employment programmes:

"Employment programmes, skills training and retraining opportunities for ex-offenders will be developed, as well as halfway houses and community-based temporary shelter arrangements".

The Department of Labour agrees with the Department of Social Development about the training of special needs groups. The Skills Development Bill, (Department of Labour, 1997:18) allocates certain functions to the Minister, one of which is to *"determine target groups and special target group training programmes which may be supported from public funds"*. The Skills Development Bill (Department of Labour, 1997:6) describes the establishment and functions of Employment Services. Various functions are mentioned whereby special assistance could be rendered. The researcher will only refer to those described under section 5 (c) namely:

"render special assistance by -

- (i) referring persons in target groups to appropriate training providers;*

- (ii) *assisting persons with special problems, such as alcoholics, drug addicts and ex-prisoners after their rehabilitation, to enter or re-enter the labour market;*
- (iii) *supporting communities to start income generating and training projects linked to local economy initiatives and to assist them to get support for skills development; and*
- (iv) *developing special employment programmes to enable individuals in target groups to participate actively in the labour market".*

The researcher is of the opinion that the above-mentioned section of the Skills Development Bill (Department of Labour, 1997) makes provision for the needs of offenders. Not only is employment and job creation a must for offenders, but if they are trained, it should be by appropriate service providers, which raises the issue of accredited service providers.

4.3.7.1 Accredited service providers

The New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:1) defines accreditation as follows:



"Recognition of a training, welfare or other institution on account that it meets specific minimum standards or accepted criteria of quality".

The Skills Development Bill (Department of Labour, 1997:9) stipulates that a service provider must *"be accredited in terms of South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995), and comply with the prescribed requirements to obtain funds for training"*. The use of accredited service providers is thus the only way to help offenders adequately, according to the researcher.

Premier Mbhazima Shilowa in his address at the opening of the Gauteng Legislature (2002:1) reported on the existence of programmes to create jobs. He speculated that at the end of this financial year, job creation would have increased to more than 30 000 per annum. The average was 18 000 per annum for the previous financial year. The Zivuseni public works job creation programme was a good start, being launched in 2002 and aiming to alleviate poverty by creating short-term jobs. This job creation programme entails the maintenance and upgrading of schools, hospitals, clinics, libraries, welfare pay points, multi-purpose community centres and sports facilities. However, Premier Shilowa concluded that although the *"primary solution to poverty is economic growth and job*

creation, the impact of this will be evident only in the medium to long term” (2002:6).

In conclusion, offenders released from prison need employment to resume their responsibility of meeting their own needs. Therefore, CCRC programmes should include job creation projects with skills training for jobs relevant to the market being provided by accredited service providers.

Programmes can only be effective if they are based on partnerships. The various components of partnerships relevant to CCRCs will subsequently be discussed.

4.4. PARTNERSHIPS FOR COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES

Key components for effective partnerships in CCRCs include accountability, the role of social workers as case managers, public-private-partnerships and advisory boards. These components will be discussed in this section.

4.4.1 Accountability

The various CCRCs as well as the DRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, expected accountability from all the offenders they served. The researcher is of the opinion that accountability should also play a central role in South Africa when serving

offenders at CCRCs. Offenders should take responsibility for their own lives. There is, however, a marked difference with regard to accountability when an offender is in prison as opposed to when he/she is staying at a CCRC.

In prison the offender has very little responsibility and accountability according to Everett (2000), whereas in CCRCs this role is of primary importance. The researcher is of the opinion that an offender's motivation is strongly linked to accountability. Austin *et al.* (1992:44) discuss the project Re-Entry Metro in Minnesota which stress both personal as well as group accountability. The expectation of accountability, however, does not stop at the offender. Professionals also need to be accountable. The Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa (2000/01:102) mentions that in order for professionals to be accountable, it is not only necessary to follow a scientific approach, but also to have appropriate training programmes. Such programmes would result in improved validity and reliability in the helping process.

Graycar (2000:11) refers to the social worker being accountable to:

- the community
- individual clients

- colleagues
- employers.

Smith, (1997:3) takes accountability one step further when she also includes all stakeholders and role-players in community corrections, be it the State, policy makers or service providers. The researcher fully agrees that all stakeholders must be accountable and that accountability and transparency are two important issues in managing CCRCs successfully.

Meatheringham (1997:4), however, is of the opinion that the private sector does not have to account so rigorously as is the case with a public agency when it comes to funds. However, when a private service provider is contracted to a public agency, the same rigorous controls of accountability come into practice.

Richards, (1997:2) comments that State departments find it all the more necessary to share service delivery between themselves and private service providers as co-partners. Not only are they collaborating, but they also compete with each other for contracts. According to him, certain developments such as a less hierarchical type of accountability occurred with the result of a better informed community. As a result, accountability is now of a more complex nature. He is of the

opinion that private sector service providers should have the same principle of accountability applied to them as was previously rigorously applied to State departments (Smith, 1997:3).

Lindsay (1990:7) discusses accountability of advisory boards within the framework of partnership as a serious issue. Board members should be well trained and knowledgeable in order to make decisions for which they should be held accountable.

In summary, the above discussion centred on accountability and various points were stressed, such as the accountability of the offender, the social worker, the state, the private sector and also of advisory boards. All role-players and stakeholders involved in CCRCs should therefore be held accountable.

The social worker is accountable to the offender and the community as clients. The social work context of this study, justifies a discussion of the future roles of social workers as case managers. As case managers, social workers have an important role to play in CCRC partnerships.

4.4.2 Future roles of social workers as case managers

Austin, Bloom and Donahue (1992:24) define case management as incorporating individualised *"treatment planning, referrals*

to community resources, systematic tracking of participants progress, and intensive monitoring of activities".

Clear and Dammer (2000:413) refer to case management as *"any system that provides for the organised and client-specific supervision of offenders"*.

The researcher concludes that case management is more than just a therapeutic relationship with the client. In essence, it means that the social worker should have a thorough knowledge of resources in the community so that the client can be referred to the most appropriate sources for programmes and services not provided at a CCRC. Treatment programmes are necessary social work intervention tools in supporting the offender to successfully reintegrate into the community. Howes (1996:37) regards the following objectives of great importance in social work interventions:

- Promote and expand community service orders as a sentencing option.
- Develop relevant treatment and training programmes which may be used by the courts in conjunction with a suspended or a postponed sentence.
- Provide victim-offender mediation as a sentencing option.

- Monitor and evaluate community-based sentences by means of record-keeping and action research in order to determine the effectiveness of the sentencing option.
- Report the findings of the evaluation or research to the courts in order to maintain the credibility of such a sentencing option.

Graycar (2000:13) emphasises the future role of social workers as case managers as opposed to caseworkers: Negotiating access, a broker of services, building a bridge between needs of client and resources available in the community, acting as an intermediary between offender and relevant agency and as a social resource manager.

Austin *et al.* (1992:24) indicate that *Summit House* uses the treatment-team approach when dealing with case management. This includes a multi-disciplinary team of various persons who are directly involved with offender's care. This team approach has the explicit advantage of the availability of personnel with various expertise perspectives when managing difficult problems. In addition, this approach has the advantage of protecting staff from burnout.

McShane and Krause (1993:396) refer to the *Federal Probation Service* approach as the "team approach" which

includes specialisation of services. As examples they mention employment referrals and drug and educational counselling. Team members are "*resource brokers*" regarding the services offered in the community. With the team approach each offender receives the services of a team of professionals and consequently a wider range of offenders' needs can be met. The team approach also decreases the possibility of personality conflicts between offender and team member as was seen with traditional casework intervention. All team members in the team approach are familiar with the offender's case and can stand in for one another when required. With a team approach a more balanced case planning and management service can be provided (McShane and Krause, 1993:396).

Bartollas (1985:199) discusses the concept of a "*Community Resource Management Team (CRMT)*" which is in essence a similar approach to that described by McShane and Krause. In this approach, offenders and community resources are linked. A new probationer is interviewed by one of the team members who then stipulate the needs of the probationer on a needs-assessment scale. Team members specialising in the various needs systems, then network the probationer with the specialised field in the community, such as drug and/or alcohol

abuse facilities, mental health and unemployment resources, or whatever the need may be.

Within the team work approach, it is important to have a well-developed supervision system in order to ensure accountability by all team members.

Latessa and Allen (1997:287) discuss "*casework supervision*" versus "*brokerage supervision*" as the two primary approaches of supervision. They state that the two approaches are usually mixed and do not exclude each other. They regard casework supervision as the more traditional approach, referring to probation and parole supervision. This supervision approach still follows the medical model. Their critique of this approach is that the caseworker does not make enough use of community support systems and relies too heavily on him/herself as the primary change agent of the offender. Given the large caseloads, extensive report writing required as well as a shortage of social workers, caseworkers are unable to produce the results demanded by casework (Latessa and Allen, 1997:290).

The brokerage approach, on the other hand, entails the social worker assessing the concrete needs of the offender and networking with skilled agencies in the community to provide

the specific service (Latessa and Allen, 1997:290). This approach places less emphasis on a one-to-one relationship between the caseworker and the offender, because the social worker functions more as a manager or "*broker of resources*". S/he is the contact point with the resources in the community and follows up the referral process to ensure that the offender receives the necessary services. The relationship between the social worker and the service-providing agency in the community is of greater importance than that of the relationship between the social worker and the offender. It is clear that the social worker should have in-depth knowledge about resources in the community. Latessa and Allen (1997:292) are convinced that in the brokerage approach, the social worker primarily plays the role of advocate. It also relies on the reintegration model as opposed to the medical model which is the case with the traditional casework supervision approach. It accentuates specialised services for the needs of the correctional client provided by skilled service agencies in the community. These authors state that as "*a rehabilitation device, brokerage replaces the casework approach*" (1997:292). The CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado all reported that they use the case manager's approach as opposed to the traditional casework approach.

In summary, the above discussion focussed on traditional casework as opposed to the case management approach, where the social worker takes on the role of advocate on behalf of the offender and provides the link with resources in the community. This new role of case management has more to do with the social worker's relationship with resources in the community, than the relationship with the offender. A team approach is followed which implies that each member of the team must have knowledge on the cases of all offenders. Case management falls within the reintegration model, whereas traditional casework falls within the medical model.

Not only is a role change from traditional casework to case management necessary with regard to community corrections, but a role change is also called for in the general management of crime in South Africa. Traditionally, it was the primary role of the Department of Correctional Services in conjunction with the police and the courts to manage crime in society. The extent of crime in South Africa is far too pervasive for Government to continue to take the sole responsibility for crime management. In addition, community corrections programmes and programme activities are also limited, there being only a few role-players involved. Public-private-partnerships need to be extended to include as many

stakeholders and role-players in the community as possible to take responsibility, as a team, for crime in the community.

4.4.3 Public / private partnerships

The previous discussion clearly indicated that crime should be the responsibility of not only the State and the Department of Correctional Services, the police and the courts, but also that of the community. The various sectors should become joint partners in an orchestrated fight against crime. (Compare Richards and Storr, 1999:7.) According to these authors, the current trend is to contract certain services to the private sector.

Lindsay (1990:3) is convinced that the public would consider alternative forms of punishment other than imprisonment, if the issue of public or personal safety was addressed. This implies that alternative forms of sentencing must be safe, adequately punitive as well as more cost-effective than prison. Community support will also be more easily achieved if offenders are adequately supervised in the community.

Steps are therefore necessary to ensure that public-private partnerships (PPP's) develop, where all role-players involved take a stance against crime. The question is, how could this be made possible? The Annual Report of the Department of

Correctional Services (2000/01:115) maintains that contracts form the basis for public-private partnerships in South Africa. The private sector should take responsibility for tasks such as the designing, building, financing, operating and maintaining of prisons. The government would then pay for the services that are provided.

The researcher is of the opinion that PPP's should be extended to include CCRCs in the community, based on sound contracts. Contracts can be negotiated through tendering.

Brown, the Director of the National Institute of Corrections of the U.S. Department of Justice, acknowledges in the foreword of *"Contracting for community corrections services"*, that the private sector provides many programmes for the public sector (www.nicic.org, 1987:1-47). In the introduction of the said document it is stated that community corrections has a number of options available, including the following:

- They operate the programmes themselves.
- The issuing of vouchers to enable eligible persons to obtain services from either single or multiple service providers.
- Contracting of services/programmes to for-profit agencies.
- Contracting of services/programmes to non-profit agencies.

In this report, the U.S. Department of Justice acknowledges the existence of contracts for partnerships for the following:

- *"Residential programmes (including CCRCs, house arrest, restitution centres, juvenile facilities).*
- *Counselling and treatment programmes (for general client groups, targeted offenders, victim offender reconciliation programmes).*
- *Testing (from employment/aptitude to biological lab work, e.g. urine analysis).*
- *Administrative services (for data processing, record keeping, programme evaluation services.)" (www.nicic.org 1987:1).*

For Parent (1990:5) it is important that State officials and CCRCs should reach an agreement about the purposes of sentencing and corrections and that the programmes at CCRCs should advance these purposes. In this way, CCRCs could successfully be integrated into a jurisdiction's corrections policy. However, according to this author, this would require a substantial amount of input by the public and private sectors as role-players. They should discuss existing sentencing options as well as the utilisation of CCRCs. They must also be able to



identify offenders suitable for CCRC placement. Parent also advises that adequate political skills are necessary to ensure that the right officials take part in the discussions in order to ease conflict that might arise due to differences of interest, jurisdiction and/or funding (1990:5).

Johnson (1997:2) mentions that the Victorian Government's policy declares that the government should make maximum use of contracting services from the private sector. The author regards competition as an inherent part of reform because it focuses more on outcome, greater financial accountability as well as control, enhanced management practices and a major shift of risk to the private sector.

Smith (1997:2-3) discusses various reasons for forming partnerships with non-governmental organisations as service providers. One of these reasons is linked to the power base of partners. Smith points out that although the government shares service delivery responsibility with non-governmental organisations, it will maintain its authority for corrections under the auspices of the Minister. The researcher agrees with this view that the partnership should always be a joint venture between the Department of Correctional Services and the private sector (for-profit/non-profit). A complete take over by the private sector is not advisable because that would

relinquish the responsibility of the Department of Correctional Services completely.

Smith (1997:3) comments on areas in which gaps in service provision exist and where contracts with non-governmental agencies resulted in various programmes to address issues such as the following:

- Drink-driving
- substance abuse
- relationships/communication
- anger management and resolution of conflict
- domestic violence
- transitional phase guidance for newly released parolees
- psychological and psychiatric assessments and therapy
- gambling and other addictive behaviours
- intellectual disability
- culturally defined groups (i.e. Vietnamese, Lebanese)
- Aboriginal cultural and educational groups.

Shilton (1993:5) agrees that new ways are developing in corrections where governments and the public sectors work together in partnerships to develop services for offenders in geographic communities. This takes place by developing a *"continuum of graduated sanctions and community-based treatment"*. According to Shilton (1993:5) this community-based treatment is not only more cost-effective, but also has the probability of a higher success rate. She states, however, that legislation should first change in order for this public-private partnership (PPP) to develop. She further elaborates on the need for the elimination of mandatory minimum sentences and suggests that non-violent offenders should receive alternative sentencing such as the placement in CCRCs, intensive probation as well as home confinement with monitoring (Shilton, 1993:6).

Although public-private partnerships exist in South Africa between government and private prisons, South Africa has, at this stage, no act or section of the Criminal Procedure Act which allows magistrates to sentence offenders directly to a CCRC, (Coetzee, 2002). An amendment to the relevant section of the Criminal Procedure Act is therefore necessary before CCRCs could be embarked on in South Africa. This would enable magistrates to sentence an offender directly to a CCRC

for a certain period of time where he/she has to comply with certain programmes and conditions. This amendment should apply to offenders who commit petty crimes and who are non-violent and also to offenders who are pre-released before their due parole date to a CCRC in the community. The development of a public-private partnership between CCRCs and the criminal justice system, would also have an enormously positive effect on the overcrowding of prisons.

Broad (1996:212-213) alludes to various aspects that are important after a partnership is established, namely:

- Who is responsible for monitoring?
- Continuous training in the fields of *"budgeting, business management, information technology and monitoring skills"*
- *"advanced business and management skills at the post-qualifying level"*.

Shilton (1993:8) highlights the *"dynamic problem-solving process"* in partnerships between community corrections and the private sector. However, changes to correctional decisions such as the following, require enactment by community corrections acts:

- *" Shift authority to local or private agencies, and provide subsidies to assist with programme costs*
- *develop a range of intermediate punishments and front-end alternatives*
- *emphasise both public and private involvement through local community corrections advisory boards, private organisations providing correctional supervision, and programmes for offenders"* (Shilton, 1993:8).

The suggestion made by Shilton (1993:8) of community corrections advisory boards is of great importance in the development and maintenance of a partnership between the public (criminal justice system) and the private sector (for-profit as well as non-profit).

4.4.4. Advisory boards

Lindsay, (1990:4) regards advisory boards as an opportunity to establish and maintain effective public-private partnerships for residential as well as other community corrections programmes. An Illinois statute includes the following purposes and activities for such a board:

- *"The council shall be composed of individuals who represent the following areas in the community:*



Local business;

Education;

Law enforcement; and

Social services.

- *Employees of the Department of Corrections, shall not be members of the council. The Chief Administrative Officer shall serve as an ex-officio member.*
- *The Chief Administrative Officer shall appoint council members to a one-year tenure".*

According to the Illinois statute the goals of the advisory board shall be to:

- *"Pursue ways and means of communicating the Community Services Division's mission to the public;*
- *assist in the identification of public service projects;*
- *develop resources which will benefit inmates/releasees;*
- *assist in the development of private business enterprises to provide employment to the inmates/releasees;*
- *advise the Chief Administrative Officer on policies which impact the community; and*

- *provide other advice and input which will enhance the Community Services Division's position in the community"* (Lindsay, 1990:4).

Lindsay (1990:5) suggests that board members should be orientated and informed clearly about their roles. They must understand that they act in an advisory capacity as opposed to that of being directive and prescriptive. The ultimate value of the establishment of an advisory board is the open invitation to become actively involved as a partner of the CCRC. Extension of this partnership takes place through negotiations with local officials and covers a wide range of expertise. These negotiations start at the beginning of a CCRC project but thereafter continue on an ongoing basis.

The researcher is of the opinion that when this process of CCRCs starts in South Africa, many agencies will compete as service providers. In this light, lessons can be learned from international experience and one is that interagency planning is advisable. Lindsay (1990:6) argues that allocation of programmes in a community should be done from an expert point of view. Too many CCRCs in one community is neither fair to the community, nor to the offenders living as residents in CCRCs. Her solution to this problem is that joint planning should take place between CCRC agencies. To make this

possible, a "central file" should be utilised for interagency planning. This file should, according to Lindsay (1990:6), include general information on various cities and towns, such as the following:

- *"zoning and licensing requirements;*
- *the nature and track records of any past or existing residential programmes;*
- *community and neighbourhood organisations;*
- *important issues in the community; and*
- *leading political and community figures and, if possible, their positions on community-based programmes in general as well as on specific programmes".*

The challenge of the proposed interagency planning for the establishment of CCRCs in communities, needs to be contextualised within the trend to build more prisons for violent offenders. Light (2001:1) asserts that this trend may actually stand in the way of proper planning for non-violent offenders.

In this regard, Light (2001:1) alludes to the crossroads in which Georgia's Criminal justice system finds itself. Georgia

has spent billions over the last ten years to build new prisons where they accommodate the most violent criminals for long periods of time and even for life. Light further points out that a thin line exists between "*tough laws and smart criminal justice decisions*". He asks the question whether Georgia overlooked alternatives to deal with petty crime and non-violent offenders, as well as the youth, in their rush to reach their goals with violent criminals. The petty crime, non-violent offenders and the youth are at great risk when entering the adult correctional system, according to Light (2001:1).

The experience of Georgia is a clear warning and challenge for South Africa to establish formal contracts between the public and private sector when embarking on the design, development and sustaining of CCRCs.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter focussed primarily on CCRC programmes and partnerships. It was concluded that programmes vary on a supportive-intervention continuum. Programmes need to be designed and presented in accordance with the special needs of specific offenders including offenders with HIV/AIDS, drug abusers, sex offenders, the mentally ill, lifestyle offenders and offenders with a low intelligence.

It was also concluded in this chapter that all offenders need jobs when they are released in order to reintegrate successfully into the community. Because not all offenders will qualify for the open labour market, job creation projects should form an integral part of CCRC programmes. CCRC programmes can only be in accordance with the needs of offenders, be accountable and supported by the community if they are designed, developed and implemented within partnerships.

Furthermore, the conclusion was reached that accountability, social workers as case managers, the public-private partnership and advisory boards are critical components of forming meaningful partnerships for CCRCs.

Chapter five reports on the findings of the quantitative empirical study.

CHAPTER FIVE

EMPIRICAL STUDY AND FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to develop a South African model for CCRCs. To accomplish this aim, the researcher had a qualitative focus, including expert inputs from an international perspective, and a quantitative focus, involving social workers employed by the Department of Correctional Services (Community Corrections Offices) as respondents for the study.

In this chapter, a brief overview of the research methodology and the findings of the quantitative study will be presented and discussed. Where applicable, the findings of the qualitative and the literature study will be respectively integrated with the findings of the quantitative study.

5.2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.2.1 Research approach

With regard to the research approach, the researcher had three options, namely, a quantitative, qualitative, or a combined approach as proposed by De Vos, Schurink and Strydom (1998:3). Neuman (1991:19,32) argues that exploratory research often uses qualitative data. This study utilised the dominant-less dominant quantitative-qualitative approach of Creswell (1994:179), also known as triangulation. The quantitative phase was the more dominant approach, whilst the qualitative phase represented the less dominant approach.

In South Africa and the African continent as a whole, very limited knowledge is available on CCRCs. Due to this fact, the researcher visited CCRCs in Denver, Colorado in 2000 to gain an international perspective of CCRCs. The researcher utilised non-scheduled, structured interviews to gain information from the various programme directors. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:105) report that this technique of data collection is structured because it draws up a list of questions beforehand. However, it is non-scheduled because the interviewer may extend the questions in a given situation. This qualitative data was obtained in the first phase of the study and gave direction

to the later quantitative phase of the research in which data was collected by means of a questionnaire.

5.2.2 Type of research

The type of research followed in this study was applied research. Baker (1994:68) commented that applied research is applicable when "*practical use is an outcome*" of the research study (compare Neuman, 1997:22 and Rubin & Babbie, 1989:79). As applied research, however, the research also has definite developmental aspects. De Vos, Schurink and Strydom (1998:9) define developmental research as the "*development of a technology, or better termed, technological item essential to a profession such as medicine, nursing, psychology or social work*".

This study was specifically aimed at the practical outcome of developing a South African model for CCRCs due to the fact that they are currently limited in this country.

5.2.3 Research design

The research design of this study was exploratory. Rubin and Babbie (1989:86) assert that exploratory studies take place to explore a topic when the subject is relatively new and

unstudied. (Compare Neuman, 1997:19; Mouton & Marais, 1992:28; and Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:37.)

Neuman (1997:19) describes the exploratory researcher as *"creative, open minded, and flexible; adopt[ing] an investigative stance; and explore all sources of information"*. The researcher explored all avenues to gain information on community corrections, and in particular CCRCs, with a view to compiling models of CCRCs for South Africa, specifically.

5.2.4 Research procedure and strategy

Mouton and Marais (1992:45) comment that the most important research considerations to be taken into account when doing exploratory research are the following:

- The research strategy should be open and flexible.
- Methods such as literature review, interviews and case studies should be used, as well as informants who may help with the gaining of insight.

The strategy followed in this study was as follows:

- The researcher conducted interviews with various experts in the field of community corrections employed by the



Department of Correctional Services in South Africa, namely:

- Dr. A.L. Hlongwane - Director of Community Corrections, Pretoria.
 - Mr H.A. Coetzee - Assistant Head of Community Corrections, Pretoria.
 - Advocate A.J. Strydom - Office of the Provincial Commissioner of Gauteng Province, Department of Correctional Services, Pretoria.
- Non-scheduled structured interviews were conducted with four programme directors at for-profit CCRCs in Denver, Colorado for an expert international perspective. A Day-Reporting Centre was also visited to gain an international perspective on more recent developments in the correctional field.
 - The Internet was extensively utilised to gain a broad perspective on all aspects of CCRCs.
 - From the international inputs received from experts within the field of CCRCs, a questionnaire was constructed and administered to social workers employed in the field of Community Corrections in South Africa. This questionnaire

was sent to all nine regions in South Africa, where Community Corrections Offices operate.

5.2.5 Pilot study

Strydom (1998:179) supports the view of Cilliers (1970:132) stating that a pilot study must begin, first of all, with a literature study and then be followed by the experience of experts, thereby gaining a broader perspective of the field of investigation. If necessary, an intensive study of a few cases may be included.

The pilot study for this research, therefore, included an extensive literature study; interviews with experts; a preliminary exploratory study; as well as a study of strategic units.

As indicated in chapter one, the present study is a follow-up study from the researcher's Masters degree which explored the subject of CCRCs in the Gauteng province. Consequently, the former study was used as a pilot study for the present study. However, a further extended literature study was undertaken to guide the researcher in the specific field before contacts were established in this regard with South African experts and visits made to experts in the field in Denver, Colorado.

- Literature study

With regard to the literature study, the researcher preferred to utilise the most recent information on the subject of CCRCs. However, because of the fact that many literature resources were not of such a recent date, extensive use was made of the World Wide Web on the Internet. International contacts were made via electronic mail. Complementary fields were also searched in order to gain a broad perspective of the subject being studied.

- Viability study

The viability study was undertaken at the end of 1998, in the Department of Correctional Services concerning the planning and structuring of CCRCs in South Africa. Various officials in the Department of Correctional Services formed the investigation team and invited the researcher into the team because of her previous research on the topic. This team recommended that research should be undertaken and planned to establish community-based care centres (CCRCs) that would serve as facilities where training and reintegration of the offender can take place. As stated earlier in chapter one of this study, the result was a Departmental task group visiting Georgia in the U.S.A. to observe how CCRCs are managed by

the public sector. The researcher had access to documentation on the Georgia model, but was left with a knowledge gap regarding the management of the private model. Hence, contact was established through a snowball effect on the Internet and the researcher arranged a visit to CCRCs in Denver, Colorado in May 2000 to gain insight into the private (for-profit) model of CCRCs. With regard to information on the management of the private (non-profit) model, the researcher established electronic mail contact with a person in Ohio and, in addition, studied documents in this regard on the Internet.

- Consultations with experts

The researcher consulted first with the team of officials of the Department of Correctional Services when the viability study was done at the Department of Correctional Services in 1998. She also consulted with other experts, as already indicated in this chapter and in chapter one.

5.2.6 Pilot test of questionnaire

The questionnaire was constructed with inputs received from various resources such as CCRCs and DRCs in Denver, Colorado. Officials of the Department of Correctional Services, with an

extensive knowledge of parole and community corrections, were also consulted.

The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire for content validity and reliability in December, 2001 with two social workers employed by the Community Corrections Office in Pretoria.

5.2.7 Research population, sample and sampling method

The procedures followed to select the samples were as follows:

For the qualitative research, Mr H.A. Coetzee, Assistant Head of Community Corrections in Pretoria referred the researcher to a source in Denver, Colorado who was reached via electronic mail. Through a snowball effect, this source put the researcher in contact with another source who arranged for interviews with CCRCs to take place in May 2000, during the first qualitative phase of this study.

During the second, quantitative phase of the study the researcher chose purposive sampling, which is a type of non-probability sampling, according to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:92).

The sample chosen was all the social workers (134) employed by the Community Corrections Offices in South Africa in all nine

provinces. This number excluded the social workers providing services to sentenced offenders in prisons.

The research findings based on the 134 respondents in the quantitative study will subsequently be discussed.

5.3. RESEARCH FINDINGS

A questionnaire (see Appendix D) accompanied by two covering letters from the Department of Correctional Services, stating that the researcher had its consent to do the research, were sent to the said 134 social workers employed by the Community Corrections Offices in the nine provinces of South Africa. A total of 85 responses was received, giving a response rate of 63 percent.

The questionnaire was divided into six sections, namely:

- A - Biographical particulars of the respondent
- B - The need for CCRCs serving offenders only
- C - Funding of CCRCs in South Africa
- D - Programmes
- E - Selection criteria
- F - General information on CCRCs

Section A of the questionnaire requested biographical particulars of the respondents which are discussed below.

5.3.1 Gender

Sixty out of eighty-five respondents were females and twenty-five were males. The females represented 71 percent (71%) of the sample and the males 29 percent (29%). These figures clearly confirm the gender composition of the social work profession as being mainly female.

5.3.2 Age

In this category, the ages ranged between 23 and 54 years, with the highest sample rates being in the age group 28 - 33, namely 50.59% of the respondents. These findings confirm that the respondents were relatively young.

5.3.3 Region of employment and home language

The highest response rates came from three regions namely, the Western Cape, the Eastern Cape and the Free State, totalling 50.61% of all the respondents. These findings correlate with the home languages spoken by respondents. The highest response rate came from Afrikaans-speaking social workers, namely 44.58% and correlates with the high response rate from the Western Cape and the Free State. The second

highest response came from Xhosa-speaking social workers, namely 16.87%, which corresponds with the second highest response rate coming from the Eastern Cape region.

5.3.4 Years of job experience in current position

Forty six percent (46%) of the respondents had three and less years of experience in their current job positions at the Department of Correctional Services (DCS). The rest of the sample ranged between four and twenty-eight years.

When considering the high percentage of social workers with a maximum of only three years job experience, the conclusion seems to be that there is a high personnel turnover, which is not to the advantage of the offender in community corrections sentences.

In summary, Section A reflected the following about the respondents in the sample population:

They were mainly female.

The age group was mainly below 35 years of age.

The highest response rate came from the Eastern and Western Cape and the Free State regions. The main home

languages spoken by the respondents, namely Afrikaans and Xhosa, correlate with the regional response rate.

Forty-six percent of the population had three years and less work experience in their current position.

Section B of the questionnaire focussed on the need for CCRCs for offenders only.

5.3.5 Need for CCRCs for offenders only

A matrix question was asked regarding variables 9 to 13 about certain statements concerning the need for CCRCs for offenders only. The respondents had five choices to respond to, namely: "*strongly agree*" (1), "*agree*" (2), "*uncertain*" (3), "*disagree*" (4) and "*strongly disagree*" (5). For the purpose of this discussion, choices (1) and (2) will be consolidated by the researcher, as well as choices (4) and (5); whilst choice (3) will be given separately. The responses are indicated in the following Table 5 on the next page.

TABLE 5: NEED FOR CCRCS FOR OFFENDERS ONLY

Statements	Strongly Agree/ (1) Agree (2)	Uncertain (3)	Strongly Disagree/ (4) Disagree (5)	Total
Prisons in SA are over-crowded	99%		1%	100%
Prison is only for serious offenders	67%	5%	28%	100%
Less serious offenders can be successfully treated in the community	89%	8%	3%	100%
Reintegration into the community is important	100%			100%
The offender does not learn to be accountable in prison	54%	18%	28%	100%
Offenders have special needs and can therefore not be catered for in care centres that house all types of homeless people	69%	12%	19%	100%

It is apparent from the responses in the above Table 5, that 99% of the respondents agreed that South African prisons are overcrowded, as is also the case world-wide. Latessa and Travis 111 (1992:168) indicate that CCRC facilities have grown in the last decade as a response to the overcrowding of prisons. They state that placement in CCRCs has become a correctional alternative on its own (1992:169). They are also of the opinion that more recent residential facilities have expanded into multi-service (one-stop) agencies. In addition, they mention the increase of facilities operated by the public sector, especially pre-release and reintegration centres. However, these authors are convinced that it is the private sector that will take the lead and play a dominant role. They state that the proponents who favour the private sector, talk about them as more cost-effective and that, at the same cost, the private sector (for-profit) will at least provide a better service (1992:177).

The above responses indicate that CCRCs are used more and more as an international response to the overcrowding of prisons. The discussion of Latessa and Travis III (1992:169) thus supports the researcher's findings that 99% of the respondents agreed that prisons are overcrowded in South Africa.

All the respondents agreed (100%) that reintegration into the community is of cardinal importance. They also highly agreed (89%) that successful treatment of less serious offenders could take place in the community, which opens the door for alternative sentencing options (intermediate sanctions) in the community.

The County of Roscommon, Michigan (2001), (<http://www.roscommoncounty.net/ccab>) maintains that alternative sentencing options ease overcrowding in prisons, and when non-violent offenders are placed in the community, no harm is done to public safety. Although there was a relatively high response rate (67%) in the strongly agree/agree category on the question whether prison should only be for serious offenders, 28% of the respondents replied in the range of disagreed/highly disagreed. Since there was no follow up to this question, the researcher can only speculate as to why respondents disagreed that prison is only for serious offenders. It may be that respondents see no other option due to the limited alternative sentencing options that are available tailored to the needs of individual offenders. It may also be that respondents are merely ignorant with regard to various sentencing options possibilities as opposed to imprisonment.

Research indicates, however, that prison should only be for serious offenders. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice and Goals (1976:489) suggested that incarceration should only take place when "*nothing less will do*" and if the offender has to be incarcerated it should only be for a short time. Graycar (2000:9) agrees on the incarceration of serious offenders who keep on offending at a high rate and who are not at the end of their "*criminal careers*". Their imprisonment results in a reduction of criminal activity in the community.

Clear and Braga (1998:217) state that the question should rather be asked about how the offender should be managed in the community, as opposed to the question whether offenders should be "*on the streets*".

With regard to the statement in Table 5 on the accountability of the offender in prison, a wide range of results was received. Whereas 53% strongly agreed/agreed, 29% strongly disagreed/disagreed and 18% were uncertain. As reflected in Figure 5, it is clear that there was no strong support for the statement that offenders do not learn to be accountable in prison.

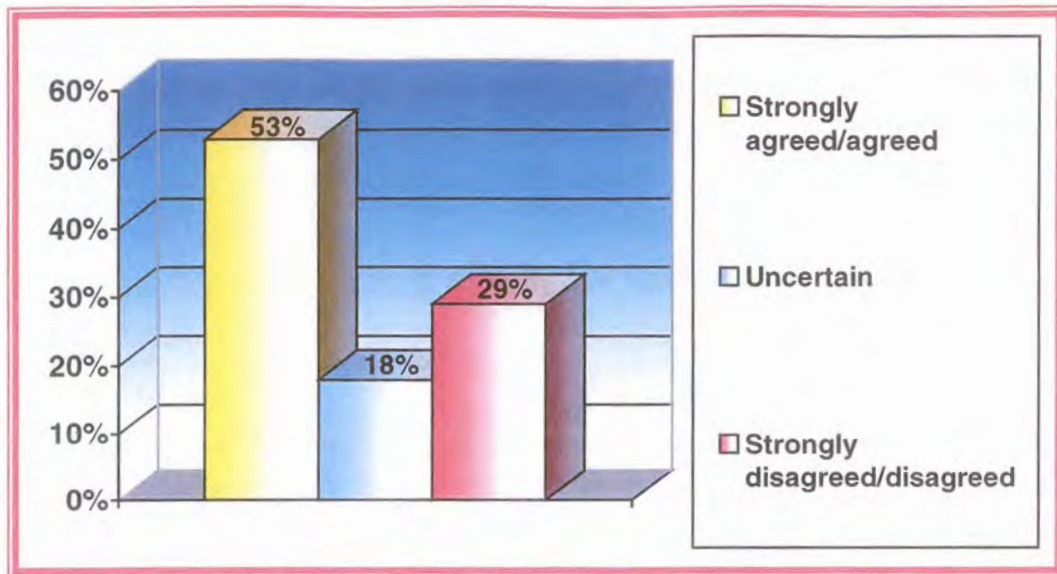


FIGURE 5: OFFENDER ACCOUNTABILITY

The above results are not in accordance with Everett's (2000) experience at the Independence House, Fillmore Street CCRC. According to him, the offender in prison has very little responsibility and accountability, whereas in CCRCs these are of primary importance. Maglia (2000) at BI Incorporated DRC holds the same opinion. According to him the centre expected accountability from the offenders for their actions, other than what is expected from the offenders in prison.

As reflected in Table 5, the respondents' strongly agreed/agreed (69%) that offenders have special needs, and can therefore not be catered for in care centres that house all types of homeless people. Although the response rate for this question was relatively high, it might be that the respondents (social workers) have had relatively little experience with

offenders in the community and would not, therefore, have understood the implications of the question. As already noted, 46% had three years and less of work experience in community corrections. Van der Westhuizen (1997:97) confirmed these findings when she concluded in her study that when a broad spectrum of target groups is served, it is a virtually impossible task to meet everyone's needs.

5.3.6 Contracting of services to the private sector

This question obtained the respondents' views about the contracting of services to the private sector with regard to private prisons, CCRCs, specialised programmes, day reporting centres and electronic monitoring. Dichotomous questions were asked where the response requested was either to mark a "yes" or a "no" in each category and the results are indicated in Figure 6.

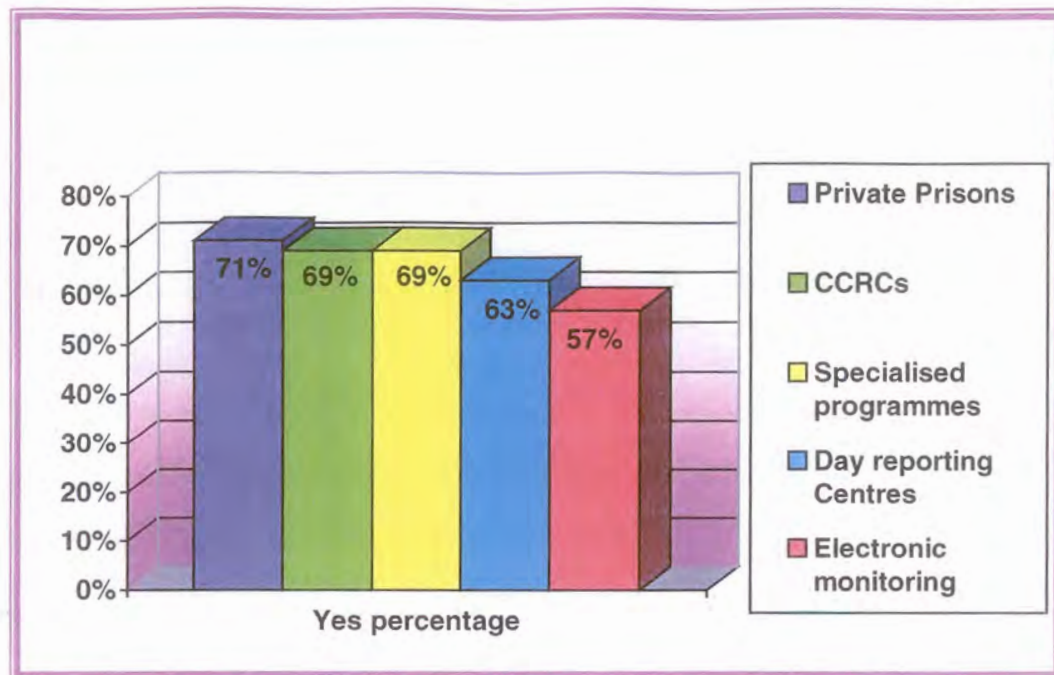


FIGURE 6: THE CONTRACTING OF SERVICES TO THE PRIVATE SECTOR

The responses reflected in the above Figure 6 indicate strong support for the contracting to the private sector, namely "private prisons, CCRCs and specialised programmes". This is in line with international trends. Richards and Storr (1999:7) state that certain services are now contracted to the private sector. This is confirmed by Johnson (1997:2), who refers to the Victorian Government's policy declaring that maximum use would be made of contracting services to the private sector. Public-private partnerships also exist in South Africa in terms of private prisons (Annual Report, 2000/01:115, Department of Correctional Services).

CCRCs and specialised programmes go hand in hand with reference to the contracting of services and the respondents



confirmed this, the response rate being 69% for both questions. In chapter four of this study, the relevance of catering for offenders with special needs according to specialised programmes was indicated. According to Austin *et al.* (1992:39), the Elizabeth Fry Centre in San Francisco not only provides programmes for female offenders, but also takes care of their pre-school children in the form of a pre-school educational programme. The same applies to the Project Greenhope Services for Women, that provides CCRCs, day treatment facilities as well as permanent housing for women offenders. These CCRCs have contracts with the Department of Corrections to deliver programmes to female offenders (Austin *et al.*, 1992:42). Currently, the international trend is to contract services to the private sector. The Department of Correctional Services in South Africa has also indicated a move in this direction, according to the most recent Annual Report (2000/01:115). The responses given by the respondents in the researcher's study, therefore, are in agreement with current international and national trends.

With regard to the contracting of electronic monitoring and DRCs to the private sector, the respondents chose 57% for EM and 63% for DRCs, respectively.

5.3.7 Other services contracted to the community

As a follow-up question on the contracting of services to the private sector, the respondents responded through an open question on any other services that could be contracted to the community. The following responses emerged:

- security posts at prison
- escorts to courts
- educational programmes

5.3.8 Management of CCRCs in South Africa

With regard to the management of CCRCs in South Africa, respondents reported as follows in Figure 7:

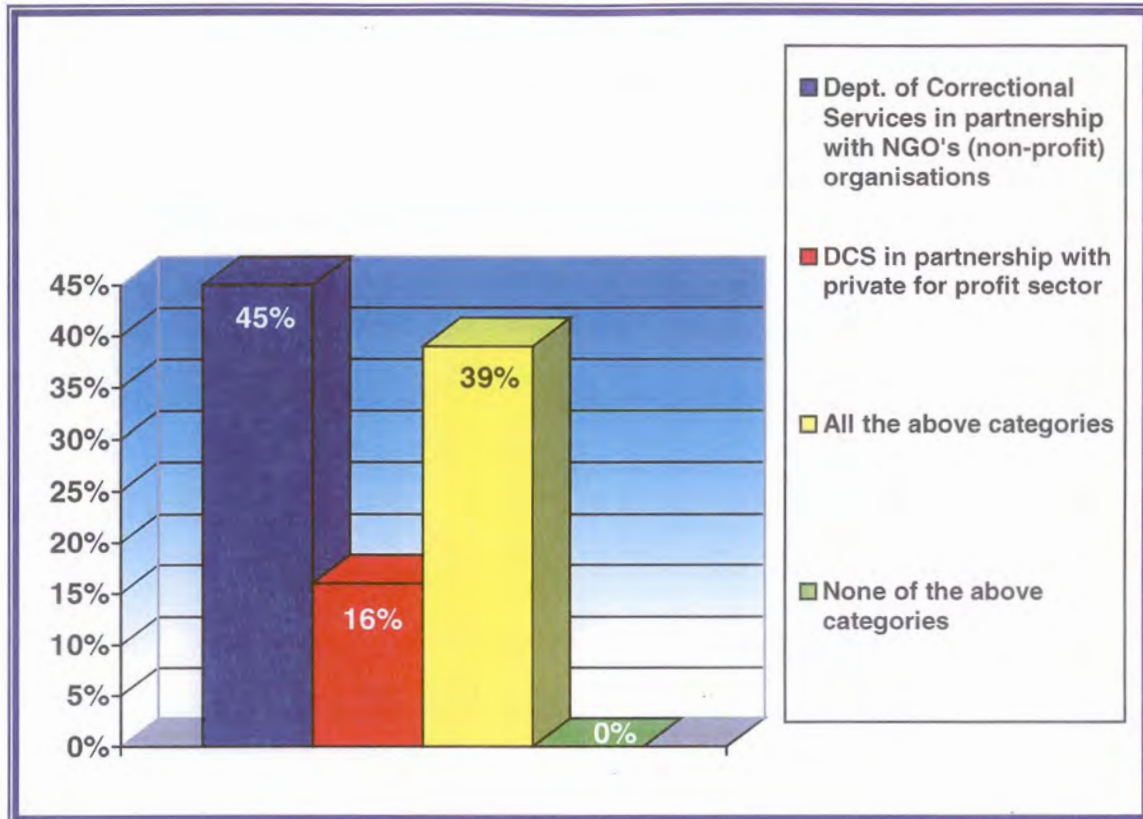


FIGURE 7: MANAGEMENT OF CCRCs IN SOUTH AFRICA

Most of the respondents (45%), supported a partnership between the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) and the private (non-profit) sector. Sixteen percent (16%) preferred a partnership between DCS and the private for-profit sector, whilst 39 % would prefer a combined partnership between DCS and the private for-profit and non-profit sectors.

The researcher requested that respondents motivate their choices and these included the following:

- *"The more team players the greater the chance to be successful. All stakeholders should take part in rehabilitation. The more role-players, the better. This should take place in conjunction with NICRO.*
- *Department of Correctional Services (DCS) should play a main role. Support from others is necessary. DCS cannot alone rehabilitate offenders.*
- *CCRCs will need neutral people who will be coming with a different perspective to that of the DCS. Special training of staff at CCRCs must take place to deal with those selected offenders. Training should also be different to that of correctional personnel.*
- *Quality service only comes when your output has a monetary value.*
- *If the private sector is involved there will be better control.*
- *Not ethical to profit from crime."*

It is clear from the above-mentioned findings that the respondents still want the Department of Correctional Services to be in control.

Knapp *et al.* (1992:16), in their survey of a 100 programmes of female residential community corrections facilities, found that the private non-profit agencies form the largest component of CCRCs throughout the U.S.A. Therefore, the choices made by the respondents in this study also correlate with international research.

5.3.9 Types of CCRCs suited for South Africa

With regard to the types of CCRCs that will best be suited for South Africa, respondents had three response options, ranging from "very successful", "*relatively successful*", to "*not successful at all*". The following Table 6 indicates the responses:

TABLE 6: TYPES OF POSSIBLE CCRCS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Type of Facilities	Very successful (1)	Relatively successful (2)	Not successful at all (3)	Combined percentage
Pre-release	46%	44%	10%	90%
Halfway-back for parole violators	35%	40%	25%	75%
Mixed (transitional and diversion)	27%	54%	19%	81%
Probationers	53%	36%	11%	89%
Awaiting-trial	35%	42%	13%	77%
Young offenders	69%	26%	5%	95%

To conclude on the type of facilities that were mostly supported by the respondents, the researcher consolidated the percentages per type of facility in a combined percentage as reflected in Figure 8:

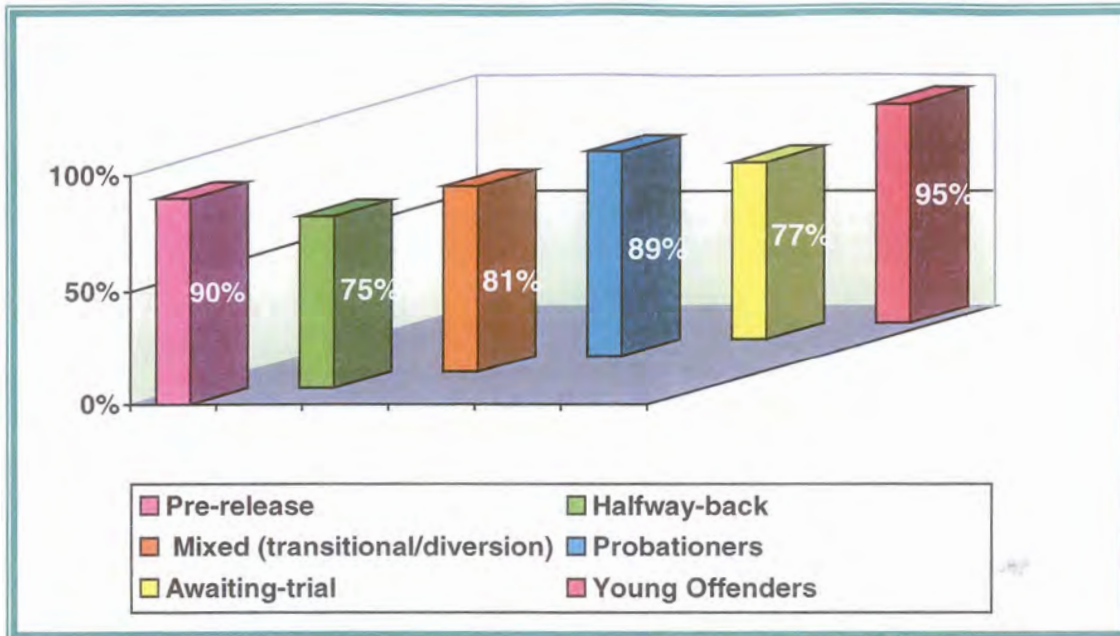


FIGURE 8: COMBINED PERCENTAGES OF POSSIBLE TYPES OF CCRCs IN SOUTH AFRICA

Although there was strong support for all the categories, when the very successful and the relatively successful are combined, it is clear from the above Figure 8, that "pre-release facilities" and those for "probationers" and "young offenders" obtained the highest percentages, i.e. 90%, 89% and 95%, respectively.

The mixed facilities (pre-release and diversion offenders), produced a lower response rate which correlates with the researcher's experience of CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado. All the programme directors stated the reluctance of diversion clients to fit into the CCRC, compared to the transitional clients. However, both types of offenders are served at all

the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado, where they follow both the reintegration and diversion models of community corrections.

In a follow-up open question about other types of CCRCs that could function within the South African context, only one respondent suggested shelters for street children. However, the aim of this study was to find answers to CCRCs for adult offenders and therefore this suggestion, per se, was not relevant to this specific study.

5.3.10 CCRCs as alternative sentencing options

The respondents were requested to respond to whether CCRCs could serve as an alternative sentencing option to magistrates. Of the respondents, 89 % agreed that they could serve as an alternative sentencing option.

With regard to whether alternative sentencing options would reduce the overcrowding of prison, 86% of the respondents acknowledged that it would.

Concerning 24-hour supervision at a CCRC, 89% of the respondents agreed that it is a necessity. This again correlates with the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado that all provided 24-hour supervision.

Knapp *et al.* (1992:1) confirm the opinion that CCRCs appear to be good alternative sentencing options, because they have the extra advantage of serving as 24-hour facilities. Within this context, CCRCs can be regarded as community sanctions closest to that of prison or jail.

5.3.11 The serving of males/females at the same CCRC

The respondents had to respond to whether a CCRC should serve males and females simultaneously. The response rate was divided between "agree" (49 %), "disagree" (36%) and "uncertain" (14%). This question had a follow-up question where the respondents who disagreed had to give their reasons in the space provided. Responses were as follows:

- *"Sexual harassment, which needs supervision that is more intensive and complicates the rendering of services.*
- *The mixing of males and females can lead to unwanted pregnancies, the possibility of HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases.*
- *Separate males and females to keep up morality.*
- *Males and females have different needs.*

- *Place them in separate units without the possibility of contact.*
- *They need to focus on themselves and their support systems. Getting involved in relationships at that point is too risky”.*

Knapp *et al.* (1992:3) re-analysed 647 CCRCs and supplemented the analysis with eight case studies of programmes in the U.S.A. They report that the population gender served at facilities included in the survey and case study sample, showed the following:

- Females only are served at 53 facilities - 8%
- Males only are served at 337 facilities - 52 %
- Mixed facilities at 255 facilities - 40%

It is apparent from this survey that more facilities exist for males than for females. However, the mixed facilities showed a percentage rate of 40% in the above study. Carst (2000) of Tooley Hall CCRC also complained about the shortage of CCRC facilities for female offenders.

As already mentioned in chapter three of this study, the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado who cater for both males and

females at the same centre, have to supervise them more closely. It is also more costly because they make use of camera surveillance to monitor all the rooms. In addition, they admitted that where males and females are mixed at one centre, problems of a sexual nature occur frequently.

5.3.12 Funding of CCRCs

The respondents were requested to answer questions regarding the funding of CCRCs within two stages. The first stage is when the offender is a resident at a CCRC, but unemployed. In the second stage the offender is a resident at a CCRC, but employed. These findings are captured in the following Figure 9.



FIGURE 9: TWO STAGES OF FUNDING AT CCRCs

The first stage in the above Figure 9, indicates the following: The Department of Correctional Services and the Department of Social Services are primarily responsible for the funding of the CCRC, according to respondents. Family members and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) follow as secondary funders.

In a follow-up question on the responses of the first stage, the respondents gave the following suggestions with regard to the funding of CCRCs:

- *"Community forums.*

- *Churches.*
- *Donors from the private sector.*
- *Only employed family members must make a contribution.*
- *The State should subsidise the CCRC.*
- *All Government Departments such as Justice, Trade and Industry and Labour.*
- *Chiefs and headmen.*
- *Private businesses and conglomerates like De Beer's and Anglo-American".*

The second stage reflected in Figure 8 above, strongly indicates the responsibility of the offender to pay his/her own fees at the CCRC. However, the respondents are also of the opinion that the Departments of Correctional Services and Social Services are also still liable for funding.

If the offender is obliged to pay for services rendered to him/her when employed, responsibility and accountability are stressed. Latessa and Allen (1997:299) mention a multi-service (one-stop) agency, named Talbert House, that admits persons convicted of drunk driving, for weekends. During this time, they take part in an educational programme. This is cost-

effective because the participants must pay for services delivered since they are employed during the week.

The open response question following the second stage responses, required respondents to give other sources they thought should help with the funding of CCRCs. Responses were as follows:

- *"The offender should cater for his/her own needs such as toiletry.*
- *A means test is necessary to see what the offender's contribution should be. One respondent stated that the residents should pay 50 % and the Department of Social Services, the other 50%".* [The following departments were also mentioned, such as the Department of Labour, and the Department of Justice].
- *" The family should help only if they have the means".*

An interesting response was that of chiefs and headmen who could also help with funding. This source of funding would refer mainly to black offenders in South Africa.

In Section D of the questionnaire, the researcher enquired about which CCRC programmes are regarded as most important within a South African context.

5.3.13 Programmes

A combined percentage of 91.56% of the respondents indicated that both supportive programmes as well as interventive programmes would apply in a South African context. The remaining respondents (8,44%) were of the opinion that supportive programmes (shelter, food, referral services and minimal counselling) are the most important. From this strong response rate, it can be concluded that respondents not only agree that offenders should be supported in general, but that a full range of services and programmes should be made available to them. According to Latessa and Travis 111 (1992:169), many CCRCs offer little more than a place to live and to organise contacts with community resources, whilst others provide a full range of services.

5.3.14 Programme space

The respondents indicated that CCRCs should have space available to cater for programme activities at the centre. The response rate in favour of sufficient programme space was 97.65%, which is very high. This is in line with what Everett (2000) of the Independence House, Fillmore Street advised, namely that adequate planning is necessary to make provision

for programme space at a CCRC. He stated, "*even if you think you planned for enough space you must still double it*".

5.3.15 Networking with the surrounding community

The respondents highly agreed (91.76%) that networking with the surrounding community is very important. Of the respondents 98.82 % indicated that it is necessary to sub-contract programmes to skilled agencies in the community. Knapp *et al.* (1992:8) indicate that many programmes that they re-analysed fulfil the role of brokers. That is, they refer offenders to specialised and skilled agencies in the community, for example to mental health or drug treatment services. The response rate of the respondents is in line with international research and the practice followed by the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado.

Concerning the networking with the surrounding community, especially in the beginning phase of the project, none of the programme directors interviewed in Denver, Colorado was employed at the CCRC at that stage and could therefore not give any information in this regard. Everett (2000) from the Independence House, Fillmore Street, informed the researcher that all the laws in the U.S.A. require them to obtain community support.

The respondents were also requested to give their reasons why they chose either "yes" or "no" regarding the sub-contracting of programmes to the geographic community. Some of the responses were as follows:

- *"In order that rehabilitation could take place.*
- *So those programmes could be provided according to specific needs.*
- *It is more cost-effective when programmes are sub-contracted.*
- *The important aspect of networking with the community takes place.*
- *There are not enough skilled personnel in the Department of Correctional Services.*
- *To prevent duplication of services.*
- *The development of entrepreneurs."*

Chapter four of this study indicated the importance of sub-contracting programmes and other services to skilled agencies in the community. Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street, reported on the sub-contracts they receive from referral agencies in the community.

5.3.16 Programmes for residents at CCRCs in South Africa

The respondents were required to indicate the importance of certain programmes for residents at CCRCs in South Africa. They had a choice between "not important at all", "relatively important" and "very important". Table 7 indicates the responses:

TABLE 7: THE IMPORTANCE OF PROGRAMMES FOR RESIDENTS AT CCRCs IN SOUTH AFRICA

Programmes	Not important at all	Relatively important	Most important	Total
Orientation	1.18%	16.47%	82.35%	100%
Life skills	1.18%	17.65%	81.17%	100%
Alcohol and drug	2.35%	22.35%	75.30%	100%
Trauma	3.53%	44.71%	51.76%	100%
Development: Psycho-social	1.18%	23.53%	75.29%	100%
Financial management	1.18%	35.29%	63.53%	100%
Accountability	0.00%	20.00%	80.00%	100%
Employment training	0.00%	14.12%	85.88%	100%

Anger Management	1.19%	29.76%	69.05%	100%
Parenting skills	4.71%	36.47%	58.82%	100%
Cognitive skills	2.35%	32.94%	64.71%	100%
HIV/Aids awareness	1.18%	16.47%	82.35%	100%

From Table 7 it is apparent that orientation (82.35%), life skills (81.17%), accountability (80%), employment training (85.88%) and HIV/AIDS awareness programmes (82.35%) were the most important programmes selected by the respondents, which also corresponds with international trends. In addition to this question, respondents were requested to make suggestions of other programmes relevant to CCRCs in South Africa. They suggested programmes with the following focus components:

- *"Sexual offender skills and sexual orientation.*
- *Crime and legal implications.*
- *Victim empowerment.*
- *Crime prevention.*
- *Religion.*

- *Small business plans.*
- *Pre-release guidance.*
- *Assertiveness training.*
- *Conflict management.*
- *Domestic violence management.*
- *Behaviour modification.*
- *Motivation for change”.*

The findings with regard to programmes relevant for offenders in South African CCRCs are in line with the programmes provided by the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado.

In Section E of the questionnaire, respondents were required to respond regarding the importance of selection criteria for CCRCs before accepting an offender.

5.3.17 Selection criteria

The questionnaire instructed respondents to mark each category according to *“very important”*, *“relatively important”* or *“not important at all”* as indicated in Table 8:



TABLE 8: SELECTION CRITERIA

Selection criteria	Very Important (1)	Relatively important (2)	Not important at all (3)	Combined Percentages (1) and (2)
Prior escapes	77.65%	14.12%	8.23%	91.77%
Behaviour and attitude of offender	80.00%	18.82%	1.18%	98.82%
Mental status	68.24%	23.53%	8.23%	91.77%
Residential area of offender	37.65%	44.71%	17.64%	82.36%
Age	44.71%	38.82%	16.47%	83.53%
Institutional behaviour	67.06%	27.06%	5.88%	94.12%
Previous successes/failures	68.24%	23.53%	8.23%	91.77%
Type of crime	71.76%	24.71%	3.53%	96.47%
Family as support system	70.59%	24.71%	4.70%	95.30%
Health issues	52.94%	40.00%	7.06%	92.94%
Motivation	64.71%	30.59%	4.70%	95.30%

In the above Table 8, it is apparent that the respondents regarded selection criteria of the utmost importance for CCRCs in line with the international research. Respondents gave the lowest percentages of choice in selection criteria to the aspects highlighted in the above table, namely age and residential area of the offender. However, in the combined percentages they still reached a total in the 80%. This is not in accordance with McShane and Krause (1993:232) who state that when selecting offenders for a CCRC programme, geographic areas are important. They argue that after their release from supervision and the CCRC, reintegration into the same community where they will work and stay is advisable. However, these authors assert that at times, offenders would rather go to a CCRC outside their home area, as opposed to being sent to a CCRC in their immediate geographic area.

The findings reflected in Table 8 are in line with international research. All the CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado utilised selection criteria for the placement of offenders with age and geographic area playing definite roles. These CCRCs regard the families of offenders as strong support systems in their eventual reintegration into the community and therefore it is necessary to place them in communities the same as their families. The average ages of the offenders in CCRCs in

Denver, Colorado range from 20-35 years. Everett (2000) reports that Federal offenders are normally older than other offenders. This was particularly true at Independence House, Fillmore Street where the ages range between 27 and 35 years of age. In a follow up open question the respondents indicated that further selection criteria could include previous convictions, responsibility, self-respect and discipline.

In Section F of the questionnaire, the respondents were required to give general information on CCRCs, including aspects such as public transport; the ideal site for a CCRC; obtaining community support; decisions regarding the maximum number, various categories of offenders; one-stop services, the issuing of contracts by the Department of Labour to train offenders at CCRCs and the matter of tax breaks for companies employing offenders. The last part of this section included questions on the personnel at CCRCs.

5.3.18 General information on CCRCs

The majority of respondents indicated (55,29%) that public transport near a CCRC is very important, whilst 31.76% said it was relatively important and 12.94% did not think it was important at all. Allen *et al.* support the accessibility of CCRCs

so that offenders can easily reach community agencies and jobs (1978:13).

Respondents were required of the respondents to choose an ideal site for a CCRC and 60% indicated a residential area, whilst 28.24% were of the opinion that a CCRC would function better as an annexe to prison. Only 11.76% thought the ideal site would be in an industrial area. Keller and Alper (1970:12) indicate that although CCRCs are found in any kind of setting, they maintain the opinion that the community should be more or less the same as the one to which the offender will return after his/her release.

With regard to the question of gaining community support for a CCRC, 94.12% of the respondents were of the opinion that it is very important, whereas only 5.88% thought it was relatively important. This is in line with international research. Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street informed the researcher that laws in the U.S.A. require CCRCs to have community support.

On the question of who should decide about the maximum number of residents at a CCRC, 84.71% chose a combination between the CCRC itself and the Department of Correctional Services, whereas 12.94% said it was the decision of the CCRC.

On the other hand, 2.35% thought that the decision lay with the Department of Correctional Services. In Denver, Colorado CCRCs are issued with contracts from the Department of Corrections, specifying the number of offenders they may admit to the CCRC.

Regarding the question on the various categories of offenders i.e. pre-release, diversion and parole violators, 71.76% of the respondents indicated that they should be accommodated in different wings of the same CCRC, while 10.59% said they should be totally mixed. A further 9.41% said they should be accommodated at different CCRCs, and 8.24% were uncertain on this issue.

The question about a one-stop service at CCRCs in South Africa prompted the respondents to indicate which of the following categories they would include in a one-stop service. Responding with either a "yes" or a "no", their responses were as depicted in Figure 10:

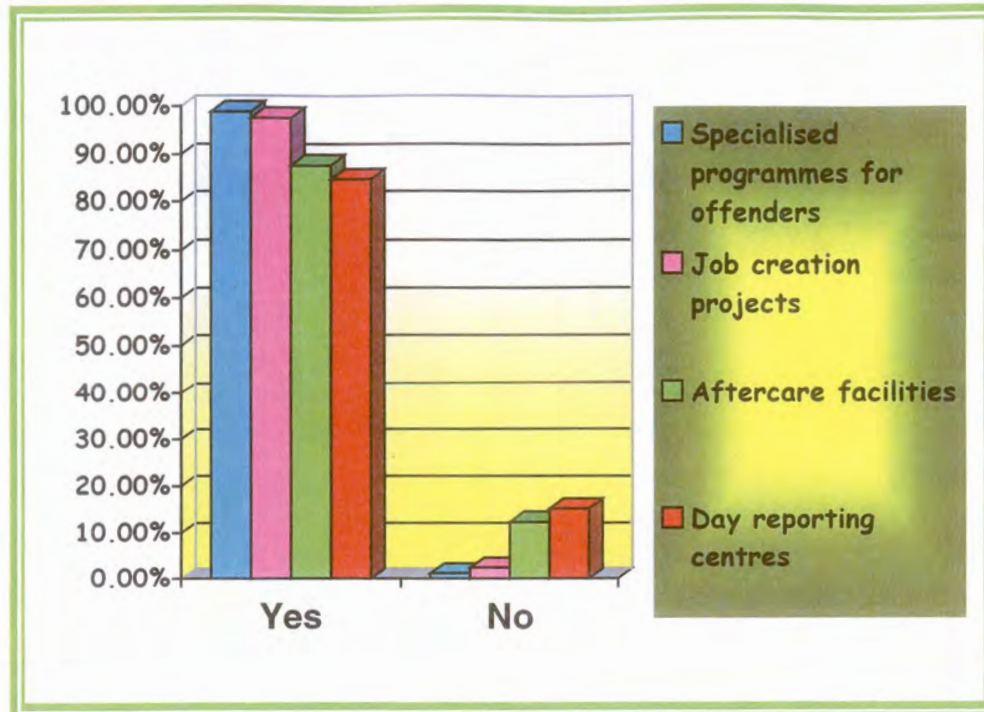


FIGURE 10: CATEGORIES FOR ONE-STOP SERVICES

From the findings it is clear that the respondents regarded one-stop services as very important.

The question as to whether the Department of Labour should issue contracts to CCRCs to train offenders for employment in either the informal or formal sector, elicited the following responses:

- Of the respondents, 91.25% agreed that it was necessary for the Department of Labour to issue contracts to CCRCs to train offenders in the informal sector, whilst 8.75% did not agree.

- Regarding the training of offenders in the formal sector, 85.24% respondents said that it was necessary, whilst 13.25% disagreed and 1.20% did not answer the question at all.

Derived from the above-mentioned findings, respondents clearly regarded training of the offender, in both the informal as well as the formal sector, as important.

Concerning the question of whether the State should encourage the private sector to employ offenders/ex-offenders by means of certain tax relief schemes, 80.95% of the respondents confirmed that it is necessary, whilst 19.05% disagreed.

The respondents were requested to indicate their preferences, indicated in Figure 11 regarding personnel at CCRCs.

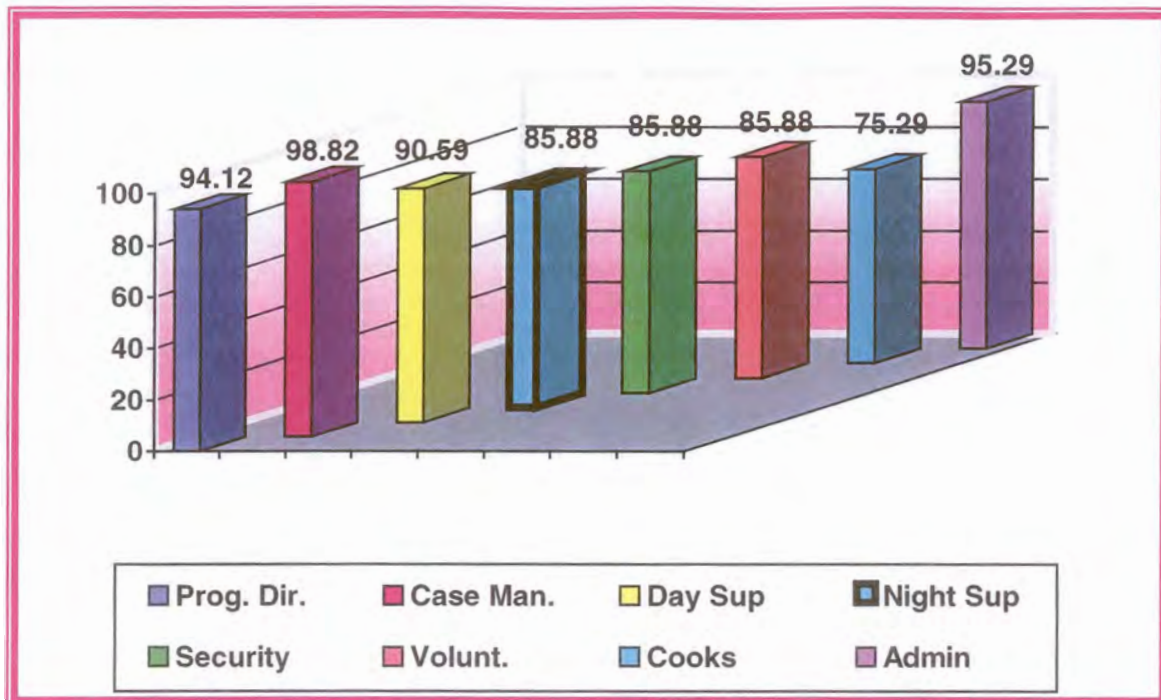


FIGURE 11: PERSONNEL AT CCRCs IN SOUTH AFRICA

The respondents chose case managers (social workers), with a very high response rate of 98.82 %, as being the most important member of a CCRC. This high response rate needs to be viewed within the context that the respondents were all social workers. Their practical experience and training as social workers would have guided them when answering this question.

Clear and Byrne (1992:323) argue that the professionals involved in the correctional field, have traditionally been

psychologists, social workers and counsellors since they are involved with offender problems. They regard the guards who watch over offenders, as the non-professionals.

The second and third highest response rate was for a programme director (94.12%), followed by day supervisors (90.59%) which the respondents regarded as very important staff members.

The respondents regarded night supervisors, volunteers and security personnel at a CCRC as being equally important (85,88%). Concerning volunteers, *Gauteng News* (2002:7) reported that President Thabo Mbeki's call to the masses to do volunteer work in order to enhance services in their own communities. Leenhouts (1993:29) mentions the importance of volunteers, particularly in the current economic situation. In line with this research, the respondents in this study strongly chose volunteers to deliver, free of charge, services to CCRCs in South Africa. The responses to night supervisors and security personnel at CCRCs, are also in line with international trends as well as with the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado that have both security as well as night supervisors on their staff.

The respondents also mentioned the following additional categories of personnel to those included in the questionnaire.

A few respondents indicated that psychologists are needed as personnel. Others included teachers, arts and culture, recreation, health and medical personnel as well as religious workers. Their responses confirm the importance of a multi-disciplinary team's involvement at CCRCs.

5.3.19 Suggestions regarding CCRCs in South Africa

The respondents were asked to give additional comments or suggestions regarding CCRCs in South Africa. Only 39% responded to this open-ended question. The responses were as follows:

- *"CCRCs can be of the utmost importance.*
- *CCRCs are important because they allow offenders to serve their sentences, while becoming accountable for their actions to the community. They also emphasise rehabilitation which aims to improve the offender's situations.*
- *It has a vital role to play in South Africa due to the high crime rate and prison overcrowding. It is a solution to the overcrowding of prisons.*
- *It should function strictly under the Department of Correctional Services and the Justice Department.*

- *Multi-disciplinary teams are necessary at CCRCs.*
- *Proper planning is important.*
- *It is a wonderful and workable idea.*
- *CCRCs is a good idea as it will prepare inmates to integrate with the community whilst under full time supervision.*
- *It will reduce overcrowding and improve rehabilitation.*
- *There exists a great need because many offenders have no support systems. Implementation should be a matter of importance.*
- *This is a great need and I hope it will come off the ground.*
- *I hope this survey will be accepted and put into practice because there is a great need for this.*
- *It is a very good and workable idea".*

5.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and interpreted the quantitative data of the study. The findings of the qualitative study, i.e. the non-scheduled, structured interviews conducted with programme directors of CCRCs in Denver, Colorado as well as the literature, were integrated with the quantitative findings.



Chapter six presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study, which will culminate in a South African model for CCRCs.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS, A CCRC MODEL FOR SOUTH AFRICA AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter five the quantitative data of the second phase of the study were presented and interpreted with the findings of the qualitative, first phase of the study. This chapter will present the conclusions of the study, which form the basis of the South African model for CCRCs that is developed and discussed. Finally, in this chapter, recommendations will be made on the outcomes of this study.

Firstly, the researcher will indicate how the objectives of this study were achieved and how the research questions provided a framework for the development of a model for CCRCs in South Africa.

6.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim and objectives of the study were as follows:

6.2.1 Aim

The aim of this study was to investigate community corrections residential centres (CCRCs) and, as an outcome, develop a South African model for CCRCs.

This aim was achieved, as will be reflected and discussed in this chapter, through the achievement of the objectives of the study.

6.2.2. Objectives

In the following discussion the respective objectives of the study will be given with a brief indication of how they have been achieved in this study.

Objective 1

To explore public and private (for profit/ non-profit) international models of CCRCs in view of the limited existence of such models in South Africa.

This objective was reached in various phases, namely:

The researcher explored the for-profit CCRC model during her visit to Denver, Colorado where personal interviews were conducted with the programme directors of four CCRCs and one independent DRC.

Documents were obtained from the Department of Correctional Services regarding a pre-release model, run by the Georgia Department of Corrections as a transitional centre. Additional information on CCRCs run by the public sector was obtained through the Internet as well as by means of a literature review.

Information regarding the non-profit model was obtained through an Internet search with the researcher establishing contact with Ms A. Handwerk (Coordinator of the Ohio Department of Rehabilitation and Correction). In addition, case studies on the non-profit model were also investigated on the Internet.

Objective 2

To identify new trends and developments in the field of community corrections internationally, as well as in South Africa.

Through observation and a literature review, the researcher identified the following new trends and developments in the field of community corrections:

At the BI Incorporated DRC modern technology, such as the Sobrietor and the SkyGuard 200, combined with the BI 9000 electronic monitoring system, where the offender's whereabouts is effectively monitored, were observed.

In New York, reporting kiosks similar to Auto Teller Machines (ATMs) are available for probationers, instead of them having to report to probation officers. Reporting at the kiosks takes less than four minutes (The Corrections Connection Technology Network, 2001:1).

The "*warning cards system*" is a new development in the community corrections field where offenders receive a card prior to release. The card warns them about the new increased time they will have to serve for both violent as well as non-violent offences (Community Corrections - Public Safety Initiatives, 2000:1).

In South Africa a pre-release centre opened in Devon, in Gauteng Province during March 2002, as a new development and paving the way for more alternative sentencing options in South Africa.

Objective 3

To gain a South African perspective on *CCRCs*, from social workers employed by *Community Corrections Offices*, with regards to *CCRCs*.

This objective was achieved through the quantitative study by means of questionnaires which were sent to all the social workers employed by the *Community Corrections Offices* in the nine provinces of South Africa. As was reflected in chapter five, the social workers' perspective provided a clear direction for *CCRCs* in South Africa.

Objective 4

To explore programmes utilised by international *CCRCs* in relation to programmes in South Africa in order to make recommendations regarding possible programmes for *CCRCs* in South Africa.

This objective was achieved in chapter four of this study which described programmes at *CCRCs* in Denver, Colorado as well as other international programmes. In chapter five, respondents of the quantitative study gave specific direction regarding programmes relevant for *CCRCs* in South Africa.

Objective 5

To develop a South African model for CCRCs as an outcome of this study. This objective is realised in this chapter and hence, is also achieved.

In summary, the aim and objectives of this research were all achieved. In order to develop a model for CCRCs in South Africa, specific questions guided the research process during the conceptual phase of the study.

6.2.3 Research questions

The research questions for the study were as follows:

Are there sufficient alternative sentencing options in the community corrections system to address the overcrowding of prisons in South Africa?

Are more measures needed in the community corrections system in order to ensure that punishment fits individual offenders?

Can less serious offenders be treated successfully in the community?

How safe is the community corrections option for the community if more offenders serve their sentences in the community?

Is there a need for CCRCs in South Africa? What type of models should be implemented in South Africa if there is a need for CCRCs?

Who should manage community corrections sentencing options in South Africa?

The findings and the following conclusions from the study reflect that the study was guided by these research questions.

6.3. CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In the following discussion the major findings of the study will be synthesised and highlighted as a guiding framework for the conclusions of the study.

6.3.1 Alternative sentencing options

Based on the findings that prisons are overcrowded and that the less serious offender can be successfully sentenced and reintegrated into the community, it can be concluded that the existing sentencing options should be developed and extended in South Africa. This should cover a broad range of alternative

sentencing options to fit individual offenders and crimes. Fallin (1989:68) mentions that a *"broad array of alternatives must be available to sentencing judges that go beyond the traditional one-way in/out decision of probation or prison"*. Therefore CCRCs can serve as an alternative sentencing option in South Africa.

6.3.2 Facilities and models for community corrections

The research findings indicated that pre-release, parole violation, mixed transitional and diversion, probation and awaiting-trial facilities are applicable models for community corrections.

It can be concluded that, if the needs of various types of offenders are to be served, CCRCs must be carefully planned according to a specific model.

6.3.3 Partnerships for CCRCs

The research findings have shown that, to be successful, CCRCs should be designed, developed and managed by a partnership between the public and the private sector.

It can be concluded that although the public sector should take primary responsibility for the management of crime, services should be contracted to the private non-profit sector

(NGOs). In their study, Knapp *et al.* (1992:16) found that the private, non-profit agencies form the largest component of CCRCs throughout the U.S.A.

The management of CCRCs in South Africa should therefore take place in partnership between the Department of Correctional Services and the private non-profit sector (NGOs).

6.3.4 Funding

The findings indicated that the funding of CCRCs is first and foremost the responsibility of government and then the offender should become co-responsible when s/he is employed and in a position to pay for services.

From the above finding it can be concluded that at least the public sector and the individual offender should be financially responsible and accountable in order to ensure the sustainability of a CCRC project. Funding is therefore an important component in the planning and implementing stages of CCRCs to ensure sustainability. Austin *et al.* (1992:28) regard funding and its stability as a critical aspect in the successful functioning of CCRCs and DRCs. They argue that the more projects receive their income from various sources such as public grants, private and corporate grants and

donations from individuals as well as organisations, the more sustainable they become.

6.3.5 CCRC programmes

Findings have indicated that both supportive and interventive programmes are important to run CCRCs effectively. For this purpose CCRCs should plan to include space for programmes on their own premises and at the same time network with skilled agencies in the community to provide specialised programmes. Based on this finding it can be concluded that intervention programmes should range from supportive to interventive programmes and should actively involve the community. (Compare Allen *et al.*, 1978:5.)

6.3.6 Community support

Findings indicated that community support is very important for CCRCs. According to Rachin (1976:574), the community's acceptance as well as its involvement, are of primary importance, in order for CCRCs to be effective and sustainable.

From this finding it can be concluded that the community should be involved and their support gained throughout the process of establishing CCRCs.

Rubin and Rubin (1992:362) affirm the need for a "*firm community base*". They are of the opinion that developmental organisations stand or fall due to the strength of community support: "*Building community integration is an important prelude to successful developmental efforts, and successful developmental and community-based social service efforts build community*".

6.3.7 Selection criteria

The findings indicated that offenders should be admitted to CCRCs based on specific selection criteria. This leads to the conclusion that careful selection of offenders, by means of a type of sifting system (selection criteria), is necessary in order to safeguard the community from harm. In this regard Graycar (2000:14) claims that both the offender and the community can be regarded as the client.

6.3.8 CCRCs as one-stop services

Findings also indicated that one-stop services should include specialised programmes, job creation programmes and after-care facilities and day reporting services. The conclusion for this finding is that services should be provided holistically and that CCRCs should thus function as one-stop services in the

community. Latessa and Travis III (1992:177) refer to one-stop services as "*multiservice agencies*".

6.3.9 Contracts for job training

With regard to employment, research findings indicated that the Department of Labour should issue contracts to CCRCs to train offenders in both the informal and formal sectors.

It can therefore be concluded that the training of offenders for the job market should be seen as a primary programme activity at CCRCs.

6.3.10 Tax relief schemes for employers

Employers should receive tax relief from the State if they employ offenders and ex-offenders.

From this finding the conclusion is reached that government should play an active role in securing jobs for offenders and ex-offenders and that tax relief could serve as an incentive towards this goal.

Research done by McShane and Krause (1993:238) indicated that employment is one of the most dependable predictors of success when a person is on parole.

6.3.11 CCRC personnel

CCRCs require a specific component of personnel, i.e. social workers, programme directors, day supervisors, night supervisors, volunteers and security personnel.

From the above finding it can be concluded that CCRCs do need various types of personnel, including social workers who can work in a team context, according to their specific field of expertise. McShane and Krause (1993:396) state that with a team approach a more balanced case planning and management service can be provided at CCRCs.

In summary, derived from the research findings of this study, conclusions emerged which give clear direction for a model for CCRCs in South Africa.

6.4. A MODEL FOR COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Following the cues from the findings and conclusions of the study, a model for CCRCs in South Africa, will be contextualised within the following framework:

- Models for community corrections.

- Partnerships for community corrections including managing agencies; community support; accountability; funding and personnel.
- Programmes for CCRCs with specific focus on selection criteria for offenders.
- Funding and tax relief schemes for employers.

6.4.1 Model for community corrections

A South African model of CCRCs should be a combined, integrated model, derived from two models of community corrections, namely reintegration and diversion. The researcher regards community corrections as an empowering, capacity building approach within a social development theoretical framework, founded on a community development strategy as discussed in chapter two of this study. Community corrections are both multi-sectoral as well as multi-disciplinary, and "*address basic material, physical and psycho-social needs*" (The White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997:20).

Community-based correctional programmes should be targeted at the development of human, social and economic capital (Midgley, 1995:195). The proposed model for CCRCs in South Africa is visually presented in Figure 12:

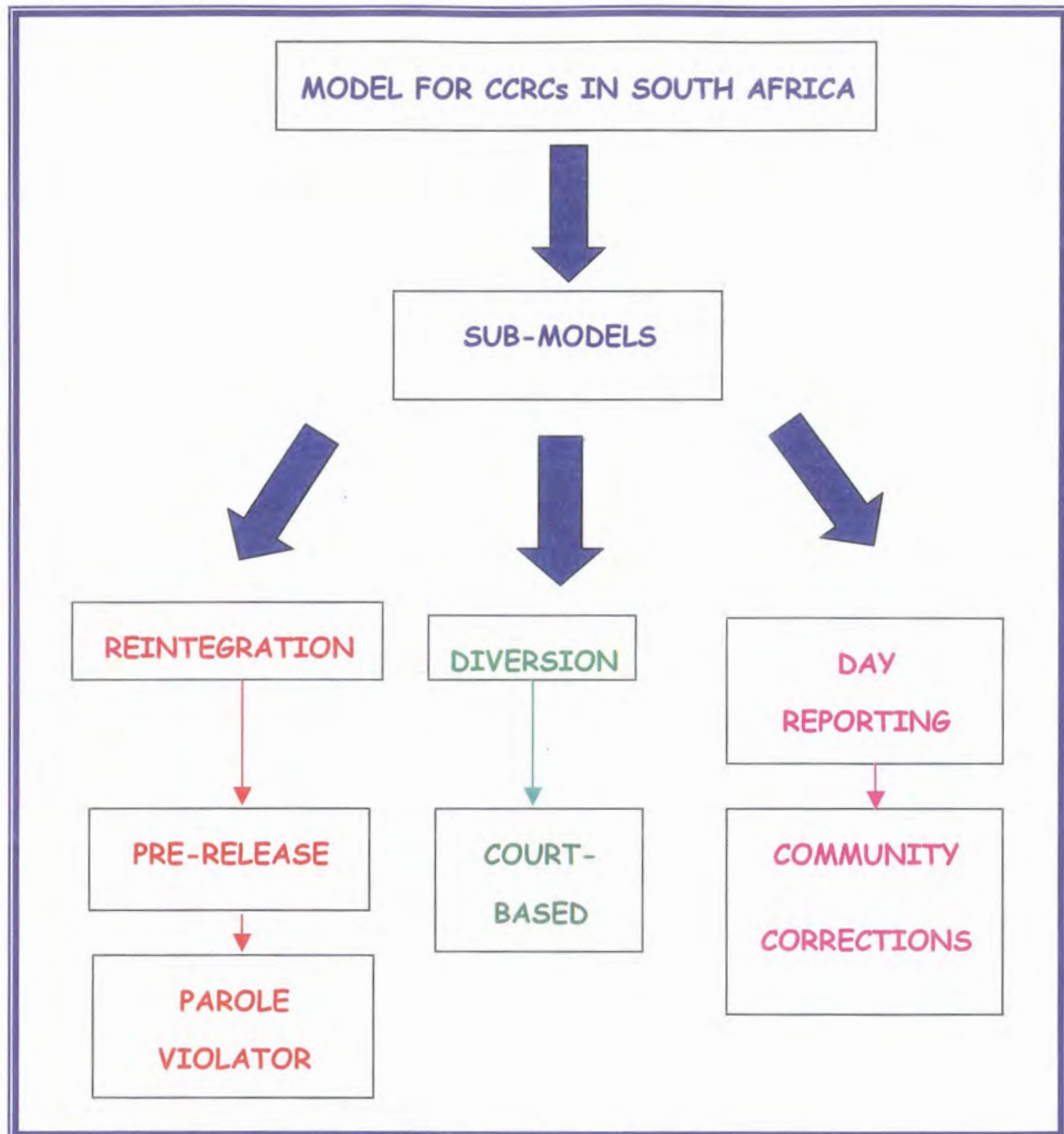


FIGURE 12: MODEL FOR CCRCs IN SOUTH AFRICA

The proposed model for CCRCs in South Africa (Figure 12) is a **combined, integrated** model, consisting of sub-models of the reintegration and diversion models of community corrections, and DRCs. This model deviates from the three alternative

models grouped under the reintegration model of community corrections, as discussed by Latessa and Allen (1982:156). It also deviates from the diversion model of community corrections set forth by Allen and Simonsen (1995:658).

The reintegration model discussed by Latessa and Allen (1982:156) consists of three alternative models, namely the standard model (1), the pre-release model (2) and the parole violator model (3). However, the researcher proposes that, in South Africa, only the pre-release and the parole violator models be utilised, where the offenders can take part in specialised programmes at the CCRCs. Regarding the standard model, the offender is already placed on parole in the community and in chapter one it was stated that the CCRC concept does not focus solely on finding a home for the offender. If the same parolee violates parole conditions, it would be necessary to place him/her in a CCRC with specialised programmes, instead of sending him/her back to prison. The researcher observed that CCRCs in Denver, Colorado as well as case studies on the Internet regarding CCRCs, focussed more on the pre-release and parole violator's alternative models in the reintegration and diversion models of community corrections.

The researcher has also deviated from Allen and Simonsen's sub-models of the diversion model, namely those that are community-based, police-based and court-based. Of these three the researcher proposes that only the court-based diversion be included in the South African model, because it is the more formal sub-model of the three and allows better control and monitoring of offenders.

The impact and effectiveness of this proposed combined integrated model for CCRCs in South Africa will lie in the challenge to manage the centres through partnerships in the community between the public and private sectors.

6.4.2 Partnerships for community corrections

Proposed partnerships for CCRCs in South Africa between the public and private sectors are outlined in Figure 13:

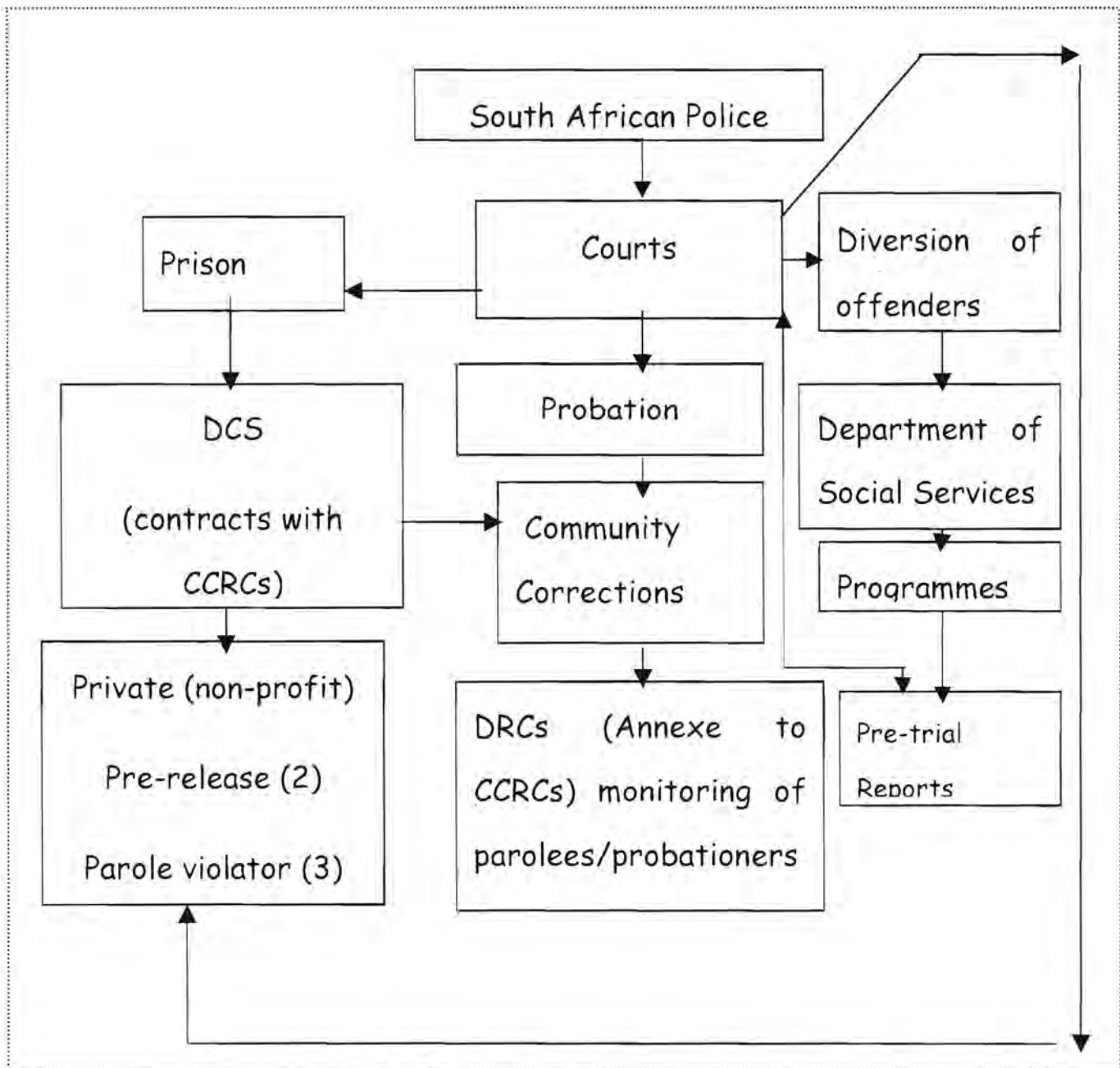


FIGURE 13: PARTNERSHIPS

The above partnerships in Figure 13 can be described as follows:

The South African Police Service is the primary Department involved when charges are laid against an alleged offender.

The case is referred to the court if they decide not to drop

the charges against the alleged offender, which is known as police-diversion.

If the case is referred to the court, the magistrate decides what should happen after hearing the case. If the alleged offender is found guilty, various options may be decided upon such as the following:

- The person may, for example be a petty or first offender, or a drunk driver (known as driving under influence (DUI) in the U.S.A) and be diverted to the Department of Social Services, or another primary organisation with the capacity to work with adult diversion cases. Or the person may be sentenced directly to a CCRC in the community as a condition of his/her diversion.

The responsible Department then serves the offender through applicable programmes according to the conditions of the diversion process. Normally a pre-trial report is written to inform the court whether the offender participated successfully in the diversion programmes. If the offender succeeded, the charges are dropped against him/her.

In order for a magistrate to sentence an offender directly to a CCRC in South Africa, a section in the Criminal Procedure Act needs to be amended to permit this. Some diversion offenders

would then be referred to a CCRC whilst others would take part in programmes provided by primary diversion organisations without staying at a CCRC. This decision would be made at the discretion of the magistrate. This practice is utilised internationally.

Austin *et al.* (1992:17) surveyed 100 female programmes and stated that the courts sentence offenders directly to 44 of the 100 programmes. Most were sentenced to programmes instead of prison. Others, first went to jail or prison and thereafter took part in the programmes. These programmes were either CCRCs or DRCs.

- The courts may also decide to put an offender on probation. Monitoring of the probationer in the community, then takes place through probation officers at the Community Corrections Offices.

- The court may also decide to send an offender to prison because of the seriousness of the crime committed. However, the sentenced offender is released on parole after serving a certain time in prison.

- The ideal is that the sentenced offender should be pre-released before his/her due parole date to the community-based CCRC that has contractual agreements with the

Department of Correctional Services for serving the offender through specialised programmes in a residential setting.

- In this model, the CCRCs are the private non-profit NGOs in the community that serve pre-release, parole violator and diversion offenders.

- The researcher proposes that DRCs function next to CCRCs in the community and that the Community Corrections Department should be in charge of the monitoring of offenders in the community.

In summary, the South African Police Service, the courts, the Departments of Correctional Services, Social Services and the private non-profit sector are all part of a team helping to manage crime in society.

Within the context of the proposed model for CCRCs in South Africa, the partnership should clearly specify the managing agencies.

6.4.2.1 Managing agencies

Managing agencies should be the Department of Correctional Services and the private non-profit sector (NGOs). As partners, these agencies should have **contractual agreements** with each other. The Department of Correctional Services

should refer cases to the CCRCs in the community for which the latter is paid by a corporate grant issued to them after a tendering process. A copy of such a contractual agreement was submitted to Dr. A.L. Hlongwane (Director of Community Corrections) in Pretoria.

These CCRCs should be paid by the Department to provide pre-release and parole violator services that include residential services. The researcher advises that the pre-release model should be run by the non-profit sector as she agrees with the observation of Latessa and Travis III (1992:170), namely that when these programmes are managed by Corrections Departments, they tend to be more of a *"minimum security prison than a rehabilitative community"*.

Concerning DRC services, it should be noted that internationally DRCs are contracted to the private sector in the community, whereas the findings of this study indicate that a lower response rate was chosen for the contracting of DRCs and EM to the private sector. The researcher is of the opinion that these two services should remain the responsibility of the Community Corrections Offices in South Africa, as they are skilled in the management and monitoring of offenders, as well as in EM. DRCs should, however, function as partners and as annexes next to CCRCs in the community,

wherever possible. Partnership and collaboration between various Departments and agencies are therefore of great importance in the fight against crime in the community. Services should be orchestrated rather than fragmented.

Other Departments that should be included in a public-private partnership to fight crime include Labour, Social Services, Law, the Police and Housing, as well as local authorities and municipalities. These public-private partnerships should develop into full partnerships between the two sectors, with each partner accepting responsibility and accountability for what is delegated to them.

Lindsay (1990:4) states that successful partnerships must have clearly defined roles for all role-players and to achieve this, negotiation plays an important part. This was apparently not the case when NICRO opened *"halfway houses"* in the early 1970s in South Africa, where the partnership existed only on paper and a full partnership was never realised between the then Department of Correctional Services and NICRO. The researcher is convinced that this partnership must be a committed partnership where all the role-players and stakeholders take full responsibility and accountability for the management of crime in South Africa.

Within this partnership, **community support** can play a strong role in the development of CCRCs in the community.

6.4.2.2 Community support

Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street, advised that it is to the CCRC's advantage to have community support, such as a community advisory board. According to him, the community can be presented by board members and good choices would be politicians, persons from the Police Department, people from the District Attorney's and Public Defender's Office. (Compare Lindsay, 1990:6.)

The researcher agrees in principle with Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street regarding advisory boards. However, the "role-players" should represent their constituency, i.e. the community. They should be experts in their various fields in order to facilitate the advisory role of the board to the advantage of community corrections. Such an advisory board should be part of the CCRC project's planning phase and should then continue to work within the CCRC team.

Lindsay (1990:6) states that *"the best tool for public education is public involvement, and the best educators are the members of the public who are directly involved"* (Lindsay, 1990:6).

To facilitate community support, advisory boards should be formed within community corrections in order to fulfil an advisory role to CCRCs in South Africa.

In a successful partnership, the **accountability** of all stakeholders is a critical component.

6.4.2.3 Accountability

In a partnership between the Department of Correctional Services and the private non-profit sector, the Department should be the overseer of all CCRCs and should contract with them for services delivered to offenders. In turn, CCRCs should be accountable to the said Department, not only in terms of general operations, but also by submitting annual financial statements. The Department of Correctional Services, on the other hand, should be accountable to CCRCs by ensuring prompt payments. This is essential to ensure that the CCRC functions effectively and does not run into cash flow problems, which has been the case in many instances. (Compare Lindsay, 1990:6.) Funding is therefore a critical issue in the management of CCRCs in the community, as confirmed by Allen *et al.* (1978:10).

6.4.2.4 Funding

Austin *et al.* (1992:28) warn about non-profit CCRCs relying too heavily on only a few sources of income as this can lead to a crisis and the possible termination of programmes. A diversified funding base is therefore of critical importance. Non-profit CCRCs should target resources outside corrections according to the Report on Consultations (www.sgc.gc.ca). If need be, the targeting of international resources may be a partial answer to the problem of funding according to the view of the researcher. According to a letter received from Mr Mdluli as the National President of SAPOHR (22 April 2002), this organisation already targets international resources for the funding for CCRCs in South Africa.

Funding poses a big challenge for CCRCs in South Africa. However, to keep offenders inside prison is an even greater challenge in terms of the cost aspect. Bester (Beeld of 21 November, 2002) reported that 98 prisons in South Africa are at least 175% full, costing South African tax payers R18 million per day.

In community-based CCRCs offenders may find jobs to meet their own needs and also pay for services received at the CCRC,

which make them responsible, accountable and teaches them to be proud productive members of society.

Latessa and Allen (1997:299) indicate that, in terms of funding, contracting is valuable in service provision as well as enabling CCRCs to rent their bed space to probation and parole agencies. In the end, it is more cost-effective to rent rather than to build and operate CCRCs (Latessa & Allen, 1997:299).

A critical financial aspect that relates indirectly to funding is that of the medical expenses of offenders at CCRCs. The CCRCs visited in Denver, Colorado do not provide medical services for their residents. Sullivan (2000) of Independence House, South Federal, informed the researcher that, upon arrival at the CCRC, clients sign a document stating that they are responsible for their own medical expenses at Independence House, South Federal. She stated that when residents fall ill, they are sent to a government hospital where payment is based on sliding scales according to their salaries.

In principle, the researcher agrees with this procedure. However, in South Africa payment for medical services poses a huge problem due to the prevalence of poverty. In South Africa government hospitals and local clinics in the neighbourhood of the CCRC, should enter into agreements

regarding the medical treatment of offenders, wherein partnerships are emphasised. Funding impacts on most of the activities of the CCRC including that of **personnel**.

6.4.2.5 Personnel

It is clear that the respondents of the quantitative study, who were social workers from Community Corrections, regarded social workers as the most important staff members for CCRCs in South Africa. In line with the research findings, the researcher proposes that these social workers should function as "*case managers*" as opposed to "*case workers*" at CCRCs in South Africa. Their intervention strategies should be to fulfil the roles of resource brokers in the community on behalf of their clients. Hence, advocacy should be a major role for the social workers to fulfil. For this purpose, they must have an intimate knowledge of the resources in the community in order to provide the best resources to the offender. (Compare Latessa & Allen, 1997:292.)

Multi-disciplinary teams are implied in the findings regarding various personnel at CCRCs in South Africa. Austin *et al.* (1992:24) mention that Summit House uses the treatment-team approach of intervention when dealing with case management.

It was also clear from the research findings that different CCRCs with different aims and objectives would accommodate different types of personnel. The smaller the CCRC, the less personnel is needed. If the CCRC serves drug abusers, medical personnel are necessary. If the CCRC serves female offenders with babies and children below six years of age, educational personnel are important. However, because of the fact that there should be 24-hours per day monitoring at CCRCs, it is important to have the necessary staff to fulfil this function, including day and night supervisors. This requirement is important as it is to the benefit of the community and its safety. According to the CCRC programme directors in Denver, Colorado, security staff is essential. Their tasks, amongst others, are to contact offenders' employers to see if they are at work and to search through the personal belongings of the offender, which includes body and room searches.

Pre-release facilities in South Africa should have more security staff and more surveillance cameras as well, because of the fact that these offenders still have the status of sentenced offenders. However, if Community Corrections Offices function as annexes next to CCRCs as day reporting centres, less security personnel would be required at the CCRC.

The researcher proposes that CCRCs in South Africa should make use of the services of volunteers, in addition to the services of professional personnel. Leenhouts (1993:29) regards volunteers as being important, especially in current times of economic crisis. The researcher suggests that professionals, after completion of their studies in the correctional and complementary fields, should work in CCRCs and DRCs in the community. Leenhouts (1993:35) supports the idea that professional volunteers work for a "*small unit of work each year*".

In addition to volunteers, paid personnel at CCRCs in South Africa, should include social workers as case managers, day and night supervisors, as well as security personnel. However, each CCRC should be guided by its stated aim and objectives in this regard.

Personnel at CCRCs should receive special training that is different to that of correctional personnel. This is important in view of the different setting of a CCRC as opposed to that of a prison.

CCRC personnel should be carefully selected. Everett (2000) of Independence House, Fillmore Street is of the opinion that not all those who are interested in working in corrections

should in fact be involved. He is of the opinion that some people become involved in corrections because they are trying to fulfil their own needs for power and control over other individuals and he concluded that these are the very individuals that should not be in corrections.

The qualities and training of personnel will impact directly on the success of programmes for offenders.

6.4.2.6 Programmes for CCRCs

Programmes are important tools to help the offender to reintegrate successfully into the community. Therefore, all CCRCs in South Africa should cater for various programmes in terms of the needs of the offenders they serve.

The researcher regards the research finding on programmes as relevant for CCRCs in South Africa. Certain programmes were selected as being of more importance than others, namely orientation (82.35%), life skills (81.17%), accountability (80%), employment training (85.88%) and HIV/AIDS awareness programmes (82.35%). In South Africa some programmes should be general to all CCRCs such as the following:

-Employment training and job creation is of great importance within a South African context. McShane and Krause

(1993:238) state that employment programmes are of the utmost importance because of the fact that newly released offenders from prison have a great need of employment. Not only do they need jobs, but they also need help in initial job-seeking skills as well as in skills training.

Job creation projects should, therefore, in collaboration with the Department of Labour, be a part of CCRC programmes in South Africa. Job creation projects can provide the necessary training, particularly for those offenders who will not qualify for the open labour market. This training should be appropriate to the current job market and the courses should be accredited. (Compare the New Dictionary of Social Work, 1995:1.) By having a job offenders can be held accountable for their own lives and needs. The researcher is of the opinion that tax breaks should be provided to private companies who employ offenders, which is in line with international trends.

-HIV/AIDS awareness programmes are relevant to all offenders in South Africa because of the AIDS pandemic. Beeld (22 November, 2002) reported that prison gangs punish co-prisoners by raping them and by so doing, infect them with the HIV/AIDS virus. This ritual is known in prison as a "*slow puncture*". This article further reported that deaths due to

natural causes increased in prisons by 528% since 1995 when 184 cases were reported as opposed to 1169 cases in 2001.

Carst (2000) comments that Tooley Hall requires the offenders at the CCRC to take part in HIV/AIDS awareness programmes, because this CCRC caters for drug abusers. The researcher proposes that HIV/AIDS awareness programmes should form part of each CCRC in South Africa because of its relevancy to all sectors of life.

-Life skills programmes are also of great importance for CCRCs in South Africa because of the vast numbers of illiterate offenders. Respondents (social workers) were convinced that orientation programmes for offenders at CCRCs are especially relevant in the beginning phase of residing at a CCRC. It is at this stage that Carst (2000) of Tooley Hall, reported that contacts with the outside world are limited. This CCRC provides many activities at the centre and for the first few months offenders do not go home on special passes.

Programmes at CCRCs in South Africa should be selected to fit the needs of offenders. Sullivan (2000) of Independence House, South Federal, is of the opinion that individual assessment is necessary to determine which programme fits which offender. (Compare Everett, (2000) of Independence

House, Fillmore Street.) Clear and Dammer (2000:361-365) agree that programmes for offenders with specific problems need to be handled differently, i.e. drug abusing, sex, mentally ill, low-intelligence and lifestyle offenders.

The researcher proposes that programmes for CCRCs in South Africa should range on a continuum of supportive to intervention programmes and should make provision for holistic one-stop services, that include the skills and expertise of agencies in the neighbouring community.

When CCRCs in South Africa plan their programmes, they should also plan for programme space in accordance with the warnings of the CCRCs in Denver, Colorado in this regard.

Although the researcher proposes that programmes should be provided at CCRCs as holistic one-stop agencies, there should be a balance with regard to networking with the surrounding community to find and utilise external programme expertise. Specialised programmes in the community are resources which should be utilised according to the researcher to avoid "*re-inventing the wheel*".

Programmes, as already indicated, should match the needs of offenders. Selection criteria are therefore relevant to programmes, since CCRCs should be clear on the criteria they

use to take in offenders. The mission and objectives of CCRCs should guide them in determining the selection criteria.

6.4.2.7 Selection criteria

In line with the findings of this research and international practice, CCRCs in South Africa should admit offenders on the basis of selection criteria. Selection criteria are of utmost importance to safeguard the safety of the community. Through selection criteria, the CCRC aims, on the one hand, to accommodate the offender, and on the other hand, to look after the community's safety.

The premise for this strategy is that CCRCs and therefore, the social worker should regard both the offender and the community as clients. (Compare Graycar, 2000:14.)

In South Africa CCRCs will have to decide which selection criteria are appropriate for their centres, taking into consideration their mission and stipulated contracts. The mission of the CCRC should, at all times, include the safety of the community, which the researcher regards as important. Selection criteria imply that certain offenders will not be selected at CCRCs, which is in line with international trends, as reflected in literature and observed in Denver, Colorado. Strict measures to ensure the careful selection of offenders

for CCRCs are very important because if the community experiences problems with offenders residing at the CCRC, it could result in losing the support of the surrounding community and consequently closure of the facility.

The researcher regards the age of the offender and the geographical area s/he resides in, as important selection criteria. In South Africa, the younger offender finds it difficult to get a job. At the same time, it is almost impossible for an older offender to find a job in South Africa, particularly against the background of the unstable economic climate. Accordingly, the older offender has no hope for job placement and would therefore be unable to pay for services received at the CCRC. For these older offenders, the Department of Correctional Services in partnership with other Departments must find a way to solve the problems of the older and unemployed offender. In a personal interview with Mr Coetzee, (Assistant Head, Community Corrections, Pretoria) (2001), the researcher was informed that the Department of Correctional Services does allow older offenders with no support systems to stay at missions in the community. This may be a partial of a solution to the older offender's problems.

With regards to the geographical area, the offender should work in the area closest to the community in which s/he

normally lives. The researcher is of the opinion that this principle is not only relevant for community corrections but also for prisoners. It should be standard practice to place offenders where they are closest to their home and employment. This practice would help to facilitate visits by the family which would not only promote the family life of offenders, but would also facilitate reintegration into society.

After having observed the problems Carst (2000) of Independence House South Federal had with mentally ill offenders at the CCRC, the researcher proposes that offenders who are mentally ill should not be selected for placement at CCRCs where they do not have the expertise to deal with psychiatric problems. Mentally ill offenders are special needs clients who must be served by agencies with specialised knowledge and skills. In this regard the researcher proposes that more CCRCs should be provided for by the Department of Health to serve these offenders. A limited range of *"halfway houses"* exists currently at psychiatric hospitals in the country and they do not have the capacity to serve all mentally ill offenders.

Whether CCRCs should serve genders separately or together, should be clearly directed by the mission and objectives. Although the findings of this study showed that both males

and females should be catered for at the same CCRC, the researcher proposes that males and females should not be mixed at CCRCs in South Africa. This premise is related to the associated rise in management problems, more problems of a sexual nature and the fact that it is more costly since it is expensive to monitor the rooms if males and females are served at the same centre. South Africa should, in this regard, take the experience of the programme directors at CCRCs in Denver, Colorado into consideration.

In summary, the researcher proposes that the CCRC and the offender sign a contractual agreement regarding their respective responsibilities and accountabilities as partners. The offender must know from the start that for certain actions there will be "*zero tolerance*" as suggested by Everett of Independence House, Fillmore Street and Maglia of BI Incorporated DRC. (2000). The researcher strongly agrees that offenders in South African CCRCs should be held accountable for their actions and should bear the consequences of any misbehaviour. The community must see and experience that CCRCs are not "*soft options*".

In order for this proposed model for CCRCs to be implemented effectively in South Africa, critical challenges lie ahead and must be addressed. These include, amongst others, political

commitment; the bureaucracy of State departments; the amendment of a section of the Criminal Procedure Act; and contracts with the private non-profit sector. Based on these challenges, specific recommendations can be made as an outcome of the research findings and conclusions of this study.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The primary recommendation of this study, is that the proposed model for CCRCs in South Africa should be adopted by policy makers and politicians and be implemented. Implementation should be carefully planned and the various components of the proposed model could gradually phase in until the complete model is implemented in an integrated manner.

The successful implementation of this recommendation relies on the implementation of the following recommendations:

- The marketing of the CCRC concept and the proposed model for CCRCs in South Africa by the Department of Community Corrections at ministerial and political levels in order to obtain political commitment and support for this model. This implies the dissemination of the research findings to the Minister and all other relevant stakeholders.

- The alteration of a section of the Criminal Procedure Act in order to enable magistrates to sentence an offender directly to a CCRC.
- The establishment of partnerships between the public sector (engaging all relevant departments) and the private sector to plan, establish and sustain CCRCs in South Africa as a sentencing option. These partnerships should include a community awareness campaign informing the community about what community corrections entail, the commitment to community safety, and how the community can become involved and support CCRCs as partners in fighting crime in South Africa.
- A start should be made with a few pilot projects in the various provinces, including CCRCs for drug abusers, mothers with infants and babies, pre-release centres which make provision for work release of offenders and sex offenders and lastly diversion CCRCs.
- Government should investigate substantial tax relief for employers who employ offenders and ex-offenders.
- Finally, it is recommended that the establishment of CCRCs in South Africa should be founded in action and evaluation research from the planning phase, through the



implementation and monitoring phases to the evaluation phases.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER FROM DR. A.L. HLONGWANE, (DIRECTOR
COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS),

DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES.



DEPARTEMENT VAN KORREKTIEWE DIENSTE

DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

**FAKSTRANSMISSIE
FAX TRANSMISSION**

AAN:		VAN:	
TO:	MS VAN DER WESTHUYSEN	FROM:	CORRECTIO
U VERW:		MY VERW:	
YOUR REF:		MY REF:	
	DATUM:		DATUM:
	DATE:		DATE: 1999/02/03
VIR AANDAË:		NAVRAE:	
FOR ATTENTION:		ENQUERIES:	MR MR NTULI
AFDELING:		AFDELING:	
DIVISION:		DIVISION:	COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT
	AANTAL BLADSYE:		TEL: (012) 307 2441
	NUMBER OF PAGES:		FAX/FAX: (012) 328 4155

INSAKE/RE: CONFIRMATION OF IMPLEMENTING HALFWAY HOUSES IN SOUTH AFRICA: DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

This serves to confirm that the Department of Correctional Services is forging ahead with the implementation of halfway houses in South Africa.

Kindly also be informed that four functionaries of the Department of Correctional Services will undertake a study tour to Georgia in the United States of America to observe the functioning and operation of the private/state halfway houses in order to obtain a model for the implementation of halfway houses in South Africa, as a matter of high priority.

We trust that this information will meet our immediate requirements in this matter. Please feel free to contact us should you have any queries.

for *A.L. Hlongwane 99/02/03*
COMMISSIONER: CORRECTIONAL SERVICES
DIR COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS
A.L. HLONGWANE

PRIVAATSAK X136
PRETORIA
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TEL No: (012) 307 2000

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APPENDIX B

NON-SCHEDULED, STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (DENVER, COLORADO) - QUALITATIVE PHASE

- Name of centre
- Name of person interviewed
- Date of interview
- Type of centre (transitional/diversion/other)
- What are the goals and objectives of the centre?
- Is your centre driven by private initiative or by the state?
- If privately driven, do you have any working agreements or contracts with the Department of Correctional Services?
- Do you make use of other referral agencies?
- If yes, who are they?
- Do you experience any problems with the funding of your centre?
- If yes, what sort of problems?
- Do residents have to pay rent?
- If so, what is the amount they pay for services rendered?

- What type of clients do you serve?
- Do you take in violent offenders?
- Do you have any selection criteria?
- If so, name a few.
- Is there any law in your country that prohibits certain offenders from using the centre?
- What is the maximum number of residents you cater for at the centre?
- How many residents do you have currently?
- Do you experience any problems with empty beds?
- Do you cater for both male and female offenders?
- If not, why not?
- What is the average age of your residents?
- What is the racial and ethnic composition of your client population?
- What is the average length of stay at the centre?

- What type of treatment services is available to offenders to help them to reintegrate into the community successfully?
- Is your facility suitable for programme activities?
- Do you network with the community regarding existing programmes?
- How do you measure the success of your programmes?
- What is the percentage of clients that successfully complete your programmes?
- What is the percentage of clients that are returned to higher custody due to programme violations?
- How do clients experience their stay at the centre?
- What specific problems do you experience at the centre?
- What sort of solutions do you have for these problems?
- How did you win community support for your centre in the beginning phase of the project?
- Does the geographical community still support your project?
- If yes, in what way?



- What do you think is the future of residential facilities in the correctional field?
- What do you think about day reporting centres in the correctional field?
- Could you supply me with any written documents?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME

Day Reporting Centre questions

WHAT ARE THE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF YOUR CENTRE?

How does the centre function?

- Do you see the centre as a community corrections alternative to incarceration?
- Is your centre driven by private initiative or by the state?
- If it is privately driven, do you have any working agreements with the Department of Correctional Services?
- Where do you find funds for the centre?
- Do clients pay for services rendered?
- If so, what is the average amount per week/month/programme?

TYPE OF CLIENTS YOU SERVE?

- What type of offender population do you serve? (Parolees, pre-trial detainees? Others?)
- Do you serve both men and women at the centre?
- What is the racial and ethnic composition of your client population?
- Is there any law in your country that prohibits certain offenders from participating at day reporting centres e.g. violent offenders?
- For what types of offenses have your clients mostly been incarcerated?
- How does the centre relate to other types of intermediate sentences such as IPS (intensive probation supervision) and E.M. (electronic monitoring)?
- What is the average number of clients that report to your centre daily, weekly or monthly?
- What are the problems you experience with offenders?
- Do your clients take part in community service as part of your overall treatment programme?

PROGRAMMES

- What type of programmes do you use?
- How long is the average length of these programmes?



- Do you network with the community regarding existing programmes?
- Are contacts with individual offenders more intensive at the beginning phase of the programme?
- How successful are your programmes?
- How do you evaluate success?
- What is your most effective behavioural control programme element?
- What is the percentage of clients that are returned to higher custody due to programme violations?
- What do you see as the difference between day reporting centres and residential facilities?
- What would you do if you have a high percentage of homeless long-term offenders?
- Do you take urine and blood samples at your centre?



APPENDIX C

AGREEMENT WITH THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES REGARDING RESEARCH DONE BY THE RESEARCHER



AGREEMENT REGARDING CONDITIONS APPLICABLE TO RESEARCH DONE IN
INSTITUTIONS WHICH ARE UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE COMMISSIONER
OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES.



1. I Anna Elizabeth Maria van Westhuizen (Full name) wish to conduct research titled Westhuizen

in/at institutions which fall under the authority of the SA Commissioner of Correctional Services. I undertake to use the information which I acquire in a balanced and responsible manner, taking in account the perspectives and practical realities of the Department of Correctional Services (hereafter referred to as "the Department") in my report/treatise. I furthermore take note of and agree to adhere to the following conditions:-

1.1 **INTERNAL GUIDE**

The researcher accepts that an Internal Guide, appointed by the Department of Correctional Services will provide guidance on a continual basis, during the research. His duties will be:

- 1.1.1 To help with the interpretation of policy guidelines. He will therefore have to ensure that the researcher is conversant with the policy regarding functional areas of the research.
- 1.1.2 To help with the interpreting of information/statistics and terminology of the Department which the researcher is unfamiliar with.
- 1.1.3 To identify issues which could cause embarrassment to the Department, and to make recommendations regarding the utilization and treatment of such information.

M. Kemp

W



- 1.1.4 To advise Correctional Management regarding the possible implementation of the recommendations made by the researcher.

With regard to the beforementioned the research remains the researcher's own work and the internal guide may therefore not be prescriptive. His' task is assistance and not to dictate a specific train of thought to the researcher.

1.2 GENERAL CONDITIONS WHEN DOING RESEARCH IN PRISONS

- 1.2.1 Participation in the research by members/prisoners must be voluntary, and such willingness must be indicated in writing.

- 1.2.2 Prisoners may not be identified, or be able to be identified in any way.

- 1.2.3 Research Instruments such as Questionnaires/Schedules for interviews must be submitted to the Department (Internal Guide) for consideration before they may be used.

- 1.2.4 The Department (Internal Guide) must be kept informed of progress and the expected completion dates of the various phases of the research and progress reports/copies of completed chapters furnished for consideration to the Department should this be requested by the Department.

M. K. M. M.

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- 1.2.5 Research findings or any other information gained during the research may not be published or made known in any other manner without the written permission of the Commissioner of Correctional Services. The Department (Internal Guide) must therefore be provided with an unbound copy of the researcher's report/-essay/treatise/thesis/article at least two months before presentation for evaluation to an university or before it is presented for publication.
- 1.2.6 A copy of the final report/essay/treatise/thesis must be submitted to the Department for further use.
- 1.2.7 Research will to be done in the researchers own time and at his own cost unless explicitly stated otherwise at the initial approval of the research.
- 1.3 **CONDUCT IN PRISON:**
- 1.3.1 Arrangements to visit a prison/s for research purposes must be made with the Head of that particular prison. Care should be taken that the research be done with the least possible disruption of prison routine.
- 1.3.2 Office-space for the conducting of tests and interviews must be determined in consultation with the Head of the particular Prison.
- 1.3.3 Research instruments/interviews must be used/done within view and hearing distance of a member/members of the South African Correctional Services, otherwise only within view of a member(s) of the Department.

M. Kemp

[Signature]



- 1.3.4 Documentation may not be removed from files or reproduced without the prior approval of the Commissioner of Correctional Services.
- 1.3.5 Any problem experienced during the research must be discussed with the relevant Head of the Prison without delay.
- 1.3.6 Identification documents must be produced at the prison upon request and must be worn on the person during the visit.
- 1.3.7 Weapons or other unauthorized articles may not be taken into the prison.
- 1.3.8 Money and other necessary articles which are worn on the researcher's person are taken into the prison at his own risk. Nothing may be handed over to prisoners except that which is required for the process of research, eg : manuals, questionnaires, stationery; etc.
- 1.3.9 The research must be done in such a manner that prisoners/members cannot subsequently use it to embarrass the Department of Correctional Services, members of the Department, prisoners, or Correctional Supervision Cases.
- 1.3.10 Researchers must be circumspect when approaching prisoners with regard to their appearance and beha-

Handwritten signature

Handwritten initials



viour, and researchers must be careful of manipulation by prisoners. The decision of the Head of the Prison in this regard is final.

- 1.3.11 No prisoner may be given the impression that his/her co-operation could be advantageous to him/her personally.

2. INDEMNITY

The researcher waives any claim which he may have against the Department of Correctional Services and indemnifies the Department against any claims, including legal fees at an attorney and client scale which may be initiated against the latter by any other person, including a prisoner.

3. CANCELLATION

The Commissioner of Correctional Services retains the right to withdraw and cancel authorization for research at any time, should the above conditions not be adhered to or the researcher not keep to stated objectives. In such an event or in event of the researcher deciding to discontinue the research, all information and data from the liaison with the Department must be returned to the Department and such information and data may in no way be published in any other publication without the permission of the Commissioner of Correctional Services. The Commissioner of Correctional Services also retains the right to allocate the research to another researcher.

McEup

AS



4. SUGGESTIONS

The researcher acknowledges that no other suggestions except those contained in this agreement, were made which had led him/her to the entering into this Agreement.

Signed at Pretoria on 23rd day
of November 1998

RESEARCHER

WITNESSES:

Abovementioned researcher signed this Agreement in my presence.

Date: 23.11.98.

ENDORSEMENT BY PROMOTOR OR EMPLOYER OF THE RESEARCHER
WHERE APPLICABLE

I have taken cognizance of the contents of this agreement and do not have any problem with the conditions/have the following reservations about the conditions of this agreement:

SIGNATURE 24/11/98.

9920ISK.RH



APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE WITH ACCOMPANYING LETTERS - QUANTATIVE PHASE



Ans van der Westhuizen
B.Th. (Hons), M.A. (Sw)

P.O.Box 39336
Moreleta Park, 0044
Republic of South Africa
Tel/fax: (+27) 12 998 9548
Cell: (+27) 83 258 1465
answ@icon.co.za



2002-01-23

The HEAD
Department of Community Corrections

Sir/Madam,

Re: A South African model of Community Corrections Residential Centres: a social work perspective

I am a social work student at the University of Pretoria doing my doctoral thesis on halfway houses for offenders. The recent term for halfway houses used in this study is that of "Community Corrections Residential Centres" (CCRCs).

The target group, chosen to complete this questionnaire, is all the social workers in South Africa, in service of the Department of Community Corrections. Their contribution is of the utmost importance to launch this new way of dealing with offenders in the community within the South African context. Would you, as head of your department encourage the social workers to complete the questionnaire and **return it by post immediately or not later than the 15th February 2002**. The following documents are included:

- Two letters of approval of the Department of Correctional Services regarding the research for your information.
- The letter with instructions to the social worker.
- The questionnaire for completion.
- The self-addressed envelope.

If there are more than one social worker, and it is not possible to make extra copies of the letter and questionnaire please contact me for extra copies which I will then fax through to you. Kindly request them to return all the copies in the envelope included for this purpose.

If you do not have any social workers in your Department, kindly return the questionnaire and write on this letter "**no social workers**" for my information.

The date of completion of this study is the end of May this year and findings thereof will be published in Nexus.

Regards,

MS. AEM VAN DER WESTHUIZEN



MEMORANDUM

File No. 8/7/1
Ext 2168


Insaake
Re

A SOUTH AFRICAN MODEL OF COMMUNITY CORRECTIONS RESIDENTIAL CENTRES: A SOCIAL WORK PERSPECTIVE

The above-mentioned research project was approved in 1998. Please allow the researcher, Mrs Van der Westhuizen ID no: 470707 0073 081 to proceed with this study.

The researcher will provide the details of the study. The researcher has been informed to make arrangements for the consultation times with the concerned participants.

Your co-operation is appreciated.

 24/01/2002
For Commissioner Correctional services
Head: Research Administration
Ms ROM Manchidi



Lefapha La
Umnyango Wezokulungisa Izimilo
Department of Correctional Services
Departement van Korrektiewe Dienste

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Mrs A.E.M vd Westhuizen
P.O. Box 39336
MORELETAPARK
0044

REFERENCE
VERWYSING 8/7/11
DATE
DATUM 98/11/02

Inquiries
Navrae: Marizane Rousseau-Maree

Dear Mrs van der Westhuizen

**RESEARCH APPLICATION: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A HALFWAY HOUSE FACILITY
FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES IN GAUTENG**

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in the Department of Correctional Services has been approved and Mr Strydom of the office of the Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng was appointed as internal guide for the study. You can contact him at telephone number (012) 3343300.

The approval of the application is subject to certain conditions as stipulated in the attached agreement. The agreement must please be signed and returned to this office before commencement of the study.

The Area Manager of Pretoria will be informed of the approval of your application and you are requested to make the necessary arrangements pertaining to this project with him.

Please contact this office if you have any inquiries.

With kind regards

for *Rousseau-Maree*
**COMMISSIONER: CORRECTIONAL SERVICES
M ROUSSEAU-MAREE
RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION**

PRIVATE BAG X136
PRETORIA
0001

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PRIVAATSAK X
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0

FAX/FAKS (012) 3285111



Ans van der Westhuizen
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Cell: (+27) 83 258 1465
answ@icon.co.za

2002-01-23

Sir/madam,

Re: A South African model of Community Corrections Residential Centres: a social work perspective

I am a social work student at the University of Pretoria doing my doctoral thesis on halfway houses for offenders only. The recent term for halfway houses used in this study is that of "Community Corrections Residential Centres" (CCRCs).

CCRCs are utilised extensively overseas and they serve various types of offenders such as the following:

- pre-released offenders (released on parole after stay at CCRC). When pre-releases of offenders take place from prison to a CCRC before their parole date, they still have the status of 'inmate'.
- halfway-back parole violators
- diversion clients (diverted from prison, directly to a CCRC as an alternative sentencing option)
- probationers
- awaiting-trial facilities
- young offender facilities
- mixed facilities such as transitional and diversion facilities

If offenders in South Africa can utilise CCRCs not only as residential centres, but also receive specialised programmes, they will stand a better chance to re-integrate successfully into the community. As a social worker in the department of Community Corrections, your view is thus of the utmost importance not only for offenders in our country, but for South Africa as a whole. As you know, prisons in South Africa are overcrowded and if more sentencing options were available to judges and magistrates, the serving of petty crime offenders can take place in the community without endangering the public.

Each question in the questionnaire has specific instructions. Although some questions may have various options, please complete each question with the answer which is the nearest to your own view. With some of the questions, you will have only one choice for example:

Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>

Concerning the open-ended questions, you should give your own options and opinions.

Please return the questionnaire in the self-addressed envelope by **return of post or not later than the 15th February, 2002**. Thank you for your prompt attention.

Ms. A.E.M. van der Westhuizen

		For office use only
1.	Respondent number	V1 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 - 3
A. <u>Biographic particulars of respondent</u>		
2.	Gender of respondent Male Female	V2 <input type="checkbox"/> 4
3.	Age of respondent <input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	V3 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 - 6
4.	Region of employment of respondent	
	Western Cape 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Eastern Cape 2 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Free State 3 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Northern Cape 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Gauteng 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Northern Province 6 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	North West 7 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Mpumalanga 8 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Kwa Zulu Natal 9 <input type="checkbox"/>	V4 <input type="checkbox"/> 7
5.	Home language of respondent	
	English 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Afrikaans 2 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Sesotho 3 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Swati 4 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Zulu 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Sepedi 6 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Tswana 7 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Xhosa 8 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Tsonga 9 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Venda 10 <input type="checkbox"/>	
	Ndebele 11 <input type="checkbox"/>	V5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 8-9
	Other (please mention)	V6 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 10-11
6.	How many years of job experience do you have in your current position? <input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	V7 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 12-13



B. <u>Need for CCRCs (Halfway houses) for offenders only</u>						For office use only	
7. How strong do you either <u>agree</u> or <u>disagree</u> with the following statements about offenders. <u>Choose one category in each row</u>							
Statements	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Uncertain (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)		
Prisons in South Africa are overcrowded						V8	<input type="checkbox"/> 14
Prison is only for serious offenders						V9	<input type="checkbox"/> 15
Less serious offenders can be successfully treated in the community						V10	<input type="checkbox"/> 16
Reintegration into the community is important						V11	<input type="checkbox"/> 17
The offender does not learn to be accountable in prison						V12	<input type="checkbox"/> 18
Offenders have special needs and can therefore not be catered for in care centres that houses all types of homeless people						V13	<input type="checkbox"/> 19
8. Can the following services be contracted out? <u>Please mark all the categories with either a 'yes' (1) or a 'no' (2)</u>						Y/N	
Private prisons						<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> V14	<input type="checkbox"/> 20
CCRCs (halfway houses for offenders only)						<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> V15	<input type="checkbox"/> 21
Specialised Programmes						<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> V16	<input type="checkbox"/> 22
Day reporting Centres						<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> V17	<input type="checkbox"/> 23
Electronic monitoring						<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> V18	<input type="checkbox"/> 24
Other services (Please indicate in the space provided)						V19	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 25 - 26
						V20	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 27 - 28
9. Who do you think should manage CCRCs in South Africa? <u>Choose only one category</u>							
The Department of Correctional Services in partnership with NGO's (non-profit) organisations						<input type="checkbox"/>	
The Department of Correctional Services in partnership with the private sector (for-profit) organisations						<input type="checkbox"/>	
All the above categories						<input type="checkbox"/>	
None of the above categories						<input type="checkbox"/>	
						V21	<input type="checkbox"/> 29
10. Please motivate your choice in the space provided							
						V22	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 30 -31
						V23	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 32 -33



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<p>11. How successful may the following types of CCRCs be applied in South Africa according to your opinion? Make one choice in each row according to very successful (vs-1), relatively successful (rs -2) or not successful at all (ns -3)</p>			
	vs/rs/ns		
Pre-release transitional facilities (pre-released from prison before parole date to CCRC. Released on parole after stay at CCRC)	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V24	<input type="checkbox"/> 34
Halfway-back facilities for parole violators	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V25	<input type="checkbox"/> 35
Mixed facilities such as transitional and diversion centres	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V26	<input type="checkbox"/> 36
Facilities for probationers	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V27	<input type="checkbox"/> 37
Awaiting-trial facilities	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V28	<input type="checkbox"/> 38
Young offender facilities	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V29	<input type="checkbox"/> 39
Others (please mention)			
.....		V30	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 40 - 41
.....		V31	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 42 - 43
.....			
<p>12. Do you agree that CCRCs may serve as an alternative sentencing option to magistrates and judges?</p>			
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>		
No	<input type="checkbox"/>	V32	<input type="checkbox"/> 44
<p>13. Will alternative sentencing options reduce the overcrowding of prisons?</p>			
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>		
No	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	V33	<input type="checkbox"/> 45
<p>14. Does a CCRC need 24-hour supervision?</p>			
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>		
No	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	V34	<input type="checkbox"/> 46
<p>15. Should males and females be served at the same CCRC?</p>			
Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	V35	<input type="checkbox"/> 47
<p>16. If you 'disagreed' to question (15), please enter your reasons in the space provided</p>			
.....		V36	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 48 - 49
.....		V37	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 50 - 51
.....			



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<p>C. <u>Funding of CCRCs in South Africa</u> Funding of CCRCs is of great importance for the continuity of these centres and therefore careful consideration is thus necessary for this aspect. When a CCRC is established two stages of funding will be applicable within South African context. The first stage is where the offender is a resident of the CCRC but unemployed.</p>			
17. Who should help with the funding of CCRCs in stage one ? Mark all the blocks with either a 'yes' (1) or a 'no' (2)			
The Department of Correctional Services	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V38	<input type="checkbox"/> 52
The Department of Social Services and Population Development	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V39	<input type="checkbox"/> 53
Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's)	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V40	<input type="checkbox"/> 54
Family members of the resident	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V41	<input type="checkbox"/> 55
Others (please mention)		V42	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 56 - 57
.....		V43	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 58 - 59
.....			
<p>The second stage is where the offender is a resident of the CCRC but employed</p>			
18. Who should help with the funding of CCRCs in stage two ? Mark all the blocks with either a 'yes' (1) or a 'no' (2)			
The Dept. of Correctional Services	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V44	<input type="checkbox"/> 60
Family members of the resident	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V45	<input type="checkbox"/> 61
The offender as resident	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V46	<input type="checkbox"/> 62
The Department of Social Services and Population Development	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V47	<input type="checkbox"/> 63
Non-Governmental organisations (NGO's)	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V48	<input type="checkbox"/> 64
Others (please mention)		V49	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 65 - 66
.....		V50	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 67 - 68
.....			
<p>D. PROGRAMMES</p>			
19. How should a CCRC function ? Mark only one block			
Supportive programmes (shelter, food, minimal counselling and referral services)	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Interventive programmes (full range of services)	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Both the above will apply in South African context	<input type="checkbox"/>	V51	<input type="checkbox"/> 69
20. Should CCRCs have space available to cater for programme activities at their centres?			
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>		
No	<input type="checkbox"/>	V52	<input type="checkbox"/> 70



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21.	Is it important for CCRCs to network geographic area? <u>Mark one block only</u>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Not important at all	<input type="checkbox"/>		V53	<input type="checkbox"/> 71	
	Relatively important	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Very important	<input type="checkbox"/>				
22.	Could some of the programmes be sub-contracted to agencies in the community already skilled in certain directions such as Alcoholics Anonymous, Project Literacy, etc?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>		V54	<input type="checkbox"/> 72	
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>				
23.	Please explain the reasons why you either chose 'yes' or 'no' to the above question (22)			V55	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 73 - 74	
			V56	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 75 - 76	
					
					
24.	How important will the following programmes be for residents in CCRCs in South Africa. Mark each category with either not important at all (ni-1), relatively important (ri-2) or very important (vi-3)					
		ni-1	ri-2	vi-3		
	Orientation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V57	<input type="checkbox"/> 77
	HIV Aids awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V58	<input type="checkbox"/> 78
	Life skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V59	<input type="checkbox"/> 79
	Alcohol and drug	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V60	<input type="checkbox"/> 80
	Trauma	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V61	<input type="checkbox"/> 81
	Development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V62	<input type="checkbox"/> 82
	Financial management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V63	<input type="checkbox"/> 83
	Accountability	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V64	<input type="checkbox"/> 84
	Employment training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V65	<input type="checkbox"/> 85
	Anger management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V66	<input type="checkbox"/> 86
	Parenting skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V67	<input type="checkbox"/> 87
	Cognitive skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V68	<input type="checkbox"/> 88
	Other (please indicate)					
			V69	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 89 - 90	
			V70	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 91 - 92	
E. Selection Criteria						
25.	How important is selection criteria for CCRCs before accepting an offender. Mark each category according to your own opinion according to very important (vi -1), relatively important (ri-2) or not important at all (ni-3)					
		vi/ri/ni				
	Prior escapes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V71	<input type="checkbox"/> 93
	Behaviour and attitude of offender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V72	<input type="checkbox"/> 94



		vi/ri/ni	For office use only	
	Mental status	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V73	<input type="checkbox"/> 95
	Residential area of offender	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V74	<input type="checkbox"/> 96
	Age	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V75	<input type="checkbox"/> 97
	Institutional behaviour	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V76	<input type="checkbox"/> 98
	Previous successes/failures	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V77	<input type="checkbox"/> 99
	Type of crime	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V78	<input type="checkbox"/> 100
	Family as support system	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V79	<input type="checkbox"/> 101
	Health issues	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V80	<input type="checkbox"/> 102
	Motivation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V81	<input type="checkbox"/> 103
	Others which are most important (please specify)		V82	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 104 - 105
			V83	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 106 - 107
F. General information on CCRCs				
26.	How important is it for a CCRC to be near public transport? Choose one block only			
	Not important at all	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Relatively important	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Very important	<input type="checkbox"/>	V84	<input type="checkbox"/> 108
27.	Where would you choose the ideal site for a CCRC? <u>Choose only one block</u>			
	Industrial area	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Residential area	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	An annexure to prison	<input type="checkbox"/>	V85	<input type="checkbox"/> 109
28.	How important is it to win community support for a CCRC? <u>Choose one block only</u>			
	Not important at all	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Relatively important	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Very important	<input type="checkbox"/>	V86	<input type="checkbox"/> 110
29.	Who do you think should decide what the maximum number of residents should be at a CCRC? <u>Choose one block only</u>			
	The CCRC itself	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Department of Correctional Services	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	A combination of the two above	<input type="checkbox"/>	V87	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
30.	How should various categories of offenders such as pre-release, diversion and parole violators be kept at a CCRC? <u>Choose only one block</u>			
	at different CCRC's	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	different wings of the same CCRC	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	totally mixed	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	V88	<input type="checkbox"/> 112



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31. Should the following categories form part of CCRCs in South Africa? Mark each category with either a 'yes' (1) or a 'no' (2)	Specialised programmes for the offender	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V89 <input type="checkbox"/> 113
	Job creation projects	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V90 <input type="checkbox"/> 114
	Aftercare facilities	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V91 <input type="checkbox"/> 115
	Day reporting centres	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V92 <input type="checkbox"/> 116
	Others (please indicate)		V93 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 117 - 118 V94 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 119 - 120
32. Should the Department of Labour issue contracts to CCRCs to train offenders for employment. Answer each category with either a 'yes' or a 'no'	Informal sector	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V95 <input type="checkbox"/> 121
	Formal sector	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	V96 <input type="checkbox"/> 122
33. Do you think that the State should encourage the private sector to employ offenders/ex-offenders through means of certain tax relief schemes ?	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>	V97 <input type="checkbox"/> 123
34. Which of the following personnel are needed at a CCRC which you see as important. Mark all the relevant categories	Programme director	<input type="checkbox"/>	V98 <input type="checkbox"/> 124
	Case managers (social workers)	<input type="checkbox"/>	V99 <input type="checkbox"/> 125
	Day supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	V100 <input type="checkbox"/> 126
	Night supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	V101 <input type="checkbox"/> 127
	Security personnel	<input type="checkbox"/>	V102 <input type="checkbox"/> 128
	Volunteers	<input type="checkbox"/>	V103 <input type="checkbox"/> 129
	Cooks	<input type="checkbox"/>	V104 <input type="checkbox"/> 130
	Administrative personnel	<input type="checkbox"/>	V105 <input type="checkbox"/> 131
	Others (please mention)		V106 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 132 - 133 V107 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 134 - 135
	35. Any further comments or suggestions regarding CCRCs in South Africa?		

Thank you for your prompt attention - Ms. AEM van der Westhuizen