Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in the Bethal Area: A social work perspective

By

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ABSTRACT

The optimising of rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in theBethal Area: A social work perspective

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In The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, [RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005) the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) made a paradigm shift from pure punitive institutions to rehabilitative correctional centres. This shift emphasised the need for rehabilitation as well as the value of unit management in obtaining the rehabilitation ideal ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:28-29). The goal of the study was to explore and describe how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective.

The theoretical framework of the study originates from the classical and positivist schools of thought, namely the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model. The rational choice theory emphasises that the decision to commit crime is taken by an individual after a process of weighing advantages and disadvantages. The rehabilitation model, on the other hand, explains that an individual is influenced to commit crime by negative external circumstances such as poverty, unemployment, negative associations and lack of support. The study adopted the convergent parallel mixed method design and the concurrent embedded mixed methods strategy where the researcher collected both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was collected through a survey where a group administered questionnaire was administered to 544 sentenced offenders who were sampled through stratified random sampling. For the qualitative study, data was collected by means of one-on-one interviews, guided by a semi-structured interview schedule. Participants included 133 correctional and professional correctional officials who were purposively selected for the study. Ethical clearance for the study was obtained from the University of Pretoria.

The research findings indicate that offenders have rehabilitation needs that are not met by DCS, such as the need for vocational training and participation in rehabilitation programmes.

Furthermore, officials are challenged to fulfil their roles as rehabilitators due to a shortage of personnel, lack of resources, and training needs that are not met. Unit management is perceived negatively by officials because it is not implemented fully, due to challenges such as a shortage of trained officials, a need for professional officials, inappropriate design and lack of infrastructure in correctional centres, and the insufficient provision of vocational training to offenders. The conclusion is that the insufficient implementation of unit management has a direct impact on the rehabilitation standard in a correctional centre. If unit management is not fully implemented, the rehabilitation of offenders is hindered.

To optimise rehabilitation and unit management, the study recommends that rehabilitation and unit management should be brought to the attention of newly admitted offenders during the orientation and assessment phase in the Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP). The aim is to create awareness amongst newly admitted offenders of what rehabilitation and unit management entail, and their role within their own rehabilitation, which will promote their understanding of and participation in the rehabilitation process. The study furthermore recommends that when sufficient correctional and professional correctional officials are appointed and trained and the desired design and infrastructure for the full implementation of unit management have been created in correctional centres, rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised when guidelines on the handling, treatment and referral of sentenced offenders are followed.

Key terms:

Rehabilitation

Unit management

Department of Correctional Services

Correctional official

Professional Correctional Official

Bethal Management Area

Social Work

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
AC	Area Commissioner
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
APP	Annual Performance Plan
CAO	Case Administration Official
CC OPS	Centre Coordinator Operational Support
CD	Constitutional Development
CIO	Case Intervention Official
CMC	Case Management Committee
CMR	Christelike Maatskaplike Raad
CMS	Case Management Supervisor
CO	Case Officer
CRT	Case Review Team
CSC	Christian Social Council
CSP	Correctional Sentence Plan
CSPB	Correctional Supervision and Parole Board
DCS	Department of Correctional Services
DOJ	Department of Justice
HCC	Head Correctional Centre
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IASSW	International Association of Schools of Social Work
IFSW	International Federation for Social Work
ORP	Offender Rehabilitation Path
PAC	Pan Africanist Congress
REC	Reintegration Evaluation Committee
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SA	South Africa
SAPS	South African Police Services
SAVF	Suid Afrikaanse Vroue Federasie
SMDC	Spiritual- and Moral Development Coordinator
UM	Unit Management

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Department of Correctional Services (DCS) forms part of the criminal justice system, and it is by means of rehabilitation that this Department can fulfill its obligation of providing services to ensure that those who are convicted of contravening the law and are sentenced to imprisonment ultimately leave the correctional system as law-abiding, responsible and productive citizens (DCS Social Work Services Policy, 2008:1). During the opening of the DCS's service delivery conference, held during 1998, a commitment was made by the Department to provide diligent and excellent services to the public (Mohajane, 1998:8). At that time, these services, also referred to as programmes, were categorised into ten broad service standards, that served the purpose of starting the paradigm shift from punishment in correctional services to the rehabilitation of offenders. Since the commitment to rehabilitate offenders had been made by the DCS in 1998 the services and programmes have been scrutinised, adjusted and changed to suit the vision and mission of the Department. The vision being: "Providing the best correctional services for a safer South Africa", with a mission that states: "Contributing to a just, peaceful and safer South Africa through effective and humane incarceration of inmates and the rehabilitation and social reintegration of offenders" (DCS Annual Report, 2016:23). In honouring The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:15), the current five programmes appear in the DCS Strategic Plan (2015:28), and the DCS Annual Report (2016:16). These five programmes mentioned above are all inclusive of the services rendered by the DCS and it include Administration, Incarceration, Rehabilitation, Care, and Social Reintegration DCS Annual Performance Plan (2017:13).

Social work services form part of the Rehabilitation programme. The DCS Social Work Services Policy (2008:1), "was developed to ensure that social work services are streamlined to effect rehabilitation of offenders by addressing their needs." All the primary social work methods practiced in correctional social work, that is casework, group work, community work, administration, research and supervision, aim at contributing to the rehabilitation of the offender involved. The objectives of the rehabilitation process, summarised in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, are firstly to focus on correcting offending behaviour, secondly to enhance human development, and thirdly to promote social responsibility and positive social values amongst offenders ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:20).

According to the DCS Unit Management Policy (n.d.:3), "the Department believes that rehabilitation and prevention of recidivism are best achieved through care, correction and development and by utilising unit management as a vehicle towards coordination of all these activities." The interaction between rehabilitation and unit management is confirmed by Stinchcomb (2011:235), who describes unit management not as a treatment programme or a custodial strategy, but rather as a system whereby custody and treatment work hand in hand within a setting that promotes their close cooperation. This view is in line with the premise of this research that in order for the DCS to execute their mission and vision, and to contribute to the National Developmental Social Welfare Strategy of South Africa, it is necessary to implement unit management in South African correctional facilities.

The key concepts of the study are as follows:

Rehabilitation

Rehabilitation emphasises the improvement of an offender's social functioning within various spheres of life, focusing on skills, development, knowledge, positive attitudes, and values and good relationships, with the aim of successful re-adjustment into the community after release. For purposes of this study, the definition of Cullen and Johnson (2012:149) was adopted: "Rehabilitation is a planned correctional intervention that targets for change internal and or social criminogenic factors with the goal of reducing recidivism and, where possible, of improving other aspects of an offender's life."

Unit Management

For the purpose of this study, the definition of unit management as stated by Stinchcomb (2011:602) was adopted: "Unit management is a decentralised approach in which a unit manager, case manager, and counsellor, along with supportive custodial, clerical, and treatment personnel maintain full responsibility for providing services, making decisions and addressing the needs of inmates assigned to a living unit."

Department of Correctional Services

According to the DCS Glossary of Terminology (2017:2), the Department of Correctional Services was provided for in section 7(2) of the Public Service Act, as part of the Public Service established by section 197 of the Constitution, which reads as follows: "Within public administration, there is a public service for the Republic, which must function, and be structured, in terms of national legislation, and which must loyally execute the lawful policies of the

government of the day". Schwartz and Travis (1997:8) explain that although correctional agencies play an important role in the sentencing process, the major function of all correctional agencies is the execution of judicially imposed sanctions. The DCS ensures that it contributes to a reduction of repeat offending or re-offending by increasing the number of offenders that are subjected to rehabilitation programmes (DCS Strategic Plan, 2015:5).

Correctional official

The DCS Glossary of Terminology (2017:2) refers to correctional officials as employees of the Department of Correctional Services appointed under section 3(4) of the Correctional Services Act, 1998 (Act No. 111 of 1998), where it is stipulated as follows: "Every inmate is required to accept the authority and to obey the lawful instructions of the National Commissioner and correctional officials of the Department and custody officials." Birzer and Roberson (2004:494) describe correctional officers as officers who generally perform custodial roles in jails, prisons, and other institutions.

Professional correctional officials

The term 'professional correctional officials' refers to persons registered under the Nursing Act, 1978 (Act No 50 of 1978), Chiropractors, Homeopaths and Allied Health Service Professions Act, 1982 (Act No 63 of 1982), Pharmacy Act, 1974 (Act No 53 of 1974), Health Professions Act, 1974 (Act No 56 of 1974) and the Social Work Act, 1978 (Act No 110 of 1978) (Glossary of Terminology, 2017:5; Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998). Though the mentioned legislation include all professional correctional officials in DCS this study focussed on social workers, educationist, and health care professionals who were available and stationed at the correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area.

Bethal Management Area

Due to restructuring that took place in the DCS during 2004, the Mpumalanga Province was divided into three areas, namely Bethal, Witbank and Nelspruit. Each area is headed by an Area Commissioner, which implies that everything that happens in that specific area is handled by the office of the Area Commissioner.

The Bethal Management Area, which was the focus of this study, includes the Correctional Centres in Bethal, Volksrust, Piet Retief and Standerton.

Social work

For the purpose of this study, the researcher adhered to the international definition of social work, as approved by the International Federation for Social Work (IFSW) and the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) General Assembly in Melbourne, Australia, during July 2014, which stipulates that:

> Social work is a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes social change and development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people. Principles of social justice, human rights, collective responsibility and respect for diversities are central to social work. Underpinned by theories of social work, social sciences, humanities and indigenous knowledge, social work engages people and structures to address life challenges and enhance wellbeing.

1.2   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research study was based on theories that emanate from Classical as well as Positivists Criminology, in particular the rational choice theory as well as the rehabilitation model. Rational choice theory is defined by Siegel (2011:13) as a "view that crime is a function of a decision-making process in which the would-be offender weighs the potential costs and benefits of an illegal act." There is thus a decision-making process that an offender follows, where consequences, advantages and disadvantages are considered before the crime is committed. According to Crowther (2007:278) and Siegel (2005:5), criminal behaviour is not caused by choice but by an offender's biological, social, or psychological make-up, amongst other factors; this theory forms the foundation of the rehabilitation model. Principles from both the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model have been utilised throughout the study. The theoretical framework is discussed in depth in Chapter 2.

1.3   RATIONALE AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

The DCS emphasises, to offenders and the community alike, the importance of service delivery. This includes social work services, based on the premise that the rehabilitation of offenders is the core business of correctional facilities. Offenders should be subjected to rehabilitation programmes as referred to in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:62), which should result in rehabilitation and successful re-

integration into the community after release. Social workers form part of the team responsible for rehabilitation. Other team members include, firstly, professional correctional officials such as educationists, psychologists and health care professionals, and secondly, the correctional officials which incorporate the heads of the centres, unit managers, case management supervisors, case administration officials, case officers, case intervention officials, spiritual care workers, safe custody officials and administrative officials. In the DCS, each official, whether correctional or professional correctional officials, regardless of his/her post, is regarded as a rehabilitator.

The researcher experienced, throughout twenty years of service in DCS, that the previous punitive system in the prisons (as they were called earlier), did not only violate the human rights of offenders but it also had no or little impact on the development of the offender. She also observed that although rehabilitation is a personal improvement that should be embraced by the offender himself[1], guidance from all correctional officials is needed to assist the offender in his journey to change. This would imply a collective rehabilitative effort to assist offenders.

Currently, sections in the Department of Correctional Services find it difficult to function at an optimal level, due to factors such as high caseloads, overcrowding, lack of human resources and non-conducive environments, which result in the rehabilitation needs of offenders not being met. Sekhonyane (2004:1) states that the crime level in South Africa is the cause of rehabilitation not being effective in the DCS, since offenders are sentenced more frequently, and to longer imprisonment sentences in an attempt to deal with the crime problem. This results in prisons being overcrowded and an increased workload, which ultimately affects the impact of rehabilitative attempts in the DCS. By determining the relationship between rehabilitation, unit management, rehabilitation needs of offenders and the required skills and tools needed by correctional and professional correctional officials, service delivery in the DCS could be optimised through unit management.

It was the premise of this research study that the advantages of unit management outweigh challenges incurred, and should therefore be regarded as a priority in the DCS. What is required, however, is a plan, as well as clear guidelines on how all these barriers will be addressed in order to ensure optimised rehabilitation and unit management. It is envisaged that the implementation

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[1]The researcher acknowledges the gender sensitivity. The referral is made to the male gender mainly because the research study involved only male offenders. This was the case in the Standerton, Volksrust and Piet Retief Correctional Centres, that accommodate male offenders only.

of unit management in the DCS would address some of the limitations that are presently experienced in correctional centres.

The research question that directed the study was as follows:

How can rehabilitation and unit management be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective?

The sub-research questions that informed the main question were as follows:

- What are the offenders' rehabilitation needs, as well as their views on development and care programmes, as facilitated by professional correctional officials within the multi-disciplinary team?
- What is required from correctional- and professional correctional officials as well as offenders to enable the optimising of rehabilitation and unit management in the DCS?
- What skills, tools, and knowledge are required in order for correctional and professional correctional officials to contribute to the improved implementation of rehabilitation and unit management in the Bethal Management Area, with specific emphasis on the role of the social worker?

1.4 GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The goal and the objectives of the study were as follows:

1.4.1 Goal of study

The goal of the study was to explore and describe how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Area, from a social work perspective.

1.4.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- Explore the historic development of unit management in South Africa and internationally, as applicable to corrections.

- Contextualise rehabilitation in the Department of Correctional Services from a unit management perspective within the theoretical framework of the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model.

- Determine offenders' rehabilitation needs as well as their views on development and care programmes, as facilitated by professional correctional officials within the multi-disciplinary team.

- Identify the skills, tools, and knowledge required in order for correctional and professional correctional officials to contribute to the improved implementation of rehabilitation and unit management in the Bethal Management Area, with specific emphasis on the role of the social worker.

- Develop guidelines with indicators for optimising rehabilitation of offenders and unit management to be implemented by correctional- and professional correctional officials.

1.5   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study used a mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2015:2) where the purpose was exploratory and developmental (Neuman, 2006:33). This choice is in line with rehabilitation and unit management being relatively new fields in the DCS which still need more exploration. The type of study was applied research, because it built on the little knowledge of rehabilitation and unit management that existed at four of the centres in the Bethal Management Area (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:41; Hagan, 2002:29; Neuman, 2006:25).

Within the mixed methods nature of the study, the quantitative part of the research study focused on how rehabilitation and unit management could be optimised in the Bethal Management Area, based on the offenders' views and perceptions concerning their rehabilitation needs. Sentenced offenders' views were obtained by means of a survey using an administered questionnaire with open- and closed-ended questions.

The qualitative part of the study concentrated on correctional and professional correctional officials' contributions concerning their role in rehabilitation and unit management in the DCS. Their perceptions were gained through interviews that were guided by a semi-structured interview schedule.

The population consisted of two groups; sentenced offenders and correctional officials from the Bethal Management Area. The most suitable sampling method used in the quantitative study was stratified random sampling, where sentenced offenders were selected according to different crime categories (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:137). The most appropriate non-probability sampling method for selection of correctional- and professional correctional officials during the qualitative research study was purposive sampling, because the researcher used her own judgement about whom to select into the sample. (Cf. Rossouw, 2003:413; Bachman & Schutt, 2011:121) Data was gathered from 544 sentenced offenders and 133 correctional officials through one-on-one interviews guided by semi-structured interview schedules (Alston & Bowles, 2003:116; McLaughlin, 2012:39). For purposes of the quantitative research study, the researcher implemented the data analysis process as it is presented by Fouché and Bartley (2011:252) which includes data preparation, data entry as well as processing, analysis and interpreting. The process of qualitative data analysis as set out by Schurink, Fouché and De Vos (2011:403) was used. The research methodology and ethical aspects of the study will be discussed in depth in Chapter 6.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

The research report consists of ten chapters, as outlined below:

Chapter 1 provides the general introduction and orientation of the study, including the key concepts of the study; a brief overview of the theoretical framework; the rational and problem statement; the research question; the goal and objectives of the study, and a brief overview of the research methodology.

Chapter 2 constitutes the theoretical framework of the study, namely the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model.

Chapter 3 presents the past, present and future of the Department of Correctional Services. The chapter discusses the general historical development of correctional centres, the development of the Department of Correctional Services, its vision, mission, core values and service delivery, and the nature and aims of punishment and incarceration.

Chapter 4 outlines the development of social work as a profession and rehabilitation as a core function of social work in the Department of Correctional Services.

Chapter 5 discusses the correctional philosophies, rehabilitation, and unit management within the Department of Correctional Services and the implementation thereof in South-African correctional centres.

Chapter 6 captures the research methodology of the study, including the research approach; type of research; the research design; population and sample of the study; data collection methods; analysis of data; the trustworthiness of the study and the ethical aspects pertaining to the study. Furthermore, it indicates the limitations of the study.

Chapters 7 and 8 discuss the empirical findings of the study. Research findings are presented, analysed and interpreted; in Chapter 7 with reference to sentenced offenders, and in Chapter 8 in relation to correctional officials as a whole.

Chapter 9 includes a discussion on empirical findings where themes from the quantitative and qualitative studies are identified.

Chapter 10 discusses the achievement of the research objectives, key findings of the study, conclusions, and the recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: THE RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY AND THE REHABILITATION MODEL

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Various authors (Bartol & Bartol, 2014:4; Crowther, 2007:275; Siegel, 2011:9; Stout, Yates & Williams, 2008; Walsh & Hemmens, 2011:10) reveal that there is a wide range of criminological and rehabilitation theories, based on groundbreaking work done by historians some centuries ago. Theories are, in general, designed to explain or predict some event or phenomenon (Hoffmann, 2011:1). The aim of theories, according to Walsh and Hemmens (2011:9), is "…trying to grasp how all the known correlates of a phenomenon are linked together in non-coincidental ways to produce an effect." When considering a relevant theoretical framework for a research study it is useful to highlight the various concepts discussed in the study, to determine the focus areas. This study focused on optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services (DCS). In the context of corrections, rehabilitation, crime and unit management, approaches and theories, are narrowed down to Classical, Positivist, Sociological, Conflict, Developmental and Contemporary Criminology (Apel, 2013:69; Brown, Esbensen & Geis, 2013:164; Crowther, 2007:277; Pratt, 2008:43).

The rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model guided this study. The rational choice theory originates from Classical Criminology, which focuses on the basic principle that people have a free will to decide whether to commit crime or not as a means of meeting their needs (Crowther, 2007:277; Latessa, Listwan & Koetzle, 2014:158). According to Siegel (2011:13), the rational choice theory argues that "criminals are rational decision makers: Before choosing to commit crime, criminals evaluate the benefits and costs of the contemplated criminal act: their choice is structured by the fear of punishment." Seipel and Eifler (2010:171) add to the argument by stating that "people make rational decisions based on the extent to which they expect the choices to maximize their benefits and minimize their costs ... These persons try to minimize their risks of crime by considering the time, place, and other situational factors." The rational choice theory argues that offenders go through a thought process before deciding to commit an offence.

On the other hand, according to Crowther (2007:278) and Siegel (2005:5), Positivist Criminology claims that criminal behaviour is not caused by choice, but by an offender's biological, social or psychological make-up, amongst other factors. Influenced by Positivist Criminology, which suggests that people commit crimes through no fault of their own, the rehabilitation model was developed (Siegel, 2005:371). Furthermore, the rehabilitation model does not deny that people make choices to break the law, but asserts that these choices are influenced by a person's social surroundings, psychological development and biological make-up (Cullen & Jonson, 2012:25). The researcher concluded that the rehabilitation model argues that offenders commit crime because of the challenging circumstances they face.

The chapter first alludes to the respective theories, followed by a discussion on how they were applied to rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services.

2.2   RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY

Cesare Beccaria developed Classical Criminology which evolved into a more contemporary version based on intelligent thought processes and criminal decision-making, called the rational choice theory (Bartol & Bartol, 2014:4; Brown et al., 2013:194; Hoffmann, 2011:18; Marsh, 2011:142; Siegel, 2011:84). Rational choice theorists, according to Walsh and Hemmens (2011:77), "substitute the extremes of the classical free will concept with the concept of human agency … humans have the capacity to make choices and the moral responsibility to make moral choices regardless of the internal or external constraints on one's ability to do so." Even though this theory was previously applied to the economic sphere, the researchers Cornish and Clark were responsible for the refining and development of the ideas and notions of the rational choice theory from a criminal perspective (Cf. Marsh, 2011:87; Rosbough, 2012:358; Van Gelder, 2013:746). Through the years the rational choice theory developed its principles in collaboration with other phenomena such as politics, environmental issues, self-control, experiences, biological factors, personality traits, deterrence and emotions (Armstrong & Boutwell, 2012:31; Bérubé, 2010:334; Bouffard, Exum & Collins, 2010:400; Rosbough, 2012:355; Seipel & Eifler, 2010:168; Van Gelder. 2013:745). For purposes of this study, the definition, principles, concepts, and crime prevention strategies of the rational choice theory within the framework of criminal behaviour will be examined next.

2.2.1 Defining the rational choice theory

Rational choice theory is defined by Van Gelder (2013:746) as a belief that offending is a process of choice in which individuals, when faced with several possible courses of action, will reason their way towards the option they think is most beneficial to them at a given moment. Siegel (2011:13) concurs with the premise that the rational choice theory views crime as "a function of a decision-making process in which the would-be offender weighs the potential costs and benefits of an illegal act." According to Crowther (2007:358), the rational choice theory entails that human beings commit crime when the opportunity arises and if there is nothing to prevent them from doing so. A brief summary that serves as a definition is provided by Marsh (2011:142), who states that the rational choice theory assumes that "individuals act rationally and before proceeding with an activity will weigh up the potential profits and benefits against the possible losses". The rational choice perspective proposes that potential offenders attempt to maximise expected utility, which is dictated by current motivations and the perceptions of risk, effort and reward associated with a given target (Birks, Townsley & Stewart, 2012:231). According to Birks et al. (2012:233), it is those opportunities perceived as the most rewarding and least risky and/or difficult to exploit that are most likely to be targeted by offenders.

The rational choice theory therefore emphasises that crime involves a decision-making process that entails the weighing of advantages and disadvantages by the potential criminal before committing a criminal act. Serving a sentence of imprisonment means, in actual fact, that the offender is challenged with the disadvantage of the crime that was committed.

2.2.2 Principles of the rational choice theory

Latessa et al. (2014:161) lists the central focus points or principles of the rational choice theory as follows:

- The human being is a rational actor
- Rationality involves an end/means calculation
- People (freely) choose behaviour, both conforming and deviant, based on their rational calculations
- The central element of calculation involves a cost benefit analysis: Pleasure versus Pain [or hedonistic calculus]

- Choice, with all other conditions equal, will be directed towards the maximisation of individual pleasure

- Choice can be controlled through the perception and understanding of the potential pain or punishment that will follow an act judged to be in violation of the social good, the social contract, and

- The state is responsible for maintaining order and preserving the common good through a system of laws (this system is the embodiment of the social contract).

It is important to note that offenders are perceived to be rational beings who consciously calculate the costs and benefits before deciding to commit a crime. The value of this understanding is that, through the rehabilitation process, the Department of Correctional Services plays the role of creating awareness amongst offenders that the cost of crime outweighs the benefits.

The sociologists Mehlkop and Graeff (2010:191), emphasise rational choice theory principles in their research as follows:

- Offenders are not driven to commit crime by social conditions; instead, they try to maximise their advantages, such as physical well-being or social recognition through criminal acts, while at the same time avoiding adverse consequences.

- Individuals do not become criminals because they differ from other people in terms of their basic motivation; they commit crimes because of the different costs and benefits.

- Besides the benefit that a person expects to gain from his offence, both the expected probability of being caught and the costs associated with the expected level of penalty, have to be considered in a person's decision to commit a crime.

- The penalty for a crime that has been committed can be viewed as a price that an offender has to pay for his criminal behaviour.

- When considering to commit a specific offence, an important factor that the individual considers is whether he is capable of carrying out the offence.

Before an offender chooses to commit a criminal act there is an evaluation of the benefits and costs of the contemplated crime (Siegel, 2011:13). The offender would therefore ask himself what would I benefit from committing this act? Is what I am going to get worth the risk I am taking? Bouffard, Exum and Collins (2010:407) listed traditional and novel costs, as well as

traditional and novel benefits, that are normally considered by an offender while planning to commit a crime. This is summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: **Traditional and novel costs as opposed to traditional and novel benefits of crime (Bouffard et al., 2010:407)**

TRADITIONAL COSTS	TRADITIONAL BENEFITS	NOVEL COSTS	NOVEL BENEFITS
• **Legal problems** (e.g. getting arrested)	• **Fun/Sneaky thrill** (e.g. adrenalin rush, excitement)	• **Banished** (e.g. getting kicked out or banned from the store)	• **Save money** (e.g. received whatever items I wanted for free)
• **Immorality** (e.g. feeling that it is morally wrong to commit crime)	• **Feeling good about self** (e.g. pride)	• **Trouble** (e.g. unspecified trouble at various levels of life)	• **Convenience** (e.g. saved time, easy, saved another trip to town)
• **Emotional costs** (e.g. feeling of guilt or shame)	• **Friends think I was cool** (e.g. friends admire me)	• **Danger/physical harm** (e.g. getting attacked by security / victim)	• **Avoid capture** (e.g. getting away with it, not getting arrested)
• **Family problems** (e.g. disappointed parents and siblings)	• **Have the item I wanted** (e.g. getting the item I needed)	• **Gateway crime** (e.g. keep on committing worse crimes)	• **Collateral benefits** (e.g. add more items to the list because it hurts nobody)
• **Social problems** (e.g. ruined reputation)		• **Bad Karma** (e.g. bad incident that can happen to the offender)	
• **School problems** (e.g. getting expelled from educational facility)		• **Collateral harm** (e.g. store loses money/ increase in prices/ effects on economy)	
• **Professional problems** (e.g. getting fired from a job)			

Marsh (2011:87) as well as Bérubé (2010:334) confirm the weighing of costs and benefits by stating that the premise of the rational choice theory is related to the rewards that potential offenders seek from their crimes. This is done by certain decision-making processes that are unique to the individual (e.g. skill), and to the dynamics of the actual situation (e.g. time available). A crime is therefore committed when an offender decided that he is willing to accept the costs of a criminal act in order to get to its benefit. The traditional costs as stipulated by Bouffard et al. (2010:407), include arrest. Being apprehended or arrested can lead to an offender receiving a sentence of imprisonment, to be served at a correctional centre (Apel, 2013:70). The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:240), stipulates that "rehabilitation and the prevention of repeat offending are best achieved through correction and development … rehabilitation is based on the conviction that every human being is capable of change and transformation if offered the opportunity and the necessary resources." It becomes the responsibility of the DCS to assist an offender through the process of rehabilitation to change his decision-making processes when considering to re-offend. Emphasis during the rehabilitation process should be placed on the high cost of crime, such as the removal of an offender from society and his family; the strain that imprisonment puts on family relationships; dealing with the guilt and shame through restorative justice; the effect of a criminal record on the offender's professional capacity as a future employee, and wasted educational opportunities.

2.2.3   Concepts of the rational choice theory

Siegel (2011:85) emphasises concepts of the rational choice theory such as evaluating the risks of crime, offense- and offender-specific crime, structuring criminality, and structuring crime. These concepts will be briefly discussed next.

- *Evaluating the risks of crime:* All risks surrounding the crime are considered by the offender before committing the crime. Such risks are, for example, the probability of getting caught, the profit versus the effort, familiarity with the target and the difficulty of the planned crime.

- *Offense- and offender-specific crime:* Specific elements concerning the criminal act itself is considered by the offender in offense-specific crime, e.g. security devices, availability of a getaway car, police patrolling the specific area, escape routes and presence of guard dogs.

Offender-specific crime refers to the offender considering whether he or she has the necessary skills, potential and prerequisites to commit a criminal act successfully, e.g. the physical ability, strength, availability of resources and the lack of fear of being apprehended and punished.

- *Structuring criminality:* A number of personal factors and conditions must be evaluated before an offender commits a crime, such as economic need (the offender's level of desperation to obtain money), evaluating personal traits and experience (experienced offenders know when to take a chance and when to be cautious – they are generally more impulsive, have less self-control and seem to be unaffected by the fear of punishment), criminal expertise (offenders learn certain techniques and terminology to enable them to commit an offence).

- *Structuring crime*: The decision to commit crime is structured by where it will take place, (the place where the crime is to be committed needs to be "safe" and a low risk for the offender) and who the target is (easy access to people and places cause them to become possible targets).

Apel (2013:88) researched criminal decision-making by having in-depth interviews with sentenced offenders. He determined three stages of perception formation that an offender goes through during the criminal decision-making process, namely *activation of intent,* (referring to the more immediate needs and desires which impel offenders from a state of indifference to a state of criminal motivation); *selection of the target* (considerations taken by offenders in their choice of the "what", "when" and "where" of the criminal act, being the offender's assessment of the options that are realistically and readily available to satisfy one's goals), and *commission of the act*, (these reflect strategic considerations – the "how" of the criminal act) (Apel, 2013:88).

2.2.4 Crime prevention strategies in the framework of the rational choice theory

Because the offender's thought process regarding committing crime is described by the rational choice theory, it becomes possible to take certain measures that work against the specific thought process in order to reduce crime. Deterrent measures can, therefore, be taken to reduce crime. Efforts can be made to increase the traditional and novel costs of crime, which might result in the offender realising firstly that the cost of committing the planned crime is too high, thus not worth the risk, and secondly, that it would be better to refrain from committing the crime. Various

researchers (Bérubé, 2010:334; Rosbourgh, 2012:357) studied the deterrent effects of measures that were taken and implemented with success to reduce crime.

Bérubé (2010:334) focuses mostly on increasing risk and decreasing reward when considering crime prevention strategies. He researched the value of alarm systems and found that they are a deterrent to crime, and that crime rates dropped in areas where alarms have been installed. The reason for this phenomenon is that the alarm system increases the offender's risk of being apprehended. Considering the risk of being apprehended is one of the traditional costs that an offender weighs before committing an offence. According to Rosbough (2012:357), the rational choice theory was used as a baseline for improving aviation security measures at airports after the 9/11 intervention in the United States of America. Rosbough (2012:357) stated that "added security is designed to limit the choices individuals have in contemplating a criminal or terrorist act." Strict security changes were made at airports with the surety of apprehension, which resulted in a decrease of not only terrorist acts or hijackings, but crime in general (Rosbough, 2012:355).

Siegel (2011:92) emphasises six crime prevention strategies, namely:

- Increase the effort needed to commit crime
- Increase the risk of committing crime
- Reduce rewards of crime
- Induce guilt – increase shame
- Reduce provocation, and
- Remove excuses.

Agnew (2011:50) states that the best way to control crime is to increase its costs and reduce the benefits; increase the likelihood that crimes will be detected (e.g. increasing the number of street lights); increase the offenders' guilt by emphasising the harm caused to the victims by their actions, and increase the certainty and severity of punishment by the criminal justice system. Adding to this, Van Gelder (2013:750) states that some people are affected by post-decision emotions such as regret and disappointment, and would opt for action that minimises these emotions, which would serve as a deterrent against criminal action. The crime prevention strategy would therefore be to emphasise these feelings as one of the results of crime during crime awareness sessions.

In summary, it is clear that the basic principle of the rational choice theory, namely the weighing of costs and benefits by an offender before committing an offence, assists in creating deterrent measures that are used to ultimately reduce crime at various levels. A possible shortcoming in the rational choice theory is that there is not much focus on the motivation or information that caused an offender to take the decision to commit crime. Taking into account background detail concerning the offender's views before deciding to commit crime, is lacking in the rational choice theory. This shortcoming is addressed in the rehabilitation model, where fundamental points concerning the committing of crime focus on the personal background of the offender. The rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model complement each other in this study, based on the nature of assessments that were done with offenders upon admission in the DCS, where background information is crucial in formulating a correctional sentence plan. The value of the rational choice theory is reflected in rehabilitation programmes where an awareness concerning decision-making and the consequences of negative decisions are created amongst offenders. Both the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model aim at reducing crime, preventing re-offending and, ultimately, rehabilitating offenders.

2.3   THE REHABILITATION MODEL

According to Birzer and Roberson (2004:50), the rehabilitation model is based on two basic assumptions which is, firstly, that an offender's behaviour is related to particular personal defects, and secondly, that an offender can be effectively transformed into a law-abiding human being. This concurs with the conviction of the Department of Correctional Services "that every human being is capable of change and transformation if offered the opportunity and the necessary resources" ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, 2005:24). Bruyns (2007:101) states that there are a number of factors that tend to make people more prone to committing crime, such as poor career training, poor mental health, a low level of education, substance abuse, unemployment, unsatisfactory social life, inadequate housing, dysfunctional family and living in informal settlements. These causal factors form part of the rehabilitation model that has as premise that people commit crimes due to circumstances beyond their control. The rehabilitation model does not deny that people make a conscious choice to break the law, but it does assert that such choice is not a matter of pure free will – it is determined by or at least influenced by a person's social surroundings, psychological development or biological make up (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:50; Cullen & Jonson, 2012:25). Since rehabilitation assumes that crime results from personal deficiencies or maladjustment, Birzer and Roberson (2004:50) are of the opinion that attention

should therefore be focused on the individual criminal instead of the crime. For purposes of this study some light will be shed on defining, as well as exploring, the goals and principles of the rehabilitation model.

2.3.1   Defining the Rehabilitation Model

The rehabilitation model is defined by Raynor and Robinson (2005:5) as a model which "assumes that positive change can be brought about by subjecting offenders to particular interventions, programmes: with the right intervention, offenders can be brought into line with a law-abiding norm." Cullen and Jonson (2012:149) concur, and add that a rehabilitation model is "a planned correctional intervention that targets for change internal and/or social criminogenic factors with the goal of reducing recidivism and, where possible, improving other aspects of an offender's life." These authors state that their definition of rehabilitation contains five components, namely that intervention is undertaken by the correctional system; intervention is planned; it targets to change the factors that cause criminality; the main goal is to reduce recidivism, and the intervention may assist the offender with other improvements in his life.

It can be concluded that the rehabilitation model focuses on the offender as an individual and attempts to address personal causes of crime, which lie within the offender. This is explained as follows by Raynor and Robinson (2005:6): "…it is principally concerned with effecting change in offenders themselves … it is possible to isolate or identify the causes of offending – whether they are related to the offender's character, morality, personality, psychological make-up or choices – and then intervene in ways which will remove those causes".

2.3.2   Goals of the Rehabilitation Model

It is clear from literature (Cf. Cullen & Jonson, 2012:11; Ward & Maruna, 2008:67) that the rehabilitation model aims at changing the causal factors of crime, as Ward and Maruna (2008:67) stated: "In the rehabilitation perspective, the goal is to intervene so as to change those factors that are causing offenders to break the law. The assumption is made that, at least in part, crime is determined by factors (antisocial attitudes, bad companions, dysfunctional family life)". Cullen and Jonson (2012:11) furthermore state that the goal of the rehabilitation model is to use the correctional system to provide services to offenders that improve their lives through individualised treatment by means of determining what is wrong with them and to provide services aiming at curing the underlying ailment. The White Paper on Corrections in South

Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:25) indicates that the core objective of corrections is rehabilitation, and that the DCS focuses on needs-based intervention in order to reach its rehabilitative goals. Individualised treatment of offenders is practiced in the DCS through case management, which is a unit management principle. It is revealed in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:29), that "One primary objective of Corrections is to develop and operate correctional programmes that balance the concepts of deterrence and rehabilitation for individuals in correctional facilities. We maintain that unit management provides this balance." The Department of Correctional Services committed itself to rehabilitate offenders through the concept of unit management, which is in line with the goals of the rehabilitation model.

Ward and Maruna (2008:67) emphasise the role of rehabilitation in the safety of the public by indicating"…the primary aim of offender rehabilitation is to reduce the amount of harm inflicted on members of the public and on society by offenders." This aim of rehabilitation concurs with the mission of the DCS, which is as follows:

> "Contributing to a just, peaceful and safer South Africa through effective and humane incarceration of inmates and the rehabilitation and social reintegration of offenders" (DCS Strategic Plan, 2015:12).

The goal of the rehabilitation model is briefly summarised by Cullen and Jonson (2012:11), who states that the primary goal is to prevent re-offending – which is in line with the DCS mission to focus on protecting the society in order to make it a safer place. A peaceful and safer society can be maintained when re-offending is prevented. It is concluded that the goal of the rehabilitation model is to address those factors that cause an individual to commit crime and by doing that, preventing re-offending, improving the lives of offenders, and finally protecting the society.

2.3.3 Principles of the Rehabilitation Model

Principles of the rehabilitation model are summarised as follows:

- It seeks to produce social good in terms of improving the offender, reducing recidivism and increasing public safety (Cullen & Jonson, 2012:150).

- Causes and treatments are to be individualised (Cullen & Jonson, 2012:25).

- It embraces the idea that given the proper care and treatment, criminals can be changed into productive, law-abiding citizens (Siegel, 2011:404).

According to Cullen and Jonson (2012:166) and McKenzie (2006:59), there are four principles of effective intervention in the rehabilitation model. Each of these principles will be discussed briefly:

The first principle*: Interventions should target the known predictors of crime and recidivism for change. This is called the need principle.*

According to McKenzie (2006:59), interventions should target known predictors of crime and recidivism, also called criminogenic needs, which can be changed through rehabilitation programmes. The assumption is that correctional treatments should be based on criminological knowledge, where a distinction is made between two predictors that place offenders at risk for crime, namely static predictors and dynamic predictors.

Static predictors are factors that cannot be changed, e.g. the offender's criminal history, whereas dynamic predictors (criminogenic needs) are elements that caused the crime and that can be changed such as antisocial values, and dysfunctional family relationships (Cullen & Jonson, 2012:166). If these criminogenic needs could be met during interventions, it would contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders.

The second principle: *Treatment services should be behavioural in nature. This is called the responsivity principle.*

The responsivity concept refers to rehabilitation programme delivery in a style and mode consistent with the learning styles and abilities of the offenders (McKenzie, 2006:64). Cullen and Jonson (2012:167) state that cognitive behavioural interventions are effective when dealing with criminogenic factors of crime such as personality orientations, antisocial attitudes, associations, and cognitions through various techniques, for example role play, modeling, reinforcement, concrete verbal suggestions and other social learning techniques.

The third principle*: Treatment interventions should be used primarily with higher-risk offenders, targeting their criminogenic needs for change. This is called the risk principle.*

As stated by Cullen and Jonson (2012:168), not only low-risk offenders should be involved in intervention programmes but high-risk offenders as well, even though in the past they were seen as hardened criminals who are beyond redemption. High-risk offenders are capable of change and have a number of criminogenic factors to work with during interventions, meaning that they can change on different levels. McKenzie (2006:62) clarifies that treatment should be delivered to offenders at the highest risk of recidivism.

The fourth principle: *A range of other considerations, if addressed, will increase treatment effectiveness.*

Other factors that can play a role in successful intervention with reference to offenders are, according to Cullen and Jonson (2012:169), as follows:

- Intervention should not be conducted in an institutional setting but rather in the community.
- Personnel who are responsible for presenting intervention programmes should be well-trained, monitored and interpersonally sensitive.
- Aftercare is important – offenders should be given a structured relapse prevention programme.
- The learning styles of an offender should be taken into consideration when the intervention is chosen, in terms of understanding, motivation to attend the programme, depression and anxiety, amongst others.

Ward and Maruna (2008:67) stipulate a number of principles relevant to the rehabilitation model:

Firstly, offenders might vary with respect to their predisposition to commit crime: There is a range of variables (also referred to as criminogenic needs) such as interpersonal, psychological, social, situational, biological, cultural, and personal factors that are associated with offending behaviour. The assessment of offenders by clinicians is emphasised in order to ensure effective treatment as well as effective identification of needs.

Secondly, the severity of risk is assumed to co-vary with the number of criminogenic needs: The lower the risk factor of an offender, the fewer the criminogenic needs would be, whereas high risk offenders would probably display many criminogenic needs.

Thirdly, the most important treatment targets are those characteristics that research has associated with potentially reduced recidivism rates: The focus of this principle is that the scarce available resources should be utilised to address crime to the best effect, which means reducing the empirically established triggers of offending behaviour where possible.

Fourthly, the identification of risk factors and/or criminogenic needs is an empirical and therefore value-free process: This does not mean that values are not part of rehabilitation, but that the detection of risks and needs are value-free. Needs and/or risk identification should be done with rigor and appropriate research designs because the knowledge of causes of crime later on influences the effectiveness of treatment programmes.

Fifthly, individuals should be treated humanely and with the necessary ethics: It should not be assumed that the offender's welfare is unimportant in relation to the value of community safety.

Classical criminologists recognise that individuals are influenced by certain factors when deciding whether to engage in crime – it is influenced, but not fully determined, by forces beyond an individual's control (Agnew, 2011:46). In contrast, the rehabilitation model proposes that people commit crimes due to their circumstances, which are beyond their control (Agnew, 2011:46; Bartol & Bartol, 2014:4). Principles from both the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model have been utilised to underpin the aim of this study, in that the researcher agrees with the premise that rehabilitation could be enhanced in the DCS when offenders' rehabilitation needs, as well as the required skills needed by correctional officials to address those needs, can be identified. The rehabilitation model emphasises that in the first instance, criminogenic needs are causal factors of crime which should, within the context the study, become the identified rehabilitation needs of offenders. Meeting the rehabilitation needs of offenders through skilled correctional officials, within the framework of unit management, can result in the prevention of re-offending, which in turn would provide a safer society.

The rational choice theory principle of consideration of costs and benefits by the offender prior to committing crime was utilised to shape and answer the research questions in this research study. Participants were questioned about their participation in rehabilitation programmes,

specifically social work programmes, since these programmes focus mainly on the consequences of crime caused by poor decision-making. The rational theory provided the framework for the premise that correctional and professional correctional officials would be able to present rehabilitation programmes more effectively, which would result in offenders gaining more insight and understanding of the importance of their decision-making process when considering whether to commit crime or not.

In conclusion, the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model as theoretical framework strengthen the rehabilitative objective of the DCS as stated in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:76), that rehabilitation is achieved through interventions to change attitudes, behaviour and social circumstances.

2.4   SUMMARY

The theoretical framework of this study was highlighted in this chapter with emphasis on the rational choice theory as well as the rehabilitation model. Both the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model was discussed with focus on defining terms and principles. The rational choice theory, with its consideration of costs and benefits prior to committing a crime, as well as the rehabilitation model, which focuses on circumstances as a cause of criminal behaviour, was outlined as the theoretical framework for this study..

A literature review of the Department of Correctional Services follows in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Various objectives and goals have been set by the Department of Correctional Services (DCS), which include services to offenders, officials, and the community as a whole. The DCS strives to reach these goals through a range of philosophies and mechanisms that have been introduced, such as The White Paper on Corrections, The Annual Performance Plan (APP), Principles of service delivery, strategic planning sessions, the Code of Conduct, restorative justice, the mode of intervention, rehabilitation, and unit management (Bezuidenhout, 2011:84; DCS Annual Report, 2016:23; Mohajane, 1998:8; Sentle, 2002:14). Some of these strategies are still in the rolling-out process and others are already in place. The Department put in all these efforts with the aim of being competent at a worldwide level, thus being on par with the best prison environments worldwide.This study focuses on the role of rehabilitation and the implementation of unit management principles in the DCS, with the aim of contributing to the Department's vision and mission. It is clear from history, however, that prison development and competence were not always the aim of these institutions.

It can be concluded from literature (Brown et al., 2013:156; Day, 1997:114; Latessa, Listwan & Koetzle, 2014:2; Schwartz & Travis, 1997:20) that correctionsand rehabilitation did not originallyexistin European and other law systems when punishment was considered for crimes committed. According to Fattah (1997:192), Marsh (2011:5),as well as Carlson and Cervera (1992:3), crime during the Middle Ages was regarded as an offence against the victim, society, and also against divinity, that demanded expiation and retribution. Harsh and cruel punishments were given to guilty offenders because of the conception that crime was a transgression against God (Irwin& Austin, 1994:8). According to Brown, et al. (2013:156), death used to be the punishment for a variety of offences, and was carried outin public through methods such as burning at the stake.Stout, Yates and Williams (2008:69) statethat mutilation, torture, the gallows, hard labour, whipping, branding of body parts with a hot iron, and being tied to a wooden framework were punishments for less serious offences. Terrill (1999:163) explains that these methods were formulated from the English and French law and had an impact on other countries worldwide, such as Canada, Sweden, China and France. Fattah (1997:193) summarises the nature of the justice system during the said period as follows: "… justice was characterized by a total disregard for human rights or liberties, and the system of punishment was characterized by cruelty, barbarity, and lacked any respect for human dignity." Schwartz

andTravis (1997:20) contend that most societies did not see alternatives to banishment, corporal punishment (inflicting pain) or capital punishment (death) when dealing with offenders. It seems that the focus was mainly on punishment for the crime committed, rather than on correcting the human being in his/her functioning.

An example of the physical suffering endured by an offender can be found in the writings of Michel Foucault (1977), where he described the public torture and execution of Damiens, who was found guilty for attempting to murder King Louis XV. Foucault (1977:1) explained the condemnation as follows:

> On 1 March 1757 Damiens the regicide was condemned to make the amendhonourable before the main door of the Church of Pariswhere he was to be taken and conveyed in a cart, wearing nothing but a shirt, holding a torch of burning wax weighing two pounds; then, in the said cart, to the Place de Gréve, where, on a scaffold that will be erected there, the flesh will be torn from his breasts, arms, thighs, and calves with red-hot pincers, his right hand, holding the knife with which he committed the said parricide, burnt with sulphur, and, on those places where the flesh will be torn away, poured molten lead, boiling oil, burning resin, wax and sulphur melted together and then his body drawn and quartered by four horses and his limbs and body consumed by fire, reduced to ashes, and his ashes thrown to the winds.

This was a long and painful process because the horses were apparently not strong enough to quarter his body and alternative measures had to be taken to assist in cutting offhis limbs, and it is believed that he was still alive by the time of burning at the stake (Foucault, 1977:3). Focus of punishment was therefore on the physical level, aiming at inflicting pain to the perpetrator's body. No attention was given to possible rehabilitation or behavioural change in the offender.

By the 1800s public executions were viewed with scepticism and hangings were seen as being more likely to undermine public order than to reinforce social norms (Marsh, 2011:437; Matthews, 1999:3). It seems that towards the end of the eighteenth century public forms of punishment lost their legitimacy in England and other parts of Europe. Marsh (2011:286) and Matthews (2009:4) state that alongside those calling for the cessation of public hangings were those advocating the use of imprisonment as a more effective and appropriate form of punishment.

The times of change came towards the end of the 18th century when the focus was shifted from punishment to rehabilitation and when human rights and dignity were considered during the treatment of offenders (Zastrow, 2017:316).According to Duffy (1980:27), social work principles were introduced to the prison administration during 1870, which can be viewed as a changing era in the treatment of offenders. Rehabilitation of offenders was emphasised during the period 1920 until 1965. It was followed by a time during which negative criticism was formulated about the lacking effectiveness of rehabilitation and corrections moved to an era of re-integration and retribution (Schwartz & Travis, 1997:28).

In order to reach clarity on the motivation and underpinning for rehabilitation and unit management in the DCS, this chapter focuses on the historical development of imprisonment in general, as well as in South Africa. The development of rehabilitation is discussed in this chapter by emphasisingthe transformation that occurred in the DCS, specifically since 1990 and onwards.To create a clear understanding of corrections and how it developed in South Africa, an overviewis given to present a profile of the DCS, including the challenges that it faces, and a future perspective on the DCS is introduced. This chapter starts off with the historical development of punishment and imprisonment, since they are directly linked to each other.

3.2   PRISON DEVELOPMENT

Since the fourteenth century, jails, workhouses, and houses of correction were used to keep the poor, those awaiting trial and transportation, as well as debtors in confinement (Marsh, 2011:435). It was when the Prison Act of 1865 formally amalgamated jails and houses of correction that the resulting institution became known as the prison (Matthews, 2009:8). For the purpose of this study, the terms "prison" and "correctional centre" will refer to the buildings where sentenced offenders are detained in custody while serving an imprisonment sentence.

Imprisonment in jails, prisons, or penitentiariesseems to have been part of the sentencing history that served as one of various methods ofpunishment since the early ages, and it is continuing at present (Marsh, 2011:435; Priestley & Vanstone, 2010:5; Shichor, 1995:26;Terrill, 1999:584; Zastrow, 2017:316).It is clear from literature (cf. Irwin & Austin, 1994:8; Siegel, 2003:595) that there is a difference between the meaning of the terms 'jail' and 'prison', which can be explained as follows: "A jail is a place to detain people awaiting trial, hold drunks and disorderly individuals, and confine convicted misdemeanants serving sentences of less than one year. A prison is a state or federal correctional institution for incarceration of felony offenders for terms

of one year or more." Therefore, in keeping withSiegel, the term 'penitentiary' can be used as a synonym for 'prison'. According to Stout, Yates and Williams (2008:69) a prison can be defined as a building to which people are legally committed for custody while awaiting trial or punishment.

Latessa et al. (2014:2) explain that methods of punishment during the fifteenth century included execution, mutilation, and flogging, with no mention of incarceration. Matthews (2009:6) indicatesthat by the law of James 1 in 1609 it became obligatory for all English counties to provide 'houses of correction' that functioned as a prison, and jails had been used since the fourteenth century to hold debtors until they were able to pay their debts. Werner (1990:7) concurs that prisons existed prior to the seventeenth century and states that it served a different function, which is as follows: "Imprisonment was used most commonly as a method of holding those awaiting corporal or, more probably capital punishment … individuals who refused to plead when accused, … individual debtors, whom when raising the required money were set free … and political incarceration." Hester and Eglin (2017:233) agree that jails were only used to hold people until their fines were paid. It was during the seventeenth century that law violators were drafted to the 'Houses of Correction' where inmates were forced to work and thus develop the economic industries, during a time of labour shortage; for example Bridewell, which was the first house of correction established in 1553 in London (Marsh, 2011:435).

It is derived from literature (Marsh, 2011:435; Shabangu, 2006:18; Terrill, 1999:72; Zastrow, 2017:314) that prison conditions prior to the 20th century were deplorable and intolerable. Conditions that prevailed in prisons during 1700 to 1850 include the following: the young were placed with hardened criminals; men and women were kept together, resulting in sexual orgies; liquor was used; gambling took place; corporal punishment was frequently dealt out; there was a general lack of sanitary conditions, light and air; impure drinking water led to illnesses; disease was common and security officers often exhibited personal lewdness. (Cf. Latessa et al., 2014:156; Stout, Yates & Williams, 2008:69; Terrill 1999:72; Zastrow, 2017:314.) Day (1997:114) continues to describe the prison conditions during the 16th century as follows: "Conditions were worse than any other kind of institution, for the only law was that of the jailer. People suffered from filth, cold, disease, attacks by other inmates, or the brutality of the jailers …liquor was always available … clubs and whipping were used freely, and excrement was left to accumulate in the sleeping cells". Jails had not been designed for work, nor were they intended to reform the offender (Terrill, 1999:73, 163).

Evangelically-minded prison reformers, such as John Howard (1777) and Elizabeth Fry (1826), campaigned to rid the prisons of these bad conditions and abuse and proposed the 'well-ordered prison' (Marsh, 2011:286; Matthews, 2009:8; Stout et al., 2008:70). The Prison Act of 1865 inEngland formally amalgamated the jail andthe house of correction, and the resulting institution became known as a prison. Latessa et al. (2014:3) confirm the emergence of the penitentiary in England in the early 1800s, which would seemingly assist the offender in his/her reformation through punishment, not rehabilitation (Garland, 1987:9; Marsh, 2011:435; Terrill, 1999:163.)

In another part of the world, the United States of America, according to Latessa et al. (2014:3) as well as Schwartz and Travis (1997:23), two types of penitentiaryexisted that were quite dissimilar in design and daily routine. These authors continue by explaining that the Pennsylvania penitentiary operated on the "segregated system", while the New York institution at Auburn was run on the "silent system". The segregated system implied that offenders were housed individually in separate cells where they would work, eat, sleep and exercise in isolation (Marsh, 2011:437). The silent system meant that although strict silence was maintained, offenders ate and worked in groups, and it was only at night that they were placed in separate cells (Latessa et al., 2014:3; Schwartz &Travis, 1997:23). These authors concluded that due to the cost-effectiveness of the silent system, it became the prototype penitentiary in the United States of America.

In 1790 the Walnut Street Jail was built in Pennsylvania, according to Patterson (2012:78) as well as Werner (1990:13), and in 1835 the first Canadian penitentiary was established in Ontario. These served as institutions for repentance, penitence and rehabilitation of sentenced males. These objectives were supposed to be met by solitary confinement and hard labour, since the penitentiary concept was based on "workhouses" (Latessa et al., 2014:3). The offenders had to spend all their time in quiet solitude, thinking penitently about the crimes that they committed in order to be cleansed and repented (Irwin & Austin, 1994:8; Shichor, 1995:27; Stout et al., 2008:70). Werner (1990:13) explains it as follows: "… prisoners were to be isolated from the moment of incarceration until the day of release. The prison would serve to break all ties the inmate had – the inmate was not permitted even family contact…The prisoner would only have personal contact with the chaplain or religious instructor … The only reading material allowed the prisoner was the Bible." According to Day (1997:179), penitentiaries were the beginning of the idea that treatment rather than punishment alone could rehabilitate criminals.

The penitentiary movement did not last long, according to Schwartz and Travis (1997:25), because those running the new prisons forgot that the prison was a means to an end. Rather, they viewed confinement as an end in itself, equating incarceration with reformation. The use of severe corporal punishment returned, aiming at maintaining order in the institutions (Marsh, 2011:437). Werner (1990:16) describes the consequences of solitary confinement in the following manner: "Absolute isolation proved, in the terminology of the times, 'harmful' to individual prisoners…many cases of mental breakdown was reported." According to Children and the State (2002:1), the isolatory penitentiary created cruel and unusual mental consequences, leading to the prison reform movement that started around 1830. Although prisons focused on more humane treatment without physical abuse and incarceration without recreation, rehabilitation was rare. Day (1997:179) explains it as follows: "…the inmate power system – a hierarchy among the prisoners based on force – taught criminality much more effectively that prison officials taught rehabilitation." It seems that even though the penitentiary movement initiated the idea that offending behaviour could be changed, the environment was not conducive for rehabilitation to occur.

Hester and Eglin (2017:233) explain that the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries saw the birth of the Industrial Revolution. This was a time of change in the economy, because the need for labour declined due to production being mechanised. There was therefore a change in the prison system, because there was no longer a need for forced labour. Garland (1987:6) agrees that imprisonment became popular during the eighteenth century, by stating that the main penal sanctions legally authorised from 1865 to 1895 were death; penal servitude; imprisonment; detention in a reformatory school; corporal punishment; release on recognisance; payment of a fine; and detention inan industrial school. Imprisonment was seemingly introduced to the European countries during the late eighteenth century when punishment of inmates became the focus.

The prison system changed from creating labour opportunities by exploiting the inmates, to exposing inmates to harsh regimes for disciplining purposes, following routines and learning submission to authority. Work became a means of punishment, prisoners had to carry stones from one place to another, operate pumps which returned flowing water to its source, use treadmills, and grind pebbles into sand (Hester & Eglin, 2017:236). It can thereforebe concluded that the functions of prisons changed according to the economic situation at a specific time. During times of labour shortage, prisoners were exploited to work in order to contribute to the

economy. When the labour shortage disappeared and factories were mechanised, prisoners had no need to work for economical gain anymore, but for punishment and discipline.

The Humanistic approach developed during reforms in the 1800s, and was characterised by a new conception of human nature, according to Marsh (2011:436), such as that the individual is a rational and hedonistic being who should be left free to act, to choose between right and wrong, and between good and bad (Fattah, 1997:193). According to Birzer and Roberson (2004:29) and Terrill (1999:73), prominent leaders responsible for reforms were John Howard, Fielding, Cesare Beccaria, Jeremy Bentham, William Eden, and Samuel Romilly. Capital punishment was reduced to offences such as murder. Imprisonment became a more popular alternative as a sentence option (Garland, 1987:6; Schwartz & Travis, 1997:22; Werner, 1990:20). Reformers agreed to deter and isolate offenders, but were also concerned about efforts of rehabilitation (Terrill, 1999:73). Rehabilitation is one of the main focus areas of the DCS in present times. This is stated by Sentle (2002:14) as follows: "Hence the Department of Correctional Services is placing rehabilitation at the centre of all its activities and views it as a long-term goal to crime prevention and as a potential to eliminate recidivism."

It was towards the end of the 18th century that prisons became more specialised, and separate institutions were built for youthful offenders, women, and insane people (Zastrow, 2017:316). The first separate institution, according to Schwartz andTravis (1997:28), was built during 1873 in Indiana, based on the reformatory model where attempts were made to teach skills to encourage positive values to women, amongst others. These authors state that the rehabilitative ideal emerged, and treatment became the dominant goal of corrections and of criminal sentencing. Stout et al. (2008:71) confirm that since the emergence of the modern prison in the late 18th century, its intent has been to fulfil a number of roles, such as incapacitation, punishment, deterrence, reform and rehabilitation. Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:51), as well as Schwartz and Travis (1997:28), are of the opinion that the Rehabilitation Era was during the early years of the twentieth century, from about 1920 until the 1960s. It was during this time thatfields of practice developed, such as social work, psychology, the medical model and education, all aimed at implementing rehabilitation programmes in prisons (Latessa et al., 2014:5). The focus seems to have shifted from punishment and control to treatment, privileges, counselling and development. According to Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:54) and Latessa et al. (2014:6), prison violence and drug abuse (marijuana) escalated during the Rehabilitation Era, which caused the rehabilitative ideal to fail. These authors explain it as follows: "Violence in prisons had escalated, administrators had been powerless or unwilling to manage their prisons,

the public was indifferent, and rehabilitation had not received sufficient support because of a lack of understanding of rehabilitative goals by all concerned, including the inmates" (Stojkovic&Lovell, 1997:54). It appears that disciplining offenders during the Rehabilitation Era was not effective, because offender behaviour was not improved.

According to Terrill (1999:164), concerns were raised during the 1960s about the effectiveness of treatment and rehabilitation in the correctional setting. In Canada it was acknowledged that incarceration had a role to play as a crime prevention measure, and should take precedence over the rehabilitative objective. Prison populations increased heavily during the 1970s, according to Schwartz and Travis (1997:31). This ledto overcrowding in prisons, which was an indication that rehabilitation might be ineffective. The Punishment model was re-created since the Rehabilitation Era was considered unsuccessful (Stojkovic & Lovell, 1997:55; Schwartz & Travis, 1997:32).

In summary, a combination of the different eras of prison development and corrections according to various sources (Latessa et al., 2014:3; Marsh, 2004:62; Schwartz and Travis, 1997:23) can be presented as follows:

Table 3.1: Eras of prison development and corrections

SOURCE	ERA	PERIOD	FOCUS POINTS
Marsh (2004:62)	Early History: before the 'Bloody Code'	Medieval times 1400 – 1700	• Guided by dominant religious and political beliefs of the day. • Prisons were used for accommodating pre-trial offenders, not as a punishment as such. • A high number of executions took place of those who rebelled against the reign of people in government, e.g. Catholic Mary 1 and Elizabeth 1.
Marsh (2004:62)	The eighteenth century and the 'Bloody Code'	1700 – 1800	• High population growth. • Considerable social, political, and economical change. • Passing of the Black Act in 1723 – it created about fifty new capital offences. This resulted in the 18th century being

			referred to as the time of the 'Bloody Code', because of the high number of capital punishment executions.
SOURCE	**ERA**	**PERIOD**	**FOCUS POINTS**
Schwartz and Travis (1997:23) Latessa et al. (2014:3)	The Reform Era	1870 – 1920	• The introduction of probation and parole, that took years to be accepted. • The development of community-based corrections for women. • Separate correctional facilities for women, that were supervised and staffed by women only.
Marsh (2004:62)	The late eighteenth century and beyond	Late 1800	• A turning point of great importance in punishment practices. • The decline of capital punishment. • Public displays of hanging and ritual disembowelment were abandoned. • The rise of the modern prison.
Schwartz and Travis (1997:23) Latessa et al. (2014:4)	The Rehabilitation Era	1920 – 1965	• The growth of social sciences, such as social work and psychology, resulted in correctional personnel being able to implement rehabilitation programmes. • The purpose of corrections was redefined to focus on diagnosing criminal pathologies and providing treatment to overcome the ill effects thereof. • Counselling and treatment of offenders. • Rehabilitation was highlighted as the goal of the correctional process.
Schwartz and Travis (1997:23)	The Reintegration Era	1965 – 1975	• Offenders were to be seen as full participants in the correctional process, not only subjects of well-intentioned rehabilitation programmes. • Formulation of offender's rights.

SOURCE	ERA	PERIOD	FOCUS POINTS
Schwartz and Travis (1997:23)	The Retribution Era	1975 – present	• Increase in prisoner numbers – more offenders were placed in prisons. • Purpose of sentence is to punish – treatment programmes are in operation, but corrections support a retributive policy.

3.3   HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PRISONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

When determining the historical development of prisons in South Africa, itseems to be relevant to start at the discovery of the country. In 1652 Jan van Riebeeck established the first houses in South Africa, in what is known today as Cape Town. According to Bernault (2003:7), South Africa presents a fascinating exception to the development of the modern penitentiary South of the Sahara, because the penal prison emerged at the very beginning of the century, closely following the prison reform movements in Europe and America. Prison as concept was seemingly not exported to this country by colonisers at the end of the nineteenth century, as happened in other African countries such as Nigeria or Kenya. (Bernault, 2003:98.) This might be due to the influence of Jan Van Riebeeck, in the seventeenth century already. It appears that offenders from that era were treated and punished in similar fashion to those in other parts of the world.

Monograph No 29: Correcting Corrections (2007:1), Giffard (1999:16) and Shabangu (2006:19) agree that punishment for offenders was directed at the body, such as public executions by firing squads, or crucifixions. Bernault (2003:8) confirms the measure of punishment by stating that "at the end of the Dutch occupation in the Cape, rudimentary jails and a policy of deportation, torture and public punishment applied to all offenders." Five years later, in 1657, Jan van Riebeeck utilised Robben Island, according to Singh (2005:17), as a place of banishment for exiles and slaves, and started with mass deportation to the island and also to other Dutch colonies in the East. Imprisonment was not a first choice of punishment until the first British occupation, in 1795, which resulted in a decline of physical punishment to offenders, when the British governor, following the European penal reform movement, replaced physical punishment in the colony with prison sentences (Bernault, 2003:8). Though physical punishment to offenders was reduced and replaced with imprisonment, the conditions inside prisons were bad because of overpopulation, small prisons and people kept incarcerated for minor offences; as Singh

(2005:18) states, "During this period the whole prison system was extremely disorganised with no reference whatsoever to rehabilitation."

In 1807 the slave trade was abolished and penal policy soon started to be developed in the Cape (Giffard, 1999:16; Monograph No 29: Correcting Corrections, 2007:3).Colonial administrators were instructed to move in line with the changes in England; incarceration should be considered for a fixed period, depending on the nature of the specific offence (Giffard, 1999:16, Singh, 2005:18). This affected the penal system in the Cape; the supply of labour suffered, because slavery was a form of imprisonment. Slaves used to work on farms and in the diamond mines. In an attempt to solve this problem, a pass system was introduced during 1809, for indigenous inhabitants who were put to work as prisoners when they abused the system. (Giffard, 1999:16; Bernault, 2003:8).Bernault (2003:9) states that prisons in the Cape underwent a major reform during 1843 under the new secretary, John Montagu. According to Van Zyl Smit (2005:5), the colonial administrator, Montagu, played a remarkable role in the establishment of the first coherent prison system in the Cape. He improved the detainees' diet, access to education, and supervision. Since he was inspired by the reformers' ideals in Europe and in the United States, he emphasised the reformatory role of the prison and the importance of penal labour.

Prisoners would therefore work, as confirmed by Singh (2005:20),at harbours, for example constructing the breakwater around the Cape Town harbour from 1852 to 1870, build roads, and work at the diamond mines, which resulted in a reduction of labour costs to the mines, specifically to De Beers Diamond Mining Company, which was the first private organisation to employ convicts for labour during 1885 (Bernault, 2003:9; Monograph No 29: Correcting Corrections, 2007:3;[RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:46). It was by the late 1880s that the state started to implement racial discrimination in prisons. The separation included physical separation between black and white inmates, different diets, and different labour expectations. Bernault (2003:9) explains that black detainees were forced to do hard labour, while white detainees had access to skills training. This resulted in John Montagu's vision of rehabilitation to be divided into hard labour for blacks and reformative treatment for whites. According to Dissel (2002:1), the penal system was used to regulate the movement and labour of black people, because pass-law breakers served to increase the supply of available labour. These offenders were incarcerated for pass-law violations, not for criminal acts in the true sense of the word. This kind of prison labour continued for decades, because black people continued to be incarcerated for pass offences and failing to pay taxes.

Prison conditions in South Africa were directly affected by the political changes in the country since the beginning of 1990 (Prison Conditions in South Africa, 2007:1). Various developments occurred in the Prisons' Department from 1908 to 1958, according to a number of references (A Brief History of Corrections in South Africa, 1999:22; DCS Historical Perspective, 2003:1; DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa, 2017:1; Singh, 2005:21; [RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:47), which can be summarised as follows:

- Jacob De Villiers Roos was appointed Director of Prisons in the Transvaal in 1908.
- The Prisons and Reformatories Act, Act 13 of 1911, was developed after the unification of South Africa; a Department of Prisons was instituted as well.
- Indeterminate sentences were introduced for persons declared habitual criminals by the court.
- The release of a prisoner on probation – directly, or to a period in a work colony, was introduced.
- Sentences could now be remitted for a set proportion of the sentence, but subject to good conduct.
- There was much talk about rehabilitation, but very little actually materialised.
- Hard prison labour was practiced.
- Harsh punishment was introduced for further transgressions within the prison, like the number of strokes, ranging from six strokes to 24 strokes for a male offender up to the age of 60 years. Other forms of punishment included solitary confinement, dietary punishment, and additional labour.
- The practice of racial segregation was enforced throughout the prison system.
- Industrial schools and reformatories were removed from the jurisdiction of the Prisons Department.
- Personnel were able to manage a prison. Personnel were divided into two groups: Firstly those in managerial positions, that formed part of the administrative section of the civil service, and secondly those who formed part of the disciplinary group, who wore uniform and could not be promoted to managerial positions. The manager and assistant manager of a prison would report to the Prisons Head Office situated in the Union Buildings. For a period of 41 years the posts at Head Office were filled by civilian officials. Van Zyl Smit (2005:11) addsthat black prison officers were the subordinates of whites, no matter what their rank.

- The first training of personnel (warders) started in 1913, when a course would cover a period of three months.

According to Giffard (1999:18), the demand for prison labour increased; the concept of prisoners working on farms at a very low cost was implemented during the depression of the 1930s. Monograph No 29: Correcting Corrections (2007:3) states: "The farmers paid the government a certain amount per convict, and built prison outstations where the prisoners were housed and fed at their own expense." Bernault (2003:10) confirms the farmers' involvement in black labour by stating that 1948 was the time of the establishment of farm-jails, where offenders serving a period exceeding two years' imprisonment would be housed in a facility constructed on the farm, at the cost of the farmer, to ensure sufficient prison labour.

In 1959 new prison legislation was introduced, still based on apartheid and the racial segregation of prisons, not only between blacks and whites, but also segregation between ethnic groups (Giffard, 1999:20; Monograph No 29: Correcting Corrections, 2007:1; Prison Conditions in South Africa, 2007:1, Singh, 2005:22).According to A Brief History of Corrections in South Africa(1999:25),and Singh (2005:23),the 1959 Act took cognisance of the United Nations Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners as far as rehabilitation was concerned, but it seemingly disregarded issues such as corporal punishment, that was still implemented in the case of disciplinary offences. The number of strokes was reduced to seven, however, and the maximum age of a male offender who could receive this punishment was reduced from sixty to fifty years. The Act was amended to such an extent that the Commissioner of Prisons was given absolute power to grant or withdraw privileges without explaining his actions to any person (Singh, 2005:24), though it was based on "the policy of apartheid and entrenched the racial separation of prisons."Dissel (2002:1) explains the prison policy during the apartheid era as follows: "Criminal behaviour and punishment were defined by the social order constructed by the apartheid government. Many people were sent to prison for apartheid-related offences, such as contravening the Group Areas Act or the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act, or for opposing apartheid from the 1960s onwards."

The apartheid government decided to open a maximum security prison on Robben Island on 1 April 1961, after the Sharpeville massacre and the subsequent ban of the ANC and the PAC, with the aim of deporting political prisoners to the island (Bernault, 2003:10, Singh, 2005:25).

Prisons in South Africa developed from the British military system, and the rank structure and methods used followed the militaristic approach. These prisons became known for detaining high profile political offenders, especially in the 1980s, due to the political situation in the country (DCS Historical Perspective, 2003:1; Giffard, 1999:25). This, seemingly, was a time where prisons became closed institutions with no transparency to the outside world. As it is stated in the DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa (2017:1), "…closed the prison system off from inspection by outsiders by prohibiting reporting and publishing of photographs. This served to entrench a relatively closed institutional culture within the prisons service, which resulted in a tendency for the norms of prison law to be relatively remote from daily practice". In 1984 the Judicial Commission of Inquiry into the Structure and Functioning of the Courts queried the overcrowding that was evident in prisons due to the high demand for prison labour where after the utilisation of prisoners in agricultural labour was terminated, which resulted in the farm prisons closing down, and on the other hand the pass laws were abolished in 1986 (A Brief History of Corrections in South Africa, 1999:26; [RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:49).

Singh (2005:28) holds the premise that political changes in the country affected the prison system and that the restructuring and reforming process in the Department of Correctional Services started after the release of the late Mr Nelson Mandela and the unbanning of the ANC in the early 1990s. On2 February 1990, President F.W. De Klerk unbanned the ANC and released political offenders (Prison Conditions in South Africa, 2007:1; A Brief History of Corrections in South Africa, 1990:26;DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa 2017:2).Amongst the preconditions set by the ANC for the beginning of formal negotiations with the government, were "…the release of all political prisoners, that is, prisoners convicted under South Africa's draconian security legislation before it was reformed…in total, approximately 1 600 security prisoners had been released by late 1993" (Prison Conditions in South Africa, 2007:2). It resulted in a name change for the Department, as well as amendments to the Prisons Act of 1959 where apartheid and segregation were abolished in the prison system, with the inclusion of offenders and officials (Singh, 2005:29). The Prison Service was separated from the Department of Justice, and was renamed the Department of Correctional Services (A Brief History of Corrections in South Africa, 1999:26; DCS Historical Perspective, 2003:2;Monograph No 29: Correcting Corrections, 2007:1;Prison Conditions in South Africa, 2007:2).

It is apparent that the Department of Correctional Services developed tremendously since 1994. The progress made, as discussed in a variety of literature (Brief History of Corrections in South Africa, 1999:28; Giffard, 1999:36; DCS Historical Perspective, 2003:2; Singh, 2005:30; DCS The History of Transformationof the Correctional System in South Africa 2006:2; Unit Management in Prisons: Briefing by National Commissioner, 2001:1; Van Zyl-Smit, 2005:12), can be summarisedas follows:

- The Public Service Labour Relations Act of 1993 was made applicable to the DCS on 10 February 1994.
- On 27 April 1994 the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa was introduced. Applicable to the DCS is Section 25, where the constitutional rights of a detained, arrested, or accused person are stipulated.
- On 21 October 1994, a White Paper on the Policy of the DCS recognised the fact that the legislative framework of the Department should provide the foundation for a correctional system appropriate to a constitutional state which is based on the principles of freedom and equality.
- In May 1995 a process started for the development of a National Crime Prevention Strategy.
- In 1995 the death penalty was repealed.
- On 4 February 1996 the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa replaced the interim Constitution. Section 35 of the new Constitution is applicable to the DCS.
- The DCS demilitarised on 1 April 1996.
- The new Correctional Services Act, Act 111 of 1998, was introduced in 1998.
- The Parole and Correctional Supervision Amendment Act, Act 87 of 1997, made provision for the establishment of a new release policy, as well as the introduction of the new independent parole boards.
- The introduction of the Judicial Inspectorate and Independent Prison Visitors.

Summarising the main events in the history of Correctional Services, the DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa 2006:2 points out that the Department of Correctional Services was founded in 1911, as the Prisons Department. Military ranks were accepted by this department during 1955, which was renamed the South African Prisons Service (SAPS) in 1959; and again during 1990, when it was named the Department of

Correctional Services. The ranks and military image of the Department was abandoned during 1996.

3.4 AN OVERVIEW OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

It is clear from history that the Department of Correctional Services came a long way and that transformation, development, and progress are the priorities set in orderto achieve the ideal of a successful and effective correctional system in South Africa. In order to realise this objective, numerous discussions, meetings, workshops and conferences were held, where various documents were developed for implementation in the Department of Correctional Services.

To obtain a clear understanding of the path that DCS has taken over the past century, it is necessary to focus on some highlights and contributions made by former Correctional Services leaders. These highlights and contributions shaped the DCS into what it is today and determined the course of future progress. One of the former Ministers of Correctional Services, Mr Ben Skosana, declared the aim of the Department of Correctional Services in the then DCS Annual Report (2002:5) to be as follows: "… to contribute to maintaining and protecting a just, peaceful, and safe society, by enforcing sentences of the courts in a manner prescribed by the law." The subsequent Minister of Correctional Services, the late Mr Ngconde Balfour, confirmed this in his foreword to the 2004 DCS Annual Report, by stating that a sound basis has been established to correct offending behaviour and to establish a policy framework which recognises the duty of the Department of Correctional Services to respect the human dignity of offenders and to rehabilitate them, whilst ensuring the safety of the public through carrying out court rulings relating to the incarceration of individuals(DCS Annual Report, 2004:5).

In his Budget Vote speech on 15 June 2004, the late Minister Balfour explained the aim of DCS: "…correction and rehabilitation is ultimately aimed at protecting the safety and security of the public." The minister further emphasised that the Department of Correctional Services was committed to a cleansed, trained, and dedicated management corps; the consolidation of relations between managers and their staff in order to form the team necessary to deliver on rehabilitation; an enhanced ability to immediately investigate, prosecute and deliver appropriate sanction to any allegation of corruption; and delivery of the Department's core services (Budget Vote - SA Corrections Today, 2004:10). In the 2005 DCS Annual Report (2005:5), the Minister described the objective of the DCS as building a correctional system based on correction, human rights, and rehabilitation. Minister Balfour built on the basis that was established before, by stating in

the 2008 DCS Annual Report (2008:7) that he was confident that the DCS was on course because of the continued strengthening of the foundations that were laid through documents such as the review of the Criminal Justice System, the amendment of the Correctional Services Act, the new parole policy and the management of remand detention. Key terms identified from the aforementioned contributions are, amongst others: Protecting a just, peaceful, and safe society; enforcing sentences; respecting the human dignity of offenders; to rehabilitate, to correct, but also to ensure the safety of the public. These key terms can be described as building blocks in the progress made by the DCS that contributed to the correction and rehabilitation of offenders accommodated in its system. The Department of Correctional Services renders a multitude of services, and strives to contribute to the protection and stability of the South African community, that is its priority client.

The next Minister of Correctional Services, Ms Mapisa-Nqakula, stated in her first DCS Annual Report (2009:6) that it is evident that the DCS has developed during the previous five years, mainly because of progress made in key areas such as strategic planning, policy development and the formulation of the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa. Two years later, in her foreword to the 2011 DCS Annual Report (2011:11), the Minister indicated that the DCS was not yet where she would have hoped it to be concerning management and performance information; however, she mentioned that there were a number of improvement strategies in place. The slow progress made in the DCS can be confirmed by the following statement by Stout, Yates and Williams (2008:72), that: "It must be recognised that our prison system is extremely slow to respond to change." Step by step changes are occurring in the DCS, even though it takes time and effort from all involved.

The former Minister of the DCS, Mr Sibusiso Mndebele, formulated a streamlined vision and mission for the Department, with the vision stated in the DCS Strategic plan (2013/2014-2016/2017:8) as the National Commissioner mobilised support for the Department's amended vision as follows: "Providing the best Correctional Services for a safer society", and the mission: "Contributing to a just, peaceful and safer South Africa through effective and humane incarceration of inmates, rehabilitation and social reintegration of offenders." If the DCS can implement the effective humane incarceration of inmates, contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders, as well as assist in their social reintegration, then society would be a safer place. The current Minister of Justice and Correctional Services, Advocate Michael Mosotho, indicated that during the 2016/2017 financial year the DCS will "accelerate delivery, and place humane and

safe detention at the forefront of our work to rehabilitate and successfully reintegrate offenders which will result in the reduction of repeat offending" (DCS Annual Report, 2016:12).

It appears relevant to focus on some of these documents in order to create an understanding of the vision and the future of the DCS in South Africa. Applicable documents would be the Correctional Services Act, the White paper on Corrections in South Africa, the Vision and Mission statement of the DCS, Core Values of the DCS, and service delivery.

3.4.1. Department of Correctional Services Act

The Correctional Services Act, Act 111 of 1998, departs from the previous Act, Act No 8 of 1959, in that it is based on the Constitution of South Africa, and it reveals internationally acceptable standards. The three main purposes of the correctional system highlighted in the Act are as follows: Firstly, to enforce the sentences of the court in a manner prescribed by the Correctional Services Act; secondly, to detain all people in safe custody whilst ensuring their human dignity, and thirdly, to promote the social responsibility and human development of all offenders (DCS Annual Report, 2016:23; Dissel, 2002:2). Some of the most important features of the Correctional Services Act (Act 111 of 1998), according to Dissel (2002:2), Dissel and Muntingh (2003:6), DCS Historical Perspective (2003:2), DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa (2017:4), and The White Paper on Corrections in SA ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:57) are the following:

- Incorporation of the values in the Bill of Rights, and prescription of a new approach to imprisonment, meaning the entrenchment of the fundamental rights of offenders.
- Recognition of international principles on correctional matters and establishment of certain mandatory minimum rights applicable to all prisoners.
- Introduction of a new disciplinary system for offenders.
- Provision for education, training, and social and psychological services.
- Special emphasis on the rights of women and children.
- Provision of a framework for treatment, development and support services.
- Provision of public and private sector partnerships in terms of the building and operating of correctional centres.
- Provision of various safeguards regarding the use of segregation and of force.
- Adoption of a refined community-involved release policy.
- Extensive external monitoring mechanisms.

It is certain that the Correctional Services Act (Act 111 of 1998) placed the DCS in line with modern correctional practice acceptable internationally. The challenge that awaits the DCS would be to ensure that the new legislation is implemented to the fullest, is upheld, and is enforced.

3.4.2   The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa

During October 1994, shortly after the 1990 paradigm-shift in the DCS, a White Paper, entitled 'White Paper on the Policy of the Department of Correctional Services in the New South Africa', was introduced. According to Giffard (1999:33), this White Paper did acknowledge the fundamental rights of offenders, but it failed to address the problems that were evident in the correctional system. The then Commissioner of Correctional Services explained in his preamble to The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:10), that the Cabinet approved the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa in November 2004 to replace the 1994 White Paper. In February 2005 a new and updated White Paper was introduced to the Department of Correctional Services, entitled 'The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa.' The new White Paper arose out of a need for a long-term strategic policy and operational framework that recognises corrections as a societal responsibility, and to gear the DCS for all its rehabilitative activities.

The former Minister of Correctional Services, Mr B.M.N. Balfour, stated in his foreword address to The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:7), that "the White Paper represents the final break with a past archaic penal system and ushers in a start to our second decade of freedom, where prisons become correctional centres of rehabilitation and offenders are given new hope and encouragement to adopt a lifestyle that will result in a second chance towards becoming the ideal South African citizen."The Minister added that the fundamentals of the White Paper were derived from the Constitution of 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) and the Correctional Services Act, (Act 111 of 1998). This is confirmed in the Department of Correctional Services Annual Report (2005:9) by the following statement: "The implementation of the White Paper will ensure a fundamental break with the last vestiges of the penal system of the past, and ushers in an era where the emphasis will be focused on correcting offending behaviour, including the care and development of offenders, in an environment that is safe and secure. It also promotes corrections as a societal responsibility with families and communities being the respective primary and secondary levels of correction of behaviour." In the Correctional Services the adoption of the White Paper was viewed as the dawning of a new

era, which caused excitement amongst officials, because there was some clarity on the direction the Department would take, as well as what the expectations entailed for officials.

The presuppositions of The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:36) are as follows:

- It accepts the constitutional imperatives as laid down by the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The Constitution provides for a detention system based on the Bill of Rights that defines a human rights environment within which the Department should operate. O'Toole and Eyland (2005:66) add that "Human rights in corrections practice the balance between the State's obligation to protect the public from crime and criminals, while ensuring respect for the humanity and dignity of prisoners, the provision of humane conditions in prisons and the legitimate deprivation of liberty."
- Interaction with the Integrated Justice System Cluster and Social Sector Cluster at both provincial and area level is of utmost importance.
- It provides the policy framework for departmental legislation and policy development. To bring about the White Paper implementation plan, a process of policy alignment, identification of subordinate policy gaps, and a legislative review will be necessary.
- It ensures consistency in the use of current terminology used in the Correctional Services Act. It also ensures user-friendly terminology.
- It serves to define the relationship between the DCS within the system of governance and oversight.
- It provides a framework for the understanding of the philosophy and role of corrections in the democratic South Africa.
- It contains high-level general policy principles that guide the making of laws, the administration, and executive actions of the DCS, and form its relations with other government departments and organisations in civil society.
- It places an obligation of compliance and reporting on the DCS, because of its Constitutional mandate, which implies that certain instruments related to human rights need to be implemented, in order to monitor the DCS's compliance with national and international standards.

In summary, the White Paper can be described as a document that outlines the new strategic direction of the Department, with rehabilitation at the centre of all its activities – and one in which the Department strives to make a fundamental contribution to corrections at societal level.

It summarises the underlying philosophy and the strategic and operational plan for this new correctional system, and also provides a framework comprising key steps required to establish the system (DCS Annual Report, 2016:25; [RSA], Ministry of Correctional Services, 2005:13).

3.4.3   Vision and Mission Statement

The vision and the mission statement appear in nearly all the official documents and reports of the Department of Correctional Services as part of the introduction. The reason for this might be to remind all officials who read official material about the direction in which this Department is heading, and to assist with the paradigm shift from the previously security-conscious Correctional Services to the present security and rehabilitation-conscious Correctional Services. The vision and mission of the Department of Correctional Services are formulated as follows (DCSAnnual Report, 2016:23; DCS National Strategic Human Resource Plan, 2017:23):

VISION

"Providing the best Correctional Services for a safer South Africa."

MISSION

"Contributing to a just, peaceful and safer South Africa through effective and humane incarceration of inmates and the rehabilitation and social reintegration of offenders."

3.4.4   Key objectives of the correctional system

The **purpose** of the correctional system is to contribute to maintaining and protecting a just, peaceful, and safe society, by-

(a)   enforcing sentences of the courts in the manner prescribed by this Act;
(b)   detaining all prisoners in safe custody whilst ensuring their human dignity; and
(c)   promoting the social responsibility and human development of all prisoners and persons subject to community corrections (Correctional Services Act, No 111 of 1998).

In line with the three purposes of the correctional system a list of **ten key objectives** of the correctional system was formulated, and discussed in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:73). The objectives are set out below:

Implementation of sentences of the courts: It should be understood by all relevant stakeholders, such as the court, the accused, and the correctional officials that rehabilitation is

the main reason for sentencing. The DCS would therefore provide developmental and correctional opportunities to all offenders, in and outside of correctional centres. Offenders should therefore be motivated to be corrected and rehabilitated.

Breaking the cycle of crime: The purpose of the correctional system is to protect the public, and to promote social responsibility and human development, in order to prevent re-offending, or a return to criminal activities. It is rehabilitation and not punishment that breaks the cycle of crime, and that leads to a reduction of crime.

Security risk management: The public needs to be protected from offenders. This commences at court when an accused is given a prison sentence, but it then becomes the responsibility of the DCS to ensure that there is a balance between the rehabilitation of offenders and protection of the community.

Providing an environment for controlled and needs-based rehabilitation interventions: The DCS should ensure that the environment inside correctional centres and at community corrections is conducive to rehabilitation, development, and correction.

Providing guidance and support to probationers and parolees within the community: Community correctional supervision provides an alternative sentence to imprisonment in a correctional centre. It covers all forms of non-custodial sentences and correctional supervision. The aim of community correctional supervision would be to rehabilitate offenders outside a prison environment, which can play a vital role in the reintegration of offenders back into the community.

Provision of corrective and development measures to the offender: The Department provides programmes that address offending behaviour, social responsibility, and moral and ethical values, to motivate the offender to choose alternative lifestyles. Developmental needs are addressed to enhance the future employability of an offender.

Reconciliation of the offender with the community: Reconciliation between the offender and the victim(s) forms an integral part of rehabilitation and reintegration into the community, which should lead to the acceptance of the offender by the community. This can reduce the risk of recidivism.

Enhancement of the productive capacity of offenders: Employment and contribution to the wealth of a community by being productive is a key component to rehabilitation and to the prevention of recidivism. The Department of Correctional Services should therefore provide offenders with training opportunities to ensure that they would be released as skilled people who would be able to be employed and to function financially independently after release from a correctional centre. A correctional centre should strive towards being self-sufficient by implementing farming projects where offenders could work and be paid a gratuity for their labour, which would in turn contribute to their self-esteem and sense of self-worth.

Promotion of healthy family relations: The Constitution obliges correctional officials to ensure contact between offenders and their families. Visitation rights should therefore not be used against any offender as a form of punishment or as a privilege, and should only be limited in the event of limited resources. The relationship between the offender and his family is of utmost importance, because it contributes to rehabilitation, reintegration into the community, and the limiting of recidivism.

Assertion of discipline within the correctional environment: Disciplinary measures inside a correctional facility should take the form of community service directed towards other inmates. It should not undermine the objective of correction and rehabilitation, but should rather reinforce it. A restorative justice approach should be taken to instil self-discipline in all offenders.

The key objectives of the DCS therefore cover all functions and services needed for an offender to embark on the path of rehabilitation, from the time that he/she is sentenced in court. The key objectives emphasise the treatment he/she should receive, including rehabilitative efforts and programme attendance while serving the sentence. It implies furthermore that the offender should be in a process of preparation for release, after which the DCS will also be responsible for the monitoring of parolees and probationers within the community.

3.4.5   Departmental Core Values

The DCS introduced some principles that the correctional system should be founded on, called 'Departmental Core Values'. The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:120), explains the core values as an attitude that needs to be adopted by officials, of serving with excellence. In order for officials to serve with excellence, it would be necessary for all officials to implement the Departmental Core Values stipulated in the DCS Annual Report (2016:23), The DCS National Strategic Human Resource Plan (2017:23),DCS Strategic Plan (2015:13), DCS Revitalising DCS (2004:6) and The White Paper

on Corrections in South Africa, ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:121). The Core Values are listed and defined below:

Development entails enablement and empowerment, faith in the potential of people, and provision of opportunities and facilities for growth. Officials should therefore reveal an attitude of support and hope towards offenders, to assist them in rehabilitation and correction.

Integrity refers to principles such as honesty, disassociating officials from all forms of corruption and unethical conduct, and the implementation of sound business practices. This would result in a correctional official who contributes to the goals of rehabilitation through leading offenders by example.

Recognition of human dignity is concerned with accepting people for who they are, with humane treatment of offenders, and with recognising the inherent human rights of all people.

Efficiency/Effectiveness entails encouraging productivity, the best work method, procedures and systems to achieve set goals and excellent services. Deliberate attention to detail and quality of work done is a major attribute that leads to efficiency in service delivery.

Accountability focuses on the desire to perform well, and to accept accountability for one's behaviour and commitment. A correctional official should be willing to be corrected when needed; this would also set a good example to offenders, who should be held accountable for their actions and be corrected when required.

Justice emphasises justice for all and fairness, as well as equality before the law. A correctional official should apply justice and fairness in and outside of the work environment.

Security concerns the safety of employees, offenders, and the community. The Department of Correctional Services functions in a major security environment where officials should be aware that any negligent act may lead to endangering colleagues, offenders and the community.

Equity involves attitudes, and practices that entrench equity should be adopted and demonstrated with respect and accommodation by a correctional official, in the interest of affirmative action and non-discrimination, specifically towards people with disabilities and people of different race or gender.

Responsibility indicates taking responsibility for own tasks, successes, omissions, or incorrect actions. It also implies honouring and respecting return dates or timeframes given for tasks to be completed, in order to contribute to the achievement of the departmental goals. Supervisors have the responsibility to provide feedback to their subordinate colleagues.

Ubuntu is a term used for serving with kindness and humanity.

The Correctional Services was at times viewed by the general public as a closed organisation with its own culture and norms. Correctional officials were generally seen as "warders" who were uneducated and formed part of Correctional Services in the punishment era. By introducing departmental core values, the focus was shifted from the previous negative perception of officials, to one of people power geared towards the rehabilitation of the offender. An ideal correctional official could be developed by successful implementation of the core values. In The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services,2005:110), an ideal correctional official is described as an official with a unique combination of specific competencies that include experience, expertise, professional ethics, personal qualities, multi-skilling, and personal development.

In order to reach the vision and mission of DCS a number of key service delivery areas have been identified, which apply to all correctional officials through the allocation of specific responsibilities.

3.4.6   Overview of services rendered by the Department of Correctional Services

The DCS categorised the ten previous services as follows: Safe custody, Correctional supervision, Parole supervision, Reintegration into the community, Health and physical care, Development and support of prisoners, Education and training, Labour supply, Industrial products and services and Information services. (DCS Service level standards, 2003; Mohajane, 1998:8; Presentation by the Chief Deputy Commissioner, 1998).

The social work focus at that time was on developmental and supportive services, which was explained by Mohajane (1998:9) as follows: "Rehabilitative programmes in the form of religious care, social work and psychological services are set to become one of the Department's priorities to strengthen service delivery." In the context of the DCS, the term 'development' is defined by the DCS Service Delivery Presentation (2000:1) as a holistic approach by role players, directed at the establishment of opportunities, for the development of:

- values, norms, attitudes, relations, and behaviour that are conducive to the acceptable norms of society; and
- social, personal, occupational and educational skills, a religious-ethical life and spiritual environment.

The development of offenders is also discussed in the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997), as it stipulates that appropriate social service programmes will be provided to offenders, victims of crime and their families, where needed, in order to promote their integration into society. The first goal of the National Developmental Social Welfare Strategy, which is described in the White Paper on Social Welfare ([RSA], Ministry for Social Welfare and Population Development, 1997), is as follows: "To facilitate the provision of appropriate developmental social welfare services to all South Africans, especially those living in poverty, those who are vulnerable and those who have special needs. These services should include rehabilitative, preventative, developmental and protective services and facilities, as well as social security, including social relief programmes, social care programmes and the enhancement of social functioning." It is furthermore noted that all social welfare programmes will strive for excellence and for the provision of quality services.

The inter-sectoral nature of development indicates that the multi-disciplinary team approach plays an important role in rehabilitation of offenders. According to the Glossary of Terminology (2017:3), the term 'multi-disciplinary team' refers to "a group of correctional officials that include both professionals like social workers, psychologists, educationists and custodial staff making informed decisions on the correction and rehabilitation of correctional clients based on the input of all of them." All DCS officials, including correctional- and professional correctional officials, should work hand in hand to successfully rehabilitate offenders. The DCS needs a structured and tested framework of intervention, which includes social workers, educationists, religious care workers, psychologists, medical staff and custodial officials. Social work forms part of this team, and cannot function separately in a correctional centre.

Since the commitment was made by DCS during 1998 to rehabilitate offenders, the services or programmes have been scrutinised, adjusted and changed to suit the vision and mission of the Department. In honouring The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:15) the latest programmes appear in the DCS Annual Performance Plan (2014:10), DCS Annual Report (2016:42),DCS National Strategic Human Resource Plan (2017:24), and DCS Strategic Plan (2012:14), and are listed as follows:

Programme 1: Administration

Programme 2: Incarceration

Programme 3: Rehabilitation

Programme 4: Care

Programme 5: Social Reintegration

All the services rendered in the DCS can be divided into five different programmes that cover all the various sections of the DCS, from officials' needsto offenders' needs, as revealed in Figure 3.1 below. These programmes are listed below and the purposes discussed briefly, according to available literature (cf. DCS Annual Performance Plan, 2011:3; DCS Annual Report, 2016:42; DCS National Strategic Human Resource Plan, 2017:24; DCS Strategic Plan, 2010:27; Dissel & Muntingh, 2003:11; DCS Revitalizing DCS, 2004:28).

Figure 3.1: The five key areas of service delivery to offenders in the DCS

Programme 1: *Administration*

The **Administration** programme includes providing the support functions necessary for comprehensive service delivery by the Department, including administrative functions, human resource development and management functions, procurement functions, budgeting functions,

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financial management functions, information and communication technology, research, policy co-ordination, investigation capacity, intergovernmental relations, executive decision support, strategic support and good governance, and caring for the well-being of personnel It provides an enabling environment for all services rendered by the Department to succeed.

Programme 2: *Incarceration*

The **Incarceration** programme focuses on the infrastructure and services needed to support safe and secure conditions of detention, keeping in mind the human dignity of offenders, officials and the public. This programmes consists of the profiling of offenders, compilation of needs-based correctional sentence plans, interventions through correctional programmes and administration.

Programme 3: *Rehabilitation*

The **Rehabilitation** programme consists of the presentation of needs-based programmes and interventions to offenders in order to facilitate their rehabilitation and to assist in their social reintegration.

Programme 4: *Care*

The **Care** programme provides needs-based care programmes aimed at maintaining the well-being of offenders by promoting and facilitating social links with families and society, physical fitness, nutrition, good health, and psychological and moral well-being.

Programme 5: *Social Reintegration*

This programme provides services focused on the offender's preparation for release, in order to facilitate social acceptance, effective supervision after release on parole in the community corrections system, and on the facilitation of **social reintegration** into communities.

It is clear from the discussion in this section that there was an explosion of documents and strategies in the Department of Correctional Services since democracy started in South Africa. Many documents and new legislation were introduced in the late 1990s, all with the aim of creating a platform for human rights, rehabilitation, and, most important of all, the implementation of a holistic approach towards offender care. The question is, however, what happened to the implementation of all these new documents, legislation, and strategies after 2000? Attention will therefore next be given to the progress of transformation in the DCS after 2000.

3.5 TRANSFORMATION OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES IN THE DEMOCRATIC SOUTH AFRICA

From the year 2000 the DCS committed itself to step up its campaign and to put rehabilitation at the centre of all its activities. This was a huge paradigm shift in an organisation that was previously strictly security motivated. In other words, in the Department room had to be made, in a strict security environment, for rehabilitation to stand next to it with equal importance. The former Acting Commissioner, Mr N.W. Tshivase, declared the importance of rehabilitation in his introduction to the 2001 DCS Annual Report (2001:2) in the following words:

> The Department has identified the enhancement of the rehabilitation programmes presented to prisoners as a key fundamental starting point in contributing towards a crime-free society. It is for this reason that endeavours have been made to create an environment where rehabilitation is supported and encouraged, to ensure that offenders adopt positive and appropriate value systems, thus creating a desire on their part to lead productive and law-abiding lives when they are released into the community.

Gerber (2005:1) stated in his article that appeared in the SA Corrections *Today* Magazine, (a magazine that is available to all correctional officials at correctional centres)that rehabilitation has been entrenched in the core business of Correctional Services, which implies that most of the collective effort of DCS personnel should be focused on effecting and promoting rehabilitation. Various strategies were developed to enhance rehabilitation services as a key starting point in contributing towards a crime-free society, which is in line with what the former Acting Commissioner indicated in his introduction mentioned above, according to DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa (2017:4). These strategies include:

- Development of individualised need-based rehabilitation programmes
- Marketing of rehabilitation services to increase offender participation
- Establishment of formal partnerships with the community to strengthen the rehabilitation programmes and to create a common understanding
- Promotion of a restorative justice approach to create a platform for dialogue between the offender and the victim, facilitating the healing process
- Combating of illiteracy in correctional centres by providing ABET to offenders

- Increasing production to enhance self-sufficiency and to contribute to the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy, and

- Increasing training facilities for the development of skills.

In October 2002, a strategic planning session was held where unit management was identified as the missing component in the transformation of the correctional system. In the same year a document named 'Conceptualizing Rehabilitation' was developed for internal discussion aiming to bring a closer understanding of rehabilitation in the DCS, since there was an apparent lack of coherence of paradigm concerning rehabilitation. (DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa, 2017:5; DCS Revitalising DCS, 2004:5.) In 2004, a document named 'Revitalising DCS' was developed where progress was measured and future planning pinned down. In this document, DCS Revitalising DCS (2004:2), some milestones that were reached by the DCS since 2000 are mentioned, such as the National Symposium on Correctional Systems that was held, the Mvelephanda Strategic Planning Session, the Drafting of a White Paper, and Centres of Excellence which served as pilot studies for implementation of the White Paper.

The former Commissioner of Correctional Services, Mr Linda Mti, was of opinion that "…the Department is on a new course; a course on which excellence, development, rehabilitation, a safe and secure correctional environment and success are non-negotiables" (Mti, 2004:5). In summary, the transformation of the DCS as a whole since 2000 are reflected by the words of the late former Minister of Correctional Services, Mr B.M.N. Balfour, in his foreword to the 2006 Annual Report: "I can say confidently the financial year 2005/2006 has been one of the pivotal points in the history of the transformation of the criminal justice system in general, and the delivery of correctional services in particular, for our achievements far outweighed the challenges we faced. This therefore is a cause for celebration" (DCS Annual Report, 2006:6).

3.6. CHALLENGES IN THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

Though there is transformation in the DCS and a general motivation and strivingto comply with the vision and the mission statement, the Correctional Services Act (No 111 of 1998), core values, and principles in service delivery, it is inevitable that there would be challenges that need to be addressed.

According to DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa (2017:5), the DCS is faced with the following challenges:

- Overcrowding and the state of DCS facilities
- Institutional 'prison culture' and corruption
- Training for the new paradigm
- Structuring for the new paradigm

The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:17) acknowledges that there are certain challenges that the DCS faces during the period of transformation which are listed below:

- Overcrowding
- The state of DCS facilities
- Institutional "prison culture"
- Corruption and maladministration
- Training and retraining of members for the new paradigm
- Aligning the organisational structure with the new paradigm
- The needs of special categories of offenders, i.e. women, children younger than 18 years, the youth, the disabled, the aged, the mentally ill, long-term offenders, offenders with life sentences, first offenders, and foreign nationals
- Dealing with HIV/AIDS as the effect and management of communicable diseases.

It is however interesting to note that the dire shortage of correctional and professional correctional officials are not included in the above list of challenges from The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa. The researcher experienced that the shortage of officials is a huge challenge in DCS and it holds a negative impact on the daily functioning of a correctional centre.

For purposes of this study, and for clarity, some of the identified challenges will be briefly discussed.

3.6.1   Overcrowding

The Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional ServicesAnnual Report (2016:44) and the DCS Annual Report (2016:5) conclude that there are 243correctional centres in South Africa, of which nine centres are for females only, seventy-two centres accommodate both sexes, fourteen are

youth facilities, and the rest are all for male offenders only. Out of the total number of correctional centres, twenty are farm prisons, which mean that there is an element of farming included on the prison premises such as different forms of agriculture, farming with a variety of livestock, e.g. cattle and pigs. There are two private prisons at Bloemfontein and Louis Trichardt with a housing capacity of about 3000 offenders each. At the end of the 2016 financial year, the total offender population according to the DCS Annual Report (2016:30) was 161984 (see Figure 3.2), and the approved bed space 119134, which implies a 73,54% overpopulation in total (DCS Annual Report, 2016:30).It can be concluded from a variety of literature (cf Dissel, 2002:2; DCS Annual Report, 2016:10; and Van Zyl-Smit, 2005:17) that the overpopulation of correctional centres used to be a problem in the past and continues to be a problem at the present time.

From a rehabilitation and reintegration perspective, overcrowding has a severely negative impact, as it continues to undermine in almost every conceivable manner, the positive impact that programmes could have; for example, security, instead of rehabilitation, becomes the overriding concern. Only the absolute basic needs of offenders are being met, space and time for educational and recreational activities are reduced, stress levels increase as a consequence of higher social and spatial density, and so does ill health amongst officials in overcrowded prisons (Dissel & Muntingh, 2003:5; Giffard, 1999:22; Hesselink-Louw, 2004:12; Luyt, 1999:7;Marsh, 2011:451; Parrillo, 2005:277; Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report, 2016:48).According to Stout et al. (2008:77), overcrowding can have a significant negative impact on an offender's well-being and mental health, because the DCS are unable to provide the required rehabilitative support. When the weight of offender numbers overwhelms physical and human resources, correctional service delivery is handicapped in many respects (O'Toole & Eyland, 2005:12, Singh, 2005:34). These sources continue to explain that overcrowding results in lowered sanitation and hygiene standards, limited access to legal assistance, reduction in living and exercise space, poor nutrition and health care, increase of violence, self-harm and suicide. Officials are affected negatively by overcrowding as well, according to the Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report (2016:48), where it is indicated that "…overcrowding, in combination with staff shortages, is a primary source of stress amongst correctional officials." It is concluded from the above views that overcrowding impacts negatively on both offenders and officials.

Gerber (2005:4) elaborates on the causes of overcrowding, which he explains as follows: (a) an increase in inmate population that has not been met by a corresponding increase in the number of correctional centres; (b) recidivism that is partly due to the non-correction of inmates while they

are with DCS, and their inability to effectively integrate into communities upon release; (c) the inefficiency of the criminal justice system in processing awaiting-trial detainees; (d) the inflexibility of the Heads of Correctional Centres in exercising powers at their disposal to get some inmates released; (e) lack of interest by some prosecutors in working with Heads of Correctional Centres to conditionally release those with bail under R1000.00; and (f) the continued number of new offenders absorbed into the criminal justice system. These causes of overcrowding are confirmed by Dissel (2002:2) and DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa (2017:6). The following causes are added by Bezuidenhout (2011:83), namely the particularly high incarceration rate in South Africa when compared to international trends; the introduction of minimum sentences for particular categories of serious offences in 1997, resulting in an increase in the proportion of long-term offenders in the DCS facilities; crime trends in South Africa, particularly in relation to serious violent crimes and serious economic offences; and inadequate needs-driven facility planning in the Integrated Justice System.

The former Minister of Correctional Services, Mr B.M.N. Balfour, stated in his Foreword to the DCS Annual Report (2005:6) that overcrowding might be the greatest challenge that the Department has to face. He stated: "This factor has the potential to undermine much of the progress made in addressing objectives such as correction, development, security, and the reduction of recidivism. However, through the combined efforts of departments within the integrated justice system, the management of overcrowding will remain a focal point of our activities" (DCS Annual Report, 2005:6).The current Minister of Justice and Correctional Services, Advocate M. Masutha, indicated in the DCS Annual Report (2016:10) that "Overcrowding is an old problem, inherited as it was from the apartheid regime and the Department is, amongst other interventions, implementing a multipronged strategy towards reducing it." Various strategies were put into place in an effort to curb overcrowding, but with no long-lasting effects. According to various sources (DCS Annual Report, 2005:24; DCS Annual Report, 2001:1, Giffard, 1999:46), some of the strategies can be summarised as follows:

- The drawing-up of a quick reference guide for Heads of Correctional Centres that provides them with remedies to address and manage overcrowding
- The establishment of area and regional level forums consisting of magistrates, prosecutors, members of the SAPS, and other external role players, in order to address overcrowding
- Assisting offenders in obtaining money to pay fines

- Ensuring that support systems are in place for all offenders who are to be released on parole or placed under correctional supervision
- Releasing into a support system of remand detainee offenders who were accused of less serious offences and who had been granted bail of less than R1000.00
- Sentencing offenders to correctional supervision instead of a prison sentence
- Placing certain categories of sentenced offenders in community corrections earlier than usual through the advancement of the approved parole dates
- Speedy placing of offenders with fines
- Ensuring effective administrative and case management of the offender
- Increasing the focus on rehabilitation programmes for offenders to prevent recidivism
- Focusing on training, education, and social development programmes
- Involving the Department in the reduction of the number of unsentenced children in correctional facilities
- Implementing the plea-bargaining approach
- Building new prisons, one of which was for maximum offenders, and another prison for pre-release offenders.

It is clear from Figure 3.2 below that the offender population dropped in numbers during 2013 and 2014 from 158942 in 2012 to 152553 in 2014, a decrease of 6389. This might be an indication that the strategies implemented to curb overcrowding had some positive consequences, even though the established capacity of some correctional centres has not been met yet. The increase in offender population during 2015 and 2016 can be attributed to the increase of life sentences, as well as sentences imposed in terms of the minimum sentence framework (Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report, 2016:44). Though offender mortalities are generally not viewed as a contributing factor to the decrease in overcrowding because the DCS has little or no control over it, it can however cause a minor reduction in the offender population. The Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report (2015:85) reported 629 offender deaths during the 2014/2015 financial year of which 46 were unnatural and includes suicides and homicides – official on inmate (1) and inmate on inmate (10). The remaining 583 mortalities include natural deaths due to ill-health.
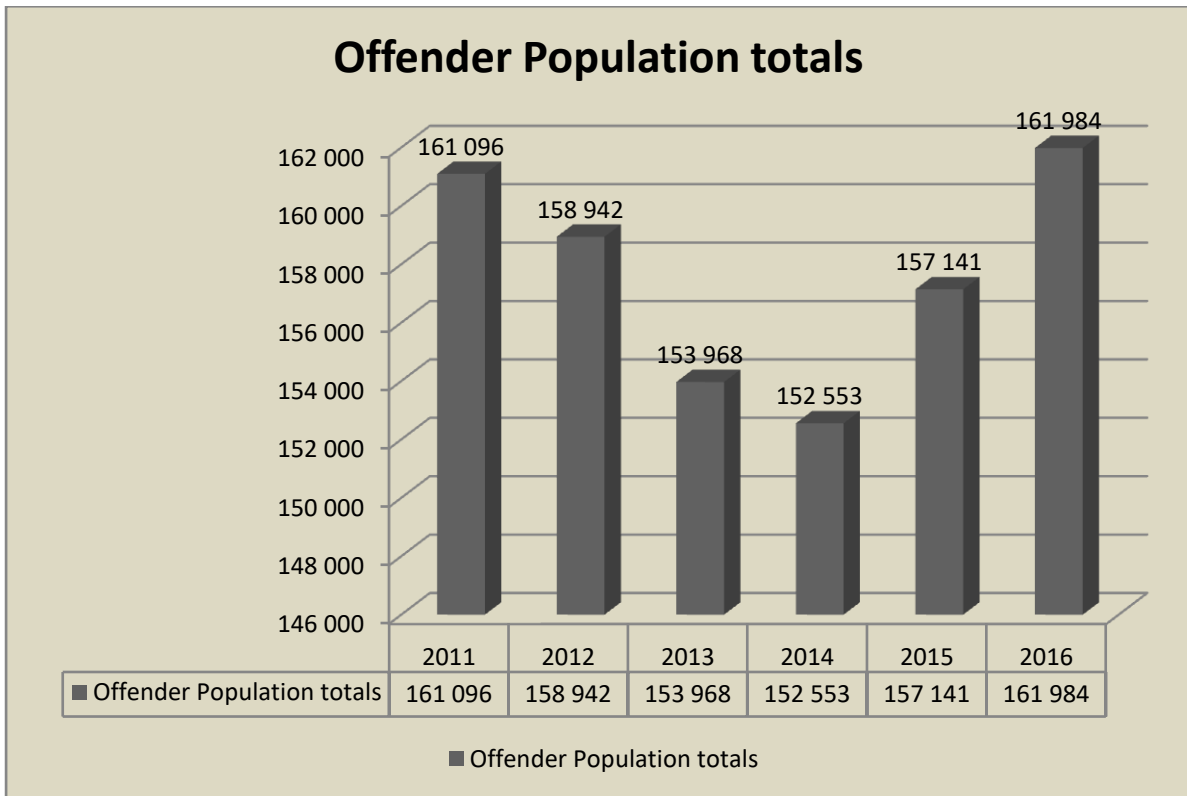
Figure 3.2 Offender populations from 2011 to2016

3.6.2   Institutional prison culture and corruption

Upon the request of the Minister of Correctional Services, the President appointed the Honourable Mr T.S.B. Jali in 2001 as the chairperson and sole member of a Commission of Inquiry into allegations of corruption and mismanagement in the Department. The Jali Commission was duly constituted in terms of Proclamation 135/2001 dated 27 September 2001.Corruption has been identified by Dissel and Muntingh (2003:18) as one of the priorities that the DCS should address before prisons could be managed effectively and efficiently. These authors indicated that DCS should not only address corruption, but also the impact of organised crime in prisons, through an effective anti-gang management strategy, and to promote the facilitation of civilian supervision over the correctional system. According to Dissel (2002:6), the DCS seems to be plagued by corruption that interferes with its ability to meet its legal objectives. Dissel (2002:6) further indicates that many senior staff members have been implicated in corruption, which might probably extend throughout the prison system. The DCS acknowledges in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry of Correctional Services, 2005:17) that the present organisational culture is not in line with its new paradigm and suggestions for transformation in this regard, include the following strategies:

• The development of a Risk and Fraud Management Strategy

- Addressing corruption and maladministration in a systematic and comprehensive manner
- The establishment of an internal investigative capacity
- The cost-effective utilisation of resources
- Aligning the Department's organisational structure with its core business
- Effective utilisation of supervising agencies such as the Inspectorate Directorate, to advise the Commissioner on the level and extent to which officials comply with Government and Departmental policies
- Performing a socio-security function within a civilian structure based on seniority and a focus on tight security and personnel discipline, and
- Revitalising and sustaining the Department's core values. ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:17; Giffard, 1999:53.)

Singh (2005:36) pointed out a strategy to tackle the problem of corruption and mismanagement within the DCS, focusing on:

- The investigation of allegations of corruption and mismanagement
- Disciplinary sanctions against corruption and mismanagement, and
- The prevention of corruption by adopting a style of management that creates an environment that is not conducive to either corruption, non-compliance with policy or indiscipline.

The Risk-Management Committee has been functioning since 2004 and comprises of the Deputy Commissioner, and is chaired by the Chief Deputy Commissioner, Central Services. The Committee's main task, according to the DCS Annual Report (2006:12), is to: "identify risks based on information emanating from the Internal Audit, the Inspectorate's report, Strategic Plan reviews, and reports from external bodies such as the Auditor-General." The Committee meets quarterly to evaluate progress on identified risks in the DCS. The functioning of the Risk Management Committee is confirmed by the DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa (2017:6) through the following statement: "…the DCS committed itself to the creation of a culture of good governance including the development of a Risk and Fraud Management Strategy and in internal investigative capacity, to ensure the cost-effective utilization of resources, and to address the ongoing incidents of corruption and mismanagement in the Department." According to Dissel (2002:3), the independent supervision of prisons through the Independent Judicial Inspectorate was established in 1998, with the mandate to inspect correctional centres and report on the treatment of offenders and conditions in prison.

Structures have therefore been placed in the DCS to check, to control, and to ensure that policies and legislation is implemented in the correct fashion.

It is clear that the DCS's strategies to combat a destructive organisational culture and corruption starts with addressing correctional officials, reminding them of the core values and objectives of the Department, thereby informing them about the possible consequences of negative behaviour. It is important to have the relevant structures, such as counselling, remedial interventions and the Disciplinary Procedure in place, in the event of an official being guilty of misbehaving.

3.6.3   Department of Correctional Services facilities

Most of the correctional centres in South Africa were constructed years before the paradigm shift in corrections, which implies that buildings were built with the aim of punishment in mind, not human dignity, development, or rehabilitation. The challenge that the DCS faces is that new legislation was introduced, a new paradigm shift was made, and rehabilitation is at the centre of all correctional activities, but the structure and the infrastructure of most of the correctional centres remained unchanged. This means that the facilities are not able to cater for the expectations set by the DCS in documents such as the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa. In order to rehabilitate, develop, and correct, specific resources and facilities are needed such as social group work rooms, classrooms, training facilities, workshops, and office space for the personnel involved. Correctional officials use initiative in an attempt to comply with the expectations of the DCS. It is not uncommon, therefore, to find social workers sharing one office, cells being transformed to classrooms, or training facilities or group work taking place in the shared social work office.

It is stated in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:28) that, as a starting point for rehabilitation, the facilities of the Department should be specifically designed as correctional centres that make provision for facilities for rehabilitation, adequate security, development, and conditions consistent with human dignity.

3.6.4   Training of officials for the new paradigm

As stated in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:18), the DCS acknowledges that changing its culture would mean changing all the human resource inadequacies. A number of correctional officials have been in the service of the DCS for many years, including during those years referred to as the "old paradigm" years. Some officials have a lengthy service record, and are set in the working ways of the past. It

would therefore be difficult to implement a new paradigm in the DCS if the people power, i.e. those who are supposed to implement the new paradigm, remain stuck in the working methods of the past. The DCS decided to introduce human resource interventions, aiming to address this challenge. The suggested interventions as it is revealed by Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2015:223), The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:18) and by Giffard (1999:53),are as follows:

- To elevate the status and roles of ordinary correctional officials
- Changing of recruitment policies of the Department; Recruitment of persons matching the requirements of the new rehabilitation-centered approach
- Appropriate training and development, including the retraining of all existing personnel with regard to the new strategic direction. A new curriculum was introduced for the basic training of newly-appointed officials
- Career-pathing, and
- A strict code of behaviour supported by a clear and effectively enforced disciplinary code.

Training of newly-appointed officials would therefore focus on the new paradigm in the DCS, and existing correctional officials would be retrained on the aspects of rehabilitation and the new direction of the Department.

3.6.5 Violence in correctional centres

According to Birzer and Roberson (2004:100), rapes, beating and killings have become common in many correctional centres. This violence is aggravated by circumstances in the centres such as overcrowding, characteristics of individual offenders, visiting patterns and stringency of rule enforcement (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:100). The correctional environment is summarised by Bezuidenhout (2011:86) as an institution that is not seen that it facilitates "the ultimate goal of reintegration, but rather an institution that facilitates the formation of subcultures where social relations are based on survival, violence and hierarchy."

3.7   A FUTURE PERSPECTIVE ON THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

The future of the DCS, specifically correctional facilities, could be uncertain in that a number of negative comments have been made about it, such as those stated by Stout, et al., (2008:81):

Prison is not working: There is a high level of recidivism amongst offenders who served an imprisonment sentence. Some offenders are re-arrested shortly after they have been released from correctional centres.

Prison is a brutalising and damaging experience: There are cases of self-harm, assaults and suicides in correctional facilities that are negative experiences for those in custody.

Prison is expensive: The DCS is expensive in that it has to cater financially for officials as well as offenders, and this result in a burden on the Government (cf. Hagan, 2010:14).

Even though the DCS deals with many challenges and handles a great number of negative criticism from a variety of quarters, a real effort is being made by its officials to work towards the stated vision and mission of the Department, to focus on the core business – rehabilitation of offenders– and to bring a positive element to the functioning of the Department.

Giffard (1999:56) stated in his dissertation that transformation in South Africa's prisons would only be possible when resources were available, when resources were used more effectively, when restructuring of the management organisation at all levels would occur, and when a culture of 'openness' was institutionalised. This author explained that transformation in South Africa's prisons "needs to be understood, conceptualized, and planned in the broader framework of the criminal justice system as a whole. Without this, initiatives within the prisons are likely to be largely ineffective." The DCS forms part of the Ministers of Justice, Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) cluster that represents the criminal justice system as a whole, where certain issues relating to the cluster are addressed (DCS History of Transformation of the Correctional System in South Africa, 2017:6).Being part of the JCPS is one of the propositions of the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa. The JCPS cluster is described by Feni (2005:3) as one of the committees set up by the Cabinet to lead the country to a system of integrated governance. The DCS contributes to this cluster by being part of social crime prevention, by promoting corrections as a societal responsibility. This implies that the community has a role to play in the rehabilitation of offenders in the form of participating in Community Policing forums and Community Safety forums, and to act as support system to persons serving community sentences and to parolees. According to Gerber (2005:4), the community has three areas where it can contribute towards the DCS, which he stipulated as follows:

Firstly, a reduction of new offenders as a result of families, communities and community institutions correcting their own members prior to their involvement in criminal offences.

Secondly, co-operation with the DCS in ensuring effective social re-integration of ex-offenders upon their release.

Thirdly, communities should support DCS correction measures within correctional centres by making themselves available as external service providers. Societal responsibility can therefore be viewed as one of the future perspectives of the DCS.

The previous Commissioner of Correctional Services, Mr Linda Mti, stated in the SA Corrections Today (2004:5) that if the Correctional Services was serious about change, an environment should be created that enabled development initiatives, where there was proper control and strict discipline in all correctional centres. The Commissioner continued: "Every single correctional officer must know what is expected of him or her. They must know the operational directives and the contents of the Correctional Services Act and Regulations. They must know how to treat offenders, and must realize that their own conduct and attitude in the workplace will inevitably influence the conduct and attitude of offenders." This statement can be viewed as a baseline for successful correctional services in the future.

It can be concluded that the future of the Department of Correctional Services lies in the implementation of its most treasured documents and legislation, namely The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, which is based on the Constitution, the Correctional Services Act, 1998 (Act No 111 of 1998), and the core values and key service delivery areas. These documents are the driving force behind the building of a correctional-system-based correction, human rights, and rehabilitation.

3.8   SUMMARY

In 1652, when Jan van Riebeeck landed in the Cape, an era of punishment and corrective measures meted out to a person who violated the law of the, commenced. Since then, corrections and the use of imprisonment developed through different phases. Sanctions given to offenders were initially harsh, physical, to the body, and painful, with the focus on punishment. As development occurred, the aim of sanctions shifted from punishment to human rights and rehabilitation.

It was a long process since the start of corrections in South Africa when the Prison Services was founded in 1911, with legislation focusing on prison labour, limited human rights, pass laws, and apartheid. The major change occurred in the prison system during 1990, with the unbanning of

the ANC and the release of Mr Nelson Mandela from prison. Since then, the Department of Correctional Services has been functioning in a democratic South Africa with legislation focusing on transformation, human rights, and rehabilitation of offenders. Despite challenges that the DCS has to face, with problems such as overcrowding, corruption, negative institutional culture, poor state of facilities, and correctional officials in the process of a paradigm shift, there certainly is a future for rehabilitation in South African corrections.

There have been a number of positive changes in law and policy with regard to correctional centres in the past years in South Africa. The new legal framework outlaws racial discrimination, and is orientated towards the rights and responsibilities of offenders, which provides a basis for a correctional system that conforms to standards set by a modern democracy (Dissel, 2002:6).

CHAPTER 4
CORRECTIONAL SOCIAL WORK AND REHABILITATION

4.1   INTRODUCTION

About 37 years ago Duffee (1980:185) stated that "prisons fail to rehabilitate, they are inhumane, and they should be used as little as possible as correctional measures." When considering the outcry of the community at large, it seems that nothing much has changed in the correctional system since the 1980s. The community is concerned about the high crime rate, the violent crimes committed for no apparent reason, offenders re-offending shortly after being released on parole, entertaining the notion that prisons are similar to hotels, that prisons can be described as universities of crime, and that prisons provide accommodation for the poor and the needy. Furthermore, the community demands harsher and longer prison sentences, especially for violent and sexual offences. Some of these outcries from the community are valid, and it is well known that crime is a social problem in South Africa. It needs to be mentioned, however, that the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) is subject to the Constitution ([RSA], Ministry for Justice, Act 108 of 1996) and the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005) where focus is mainly on human rights, which includes humane treatment of offenders and rehabilitation of offenders, in an attempt to reduce recidivism in the country. These documents form the foundation of corrections in South Africa today.

The renewed focus on rehabilitation is not limited to South Africa only but seems to be an international occurrence, as stated by Ward and Maruna (2008:10): "…the past decade has witnessed something of a rehabilitation renaissance." The conclusion that can be made is that South Africa is in line with rehabilitation developments and on a par with other correctional facilities on an international level.

Social work, rehabilitation and corrections are interlinked because of the value that each one of these contributes to the success of a correctional facility. Corrections, according to Welch (2011:3:), is a general term referring to prisons, probation, parole, and a host of other forms of intervention, policies and procedures of the correctional system. Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2004:68) state that corrections refer to post-sentencing interventions concerning offenders in an institution, such as a prison that pursues all four goals of criminal justice, which include rehabilitation, incapacitation, deterrence and retribution. Rehabilitation entails various interventions and contributions made in the lives of offenders by personnel such as social

workers employed in correctional facilities. Social work has developed from individuals rendering welfare services to the poor and needy, to a well-known international profession that deals with people at all levels of society. Social work is a profession that varies enormously in historical, geographical, and institutional context where social workers aim to be change agents with or on behalf of the people that they work with (Healy, 2014:1). Hokenstad, Khinduka, and Midgley (1992:181) explain the vastness of the social work profession as follows: "…it is practiced in all regions and countries of the world. Rich nations and poor, countries that are predominantly rural and those that are primarily urban, societies with population explosions and those with low reproduction rates, capitalist and socialist countries, countries under democratic or authoritarian governments, traditional and emerging nations … all have social work in common." The commonality might be found in the fact that social workers serve in diverse settings such as government agencies, correctional facilities, community development, family planning, health care, educational facilities, business and industry, child and family welfare agencies, mental care centres and private practice. The social work clientele consists of people from all races, religions, age groups, gender and socioeconomic levels (Healy, 2014:13; Hokenstad et al., 1992:182; Kirst-Ashman, 2007:5; Oko, 2012:2; Popple, 1995: 2283; Zastrow, 2006:28).

The importance of social work as profession, including correctional social work, is also emphasized in the South African White Paper on Social Welfare ([RSA], Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 1997:1) through the stated vision: "A welfare system which facilitates the development of human capacity and self-reliance within a caring and enabling socio-economic environment." To bring the vision to a reality, certain national goals were formulated in the White Paper on Social Welfare ([RSA], Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 1997:1) such as:

> To facilitate the provision of appropriate developmental social welfare services to all South Africans, especially those living in poverty, those who are vulnerable and those who have special needs. These services should include rehabilitative, preventative, developmental and protective services and facilities, as well as social security, including social relief programmes, social care programmes, and the enhancement of social functioning.

It is evident that social workers are responsible for the services they render, particularly since these services affect the general wellbeing of their clients who form part of a community, in South Africa as a country.

The social work profession plays a vital role in the DCS because of contributions made by social workers towards the wellbeing and rehabilitation of offenders. The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:128) stipulates: "The aim of needs-based rehabilitation is to influence the offender to adopt a positive and appropriate norms and values system, alternative social interaction options, to develop life-skills, social and employment-related skills, in order to equip him/her holistically and thus eliminating the tendency to return to crime." Social workers possess the knowledge and skills to assist offenders in developing life-skills, appropriate norms and values, and alternative social interaction options. Bean (2010:150) is of opinion that offenders require and need understanding which will lead to insights that can influence their attitudes and ultimately prevent them from committing further crimes. This being said, the author continues by indicating that "All offenders are, by definition, thought to need treatment, and since offenders have different personalities, treatment must be individualised." When the aim is to equip an offender holistically with rehabilitative skills and knowledge, it is necessary to remember that the social work profession cannot function independently from other professions or correctional officials, because it cannot by itself address all the needs of an offender. Some intervention requires the assistance of medical personnel, others of educational personnel, psychologists, spiritual care coordinators, and correctional staff in general.

This study focuses on the rehabilitative and developmental functions of correctional officials in the DCS, of which social work as a profession forms a part. The South African National Crime Prevention Strategy ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 1996:2) stresses that services should be rendered to sentenced offenders, awaiting trial offenders, ex-offenders, their families, probationers, and victims. In DCS, social work services are being rendered to sentenced offenders, parolees and probationers through casework, group work and community work. This is confirmed by the Department of Correctional Services Annual Report (2016:59) as follows: "Rehabilitation incorporates all aspects of a prisoner's life, i.e. intellectual, physical, social, psychological, spiritual, educational and training, personal development and preparation for release." The DCS Annual Report (2016:59) continues by stating that "social work services are offered to offenders in order to enhance their social functioning, problem solving and coping capacities, to link them with systems that provide them with resources, services and opportunities, to promote the effective operation of these systems and to contribute to their development and reintegration." All efforts made by social workers in DCS in their daily work with offenders, be it through group work or individual intervention, aim at contributing to the rehabilitation of the offender.

Social work is connected to corrections and forms an integral part of the rehabilitation component in DCS. For this reason, specific attention should be given to the social work profession in general and its aim of rendering rehabilitative services in correctional settings. In order to understand the role of correctional social work as well as its rehabilitative functions, this chapter offers the following discussions: the historical background of social work pertaining to corrections internationally and in South Africa, the role of correctional social work in the Department Correctional Services, and the nature and aims of rehabilitation to offenders.

4.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SOCIAL WORK IN CORRECTIONS FROM AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

It became clear from various sources (Chaskin, Joseph & Chipenda-Dansokho, 1997:436; Healy, 2012:1; Kirst-Ashman, 2007:199; Patti, 2000:32) that the different methods utilised in social work, such as community development, group work and case work are not new concepts, but emerged from the historical development of the profession. This is also applicable to the development of correctional social work. According to Zastrow (2010:307), the treatment approach in the criminal system commenced in the 19th century and included counsellors such as social workers and psychologists. Gibelman (1995:279) indicates that in the late 1870s, many social workers were involved in the criminal justice system and with juvenile detention and reformation facilities. Garland (1987:123) expands on this point through the following statement: "Agencies of the first type were devoted to activities such as giving aid to discharged prisoners, prison visiting and the 'rescue' of delinquent children, as well as the establishment and operation of reformatories." For the purpose of this study, emphasis will be placed on various highlights from the history of social work, aiming at creating a platform for discussing contemporary correctional social work.

The history of social work, that runs parallel to the history of social welfare, can be dated back to the beginning of humankind, where people had to live and survive through changing ages and societies, each era expecting different things from people. According to Day (1997:61) the history of social welfare, from which social work as profession developed, commenced at approximately 6000 B.C., and can be drawn through the Dark and Middle Ages, the invasion of America followed by the Civil War during the 1800s, the beginning of America as welfare state during 1865, the 'Progressive Era' (between 1900 and World War I), the Great Depression of the 1930s and World War II, the New Reform Era in the 1950s, the Civil Rights Era in the 1970s, until the Synergistic Cycle in the 1990s. From this information it can be derived that the basic

concepts and principles of the social work profession as it is known today have been born and founded already during the early years of human existence.

Documented community participation in the early years have been reported by Day (1997:176), who made mention of the Ladies of Charity that was established during 1617 by St Vincent de Paul. They were mainly responsible for visiting the ill and poor at their homes and provided them with food and clothes. Due to insufficient progress made by this group, St Vincent de Paul established another group consisting of young ladies during 1633, known as The Sisters of Charity, who cared for the dying, poor people, the ill and offenders. During later years, such as the 1850s and 1860s, a new movement appeared that is also associated with the early development of social work, namely the State Boards that had a variety of names such as the State Board of Charities or Board of Public Charities (Social Work History, 2017:2). According to Huff (2007:3), this movement sought to bring some order to state institutions by categorising the needy and through the formation of structures, for example prisons, reformatories, mental asylums, orphanages and poor-houses, by managing them in a scientific manner. Even though the State Boards did not last long, they were the first charity leaders who tried to develop a more systematic and rational approach to their work and to push it away from its traditional association with religion. It was during these eras that social work principles were developed and implemented through time by pioneers in the field into an acceptable scientific profession.

According to sources (Gitterman & Germain, 2008:6, Patel, 2015:47; Pozzuto, 2001:154; Social Work History, 2017:2) it was the social crisis which occurred in Western Europe and North America in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that led to the creation of social work as institution and profession. The crisis referred to by these authors is the 'industrial revolution', which resulted in rapid industrialisation and urbanisation that affected the lives of all people because of technological advances such as the steam engine. In the strive for wealth and economic prosperity, employers were able to do anything to reach their goals. This resulted in competition, the formation of monopolies, unsafe working conditions, long working hours, low pay, child labour, broken family ties, prostitution, alcohol abuse, ill health and loss of community identity (Gitterman & Germain, 2008:6; Llewellyn, Agu & Mercer, 2008:12; Zastrow, 2010:12). It was during these times that social problems such as poverty, alcohol and drug abuse, inadequate schools, poor housing, overcrowding, prostitution, ill health, crowded urban slums, poor rural areas and unsupervised children emerged (cf. Gitterman & Germain, 2008:6; Patel, 2015:47). According to Reid (1995:2209), poverty was seen as a social problem, as a potential source of crime, social unrest, and long-term dependence. It seems that the main

concern at the time was poverty, because if poverty could be reduced, consequential social problems, such as crime, could be reduced. Actions that followed, according to Brieland (1995:2247), Gitterman and Germain (2008:6) and Reid (1995:2210) was the establishing of almshouses for the poor, to teach order, cleanliness, discipline and routine, by which the poor could be transformed into useful and productive members of society. Brieland (1995:2247) continues by stating: "This policy was to be applied not only to poor people but to criminals and mentally ill individuals, and thus a similar increase in the building of asylums and penitentiaries occurred during that period."

Social work originated from charity services rendered to needy, low income communities during the 1800s by volunteers from religious groups and by the clergy (Chaskin et al., 1997:436; Garland, 1987:115; Gitterman & Germain, 2008:6; Hasenfeld, 1992:206; Hokenstad et al., 1992:165; McKendrick, 2001:110; Midgley, 1998:19; Reid, 1995:2211; Zastrow, 2010:11). According to Zastrow (2010:41), the focus of these services was on meeting such basic physical needs as food and shelter and attempting to handle emotional difficulties with religious admonitions. It appears that the needy were assisted by various community groups and organisations without any formal monitoring or control, resulting in uncoordinated and overlapping service delivery. This approach changed, however, during the later 1800s, when organisations realised that their services are not as efficient as they could be.

In order to establish structure in the charity work, the following three social welfare movements attained importance during the period from 1865 to 1900, (Brieland, 1995:2247; Day, 1997:197; Gitterman & Germain, 2008:6; Huff, 2007:4; Kirst-Ashman, 2007:173; Latessa et al., 2014:5; Midgley, 1998:19; Reid, 1995:2211) namely:

- The Charity Organization Society (COS)
- The Settlement House movement, and
- The Child-saving Movement.

It is not evident from available sources what the historical role of correctional social work was within the COS and the Settlement House movement. The third approach for providing structure to the services rendered by charity workers, the Child-saving Movement, however, played a role regarding youth offenders. According to Huff (2007:33), by the turn of the nineteenth century, there were a great number of charity leaders in America who were concerned about child well-being because of some alarming problems. Both Day (1997:223) and Social Work History

(2017:37) confirm that there were certain problems with children that were identified as crucial, and which needed intervention such as:

- Infant and maternal mortality rates were the highest of any industrial country
- The increasing number of orphans overwhelmed local resources. There were about 240 new orphanages established during the 1890s and an estimated number of 100 000 children in orphanages across the country in 1910
- Millions of children were working instead of attending school. Children were required to work as soon as possible, often in the mills, by the age of three, and
- Children were regarded as small adults, meaning that they would be charged with adult crimes, tried as adults, and generally expected to maintain themselves.

From these problems identified above, the conclusion can be made that it was due to crimes against children that social work had to become involved in the process of protecting children.

According to Garland (1987:122), Gitterman and Germain (2008:8) and Social Work History (2017:1), there were a vast array of welfare initiatives that originated in the 19th century that included education, public sanitation, juvenile corrections, and prisons. These sources continue by stating that police court missionaries (the forerunner of probation officers) had committed to advise, assist and befriend offenders. These missionaries offered alternatives to custody, helped the offenders' families financially, aided delinquent children, and supported those leaving prison. Some of these missionaries practiced various styles of casework involving inquiry, supervision, and character reform, adapting the general techniques of social work to their own specific purposes (Garland, 1987:123). Adams et al. (2002:308), state that reformatory schools for juvenile offenders were established during the 1850s and 1876 is generally viewed as the year in which probation services were born. Another project of the child-saving movement, according to Day (1997:225), Lapp (2017:1) and Matejkowski, Johnson and Severson (2014:1), was the establishment of juvenile justice systems. The first juvenile court law was drafted in Illinois during 1899 by the State Conference of Charities that was influenced by Jane Addams and other Hull House workers. According to Lapp (2017:1), the initial intentions of the juvenile justice system were to protect the rights of the child through special judges acting as a 'kind and just parent', to develop a safe haven, to rehabilitate and heal children. The proceedings were apparently too informal, not punitive or legalistic. It resulted in the appointment of juvenile probation officers, and within ten years there were similar laws in twenty-two states in the

United States of America. The basic outcomes of the Child-Saving Movement, related to corrections, can be summarised as stated below:

- Reforms in child labour laws
- Creating the first juvenile court, in Illinois in 1899, upon the influence of Jane Adams and other Hull House workers.

As the decade of the 1930s passed, social work had been transformed and was described in the text of Social Work History (2017:70) as follows: "From a profession largely focused on individual adjustment and behavioural problems, it had re-discovered reform and systematic intervention and grown large enough to embrace both approaches." Zastrow (2010:42) states that, throughout the 20th century there has been a growing awareness by social agency boards and the public that professionally trained social workers should render services competently. This led to the establishment of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) founded during 1955, which aimed at improving social conditions in society and promoting high quality and effectiveness in social work practice, according to Kirst-Ashman (2007:201), Patti (2000:43) and Popple (1995:2289). According to Midgley (1998:19), the International Association of Schools of Social Work founded in 1929 initially reported only a few member schools, mainly in the industrial countries. Midgley continues by adding that in 1973 the membership grew to 459 social work schools in 66 countries and 476 member schools by 1983. This could be an indication of the rapid growth of the social work profession after the value of social workers had been realised.

When taking into account available literature (Matejkowski et al., 2014:2; Morales & Sheafer, 1998; Zastrow, 2010:319), it became clear that correctional social work was a new field that had not been regarded as one of the priority fields of practice during the historical development of social work. Brieland (1995:2249) confirmed this view as follows: "Medical social work, psychiatric social work and child welfare were the first three fields to have formal courses, each with a separate curriculum. Medical and psychiatric social work had developed in host settings under physicians; social workers managed only the child welfare agencies." Brieland (1995:2249) continues by adding that research regarding delinquency and criminality was done by psychiatric social workers. According to Carlson and Cervera (1992:4) and Matejkowski et al. (2014:6), there was a change by the early 1900s in the occurrence of criminals sent to prison *as* punishment and not *for* punishment. These authors continue to explain that the first evidence of rehabilitation in modern correctional facilities appeared in the form of social case work, first

introduced by the Federal Bureau of Prisons around the 1950s. This might serve as an explanation for the focus on social case work during the early years in corrections.

In summary, it becomes clear that social work in corrections developed from charity services rendered to the needy, low income communities during the 1800s by volunteers from religious groups and by the clergy. This became a profession, named correctional social work, involving services rendered by professionally trained social workers. From the above discussion the conclusion can be made that social work development in the international arena from the 1800s to the twentieth century also had an impact on the progress of correctional social work in Correctional Services in South Africa.

4.3   CORRECTIONAL SOCIAL WORK IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser (1995:139), social work in the DCS had its origin during 1911 in the South African Prisoners Aid Association, which visited prisoners to encourage their rehabilitation, rendered assistance to the dependents of prisoners, and obtained work for prisoners on their release. In 1953, this Association merged with the South African Probation Association, forming the Social Services Association. Coetzee et al. *(1995:139)*, continue to explain that this Association visited prisoners within the prison. The Penal and Prison Reform Commission of 1947 recommended that one or more social workers be appointed in a prison with functions of improvement and perfection of the upliftment and rehabilitation of the prisoner (Coetzee et al., 1995:139). According to these authors, a division named Religious and Social Services was established in the previous Prisons Service on 1 May 1961, after which the first social workers were appointed in 1966.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that offender care was part of the early social work activities reflected in history, and that it developed over time in a way similar to the development of other specialised fields in social work. Since the previous prison system started to appoint social workers, there were some changes in perceptions about treatment programmes elsewhere in the world which ultimately effected corrections in South Africa. Zastrow (2004:332) indicates three reasons for introducing USA treatment programmes into the South African correctional system in the 1970s, which are:

- All prisoners return to society, and it was concluded that punitive approaches alone do not produce the desired reformation

- Locking a person in an artificial environment, without providing rehabilitative programs, does not sufficiently prepare that person to be a productive citizen on his/her return, and
- The 50% recidivism rate is unacceptable, especially due to the high costs involved in incarceration.

Apparently it has become clear to correctional officials that punishment alone was ineffective in addressing the crime problem, rehabilitation therefore appeared to be an alternative, which led to the introduction of the social work profession into correctional systems. Social workers possess a number of skills that can be applied to and utilised in a correctional setting. This is confirmed by McDonald (2006:144), by the following statement: "Social workers work primarily with client attitudes and perceptions, and are thereby well-suited to a domain in which client motivation is a key disposition for success…the capacities of social workers to build trusting relations in difficult circumstances, their commitments to helping families bring about change, and their capacity to link families to community resources, are ideally suited to work in programmes." This statement summarises that change comes from a client's own motivation, which is the nature of working with offenders in a correctional centre (a difficult environment to build a relationship), because change would not be possible if an offender is not internally motivated to change. In the Department of Correctional Services, social work is part of the Rehabilitation programme, which is one of the six programmes presented in the system. It is therefore important to discuss the role of social work in the DCS, which is also the focus of the study, as well as how it compliments rehabilitation and unit management, which are the focus points in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa. In order to create clarity on these issues, correctional social work will be defined, and various social work programmes in DCS will be discussed accordingly.

4.3.1   Defining correctional social work

According to McLaughlin (2008:17) it is a difficult task to define social work, seeing that it covers a broad spectrum of various terms and fields. "Social work is an organized approach for promoting social welfare which uses professionally qualified personnel to deal with social problems…and to enhance the well-being of individuals, groups and communities," says Midgley (1998:19). Suppes and Wells (2012:17) elaborate: "Social work is a profession concerned with the relationships between people and their environments that affect the ability of people to accomplish life tasks, realise aspirations and values, and alleviate distress." Appleby, Colon and Hamilton (2011:5) confirm this view by stating that social work focuses on the

individual and his/her social environment, by advocating for social change, aiming at improving opportunities and the quality of people's lives. Bernstein (1995:54) adds: "… to assist people in restoring, maintaining or enhancing their social functioning…" According to the New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:40) social work is a professional service which is rendered by a social worker and is aimed at promoting the social functioning of people.

According to Llewellyn, Agu and Mercer (2008:5), the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) defines social work similar to the definition given by the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW), which means that the IASSW confirms the IFSW definition of social work.

For purposes of this study, as indicated in Chapter 1, the accepted description of social work would then be the international definition of social work as it was adopted by the IFSW and the IASSW in a General Assembly in Melbourne, Australia, during July 2014, which stipulated that:

> Social work is a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes social change and development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people. Principles of social justice, human rights, collective responsibility and respect for diversities are central to social work. Underpinned by theories of social work, social sciences, humanities and indigenous knowledge, social work engages people and structures to address life challenges and enhance wellbeing.

Social work with offenders has a long history, as long as that of social work itself (Johnson & Schwartz (1994:251). Examples such as the reformatory schools for juvenile offenders that were established during the 1850s where the well-being of these youngsters was promoted, are mentioned by Smith, in his elaboration on the history of correctional social work. Matejkowski et al. (2014:8), explain social work in prison as the applying of certain skills in the profession from the assessment phase of the offender, with focus on the reintegration of the offender into the community. Johnson and Schwartz (1994:251) concur: "Social workers … conceptualize rehabilitation as social adjustment, education, and preparation for living a normal citizen's life." According to Matejkowski et al. (2014:8) and Zastrow (2010:320), the treatment programmes and individual and group counseling are only some of a variety of rehabilitation services rendered to offenders. Others include religious programmes, vocational training, study release, work release, medical and mental health services, as well as educational training. Social Work Services is described as follows in the Department of Correctional Services Annual Report (2002:86): "In order to enhance the social functioning, problem-solving and coping capacities of

prisoners, social workers offer services that provide prisoners with the necessary resources, services and opportunities for development and growth." It seems that emphasis is placed on service delivery. In another document from the Department of Correctional Services, namely Social Work Services (2017), confirmed by Stevens and Cloete (1996:80), the aim of the profession is to guide and develop the inner strengths of the prisoner/probationer, and to utilise external resources in order to enhance rehabilitation and social functioning.

It can be concluded that the correctional social worker should be an integral part of a multi-disciplinary-team approach, with the shared objective of rehabilitating offenders. It is clear from the above definitions that social work as a profession has its rightful place in correctional facilities where services are being rendered to individuals, groups, and communities, in the context of their environment, with the aim of enhancing their social functioning and assisting the offender to re-integrate successfully into the community after release. The role of the correctional social worker therefore is, inter alia, to render a service to the offender by developing his/her life-skills by guiding him/her towards responsible decision-making in life, to network with external organisations in order to provide essential resources and opportunities, and to enhance the offender's social functioning.

Gibelman (1995:1) confirms that behaviour is a function of the relationship between the person and his/her environment. Morales and Sheafer (1998:104) define social work in correctional facilities, where the environment entails a prison structure, as a task where the social worker provides counselling and serves as a link to the outside world, which encompasses the family, potential employers, and the community service network that will provide support to that person at the time of release. General social work tasks in corrections include, according to resources (Gibelman, 1995:282; Matejkowski et al. 2014:19) intake, screening, assessment, classification, supervision, treatment, and release planning for offenders. The primary focus of social work in the correctional centre, according to Matejkowski et al. (2014:19), is "from the point of assessment onward, when risks for criminal behaviour and needs for specific and tailored interventions are identified, the prison [correctional] social worker must think about what will be needed on the other end of the sentence, at that critical point when it is literally show time for the offender." The State of Wisconsin Classification Specification Social Worker - Corrections (2013) provides a detailed and lengthy definition of correctional social work, by stating that correctional social work has the following functions:

applying psychosocial, psychotherapeutic or counselling principles, methods or procedures in the assessment, evaluation, psychosocial or psychotherapeutic diagnosis, prevention, treatment or resolution of a social, psychological, personal, emotional or mental disorder of an individual, couple, family, group of individuals or community, including the enhancement or restoration of, or the creation of societal conditions favourable to the enhancement of the capacity of an individual, couple … for social functioning or the delivery of services to a group of individuals or a community to assist … in providing or improving the provision of social services to others.

The researcher's view on the interaction between the client, social work, and the environment is reflected below in Figure 4.1.
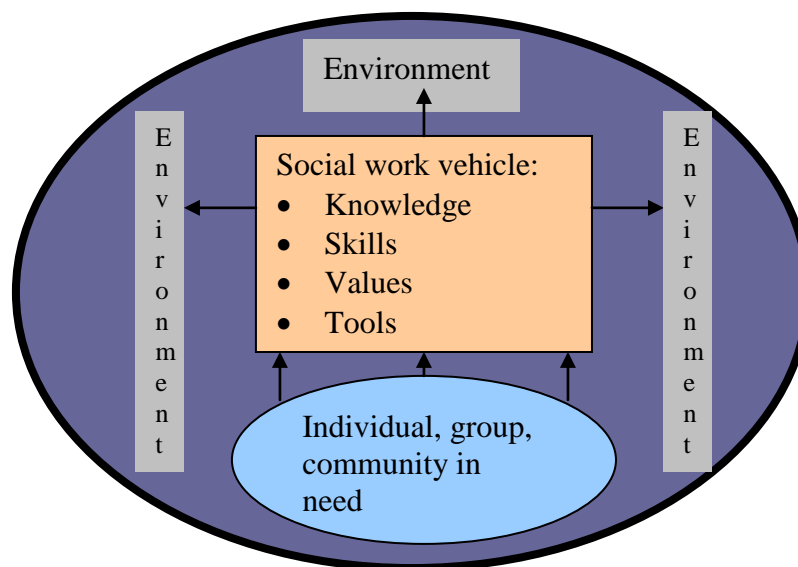
Figure 4.1: Interaction between the client, social work, and the environment

From the researcher's perspective, correctional social work can be viewed as a vehicle loaded with relevant skills, knowledge, values and tools that provide temporal assistance to individuals, groups, or communities to function successfully within their respective correctional environments because the vehicle forms the link between them and the environment.

Social work skills needed in order to establish a change process with clients on micro level, are according to Patel (2015:140) as follows: relationship building, counselling, interviewing, effective communication, and group work with various groups relationship building, counselling, interviewing, effective communication, and group work with various groups. Thompson (2009:100) distinguishes between fifteen categories of social work skills which are briefly

named as communication skills, self-awareness skills, analytical skills, self-management skills, handling feelings, presentation skills, sensitivity and observation skills, co-ordination skills, creativity, reflection skills, resilience, humility, thinking on your feet, conflict management skills and partnership skills.

Correctional social work skills are based on the basic social work profession skills though it is specialised due to the unique environment in a correctional centre or community corrections office. A summary of correctional social work skills is compiled by the researcher from contributions made by various sources (cf. Gibelman, 1995:282; May & Vass, 1996:47; Patterson, 2012:84; Van Voorhis & Salisbury, 2014:4) as follows: Correctional social workers

- view clients as part of a total system, therefore they work with teachers, employers, and family members to identify problem areas and possible solutions
- are skilled in case coordination, which is important when working with professionals from other disciplines
- communicates, intervenes, relate theory to practice
- effectively identify and use community resources
- possess oral and writing skills
- have assessment skills
- utilise motivational interviewing
- maintain professional relationships
- masters workload management
- are skilled in individual casework and group work, and effectively use techniques such as giving feedback, formulating goals, predicting behaviour, intervening in crises, and setting limits
- have a good sense of timing
- function with professional humility
- are able to interact with an ethnically and culturally diverse offender population
- bring essential advocacy skills to the field of corrections.

According to Llewellyn et al. (2008:104), social work in the area of crime and deviance has an important role to play in prevention and rehabilitation. Carlson and Cervera (1992:124) add that several attributes are required on the part of the counsellor in prison in order to be successful in the task of rehabilitating offenders. These include an understanding of the sources of criminal behaviour; strong clinical intervention skills; knowledge of resources within the facility and the

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community; the ability to work effectively in an interdisciplinary context; knowledge of cultural diversity, and self-awareness. The social worker working in a correctional centre should thus be a crime specialist with specific skills and abilities in handling challenging situations known to appear in the prison system.

Correctional social work furthermore focuses on the needs of offenders, as indicated by Neser (1997:315). It is important to assign offenders to rehabilitation programmes using a needs-directed method, which is to the advantage of the offender. Neser (1997:320) states that the DCS adopted a programme-orientated approach that could accommodate the need disposition of sentenced offenders, which also served as the bases of planning, design, and use of resources in prison. In the present method of service delivery, the correctional social worker thus forms part of the needs-orientated approach where offenders' needs are identified and addressed. Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2015:37) are of the opinion that "The need principle states that interventions and programmes should target criminogenic risk factors – those areas highly correlated with criminal behaviour." According to Richards (2003:3), who worked as a professional official in DCS for more than three decades, it is not clear on which grounds it was decided to implement specific programmes; she states that: "it appears that these programmes were designed according to what policy makers perceived the needs of the prisoners to be."

Moruane (2008:2) indicated that one of the biggest challenges the DCS is confronted with is providing needs-based rehabilitation services and programmes to offenders. She continued by stating that the status of treatment interventions has been subjected to great scrutiny and the effectiveness of correctional treatment programmes is being challenged. This implies that there is criticism and concern about the present intervention approach in DCS. Even though offenders' needs might be identified by social workers during the assessment phase, it is not confirmed to what extent the needs are actually met, because of standardised programmes that all offenders would be subjected to. According to Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2015:35), various research findings have confirmed that "we cannot have 'one size fits all' programmes if we expect to reduce recidivism." For the reason that the needs-based programmes might not meet all the identified needs, an alternative approach to intervention could be considered, which can be derived from new developments in the social work profession.

4.3.1.1 Strength-based approach

Recent development in the social work profession involves 'Strengths-based social work practice' where the premise is to move away from focusing on the client's shortcomings and to direct

attention to the client's abilities (Kurtz & Linnemann (2006:11). The focus during intervention is shifted from the needs of the offender to his/her abilities. The premise is that successful rehabilitation of offenders is directly linked to the offender's strengths and not his/her challenges. For the sake of clarity and to emphasise the value of this approach, specifically in corrections, attention will be given to defining strengths and assets-based social work practice and its nature.

Strengths-based social work is generally associated with literature from Dennis Saleebey (2013), who summarised this approach as follows:

> Practicing from a strengths perspective means that everything you do as a helper will be based on facilitating the discovery and embellishment, exploration, and use of clients' strengths and resources in the service of helping them achieve their goals and realize their dreams. (Saleebey 2013:1.)

According to Von Wormer (2006:35), Clark (2005:10) and Nissen (2001:2), the strengths-based approach is a philosophy as well as a set of practical skills and approaches, where the focus lies on client factors such as the client's personal strengths, aspirations, social support systems, capacities, talents, competencies, resources, beliefs, values, visions, hopes, and possibilities. Very little time is spent by the worker and the client on the reasons why a problem exists; they would rather concentrate on strengths both in the individual and his/her community, that can be drawn upon to solve the problem (Kurtz & Linnemann, 2006:11). Wayne (2006:1) explains that strengths-based practice assesses the inherent strengths of a client or family, and then builds on them – it uses people's personal strengths to aid in the recovery and empowerment process. It seems that the strengths-based approach focuses on the positive side of any problem or challenge that a client might be faced with. Instead of emphasising, discussing and dissecting the nature of the problem, both the client and the worker rather place energy and focus on the positive in the situation, such as the inputs from the client's perspectives and emotional framework. Working with an optimistic perspective is the reason for success in service delivery.

Wayne (2006:1) states reasons for using strengths-based social work, which can be summarised as follows: a) it is an alternative to traditional therapies where the client's functioning is generally described in terms of psychiatric diagnosis or deficits; b) it creates hope within clients, because previous successes form the groundwork for realistic expectations; c) it avoids the use of stigmatising terminology which can cause the client to feel helpless to change; d) it emphasises the positive building blocks that are already in the client's environment and can serve as a foundation for growth and change; e) it reduces the power barrier between client and therapist by

promoting the client to the level of expert regarding what works and what not; f) clients and families would rather invest in any process if they feel they are an integral part; and g) it places the therapist in the role of the guide or partner. According to McCormack (2007:7), the strengths-based approach assumes that people have strengths, skills and abilities, which are used as the platform on which recovery will be built. It can therefore be concluded that the strengths-based approach should be used, because it builds on previous successes and the recognition of inherent strengths that a client is already aware of, which in turn serves as a booster to his/her present self-confidence in facing the presenting problem or challenge. In order to successfully implement the strengths-based approach, a clear understanding of its principles is needed.

The principles of the strengths-based approach, as stipulated by Saleebey (2013:20; 2000:133), are as follows:

- Every individual, group, family, and community has strengths
- Trauma and abuse, illness, and struggle may be injurious, but they may also be sources of challenge and opportunity
- Assume that the upper limits of the capacity to grow and change are unknown. Take the individual, group, and community aspirations seriously
- Clients are best served by collaborating with them
- Every environment is full of resources
- Groups and communities should be assisted to care for their members.
- Caring, caretaking and context – assist families, groups and communities to care for their members
- Believe the client and believe *in* the client
- Affirm and show interest in the client's view of things
- A focus on the dreams, hopes and visions of people encourages them to be thinking about what might be and how it might come about
- Draw up an account of the assets, resources, reserves and capacities the client has
- Believe that there are forces for healing, self-righting, and wisdom within or around the person or family.

The principles of the strengths-based approach outlined above are inherent to successful rehabilitation, and hence applicable to rendering rehabilitative services to offenders. The value of the strengths-based approach in corrections is discussed by Clark (1997:110), where he indicates that the current or previously-used problem-focused models failed, because the focus of service

delivery was on the negative actions of the offender as well as on the nature and effect of the offender's criminal behaviour. Clark (1997:110) suggests that accountability and responsibility for a negative act are assumed when the person begins to change his/her behaviour; and in corrections change and building the future will not happen if an offender continues to focus on the past and his previous wrongful actions. A concept related to the strengths perspective and empowerment is resiliency: the ability of an individual, family, group, community or organisation to recover from adversity and resume functioning, even when suffering serious trouble, confusion, or hardship (Kirst-Ashman, 2007:59). This implies that the focus on resilience in the individual can assist in the rehabilitation process, because the offender has the ability to recover from previous trouble, confusion or hardship.

According to Clark (1997:111), there are four assumptions applicable to corrections when considering the strengths-based approach:

- A focus on strengths and mental health: The belief that all offenders possess talents, abilities, capacities, and past successes that can be discovered and used to help them not to re-offend
- Offender cooperation is fostered by a consistent emphasis on strengths: Cooperation is cultivated because of the consideration of what offenders can do, not what they cannot do, what they have been successful at, not what they have failed at, and what they have, not what they do not have
- Offender motivation is fostered by involving the offender and family closer in the treatment plan: Offender motivation is lost when a worker takes the 'expert' role and tells the offender and the family what they should do. It seems to be more fruitful to recognise the offender and the family and let them form part of the entire process
- The future is far more important than the past could ever be: The most important role of an assessment is to motivate the offender and the family to do something about the problem. Most of the time will be spent focusing on the future and on how to reach future goals, rather than looking at past experiences.

Clark (2005:10) summarises the value of the client's perceptions by stating that: "The more staff includes and encourages the client and the client's family to participate in the treatment process, and the more the client's perceptions are valued, the more likely change will occur." The term 'change' is a vital keyword in corrections, since behavioural change is the aim of all interventions in a correctional facility. The nature of the strengths-based approach leads to the conclusion that

service providers in the Department of Correctional Services, that include professional as well as custodial officials, should adopt and implement the principles of the strengths-based approach in order to improve service delivery and rehabilitation.

The relevance of the strengths-based perspective emphasises the importance of DCS needing to stay abreast of new developments in social work, implementing alternative treatment approaches in order to render the most efficient service possible to the client system. In view of the past focus of social work on the needs-based approach, the challenge to the DCS would be to not only focus on rendering services initiated by a needs-based approach, but to also integrate the strengths-based approach in service delivery and hence the rehabilitation of offenders.

In conclusion, social work in corrections is a vehicle loaded with relevant skills, knowledge, values and tools that provide temporal assistance to individuals, groups, or communities, to function successfully within their respective correctional environments, because the correctional social worker functions as the link between them and the environment.

4.3.2   The role of Social Work in the Department of Correctional Services

According to the DCS Directorate of Social Work Services (2017:1), and the DCS B-Order Chapter Five [sa], social work in the DCS is rendered by qualified social workers who are registered with the South African Council for Social Services and Professions (SACSSP) in terms of the Social Services Professions Act (Act no 110 of 1978). These services include therapeutic, informative, supportive, trauma, development, administrative, assessment and evaluative services (Directorate Social Work Services, 2017:1; DCS B-Order Chapter Five [sa]).

To create a broader picture of the situation in DCS concerning social workers and other professionals, a former Deputy Minister of Correctional Services, Ms Jacobus stated in her 2008 Budget Vote Speech, that: "It is common knowledge that the whole South African health care system has been suffering from the drain of scarce skills inclusive of medical practitioners, nurses, psychologists, and social workers and Correctional Services is no exception from this national norm" (RSA, Ministry for Correctional Services, 2008:8). Moruane (2008:4) indicated that there are about 520 social workers employed in the DCS, who are responsible for ± 160 000 offenders. The shortage of correctional social workers is confirmed in the DCS Annual Report (2007:59), where it is revealed that the Department is facing a challenge in the recruitment and retention of social workers: "The decrease in performance was due to the high turnover of social

workers, delays in filling posts and the challenge in recruiting social workers." Correctional social workers are working with a heavy caseload, and consequently under difficult circumstances, with stresses and expectations from a variety of sources that cause them to either burn out or resign. The shortage of professional officials, and in this case social workers in particular, pose a concern and a challenge to DCS, because this could result in quality services not being rendered, which, in turn, would have a hindering effect on the rehabilitation process of offenders.

Correctional social workers should be guided in their service delivery by the principles of correctional social work and the referral procedure of offenders. Correctional social work is based on certain principles, and a specific referral procedure is to be followed to bring an offender to the attention of the social worker. Tshiwula (1998:160) indicates that social work services in the Department of Correctional Services are based on the following principles:

- The rendering of services is directed by national and international standards and guidelines
- The offender's choice is recognised in utilising social services
- The community's involvement is utilised as a supportive partner
- Opportunities are provided for the development of offenders.

These principles entail that an offender can choose whether or not to be involved in any development programmes, which include social work services – whether casework, group work, or community work. Correctional social workers render services to clients who are either referred to them or who request services. Referrals for social work services are done according to DCS Social Work Services (2017:1) in the following ways:

- By court for specific treatment
- By the CMC, Parole Board, Unit manager, other professionals or custodial staff, for specific attention
- Upon the client's own request
- Upon the request of an external social worker for a specific problem which needs to be addressed, and
- Upon the request of the families or friends of the clients.

It can therefore be accepted that if ever an offender needs to consult with a social worker, the proper referral structure is in place. In order to render effective services to offenders, specific

social work methods are utilised. Social work methods that are applicable to DCS are casework, group work, community work, research, and administration (DCS Director Social Work Services, 2017:1; DCS Social work Services, 2017:1; Coetzee et al., 1995:140). In order to provide clarity on the implementation of social work methods in corrections, a brief discussion of these methods will follow:

Casework: Social case work and counselling are described as practice methods that involve understanding and responding to individuals in their social environment (Healy, 2012:55). According to Thompson (2009:91), casework generally involves social work with individuals through counselling or intervention to help overcome personal or systematic problems that prepare people for fulfilling their potential and it serves as a platform for empowerment. Zastrow (2010:45) describes casework as individual therapeutic work at the rehabilitative level, on a one-to-one basis, helping clients to adjust to their environment or to change certain social and economic pressures that are adversely affecting them. In a correctional setting casework plays a vital role, because offenders experience specific personal trauma that requires individual intervention. Casework can be viewed as a rehabilitation tool in correctional social work, because it provides the opportunity for the social worker to render services to the offender in his/her present environment, guided by the strength-based approach. Examples of counselling would be family-related issues, marital or relationship issues – assisting both parties in coping with the prison sentence in relation to finances, the children, and supporting each other. Examples of casework done by a correctional social worker in the DCS would be suicidal attempts, hunger strikes, marital or relationship issues, divorce or separation, establishing family contact or support systems, coping with death in the family, sexual abuse by fellow inmates, and a vast variety of social problems experienced during childhood years.

Group work: A group refers to a collection of at least three people who identifies as part of a group, shares a common purpose or task related to that group, and who relates to each other to achieve this common purpose (Healy, 2012:137). Group work can be viewed as social work in an interventive form with members from groups or families, where the goal is to assist group members through the group process and interaction (Day, 1997:55; Zastrow, 2010:45). Group work was professionally recognised in the 1930s, in the work of Mary Follet (1868-1933) in her 1924 book *Creative Experience*, where she explained humanistic management through creative interaction with people and groups (Day, 1997:301; Gitterman & Germain, 2008:21). According to Zastrow (2010:45), group work seeks to facilitate the intellectual, emotional and social development of individuals through group activities, and different groups have different

objectives, such as exchanging information, providing recreation, improving socialisation, or explaining certain procedures. Three basic skills are needed by social workers according to Morales and Sheafer (1998:197), to be able to function as a group worker, namely: knowledge of group structure and function, the capacity to perform the staff role within the group, and the ability to engage in group therapy.

According to Zastrow (2010:45) different groups have different objectives. This is found to be true when considering group work in a correctional facility, because groups are carefully selected, aimed at reaching the specific objectives of a specific group. For example, the therapeutic Anger Management Group consists of offenders who have all committed aggressive offences such as robbery, murder, assaults, damage to property, arson, or any offence that reveals violence. Any offender who reveals aggression or violence during the serving of his/her sentence can also be referred to attend the Anger Management Programme, irrespective of the nature of his/her offence. The objectives of this type of group would be, amongst others, to focus on aggressive behaviour, anger management, self-control and handling of conflict.

Community work: Community work refers to a set of approaches focused on understanding individuals as part of a community, and on building the capacity of that community to address the social, economic or political challenges facing its members (Healy, 2012:169). Community work can be described as social work with groups in the community to bring about changes in the social system (Day, 1997:55). The community worker would coordinate and evaluate the effectiveness of community projects (Morales & Sheafer, 1998:38). The aim of community work is to stimulate and assist the local community to evaluate, plan, and coordinate efforts to provide for the community's health, welfare, and any other needs (Zastrow, 2010:47). According to Gitterman and Germain (2008:25), correctional systems need to forge links with community agencies that work with families in the community and are willing to cooperate with prison officials to provide family-related services within the facility. In DCS, the correctional social worker continuously networks with role players in the community, such as the Department of Social Development, Community Development Workers, Department of Health, and Non-Governmental Organizations such as the Christian Social Council (CSC / CMR) and the South African Women's [Vroue] Federation (SAVF), amongst others, in order to render the required services to offenders.

Based on a correctional facility's geographical boundaries, as well as commonalities amongst inmates, the offender population can be regarded as the prison community (Kirst-Ashman,

2007:128). Community activities and programmes are therefore presented to the prison community as a whole by the social workers in collaboration with other role-players. Even though community activities are available to the total offender population, only those offenders interested participate. Examples of community projects are the celebration of national and international days such as Human Rights Day and Youth Day, No-violence-against-women campaigns, as well as World Aids Day.

The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:63) focuses on corrections, which is a societal responsibility. This implies that the Department of Correctional Services recognises the family as the primary level where corrections should take place, as well as schools, churches, and other organisations that function on a secondary level of change ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:65). The challenge to the DCS would be to market its services to communities, and to create an awareness that the families and communities share in the responsibility of rehabilitating offenders. After the prisoner had been released, the role of the family and the community would be to continue with the rehabilitation process that was started with an offender while serving his/her sentence. It practically means that an offender should be accepted back into the family and the community and supported where needed. It therefore is of utmost importance that community projects be launched in as many communities as possible, with the objective of marketing Correctional Services, rehabilitation and service-rendering.

Administration: Panmar (2014:317) constitutes that the administrative aspects of social work have to do with "the organization and management of social agencies public and private, including in those terms general administrative relationships among units of the same organization, personal problems, and questions of finance" amongst others. Administration is connected to policy practice, and can be viewed as professional practices needed for planning, working with legislation, or administering the organisation (Day, 1997:56). Administration therefore involves directing the overall programme of a social service agency. Administrative functions include setting objectives, handling financial affairs, coordinating efforts, and managing processes and procedures, amongst others (Zastrow, 2010:58).

Administration forms part of the daily activities of correctional social workers, at both productive and management level. The correctional social worker should ensure the implementation of policies, acts and directives; manage finances, inventories, and budget

expenditures; organise and plan daily, weekly and yearly schedules; and record all events, such as interviews, group work and community work.

Research: Research investigates social problems to find new ways of service or to add to the knowledge base of social work (Doel & Shardlow, 2006:250). According to Parmar (2014:313) "Research offers numerous tools to professional social workers to describe, define, measure and evaluate their work." Research is applicable to the social worker working in a correctional facility, because it is essential that research be done on a regular basis; on the one hand to determine needs of offenders as well as to provide needs-based programmes, and on the other hand to stay abreast of new developments in the field of social work, such as the strengths-based approach, that could be of great value to correctional social workers.

Supervision: Kadushin and Harkness (2014:9) state that the objective of social work supervision is to "provide efficient, effective and appropriate social work services to clients." It is therefore the role of the supervisor to ensure that the work done by the supervisee is efficient, effective and appropriate. This is done when the supervisor implements the three functions of supervision which is administrative, supportive and educational (Kadushin & Harkness, 2014:9). Correctional social work rely heavily on administrative, educational and supportive supervision due to the challenging work environment in correctional centres with an involuntary client system**.**

It can be concluded that correctional social work methods form a framework for the effective rendering of social work services, as well as for the enhancement of rehabilitation opportunities for offenders and thus for the achievement of correctional social work goals and objectives.

4.3.3   Goals of correctional social work

Greyling (1997:80) indicated that the goal of social work in the prison system would be to improve the interpersonal relationships of offenders, in order to enhance their functioning while being detained. The improvement of interpersonal relationships has long-term goals according to this author, since it can assist the offender with successful reintegration into the community, and prevent future crime.

The first goal stated in the National Developmental Social Welfare Strategy (RSA, Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 2000:1) forms an umbrella description of goals for all social work services. The specific goal proposes that the strategy would:

> Facilitate the provision of appropriate developmental social welfare services to all South Africans, especially those living in poverty, those who are vulnerable, and those who have special needs. These services should include rehabilitative, preventative, developmental, and protective services and facilities, as well as social security, including social relief programmes, social care programmes, and the enhancement of social functioning.

It can be concluded from this goal that the poor, the vulnerable, and those with special needs have been targeted as the social work profession's client base that needs to be served at all levels, that is from prevention to development and protection. This reveals the vastness of the social work profession, the multitude of skills and knowledge required, as well as its huge capacity to render services to the needy. This goal furthermore is applicable to corrections, since its core business is of a rehabilitative nature, where offenders are developed to enhance their social functioning. Zastrow (2010:51) lists the five goals of social work practice as identified by The National Association of Social Workers, namely:

- To enhance the problem-solving, coping, and developmental capacities of people
- To link people with systems that provide them with resources, services, and opportunities
- To promote the effectiveness and humane operation of systems that provide people with resources and services
- To develop and improve social policy and
- To empower groups at risk and to promote social and economic justice.

Hepworth, Rooney, Rooney, Strom-Gottfried and Larsen (2010:5) narrow the purpose of social work down to three major focus areas, namely: *remediation* – to help clients deal with difficult situations more effectively; *restoration,enhancement of social functioning* – focus on growth and development of a client in a particular area of functioning; and *prevention* – to identify basic causes of difficulties in a specific area of social functioning in order to prevent the development of problems in that area. All the above-mentioned contributions result in the correctional social worker using a change process when working with offenders. In summary, the purpose of social work can be defined as the advancing of the quality of life for all people through the

enhancement of mutually beneficial interactions between individuals and society (Sevel, Cummins & Madrigal, 1999:10).

In order to be able to meet all these goals mentioned – that stretch from administrative duties to development to the practical implementation thereof – the correctional social worker needs to be well equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitude to achieve these goals. To attain these goals in a correctional facility, the purpose and objectives of correctional social work has to be well spelt out.

Kirst-Ashman (2007:473) and Holtzhauzen (2000:3) indicate that the purpose or functions of social work in prison consists of a number of factors, namely:

- To provide individual or group counselling to offenders when needed or requested;
- To help initiating and implementing prison activities
- To enhance the problem-solving and coping abilities of people
- To link people with systems that provide them with resources, services and opportunities
- To promote effective and humane operation of these systems, and
- To contribute to the development and improvement of social policy.

When considering The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:26) where it is stated that rehabilitation forms part of the core business of the DCS, it becomes clear that the purpose of social work in corrections should also include the contributions made by social workers towards the rehabilitation of offenders. The overall aim of the purpose, objectives, roles and programmes of social work should be the contribution they make to the rehabilitation of offenders. This is confirmed by the following statement in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:128): "Rehabilitation is a process that has to address the specific history of the individual concerned in order to be successful … it requires the positive commitment and voluntary participation of the individual, as it is a process that others can facilitate, but that cannot succeed without the commitment of the individual". Correctional social work is inherent to the social work profession and therefore is part of the rehabilitation process in that it facilitates change in individuals and groups of offenders.

Social work objectives in the DCS can be summarised from the limited amount of South African literature available (cf DCS Directorate Social Work Services, 2017:1; DCS Social Work Services, 2017:3 and Coetzee et al., 1995:140) as follows:

- To assess the persons / accused / sentenced offenders to determine their needs
- To address situations that influence change in behaviour
- To strengthen offenders' support systems
- To arrange for family counselling interviews between the client and his/her family/significant other
- To ensure care and stimulation programmes to young children incarcerated with their mothers in an environment conducive to their normal development.
- To link offenders with systems that provide them with resources, services, and opportunities
- To render supportive services
- To enhance offenders' capacity to deal with the demands in their social environment
- To refer to external welfare organisations for reconstruction and aftercare services
- To develop and design needs-based programmes for targeted offenders and probationers
- To ensure goal-orientated services to special categories of offenders in terms of their accommodation, custodial programmes, development, and treatment programmes, with a view to the empowerment and enhancement or their total functioning within the family and community
- To coordinate the development of distinctive and comprehensive policies for these categories regarding accommodation, custodial development, and treatment in consultation with the relevant directorate and other parties.

Due to the vastness of the social work profession and the variety of services rendered by correctional social workers, it is imperative that they would take on some **roles** in order to deliver optimal services and enhance the rehabilitation of offenders. Kirst-Ashman (2007:107) states that social workers have a wide range of professional roles due to the vastness of problems that they deal with, as well as the different methods used in performing necessary functions. Hokenstad, Khinduka and Midgley (1992:181) explain that social workers work with people throughout their life cycles, with children, adults, the elderly; in fields of practice that embrace health, mental health, community development, criminal justice, and schools, amongst others. These authors state that social workers generally perceive themselves to be agents of social change and institutional reform. According to Ginsberg and Keys (1995:41) social workers can

be described as people who, amongst others, provide a link between service providers, are organisers, planners, treatment providers, developers of services, problem solvers, people who take action and leaders. Zastrow (2010:70) concurs with the mentioned roles for social workers, stated that there is a vastness of social work roles and added the following roles: enabler, broker, advocate, empowerer, activist, mediator, negotiator, educator, initiator, coordinator, researcher, group facilitator, and public speaker. Social work roles, such as case manager, policy analyst, developer, trainer and researcher are emphasised by McDonald (2006:144) who indicated that these roles are relevant in the workplace.

These stipulated roles are applicable to social work in corrections, because a correctional social worker functions as a link between service providers, various role-players in the institution, and to the family of the offender. The correctional social worker needs to organise and plan daily activities as well as community projects. Furthermore, the correctional social worker develops and designs needs-based programmes for the offenders in the institution and problem- solving forms part of the daily activities of this social worker.

Patel (2015:142) presents a brief summary of social work activities that can be divided into twelve roles. This source explain that development social workers work with different people on various levels of practice which causes them to assume a wide range of roles such as educator, conferee, enabler, facilitator, mobiliser, counsellor, advocate, innovator, broker, mediator, social protector, and networker. All these roles can be applicable to the correctional social worker at any given time. The one social work role that can be highlighted in correctional social work, however, is the role of 'behaviour changer', because rehabilitation of offenders is the main focus area in a correctional facility. According to Barker (2003:365) the term 'rehabilitation' of offenders is usually used by social workers with "restoring to a healthy condition or useful capacity to the extent possible" in mind. The concept of 'changing behaviour' forms part of the daily activities of correctional officials and specifically correctional social workers. It seems from Sevel et al. (1999:7), that the number of social work roles is not limited to the roles already mentioned by previous resources and added the following roles: enabler, mediator, counsellor, facilitator, general manager, researcher, initiator and integrator/coordinator.

A research study was coordinated by the former Deputy Commissioner of the Department of Correctional Services, Ms J Sishuba, who focused on the role of social work in DCS (Holtzhauzen, 2000:14). The result of this research was that a framework was formulated, which identified different themes that social workers in DCS focus on during service delivery, as well

as the roles adopted by them. Some of these roles include broker, advocate, probation officer, parole officer, planner, catalyst, activist, trainer, teacher, counsellor, enabler, facilitator, mediator, consultant and researcher. When all these roles are considered, the leadership facet is evident in every action taken by correctional social workers.

Holtzhauzen (2000:15) summarises the envisaged role of the social worker in the DCS after his participation in the above-mentioned research study as facilitator, by stating that: "It is the role of social work to assist the offender to change his behaviour, attitude and perception through support, treatment and development programmes by utilizing skills and knowledge in order to ensure successful re-integration into society." It implies that an offender should be on the rehabilitation path prior to release. According to Dissel and Muntingh (2003:8) the enhancement of rehabilitation in DCS commenced during a consultative conference held during August 2000, as well as in internal discussions, where rehabilitation was viewed as 'a key starting point in contributing towards a crime free society." Reaching this goal, as Dissel and Muntingh (2003:8) continue, would imply the following:

- Development of individualised need-based rehabilitation programmes
- Marketing of rehabilitation services to increase offender participation
- Establishment of formal partnerships with the community to strengthen the rehabilitation programmes and to create a common understanding
- Promotion of a restorative approach to justice, to create a platform for dialogue for the victim, the offender, and the community facilitating the healing process
- Combating of illiteracy in prison by providing ABET to offenders
- Increasing of production to enhance self-sufficiency and to contribute to the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
- Increasing of training facilities for the development of skills.

During a workshop held at Boksburg during March 2001 where the DCS educators had to redefine their roles within the context of the new paradigm to DCS, (which is a shift away from a punitive approach to a rehabilitative approach), Sakela, Matthee, and Kondleka (2001:18) reported that rehabilitation cannot be achieved by submitting offenders to treatment programmes only. All activities in prison must support rehabilitation. In the Enhancement of Rehabilitationin Correctional Services article, that appeared in the Nexus Magazine (2001:3), it is stated that rehabilitation has been placed at the centre of all activities in order to strike a

balance between safe custody and rehabilitation. The former Minister of Correctional Services, Mr B Skhosana, stated in his Budget Vote Debate speech during June 2001 that:

> ... my department was stepping up its campaign to put rehabilitation at the centre of all its activities. This was first and foremost as a result of the commitments we made to the Cabinet Lekgotla of January 2001 where we identified rehabilitation as a key departmental objective. But secondly, it was also as a result of the Department's critical re-examination if its strategic role within the broader context of the criminal justice system coming out of its strategic planning session held in April 2001 (RSA, Budget Vote Debate Speech, 2001).

In a budget vote speech rendered by Mr L J Modisenyane during June 2004, he confirmed the focus of the Department of Correctional Services by stating that the DCS seeks to ensure that it contributes to the protection of society by placing rehabilitation at the centre of all its activities, and by encouraging and assisting offenders to become safely reintegrated into society as law-abiding citizens (RSA, Budget Vote Speech, 2004:1). At the same time, the Department strives to ensure that it exercises safe, humane, and secure control over offenders. The paradigm shift is premised on the belief that every individual has the potential to change, and that rehabilitation is a long-term goal to crime prevention. It can be concluded from the input of the sources named above that the paradigm shift in the DCS (away from focusing on safe custody only to also include rehabilitation) started during 2000 and gained momentum during 2001 and 2002 through various documents distributed to units and centres. These defined rehabilitation and described strategies and initiatives to be taken to enhance rehabilitation and to market the rehabilitation process. (Compare Mlotshwa, 2002:17; 2003:15.) The legal mandate for rehabilitation in the Department of Correctional Services includes the following, according to DCS Conceptualizing Rehabilitation (2017:1):

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, enshrines the right of prisoners and mandated the Department to detain prisoners under conditions consistent with human dignity
- The Correctional Services, Act 111 of 1998, Section 2 states that: The purpose of the correctional system is to contribute to maintaining and protecting a just, peaceful; and safe society, by:

(a) enforcing sentences of the courts in a manner prescribed by this Act
(b) detaining all prisoners in safe custody whilst ensuring their human dignity, and

(c) promoting the social responsibility and human development of all prisoners and persons subject to community or community corrections.

The role of the social worker in the Correctional Services can be summarised mainly as a rehabilitator, (which role includes other roles such as therapist, facilitator, planner, enabler, and researcher), who forms part of the multi-disciplinary team that ensures effective service delivery to the offender, his/her family, and the community as a whole, in an attempt to rehabilitate the offender. These social work roles mentioned can be utilised during the rehabilitation process, which will be highlighted briefly during the following discussion.

In order to create an understanding of what was and is expected from correctional officials with reference to the process of rehabilitation, the term 'rehabilitation' will next be defined and discussed.

4.4   REHABILITATION IN CORRECTIONS

In this section focus is on defining the term rehabilitation, the purpose of rehabilitation, rehabilitation programmes, and key agents of rehabilitation.

4.4.1   Defining rehabilitation

According to Stinchcomb (2011:40) the literal meaning of rehabilitation is "to restore to good condition". The word 'rehabilitation' is a combined French and Latin term, coming from French *re,* which means 'return' or 'repetition', and the Latin *habilis,* that means 'competent'. Originally the word thus denoted 'return to competence' (Mathiesen, 1990:20). The latter author explains that in the prison context it implies that: "… a prisoner is to be restored to his or her old form, notably before the crime […] to be reinstated to his or her old dignity and privileges, before the 'fall'." Rehabilitation is reached through a variety of programmes that range from educational and vocational training to individual therapy and substance abuse counseling aiming at transforming the offender into a socially amendable and law-abiding citizen (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:49). Werner (1990:72) agrees with this by stating that a person who committed a crime did so because of a skewed sense of value and the individual should be treated to allow the opportunity for him/her to see the error of his/her ways. Rehabilitation therefore focuses on assisting prisoners by the creation of opportunities, the acquisition of knowledge and new skills, the development of an attitude of serving with excellence, and the achievement of principled relations with others, preparing them to return to society with an improved chance of staying out

of prison as productive and law-abiding citizens. Lauer and Lauer (2008:111) hold the premise that rehabilitation entails the re-socialising of a criminal and returning him or her to full participation in society. It can be concluded that an offender should be assisted to correct his/her negative behaviour of crime, aiming at improving him/herself in an enabling environment where a human-rights culture is upheld, reconciliation, forgiveness and healing are facilitated, and prisoners are encouraged and assisted to discard negative values and to develop positive ones.

The assumption behind rehabilitation according to Brown, Esbensen and Geis (1998:48) is: "…that behaviour can be modified by altering attitudes, values, skills, or constitutional features that cause criminal behaviour." Lourens (1997:40) elaborates on behaviour modification by focusing on rehabilitation as a reforming process. According to Hunter and Dantzker (2012:200)"The underlying basis of rehabilitation is that criminal behaviour results from sociological, psychological, or physical imperfections. These imperfections require correction through treatment or training". Rehabilitation is described in the context of DCS in the DCS Social Work Services Policy (2008:3) as:

> The creation of an enabling environment where a human rights culture is upheld, reconciliation, forgiveness and healing are facilitated, and offenders are encouraged and assisted to discard negative values, while adopting and developing positive ones that are acceptable to society. The creation of opportunities for the acquisition of knowledge and new skills, the development of an attitude of serving with excellence and the achievement of principled relations with others, to prepare the offender to return to society with an improved chance of leading a crime-free life as productive and law-abiding citizens. A process that is aimed at helping offenders gain insight into their offending behaviour and also understands that their crimes have caused injury to others.

Rehabilitation can be defined as a holistic phenomenon incorporating and encouraging social responsibility, social justice, active participation in democratic activities, empowerment with life and other skills, and a contribution to making South Africa a better place to live in (Dissel & Muntingh, 2003:9). To bring about a reduction in offending, McLaughlin and Muncie (2001:242) define rehabilitation by focusing on addressing the factors that cause crime, such as economic, social or personal circumstances. Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:209) define rehabilitation as a programmed effort to alter attitudes and behaviours of inmates, and focus on the elimination of their future criminal behaviours. Welch (2011:97) briefly summarises the definition of rehabilitation by stating that it entails "any planned intervention that reduces an

offender's further criminal activity." According to Sentle (2002:14), and DCS Conceptualizing Rehabilitation (2017:2), rehabilitation is defined by three focus points, which are:

- The creation of an enabling environment where a human rights culture is upheld, reconciliation, forgiveness and healing are facilitated, and prisoners are encouraged and assisted to discard negative values and to develop positive ones
- The creation of opportunities, the acquisition of knowledge and new skills, the development of an attitude of serving with excellence, and the achievement of principled relations with others, to prepare the prisoners to return to society with an improved chance of staying out of prison as productive and law-abiding citizens
- A process that starts with the prisoner gaining insight into his/her need to change negative behaviour.

Lourens (1997:40) concurs with the statement that explains rehabilitation as a process that starts with the offender gaining insight into his/her own behaviour, by indicating that rehabilitation is an outcome of reflection, regret, and the realisation of a wrong action performed by him/her. Lourens (1997:40) continues to state that rehabilitation starts with a change of attitude; it is not seen a once-off experience, but should rather be seen as a process of continuous experiences that results in the offender having the desire to conform to the norm of the society. This is confirmed by Brown et al. (1998:48), who state that: "Behaviour can be modified by altering attitudes, values, skills, or constitutional features that cause criminal behaviour. Rehabilitation assumes that appropriate treatments may be prescribed according to the nature of the offender's defect." An example of this is when an offender committed an aggressive offence such as murder, robbery, or assault; he/she will be expected to complete an Anger Management programme at the social work section. The belief is that once a period of personal growth has been completed, and the offenders gain insight into their behaviour, they will come to terms with their criminality and will choose to lead a law-abiding life (Schwartz & Travis, 1997:19).

An operational definition of rehabilitation is presented by Hesselink-Louw (2004:30), as follows:

…rehabilitation entails the cross-disciplinary development, treatment, intervention, correction, reformation and alteration of criminal and antisocial behaviour. This encompasses all aspects of the prisoner's life such as assessment of personal needs, social, psychological, education, spiritual and intellectual development.

Levinson (1999:2) concurs with the development of offenders and elaborates as follows: "One of the primary missions of corrections is to develop and operate correctional programs that balance the concepts of punishment, deterrence, incapacitation, and rehabilitation (counseling, work, education, and training) for individuals in correctional institutions. Unit management helps provide this balance." Interpreting this view of Levinson, it is clarified that when unit management is implemented at a correctional facility, the possibility of rehabilitation is enhanced.

Priestley and Vanstone (2010:107) state that the 1960s to early 1980s was a period when there was a great acceptance of treatment and rehabilitation in England and Wales, while Werner (1990:72) states that the shift to the philosophy of rehabilitation took place in the United States of America during the 1940s and 1950s. Rehabilitation at that time alleged that a person who committed a crime did so because of a skewed sense of value, and that it was the duty of the state to treat that individual and allow him/her an opportunity to see the error of his/her ways, as explained by Werner (1990:72). The prison would then 'correct' inmate behaviour and return that person to a life of 'correct' thinking and values. Werner (1990;72) continues to state that prisons became 'correctional institutions', guards became 'correctional officers' and work assignments became 'treatment programmes'. These changes in terminology also affected the Department of Correctional Services in that prisons are referred to as 'correctional units / centres or facilities', warders are called 'correctional officials', and any intervention concerning the rehabilitation of offenders are referred to as 'development and care programmes or correctional programmes'.

According to Bartol (2002:421) the fundamental goal of rehabilitation is to develop lawful alternative behaviour. Despite the trend towards deterrence rather than rehabilitation, evidence of the potency of rehabilitation programmes for offenders continues to accumulate (Gendreau, 1995:2035). These statements confirm that there is a need and a place for rehabilitation in corrections, and specifically in the Department of Correctional Services. Rehabilitation in corrections can, however, be a huge challenge, as is obvious from the views of O'Toole and Eyland (2005:231) that the prison has to achieve many different objectives at once for different groups of people. O'Toole and Eyland (2005:231) explain their view as follows:

It has to hold those awaiting trial. It has to keep juveniles, adolescents and the elderly; it has to keep men and women, boys and girls, the mentally ill, the addicted and drug dependent, the meek and pathetic and the domineering and violent, the

illiterate and uneducated as well as the intelligent … it has to keep the alienated, alone and suicidal.

When the vastness of the prison population is considered, it becomes clear that it would be difficult to implement a rehabilitation programme that is going to suit and meet the needs of the entire group of offenders. On the other hand, the communal factor among all offenders despite their origin and nature, is crime, and that they are all incarcerated due to the commitment of some kind of offence. These two factors should therefore be the starting point for rehabilitation in prison.

It is concluded from the discussion above that rehabilitation should end in the offender not re-offending, but that it takes a committed effort to reach this point. Firstly, an environment should be created where the offender feels comfortable to do introspection and to share his/her feelings and emotions with an official. Secondly, after the offender reveals a need for behavioural change, he/she should be involved in developmental programmes that might include social work, religious care, or educational programmes. Thirdly, continuous support services should be available to the offender to assist him/her through the sentence, and to focus on successful reintegration into the community.

In order to contribute to rehabilitation in corrections, specifically as stipulated in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005), it is important to focus briefly on the role of correctional and professional officials within the framework of unit management. Hurley and Hanley (2010:77) are in line with the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005) through their emphasis on the importance of approach by correctional officials working with offenders daily. These authors state it as recorded below:

> Typically in corrections, front-line staff is responsible for most of the contact with offenders. Often this contact is the sole representation of the quality of the organization or agency, the activities of the agency, and the organizational culture. The type and quality of these contacts can impact the success of the client. Staff attitudes can transfer to clients very quickly and intensely.

With this contribution Hurley and Hanley (2010:77) highlight the importance of all officials, not only professional correctional officials. According to Bruyns, Jonker and Luyt (2000:80), a case management team should be established. This team should consist of all officials who have

contact with a specific offender, such as the Case Manager, Unit Manager, Case Officer, Educator, Medical Staff, Social Worker, Chaplain, and the offender him/herself. According to these authors, the function of this team would be to determine the needs of the offender, compile a tailored sentence plan for the offender and to monitor the progress on a three-monthly basis. It can be concluded that all officials in the case management team should co-operate to enhance rehabilitation, meaning that officials should implement the multi-disciplinary approach in order to ensure effectiveness.

4.4.2   The purpose of rehabilitation

The **purpose of rehabilitation,** according to the Enhancement of Rehabilitation article (2001:1), is to provide a safe and appropriate environment conducive to influencing offenders, to learn and adopt positive and appropriate value systems. It furthermore should provide programmes meant to reduce re-offending, to assist with offenders' integration into society as law-abiding citizens, and to minimise the likelihood of a return to crime. This document states that, in order for rehabilitation to be effective, it should incorporate all aspects of a prisoner's life. It was for this reason that unit management was embraced as an approach to improve prisoner management. The DCS Conceptualizing Rehabilitation (2001:2) reveal that rehabilitation has three objectives; which are, firstly, to encourage prisoners to own the main values as enshrined in the constitution; secondly, to make them an asset to society as productive and law-abiding citizens that find crime-free life a practical option; and thirdly, to address the offending behaviour in order to curb re-offending and reduce recidivism.

According to Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:209) the rehabilitation process includes offender treatment programmes that are based on the following assumptions: The offender believes being a non-offender is preferable to being a criminal; the causal factors lie primarily within the offender; the causal factors can be identified and treated; and through the rehabilitation process, the offender will learn and internalise accepted norms. Ross, Fabiano and Ewles (2010:180) found that programmes containing cognitive training were more effective in reducing recidivism than life-skills training. The cognitive training programme stretches over a period of eighteen months and it includes, amongst others, Structured Learning Therapy (social skills), Values Education (values and concern for others), Lateral Thinking (creative problem-solving), Assertiveness Training (non-aggressive, socially appropriate ways in meeting needs), Critical Thinking (logic, rational thinking), and Social Perspective training (recognising and understanding other people's views and feelings). Dissel and Muntingh (2003:9) state that within the Departmental environment, rehabilitation is best facilitatedthrough a holistic sentence

planning process that engages the correctional client at all levels – social, moral, spiritual, physical, work, educational and mental; it is premised on the approach that every human being is capable of change and transformation if offered the opportunity and resources. Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:203) agree, and discuss a variety of inmate activities that could form part of the holistic sentence plan. These activities can be outlined as follows:

- Recreational activities: These help to reduce the burden of boredom and routine, and are important for the smooth operation of correctional facilities. Examples of recreational activities are weight-lifting, volleyball, soccer, libraries, and choirs. Art activities available range from crafts to poetry, and are creative outlets for inmate energies and constructive ways for inmates to spend their time

- Religion: Various religious services are performed, both by inmate lay ministers and by ordained clergy. The basic role of the chaplain is to provide spiritual therapy for the inmates, in order to enable a person to internalise the concept of oneself as a whole and spiritual person.

According to Zastrow (2010:319), social work counselling in corrections starts with identifying the specific individual problems of an offender, as well as determining the motivation behind his/her offence. Based on this information, relevant programmes should be developed to address the identified needs. The author continues, stating that the identified needs and problems might be numerous, including drug abuse, financial problems, housing, relationships, abuse patterns, vocational training, peer and group relationships, and attitudes and motives (Zastrow, 2010:319). A conclusion can be reached that all the identified needs of an offender might not fall under the scope of social work; therefore referrals should be made to role players in the relevant fields, such as education, religious care, medical services, or training. This links to the importance of the multi-disciplinary team approach. The term 'multi-disciplinary' is described by Leathard (2002:6) as a team of individuals, with different training backgrounds (e.g. nursing, medicine, occupational therapy, social work), who share common objectives but who make a different but complementary contribution. In the case of this study the multi-disciplinary team consisted of health care professionals, educators, spiritual workers and correctional officials. Rehabilitation therefore is not in the hands of social work alone, but in the hands of the complete team.

4.4.3   Rehabilitation programmes

According to Welch (2011:96) the terms *treatment* and *rehabilitation* have been used to refer to a variety of programmes which range from educational and vocational training to individual

therapy and substance-abuse counselling. O'Toole and Eyland (2005:223), Siegel (2003:575) and Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:210) focus on rehabilitation programmes within corrections, which will be discussed briefly:

4.4.3.1 Psychological / Therapeutic Programme

This programme is based on the assumption that an individual's criminal behaviour is symptomatic of a defect in the emotional makeup or psyche of the offender, which can be diagnosed and understood by trained professionals such as psychologists. A treatment plan exists or can be developed to treat the emotional defect discovered in the offender, by means of individual therapy, group therapy, or behaviour modification. O'Toole and Eyland (2005:223) state that "the process of therapy helps the client understand his or her emotions, attitudes, and motives that have directed his or her behaviour. The essential ingredient is the client's acceptance of responsibility for failures." Siegel (2003:575) states that therapy or counselling can be done individually or in groups facilitated by social workers, counsellors, therapists, or other trained personnel. According to Carlson and Cervera (1992:111), rehabilitation services in a prison facility should include counselling (individual, couples and families), group work (offenders and families), parent education (the offender maintains the role of a parent), and visitation enhancement programmes and services (to make the visitation experience satisfying for the family, children and the offender).

Therapeutic programmes are available in DCS and are practiced mostly by social workers in the form of individual sessions with offenders who reveal a need for intervention, and in the form of group work sessions where offenders are grouped according to crime categories and the contents of the programme are focused on the nature of the offence committed by the offender.

4.4.3.2 Social Therapy

Social therapy assumes that the offender must exist within a pro-social environment in which he or she is rewarded for honesty and taking responsibility for his or her actions, and is challenged when acting dishonestly or irresponsibly. O'Toole and Eyland (2005:223), Siegel (2003:575) and Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:210) state that social therapy is often referred to as therapeutic community, which means that inmates have responsibilities while incarcerated, such as managing inmate rules, regulations, and various roles that need to be filled. Derived from this information is it concluded that the aim of such a therapeutic community would be that every inmate or offender has a responsibility towards rehabilitation in the correctional centre and needs

to remind each other of positive change. According to Ortmann (2000:215) the prison environment should be positive, constructive, and conducive to social therapy (personal change) taking place. In a research study completed by Ortmann (2000:215), it was found that the success of social therapy in prisons is low, mainly because a prison is not a good place to direct the behaviour of human beings in a socially positive direction. This author stated that "Incarceration is regarded as an unfavourable socialization process … it serves to poison the atmosphere within the institution and leads to an increase in recidivism figures."

When examining the correctional system, it appears that social therapy is not 100% functional; however, there are instances where offenders have responsibilities in organising and planning events in the correctional centre. Examples of a therapeutic community in the DCS can be the Recreation Committee consisting of offenders who organise recreational activities for inmates in the correctional centre, offenders who are trained as peer educators after they share health information with fellow inmates, or housing unit monitors, who have meetings with offenders staying together in a specific housing unit where they decide upon the rules and regulations of their own unit, to ensure the smooth running of activities.

4.4.3.3 Education Programmes

According to Siegel (2003:576), education was the first programme to be presented in prison since the first prison school started during 1784 at the Walnut Street Prison which was situated in America. During the 1870s, penologists assumed that illiteracy or a low education level contributed to offending behaviour and Van Voorhis and Salisbury (2014:16) is of the premise that research confirmed that offenders who participate in educational programmes are less likely to re-offend. Therefore most correctional institutions provide academic education programmes as part of rehabilitation (Siegel, 2003:576). According to Stojkovic and Lovell (1997:214), when limited educational levels or a lack of basic skills impede the offender's attempts to become a law-abiding citizen, educational programmes can have an important rehabilitative effect on offenders.

Various educational programmes are available in DCS today. These are managed by qualified educators. According to Neser (1997:325), the purpose of an educational programme is to increase the educational level of the offender. Patterson (2012:83) summarises the aim of educational programmes as "a component of rehabilitation that is intended to provide inmates with educational credentials that will qualify them for employment or to pursue higher education

upon release." Educational programmes include basic reading and writing; ABET (Adult Basic Education and Training) level 1 to 4, and Grade 12. This means that an offender can attend school while serving his/her prison sentence, and has the opportunity of developing his/her educational needs, depending on the length of the incarceration period. Personal assistance with tertiary studies is available, even though the offender is responsible for the financial costs of studying at a tertiary institution, which means that tertiary education is not accessible to most offenders.

4.4.3.4 Vocational Training Programmes

The initial idea of vocational training has been part of the prison history since the 1800s, when offenders were forced to work for long hours and under harsh conditions in an attempt of preparing them for work after release. Siegel (2003:576) indicates that the first vocational training was done by the Elmira Reformatory that opened a vocational trade school during 1876. Zastrow (2010:340) is of the premise that the objective of vocational training is to give inmates job skills suitable to their capacities that will prepare them for employment on release. According to Parrillo (2005:278) and Maruna (2001:117), having the offender work and find employment is more important than religious care, education, or psychological treatment. These sources imply that all rehabilitation efforts are valuable to an offender, but would be of less value if the offender is not taught vocational skills that would ensure employment after release.

Today, vocational programmes are one of the focus areas of DCS that concerns the rehabilitation of offenders, because of the premise that successful reintegration into the community might be accomplished when an offender had the opportunity to be trained in job skills that would assist him/her in finding employment, therefore reducing the risk of re-offending caused by financial need. Patterson (2012:84) is of the premise that participating of offenders in vocational training programmes contribute to their "psychological well-being, earning ability and participation in non-criminal behaviour." Examples of vocational training in DCS are, amongst others, carpentry, bricklaying, sewing, fabric painting, arts, mechanical skills, electrical appliances skills, catering, upholstery, and computer literacy.

4.4.3.5 Life Skills programmes / Inmate Self-help programmes

The idea behind life skills or inmate self-help is that inmate deficiency is related to either a general lack of ability to function in society on practical level, meaning that the offender does not have self-esteem, or he/she does not have general coping skills to deal with everyday life

situations. These authors argue that recidivism rates can be decreased by training offenders in physical, emotional and intellectual life-skills. According to Siegel (2003:577), self-help groups consist of inmates who support each other with specific needs such as adapting after release, avoiding alcohol or drug abuse, or refraining from crime.

Life-skills programmes are regularly presented in DCS, mostly by social workers, and include topics such as communication skills, conflict-handling, decision-making, problem-solving, the nature and extent of crime, responsibilities, human relationships, future planning and self-esteem.

The DCS Directorate of Social Work Services (2017:1), DCS Annual Report (2001:5), Tshiwula (1998:161), and Neser (1997:324) listed the following treatment programmes that are available in the DCS:

- Providing offenders with orientation on the social work services available
- Substance abuse programme (alcohol and drug dependency)
- Life-skills development
- Marriage and family care
- Aggression offender programme
- Sexual offenders programme
- HIV/AIDS counselling
- Trauma counselling (e.g. divorce and death)
- Support services
- Pre-release preparation
- Needs-based programmes for special categories of offenders that include young offenders, female offenders, young children with their incarcerated mothers, older offenders and offenders with disabilities
- Reconstruction services
- Crisis management
- Counselling in general.

These programmes are presented to sentenced offenders, probationers and parolees by social workers in the DCS, through group work and individual interviews. The social work programmes mentioned, presented through the group work method, include aggression/anger management programmes, sexual offenders' programmes, substance abuse programmes, life-

skills programmes, and pre-release programmes. Individual interviews focus mostly on marriage and family care, HIV/AIDS counselling, trauma counselling and support services. Siegel (2003:577) emphasises the importance of rehabilitation: "…treatment seems to be most effective if it is matched with the needs of inmates." The aim of this study was to determine the rehabilitation needs of sentenced offenders, as well as the available resources on the side of the personnel, in order to contribute to successful rehabilitation of offenders while serving their sentences. Siegel (2003:577) explains the characteristics associated with the most successful rehabilitation programmes, namely services that are intensive and last a few months; programmes that are cognitive, aimed at helping inmates learn new skills to better cope with their personality problems such as impulsivity; programme goals that are reinforced firmly and fairly, using positive rewards rather than negative punishment; therapists who relate to clients sensitively and positively; clients who are insulated from disruptive interpersonal networks and placed in environments where pro-social activities predominate.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that rehabilitation is a process that includes everyone employed in a correctional centre, as well as the environment within the centre. In order for rehabilitation to be successful, the offender should experience an environment conducive to change, from the time of admission until the time of release from a correctional centre. This implies that each official, from the admission clerk, case officers, case management supervisors and development personnel to the management of the centre should adopt a rehabilitation-orientated approach. Hesselink-Louw (2004:13) indicates that there is increasing dissatisfaction with treatment and rehabilitation services available to offenders in South African prisons. She continues to explain that ineffective treatment of offenders can lead to an increase in recidivism as well as further criminalisation of offenders. This challenge can be addressed, however, by introducing and maintaining effective intervention, as considered by Gendreau (1995:2035) and Harland (1996:120), who state that it is important to note that there are specific principles of effective intervention, which should be applied during programme presentation that might result in rehabilitation of offenders. The **principles of effective intervention,** as discussed by Gendreau (1995:2035), Harland (1996:120) as well as Van Voorhis and Salisbury (2014:21) are as follows:

Intensive services to high-risk clients: Intensive behavioural services are provided to high risk clients – these take between 40% to 70% of the offender's time and have a three to nine month duration. The concept of reinforcement should be present, which refers to the strengthening or increasing of behaviour so that it will continue to be performed in future. According to Gendreau

(1995:2035) and Harland (1996:120), there are three types of positive reinforcers, namely tangible reinforcers (money or material goods); activities (sport, music, television) and social (attention, praise, approval).

In the Correctional Services offenders are normally awarded certificates after the successful completion of a social work programme. These certificates therefore serve as social reinforcers to enhance offenders' behaviour.

Firmness and fairness: Programme contingencies are enforced in a firm but fair manner – contingencies are the rewards used to motivate change in clients' behaviours, e.g. praise, access to leisure activities, and financial payments. Staff members with meaningful input from the offenders, design, maintain and enforce the contingencies which are under the control of the therapists.

Integrity: This principle emphasise the program design and professionalism as Van Voorhis and Salisbury (2014:21) state that there should be "a high degree of treatment integrity and program quality where staff adheres to program designs and professional standards."

Responsivity principle: This principle is based on the concept of matching the individual differences of clients and staff with each other and with the style of programmes presented. The offender is matched with the therapist, in an effort of creating the best working relationship. The responsivity principle is rooted in the notion that there can be potent interactions between the characteristics of individuals in their settings or situations.

Skilled therapists: Therapists are selected on the basis of interpersonal skills associated with effective counselling, e.g. communication, openness, humour, warmth, and the ability to set appropriate limits. It is expected that therapists relate to offenders in interpersonally sensitive and constructive ways, and that they are trained to do that. Therapists also need to be submitted to supervision. The quality of service delivered by the therapists influences the success rate of rehabilitation.

Cooperative treatment community: All professionals and relevant role players work together in a comprehensive, integrated approach in intervening with offenders and promoting prosocial, productive behaviour (Van Voorhis & Salisbury, 2014:21). In DCS multi-disciplinary cooperation, where correctional and professional correctional officials meet and contribute to the

rehabilitation process of the offender, is the ideal situation. The challenge that the DCS faces at this stage is the shortage of skilled professionals, which includes social workers, educationists, nurses and psychologists. The available therapists might be skilled, but are overloaded with a high caseload. This challenge should be addressed, because it cripples the rehabilitation process.

Encouragement of pro-social contacts: focus of the therapist should be to disrupt the structure and activities of the criminal network that the offender finds him/herself in, e.g. social contacts at home, leisure activities and behaviour at work. Therefore, programmes should structure a client's activities to maintain contact with pro-social people and situations as much as possible. Carlson and Cervera (1992:101) indicate the importance of family relationships in rehabilitation, with the following description:

> …we have learned that the inmate's relationship with his family influences how he functions and copes with the experience of incarceration while he is in prison. Although many offenders come from dysfunctional families that may have played a significant role in contributing to their criminality and are unlikely to play a major role in their rehabilitation, by no means is this, the case for all, or even most inmates. Thus, in many cases marital and family relationships have the potential to be rehabilitative and should be not only preserved but also strengthened.

These authors, Carlson and Cervera (1992:105) continue to explain that children need regular access to their fathers (or mothers) who are incarcerated, either through frequent phone calls, letters, visits and face-to face contact. It is clear from this statement that the family plays a vital role in the rehabilitation of offenders. Within the Department of Correctional Services, family visits are regulated by the privilege system, which determines that a newly admitted offender is normally categorised as a B-group offender (DCS Strategic Plan, 2008:27). This implies that for a period of six months no contact visits are allowed. A forty-five minute visit, through a glass wall, with a maximum of two adult visitors and minor children, is permitted for a B-group offender (DCS Strategic Plan, 2008:27). The effect of this is that the offender's children have no physical contact with their parent for a period of six months. After six months have passed, and depending on the offender's behaviour, he/she might be upgraded to A-group. This implies that the offender is then allowed one hour contact visit at a time, with not more than two adult visitors and minor children at a time. It becomes clear from this discussion that the present privilege system implemented in the DCS hinders the rehabilitation process as far as family contact, and especially contact with children, is concerned.

Often, the focus is primarily on the offender and rehabilitation programmes are made available to the offender to attend, forgetting that he/she is in fact part of a family system that needs to be included in the rehabilitation process, because the offender will be released into the care of the family again. This is where the community plays a vital role in fulfilling its societal responsibility towards the rehabilitation of the offender. As stated in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:65), the responsibility of rehabilitating offenders does not rest solely on the Department of Correctional Services, but also on the community where the offender originates from and plans to return to after release. Carlson and Cervera (1992:102), and Wilson and Petersilia (1995:123) elaborate on the needs of prison families, which can be summarised as follows:

- The offender needs meaningful communication and regular personal contact with primary relatives, his/her spouse and children
- Regular visits with younger children are essential, due to the need of the child to bond with the parent and for the parent to continue in the parenting role
- Information needs to be shared with the spouse or relatives concerning the offender's transfer or release dates
- Couple and family therapy should be available to assist in coping with the stressful and difficult issues that arise when the father or mother is temporarily separated from the family
- Children's emotional and coping needs should be addressed during the time when the parent is incarcerated
- There should be a close linkage between the Correctional Services and community organisations that deal with family and child care, particularly of inmates.

Programme evaluation: The effectiveness of intervention should be monitored and evaluated in order to act in time when it is found that a certain intervention is ineffective. According to Van Voorhis and Salisbury (2014:22) this principle concerns firstly to identify and understand which programmes work and which do not work. Secondly, it concerns the monitoring of strengths and weaknesses of effective programmes and thirdly it identifies opportunities for improvement.

Adequate resources: This principle emphasise the importance of administrative and institutional support in providing adequate resources and opportunities to develop and implement meaningful programmes (Van Voorhis & Salisbury, 2014:21).

Relapse-prevention services: After an offender completes a programme and is released, probably on parole, relapse prevention services should be rendered at Community Corrections to assist offenders with reintegration into the community, and to monitor any signs of possible relapse, specifically with reference to substance abuse and sexual offences. Harland (1996:125) explains that there are certain steps involved when considering relapse prevention strategies, which are as follows:

- Monitor and anticipate problem situations
- Plan and rehearse alternative pro-social responses
- Train significant others, such as family and friends, to provide reinforcement for pro-social behaviour
- Provide a booster session to offenders after they have completed the formal phase of treatment
- Practice new pro-social behaviours in increasingly difficult situations and reward offenders for improved competencies.

It can be concluded from the views of Gendreau (1995:2035), Harland (1996:120) as well as Van Voorhis and Salisbury (2014:22) that relapse prevention strategies involve not only the social worker working inside the correctional centre, but also the social worker stationed at the Community Corrections office where the offender is placed on parole.

4.4.4   Key agents of rehabilitation

According to the source document DCS Conceptualizing Rehabilitation (2017:3), seven **key agents of rehabilitation** can be distinguished, namely:

Personnel (staff):   The rehabilitative objective in DCS can be accomplished only in an appropriate enabling environment which is set by the official's attitude and the degree of professionalism. Personnel should be trained in handling the paradigm shift in the Department.

Personnel placement: Occupational groups or professional officials should be appointed in prisons to ensure that rehabilitation is at the centre of all activities.

Prison management: For rehabilitation to succeed, all activities should represent a unified programme, and all officials should be working towards one and the same goal. Unified prison management is possible through the unit management approach, which implies that offenders

should be divided into smaller groups to improve interaction between them and staff, to afford greater opportunity to participate in programmes through a structured day and to ensure close supervision and accountability. One of the key factors of unit management is the case-management approach, which is referred to by Mthethwa (2008:7) as a process during which the progress of an offender in terms of his/her correctional sentence plan is monitored and reviewed when necessary. Prison management is therefore more effective when an offender's progress and sentence plan is monitored and reviewed on a regular basis. It can be concluded that case management, through unit management, contributes to prison management in general, which influences rehabilitation in a correctional centre.

Offender: Offenders need encouragement to join in activities that will assist them to change their negative behaviour patterns of the past. For rehabilitation to take place, the prisoner must internalise his/her need to change the negative behaviour and to assume some responsibility as an active participant in the process. The holistic approach should be followed in aiming at preparing him/her to meet the demand of life after release as a productive and law-abiding citizen. The prisoner should take responsibility for his/her own rehabilitation in an environment where the following is done:

- Assessments upon admission to the correctional centre
- Orientation attendance
- Individual case plans (Sentence plans)
- Ongoing assessment
- Assessment for release purposes.

According to Carlson and Cervera (1992:127) assessment is the first phase of the helping process – all officials involved in the rehabilitation of the offender, the social worker included, should evaluate the inmate and his/her family in context through numerous basic questions that need to be addressed, including the following: What were the circumstances that lead to the offence? What is the nature of the offender's criminal record? What is his/her motivation for being involved in therapy? What are his/her family circumstances? Carlson and Cervera (1992:127) state that intervention will follow, based on the initial assessment, after which assessment will be repeated to determine any further needs of the client.

Facilities: Ideal facilities should facilitate safe custody, humane conditions, and rehabilitation. The purpose of the Facilities programme, as stipulated in the DCS Strategic Plan (2008:10), is to

ensure that physical infrastructure supports safe and secure custody, humane conditions, and the provision of corrective services, care and development, and general administration. It is true, however, that most of the correctional centres in South Africa were built during the time when safe custody, security, and punishment constituted the aims of the DCS. So, even though the focus of the Department shifted from punishment to rehabilitation, the prison structure remained unchanged. This presents some challenges to officials, both custodial and professional, when dealing with rehabilitative services. One would find, for example, that there are shortages of classrooms at the school section, insufficient offices, or a lack of offices for social workers, no group work facilities, lack of workshops for skills training, and architecture that is not conducive to the implementation of unit management. This poses a challenge to the DCS, because, in order for effective rehabilitation programmes to be rendered to offenders, the facility and the structure of a correctional centre should enable the correctional officials to do just that.

Community Corrections Management: The management, rehabilitation and supervision of parolees and probationers who serve their parole or correctional supervision outside the prison walls, are crucial to societal safety. The community (society) should link offenders to relevant structures to ensure successful reintegration, opportunities to acquire new skills, and to address offending behaviour.

Community: The external community (society) should be at the centre of the rehabilitation process, because it is the place of origin and return for the offender, where the offender was exposed to socialising agents and certain values and morals. The community can create opportunities for reconciliation, reparation, forgiveness, and healing that might contribute to the general acceptance of an offender, which is crucial for successful reintegration.

In summary and conclusion, the contributing factors to the rehabilitation of an offender are as follows:

- An enabling environment to promote rehabilitation
- An individual commitment by the offender to change
- Availability of support services by various role players
- Treatment based on the holistic approach
- Networking between the DCS and community organisations for referral purposes
- Availability of relapse prevention services, specifically after release
- Prison management guided by unit management principles

- Encouragement of pro-social contacts, e.g. communication and visits with primary relatives, spouses and children
- Availability of Life-skills programmes to offenders
- Access to vocational training
- Access to educational programmes
- The involvement of the offender in therapy or counselling that includes the family, and
- Treatment programmes presented with a multi-disciplinary approach.

These contributing factors are depicted in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Factors needed for successful rehabilitation of an offender.

The above figure illustrates that the rehabilitation of the offender depends on various factors, i.e. the environment, commitment to change, support services, holistic treatment approach, relapse prevention services, networking between DCS and the community, availability of programmes, encouragement of contact between offender and important others, vocational and educational training, unit management, counselling and the multi-disciplinary approach.

The implementation of the factors needed for successful rehabilitation is influenced by challenges faced by the DCS, which are discussed next.

4.5 CHALLENGES FACING THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

Throughout this chapter focus was placed on current practice, new developments, and new projects being implemented by the DCS, of which the ultimate goal would be the rehabilitation of offenders and the successful reintegration of offenders into the community. Since rehabilitation is a new direction for DCS, it is inevitable that there would be challenges facing the Department. It has emerged from the discussion in this chapter that the challenges facing the DCS are the following: Societal responsibility of the community, the strengths-based approach of programmes, the role of correctional social workers, maintenance of family support systems, and the nature of facilities in which offenders are housed while serving their sentences. Each of these challenges will be discussed briefly:

- **Strengths-based approach:** Presently, all development programmes and intervention as regards offenders in the DCS are rooted in the needs-based approach. Various assessments are in process to determine offender needs, after which he/she would be subjected to intervention that is supposed to provide in the identified need. The needs-based approach received some negative criticism, and its effectiveness was questioned by the researcher. Even though an offender's needs might be identified by social workers or any other official during the assessment phase, it is not confirmed to what extend the needs are actually met, because of standardised programmes that all offenders would be subjected to. Each offender should be assessed and treated individually by means of the strengths-based approach, in order to be able to evaluate the impact of the intervention. It is for this reason that alternative interventions should be considered by the DCS.

  The strengths-based approach, which is a more recent development in the social work profession, focuses on the strengths, abilities, and capabilities of clients, instead of the

negative actions of the past. Various sources (Coady & Lehman, 2016:133; Oko, 2012:106) proved that this approach has been successfully implemented in corrections. The challenge for the DCS would be to initiate a paradigm shift amongst its development officials, starting with the training of officials on the strengths-based approach and providing guidance for the implementation of this approach.

- **Shortage of 'scarce skills' professionals, e.g. social workers, in DCS:** Since the rehabilitation of offenders became the core business of the DCS, the role and functions of development officials and professional officials have changed. The huge responsibility of rehabilitating, developing and changing offenders' behaviour rests upon the shoulders of correctional social workers. With the increasing number of offenders in South Africa, overcrowding in correctional centres is unavoidable. The imbalance in the equation, however, is that the number of social workers employed in the DCS has not been increased commensurate with the rise in prison populations. This causes correctional social workers to be overworked, stressed, and burnt out, which results in a high number of resignations.

  The DCS is facing a challenge in the recruitment and retention of social workers, amongst other professionals. Even though a monetary retention strategy has been considered by the DCS, it is still in the negotiation phase. In order for DCS to retain social workers, attention should be given to factors such as conditions in their work environment, availability of security equipment such as a panic button, availability of offices, telephones, computers, stationary, access to computer-related technology, and group work facilities.

- **Societal responsibility of the community**: One of the recent focus areas of the Department of Correctional Services is the societal responsibility of the community. This implies that the offender's family and community where he/she plans to reintegrate after release, has a share in and responsibility towards the rehabilitation process. Emphasis should therefore be on marketing community projects and generating a general responsibility among the public to be aware of the well-being of offenders and parolees. The challenge to the DCS would be to market its services to communities and to create an awareness that the families and communities share in the responsibility of rehabilitating offenders.

  This task can be mastered when each correctional centre in South Africa organises community awareness campaigns within the communities surrounding the centre, where delegates from DCS could inform the families and communities about their role as the family

and the community of the offender, and that it would be expected of them to continue the rehabilitation process that was started while the offender was serving his/her sentence after his/her release.. Community and local newspapers as well as radio stations can be utilised for spreading this kind of information.

- **Maintenance of family support systems:** The offender's family, parents, siblings, spouse, and children play a vital role in his/her rehabilitation process. To assist both the offender and the family with adjusting to their new circumstances and environment, they should have regular contact. The offender remains a parent and spouse, even though he/she is incarcerated. It is for this reason that there should be regular contact visits between the parent (offender) and minor children in particular, because young children still need the affection and support of the parent. The present privilege system of the DCS does not allow contact visits for newly-admitted offenders categorised as a B-group offender for a period of about six months. This results in the offender as a parent losing contact and not bonding with his/her children and other people important to the offender during this period. The question that needs to be asked here is what emotional damage is being done to minor children who are not allowed to touch their father or mother for a period of six months? How should the outside parent explain to the child why he/she can only talk to their father or mother through a speaker, with a glass window separating them?

  It is a challenge to the DCS to maintain the relationship between the offender and the family, because they both go through a difficult time of adjustment and coping after the offender has been sentenced. The present privilege system implemented in the DCS contributes to families not being able to have meaningful contact visits with offenders, especially in the period from being sentenced to being upgraded from a B-group offender to an A-group offender. The challenge would be to revise the privilege system. It would be to the benefit of the family and the offender if all offenders upon admission could be granted contact visits, which could then be revoked to non-contact visits if the offender reveals negative or uncooperative behaviour.

- **Facilities conducive for rehabilitation:** As already indicated in Chapter 4 Section 4.4.4 DCS should ensure that the physical structure of a correctional centre supports safe custody, humane conditions and the provision of care and development programmes to offenders. The present situation, however, is that the prison structure and facilities in many of the correctional centres remained inadequate. So, even though the focus of the Department shifted from punishment to rehabilitation, the prison structure remained unchanged. This is

the cause of some challenges faced by officials, both custodial and professional, when dealing with rehabilitative services.

The challenge that DCS is faced with is providing a relevant correctional environment conducive to supporting rehabilitation, as well as the safe custody of offenders. This can be a costly exercise which requires a huge financial budget. It would therefore be to the benefit of the DCS to implement innovative and creative measures in transforming existing structures to be more rehabilitation friendly, or to erect new multi-purpose structures where the same space can be utilised for personnel meetings, training of personnel, or a group work facility for social workers or the training of offenders.

4.6   SUMMARY

Correctional social work took shape in South Africa during 1966 when social workers were employed in correctional facilities. The role of the social worker in the correctional system can be viewed as one of being responsible for the social functioning of the offender while he/she is incarcerated, with the aim of promoting behavioural change and rehabilitation. It was concluded in this chapter that it is the role of social worker to assist the offender to change his/her behaviour, attitude, and perception through support, treatment, and development programmes by utilising skills and knowledge in order to ensure successful reintegration into society. It was concluded that the various social work roles entail that the correctional social worker has as its core role that of rehabilitator, which is shared with other professional and custodial colleagues.

In this chapter, the focus was furthermore placed on rehabilitation: the definition of rehabilitation, the purpose thereof, rehabilitation programmes, and the key agents of rehabilitation. The aim of rehabilitation in a correctional facility is to teach the offender not to re-offend, and it takes a committed effort to reach this point. Firstly, an environment should be created where the offender feels comfortable to do introspection and to share his/her feelings and emotions with an official. Secondly, after the offender reveals a need for behavioural change, he/she should be involved in developmental programmes that might include social work, religious work, care, work, or educational programmes. Thirdly, continuous support services should be available to the offender to assist him/her through the sentence and to focus on successful reintegration into the community.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that rehabilitation is a process that includes everyone employed in a correctional centre, as well as the environment within the centre. In order for rehabilitation to be successful, the offender should experience an environment conducive to change from the time of admission to a correctional centre until the time of release. This implies that each official, from the admission clerk, case officers, case management supervisors, development personnel to the centre management should adopt a rehabilitation-orientated approach.

Social workers have an important role to play in defining the social work profession of the future – the profession is not only affected by the environment in which it functions, but by the directions it sets for itself (Gibelman, 1995:369). It can be concluded that there is definitely a need for correctional social work, which is confirmed by The White Paper for Social Welfare, (RSA, Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 2000:2) where certain guidelines and principles are stipulated for social work programmes to offenders, such as that the families of sentenced offenders will be assisted to preserve family life; contact between families and offenders will be facilitated; released offenders will be assisted with reintegration into their communities; and skills training should be provided for ex-offenders. Some of these guidelines are not in place yet and can be utilised as motivation for improving social work services in South African correctional facilities in the future.

CHAPTER 5

CORRECTIONAL PHILOSOPHIES, REHABILITATION AND UNIT MANAGEMENT IN A CORRECTIONAL ENVIRONMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

There are various viewpoints and perspectives on why and how a perpetrator should be punished for committing a crime or an offence against society (Brown, Esbensen & Geis, 2013:17; Felson, 2002:5; Walsh & Hemmens, 2011:3; Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:21). It becomes clear, however, that the reasoning behind sentences and punishment has been a debate since the early ages of humankind that varied from primitive, torturous measures, public executions, and the death penalty to incarceration and rehabilitation. Dealing with crime and perpetrators has been a societal problem since the early years of mankind and it still exists today. The main question asked by researchers, criminologists, psychologists, social workers or anyone interested in the topic, is twofold: "Why does a person commit crime, and what should be done about the perpetrator?" A variety of different theories were born from this question over the past centuries and decades, such as the Classical and Neoclassical theory, the Positivism and Scientific Determinism theory, as well as the Marxism and Conflict theory, to mention but a few (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:29; Walsh & Hemmens, 2011:6; Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:21). These theories cover different perspectives on the definition and occurrence of crime as well as the role and nature of sentencing and punishment.

Kirst-Ashman (2007:467) explains the function of the criminal justice system as "*adjudication* (passing legal judgment), *incarceration* (confining by putting in prison or jail), and *rehabilitation* (restoring to a state of productive, noncriminal functioning in society)." This is confirmed by Hunter and Dantzker, 2012:13, who state that the overall purposes of the criminal justice system are "to apply the rule of law as a means of providing social stability" and to balance the rights of individuals with the rights of society. It can, however, be generally accepted from some sources (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:34) that the aim of sentencing is punishment, amongst others, and the result of punishment should be the achievement of deterrence, retribution and rehabilitation. If any sentence passed by the Court includes imprisonment, the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) becomes involved in the process of the criminal justice system, because it is one of the DCS's duties to ensure that a sentence imposed by a court of law be served successfully by an offender. Since the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (RSA, 2005) was adopted by the DCS, services focus mainly on the rehabilitation of

offenders, in an attempt to reduce recidivism and create a safer community. Even though the DCS faces a number of challenges concerning the rehabilitation of offenders, the first building blocks in this process of rehabilitation has been laid as a foundation for future development.

The focus of this research study is on the second part of the question posed above: "What should be done about the perpetrator or the offender?" The Department of Correctional Services deals with the offender during the time he/she serves a prison sentence passed by the court. It is stated by O'Toole and Eyland (2005:35) that when the judge pronounces sentence in a courtroom, it is in prison where the true meaning of the criminal sentence becomes a reality. Previously, the main objective of DCS towards offenders was to focus on punishment and security only. Presently, the focus has shifted to the rehabilitation of offenders. Rehabilitation has therefore become the core business of DCS, to answer the question on what should be done about crime and offenders. The rehabilitation needs of offenders are highlighted in this study, as well as the available and required tools possessed by officials to meet these needs. The results of this research study could contribute to the attempt to successfully rehabilitate offenders in DCS through the skills and knowledge of correctional officials.

To create a clear understanding of correctional philosophies, rehabilitation and unit management, a discussion of literature will follow where the focus is on the nature and extent of crime, prominent theories of crime, interaction between rehabilitation, sentencing, imprisonment and unit management, sentencing and punishment, as well as incarceration as sentence. Emphasis will be placed on the Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP), the theoretical aspects of unit management, and challenges faced by the Department of Correctional Services pertaining to unit management.

5.2   THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF CRIME

Burger (2007:45) and Hagan (2010:11) explain that it is a difficult task to define crime due to its vast effects, and that attempts have been made since 1933; the reason being that most authors only present a short, legal definition. Various authors (Bartol & Bartol, 2014:2; Brown, Esbensen & Geis, 2013:17; Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:19; and Zastrow, 2004:306) are of the opinion that crime can be described as an intentional act in violation of the criminal law, committed without defense or excuse and penalised by the government. Lourens (1997:25) distinguishes between the legal- and the criminological descriptions of crime. According to Lourens, the legal description of crime is spelled out in article 1 of the Criminal Procedure Act, Act 51 of 1977,

which states that crime is an act or omission that is legally punishable. Dabney (2004:6) confirms the mentioned definition with the view that crime is defined as an act committed or omitted in violation of a law or statute that expressly forbids or commands it and is accompanied by some form of state-sanctioned punishment.

The criminological perspective views crime as a relative term that is restricted by time and place when described (Wortley, 2011:4). This perspective focuses on key issues, such as the reaction the offence causes in various spheres in a person's life. Brown, Esbensen, and Geis (2013:17) explains it as follows: "Most criminologist, however, view reactions to law violations as critically germane to criminological inquiry, contending that discretionary actions and inactions of justice system personnel shape both the crime problem and the criminal population."

Crime is therefore a social problem that entails the violation without any excuse, of the criminal law, and which is punishable by the government. The act of crime does not only affect the offender, but also his entire functioning system, such as his family, the victim and community.

It has been noted from literature (cf. Bartol, 2002:1; Brown, et al., 2013:17; Mcfarquhar, 2011:52; Stout, Yates & Williams, 2008:4) that there is a variety of crime definitions, depending on what the approach of the specific criminologist is. McLaughlin and Muncie (2001:59) constitute that: "Crime is not a self-evident and unitary concept. Its constitution is diverse, historically relative and continually contested." A summary of six different approaches to defining crime, namely the legalistic approach, modified legalistic approach, normative approach and a new perspective have been made by Brown et al. (2004:21; 2013:17).

The definition of crime as presented in Table 5.1 below stretches from the violation of criminal law through an intentional act, to a socially unacceptable act which is punishable, to where human rights are violated. Hagan (2010:11) focuses on similar categories for defining crime and states, together with Bartol (2002:1), that crime as a legal category can be described as an intentional act in violation of the criminal law and acts that are forbidden by law. According to Hagan (2002:16) crime can be defined as "all behaviours and acts for which a society provides formally sanctioned punishment…what is criminal is specified in the written law."

Table 5.1: Definitional approaches

	Legalistic	Modified legalistic	Normative	Normative	New	New
Representative of the approach	Tappan	Sutherland	Sellin	Mannheim	Taylor, Walton & Young	Schwendingers
Definition of crime	Judicially determined violation of criminal law	Socially harmful act with provision for penalty by the state	Violations of conduct norms	Antisocial behaviour	Deviance subjected to criminalization	Violations of human rights
Preferred focus of Criminology	Adjudicated Criminals	White-collar offenders and reactions to them	Variety of norm violations and reactions to them	Variety of behaviours judged anti-social and reactions to them	Political and economic factors that shape stated responses to deviance	Imperialism, racism, sexism and poverty

Crime is the commission of a harmful offense or act that is legally prohibited (Kirst-Ashman, 2007:468). A crime is simply an act committed or omitted in violation of a law (cf. Bartol & Bartol, 2014:2; Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005:269; Zastrow, 2000:310; 2004:306). Secondly, sociological definitions of crime include those of crime as a violation of conduct norms, crime as a social harm, crime as a violation of human rights and crime as a form of deviance. A law is a formal social rule that is enforced by a political authority, usually the state (Zastrow, 2004:270).

Siegel (2003:18) concurs with latter sources through the presentation of the following explanation: "Crime is a violation of societal rules of behaviour as interpreted and expressed by a criminal legal code created by people holding social and political power. Individuals who violate these rules are subject to sanctions by state authority, social stigma, and loss of status." Hunter and Dantzker (2012:21) state that: "Crime is that which a democratically selected legislative body has determined to be unlawful activity (commission) or inactivity (omission), for which there is a prescribed legal sanction." Crime can therefore be described as an unlawful, punishable act that is committed by somebody, whether individually or a group, in order to cause harm to someone (a victim) or something. For the purposes of this study the definition of crime as

presented by Walsh and Hemmens (2011:2) is accepted: "… an act in violation of a criminal law for which a punishment is prescribed; the person committing it must have intended to do so and must have done so without legally acceptable defense or justification."

5.3   PROMINENT THEORIES OF CRIME

It is concluded from literature (cf. Bartol & Bartol, 2014:3; Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005:274; Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:278; Zastrow, 2004:310) that there is a vast variety of crime theories that all discuss the phenomenon of crime. Theories of crime differ widely in their assumptions and while evidence exists to support all the theories, each one has it proponents and detractors (Barkan, 1997:116). It was also observed by the researcher that authors emphasise different theories, which implies that not all theories are mentioned and discussed by all sources. Zastrow (2000:315; 2004:310) for example, differentiates between Early, Physical and Mental Trait, Psychological and Sociological theories, while Neubeck and Glasberg (2005:274) emphasise Physiological, Psychological and Social-Psychological theories. Winfree and Abadinsky (2003:94) confirm some of these theories mentioned and add their categorised crime approaches as follows below:

- Primitive biological, Genetic and Biochemical explanations of crime
- Psychological abnormalities
- Social organization
- Psychological learning and development
- Social process
- Labeling and Conflict, and
- Marxist and Feminist theories.

Haralambos and Holborn (2004:332) describe the crime theories linked to various perspectives, such as the Functionalist perspective (social structure and anomie), the Interactionist perspective (labelling theory), the Phenomenological perspective, traditional Marxist perspective, and the Neo-Marxist and radical perspective. Siegel (2003:10) distinguishes between six perspectives that are utilised by the author as umbrella terms for crime theories, namely: Classical/Choice perspective (situational forces); Biological/Psychological (internal forces); Structural (ecological forces); Process (socialisation forces); Conflict (economic and political forces); and Developmental perspective (multiple forces). In order to create clarity and a brief understanding of the prominent theories of crime, a summary of the major theories, such as Early theories,

Physical and Mental Trait, Psychological, and Social theories is outlined in Table 6.2 below, according to various authors (cf. Birzer & Roberson, 2004:29; Brown, et al. 2013:160; Bruyns, 2007:103; Cavadino, Dignan & Mair, 2013:52; Hagan, 2010:65; Haralambos & Holborn, 2004:332; Hunter & Dantzker, 2012:45; Llewellyn, Agu & Mercer, 2008:81; Marsh, 2011:61; Mcfarquhar, 2011:61; Pakes & Pakes, Siegel, 2003:108; Stout, Yates & Williams, 2008:8; Walsh & Hemmens, 2011:26; Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:94; Zastrow, 2004:311):

Table 5.2: Prominent theories of crime

THEORY	DATE	FOCUS POINTS
EARLY THEORIES 1. Demonological	Prior to 1800	1. Criminal as evil, sinner, supernatural pawn and traditional authority.
2. Classical/Neoclassical (Cesare Beccaria, Bentam)	1775-1850	2. A person makes a decision about whether to engage in crime based on the anticipated balance of pleasure and pain. Individual has a free will. Focus is on the immoral aspects and illegal character of the act. Condemned to torture and execution.
3. Marxist-Leninist (Karl Marx)	1830	3. All crime results from the exploitation of workers and from intense competition among people.
4. Positivism (Auguste Comte)	1877	4. Human behaviour is determined by forces (internal and external) beyond the individual's control. Individual is not responsible for criminal behaviour but his circumstances are. Emphasis is on the anti-social character and the social aspects of the act.
PHYSICAL & MENTAL TRAIT THEORIES 1. Phrenology (Gall, Spurzheim)	1825	1. Criminal behaviour was related to the size and shape of the human skull, e.g. the grooves, ridges, shape of the brain and number of bumps on skull.
2. Lombrosian (Cesare Lombroso)	1900	2. An offender inherits certain physical abnormalities/stigmata, e.g. scanty beard, large lips, distorted nose, long arms that caused him/her to be

		predisposed to a criminal career.	
3. Mental deficiency (Dugdale, Goddard)	1900	3. Criminal behaviour resulted from "feebleminded-ness" which was alleged to impair the capacity to acquire morality and self-control or to appreciate the meaning of laws.	
4. Morphological (Sheldon)	1920	4. Relationship between psychological makeup and physical structure of a person, e.g. endomorph (obese); mesomorph (muscular); and ectomorph (lean).	
5. Biochemical explanations (Levinthal, Ellis)	1960-1970	5. Disturbances or imbalances in electrochemistry and biochemistry, e.g. hormones, may cause socially unacceptable behaviour or criminal conduct.	
6. Genetics (Brennan, Rowe)	1972	6. Criminal tendencies may be passed from one generation to the next through genetic mechanisms.	
PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES			
1. Psychoanalytic (Sigmund Freud)	1900	1. Delinquent behaviour results when the restraining forces in the superego (one's conscience) and the ego (mediator among the superego, the id and reality) are too weak to curb the anti-social pressures from the id.	
2. Psychodynamic problem solving	1920	2. Deviant behaviour is viewed as contrived by the personality as a way of dealing with adjustment problems. There is a conflict between ingredients in the personality e.g. wishes, drives, fears, ethics.	
3. Frustration-aggression	1950	3. Frustration provokes aggressive response. A person would therefore act out (frustration) in an aggressive manner – leading to criminal offences.	
4. Self-talk	1975	4. Reasons for criminal acts can be determined by examining what the offender was thinking prior to and during the time the crime was committed.	
5. Psychopathy (Guze, Hare)	1993	5. Some people are totally without conscience, capable of acting without concern for others and without any external manifestation of mental illness.	

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THEORY	DATE	FOCUS POINTS
SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES		
1. Labeling (Tannenbaum)	1900	1. Focuses on the branding of people as criminals and the effects of such labeling, because it encourages a person to remain a criminal.
2. Differential association (Sutherland)	1939	2. Criminal behaviour is the result of a learning process that primarily occurs in small, intimate groups, family, peer groups and friends.
3. Societal control / containment (Reckless)	1950	3. Focuses on question: "Why do people *not* commit crimes?" Assumes that basic human nature is asocial or evil. Outer containments keep them from committing crime, e.g. family or support groups.
4. Deviant subcultures (Sutherland)	1955	4. Some groups develop their own attitudes, values and perspectives which support criminal activity, e.g. gangs.
5. Anomie (Emile Durkheim)	1957	5. Criminal behaviour results when someone is pre-vented from achieving high-status goals in society (material items). When these goals cannot be achieved through legitimate ways, the person seeks to achieve them through illegal means.
6. Critical (Engels, Hagan)	(1893) Start of concept	6. The capitalist economic system is the root cause of crime. Capitalism fosters crime by encouraging the exploitation of one group by another and by promoting selfish and personal gain.
7. Social disorganization (Shaw, McKay)	1995	7. Relationships between humans and their environ-ments yield the best understanding of human social life. Physical and social environs can create opportunities conducive to crime.

The explanation of the occurrence of crime, as derived from Table 5.2, involves the individual physically, emotionally and psychologically; it involves the environment the person finds him/herself in, together with the effect of external influences in the person's life. It means that all the different systems in a person's life can influence or motivate him/her to commit crime. The vastness of key factors contributing to crime has been differentiated by Bruyns (2007:103) as

firstly, psychological factors which include drug and alcohol abuse, mental and physical health, attitudes and self-control, as well as institutionalisation and life skills; and secondly, socio-economic factors that include education, employment, housing, financial support and debt as well as family relationships.

Since attention was given to the possible causes of crime it would be of value to focus on the consequence of criminal behaviour because the perpetrator normally faces legal action, after which sentencing is imposed and the offender starts walking the road to rehabilitation. Rehabilitation can be viewed as a central point in the criminal justice system because from the time a perpetrator has been taken into this system, from the court to the correctional centre, all decisions centres around what should be done to ensure no re-offending.

5.4   INTERACTION BETWEEN SENTENCING, IMPRISONMENT, REHABILI-TATION, AND UNIT MANAGEMENT

When consideration is given to rehabilitation in the criminal justice system it becomes clear from practice that attempts are being made by stakeholders in the system, such as magistrates, prosecutors and lawyers, to address the crime problem in the country through taking the rehabilitation of offenders into account when sentence options are reviewed. According to Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2015:55) rehabilitation is designed to change offenders by removing the motivation to engage in criminal behaviour, and that deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation are all utilitarian goals of criminal justice; the assumption is that crime can be prevented. Rehabilitation is therefore not a term that is used only in the DCS – it is already considered during the sentencing phase. The magistrate would sentence an offender to imprisonment after considering the rehabilitative value of the sentence, with the belief that the offender would be released from prison, being a rehabilitated person.

According to the researcher, rehabilitation is a common factor between the passing of a sentence in court (as explained in Figure 5.1 below), which can be viewed as the first stage in the rehabilitation process, and serving the sentence in DCS. From admission to a correctional facility, which can be described as the second stage in the rehabilitation process, the offender is made aware of the rehabilitation expectations that are to follow during his/her incarceration. In order to ensure rehabilitation in correctional facilities, the DCS embarked on the phases of the Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP) that is taken as stage three in the rehabilitation process, within the framework of Unit Management, which should serve as the vehicle for reaching

rehabilitation goals. Stage four in the process entails preparation for release. This process is depicted in Figure 5.1.
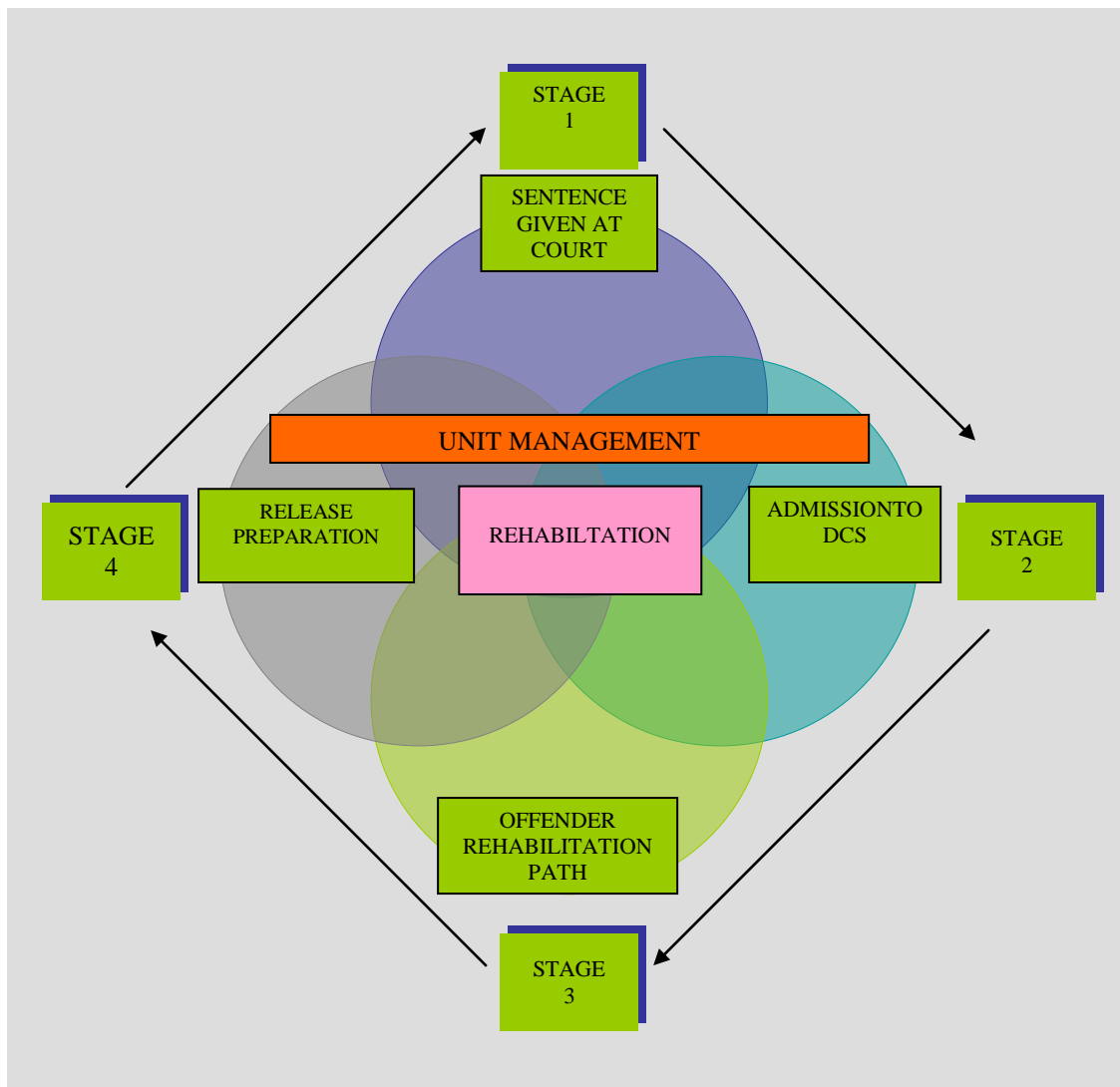
Figure 5.1: Interaction between rehabilitation, the court, DCS, ORP and unit management

The criminal justice system in South Africa involves the South African Police Service (SAPS), the Department of Justice (DOJ) and the Department of Correctional Services (DCS). Criminal justice, according to Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2015:55), is intended to link practice with broader social goals that, in turn, are associated with certain values and assumptions. In order to maintain social goals that are founded in the values and assumptions of a specific community, a perpetrator is normally arrested by the SAPS and brought before the court where a decision concerning sentence is made, after which the sentenced offender is referred to the Department of Correctional Services. For purposes of this study, focus will be placed on the sentencing and practical serving of a prison sentence that involves the Department of Justice and Department of Correctional Services. The aim is to highlight the role of rehabilitation in all these processes,

such as the ORP and unit management, that is implemented in the DCS in an attempt to ensure the rehabilitation of offenders. Discussions on sentencing, punishment, incarceration and unit management will follow in order to create a clear picture of the interaction between all these factors mentioned.

5.4.1. SENTENCING

Sentencing is defined as "the formal pronouncement of punishment following conviction in a criminal prosecution" (Del Carmen, 2010:415). Bagaric (2000:1) contends that sentencing is the system of law through which offenders are punished, and that the main issues which must be addressed by any sentencing system are the types of sanction that are appropriate, and the factors that are relevant to applying the appropriate sanction to the crime. Sentencing amounts to the use of state coercion against a person for committing an offence, which may take the form of some deprivation, restriction or positive obligation (Maguire, Morgan & Reiner, 1994:819). Schwartz and Travis (1997:8) state that sentencing is the center of the criminal justice system and that it is in sentencing that the state exercises its greatest power over the individual. According to Del Carmen (2010:415) and Neser (1997:18), the punishment choice and imposition of sentence functions are seated in the judicial authorities (courts) and the execution of the punishment rests with the executive state authority, for example, the Correctional Services. The major function of all correctional agencies is the execution of judicially imposed sanctions (Schwartz & Travis, 1997). Schonteich (1999:10) and Dissel and Mnyani (1995:1), explain that there are usually three main considerations to be taken into account before a sentence is imposed, namely:

- The 'crime': the degree of harm caused by the offender, the nature of the offence, or the seriousness of the offence (retribution).
- The 'criminal': the personal circumstances of the offender (rehabilitation), and
- The 'interests of society': the community needs to be protected from a dangerous offender (incapacitation), or the community should be deterred from crime (general deterrence), or the community's abhorrence of the crime is recognized (retribution).

According to Mc Donald (1989:200) there are certain basic principles that should be considered by courts regarding the use of criminal sanctions, namely: the sentence should serve as a punishment to the offenders for their criminal conduct; punishment should be imposed in such a way that offenders can make amends to their victims; and, the principle of commensurate deserts should not be violated by attempts to control crime. Marson (2015:20) stresses the importance of

proportionality of punishment – the quality and quantity of punishment must in some way match that of the offence.

5.4.2 PUNISHMENT

Historically, punishment concentrated on the "sin" that caused the crime to be committed, and ignored the nature of the crime (Werner, 1990:3). Werner continues by indicating that punishment consisted primarily of either public torture or execution, because if sin was inevitable (as it was viewed during historic times), and punishment could not eradicate it, then the sole function of punishment was deterrence, therefore showing others the consequences of sin. Neser (1997:20) explains the occurrence of punishment in the past as follows: "…it is evident from history that pain was initially the essence of punishment … most present forms of punishment no longer include the application of physical punishment, but rather the removal of something good or pleasant." There has therefore been a change and shift of focus in the application of punishment over the past decades.

Punishment of offenders is a function of state that should be inflicted by a state authority, and is defined by Shichor (1995:256) as the consequence of the violation of criminal law, which is generally viewed as the violation to be against the state. Werner (1990:68) explains that punishment "seeks to balance the harm the inmate has caused society by dealing the inmate harm in return." Bartol (1999:117) elaborates by stating that in punishment, an organism receives noxious or painful stimuli as a consequence of behaviour. Bartol (1999:117) is of the opinion that punishment is an ineffective way of eliminating criminal behaviour because it merely suppresses it temporarily. Siegel (2003:473) argues for punishment by stating that it symbolises the legitimate social order and the power societies have to regulate behaviour and punish those who break social rules. Legal punishment is a complex process that involves enforcing the law, trial, conviction and sentencing of offenders and the administration of particular penalties – it is therefore not surprising that it can have various aims (Marsh, 2004:3). The idea behind the punishment of an offender is summarised by Marson (2015:20), who states that it must be "considered unpleasant for the offender, must be a direct action taken upon the offender for an actual or alleged crime, and it must be imposed and administered by an authority within a legal system".

Various authors (compare Barkan, 1997:523; Brown et al., 2013:57; Del Carmen, 2010:415; Marsh, 2004:8; Marson, 2015:20; Schonteich, 1999:8; Schwartz & Travis, 1997:96; Singh,

2004:141; Shichor, 1995:65) conclude that the aim of sentencing is punishment and that there are four major goals of punishment, namely: retribution, deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation, as captured in Figure 5.2.
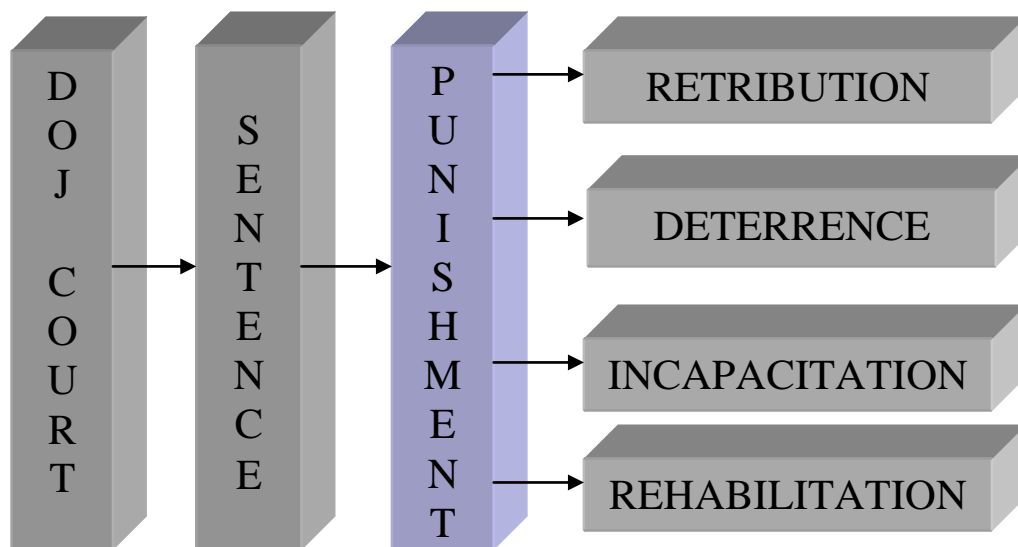
Figure 5.2: Aims of sentencing and goals of punishment as passed by the court

The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DOJ & CD) aims to uphold and protect the Constitution and the rule of law (Bezuidenhout, 2011:69). Figure 5.2 above indicates that the court has the responsibility of passing a sentence to an offender that should serve, firstly, as punishment for the wrong action that was taken by the offender, namely committing a crime. The court does, however, want to effect some changes in the offender through the punishment given, which could either be through retribution, deterrence, incapacitation or rehabilitation. This implies that the court would not pass a sentence only for the purpose of punishment, but would also attempt to avoid re-offending.

According to Niggli (2012:4) and Schonteich (1999:8), a distinction can be made between Absolute and the Relative theories of punishment. Schonteich (1998:8) explains that there is only one Absolute theory – the Retributive theory – where punishment is an end in itself; it is retrospective, looks at crime which has already been committed and formulates an appropriate punishment for that crime. The Absolute theory of punishment, according to Niggli (2012:4), is

> like revenge, retribution or atonement looking back to the past, to the criminal deed, and aiming at balancing the harm done. Supporters of the Absolute theory draw their legitimacy from the idea of justice, of just deserts, making sure that punishment will

correlate with guilt. Deliberately doing harm to a perpetrator trying to compensate the harm done by him and thereby trying to re-establish the balance of justice.

The Relative theory, as explained by Schonteich (1999:8), sees punishment as a means to a secondary end or a purpose which differs from one theory to the next. The Relative theory is progressive and seeks to achieve a future goal such as preventing future crimes, rehabilitating offenders or deterring offenders and people in general from committing future crimes (Schonteich, 1999:8). This view is confirmed by Niggli (2012:5), who indicates that the Relative theory of punishment is basically a preventative theory that focuses on deterring others from avoiding crime and assisting the offender to become a law-abiding citizen. It can be concluded that the retribution goal of punishment therefore resorts under the Retributive theory, while the incapacitation, deterrence and rehabilitation goals of punishment form part of the Relative theory. In order to ensure clarity on the goals of punishment, each of the goals mentioned will consequently be discussed briefly (cf. Birzer & Roberson, 2004:34; Del Carmen, 2010:415; Gould, 2009:192; Hunter & Dantzker, 2012:14 Marsh, 2004:8; 2011:218; Marson, 2015:20) as it is summarised by various resources.

5.4.2.1 *Retribution/Restoration*

Ellis and Savage (2012:131) are of the opinion that "Deprivation of liberty is the legitimate retribution democratic nations take against citizens who reject civilized conduct." If a person commits a crime, he/she therefore deserves to lose their freedom. Birzer and Roberson (2004:34) indicate that retribution is based on the ideology that the criminal is an enemy of society and deserves severe punishment for willfully breaking its rules. Retribution as a philosophical justification for punishment is clearly based on the past, the revenge motive, and the principle that an offender has to be punished because he/she deserves it and it should restore the moral balance that was affected by the offence (cf. Marson, 2015:20; Singh, 2004:141; Stinchcomb, 2011:34.) Retribution, also known as "just deserts", argues that law violators deserve to be punished because they have broken the law (Latessa et al., 2014:57; Schwartz & Travis, 1997:11). Brown et al. (2004:57) explain retribution by stating that "it involves the punishment of past wrongdoing in order to achieve a moral balance. Punishment is morally required." Linked to the moral balance is restoration, which is explained by Bezuidenhout (2011:70) as "restorative justice where the aim is to restore the conflict between the victim and the offender. The prime agent of control is the community rather than criminal justice agencies." According to De Wet (2005:4) the society takes revenge on the offender and the punishment is aimed at the individual

offender who pays with the only commodity available to all – freedom. In summary, punishment is inflicted simply because justice requires it, whether viewed from the perspective of society or that of the offender. It emphasises the fact that the offender has committed a wrongful act which deserves punishment; it does not consider future consequences of the punishment. This results in the notion that the punishment should be as severe as it deserves to be.

Schonteich (1999:9) summarises retribution by stating that "the behavioural premise of retribution is that individuals are responsible and largely rational decision-makers. The political premise is that all offenders are equal before the law and have a right not to be punished disproportionately to the crime committed."

5.4.2.2 *Deterrence*

Deterrence focuses on refraining from committing crimes again, because the offender supposedly learnt from his/her negative behaviour – it focuses on future outcomes rather than past misconduct (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:35). It also serves as a warning or threat to prospective offenders of what the results are of committing crime and it functions as an example of the punishment of the criminal. (cf. De Wet, 2005:2; Hands, 2000:3; Hunter & Dantzker 2012: 14; Matshaba, 2007:19; Siegel, 2003:120) The fundamental premise of deterrence, according to Hoffmann (2011:18), is "…that we all choose; that the choices are rational based upon our interpretation of pleasure and pain generated by the situation we are confronted with and the information available to us; and that the decisions are ours to make.". Siegel (2003:123) indicates that it is not only the severity of the punishment that serves as deterrence but that the fear of shame, humiliation and embarrassment can be a powerful deterrent to crime.

According to Bezuidenhout (2011:70), Marsh (2011:218), Hands (2000:4) and Schwartz and Travis (1997:99), the deterrence mechanism can be divided into two categories, namely individual deterrence (or at times referred to as specific deterrence) and general deterrence. Individual deterrence, as explained by Marsh (2011:218), involves showing the offender that his/her action was undesirable, which resulted in punishment that had more pain than pleasure, so that the fear of punishment would prevent the individual from re-offending. Marsh (2011:218) continues to explain general deterrence as "…showing others who may consider a criminal act that they will suffer painful consequences if they commit the offence." General deterrence therefore serves as a warning to others, such as potential offenders and or the community as a whole, that if they should get involved in crime they will be caught and severely punished.

Birzer and Roberson (2004:35), Cavadino, Dignan and Mair (2013:34), Ellis and Savage (2012:137), Hunter and Dantzker (2012:14) as well as Latessa et al. (2014:173), confirm the latter explanation of individual deterrence, also referred to as specific deterrence, and general deterrence, with their explanation being summarized briefly and presented by the researcher in Figure 5.3.

DETERRENCE

INDIVIDUAL DETERRENCE

Occurs when someone commits a crime, is punished for it, and finds the punishment so unpleasant that the offence is never repeated, for fear of more of same or even worse.

GENERAL DETERRENCE

Offenders are punished not to deter the offenders themselves but to discourage others from repeating the same offence. The punishment given to an offender can be viewed as an example to the rest of the community.

Figure 5.3: Differentiation between individual and general deterrence

Generally, deterrence has focused on punishment as a way to adjust risk. As the risk of punishment increases to surpass the reward of committing the act, a rational individual will choose not to violate the law. A person is deterred from committing the offence because the risks outweigh the rewards (Hoffmann, 2011:19).

The Deterrence theory can be summarised by contributions from Schonteich (1999:9) and Brown et al. (2004:55), who stated respectively that: "The behavioural premise of the general deterrence theory is that of responsible and predominantly rational, calculating individuals. The political premise is that it is justifiable to punish one person severely in order to deter others more effectively"; and "Deterrence, then, has the pragmatic goal of preventing crime by scaring offenders or potential offenders with the threat or the application of punitive sanctions." Deterrence therefore aims at letting a criminal think twice before a criminal act is committed, because of the consequence that is going to follow. The overall goal of deterrence, according to Singh (2004:143) is crime prevention, because the threat or application of punitive sanctions (Latessa, Listwan & Koetzle, 2014:56) scare offenders or potential offenders.

Both retribution and deterrence as goals of punishment refer to the offender as being a rational decision-maker (Cullen & Johnson, 2012:67), which is in line with the rational choice theory as discussed in Chapter 2. According to the Rational Choice theory, a person weighs the gains and consequences of crime against each other before deciding to commit an offence (Bezuidenhout, 2011:127). The premise of retribution and deterrence (Del Carmen, 2010:415) is therefore to ensure definite and severe punishment, so that when a person is still weighing the consequence of crime he/she will realise that the punishment for the crime weighs more heavily than the advantages.

5.4.2.3 *Incapacitation*

Incapacitation is the goal of punishment imposed to physically prevent offenders from having the opportunity to commit new crimes (Bezuidenhout, 2011:70; Birzer & Roberson, 2004:36; Cullen & Johnson, 2012:110; Del Carmen, 2010:415; Marson, 2015:22). Incapacitation seeks to reduce or to eliminate the capacity of offenders to commit additional crimes (Brown et al., 2004:56; Ellis & Savage, 2012:138; Gould, 2009:192). It is also referred to as 'prevention', which means that the offender is prevented from re-offending by the punishment imposed, either temporarily or permanently because, as stated by Hunter and Dantzker (2012:15) and De Wet (2005:3), offenders are prevented from committing crimes while they are incarcerated. This then results in the protection of innocent members of the society, according to Singh (2004:142). Apart from imprisonment other examples of incapacitation are, for instance, the chopping off of a thief's hands in some countries; life imprisonment or execution (Cavadino et al., 2013:37). Another example is the castration of sexual offenders (Latessa et al. 2014:56), or the disqualification from driving, if a person committed offences related to road safety. Hands (2000:5) confirms the latter point of view by contending that once a prisoner is contained within prison he/she cannot commit any crimes against the general public, which can be seen as a form of 'public protection'.

According to Matshaba (2007:20), incapacitation in the form of imprisonment is justified in that it removes offenders from the community to establish safety in society, for a certain period of time or for the length of the sentence. Schonteich (1999:10) explains that "this approach to sentencing neither looks at the causes of offending, nor is it aimed at changing the behaviour of offenders. It is aimed primarily at protecting potential future victims from the convicted offender." Maguire et al. (1994:822) concur by stating that there is no behavioural premise for the incapacitative approach: it looks chiefly to the protection of potential victims, and can apply, whether the offender is a rational calculator or driven by pressures.

It can be concluded from the above-mentioned discussion that incapacitation can be explained as a philosophy that is followed by the implementation of measures for avoiding contact between an offender and the community, be it through incarceration, or house arrest amongst others, aiming at protecting innocent members of the community by reducing the opportunity to commit further crimes.

5.4.2.4 *Rehabilitation*

Rehabilitation, like deterrence, is a method which aims to achieve the prevention of crime in future; its principal rationale is to make the offender a better person and ensure that he/she becomes a useful member of society (Hands, 2000:4). Rehabilitation, or also referred to as reform or treatment, assumes that crime is the product of problems experienced by offenders and that punishment should be directed toward correcting the offender (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:37). According to Brown et al. (2004:56), behaviour can be modified by altering attitudes, values, skills, or constitutional features that cause criminal behaviour. The rationale here, according to sources (cf. Cavadino et al., 2013:41; Del Carmen, 2010:415; Latessa et al., 2014:56; Maguire et al., 1994:821), is to prevent further criminalisation through the strategy of rehabilitation which may involve individual case work, therapy, psychotherapy, counselling and intervention in the family, amongst others. Ellis and Savage (2012:135) are of the opinion that rehabilitation programmes can be effective in reducing offending only "when those delivering the programmes are well-trained, experienced and enthusiastic in what they are doing."

Future crime can be prevented through rehabilitation by finding and treating the personality aspects which predispose the offender to commit crime (cf. Marson, 2015:22; Singh, 2004:145.) Marsh (2004:17) emphasises the function of the rehabilitative approach by stating that it is based on the belief that people can change, that they are never beyond reform, and "offenders can be taught how to be 'normal', law abiding citizens." This notion was popular during the 1960s as the 'rehabilitative ideal' that viewed criminal behaviour as a symptom of some kind of an illness that required treatment (cf. Brown et al., 2004:56; Latessa et al., 2014:56). Offenders were given indeterminate sentences and experts would have to confirm whether a person is rehabilitated or 'reformed' before he/she could be released. This ideal lost its value due to problems experienced in the running of prisons, and research that indicated that nothing works because of unimpressive results. Presently there seems to be a revival of rehabilitation with a different perspective, namely that reform is not seen as 'treatment' anymore but rather 'facilitated change', where the offender's free will as well as his/her circumstances are included (Latessa et al., 2014:57).

According to Schonteich (1999:9) the reformative theory states that the purpose of punishment is to reform the offender as a person so that he/she may become a normal law-abiding citizen. The emphasis is not on the crime itself, the harm caused or the deterrent effect of punishment, but on the person and the personality of the offender.

It is concluded from the above discussion that rehabilitation aims at crime prevention by means of human development. The rehabilitative goal of punishment connects well to the rehabilitation model discussed in Chapter 2. The rehabilitation model is based on the premise that crime is motivated by and committed because of external circumstances that an offender is faced with (Bezuidenhout, 2011:128). There are therefore causes for the crime committed, based on the offender's personal situation and circumstances. The rehabilitative goal of punishment consequently focuses on addressing these causes of criminal behaviour while the offender is serving a sentence.

Whereas the retribution goal of punishment focuses on the crime already committed, and the deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation goals emphasise the future prevention of crime, both approaches have proponents. (Cf. Cavadino et al., 2013:41; Maguire et al., 1994:820; Marsh, 2004:7; Shichor, 1995:65.) Retribution is also known as the "justice model", just deserts, or also referred to as retributivism (Latessa et al., 2014:57) because it focuses mainly on punishment. The justice model is described by Cavadino and Dignan (2007:249) and Duffee (1980:363) as a model that aims to focus on the administration of correction by establishing clearer rules, regulation and procedure concerning the serving of a sentence, by selecting control practices in which rewards and penalties for offenders are given according to their involvement in treatment programmes. Latessa et al. (2014:57) state that the outcomes of the justice model that were emphasised by David Fogel would amount to shorter sentence time being served, greater fairness as perceived by the offender, and the availability of social services to offenders on voluntary basis. The justice model seems to focus mainly on the successful serving of the sentence, instead of offenders being awarded time off for involvement in treatment programmes, or penalised with time added to the sentence for not attending treatment programmes.

In summary, supporters of the retribution goal of punishment, just deserts, and justice model are concerned with the offender being sentenced as part of punishment because he/she deserves it, and they need to see the offender serving and completing a sentence.

Deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation, also referred to as reductivism or reductionism, are based on utilitarian punishments (Latessa et al., 2014:57) because their rationale is the achievement of a desired social goal such as the prevention and reduction of further criminalisation. Utilitarianism is the theory that the morally right action is that which produces the greatest amount of utility (happiness) (Bagaric, 2000:2). According to Murphy (1995:264) the purpose of law, as described by the utilitarian theory, is to increase the total happiness of society and minimise that total pain, as well as prevention of future crime through punishment of offenders. Reductivism seeks to justify punishment by its alleged future consequences, reasoning that moral actions are those which produce the greatest happiness of the greatest number of people, therefore if punishment reduces the future incidence of crime, then the pain and unhappiness caused to the offender may be outweighed by the avoidance of unpleasantness to other people in future – thus making punishment morally right from a utilitarian point of view (Cavadino & Dignon, 2007:33). Marsh (2004:8) confirms the importance of moral actions in the utilitarian theory by stating that "…actions are moral if they are useful, and so punishment can be morally justified only if the harm and suffering it prevents is greater than the harm it inflicts on offenders, and unless punishment reduces future crime then it would add to rather than reduce the sum of human suffering."

Supporters of the reductivism or utilitarian theory, in summary, emphasise the importance of addressing causal factors during punishment of an offender in order to prevent future crime. Siegel (2003:473) concurs with the aforementioned differentiation between crime models and their supporters. He differentiates between six models that will be discussed briefly below:

Crime control model

The supporters of the crime control model, according to Siegel and Senna (2008:24), believe that the crime rate increase when criminals do not sufficiently fear apprehension and punishment. This means that crime levels would decrease when the efficiency of the justice system would improve; the law should be toughened, and attitudes towards crime should be tough (Latessa et al., 2014:58). The emphasis of this model is on protecting society and compensating victims – the criminal is responsible for his/her actions.

Justice model

Believers in the justice model are mostly concerned about the unequal treatment (based on racism or discrimination) of offenders – meaning, for example, that two people commit the same offence but are given different sanctions (Siegel & Senna, 2008:28). The justice model calls for

the adoption of sentencing policies that require that all offenders who commit the same types of crimes receive the same sentence. Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser (1995:117) explain that in the framework of the justice model, offenders should be entitled to fair treatment, justice rather than rehabilitation should be the point of departure, with offenders taking responsibility for their own decisions.

Due Process model

Supporters of the due process model believe that the civil rights of the accused should be protected at all costs, which requires actions such as strict scrutiny of police search and interrogation procedures, the presence of a legal representative during all stages of the process and reviewing sentencing policies (Siegel & Senna, 2008:29). The due process supporters are of the opinion that everyone deserves fairness before the law no matter how serious the case is, and therefore promotes competent defense for each accused (Siegel & Senna, 2008:41).

Rehabilitation model

The rehabilitation model promotes the idea that given proper care and treatment, criminals can be changed to productive, law-abiding citizens (Marsh, 2011:235).The point of departure of the rehabilitation model as stated by Siegel and Senna (2008:25) is that criminal behaviour occurs when the offender was a victim of social problems during childhood, and most probably had a poor upbringing. McLaughlin and Muncie (2001:242) indicate that the rehabilitation model takes the stance that crime should be handled by directly addressing the economic, social and personal factors which are believed to be the causes of crime. Therefore, the root causes of crime should be addressed through appropriate programmes and training.

Nonintervention model

Noninterventionists believe that justice agencies should limit their involvement with criminal defendants because a person ends up being stigmatised as a 'dangerous person', or as a 'rapist', for example (Siegel& Senna, 2008:29). Labelling a person has a harmful effect on the offender that will influence the rest of his/her life. The noninterventionists promote, according to Siegel and Senna (2008:41), the decriminalisation and deinstitutionaliation of victimless offences such as the possession of marijuana and public drunkenness, for example. Non-violent offenders should rather be sentenced to community-based sanctions rather than incarceration.

Restorative justice model

The supporters of restorative justice believe that the purpose of the criminal justice system is to promote a peaceful, just society (cf. Marsh, 2011:242; Siegel & Senna, 2008:41). They promote

peacemaking instead of punishment, because of the notion that the punitive approach towards crime has been unsuccessful, and therefore the opportunity to restore damaged social relations in an attempt to address the crime issue might be of value. Lauer (1992:194) indicates that some people argue that criminals should make restitution to their victims and courts have required offenders to do so. Restitution is normally in the form of a cash payment or a service that is delivered by the offender to the victim (Marsh, 2011:243).

In summary of the two main supporting groups, namely retributivism (retributionists) and reductivism (utilitarians), the different focus areas as they are described by various sources (cf. Cavadino & Dignon, 2007:33; Cavadino et al., 2013:43; Latessa, et al., 2014:57; Marsh, 2004:14; 2011:217; Murphy, 1995:264; Shichor, 1995:66) are presented in Table 5.

Table 5.3: Various focus areas of retributivism and reductivism

RETRIBUTIVISM FOCUS AREAS	REDUCTIVISM FOCUS AREAS
Looks backwards in time – to the offence, to the fact that it was committed	Forward-looking, to the consequences of punishment for the offender and the community.
The only morally justified punishment is based on retributive principles and furthermore on the individual who committed the offence	Maximisation of utility – it is more important to secure the majority of people than to be concerned whether the punishment of the individual is more or less severe than the actual harm caused by it
Utilitarian effects are acceptable, but not as a major intent of punishment	Notions such as those of rights, fairness and equal distribution have no place in the fundamental concepts of utilitarianism
Offenders have rights	Finds it difficult to encompass the notion of offender's rights

The goals of punishment retribution, deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation, though there is a division between two supporter groups, aim at addressing the issue of crime and emphasise crime prevention. After the court considered the goals of punishment and a sanction is decided upon, the Department of Correctional Services bears the responsibility of ensuring that a prison

sentence is served successfully and that the goals of punishment are reached while the sentenced offender is in its care.

5.4.3   INCARCERATION AS SENTENCE

Imprisonment in South Africa (SA) means the "admission, confinement and detention of a person in a prescribed correctional facility, which may be a prison or a rehabilitation centre … on the basis of a warrant issued by the presiding officer of the court" (Bezuidenhout, 2011:74). Incarceration therefore commences whenever the Head of Correctional Centre or a delegate receives a warrant from the court. Based on the researcher's perception, there is an increase in the passing of prison sentences in the South African society today, which can be explained through the following viewpoints:

- Due to the importance of human rights in South Africa imprisonment is one of the very few alternatives in sentence options.
- Capital punishment has been abolished, which implies that high risk offenders are being sentenced to serve maximum prison sentences.
- There is an outcry in the community for the justice system to address the problem of the high crime rate in SA – imprisonment and longer sentence terms seem to be regarded as a possible solution.

Sekhonyane (2004:1) shares her views on crime in South Africa as follows: "The crime situation has placed enormous pressure on the criminal justice system, and has led both the public and government to favour harsh measures to deal with crime. In recent years several pieces of legislation have been promulgated such as those pertaining to minimum sentencing and tougher bail conditions." The impression is created that since there is no substantial solution to the crime problem in South Africa, imprisonment seems to be the only option, therefore the harsher the sentence the better everyone will feel about the issue, hoping that it will solve the crime crisis.

The purpose of imprisonment has changed over the years. Initially prisons were mostly utilised for punishment and deterrence only, but in recent years the focus has shifted to the rehabilitation of offenders as well, attempting to release the offender as a better person than he/she was when he/she was admitted into the prison (cf. Cavadino & Dignan, 2007:193; Cullen & Jonson, 2012:94; Hester & Eglin, 1992:239). Steinberg (2005:6) explains the purpose of imprisonment: "With due regard to the fact that the deprivation of liberty serves the purposes of punishment, the

implementation of a sentence of imprisonment has the objective of enabling the sentenced prisoner to lead a socially responsible and crime free life in the future". The aim of imprisonment, according to Matshaba (2007:21), is the prevention of further crime by incarcerating the offender, punishment, and to rehabilitate that offender. Incarceration has three major legal uses according to Maguire et al. (1994:893), which are as follows:

- *The custodial use*: Prisoners refused bail and held before trial or convicted but not yet sentenced are held in custody for the reason to ensure that the course of justice proceeds to its conclusion and that the public, victims, witnesses and they themselves are protected against harm in the interim.
- *The coercive use:* Prison, in the form of both the loss of liberty itself and possibly also conditions in custody, is being used in an attempt to pressurise the offender into conforming, in cases such as fine defaulters, or anyone who fails to comply with a court order. As soon as the financial obligation is met, they are released.
- *The punitive use:* Prisoners are held punitively as a sanction for offences of which they stand convicted. Since the abolishment of the death sentence, imprisonment became the most serious penalty the courts can impose.

Drake (2012:2) and Zastrow (1996:300) concur with the above-mentioned uses of incarceration and describe the most specific objectives of imprisonment as: to incapacitate offenders so they do not re-offend – thereby protecting the community; to reform offenders so that they will no longer commit crimes; to serve as a warning to the community – thereby having a deterrent effect; to achieve retribution for the victim and the state.

It is concluded from the statements above that imprisonment serves the purpose of protecting the community because the offender is removed from society, thus further criminalisation is prevented. While serving the prison sentence the offender is exposed to and involved in a number of developmental programmes, which aim at rehabilitating him/her. By being removed from the family system and loved ones, and placed in an unknown environment, imprisonment possesses a punitive value as well.

Ellis and Savage (2012:122), Matshaba (2007:21) and Singh (2004:136) indicate that imprisonment has a number of advantages and disadvantages, which will be listed briefly. The advantages of imprisonment, as highlighted by various sources (Ellis & Savage 2012:122; Matshaba, 2007:21), are –summarised in the incapacitation aim of imprisonment that ensures:

- The removal of the offender from the community
- The protection of the society for the duration of the incarceration period
- That offenders are punished for their crimes
- The availability of rehabilitation programmes.

Singh (2004:147) focuses on certain disadvantages of imprisonment, which will be briefly summarised:

- Overpopulation in prisons: The rates of suicide, death, infectious and sexually communicable diseases and inmate assault are all related to overcrowding.
- Psychological effects: Upon imprisonment restrictions are placed on the offender and he/she has to deal with the loss of freedom, loss of material belongings and fear. The offender is isolated from the community and his/her family and is deprived of certain privileges.
- Social effects: The offender has to adjust in a sub-culture that is known and practiced in the prison, e.g. specific terms used during communication.
- Contamination: Since offenders are staying together in small spaces it is easy to be exposed to infectious diseases such as tuberculosis or flu.
- Stigma and disgrace: The routine of stripping off one's clothes - and with them one's identity as a free man – followed by the regulation bath upon admission, the prison uniform and the prison number.

Further disadvantages of imprisonment are listed by a number of authors (Birzer & Roberson, 2004:99; Clear, 2000:8; Ellis & Savage, 2012:122; Matshaba, 2007:22; Wilson & Petersilia, 1995:416) as follows:

- Imprisonment has serious financial implications for any society and it is a very expensive form of social control
- It is questionable whether the effects of imprisonment will result in the rehabilitation of the offender
- Long-term imprisonment leads to demonstrable psychological harm
- Offenders lose their coping skills because they are placed in an "abnormal" environment where living is different from living at home

- Prisons are physically dangerous institutions – physical assaults and sexual assaults between inmates can lead to physical injury and the transmission of sexual diseases such as HIV

- Association with other offenders may result in offenders learning additional crime techniques

- Imprisonment is used for drug-related offences and offenders addicted to drugs, and prison is ineffective in treating such addictions

- People who committed petty crimes are packed into dangerous, crowded prisons with minimal access to job training or education and other services that are supposed to prepare them for life after prison

- Imprisonment has a negative effect on the offender's family system, children, community, economic equality and social equality during the sentence as well as after release from a prison

- Prisonisation takes place, which is a criminalising process whereby a novice criminal is transformed into a predatory offender.

Incarceration (imprisonment) implies that the offender is removed from society and placed in an artificial prison community with its own sub-culture, values and norms where negative influencing is the prevailing custom (cf. Coetzee et al., 1995:123; Roberts, 2004:8). Singh (2004:126) states that for the offender imprisonment entails the loss of a number of things, such as the loss of freedom of movement, the loss of goods and services, the loss of heterosexual relationships and the loss of all autonomy. According to Sekhonyane (2004:1) "The country's prisons are heavily overburdened and struggle to function optimally. Thousands of people who have been through our prison system are believed to re-offend shortly after their release". This situation creates the impression that, rather than rehabilitating offenders, prisons instead facilitate the 'rite of passage' to a criminal career.

Schwartz and Travis (1997:137) list a number of changes that should occur in the correctional system in order to improve circumstances in a correctional centre:

- The society should be in partnership with the prisons
- The cloak of secrecy should be removed from the prisons
- Correctional officials should receive better training to assist them with their challenging tasks

- The relationship between the individual offender and his/her community must be maintained because he/she will return there at some stage
- Caring: reform in prisons need to start with people who care for others.

It is clear from the perspectives presented above that there are a number of valid, negative consequences of imprisonment that support the notion that the entire prison system or corrections might be a costly but fruitless exercise. It is thus important that something needs to be done to improve the situation in correctional centres and units, because it appears from sources mentioned that the disadvantages of imprisonment outweigh the advantages that incarceration is concerned with. In an attempt to address the rehabilitation of offenders and to bring value to the correctional system, the Department of Correctional Services has introduced the philosophy of unit management, hoping that it could turn the scale in favour of imprisonment.

5.4.4   UNIT MANAGEMENT

The changes that South Africa has gone through since the release of Mr Nelson Mandela during 1990 were discussed in Chapter 3 (see Section 3.3), where the emphasis was on the birth of democracy and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) that also affected the Department of Correctional Services (DCS). Changes that occurred in the DCS were, amongst others, the demilitarisation during 1996, the formulation of the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (2005) and the Correctional Services Act No 111 of 1998 in which a paradigm shift was created from the inhumane treatment of offenders to the rehabilitation of offenders and the recognition of human rights. The necessary vehicle that would transform the DCS and enable it to put this paradigm shift to practice is the concept of unit management, which has been implemented in countries abroad such as the United States of America, Canada, Israel, New Zealand and Australia (Bezuidenhout, 2011:84).   According to Singh (2005:35), unit management was identified as the missing component in the transformation of the South African prison system. This is an approach that makes provision for:

- The division of the prison into smaller manageable units
- Improved interaction between staff and prisoners
- Improved and effective supervision
- Increased participation in all programmes by prisoners
- Enhanced teamwork and a holistic approach

- Creation of mechanisms to address gangsterism.

The former Minister of Correctional Services announced during 1996 that, in an attempt to bring about changes in an unacceptable prison system, all future developments in South African prisons would be carried out according to the principles of unit management (Luyt, 1999:3). According to Mthethwa (2008:8), the development of unit management in South Africa can be narrowed down to three major events, namely:

- The Executive Management Board Decision in 1995
- The endorsement of Unit Management by Parliament in 1999
- The first implementation of unit management in 1997, in the correctional centres of Malmesbury and Goodwood.

In the Budget Vote Speech for Correctional Services, Modisenyane (RSA, Ministry for Correctional Services, 2004:2) stated that: "In line with the department's unit management approach, a new concept of prison design was finalized in 2003. It entails smaller prisoner housing units, clustered together, to ensure safe custody and control and enable multi-skilled unit staff to be actively involved in rehabilitation programmes." It can be concluded from this contribution that rehabilitation can develop to its optimal potential through the implementation of unit management, where infrastructure and human resources are available. After the decision was taken to implement unit management in South African prisons during the late 1990s, there was seemingly a period where the focus was shifted from unit management, because Mthethwa (2008:11) refers to the revival of unit management in 2008. During that time the policy was approved and disseminated, profiling was done for the Centres of Excellence and experts were trained nationwide. The question arises, however, why there has been a failure to implement unit management in correctional centres since 1996, and whether it is fully implemented at present. Hurley and Hanley (2010:4) discuss reasons why change in corrections (such as the introduction of unit management in prison) are difficult, and mentioned a number of reasons for this failure, which can be summarised as follows:

> In the field of corrections, when a new initiative is requested, it is usually instituted through a 'one-size-fits-all' approach… the responsible managers try to force the new model to fit their specific organization. This is unwise; a carefully focused, specifically tailored change management process is required for full implementation of any new initiative.

The concept of unit management originated from the United States of America and the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) introduced unit management to South African correctional centres during 1996. This implied that in the need to change the existing method of managing prisons in South Africa through unit management was recognised. It was challenging for South African correctional centres to practically implement unit management, because it was an unknown phenomenon to correctional officials – a concept they did not understand – and it was as if it did not fit well into the prison system. Unit management became known as a concept, but could not be implemented practically in the prison at that time. The cause of this might be that there is not a 'one-size-fits-all' type of unit management. Existing correctional centres are not built the same and do not have similar infrastructure.

A second reason for the failure to implement change in corrections, according to Hurley and Hanley (2010:5), is that before implementing a change process, an internal self-assessment of functioning should be done by the correctional centre, because this action would identify resources needed for the change, help to build consensus, empower leadership with knowledge, highlight areas of staff resistance, and assess organisational capacity. This exercise would determine whether a correctional centre would be able to implement the planned changes and if not, what was needed for it to be enabled. The next step would be to first fill the gaps and provide whatever was needed in order to lower the risk of failing, before changes could be implemented. In DCS, possible risks which could lead to failure in the successful implementation of unit management can be identified; these include, amongst others, a lack of human resource, infrastructure and facilities. Even though DCS attempts to increase its human resources through recruitment, a great number of correctional officials (professional officials included) resign, get transferred to other departments, retire or pass away. There is a continual shortage of officials in the DCS and a desperate shortage of professional officials. Unit management emphasises rehabilitation and in order to successfully rehabilitate, human resources, infrastructure and facilities are required, which is lacking in DCS at present. The Department of Correctional Services is faced with a number of challenges with regard to successful rehabilitation and unit management.

Singh (2004:442) contends that one of the primary missions of corrections is to develop and operate correctional programmes that balance the concepts of deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation for individuals in correctional facilities, and unit management provides this balance. Unit management can therefore be seen as the vehicle for the rehabilitation of offenders and orderly prison management in correctional facilities.

5.4.4.1   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF UNIT MANAGEMENT

According to Buyns et al. (2000:2), and Neser (1997:91), unit management was adopted during the late 1960s as a form of new-generation prison management in a number of American prisons and it has proved to be an effective international prison management tool over a period of 50 years now. These authors name countries that have been implementing unit management as a form of prison management, such as New Zeeland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Canada, Israel, Australia, Germany, Sweden, Japan and the United Kingdom. Cavadino and Dignan (2007:259) refer to the Barlinnie Special Unit in Scotland, where, in 1973, most violent and disruptive offenders were incarcerated. It appeared that the unit was remarkably successful in reducing overall assaultive and disruptive behaviour on the part of the inmates; this was explained by the distinctive features that contributed to its success. Some of these features, according to Cavadino and Dignan (2007:259), were a relatively high staff-prisoner ratio, a much less authoritarian relationship between inmates and staff, certain privileges not normally available to offenders, community meetings where inmates voiced their concerns, and frequent visiting arrangements with families. This was probably one of the first success stories of unit management.

In South Africa the Mangaung Correctional Centre in Bloemfontein, which is a private correctional institution, functions completely according to unit management. It is build and managed according to unit management. The concept of unit management is to place inmates in close physical proximity to the staff working with them, so that staff and inmates can be easily accessible to one another, by providing:

- Increased frequency of contact
- Direct observation of inmate behaviour and potential problems, and
- increased inmate access to the staff who make primary decisions about them (Hawk, 1999:3).

In order to formulate a theoretical framework of unit management it would be of value to focus on the definition of unit management, unit management principles, advantages of unit management, elements of unit management, as well as the role of professional officials in unit management.

5.4.4.1.1 *DEFINITION OF UNIT MANAGEMENT*

The definition of unit management, as set out by Bruyns, Jonker and Luyt (2000:2) is highlighted as follows: "Unit management can be defined as a decentralized approach to institutional and inmate management that divides a prison population into small, manageable entities in order to:

- Improve control over inmates
- Foster good relationships and inmate development
- Deliver an effective correctional service within ideal architectural structures."

Sawyer (1999:1) agrees with the above-mentioned definition and adds the multi-disciplinary component by stating that: "Unit management emphasizes decentralization and delegated authority to a multi-disciplinary unit team." In many ways, unit management is a shift from a depersonalised approach to prison management towards an active, direct and vital style – the key to successful unit management lies in the skill of the users (Luyt, 1999:32). The definition of unit management, as it is interpreted by the Department of Correctional Service according to Bruyns et al. (2000:3), is formulated as follows: "Unit management is an approach to inmate and prison management. It is designed to improve control and relationships by dividing the larger population into smaller, more manageable groups and thus improve the delivery of correctional services." This definition continues by explaining the implication of unit management, stating that unit management:

- Facilitates improved communication
- Brings about effective management of programmes
- Promotes direct supervision and active custody
- Relies heavily on decentralisation
- Brings custodial and specialised staff together
- Enhances the role of the correctional official in general
- Should be complemented by the ideal form of architecture
- Simplifies control over inmate behaviour
- Brings about an advanced social climate inside prison
- Necessitates the breakdown of the prison population into small semi-autonomous units.

For the purpose of this study, the definition of unit management as stated by Stinchcomb (2011:602) is accepted:

Unit management is a decentralised approach in which a unit manager, case manager, and counsellor, along with supportive custodial, clerical, and treatment personnel maintain full responsibility for providing services, making decisions and addressing the needs of inmates assigned to a living unit.

5.4.4.1.2   *THE PRINCIPLES OF UNIT MANAGEMENT*

The aim of unit management principles is to ensure good supervision, control and greater job satisfaction for correctional officials, as well as personal development and a safe, normalised environment for offenders (Bruyns et al., 2000:7). Various resources (cf. Bezuidenhout, 2011:84; Bruyns et al., 2000:7; DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sa]:11; Luyt, 1999:29; Neser, 1997:92; Shabangu, 2006:251) declare the principles of unit management to be the following:

- The prison population is to be divided, either architecturally, geographically or administratively, into smaller, manageable groups. The number of offenders in a unit would ideally be between 240 and 300. Generally, the number of offenders allocated to one case officer should not exceed 40 offenders. The researcher observed during a visit to Mangaung Correctional Centre (See Appendix A), that each unit consisted of four wings which had two streets each, that equals to eight streets in total. Each street in the unit accommodated 64 offenders which add up to 128 offenders per wing. Each street is manned by one official

- The delivery of services must be decentralised, which means that, for example, social work services should be rendered within a unit if at all possible

- Staff and inmates will be held accountable for fulfilling their assigned duties, obligations, responsibilities, and the operation of their unit

- A system of direct rewards and sanctions for inmates should be devised at unit level, and all interaction should be constructive

- Staff in control of inmates will be expected to perform a range of duties, including custodial duties, case management duties and programme functions. At Mangaung Correctional Centre it was found that the one official that was allocated to care for the sixty four offenders in his/her street, was responsible for all the duties needed to ensure proper functioning of the offenders

- Each unit of inmates is managed by a permanent staff team. Correctional staff is to be permanently assigned to staff teams such as security, accommodation, administrative

and industry. An official should be utilised at least nine months in a specific post before being utilised elsewhere.

- Each team should have delegated authority to control its own operations, provided it meets the goals of the prison or correctional body. Each team should set its own strategies, goals and objectives within the wider purpose of the correctional system

- A prison environment should be created that reflects the normality, diversity, demands and expectations of ordinary community life

- Each offender needs to be assessed in order to have a comprehensive profile of an individual offender, which includes aspects such as physical and mental health status, safety and security, and needs

- Emphasise offender management, where the offender as an individual is the focus

- The multi-disciplinary team approach is imperative where staff from the various disciplines work together as a team in order to provide effective rehabilitation of offenders. The multi-disciplinary team also ensures the development of offenders. The multi-disciplinary team at Mangaung Correctional Centre consists of a chaplain, psychologist, educationist, unit manager, social worker, religious worker, and a librarian. All these officials are permanently employed and available for service delivery daily

- Implementation of the structured day programme, where the aim is to occupy the offender throughout the day

- Case management is implemented as the process during which the progress of the offender is monitored and amended where necessary, according to the sentence plan

- Close supervision is needed in order to observe all offender activities during the day and night

- Strict movement control is needed to ensure that offenders do not wander freely in a correctional centre. Discipline is essential in the normal running of any organisation

- Unit management does not mean getting soft on offenders – good discipline is one of the most important principles underpinning this concept

- For the monitoring of offenders' progress in programmes, all positive and negative incidents should be formally documented in case notes

- All available facilities in and around the centre should be utilised optimally to render effective services according to the needs of the offenders

- Officials should be trained on a monthly basis to ensure relevance and the opportunity to be multi-skilled

- Unity of direction, which means that the variety of activities in the centre should have the same objective.

5.4.4.1.3 *ADVANTAGES OF UNIT MANAGEMENT*

According to Sawyer (1999:1) the mission of unit management is to determine inmate programme needs and monitor participation, to encourage pro-social institution and community behaviours that benefit inmates, staff, victims and the society. It means that offender behaviour should change positively through unit management, which ultimately holds benefits for the correctional officials as well as offenders. The focus of this research study is to determine the rehabilitation needs of offenders, as well as to determine which 'tools' are available and required by correctional officials in order to meet the stipulated needs.

The advantages of unit management, amongst others, include the following (cf. Bezuidenhout, 2011:84; Bruyns, et al., 2000:28; DCS Conceptualizing Rehabilitation, 2017:3; Luyt, 1999:36; Neser, 1997:92; Shabangu, 2006:251; Unit Management in Prisons: Briefing by National Commissioner, 2001:1; DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sa]:9):

- Better integration of security, development programmes and administration
- Closer supervision, effective control and discipline
- Individualised attention or intervention
- The unit manager has substantial delegated authority and responsibility; the Head Correctional Centre (HCC) is then able to concentrate on the overall managing of the centre
- Effective staff responsiveness to problems – unit management fosters the development of correctional and managerial skills
- Prisoner population is divided into smaller manageable groups managed by permanent staff.
- Staff and prisoners are held accountable for operations in their unit
- Positive relationship between staff and prisoners, ensuring interactive offender management
- The focus on documentation of incidents enhances offender motivation for programme involvement
- Common purpose exists among staff

- An extensive knowledge of prisoners both for security and programming reasons is developed
- The use of a multi-disciplinary team improves communication and co-operation between staff from various disciplines
- It results in increased programme flexibility, since each unit can develop the type of programme appropriate to its own population
- Achievements are visible, thus the good work of subordinates receive recognition from unit managers
- More responsibility and accountability assigned to each individual offender
- Personnel share decision-making and participate in the policy process
- Better communication and understanding between all individuals
- A more positive working and living environment for personnel and inmates are established because of a reduction in aggression and conflict
- Officials are familiar with the background, problems, aspirations and needs of offenders
- Officials' morale and attitudes improve, which results in a decrease in tension amongst officials.

The DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:10) summarises the advantages of unit management by contending that a general involvement in the daily activities of offenders does not turn correctional officials into social workers or to be "soft" on offenders; rather, it is based on the proposition that to be an effective manager, a correctional official should have a good general knowledge of the offender's daily activities, commitments and associates. The official would be familiar with the offender's background, aspirations, needs, motivations and problems, and the official must be able to manage the offender with insight and skill.

5.4.4.1.4   *ELEMENTS OF UNIT MANAGEMENT IN A CORRECTIONAL CENTRE*

The DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:19) indicates that there are certain elements of unit management that should be in place within a correctional centre; these are discussed briefly below:

Unit Manager
The Unit Manager is responsible for the overall management of the unit, which includes the planning and administration of all issues concerning the officials and offenders in the unit, as

well as where the offenders are accommodated (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sa]:19; DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path, 2007:7). Levinson (1999:153) indicates that the unit manager is an administrator, supervisor, coordinator and monitor of a multidisciplinary team of personnel who are assigned to work in his/her unit. The unit manager is a generalist with broad administrative responsibilities for the unit, who will foster good security designation in the unit (Federal Bureau of Prisons: Unit Management Manual, ([sa]:4). It is clear from this explanation that the unit manager carries a number of responsibilities for both officials and offenders and should, through his/her management skills, ensure that the unit is on the right track.

Case Management Supervisor (CMS)

The DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:19) and DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path (2007:3) explain that the Case Management Supervisor organises the case management on a unit level which includes the day-to-day administration of caseloads and case files, and ensures that offenders are involved in programmes as planned. The Case Management Supervisor is directly responsible to the Unit Manager.

Case Officer (CO)

The Case Officer is responsible for monitoring and managing the daily activities of each individual offender allocated to his/her caseload in terms of the sentence plans, and reports on the behaviour or progress of the offender to the Case Management Supervisor (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sa]:20; DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path, 2007:4). The Case Officer is directly responsible to the Case Management Supervisor.

Case File and Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP)

A case file is opened for an offender by a Case Administration Official (CAO) during the admission period into the correctional centre. According to the DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:21) the case file consists of case notes on interaction with offenders, the correctional sentence plan for the offender and other relevant documentation. It is confirmed in The DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path (2007:3) that the case file refers to the file that contains all documents pertaining to the individual offender, e.g. admission assessment, detail report, orientation, information checklist, risk profile and sentence plan. The aim of a Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP) is to provide guidance to sentenced offenders from their admission to a correctional centre until their release date and full reintegration into society (Louw, 2013:139). According to Brown et al. (2015:41), the case plan, or CSP as it is known in DCS, focuses on how to target and implement the changes that were identified during assessment, by means of

problem identification, formulating the objectives, appointing the responsible person who should implement the CSP, as well as stipulating the time frame within which the planned interventions should be finalised. It is of importance to note that the CSP should be offender-specific and should take into account the offender's needs in terms of correcting offending behaviour, the human rights of the offender, his/her physical and emotional well-being, as well as education and training needs, accommodation allocated in the centre and social reintegration (Bezuidenhout, 2011:87).

Structured Day Programme

The Unit Manager compiles the structured day programme in conjunction with all role-players, because the aim of the structured day programme is to inform everyone – offenders, case officers and other officials – about who is going to attend which programme, where. The structured day programme provides structure and a specific programme that needs to be followed by offenders for the day (cf. DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:23; Luyt, 1999:45.)

5.4.4.1.5   *THE ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL OFFICIALS IN UNIT MANAGEMENT*

Vocationists (also referred to as Professional Development Staff), for example social workers and psychologists, render decentralised services that are allocated to specific units, where they provide programmes and specialist expertise to offenders (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:20). Vocationists are involved in the assessment of offenders and the compilation of sentence plans which are filed in the case file, as well as the development and training of officials to assist them in their task of rendering programmes to offenders (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:20).

According to The DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sa]:28), the role of a vocationist is to:
- Provide specialist assessment and support programmes to offenders, addressing the offending behaviour and/or developmental and care needs
- Contribute to the dynamic and static security of a correctional centre
- Participate in the Case Management Committees
- Liaise with other service providers for specialist support
- Provide specialist training to other staff on a needs basis
- Refer offender if necessary
- Support colleagues in their case work

- Provide case notes and reports detailing contact or progress made with offenders to case officers or Case Management Committees.

According to Luyt (1999:138), treatment services and development programmes are always needed to bring about more permanent changes in the conduct of offenders. Luyt views criminality in terms of cause and effect, which implies that there are specific reasons or causes for criminal behaviour to take place; for example, troubled family background, poverty, parental abuse or neglect, substance abuse, lack of employment and educational skills, as well as psychological and health problems. He postulates that "once the cause is removed or eliminated, the consequences (criminal behaviour) will also be eliminated" (Luyt, 1999:138). This notion is confirmed in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:127) where it is stated that "Needs-based interventions are types of interventions that specifically balance the causal factors with the unique offence profile of the individual offender." The role of professional officials, such as social workers, is therefore partly to assess offenders upon admission through individual interviews, during which the family background and history of the offender is explored in order to do a needs analysis. A sentence plan is then compiled by the social worker where planned intervention is reflected, such as involvement in counselling, therapy, or programmes where the possible causes of criminal behaviour are discussed and handled.

The researcher noticed during a visit to Mangaung Correctional Centre that professionals function according to levels which are briefly explained as follows:

Level 1   Induction of offenders, also referred to as orientation in DCS.
Level 2   Individual assessment done by the social worker during which time criminogenic needs of offenders are identified after which programme scheduling and presentation takes place.
Level 3   Referral of an offender to the psychologist by the social worker if needed.
Level 4   Referral of an offender to the psychiatrist by the psychologist if needed.

5.4.4.1.6   *ESSENTIAL FEATURES FOR SUCCESSFUL UNIT MANAGEMENT*

According to Levinson (1999:10) and Bruyns, et al. (2000:9), it is possible to differentiate between ten essential features for successful unit management which will be discussed next. The ten features are summarised in Figure 5.4 below.

Support

The implementation of unit management needs to be supported by all management levels in the organisation, by top management in particular. Since unit management proposes such a huge shift from traditional safe custody and security, to the development and rehabilitation of offenders, it is important that it should be supported by all stakeholders involved in a correctional centre; it would not be functioning properly if it lacked support because it can be such a challenging process.

Figure 5.4: Essential features of successful unit management

Operational guidelines

Bruyns et al. (2000:10), indicate that guidelines are needed that specify the purpose of implementing unit management and all new functions and expectations, to ensure that all correctional officials know exactly what is expected from them. Examples of guidelines mentioned by these authors are an operational policy, a procedure manual and a unit plan for

each unit. Traditionally, the Department of Correctional Services functions and is guided by a number of policies, guidelines, orders and manuals. It would, therefore, be proper for a correctional centre to be in possession of exact manuals and guidelines concerning unit management to ensure the successful implementation thereof.

Continuity

In order for unit management to be implemented successfully, a measure of continuity is needed in the following areas: Continued cooperation between officials and offenders; officials are to be assigned to a unit on a permanent basis and offenders are to remain in the same unit (Bruyns et al., 2000:10). According to Bruyns et al. (2000:10) a trusting relationship can be built between offenders and officials if there is good cooperation between them, which can be enhanced by regular contact and communication with offenders as individuals. Unit officials should remain in the same post for at least nine months, according to Bruyns et al. (2000:10) because it is part of relationship-building between offenders and officials. Offenders should also stay in the same unit for the duration of the specific phase of the sentence and should not be moved around often. This continuity should contribute to the functioning and routine within the units and relationship-building between offenders and officials; this would result in the increased competency of officials in their positions and more experience in their tasks.

Unit and population size

Bruyns et al. (2000:11), explain that an average unit normally consists of two wings, or living areas, that can house the same number of offenders in each wing. These inmates are referred to as a caseload and one unit manager can be responsible for two caseloads. The unit size, according to Bruyns et al. (2000:11), should be determined by the total number of inmates and the purpose of each unit; the ideal is not to exceed 200-250 inmates per unit manager.

Staffing and office hours

According to Bruyns et al. (2000:12), staffing should provide for supervision and direct interaction between inmates and officials for a number of hours during weekdays, as well as over weekends and holidays. Units should not be understaffed – there should therefore be enough correctional officials to take care of security issues as well as rehabilitation and administration.

Access to staff

Correctional officials should be accessible to offenders, because it emphasises the decentralised nature of unit management, according to Bruyns et al. (2000:13). Regular contact between

offenders and officials results in individualisation, where officials get to know the offender as a person; better programme planning can be done and programme involvement can be reviewed and adapted more easily.

Regular inspections

In order to ensure the effectiveness of unit management, correctional officials should be competent and deliver a high level of service. Inspection is a way to determine whether officials are complying with the policies and regulations concerning unit management, as well as identifying further training needs of officials (Bruyns et al., 2000:14.)

Structured days

Successful service delivery depends on the structuring of the days which offenders have to spend in the centre. A day would be structured to allow each offender the opportunity to participate in identified programmes (Bruyns et al., 2000:14). In terms of unit management principles, each offender has his/her own schedule that has been determined in consultation between the offender and officials. According to The DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path (2007:7), a structured day programme can be described as "the timetabling of activities and coordination of staff and other resources in the unit, taking into account legislative requirements and correctional sentence plans of offenders." An example of a structured day programme is reflected in Table5.4 as follows:

Table 5.4: Structured day programme

TIME	ACTIVITY
05:00 – 06:00	Wake up and get ready for activities Unlock and physical counting of offenders
06:30 - 07:30	Breakfast Medical parade
08:00 – 11:00	Involvement in development programmes, e.g. Social work, Spiritual Care, Education, Skills training, Labour in a work team
11:00 – 12:00	Lunch
12:00 – 16:00	Recreational activities, leisure time activities e.g. choir practice, dancing groups, sports and indoor games
16:00 – 17:00	Dinner
17:00 – 18:00	Physical counting and lockup

Rostering

Rostering is the scheduling of unit activities within the other available programmes in a prison – as a prison consists of different units, it is important to use rostering to ensure that services are delivered to the maximum (Bruyns et al., 2000:16). According to Bruyns et al., it is usually left to the Head of the Centre or Unit managers to do rostering of the entire centre on a weekly basis in consultation with the different officials who render the different services.

Decentralisation

According to Bruyns et al. (2000:16), decentralisation means that the decision-making structure is flattened, where assigned powers or delegated authority are given to officials on lower levels. The most critical operational aspects remain centralised and are administered from the central prison administration office.

The ten essential features of unit management as described above creates an understanding of what unit management entails and how it contributes to rehabilitation of offenders in a correctional centre. Unit management is implemented through case management, a process that will be discussed next with focus on defining case management, the purpose and objectives of case management, advantages and the process of case management.

5.4.4.1.7   *IMPLEMENTATION OF UNIT MANAGEMENT*

Correctional centres that use the unit management approach are much more organised than other centres. These kinds of centres are safer, more humane and more readily adapted to correctional programming. Therefore the unit management approach is the ideal management model to support the implementation of case management (Du Preez, 2003:44). It seems that if unit management is in place in a correctional centre, it becomes the framework in which case management can be implemented easier. Possibly, because the mindset of officials in such a centre would be focusing on the rehabilitation of offenders, which is also one of the aims of case management.

5.4.4.1.7.1   *Case management*

Case management is **defined** by Healy (2012:57) as "ensuring the comprehensive provision of appropriate services to the service user. As case managers, social workers are responsible for assessing service user needs and goals, developing a plan for achievement of these goals,

coordinating, monitoring and evaluating service access." Luyt (1999:127) states that it is a way of organising the movement of the offender through the correctional system during the period he/she is incarcerated. Du Preez (2003:4) adds to the definition by contending that: "Case management is a form of rendering a service in which the correctional official tries to reach the individual, who has complex and multiple problems, in such a manner that help is offered where needed." Bruyns et al. (2000:78) explain that case management is based on the acknowledgement that offenders have the potential to develop into law-abiding citizens – therefore case management turns the offender's return to society into a long-term planned and supported event, rather than a short process that starts near the end of a sentence.

It is stated in the Correctional Services Canada Case Management Overview (1998:2) that case management is the central process used in unit management in dealing with individual offenders – it is the principal vehicle for ensuring that the offender assistance and control elements of the mission statement are achieved. It can be concluded from the above definitions that case management is an individualised approach to offender management, which starts at the admission of the offender into the correctional centre and ends on the day the offender is released. It takes the form of individual interviews with offenders, documentation and recording of all events and incidents that occur in the centre, assembled in a case file that ultimately forms the offender's profile that gets presented at the Correctional Supervision and Parole Board where the offender's release is considered. The offender is thus not known as a 'number' amongst officials, but as an individual.

The **purpose and objectives** of case management are described in the DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:24) as an ongoing process of involvement of correctional officials utilising specific skills and knowledge to facilitate desired change in offenders, reduce recidivism and, at the same time, to improve security. Luyt (1999:128) lists some of the objectives of case management:

- To ensure that focus is placed on the individual
- To make the offender's sentence as productive as possible
- To develop a more effective security system
- To enhance the role of the correctional official
- To monitor and review plans on a regular basis
- To develop sound working relationships with offenders, based on clarity of roles and expectations

- To develop, co-ordinate and implement realistic plans and programmes to meet these needs, and

- To identify and assess the needs and problem areas of offenders.

Du Preez (2003:55) summarises the objectives of case management: "To focus on the individual in such a way that all the needs and aspects during his/her sentence are covered to the best capability of the correctional official assigned to him/her. It is the process that links all the elements involved in an offender's management." Du Preez (2003:55) adds that case management balances the resources of the prison and the offender's needs–it restores humanity to the offender and it makes the offender part of a team which is working towards a mutual goal, which is to enhance the well-being of the offender (Du Preez, 2003:64).

It is stated in the DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:25) that case management has advantages for offenders, correctional officials, as well as for daily control and security within the correctional centre.

Case management has the following **advantages for offenders** (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:25); Luyt, 1999:128):

- A safer environment and regular contact with correctional officials

- Contact with somebody who knows their background with whom they can discuss long-term and crisis situations and with whom they have developed programmes and rapport

- Encouragement and support to obtain maximum benefit from their sentences.

Case management has the following **advantages for correctional officials** (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:25); Luyt, 1999:128):

- It creates opportunities for correctional officials to become multi-skilled, something that was unavailable in the traditional role of the correctional official

- It makes their careers more interesting, challenging and fulfilling

- It offers correctional officials more control over offenders.

Case management has the following **advantages for daily control and security** (DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:25); Luyt, 1999:128):

- *Reduction in security risk*: Correctional officials have the opportunity to manage aspects that could develop into security risks, e.g. the conduct of a number of aggressive offenders can be redirected by the running of appropriate programmes.

- *Building trust*: Every offender has at least one case manager with whom a measure of trust can be developed and with whom problems can be discussed, that can result in less need for protection and fewer suicides and assaults.

- *Dynamic security*: Recording and utilising information on a specific offender allows correctional officials to intercept problems before they can escalate into uncontrollable situations. It allows for security that prevents incidents before they occur.

The **process of case management** is presented differently by various references (cf. Bruyns. et al., 2000:98; Du Preez, 2003:73; Luyt, 1999:130; DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sn]:26). It is further noted that the processes of case management are at times similar to the process of the Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP). The most frequently referred to process of case management will be mentioned briefly, since the process of the ORP is to be fully discussed later in this chapter (see Section 5.4.5). Du Preez (2003:73) contends that the case management process consists of the following steps, namely: Admission of offenders; Induction of offenders; Weekly progress reports; Monthly reviews; Quarterly case management team meeting; Ad hoc case management team meeting and Pre-release case management meeting. The case management process as presented by Bruyns et al. (2000:98), Luyt (1999:130) and the Correctional Services Canada Case Management Overview (1998:4) is different to the previously mentioned process, and comprises the following phases:

- Initial assessment and placement
- Correctional planning and institutional supervision
- Preparing cases for decision
- Parole decisions and release
- Community Supervision.

It is indicated in the DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:26) that case management comes to life and is structured through the case management process which is referred to as the Offender Rehabilitation Path. The interaction between unit management, case management and the offender rehabilitation path is illustrated in Figure 5.5 below.
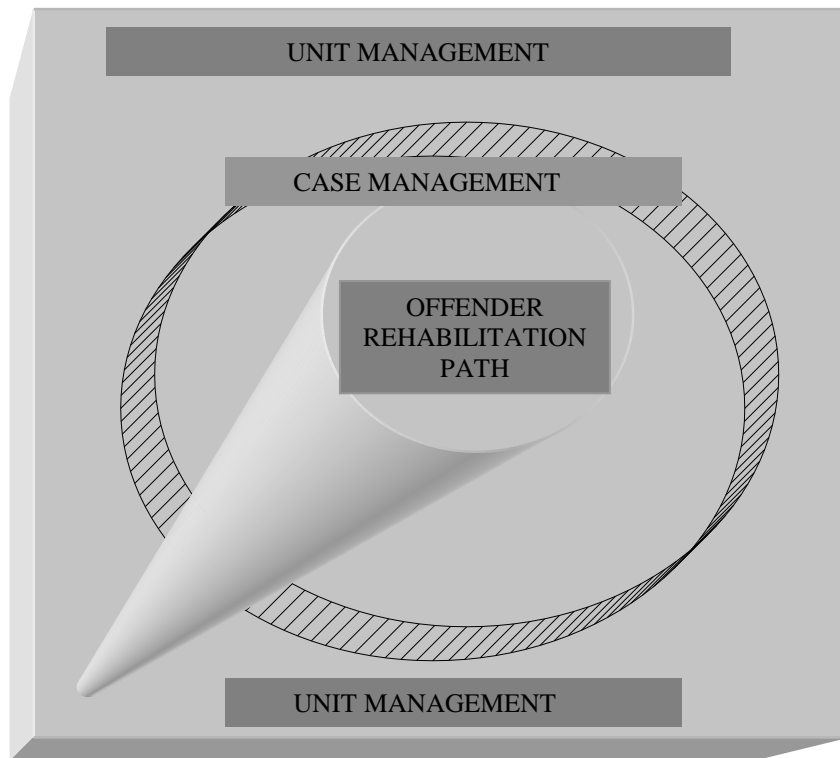
Figure 5.5: Interaction between unit management, case management and the offender rehabilitation path

It can be concluded from Figure 5.5 above that unit management functions as the broad philosophical framework that is implemented successfully by means of a management method named case management, which in turn comes to practice through the Offender Rehabilitation Path, which is a practical guide for day-to-day implementation. Case management starts from the moment that the offender is admitted into the centre until the pre-release phase, and this whole process – all movement and actions –are documented on the offender's case file which can be viewed as the most important document during the offender's sentence.

5.4.4.1.8   *CHALLENGES FACED BY DCS IN RELATION TO THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF UNIT MANAGEMENT*

Unit management comes into effect when case management is fully implemented. The challenge concerning case management in the South African correctional centres is that it is not fully implemented yet. It was stated by Du Preez (2003:16) about fourteen years ago that case management is still to be implemented: "Case management is not fully implemented in the Department of Corrections in South Africa… although unit management and case management form part of the new Correctional Services Act (RSA, Act 111 of 1998) it is still in the introductory phase of implementation". The challenge is that there is limited progress concerning

the development of case management in the DCS, since the Deputy Minister of Correctional Services, Ms Jacobus indicated during the 2008 Budget Vote Speech that: "Effective case management and unit management systems are what I would call, operating systems of any well functioning correctional system. This appreciation has not been at the expected levels for sometime [sic]" (RSA Budget vote speech, 2008).

The DCS has adopted the philosophy of unit management during the late nineteen nineties and has been attempting to implement it in a number of correctional centres. The concept of unit management in the DCS is therefore in existence for seventeen years; yet it was described by the Deputy Minister of DCS, Ms H Mkhize, during 2009 as a new approach: "Correctional Services has adopted a unit management approach which focuses on the direct supervision of offenders, whereby each inmate will be allocated to case officers. With the new approach each inmate is the focal point. This new approach tracks the individual offender, so that they are not lost in the system" (RSA, Budget Vote Speech, 2009:5). This indicates that there has been limited development of unit management in the DCS in the past decade.

It is obvious that this approach will not be workable while conditions of overcrowding persist Singh (2005:35). In South Africa, in addition to the various strategies undertaken to manage the challenge of 'overcrowding', which is an occurrence throughout the world, prototype designs for the construction of cost-effective new generation prisons were instituted. The so-called 'new generation prisons' would offer the Department the facility to effectively carry out the rehabilitation mandate within the principles of Unit Management.

5.4.5   OFFENDER REHABILITATION PATH

An agency operating under the rehabilitation policy is primarily concerned with the internal stability and needs of the offender, who is encouraged by staff to understand him-/herself and gain insight into his/her own criminality, and who would subsequently choose to lead a law-abiding life (Schwartz & Travis, 1997:19). Since the rehabilitation of offenders is emphasised in the DCS Strategic Plan (2010:51), the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:127) and the Act 111 of 1998 (Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998), the Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP) has been designed, which serves as a translation from the written theory into practice. The ORP is described in the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:8) as a document that illustrates what happens with an offender from the point of entering a correctional centre to the point where he/she in

reintegrated into the society. The focus in the ORP is the rehabilitation of offenders throughout the different phases of serving an imprisonment sentence. According to Schwartz and Travis (1997:96), correctional rehabilitation refers to the treatment of inmates through various counselling, educational, recreational and vocational programmes. This is taken further in the ORP, where it is stated in the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:10) that:

> rehabilitation comprises of[sic]education, skills training, sport, recreation, arts and culture opportunities, health care and psychological treatment, maintenance of family and community links, a safe and healthy detention environment and post release support to ensure that the offender is rehabilitated to prevent him/her from going outside worse than he/she was when he/she first came into detention.

It is stated in the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path: Presentation to the Portfolio Committee (2006:14), that there are certain advantages of the ORP which need mentioning, since they form the motivation and basis of rehabilitation in the DCS. These advantages referred to are: they assist the offender to adapt in the corrections environment, they are embedded in unit management; they bring together agents that give meaning to the five service delivery areas (Administration, Incarceration, Rehabilitation, Care, Social Reintegration), they are underpinned by the multi-disciplinary approach, they create opportunity for societal involvement in the rehabilitation of offenders and they provide and monitor an evaluation framework for controlling progress made with the rehabilitation of offenders. The ORP furthermore provides direction to correctional officials as well as to the offender, which needs to be followed in order to contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders in a correctional centre.

The process of the ORP has been divided into nine phases – the first eight phases involve the correctional centre and the ninth phase refers to the placement of a probationer on correctional supervision directly from the court, which excludes the correctional centre. For the purpose of this study and for the sake of clarity each of the first eight phases will be discussed below according to the contributions from the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:11) and the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path: Presentation to the Portfolio Committee (2006:7).

PHASE 1: ADMISSION TO A CORRECTIONAL CENTRE

The main functions during the Admission phase, according to the DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:26) and the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:11), are: admission (the handing over of the offender from the South African Police Service to DCS official), identification and capturing of personal detail (taking fingerprints, photo of offender), welcoming to the admission unit (provide basic information to offender), admission risk/needs assessment (risk assessment of the offender done by the nurse, social worker, and security official within six hours from admission), and consolidation of admission risk/needs assessment information (ensuring that all assessments were done completely).

PHASE 2: ASSESSMENT/ORIENTATION/PROFILING IN ASSESSMENT UNIT

The assessment and profiling stage is crucial as it informs the interventions needed to address the specific needs of the offender through what is called the Correctional Sentence Plan. The analysis of information gathered through the assessment of needs and risks informs the profile of each offender and assists the involved officials to plan unique interventions for each offender. The Correctional Services Act (Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998 section 38(1)) stipulates that assessment of a sentenced offender must be done as soon as possible after admission and specifies it as follows:

"As soon as possible after admission as a sentenced prisoner, such prisoner must be assessed to determine his or her

(a)   security classification for purposes of safe custody;
(b)   health needs;
(c)   educational needs;
(d)   social and psychological needs;
(e)   religious needs;
(f)   specific development programme needs;
(g)   work allocation;
(h)   allocation to a specific prison; and
(i)   needs regarding reintegration into the community."

It is stated in the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:13) that the above-mentioned actions need to be completed within a period of twenty-one days after admission of the offender. This source continues by indicating that apart from the assessment done in phase 2, there are further actions that need to take place, namely: Induction of the offender, profiling and analysis of the assessment outcomes, classification of the offender (either as a maximum or medium classified offender), the development of a Correctional Sentence Plan and allocation to the housing unit (e.g. school unit, maximum unit, further charge unit or pre-release unit).

PHASE 3: ADMISSION INTO A HOUSING UNIT

During phase 2 the sentenced offender is allocated to a specific housing unit, where he/she will be serving the sentence. Phase 3 embarks on the admission of the sentenced offender to the housing unit where, there are two main functions that should happen. Firstly the offender needs to undergo induction to the housing unit during which time the unit manager ensures that the rules and regulations of the unit are explained to the offender, as well as the available services with the focus on the ORP. Secondly, the sentenced offender needs to be allocation to a case officer, who will be the responsible person for the offender while he/she is accommodated at that specific housing unit (cf. DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sn]:26; DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide, 2007:17).

PHASE 4: INTERVENTION

During phase two all relevant stakeholders participated in the assessment of the offender and the compilation of the Correctional Sentence Plan. The addressing of needs identified in phase two and the implementation of services that were decided upon then, becomes a reality during phase four when intervention by various sections take place. According to the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path: Presentation to the Portfolio Committee (2006:10), the intervention phase consists of the implementation of the structured day programme, implementation of the sentence plan, compiling of reports by all stakeholders and the commencement of case reviews.

PHASE 5: MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The monitoring and evaluation phase is described by The DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:19) and DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:26) as the case decision that takes place on a six-monthly basis, where the Case Management Committee (CMC)

evaluates and approves the progress reports received from the Case Review Team (CRT) on each offender, after which the CMC compiles the revised Correctional Sentence Plan for the offender. This implies that each stakeholder in the centre who contributes to the rehabilitation of offenders provides a progress report concerning an individual offender to the CMC, wherein it is explained what services have been offered to the offender and which programmes are still outstanding. The outstanding programmes are then noted in the revised Correctional Sentence plan, which outlines the continued task of the stakeholders.

PHASE 6: PLACEMENT

The placement phase basically consists of three steps, which are described as follows by the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:19), DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:26) and the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path: Presentation to the Portfolio Committee (2006:11):

- the CRT should ensure the pre-release needs of the offender, possible interventions and the review to the community profile should be determined and set in order
- offenders are profiled for possible placement on parole or correctional supervision by the CMC, and
- a pre-placement profile report with recommendations are compiled and submitted to the Correctional Supervision and Parole Board (CSPB), who in turn decides on the placement of the offender.

The placement phase therefore involves mostly the CRT, CMC and CSPB, who prepare a comprehensive profile on the individual offender after which he/she is placed at the CSPB, who functions as an external body separate from the Department of Correctional Services, for consideration, recommendation and approval of release. The CSPB is not able to take any decisions on parole placement of the offender if the prepared profile is incomplete. For the purpose of clarity in needs to be mentioned that if the programmes and interventions that were stipulated in the correctional sentence plan have not been (successfully) implemented or the offender did not attend specified programmes, he/she would not be considered for a parole placement and would be referred back to the CMC, who would then refer back to stakeholders to ensure that the necessary programmes are presented to the offender before his next placement at the CSPB.

PHASE 7: ALLOCATION TO PRE-RELEASE UNIT

Offenders with approved dates for release, whether conditionally or unconditionally, will be allocated to the pre-release unit in the centre approximately eight weeks before the actual release or parole placement date in order to prepare them for their release back into the community (The Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide, 2007:20). The preparation for release requires that the offender attends the Pre-release Programme. It further entails confirmation of a support system within the community, in the form of families and relatives who agree to care for and support the offender after release, as well as the signing of release documentation to the Social Reintegration office by the Head of the Correctional Centre. (Compare DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide, 2007:19; DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide, [sn]:27.)

PHASE 8: PLACEMENT OF OFFENDER ON PAROLE / CORRECTIONAL SUPERVISION –
FROM THE CORRECTIONAL CENTRE

The placement of the offender under parole or correctional supervision implies that an offender is returned back to the community from where he/she came prior to having served his/her total sentence (DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide, 2007:21). This phase basically consists of five steps that need to be taken to ensure success in the placement of the offender on parole or under correctional supervision. These steps are described by the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path Orientation Guide (2007:21), the DCS Rehabilitation Path: Presentation to the Portfolio Committee (2006:12) and DCS Unit Management Orientation Guide ([sn]:27) as follows:

Step 1:   Pre-admission
The Head of the Correctional Centre or a delegate needs to inform the Head of Social Reintegration beforehand about the placement of an offender. The mentioned offender should then be escorted with the necessary documentation to the Social Reintegration office, where the offender is officially handed over by the correctional centre to the Social Reintegration office.

Step 2:   Admission at Social Reintegration
Admission at Social Reintegration takes place at their offices which is mostly situated in town, separate from the centre. The parolee is admitted, orientated, informed of parole conditions, violations and other information needed.

Step 3:   Implementation of the Correctional Sentence Plan

Similar to in the centre, the parolee has a correctional sentence plan which needs to be implemented by the relevant stakeholders and supervision. Control over parolees must be exercised through regular visits and contact between the parolee and the monitoring agency.

Step 4:   Monitoring and evaluation

A progress review of the parolee is conducted by the Case Management Supervisor, who gains information from various internal and external stakeholders in the parolee's daily functioning. The progress report is then submitted to the Reintegration Evaluation Committee (REC) who reviews each case and sentence plan every six months. The REC provides feedback to the Head Social Reintegration who refers his recommendations and decisions back to the Case Management Supervisor for implementation and compliance.

Step 5:   Release

The REC evaluates the performance of the parolee again and if compliance with the sentence plan is confirmed the Head Social Reintegration or a delegate should prepare the parolee for complete release by promoting participation in crime prevention opportunities, confirming of support system, ensuring that all specified programmes were attended, and lastly, conduct exit interviews with the parolee, and place his/her name names on the database for released parolees.

It can be concluded from the explanation of the ORP that the rehabilitation of the offender commences with admission and should be carried through, witnessed and experienced in all sections or offices where the offender might be in contact with any official. This is confirmed by the view of Bruyns (2007:105), who indicated in his research findings that there are certain challenges concerning the causes of crime that need to be noticed when working with offenders, namely:

- The correctional official should take note of early criminal behaviour of the offender
- The correctional official should understand that the majority of offenders have a history of risk behaviour, limited opportunities, poor parenting, exclusion from certain resources and a lack of abilities and skills to mediate these weaknesses
- That appropriate correctional programmes with appropriate timing of interventions should be done during assessment.

The process of the ORP therefore refers to the administrative and practical implementation of rehabilitation in a correctional centre. It is the physical day-to-day contact and working with

offenders, combined with the recording of behaviour revealed by the offender and progress made in a comprehensive administrative system.

Even though the ORP appears to be promising, and might be a possible solution to rehabilitation and the decreasing of recidivism and crime in the country, there are certain challenges that were highlighted by the DCS Offender Rehabilitation Path: Presentation to the Portfolio Committee (2006:16), which can be summarised as follows:

- The ORP requires a high number of officials with scarce skills
- There are limited resources in the DCS at this stage
- All personnel needs to be orientated and retrained on the ORP
- The new approach of the ORP needs to be marketed to offenders
- There is a need for capacity-building, for monitoring and evaluation
- External partnerships to promote corrections as a societal responsibility need to be strengthened.

5.4.6. SUMMARY

Crime is a national challenge and it has been discussed, explained and elaborated upon for a number of years. Since the early years of the Classical theories of crime to the more recent Social theories, the focus has been on the explanation of the phenomenon of crime. It would be fair to state that crime still remains a great challenge at present. The Department of Correctional Services is addressing the national crime dilemma through a paradigm shift in the prison system where the focus of imprisonment has moved from punishment of offenders to rehabilitation of offenders. This is a difficult task which is also time consuming and requires effort from all involved. The strategy of the DCS is that the shift from punishment to rehabilitation in correctional centres is to take place by means of an alternative management style, namely unit management, of which case management and the offender rehabilitation path form two pillars.

A theoretical framework of crime, unit management and the offender rehabilitation path (ORP) was discussed in this chapter and it was concluded that there is interaction between unit management, case management and the ORP.

The research methodology that was applicable to this study is discussed in Chapter 6 that follows next.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research was to investigate how rehabilitation and unit management could be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS in the Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective. This chapter focuses on the research methodology utilised to answer the research question of the study, namely:

How can rehabilitation and unit management be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective?

The sub-research questions that informed the main question were as follows:

- What are the offenders' rehabilitation needs as well as their views on development and care programmes as facilitated by professional correctional officials within the multi-disciplinary team?
- What is required from correctional and professional correctional officials as well as offenders to enable the optimisation of rehabilitation and unit management in the DCS?
- What skills, tools, and knowledge are required in order for correctional and professional correctional officials to contribute to the improved implementation of rehabilitation and unit management in the Bethal Area, with specific emphasis on the role of the social worker?

In answering the research question this study was conducted in two phases, referred to as the primary and secondary phase, from which a primary and a secondary data base were developed; the latter after a lapse of time since the establishment of the primary data base. The follow-up (secondary phase) study resulted in an enriched understanding of the primary data and contributed to its relevance. Rosenblatt (2016:29) values existing (primary) data by stating that "Coming to a clearer sense of what is in your data as you have moved forward on your project may give new meanings and understandings to works in the literature that you had previously understood differently or dismissed. And anything new in the literature that is relevant to your

work may help keep your thinking and writing current." The new literature and data obtained in the secondary phase ensured that the study remained current.

The chapter focuses on the research approach, type of research, research design, research methods, pilot study and the ethical aspects applicable to the study as well as the limitations identified in this study.

6.2   RESEARCH APPROACH

Mixed methods research was the suitable approach for the study as it is a method that focuses on both qualitative and quantitative research, drawing on the strengths and minimising the limitations of both these approaches (Bryman, 2008:15; Creswell, 2014:218; Landrum & Gaza, 2015:205). This approach collects both quantitative and qualitative data, integrates the two forms of data (Pinto, 2010:813) and uses distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks (Creswell, 2014:4). According to Brannen (2005:4), mixed methods research means "adopting a research strategy employing more than one type of research method. The methods may be a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods, a mix of quantitative methods or a mix of qualitative methods." Brannen (2008:54) adds that mixed methods means a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research project in the collection of data. This study is founded on the definition of mixed methods research as it is summarised by Creswell (2015:2): "An approach to research in the social, behavioural and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths from both sets of data to understand research problems." Creswell (2015:2) explains further that when a researcher combines statistical data (quantitative data) with stories and personal experiences (qualitative data), this collective strength provides a better understanding of the research problem than anyone of the data types alone.

Characteristics of mixed methods research in the context of this study are, firstly, that it is the collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data in response to research questions. Secondly, it is characterised by the use of rigorous qualitative and quantitative measures, and thirdly, a combination or integration of quantitative and qualitative data using a specific type of mixed methods design, and interpretation of this design, and lastly, sometimes framing of the design within a philosophy or theory (Creswell, 2015:3).

Within the mixed methods nature of the study, the quantitative part of the research study focused on how rehabilitation and unit management could be optimised in the Bethal Management Area, based on the offenders' views and perceptions concerning their rehabilitation needs. Quantitative research has the intention of establishing, confirming or validating relationships between variables as well as developing generalisations that add to theories (Bezuidenhout, 2011:43; Leedy & Omrod, 2010:95). Bezuidenhout (2011:43) states it as follows: "Quantitative research takes the form of a systematic, empirical investigation of measurable variables and the relationships that exist between them."

The qualitative part of the study concentrated on correctional and professional correctional officials' contributions concerning their role in rehabilitation and unit management in the DCS. As stated by Fouché and Delport (2011:64), the qualitative approach is applicable when studying complex social phenomena, in order to describe and understand them. It is furthermore a holistic approach with interpretations developing and possibly changing along the way (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:95). According to Alston and Bowles (2003:10) and Padgett (2008:15), qualitative researchers are more interested in understanding how others experience life, in interpreting meaning and social phenomena, exploring new concepts and developing new theories.

According to Lietz and Zayas (2010:189), qualitative enquiry developed through a rich history of research that seeks contextualised and in-depth descriptions of increased understanding. Fouché and Schurink (2011:308) explain the core of qualitative research and the concept of understanding as follows: "The qualitative researcher is concerned with understanding rather than explanation, with naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement…" In summary, Bryman, Teevan and Bell (2009:134) describe qualitative research as a type of research that attempts to see a specific phenomenon through the eyes of the people who are being studied, it is descriptive and emphasises the context, it focuses on the processes in life; it has flexibility, and is implemented within limited structure.

By utilising the mixed methods research approach value was added to this study because it resulted in a broad spectrum of knowledge that was gathered, from which sensible conclusions and recommendations could be made. Westmarland (2011:108) argues that there are advantages to mixed methods research, such as more contextualisation and a better understanding of the bigger picture. By utilising both qualitative and quantitative research in this study, contextualisation of information was achieved, as well as a better understanding of the bigger picture in DCS – specifically referring to sentenced offenders and correctional officials.

6.3   TYPE OF RESEARCH

The type of research applicable to this study was applied research with a component of basic research. Various authors (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:10; Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:43; Neuman, 2006:25; Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2007:45) are of the opinion that applied research aims to contribute towards the practical issues of problem-solving, providing answers, decision-making, policy analysis and community development. Hagan (2013:11) confirms that applied research is practical research concerned with solving immediate problems. Maxfield and Babbie (2015:13; 2012:11) postulate that applied research:

> stems from a need for facts and findings with specific policy implications. Applied research is often used to evaluate the effects of specific criminal justice programmes. The second type of applied research is the analysis of general justice policies and more specific problems.

Basic research, according to Fouché and De Vos (2011:94), "is not concerned with solving the immediate problems of the discipline, but rather with extending the knowledge base of the discipline." Basic research forms the foundation of knowledge and understanding that is normally used to develop policies and theories (Neuman, 2006:24). The researcher concluded that applied and basic research would be relevant for the study as it would contribute to developing and improving existing knowledge, linked with the possibility of practical implementation.

In this study, the relevance of applied and basic research related to building on the little existing knowledge of rehabilitation and unit management at the four units in the Bethal Management Area. Based on the expressed needs of offenders, and the envisaged knowledge, skills, and tools required by correctional and professional correctional officials to enhance the rehabilitation process, the intention of the study was to create an environment conducive to the rehabilitation of offenders in the Bethal Management Area within a unit management context. The researcher anticipated that the research findings would assist the DCS in rendering rehabilitative- and needs-based programmes, which would result in improved service delivery, including social work services.

Based on the exploratory and descriptive nature of the study, research questions were posed concerning the meaning and impact of rehabilitation on offenders as well as correctional- and professional correctional officials. Exploratory studies are used to make preliminary

investigations into relatively unknown areas of research; they employ an open, flexible, and inductive approach to research as they attempt to look for new insights into phenomena (Terre Blanche et al., 2007:44). Neuman (2006:33) suggests that exploratory studies are "Research in which the primary purpose is to examine a little understood issue or phenomenon to develop preliminary ideas and move toward refined research questions by focussing on the 'what' question." It is therefore argued that in exploratory research large amounts of unstructured information can be collected and used to explore a new topic or to be responsive to new concerns by breaking new ground through delving into new problem areas (Strydom, 2013:151). In summary, Maxfield and Babbie (2015:12; 2012:10) state that an exploratory project might collect data on some measure to establish a baseline with which future changes can be compared.

Descriptive research accurately describes a subject, situation or phenomenon by creating a clear picture of the current situation (Alston & Bowles, 2003:34; Bachman & Schutt, 2012:9; Fouché & De Vos, 2011:96; Neuman, 2006:35). According to Dantzker and Hunter (2012:11), descriptive research "helps one gain a better grasp about an issue or problem of which one knows little." Neuman (2006:35) is of the opinion that descriptive and exploratory research have similarities, though with descriptive research, "the researcher begins with a well-defined subject and conducts research to describe it accurately." Provision was made in this study for determining the rehabilitation needs of offenders, who can be viewed as "well-defined subjects", as well as determining the knowledge, skills, and tools required by correctional and professional correctional officials for improving rehabilitation and unit management in the Bethal Management Area. As an outcome of the study, this information would inform proposed guidelines to be used by correctional and professional correctional officials, enabling them to optimise rehabilitation and unit management. It is envisaged that the developed guidelines will assist social workers in optimising social work services by raising the standards of service delivery within the units as a whole.

6.4.   RESEARCH DESIGN

Gravetter and Forzano (2009:185) state that the research design could be described as the general plan, structure, strategy and method according to which research is done. In accordance with Kraska (2010:1), the study design takes into account all the elements that surround the plan for the investigation, for example the research objectives, problem statements, operational definitions and the scope of inferences to be made, as well as assumptions and limitations of the study. The convergent parallel mixed method design (Creswell 2014:219) utilised in this study is

one of the basic designs known in mixed methods research, where the researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem (Creswell, 2014:15). Clarity is given by Creswell (2015:6) in Figure 3.1 below, as a design with the intent to "collect both qualitative and quantitative data, analyze both datasets, and then merge the results of the two sets of data analysis with the purpose of comparing the results."
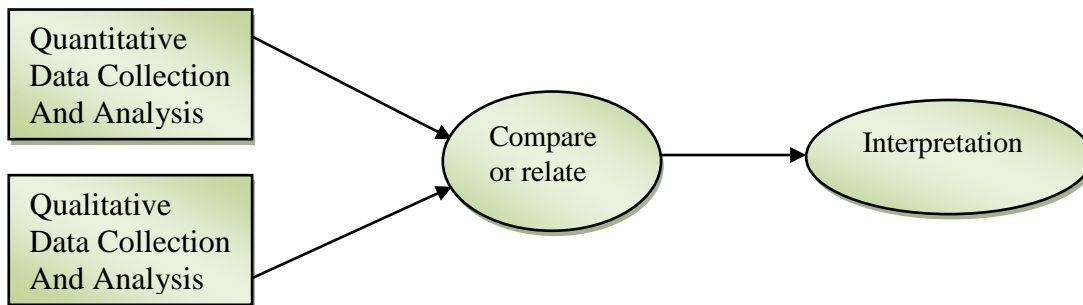
Figure 6.1:   **Convergent Parallel Mixed Method (Creswell, 2014:220)**

In order to obtain information supportive to the existing primary data base, the concurrent embedded strategy (Creswell, 2014:16) was used as a second research design in that it involved the convergent use of data, where the core idea was that this data is embedded within a larger design and that it played a supporting role in the overall design.

This design is explained by Delport and Fouché (2011:443) as follows: "In this design one data set provides a supportive, secondary role in a study based primarily on the other data type." Landrum and Gaza (2015:205) concur with the premise that, "in the embedded data method, one type of data analysis is deemed primary, which is chosen appropriately given the type of data being collected, and the other as secondary which is chosen for supplementary purposes." A concurrent embedded approach has a primary method that guides the project and a secondary database that provides a supporting role in the procedures (Creswell, 2009:214).

An outlay of the combination of research designs used in this study is explained in Figure 6.2 below.
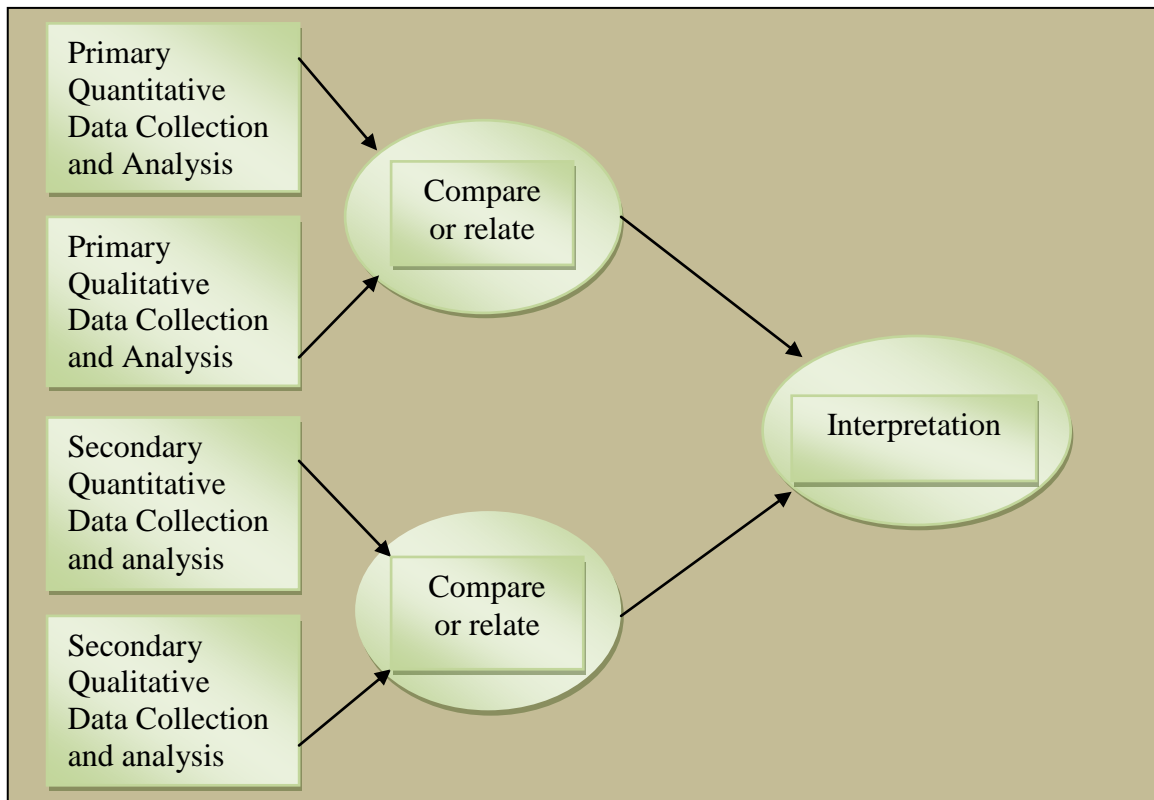
Figure 6.2: Concurrent embedded mixed method- with elements of convergent parallel mixed method designs.

In summary, the study was based on elements of the convergent parallel mixed methods and concurrent embedded mixed methods designs which consisted of qualitative and quantitative research in order to obtain current, relevant and sufficient data. A brief discussion on the quantitative and qualitative research designs applicable to this study follows.

6.4.1 Quantitative research design

Quantitative research designs produce results that can be used to describe numerical changes in measurable characteristics of a population of interest (Kraska, 2010:1; Landrum & Garza, 2015:200). According to Kraska (2010:1), who is supported by Creswell (Creswell, 2014:12), various authors concur that research designs in quantitative research studies include experimental-; quasi-experimental- and non-experimental designs. An example of a non-experimental design is a survey that is usually a tool used in quantitative research studies (Alston & Bowles, 2003:95), which was also applicable to the primary as well as secondary phase of this study. "Survey research involves the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions…it is an efficient method for systematically collecting data from a broad spectrum of individuals and social settings" (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:164).

The researcher chose a survey because, firstly, it was versatile (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:164), as the topics of rehabilitation could be easily questioned by sentenced offenders; secondly, it was an efficient design which enabled the researcher to collect data from a large number of respondents (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:164) and thirdly, data collected could be generalised (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:165) because of the sample that was drawn from the offender population. Neuman (2006:43) states that in survey research the researcher systematically asks a large number of people the same questions through a written questionnaire and records their answers. Data was gathered from sentenced offenders through a survey by means of an administered questionnaire that consisted of open- and closed-ended questions.

6.4.2 Qualitative research designs

A qualitative research design is flexible and iterative; however, it needs to be systematic and transparent. It is systematic when it follows the methodological guidelines of a specific method or approach, and transparent when records are kept of all decisions taken, which maintains accountability (Padgett, 2008:45). Gravetter and Forzano (2009:147) add that qualitative research is a type of research that is based on making careful observations of participants, usually accompanied by extensive note-taking, where after information is summarised and interpreted in a narrative report. Creswell (2014:187) and Padgett (2008:47) mention different research designs, also referred to as strategies by some authors (Fouché & Schurink, 2011:312) applicable to qualitative research, of which the case study was applicable to this study.

The case study is described as an analysis of one or more cases in a specific area, involving multiple sources such as individual interviews, documents, and focus group interviews (Jupp, Davies & Francis, 2000:39.) Fouché and Schurink (2011:321) add to the defining of a case study by indicating that a case study could pertain to an individual, a number of individuals, processes, activities, programmes or events where exploration and description of the case take place through detailed, in-depth data collecting methods such as interviews, observations, documents or archival records. In order to obtain in-depth information from correctional and professional correctional officials from the Bethal Management Area, the case study research design was used within the framework of qualitative research through interviews that were guided by a semi-structured interview schedule.

Mark (1996:226) distinguishes between three different types of case studies, of which the collective case study was the focus of this design, because "it furthers the understanding of the

researcher about a social issue or population being studied…cases are chosen so that comparisons can be made between cases and concepts, and so that theories can be extended and validated." The researcher focused on concepts of rehabilitation and unit management which were compared to information gathered from cases that included correctional and professional correctional officials aiming at improving the service delivery and ultimately the rehabilitation of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area.

6.5 RESEARCH METHODS

The researcher requested permission to do this study from the Department of Correctional Services at National office in Pretoria and the request was granted (see Appendix B). Since the research was conducted within correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area permission was requested from the Area Commissioner at the Bethal Management Area office and permission was given (see Appendix C).

6.5.1 Study population and sample

Bachman and Schutt (2012:104), as well as Gravetter and Forzano (2012:138), define 'population' as the entire set of individuals or elements of interest to a researcher that includes, amongst others, cities, prisons, countries, schools or individuals. According to Mouton (2002:134) there is a link between units of analysis and populations in social research, which, as he states, may include individual human beings, organisations, institutions, collectives, social activities or events, cultural objects, and interventions.

For the purpose of this study, there were two population groups which created the boundary of the primary and secondary research studies, namely sentenced offenders, as well as correctional and professional correctional officials employed in the DCS at the centres in the Bethal Management Area, comprising Bethal, Standerton, Piet Retief and Volksrust. The population of correctional and professional correctional officials, as well as the offender population in each of the identified centres during the primary and secondary research studies, are indicated in the table below.

Table 6.1: Population of correctional- and professional correctional officials and offender population per centre during the primary and secondary research studies

CATEGORY	BETHAL	STANDERTON	PIET RETIEF	VOLKSRUST	TOTAL
PRIMARY RESEARCH STUDY					
Professional correctional officials					
Social workers	01	01	01	0	03
Qualified nurses	05	02	01	01	09
Qualified educationists	07	02	01	0	10
Religious workers	01	01	01	01	04
Psychologists	0	0	0	0	0
Correctional officials					
Correctional Officials	189	171	63	49	472
Sentenced offenders					
Sentenced male offenders	501	393	209	149	1252
CATEGORY	BETHAL	STANDERTON	PIET RETIEF	VOLKSRUST	TOTAL
SECONDARY RESEARCH STUDY					
Professional correctional officials					
Social Workers	01	01	01	01	04
Qualified Nurses	1	5	1	2	09
Qualified Educationists	1	2	1	0	04
Spiritual Care Coordinators	1	2	1	1	05
Psychologists	0	0	0	0	0
Correctional officials					
Correctional Officials	185	169	75	65	494
Sentenced offenders					
Sentenced male offenders	771	235	276	204	1486

The personnel numbers reflected fluctuate, due to transfers and resignations, amongst other reasons. The sentenced offender totals could also vary on a daily basis, depending on parole

placements, transfers and offenders newly admitted. The total of the sentenced offender population at the four centres, Bethal, Standerton, Volksrust, and Piet Retief, was thus around 1252 at the time of the primary study, and 1486 during the secondary study.

6.5.1.1 *Quantitative research population and sampling*

In quantitative research, probability sampling is mostly used (Alston & Bowles, 2003:80; Bachman & Schutt, 2012:112), where each unit of the population has an equal chance of being selected for the study. Probability sampling was applicable to this study because it ensured a high degree of representativeness from which results could be generalised (Alston & Bowles, 2003:83; Bachman & Schutt, 2012:113).

Because the researcher had information about the population prior to sampling (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:115) and was able to draw a name list from the computer system on which all offenders at the named centres were categorised according to offences at any given time, and because representation could only be ensured by random sampling (Strydom, 2011:226), the researcher was of the opinion that the stratified random sampling method was the most suitable method for this study.

The stratified random sampling method is useful when a researcher wants to describe each individual segment of the population (Frankel, 2010:98; Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:147; Rossouw, 2003:111). Maxfield and Babbie (2012:307) state that the ultimate function of stratification is to organise the population into homogeneous subsets, to select the appropriate number of elements from each, and to improve representativeness (Haralambos & Holborn, 2004:895). The respondents are then selected through another form of sampling within the framework of the small group they belong to. Strydom (2011:230) adds that the members in the smaller groups are homogeneous with regard to some characteristics such as age, gender, or language. The desired number of respondents is selected within each stratum by randomly drawing a number of samples (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2005:229). One advantage of the stratified random sample, according to Gravetter and Forzano (2012:148) and Leedy and Ormrod (2010:209), is that it guarantees that each of the different subgroups will be well represented with a relatively large group of individuals in the sample.

The total population of sentenced male offenders at each correctional centre was divided into four main categories, according to the nature of the offence committed. These categories were

murder, rape, robbery, and economical and drug-related offences. In cases where offenders committed multiple offences, where two or more of the categories may have occurred, the offence which incurred the longest sentence was selected. After these four name lists had been finalised, samples were drawn from each list. The researcher found, however, that offenders who were originally identified through the stratified random sampling method and listed to participate in the process from the crime category lists, were found to be not available during the times called for the completion of questionnaires, because they would be either out with the work team or could not be found. This is confirmed in the writings of Jupp, Davies and Francis (2000:230), who state that problems encountered when doing research in a prison include prospective interviewees not being available. They might be present at a visit, the gym, at work, or transferred, despite the request that they remain at the section.

When the size of a sample is considered, Gravetter and Forzano (2012:141), as well as Rossouw (2003:114), do not present specific figures but rather explain certain principles to be considered. For example, the larger the population, the smaller the sample needs to be, and the smaller the population, the larger the sample should be; the more heterogeneous the population, the larger the sample should be and greater accuracy requires a bigger sample. Strydom (2011:225) gives suggestions on what the size of a sample should be in relation to the population. This author suggests that for a population of 200, 32% should be drawn for a sample of about 64 respondents. In order to ensure representation in the sample during the primary research study, the researcher drew a sample consisting of 36% of the total population (36% of 1252 sentenced offenders minus those who participated in the pilot study, that amounted to 447 participants), at the various centres as applicable.

The secondary phase was done using the same selection and sampling procedures, except for sample sizes. According to Alston and Bowles (2003:91), the sample size depends on factors such as the research design and its purpose. Because the secondary phase comprised information supplementary to the primary research study, the sample sizes were smaller. Alston and Bowles (2003:91) hold the view that "a small representative sample may be more accurate than a large unrepresentative one." In the secondary research study 6.5% of the total population (6.5% of 1486-sentenced offenders amounted to 97 participants) at the various centres were involved.

6.5.1.2   Qualitative research population and sampling

According to Strydom and Delport (2011:390), sampling in qualitative research is utilised even though it is less structured and less strict. Due to the principles of qualitative research, these authors conclude that non-probability sampling is used, almost without exception (Strydom & Delport, 2011:391). The motivation for using non-probability sampling in this study was based on the premise of Rossouw (2003:113) as well as Bachman and Schutt (2012:118), who are of the opinion that non-probability sampling is useful when a research question that does not concern a large population is explored, or when the study is exploratory.

Even though all officials who participated in the research study are correctional officials and rehabilitators, they were categorised according to their specialised fields of knowledge. These included section heads, members working in the areas of education, the hospital, social work, religious care, disposal, the case management committee, the unit manager, administration personnel, and security staff. It was important to involve officials from these various posts in order to obtain sufficient information. The most appropriate non-probability sampling method for the selection of correctional and professional correctional officials during the primary and secondary research study was purposive sampling, because the researcher used her own judgement (Rossouw, 2003:113; Bachman & Schutt, 2012:121) about whom to select to the sample. Correctional and professional correctional officials were separated during the process of sampling, because of the difference in their daily duties. The researcher needed information from specific officials who performed duties in selected posts and therefore correctional officials (unit managers, section heads, case administration, case management committee, case officers, administrative personnel and security staff) were purposefully selected, as well as professional correctional officials (social workers, educationists and professional nurses). The selection criteria for correctional and professional officials are indicated below:

- Officials should be permanently appointed as DCS officials.
- Correctional officials should be functioning in a correctional centre within the Bethal Management Area.
- Professional correctional officials should be functioning in the programmes Rehabilitation and Care.
- Professional officials should be stationed in a correctional centre within the Bethal Management Area.

A total number of 96 correctional and professional correctional officials were purposively selected by the researcher during the primary research study. During the secondary research study the same procedures were followed in terms of the sampling and selection of correctional and professional correctional officials until the saturation point (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:211), which amounted to 37 correctional and professional correctional officials.

6.5.2 Data collection methods and data analysis

Data collection methods and data analysis, as they transpired during the primary and secondary research studies, will be discussed in the sequence of the research designs utilised, namely the quantitative and then qualitative research designs, as implemented within the framework of mixed methods research.

6.5.2.1 Data collection methods

Elements of both quantitative and qualitative research are included in a mixed methods study (Creswell, 2014:3; Creswell, 2015:4) when collecting data. In both the primary and secondary research phase of the study, data was collected from sentenced offenders, using a quantitative data collection method. Data from correctional and professional correctional officials was gathered according to qualitative data collection methods. Both data collection methods will be discussed with focus firstly on the quantitative study, after which the qualitative data collection methods will follow.

6.5.2.1.1   Quantitative data collection

The strengths of survey research, which is a quantitative form of data collection, are summarised by Gravetter and Forzano (2012:217) as follows:

- In-person surveys are efficient to administer to groups.
- There is a 100% response rate.
- It is flexible in groups or individual interviews.

Quantitative data was gathered from sentenced offenders through an administered survey in the form of questionnaires during the primary and secondary phase of the research study. Sentenced offender's views were obtained by means of a survey using an administered questionnaire with

open- and closed-ended questions (see Appendix D). The administered questionnaire was justified by language differences and the general low education levels of the population. Such a survey, according to Bachman and Schutt (2012:181), is completed by individual respondents assembled in a group and works well with some institutionalised populations, such as sentenced offenders in a correctional centre, as was the case in this research study. At each of the correctional centres, the sentenced offenders who were identified from the various crime category name lists were called by the researcher and assembled as a group. Each respondent was given a questionnaire after which it was completed by the group simultaneously, question by question. Haralambos and Holborn (2004:899) argue that the advantage of administered questionnaires lies in the fact that there is an interviewer present, who ensures that "questionnaires are completed according to instructions." The researcher audibly asked each question in sequence as it appeared in the questionnaire, which was followed up by an interpreted version of each question in isiZulu. Interpreters included a social worker and correctional officials, depending on the centre and availability. Communal factors with reference to the sentenced offenders were that they were all male, sentenced and detained at a correctional centre in the Bethal Management Area.

6.5.2.1.2   Qualitative data collection

Qualitative research was utilised to gain perceptions from correctional and professional correctional officials through interviews that were guided by a semi-structured interview schedule (see Appendix E).

The communal factors for professional- and correctional officials entailed that they were all employed in the DCS, worked at the identified centres, and were all expected to function as rehabilitators. Individual interviews, guided by a semi-structured interview schedule, was an applicable method of gathering qualitative data from correctional and professional correctional officials. This method of data gathering is described by Greeff (2002:302) as a semi-structured one-to-one interview, combined with an interview schedule or guide; and "this method is utilised when detailed information is needed from a participant about his perceptions or beliefs on a specific topic." The semi-structured interview is a method of collecting data with more open-ended questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:188; Westmarland, 2011:90) from individuals which provides a general framework for the respondents and it can be used to explore the dimensions of a concept (Jupp, Davies & Francis, 2000:61). The semi-structured interview schedule can contain both closed and open questions, according to McLaughlin (2012:39). According to

Alston and Bowles (2003:116), a semi-structured interview follows a specific outline of topics and it has a number of pre-tested questions; "it can be ideal research instrument for exploratory designs and it contains many open-ended questions." The semi-structured interview schedule utilised in this study existed mostly of open-ended questions with closed questions featuring at the biographic particulars section. The research approach, design and method applicable to this study is summarised in Figure 6.3 below.
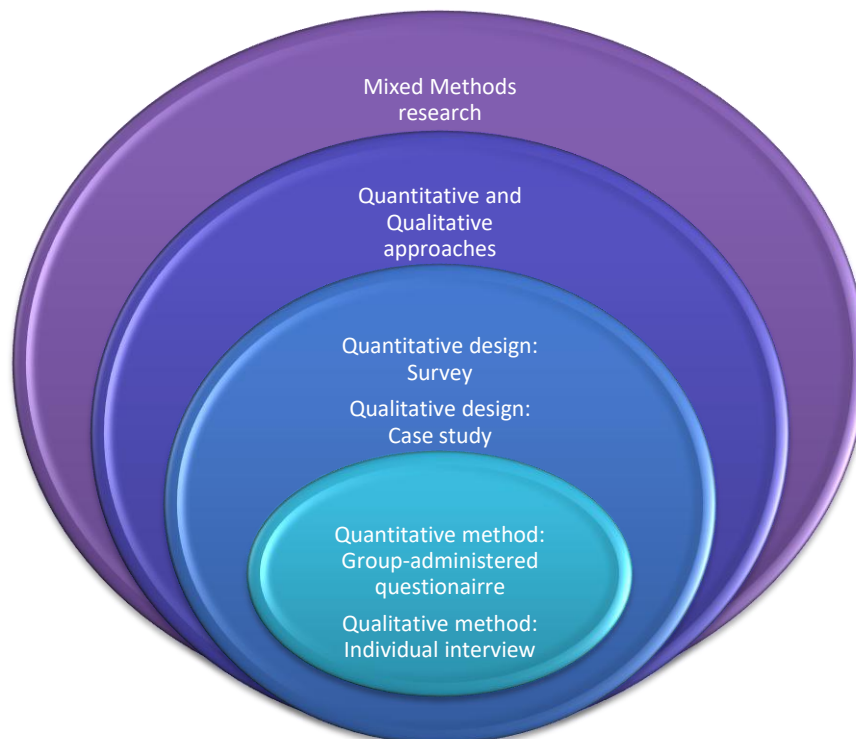
Figure 6.3: Summary of the research approaches, designs and methods used in this research study

The interview schedule was valuable in this kind of study, because it gave the researcher time beforehand to consider and formulate applicable questions that would cover all the aspects of data needed. The schedule ensured that all questions were directed to participants, meaning that information loss was limited. According to Greeff (2011:352), open-ended questions provide the respondents with more freedom and confidence to answer honestly and completely; they also enable the interviewer to elaborate on responses from participants. In the primary and secondary research study the researcher was assisted by social workers and correctional officials from each of the correctional centres in identifying and allocating correctional and professional correctional officials who were purposively selected from various sections to be interviewed. The semi-structured interview schedule was utilised as a guideline during the interviews and responses from officials were recorded in writing on the schedules as well. In instances where a few

officials were unavailable or busy at the time that the interview was supposed to take place, the researcher gave them the interview schedule so that they could look at the questions prior to her return later the day. When the researcher returned to conduct the interview; it allowed a quicker response time as participants had seen the questions in preparation of their responses. Interviews with officials were conducted in English, since that is the most common language used amongst officials in the DCS.

6.5.2.2   Data analysis

The success or failure of any research endeavour lies in the researcher's ability to work with the data and to actively generate understandable theoretical arguments (Alston & Bowles, 2003:68). Creswell (2015:6) holds the view that no topic in the field of mixed methods research is "so confusing as the questions of how to integrate the datasets – how to reconcile words, text data with numeric data." Delport and Fouché (2011:447) is of the opinion that data analysis in mixed methods research consists of "analysing the quantitative data using quantitative methods and the qualitative data using qualitative methods and procedures." The data analysis processes in both the quantitative- and qualitative research studies will be next discussed.

6.5.2.2.1   *Quantitative data analysis*

Quantitative data analysis is done with the purpose of reducing raw data to an "intelligible and interpretable form" in order to identify and test relations between research problems, as well as to draw conclusions (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:249). In order to present data in an understandable form, Neuman (2006:43) indicates that data in quantitative research is typically summarised in charts, tables, graphs and analysed by means of statistics. According to Gravetter and Forzano (2009:417) statistical methods have two purposes, namely to help organise and summarise the data so the researcher can communicate research results to others, and secondly, to help the researcher in answering the questions that initiated the research and in reaching some conclusions. For purposes of the primary and secondary quantitative research study, the researcher implemented the data analysis process as it is presented by Fouché and Bartley (2011:252) which includes data preparation, data entry as well as processing, analysis and interpretation. Each of these steps will be discussed briefly, as applicable to this study.

- *Data preparation*

The process of data preparation involves the sorting of raw data into a numerical structure that is coded according to a code sheet, in order to simplify the data capturing into a computer system(Fouché & Bartley, 2011:252). A code sheet was designed during the primary and secondary quantitative research study for open and closed questions that served as a guideline for coding the responses of respondents. When data was sorted and coded a numerical structure was formed that prepared the data for capturing into the computer system.

- *Data entry*

Fouché and Bartley (2011:254) describe the format of a computerised spreadsheet that is used for data capturing in quantitative research. The spreadsheet consists of columns that contain the variables, with the rows representing individual respondents – "the cell where each row and column meet represents the specific response….that the respondent gave for that question" (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:254). For this study the researcher compiled a response spreadsheet that consisted of columns in which the variables were represented, and numbered rows reflecting the corresponding questionnaire's responses. In the primary quantitative research phase of the study the spreadsheet had 447 rows, and in the secondary quantitative research study 97 rows were completed.

- *Process, analyse and interpret data*

All data gathered concerning variables needs to be summarised in order to comprehend and interpret it easily, after which such summaries are presented in visual form, such as tables or graphs (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:254). The presentation of data, according to Fouché and Bartley (2011:254), needs to be clear, easily understood by those reading it, and in logical order. Data interpretation in quantitative research focuses on the mode (the most frequently given response – the highest response rate) as well as its typical occurrence, in other words, the proportion of response not calculated into the mode (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:259).

Data from the primary and secondary quantitative research studies were summarised and visually presented through graphs and tables. The mode and typical occurrence was highlighted in variables during brief discussions.

6.5.2.2.2 *Assessment of the quality of quantitative research*

Rosnow and Rosenthal (2005:139) and Leedy and Ormrod (2010:28) explain that there are two criteria used to measure how well research designs fulfill their function, namely validity and reliability. Validity is explained by Rosnow and Rosenthal (2005:139) as "how well the measure or research design does what it purports to do." The validity of a measurement procedure is the degree to which the measurement process measures the variable it claims to measure (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:108; Rossouw, 2003:123). According to Delport and Roestenburg (2011:172) validity has two aspects which entail, firstly, that "the instrument actually measures the concept in question" and secondly, that "the concept is measured accurately." In both the primary and secondary quantitative research studies the concept in question was the sentenced offender's views on rehabilitation and unit management in the DCS within the Bethal Management Area. It was found during data analysis that these concepts were measured and the researcher could identify with accuracy the offender's views concerning rehabilitation and unit management.

Various authors (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011:177; Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:115; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2005:140; Rossouw, 2003:122) agree that reliability of a measurement procedure is the stability or consistency of the measurement, which implies that when measurements are repeated under similar circumstances as before, the results should be identical or similar to those of the previous measurements. The administered group questionnaire that was utilised in both studies were repeated in the four correctional centres involved, namely the Bethal, Standerton, Piet Retief and Volksrust Correctional Centres. Being correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area, it can be accepted that the circumstances under which the research took place were quite similar. During the data analysis process it was determined that results obtained from respondents in the various correctional centres were similar.

6.5.2.2.3 *Qualitative data analysis*

Qualitative data analysis is, according to Schurink, Fouché and De Vos (2011:399), "a process of inductive reasoning, thinking and theorising which is far removed from structured, mechanical and technical procedures to make inferences from empirical data of social life." According to Mouton (2002:169), the qualitative researcher usually works with a wealth of rich, descriptive data, which focuses on the individual case in a specific context. This implies that all data gathered through individual interviews needs to be analysed in order to establish relationships between aspects researched. Various resources describe steps to be taken during qualitative data

analysis (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:216). For purposes of the primary and secondary qualitative research studies, the process of qualitative data analysis as set out by Schurink, Fouché and De Vos (2011:403) was used. This source indicated that the process of data analysis in qualitative research could be divided into three categories consisting of eight steps in total, which can be assessed through both a linear and a circular framework. These categories and steps are listed below and followed by a brief description:

❖ *Preparing and organising the data*
- Planning for recording of data
- Data collection and preliminary analysis
- Managing the data
- Reading, memoing

❖ *Reducing the data*
- Generating categories and coding the data
- Testing the understandings and searching for alternative answers
- Interpreting and developing typologies

❖ *Visualising, representing and displaying the data*
- Presenting the data

Each of these steps will be discussed in relation how it applied to both qualitative research studies.

Preparing and organising the data

Data analysis in qualitative research is, according to Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004:127), an "ongoing, emerging and iterative or non-linear process". This implies that the researcher continues to analyse qualitative data, backward and forward, irrespective of the phase the analysis process is in. Qualitative researchers are often described as being the research instrument, because the bulk of their data collation depends on their personal involvement (interviews, observations) in the setting (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:96). In this step of *planning for recording of data,* it was necessary for the researcher to plan for the recording of data in a systematic manner. This should already be decided before the data collection commences. Schurink et al. (2011:404), mentions various methods of recording data, such as colour-coding

notes, attendance of events, description of settings, audio recordings, video or iPod recordings. Grinnell, Williams and Unrau (2012:361) indicate that when responses from participants are written down in a research instrument such as a semi-structured schedule, transcription "may be a matter of typing the responses either just for easier reading or with the aim of using a computer programme…".The transcription of handwritten field notes is important for the researcher to become familiar with the data (Noaks & Wincup, 2004:129). In both studies, data was collected from correctional and professional correctional officials through one instrument, namely individual face-to-face interviews, that were guided by semi-structured interview schedules. The researcher recorded all the answers given by the officials in writing on the interview schedules which were transcribed for the purpose of easier reading and grouping.

Data collection and preliminary analysis constitutes, according to Schurink et al. (2011:405), the process of analysis of data during data collection, as well as the data analysis that takes place after data has been collected. The most important feature of qualitative data analysis is that it focuses more on the text and qualitative data instead of on numbers (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:215). During the primary research study data was collected from correctional and professional correctional officials, guided by a semi-structured interview schedule which was completed by the researcher as the interviews went along. Preliminary analysis took place during the interviewing process by asking follow-up questions which were posed for reasons of clarity, as well as obtaining sufficient data. After the data collection process was finalised, the data was analysed according to the office approach (Schurink et al., 2011:405) which involves, amongst other things, the sorting and indexing of data. After data analysis was done in the primary study it was found that due to a time lapse, data and data collection had to be reviewed, as stipulated by Schurink et al. (2011:405), that "Data analysis frequently necessitates revisions in data collection procedures and strategies. These revisions yield new data that are then subjected to new analysis. The result of this process is the effective collection of rich data that generate alternative emerging themes…". The secondary qualitative research study was therefore conducted in order to obtain rich and recent data.

Computer files were created and utilised in both the qualitative research studies in order to *manage data*, (Schurink et al., 2011:408), since it was easy to sort information under different themes, headings and topics which also made it possible to retrieve information by selecting a specific key term. The interview schedule served as a guide for categorising data and formulating themes according to which the computer files were named. The main category file had sub-themes where data relating to those subjects was stored.

Reading the data over and over again was the main aim of the step r*eading and writing memos* (Schurink et al., 2011:409) in the data analysis process. The researcher gained a full understanding of the data through reading and writing notes and memos in the margins (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:215) to assist with the initial process of exploring. According to Harty, Alant and Opperman (2002:65), it is valuable at this stage to identify meaningful units and to develop different categories according to which data could be grouped, to be able to answer the research questions. This, as well as the conceptualising and creating of categories, were done manually prior to computer data capturing. All data gathered from the individual interviews in the qualitative research studies were read repeatedly, aiming at achieving an overall perspective and understanding of the contents. During this process, categories were developed according to emerging themes from correctional and professional correctional officials.

Reducing the data

According to Shurink et al. (2011:410), this is a challenging phase which requires creativity, intellect, knowledge of social life, and an awareness of the data. *Generating categories and coding the data* is, according to Schurink et al. (2011:410), a process where the researcher identifies "salient and grounded categories of meaning held by participants in the setting…as categories of meaning emerge, the researcher searches for those that have internal convergence and external divergence…the categories should be internally consistent but distinct from one another." The focus should therefore be upon segmenting, labelling and identifying the categories which have meaning to the participants, and developing more categories of meaning as the process continues (Creswell, 2008:251; Grinnell et al., 2012:365). After the gathered data was read repeatedly and written memos were compared, the researcher was able to identify four categories that included biographic information of officials, rehabilitation, unit management and suggestions.

The coding process, according to Schurink et al. (2011:412), involves the study of each line or paragraph in the data and after questioning the content, allocating codes in the form of key terms or colour codes in order to sort the information. According to Henning et al. (2004:105) codes are created as the researcher works along studying the data and the "better the researcher knows the data the more competent she will be in labelling units of meaning."It is therefore vital for the researcher to first familiarise him-/herself with the content of responses in order to create an overall picture of the data. Grinnell et al. (2012:367), postulate that after the categories of

meaning had been identified, data must be classified into a variety of themes. The data should therefore be taken apart and divided into themes, supplemented by sub-themes. Themes are described by Creswell (2008:256) as "similar codes aggregated together to form a major idea in the database, they form a core element in qualitative data analysis." The aim is to break down a broad database into smaller manageable themes that would improve understanding and interpretation of the data (Schurink et al., 2011:410). The researcher utilised key terms that were identified by following the process of studying the data line by line and paragraph by paragraph – those with the same notion were coded under the same key terms and those with variant notions were coded under new key terms.

At this stage of data analysis, a search should be done that focuses on patterns that are not in the data, in order to *test the understandings and search for alternative answers*, that*: "challenges the understanding, searches for negative instances of patterns and incorporates these into larger constructs, as necessary" (Schurink et al., 2011:415). In both the primary- and secondary research studies the researcher analysed the data by searching for patterns that occurred, though the questions were not directly posed to participants.

The final part in the reduction of data is the *interpretation of the data and developing of typologies*. Mouton (2002:177) explains: "The criteria of objectivity demand that the interpretation should not be selective, but that data should be reported in full. A valid conclusion is one in which the data (empirical) or reasons/evidence (theoretical) provide both *sufficient* and *relevant* grounds for the conclusion." This implies that data should make sense and be understood so that the researcher could form conclusions and opinions of the situation in the field of study. Schurink et al. (2011:416), note that several forms of interpretation exist, namely: interpretation based on insight, intuition or hunches; interpretation within a social science construct or idea; or a combination of personal views as contrasted with a social science construct or idea. These three forms of interpretation were used by the researcher, enabling her to present possible explanations for particular findings of the research.

The process of interpreting data is complimented by developing typologies; as Schurink et al. (2011:416) state, a typology is viewed as a "conceptual framework in which phenomenon are classified in terms of the characteristics that they have in common with other phenomenon." Grinnell et al. (2012:369) are of the opinion that the major goal of a research study is to search for any relationship between the identified themes that emerged from the data. The researcher attentively studied the major themes in order to establish any relationships that might exist. By

developing typologies, the researcher identified links between phenomena that were exclusive to a particular phenomenon.

Visualising, representing and displaying the data

Biographic particulars were presented in the form of tables and graphs, whilst the identified themes were represented in narrative style, supported by quotes from participants in both the primary and secondary qualitative research studies.

6.5.2.2.4   *Assessment of the quality of qualitative research*

Appropriate assessment of the quality of qualitative research involves the accomplishment of trustworthiness through four alternative constructs compared to the usual reliability and validity, namely: credibility, transferability, dependability (auditability), and confirmability (Bryman, Teevan & Bell, 2009:132; Lietz & Zayas, 2010:191; Schurink et al., 2011:419). Each of these constructs will be briefly discussed in accordance with this study:

Credibility

Credibility of the researcher is established, according to Grinnell, et al. (2012:371), by proving good judgment, which was acquired by the researcher through training, qualifications and experience, as well as record-keeping of the procedures that were followed, reasons for taking certain decisions and the thought process that informed the conclusions reached. The credibility of the researcher was established during the qualitative research studies, who utilised her previous research experience, training and qualifications to implement good judgment during the research process. Complementary to this source, Bryman, et al. (2009:132), describe credibility as following proper research procedures with interpretations made by the researcher that are true to the people observed. Franklin, Cody and Balla (2010:3) suggest methods for increasing credibility in a qualitative research study which includes, amongst other things, prolonged engagement, purposive sampling and using structured codebooks (cf. Creswell, 2009:192). Prolonged engagement implied that the researcher spent enough time in the research field so that all distortions caused by the researcher's presence could be handled. The researcher is a member of the Department of Correctional Services with a service record of 23 years, and is familiar to correctional- and professional correctional officials in the Bethal Management Area. The researcher's presence in the various correctional centres did therefore not cause distortions in the

data collected from participants and the researcher spent sufficient time in each centre to provide time for any queries from participants. Purposive sampling was used in the study in order to involve both correctional- and professional correctional officials that led to the replication of data, which ultimately increased the credibility of the study. A structured codebook was formulated by the researcher during the data analysis phase in both the study in order to code and categorise themes, as well as to document the research procedures (Creswell, 2009:190) – a process that contributed to the credibility of the study.

Transferability

Transferability concerns the possibility of applying findings made in one qualitative study, done in a specific environment, to a study that has different circumstances (Bryman et al., 2009:133). This resource encourages researchers to produce rich detailed data, also known as thick description (Franklin et al., 2010:370), instead of "trying to come up with findings that can definitely be applied to other times, places and people." Detailed descriptions of themes or settings cause, according to Creswell (2009:192), results that become richer and realistic, ultimately adding to the validity if findings. The achievement of transferability is reached, according to Lietz and Zayas (2010:195), when "the findings have applicability to another setting, to theory, to practice, or to future research." This qualitative study, which is theoretically founded, was done within correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area and it focused on views and perspectives of correctional and professional correctional officials who are employed at these centres. Data concerning themes were presented in detail in this study, which contributed to richer findings that might be applicable to other correctional centres in other management areas, and furthermore form a foundation for future research.

Dependability / Auditability

Franklin, Cody and Balla (2010:356), as well as Bryman et al. (2009:133), state that dependability is equal to reliability in quantitative research, and that it entails the researcher keeping complete records of all the phases during the research process, which should be accessible to others. Franklin et al. (2010:356) elaborate by emphasising that "Researchers should take thorough notes and keep a log and journal that records each design decision and the rationale behind it to allow others to inspect their procedures, protocols and decisions." Schurink et al. (2011:420) also formulated the term 'dependability' as an alternative to 'reliability', because the assumption of an unchanging social world is in direct contrast to the qualitative

assumption that the social world is always being constructed, and the concept or replication is itself problematic. Certain elements of dependability is highlighted by Grinnell et al. (2012:372), as well as Lietz and Zayas (2010:196), namely consistency in interview procedures, recording of process, and developing rules for coding. These authors are of the opinion that if a researcher can follow these steps, another researcher will be able to repeat the same process, make similar decisions and come to similar conclusions. Consistency in interview procedures was obtained in both the studies through the use of a semi-structured interview schedule that guided the interviews with correctional and professional correctional officials. Processes were recorded as well, and coding took place according to certain decisions that were taken by the researcher, that formed a guideline. However, to ensure reliability, the researcher continued with data gathering, until a saturation level was obtained concerning the needed information.

Confirmability

According to Bryman et al. (2009:133) and Schurink et al. (2011:421), confirmability refers to the objectivity of the researcher, who should ensure that his/her "personal values or theoretical inclinations did not blatantly sway the conduct of the research and the findings derived from it." It also involves confirming that the results and data are clearly linked, a process which can be done by external collaborators in order to confirm the research procedures (Lietz & Zayas, 2010:197). Though the researcher is a DCS employee in the Bethal Management Area, the participants in this study were stationed at other correctional centres in the management area which indicates that the researcher did not have daily contact with them.

Trustworthiness was therefore established in the qualitative research studies when the researcher assured participants of her credibility, ensured prolonged engagements at the correctional centres, implemented purposive sampling, recorded all procedures followed in a codebook, created rich data through detailed descriptions of themes, and presented results having objectivity in mind.

6.6   PILOT STUDY

Bachman and Schutt (2012:178) hold the opinion that a survey within a **quantitative study** cannot commence until "the questionnaire has been pre-tested by various people such as the researcher self, (who should revise the questionnaire), colleagues and a small sample of the population or a small group of people that is similar to the population that is to be studied." The

objectives of a pilot study in a quantitative research study normally includes, according to Delport and Roestenburg (2011:195) as well as Haralambos and Holborn (2004:899), the determination of the time needed to complete the questionnaire, to test the validity and feasibility of the measuring instrument and the research study as a whole, to assess the reading levels of the respondents and to assess the content of the questionnaire when it is completed by an expert. In both the quantitative research studies the researcher pre-tested the administered questionnaire on a colleague in order to gain inputs, as well as a group of five sentenced male offenders who resembled the population that was to be studied. The value of the pre-test was that the colleague identified wording that had to be simplified, and the researcher detected from the group of sentenced offenders the tempo against which they were able to complete the questionnaire, as well as the areas where they were uncertain about a question.

Alterations that were made in the questionnaire after the pilot study was question 2.1 (See Annexure C), which was originally an open-ended question –requesting the respondent to indicate the nature of the offence. It was established during the pilot study that respondents were not sure about their crime categories and therefore the question was altered to a closed questions where the various crime categories were listed. Wording that was altered was in question 3.8 where the original question stated: How do you envisage your life when you are fully rehabilitated? It was changed to: How do you see your life when you are fully rehabilitated? The pre-test assisted the researcher to revise the questionnaire and develop a well-designed research tool suitable for completion by sentenced offenders from centres in the Bethal Management Area.

Strydom (2011:241) indicates that it is important to conduct a pilot study in **qualitative research**, which would usually be informal, with a few respondents possessing the same characteristics as those in the actual study. The aims of the pilot study in qualitative studies are to ascertain certain trends, to establish relationships and communication patterns in the community, to be able to estimate the time and costs involved, to determine if relevant data can be obtained from respondents, and to test certain questions. Strydom (2011:242) elaborates intensively on the value of the pilot study. The researcher should be able to identify certain problem areas after completion of the pilot study, of which the main points, according to Strydom (2011:242) as applicable to the study, can be summarised as follows:

- Suitability of the interview schedule
- Determining the number of codes per question

- Suitability of the data-collection procedure

- Suitability of the sampling frame

- Variability of the population

- Expected non-response rate or percentage

- Estimate of costs, and length of main investigation

- Involvement of the researcher

- Analysis of the data, and

- Evaluation of the study.

It was clear that a pilot study was necessary in this study in order to test the interview schedules which were utilised for data collection from correctional- and professional correctional officials. In both the primary and secondary qualitative research studies the researcher pre-tested the semi-structured interview schedule by interviewing two correctional officials and two professional correctional officials. Data gathered from the pilot study was not included in the main study. The pilot studies assisted the researcher to determine the time that an interview would take, which served as a guide for planning at the various centres, as well as certain terminology, such as 'multi-disciplinary' and 'relapse prevention', that the officials were uncertain about.

6.7   ETHICAL ASPECTS

Ethical aspects in research touches the responsibility that the researcher has towards participants personally, and in ensuring that the information they provide are treated with integrity, as stated by Gravetter and Forzano (2012:72): "Research ethics concerns the responsibility of researchers to be honest and respectful to all individuals who are affected by their research studies or their reports of the study's results." Ethical conduct in research is "an individual responsibility tied into deep moral judgments" Hagan (2002:27), as well as "the values by which the conduct of researchers, and the morality of the empirical strategies they use, are evaluated (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2005:60). Mouton (2002:10) adds that ethics of science aim to provide certain guidelines on what appropriate moral behaviour is in the sphere of science. Ethical aspects therefore concern the researcher's own responsibility towards handling the research study with integrity, respect and moral values. According to Maxfield and Babbie (2015:58), ethical issues can be challenging when doing research in correctional settings, because at times the focus of the research is on criminal behaviour, which is a topic that respondents or participants – including offenders and officials – might not be comfortable discussing. The researcher had the

responsibility to ensure that during the research processes both offenders and officials were handled with moral values that included respect, honesty, dignity, and integrity.

6.7.1 Ethical guidelines

An ethical guideline is needed in research, since the respondent has a right to decide whether to participate in the study or not (Westmarland, 2011:144), to withdraw at any time if she/he so wishes, and to know what the consequences might be of her/his involvement in the research. Guidelines for ethical behaviour which can serve as a criteria for research principles are discussed by various authors (Alston & Bowles, 2003:21; Bachman & Schutt, 2012:55; Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:77; Hagan, 2000:53; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:102; Padgett, 2008:65; Strydom, 2011:115, Westmarland, 2011:141), which are briefly listed as follows:

- Autonomy, which includes informed consent and confidentiality
- Avoid procedures that may harm respondents
- Beneficence (doing good)
- Justice – requires that the purposes of the research be just
- Positive contribution to knowledge
- Honour commitments to respondents and respect reciprocity
- Exercise objectivity and professional integrity, as well as quality in performing and reporting research
- Protect confidentiality and privacy of respondents
- Voluntary participation by respondents
- Protect anonymity of respondents
- Avoid deceiving respondents
- Presentation of truthful analysis and reporting
- Transparency concerning the purpose, methods, intended uses of the research and risks involved in participating

The guidelines listed above are applicable to quantitative and qualitative research, which is elaborated on below.

According to Bachman and Schutt (2012:188), "Survey research usually poses fewer ethical dilemmas than do experimental or field research designs … The methods of data collection are

quite obvious in a survey, so little is concealed from the respondents." These authors focus on the protection of respondents and confidentiality when conducting a survey. During the **quantitative research** study the researcher ensured that offenders were protected and that confidentiality was maintained. Anonymity contributed to confidentiality and honesty in responses, and respondents' identities were protected.

During a **qualitative research** study various ethical issues can arise (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:224), because by doing research in itself, an unnatural setting is already created. There are, however, ethical guidelines that can be followed in order to minimise any negative effect of the research, such as voluntary participation, identity disclosure, confidentiality and subject well-being, amongst others (Bachman & Schutt, 2012:224). During the qualitative research study the researcher ensured that ethical issues received attention before each interview commenced, by reading and explaining the consent form to participants.

In the Code of Ethics formulated by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), in paragraph 5.02, certain guidelines are stipulated pertaining to social work research. According to Gravetter and Forzano (2009:99), a researcher has two categories of ethical responsibility, namely the responsibility to ensure the welfare and dignity of the individual respondents, and furthermore, the responsibility to ensure that public reports of the research are honest and accurate. In order to adhere to these two responsibilities the researcher should focus on informed consent, no deception about advantages when participating in the research or not, and confidentiality (cf Bachman & Schutt, 2012:61; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009:107.) It is thus clear that the ethical aspects of research forms part of the entire research study and are not applicable only when information from respondents are gathered.

The ethical responsibility was reflected in both the quantitative and qualitative research studies in the form of a consent form that was explained to respondents and participants before the research process commenced.

6.7.2 Informed consent

Informed consent was obtained from all populations in this research study, namely the offenders and the officials at the various centres, by their signing a consent form, confirming their agreement to voluntarily participate in the study (see Appendix F). Ethical clearance was gained from the University of Pretoria (see Appendix G) where the consent forms were approved.

Informed consent, as described by Noaks and Wincup (2004:45), "…refers to research conducted in such a way that participants have complete understanding, at all times, of what the research is about and the implications for themselves in being involved." According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (2005:61), the informed consent should consist of information such as the purpose of the study, possible benefits to subjects, possible risks and side effects, and what procedures will be used (cf. Citro, 2010:69; Henning et al., 2004:73; Neuman, 2006:135; Padgett, 2008:65; Van Rooyen & Engelbrecht, 2001:85). The respondents should not only be informed of, but should also understand the contents. Strydom (2011:117) agrees and adds that the credibility of the researcher should also be revealed during consent. Strydom (2011:117) explains the aim of consent in the following manner: "Emphasis must be placed on accurate and complete information, so that subjects will fully comprehend the investigation and consequently be able to make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision about their possible participation." The general concept of informed consent is summarised by Gravetter and Forzano (2012:81) as the ability of the research participant to understand the information given by the researcher concerning the research project, and to decide voluntarily to participate in the project or not. The researcher explained her own credibility to respondents by revealing her registration as social worker with the South African Council for Social Service Professions, her registration and student card as social work student at the University of Pretoria, and the letter of permission granted from the Department of Correctional Services for completing the research study.

6.7.3   Voluntary participation

When involving offenders in research, there is another factor that should also be revealed during consent, namely that a decision to not participate in a study will have no influence on work assignments, privileges or parole decisions (Maxfield & Babbie, 1995:162). Neuman (2006:135) states: "never coerce anyone into participating, participation must be voluntary." The consent form in both the quantitative research studies was explained to respondents (sentenced offenders) to achieve an understanding of the contents, after which it was signed by the latter and the researcher upon agreement. Respondents needed to understand voluntary participation and were excused if they were not interested or willing to be involved. All offenders involved in the research were interested and willing to participate whereas some officials Bethal- and Volksrust Centres declined. In cases where offenders had limited understanding due to a language barrier, an interpreter was available to provide clarity.

Voluntary participation was also explained to correctional- and professional correctional officials during the qualitative research studies, to ensure that they understood that they did not have to participate if they were not interested.

6.7.4   Confidentiality and anonymity

Due to the nature of the research site (correctional centres), taking care of the confidentiality and anonymity of all information was important (Noaks & Wincup, 2004:48; Strydom, 2011:119). This implied that respondents had to be assured that data would only be used for the stated purpose of the research, and that no other person would have access to interview data. Van Rooyen and Engelbrecht (2001:84) state that participants need to be protected when information is disclosed. Although there are different techniques for preserving confidentiality, the basic process involves ensuring that participants' records are kept anonymous (Citro, 2010:73; Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:87). This is confirmed by Strydom (2011:120), who states that information given anonymously ensures the privacy of subjects. In a setting such as a correctional centre respondents could be harmed if sensitive information was disclosed. The researcher therefore ensured that information gathered from offenders and officials during surveys and interviews remained anonymous by requesting them to not write their names or registration numbers on the schedules or questionnaires.

6.7.5   Research findings

According to Strydom (2011:124), an ethical obligation rests upon the researcher to ensure at all times that the investigation proceeds correctly and that no one is deceived by the findings; it is also the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that the research findings are processed truthfully and clearly, so that it could be to the benefit of the participants. Bachman and Schutt (2012:321), as well as Strydom (2011:123), present specific focus points concerning ethical issues surrounding the research findings, as follows:

- An honest account of how the research process was followed should be provided
- The final written report must be accurate, objective, clear, and unambiguous and must contain all essential information
- A full record of the research project should be kept in order to answer queries
- All forms of emphasis or slanting to bias the results are unethical and must be avoided
- Graphs should not be used to mislead readers

- Plagiarism is a serious offence; therefore all due recognition must be given to sources consulted and to people who collaborated
- Shortcomings and errors must be admitted
- Subjects should be informed about the findings in an objective manner, without offering too many details or impairing the principle of confidentiality; this is a form of recognition and gratitude to the community for their participation.

The researcher therefore took special care in the writing of the research report, by ensuring accuracy, objectivity and the truthful reflection of information, without impairing confidentiality concerning the respondents. The respondents were also informed that the research results would be published in scientific journals.

3.8.   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Fouché and Bartley (2011:288) are of the opinion that any research study has limitations and by the virtue of the researcher directing attention to them they, ultimately contribute to the scientific quality of the study. Limitations of the study that were identified during and after the research process are:

- In retrospect, after data was analysed the researcher realised that it would have been better to differentiate between data gathered from correctional- and professional correctional officials. Handling the two types of officials as two different components would have provided data and findings for correctional officials and professionals separately. The value in this is that correctional and professional officials have a different scope of work and though they are stationed in one correctional centre, their functions differ. Specific research findings would be more applicable to each component.
- The availability of recent literature concerning the historical background of social work, correctional social work, history of imprisonment and correctional services was limited. Though a number of older sources were referred to in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 the information was available and could be presented.

6.9. SUMMARY

As the focus of the Department of Correctional Services is on rehabilitation of offenders, to be enabled through the implementation of unit management, the researcher identified the need to determine how rehabilitation and unit management could be optimised within the Bethal Management Area. A quantitative and qualitative research study was done within the framework of mixed methods, in order to determine views and perspectives of sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area concerning their rehabilitation and the impact of unit management on their rehabilitation. Correctional and professional correctional officials were involved in a qualitative research study in order to determine their views on which skills and tools they need in order to facilitate rehabilitation of offenders.

The quantitative approach outlined the research design which took the form of a survey that was conducted through questionnaires that were completed by sentenced offenders. This quantitative data was presented visually through graphs, tables and diagrams. The qualitative approach saw the research design in the form of a case study, where individual interviewing was the method of data gathering from correctional and professional correctional officials. The qualitative data was presented in narrative style, confirmed by quotes from various participants.

The study as a whole was guided by ethical principles that included written informed consent, confidentiality, voluntary participation and anonymity. Certain limitations were experienced during the study that had a minor impact on the value of the data.

The next chapter, Chapter 7 present the research findings of the quantitative study that was done with sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area.

CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH FINDINGS FOR SENTENCED OFFENDERS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

In this study the research process included various steps of data collection and analyses within the Department of Correctional Services in an attempt to understand the rehabilitation of offenders and its link with unit management. The goal of this research was to investigate how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised to address the needs of offenders and to provide guidelines for correctional and professional correctional officials in the DCS, Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective. Correctional centres that were involved in this research included Bethal, Volksrust, Standerton and Piet Retief. Participants from both domains in Correctional Services, namely offenders and correctional officials, were involved in this research study.

The empirical findings presented from this study was done through mixed methods, where a quantitative study was done with sentenced offenders and a qualitative study with correctional and professional correctional officials. This chapter focuses on the research findings in respect of sentenced offenders. The findings from the various participating centres will be consolidated and submitted as a representation of the Bethal Area as a whole in instances where the findings are similar from centre to centre. In the case where findings differ from centre to centre, the data will be integrated where applicable.

The presentation of empirical findings for the qualitative study with officials will follow in Chapter 8, where biographic particulars will be presented, illustrated by graphs and tables, and the themes identified presented in narrative style. Literature integration is done in Chapter 9 where key the findings and conclusions from both the quantitative and qualitative studies, will be discussed.

7.2   RESEARCH PROCESS

In the primary quantitative study, data was gathered from 447 sentenced offenders within the Bethal Management Area by means of a group administered questionnaire. The secondary quantitative study involved 97 sentenced offenders, utilising a similar data-gathering method within the same area. Sentenced offenders were selected from each participating centre in the

Bethal Management Area, namely the centres at Bethal, Standerton, Piet Retief, and Volksrust, using stratified random sampling, where crime categories served as the various strata. Respondents involved in the primary and secondary research studies amounted respectively to 192 and 20 in the Bethal Centre, 162 and 27 in the Standerton Centre, 49 and 28 participants in the Piet Retief Centre, and 44 and 22 in the Volksrust Centre, amounting to a number of 544 respondents in total.

7.3   RESEARCH FINDINGS: SENTENCED OFFENDERS

In the first sub-section of this heading the biographic particulars of the respondents, which includes age, marital status, number of biological children, home language, and highest qualification are presented in the form of bar graphs and tables. The second sub-section focuses on the sentence particulars of the respondents that indicate the nature of the offence, sentence period with time already served and number of previous convictions, which are presented through a figure, line diagram and bar graph. Rehabilitation is addressed in the third sub-section of this chapter where respondents indicated their understanding of rehabilitation, level of change, programme participation, support systems, rehabilitation needs and stumbling blocks. This data is presented in various figures, graphs, bar graphs, tables and pyramid diagrams. The fourth and final sub-section of this chapter is about the respondents' views concerning unit management with the data presented in a pie diagram, line diagram and a table. A discussion follows each graphic presentation.

7.3.1   Biographic particulars

The biographic information assisted the researcher to contextualise the participants' responses to the prison environment. The age, marital status, number of biological children, home language, and highest qualifications of participants will be presented in the form of bar graphs and a table.

7.3.1.1   Age of respondents

Literature (cf. Brown, et al., 2013:129; Hagan, 2010:28; Siegel, 2011:48; and The Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2004:2) indicates that there is a relation between crime and the age of an offender and that crime is committed mostly by younger people. Furthermore, regardless of marital status, economic status, sex or race, younger people commit more crime than older people, and this relationship has been stable across time (Siegel, 2011:48). This finding has been confirmed in this study. The age range of respondents in the Bethal Management Area is depicted in Bar Graph 7.1 below:
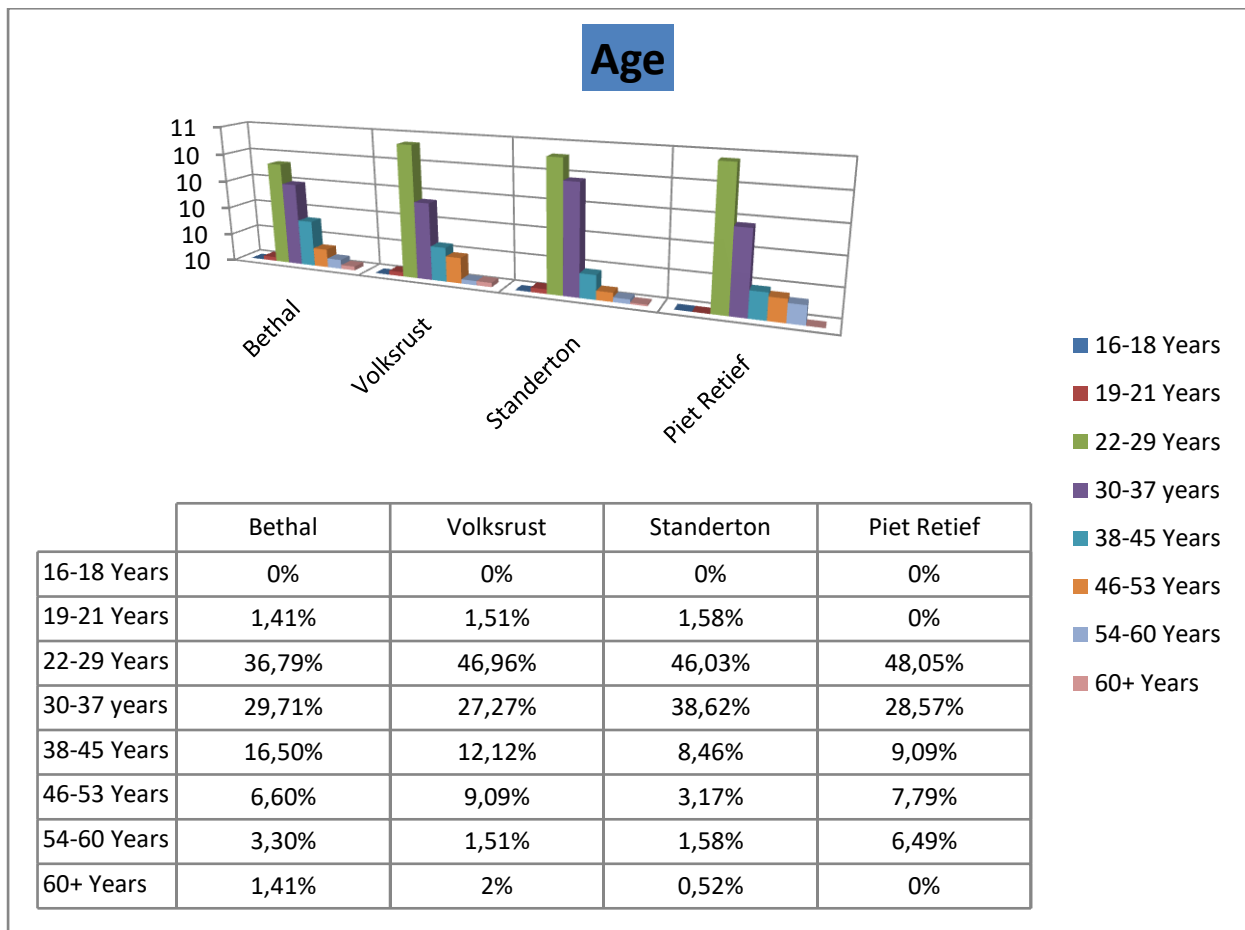
Bar graph 7.1: Age of sentenced offenders in the Bethal, Volksrust, Standerton, and Piet Retief Centres

	Bethal	Volksrust	Standerton	Piet Retief
16-18 Years	0%	0%	0%	0%
19-21 Years	1,41%	1,51%	1,58%	0%
22-29 Years	36,79%	46,96%	46,03%	48,05%
30-37 years	29,71%	27,27%	38,62%	28,57%
38-45 Years	16,50%	12,12%	8,46%	9,09%
46-53 Years	6,60%	9,09%	3,17%	7,79%
54-60 Years	3,30%	1,51%	1,58%	6,49%
60+ Years	1,41%	2%	0,52%	0%

The research findings show that the highest age group of participants (n=233) 42.83% in the study was between the ages of 22 to 29 years: (Bethal, (n=78) 36.79%; Volksrust, (n=31) 46.96%; Standerton, (n=87) 46.03%; Piet Retief, (n=37) 48.05%), followed by the age group 30 to 37 (n=176) 32.35%: (Bethal, (n=63) 29.71%; Volksrust, (n=18) 27.27%; Standerton, (n=73) 38.62%; Piet Retief, (n=22) 28.57%). Hagan (2010:28) and Hunter and Dantzker (2012:5) affirm that crime is mostly committed by young people possibly because of the immaturity in this age group that prevents them from accepting the responsibility of being part of a society that requires certain rules to be followed. It is confirmed in the Annual Report of the Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services (2011:12) that 25% of the inmate population in South Africa is between the ages of 21 to 25 years and that 8% of the offenders are between the ages of 18 to 21 years. This implies that a third of the inmate population in South Africa is younger than 25 years of age. This tendency is also the case in the United States of America, where the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2004:2) indicates that the majority of offenders in the United States of America are between the ages of 25 to 34 years, with the second highest age of offenders being between 18 to 24 years. The findings of this study reveal that there were only a small number of juveniles and

elderly male offenders incarcerated in the Bethal Management Area. The latter is in accordance with Hagan's (2010:28) findings that crime committed by offenders in the age group of 46 years and above has radically decreased.

7.3.1.2 *Marital status*
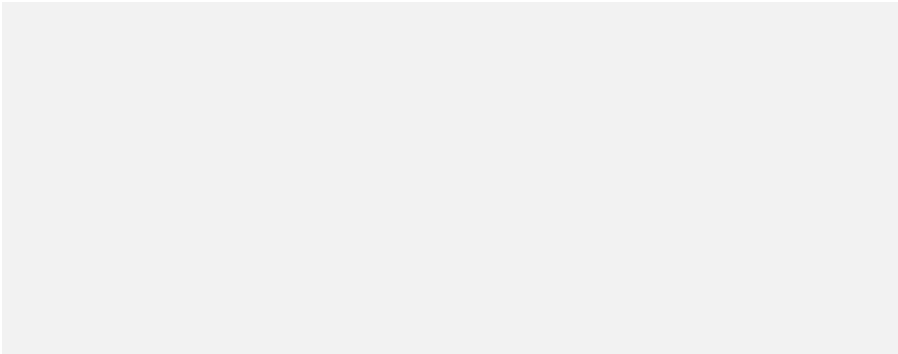
Bar graph 7.2: Marital status of sentenced offenders in the Bethal, Volksrust, Standerton, and Piet Retief Centres

The majority of the respondents (n=302) 55.51% who participated in this study were single; however, a large group of offenders (n=209) 38.41% were in a relationship with a partner, either in a living-together arrangement or in a marriage, be it customary of lawfully. Smaller groups of respondents (n=16) 2.94% were separated, (n=8) 1.47% divorced, (n=3) 0.55% estranged and (n=4) 0.73% were widowers. Research findings show that most of the participants were never married, which is a phenomenon that can possibly be connected to the age category of sentenced offenders. It was mentioned in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1.1 that most of the offender population in the Bethal Management Area was between 22 to 29 years of age. This possibly explains their single marital status. Offenders are still young when they are arrested and thus mostly not yet in the marriage phase of their lives.

It is revealed in the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2004:1) that 59.3% of sentenced offenders in the United States of America were never married compared to 15.8% who were married; 16.3% were divorced; 7.5% separated and 1.1% widowed. Bruyns (2007:164) indicates in his research findings from a study of sentenced offenders of Swaziland that most of the respondents were single (80%), a small group of 16% of the respondents were married or living together with a partner, 2% of the respondents were divorced and another 2% were widowed. This study's findings confirm the research findings of previous studies that sentenced offenders are generally single.

7.3.1.3 *Number of biological children*

Most of the respondents in the Bethal Management Area are parents to at least one child. These findings are reflected in Table 7.1 below:

Table 7.1:   Number of biological children

CORRECTIONAL UNITS/CENTRES	NUMBER OF BIOLOGICAL CHILDREN					
	NONE	1 CHILD	2-3 CHILDREN	4-6 CHILDREN	7-10 CHILDREN	10+ CHILDREN
BETHAL	n=64 (30.18%)	n=60 (28.30%)	n=58 (27.35%)	n=22 (10.37%)	n=7 (3.30%)	n=1 (0.47%)
VOLKSRUST	n=13 (19.69%)	n=21 (31.81%)	n=21 (31.81%)	n=8 (12.12%)	n=1 (1.51%)	n=2 (3.03%)
STANDERTON	n=35 (18.51%)	n=80 (42.32%)	n=57 (30.15%)	n=14 (7.40%)	n=3 (1.58%)	n=0
PIET RETIEF	n=13 (16.88%)	n=18 (23.37%)	n=28 (36.36%)	n=10 (12.98%)	n=7 (9.09%)	n=1 (1.29%)
TOTAL = 544	n=125	n=179	n=164	n=54	n=18	n=4

The findings indicate that from the 544 respondents who participated, 22.97% (n=125) had no children, whereas 32.90% (n=179) indicated that they have one child and another 30.14% (n=164) reported that they have two to three children, while 9.92% (n=54) have four to six children and 3.30% (n=18) are fathers of between seven to ten children. A smaller group of 0.73% (n=4) indicated that they have more than ten children. It can be concluded that the majority of respondents (n=419), 77.02% were father to at least one child, despite their single marital status. The occurrence of offenders having children correlates with findings from other studies. In a study on an inmate population in Swaziland, Bruyns (2007:166) found that the majority of the respondents had between one to two children whilst some had between three to four children. The respondents who indicated that they do not have any children were in the minority.

Offenders have a responsibility waiting for them after release – they have to care for and support their children. This knowledge can place an extra burden on an offender, who is not only concerned about his personal re-integration after release, but also the issue of "how am I going to support my child?" Release from a correctional facility can therefore be an anxious time for an offender.

7.3.1.4 *Home language*
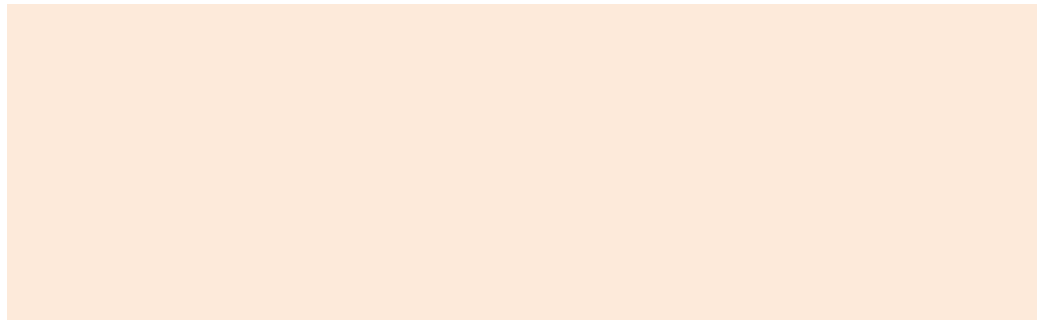
Bar graph 7.3: Home language spoken by participants in the different centres in the Bethal Management Area

According to De Klerk and Barkhuizen (2002:3) the dominant languages in Mpumalanga are, in order of majority, as follows: Siswati, isiZulu, Ndebele, Pedi and Afrikaans. Languages least spoken in Mpumalanga are, in order of minority, Tsonga, Sotho, Tswana, English, Xhosa and Venda. The findings of this study correlates with this finding, as the majority of the respondents in the Bethal Management Area, which is situated in the Mpumalanga province, indicated that their home language was isiZulu, with (n=279) 51.28%. Contrary to De Klerk and Barkhuizen (2002:3) English (n=64) 11.76%, was reported as the second highest home language spoken by respondents, followed by Northern Sotho (n=45) 8.27% and Siswati (n=22) 4.04%. Afrikaans and Venda were found to be languages spoken by the smallest number of the respondents, with (n=19) 3.49% speaking Afrikaans and (n=3) 0.55% speaking Venda. The respective languages spoken by the respondents are captured in bar graph 7.3 above.

7.3.1.5 *Highest qualifications*

Bar graph 7.4: Highest qualification of sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area

As mentioned by Hagan (2010:399) education is linked to crime; it became evident in the Bethal Management Area (sum of respective centres) that most respondents (n=420) 77.20% in this study have an education level which is lower than grade 12. This can be viewed as one of the causal factors of crime and it furthermore emphasises the need for offender involvement in educational programmes in correctional centers. There was, however, a group of (n=100) 18.38% respondents who passed grade 12, and (n=17) 3.12% reported that they had tertiary education.

It is evident from literature, such as Hagan (2010:49), that education and crime affect each other. According to Hunter and Dantzker (2012:6) those people with higher education levels have

better opportunities for social and economic advancement, therefore not needing to engage in crime as much as people with lover educational levels. It is explained by Hagan (2010:49) in the following manner: "It is not formal education per se that causes or prevents crime; rather, educational status reflects one's social class, location of residence, and exposure to criminal or delinquent opportunity." A person with a lower education level would therefore have limited job-related and other opportunities in life, which may result in an increased possibility of committing crime. Hagan (2010:399) furthermore stated that there is an invert relationship between formal education and crime.

7.3.2 Sentence particulars

Sentence particulars include the nature of the offence committed by an offender, the sentence period that an offender is serving for the crime committed, the time of his sentence that the offender has already served, as well as the number of previous convictions that the offender has on his criminal record. Each of these sentence particulars will be presented in order to create an understanding of the criminal background of the respondents who participated in this research study by means of either a figure, line diagram, or a bar graph.

7.3.2.1 *Nature of offence*

The nature of offence as it is utilised in this study refers to the crime category of the offence committed by the offender. According to Schaefer (2000:167), crime is "a violation of criminal law for which some governmental authority applies formal penalties…laws divide crimes into various categories, depending on the severity of the offence, the age of the offender, the potential punishment that can be levied, and the court that holds jurisdiction over the case." The crime categories are divided mainly into aggressive, sexual, economical and other (Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services, 2011:12). Crimes that resort under the aggressive category include, amongst others: murder, attempted murder, robbery, attempted robbery, possession of an unlicensed fire-arm and ammunition, assault, attempted assault, hi-jacking, kidnapping, arson, and culpable homicide. Crimes classified under the sexual category include, amongst others: rape, attempted rape, indecent assault, attempted indecent assault, sodomy, sexual harassment and incest, whereas the economical category crimes include, amongst others: housebreaking, theft, motor vehicle theft, fraud and forgery, as well as stock theft. For the purpose of this study the 'other' category includes offences such as crimen injuria, driving under the influence of liquor, and drug-related offences.

Correctional centres involved in this study, such as the Bethal Correctional Centre and Standerton Correctional Centre, house offenders with medium to maximum sentences which results in these centres accommodating more aggressive and sexual crime category offenders, as compared to the Volksrust and Piet Retief Centres where mostly short term offenders are serving prison sentences. This would lead to Bethal and Standerton Correctional Centres to have a higher number of aggressive offenders in custody.

The majority of the respondents in the Bethal Management Area, 40.44% (n=220), committed offences of an aggressive nature, while 39.88% (n=217) of the respondents indicated that they have committed offences of an economical nature and a smaller group of respondents' offences are of a sexual nature – 15.25% (n=83), with 5.69% (n=31) guilty of other offences. The nature of offences committed can be viewed in Figure7.1.
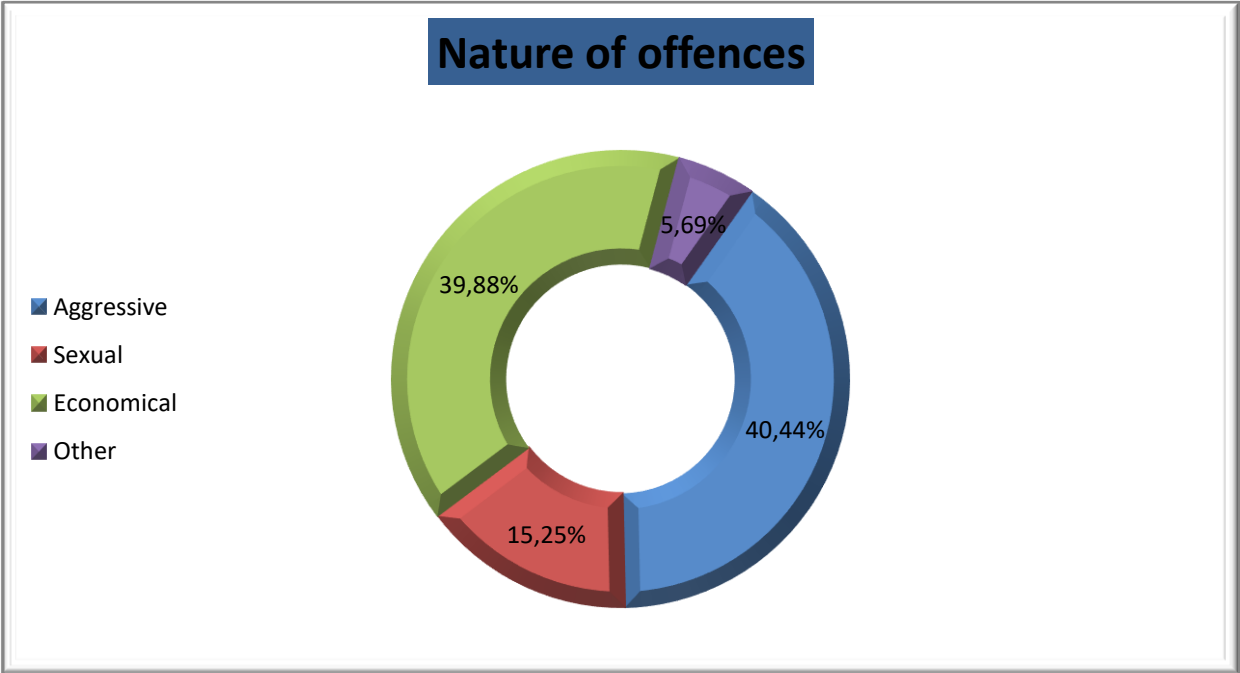
Figure7.1: Nature of offences committed by participants in the Bethal Management Area

The majority of respondents n=41 (62.12%) at Volksrust Correctional Centre indicated that they were serving prison sentences for committing economical offences. A large group of the respondents, that is n=17 (25.75%) committed aggressive offences, with a small group of n=6 (9.09%) individuals who committed sexual offences. Four n=4 (6.06%) respondents committed offences in the category of other crimes, as summarised in Figure 7.1 above.

At Standerton Correctional Centre, the highest number of participants, that is n=79 (41.79%), served imprisonment sentences for committing aggressive offences. Another high number of respondents, n=71 (37.56%) served imprisonment sentences for committing economical offences. A small group of n=26 (13.75%) participants served prison sentences for committing

sexual offences and n=13 (6.87%) individuals indicated that their cases resorted under the 'other' category.

At Piet Retief Centre the respondents indicated that most of them, which is n=37 (48.05%), committed offences which are of an economical nature, while a large group of n=25 (32.46%) committed aggressive offences and n=10 (12.98%) participants committed sexual offences. There were n=5 (6.49%) respondents who indicated that their cases can be classified under 'other'.

In this study it became evident that aggressive crimes are the highest (n=220, 40.44%) on the list, with economic crimes also high (n=217, 39.88%) in occurrence, but slightly less than aggressive offences. It is confirmed in the Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services (2011:12) that aggressive offences are the highest on the list of crime categories in South Africa, followed by economic crimes and, thirdly, sexual offences. The DCS Annual Report (2012:23) confirms that in 2012, 61 174 aggressive cases were recorded, 25 417 economical cases and 18 040 sexual offence cases.

In summary, Hagan (2010:24) compared the different crime categories as they occurred in the United States of America and found that the crime category with the highest rate of occurrence is property crime, followed by theft and then housebreaking. Violent crimes are fourth on the list, followed by motor vehicle theft. This implies economic crimes have the highest incidence in the United States of America, whereas in South Africa violent crimes are first on the list.

7.3.2.2 *Sentence period*

The sentence period, as it is used in this study, entails the number of months or years to be served within a correctional centre, to which an offender was sentenced by the court. It was found that most of the respondents who were involved in this research study was sentenced to serve an imprisonment sentence of either between two to five years (n=193, 35.47%) or six to ten years (n=192, 35.29%).

Out of the 544 sentenced offenders who participated in the primary and secondary quantitative research studies in the Bethal Management Area, 4.04% (n=22) was sentenced to serve a prison sentence between 0-12 months, while 6.06% (n=33) serve between 12 to 24 months imprisonment. A large group of 35.47% (n=193) serve between 2 to 5 years, and 35.29% (n=192) between 6 to 10 years imprisonment. A total of (n=74) 13.60% of the respondents serve

between 11 to 15 years and (n=19)3.49% were sentenced to serve 16 to 20 years imprisonment. Two small groups of respondents (n=4), 0.73%) were sentenced to 21 to 25 years and 25 years plus respectively. The sentence period per centre is outlined in Line diagram 7.1.

Sentence period/Time served

	0-12 Months	12-24 Months	2-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16-20 Years	21-25 Years	25+ Years
Sentence period Bethal	4,71%	7,54%	30,18%	25,94%	22,64%	6,13%	0,94%	0,47%
Sentence Period Volksrust	6,06%	4,54%	48,48%	33,33%	6,06%	1,51%	0%	0%
Sentence Period Standerton	3,70%	4,76%	36,50%	40,74%	10,05%	1,58%	1,05%	1,58%
Sentence Period Piet Retief	1,29%	6,49%	36,36%	49,35%	3,89%	1,29%	0%	0%
Time served Bethal	40,09%	16,03%	25,00%	15,56%	1,88%	0%	0%	0%
Time served Volksrust	33,33%	19,69%	30,30%	9,09%	3,03%	0%	0%	0%
Time served Standerton	50,79%	13,22%	23,80%	9,52%	2,11%	0,52%	0%	0%
Time served Piet Retief	42,58%	19,48%	35,06%	2,59%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Line diagram 7.1: Sentence period and time already served by sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area

7.3.2.3 *Time already served*

Out of the 544 sentenced offenders who participated in the research study in the Bethal Management Area, 44.66% (n=243) have already served between 0-12 months of their prison sentences, while 16.72% (n=91) have served between 12 to 24 months imprisonment. A large group of 25.91% (n=141) have already served between 2 to 5 years of their sentences and 10.29% (n=56) have served between 6 to 10 years imprisonment. A total of (n=9)1.65% of respondents have already completed between 11 to 15 years and (n=1) 0.18% has served 16 to 20 years of the imprisonment sentence.

7.3.2.4 *Number of previous convictions*

Bar graph 7.5: Number of previous convictions of participants in the Bethal Area

In Bar graph 7.5 above, the number of previous convictions reported by respondents are presented per centre in the Bethal Management Area. When the data for the Bethal Management Area as a whole is considered, it was found that though (n=280) 51.47% of respondents were first offenders who had no previous convictions, (n=253) 46.50% of the respondents, however, reported from a minimum of one, to more than eight previous convictions.

The number of previous convictions is connected to recidivism since it gives an indication of how many times an offender has passed through the justice system, as well as the success of the rehabilitation that he was subjected to. It is stated in the White Paper on Corrections (RSA, Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:103) that "… rehabilitation of offenders is completed only with the successful reintegration of offenders into the community in a manner that prevents recidivism. While circumstances that lead to the individual turning to crime in the first place are unchanged, the tendency towards recidivism will remain high, despite correction and human developmental efforts by DCS." This emphasises the need of DCS to work hand in hand with community structures in order to assist with the reintegration of offenders back into society.

In summary it can be stated that even though there is a high number (n=280) 51.47% of first offenders in the correctional system within the Bethal Management Area, there is actually also a high number (n=253) 46.50% of previously convicted offenders who have been in conflict with the law before and have already passed through the criminal justice system. This tendency, however, raises questions about the rehabilitation value of imprisonment at present in the DCS. Respondents who reported previous convictions indicated that they were familiar with the correctional centre environment and were therefore able to provide informed responses when participating in the research. Louw (2013:152) confirms that the majority of offenders have at least one previous conviction. Marsh (2011:212) reports that 65% of Britain's offender population has at least five previous convictions. A large number of the offender population re-offend after they have spent time in a correctional facility before, which in turn give rise to questions about the rehabilitative value of imprisonment.

7.3.3 Findings on Rehabilitation

This study focused firstly on the offender's understanding of rehabilitation in DCS, his view on his personal change as well as the level at which the change took place. This assisted the researcher to form a baseline of the offender's own perception concerning his rehabilitation. Secondly, the emphasis was on rehabilitation through programme involvement and support systems, as well as the contribution thereof to the offender's rehabilitation. This information guided the researcher to identify where additional or specific programmes were needed as well as establishing the value of programme involvement and support systems to offenders. Thirdly, the focus was on the rehabilitation needs of offenders, the envisaged life after rehabilitation as well as possible stumbling blocks that may hinder successful rehabilitation. By gathering this information the researcher was able to identify gaps in the rehabilitation needs that require attention from the DCS, such as the ignorance amongst sentenced offenders concerning their rehabilitation and what it entails, as well as the non-availability of sufficient rehabilitation programmes.

7.3.3.1 *The concept of rehabilitation according to sentenced offenders' understanding*

According to Ward and Maruna (2008:15) it is unlikely that offenders would utilise the term rehabilitation when describing themselves, they would rather refer to terms such as going straight, changing their lives, and desisting from crime, recovery, self-change or redemption. As Ward and Maruna (2008:15) state: "…almost none will tell you that they need to be 'rehabilitated' and they tend to be highly suspicious of structured rehabilitation programmes…" Offenders in this research study had a vast variety and descriptive explanations of their own

rehabilitation that centered around some form of change and improvement of the self in order to have a better future. The emphasis on 'changing behaviour', instead of rehabilitation, as stated by Raynor and Robinson (2005:5) as well as Ward and Maruna (2008:15), confirming the finding that most of the respondents (n=201) 36.94% from the Bethal Management Area understood their own rehabilitation as a process of change.

Another group of participants (n=123) 22.61%in the Bethal Area indicated that their understanding of rehabilitation entails the correcting of previous criminal behaviour. This is in line with Raynor and Robinson (2005:3) who are of the opinion that "there is a clear sense that rehabilitation involves getting back to normal and that it may thus be applied to any person who has strayed from a 'norm' of some kind." It can be concluded from the above-mentioned findings that a large number of the respondents defined rehabilitation in a positive manner with terms such as enhancing personal development (n=97) 17.83%, correcting criminal behaviour (n=123) 22.61%, process of change (n=201) 36.94%, improving personal traits (n=27) 4.96%, and re-integration (n=6) 1.10%. There is, however, a group of respondents in the Bethal Management Area who can be divided into those (n=10) 1.83% who understood and described rehabilitation broadly and vaguely, and (n=99) 18.19% who indicated that they were uncertain about what rehabilitation entails. Respondents' perception of rehabilitation is outlined in Bar graph 7.6 below.

Rehabilitation perception

	Personal develop-ment	Criminal behaviour	Change	Personal traits	Reintegra-tion	Uncertain	Poor rehabilita-tion
Bethal	52,00	34,00	80,00	7,00	1,00	45,00	2,00
Volksrust	7,00	20,00	20,00	6,00	1,00	10,00	0,00
Standerton	33,00	54,00	77,00	11,00	0,00	24,00	2,00
Piet Retief	5,00	15,00	24,00	3,00	4,00	20,00	6,00
Total	97	123	201	27	6	99	10
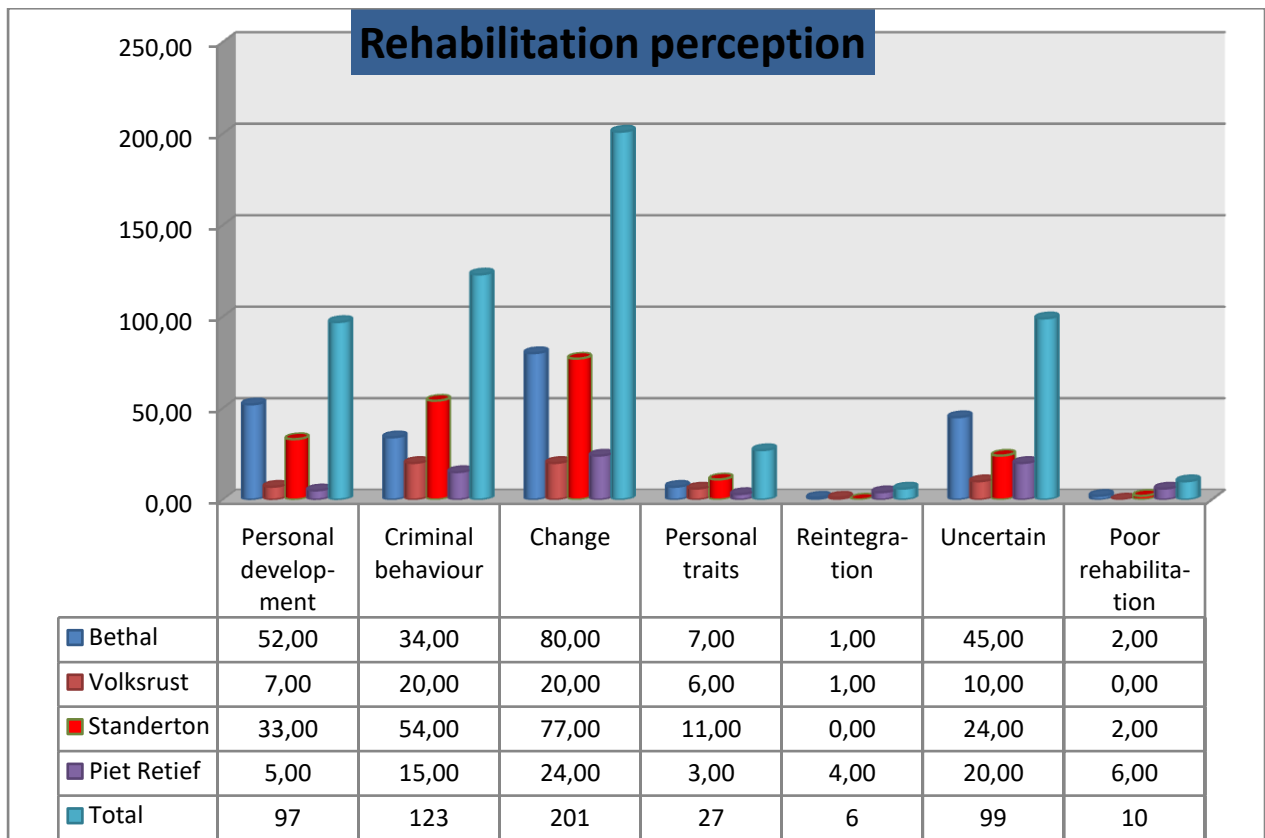
Bar graph 7.6 Sentenced offenders' perception of rehabilitation

7.3.3.2 *The occurrence and level of personal change*

Ward and Maruna (2008:18) indicate that "individuals can be forced to sit and listen, they can even be forced to participate in some talk therapy, but they cannot be forced to change". It is clear as depicted in Figure 7.2 below that most of the offenders, 92.46% (n=503) in the Bethal Management Area, indicated that they have already changed and a small group, 5.88% (n=32) stated that they have not changed.

Changed

5,88%

92,46%

■ Yes ■ No
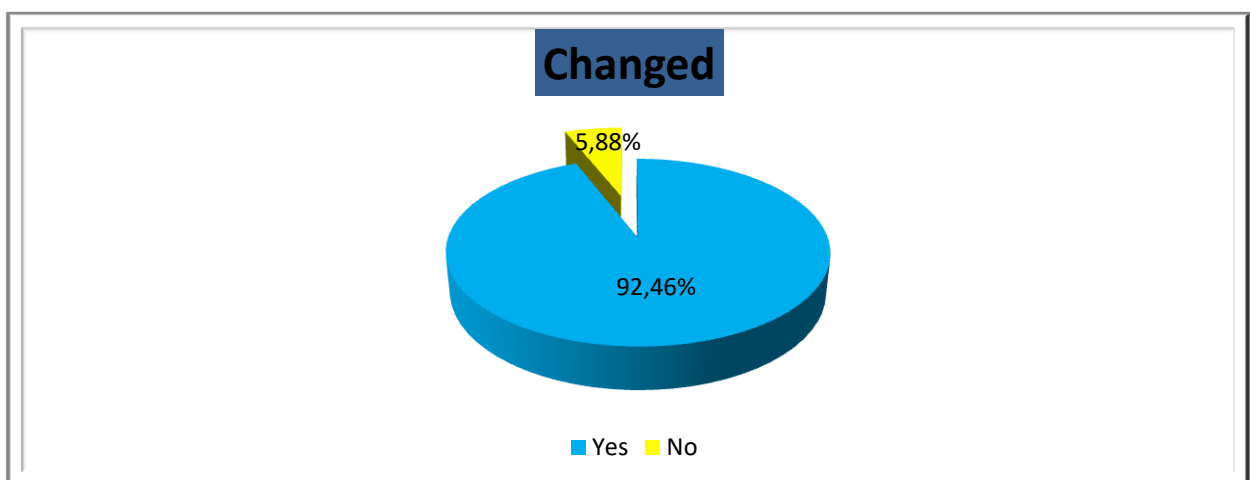
Figure 7.2: Number of sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area who changed since serving their sentences

The level of change that featured the most amongst the respondents in the Bethal Management Area who indicated that they have changed were (n=294) 54.04%, with respondents indicating that they have future plans in terms of good relationships with their families, businesses and studies. Secondly, 26.83% (n=146), experienced personal change in their own functioning as an individual. Another large grouping of respondents, 23.34% (n=127) in the Bethal Management Area stated that they have changed their criminal behaviour. Responses from remaining respondents, 6.06% (n=33), concerning their level of change revealed that they have developed in terms of skills and by attending programmes. There was, however, a group of (n=7) 1.28% of the respondents whose responses were irrelevant to the question. The level of change that respondents experienced is visible in Figure 7.3 below.

	Bethal	Volksrust	Standerton	Piet Retief		Bethal Area
■ Irrelevant answer	0,47	4,54	1,58	0		1,28
■ Developmental change	5,66	6,06	5,82	7,79		6,06
■ Criminal behaviour	23,11	21,21	25,39	20,77		23,34
■ Personal change	21,69	33,33	29,1	18,18		26,83
■ Future plans	57,07	33,33	59,25	49,35		54,04
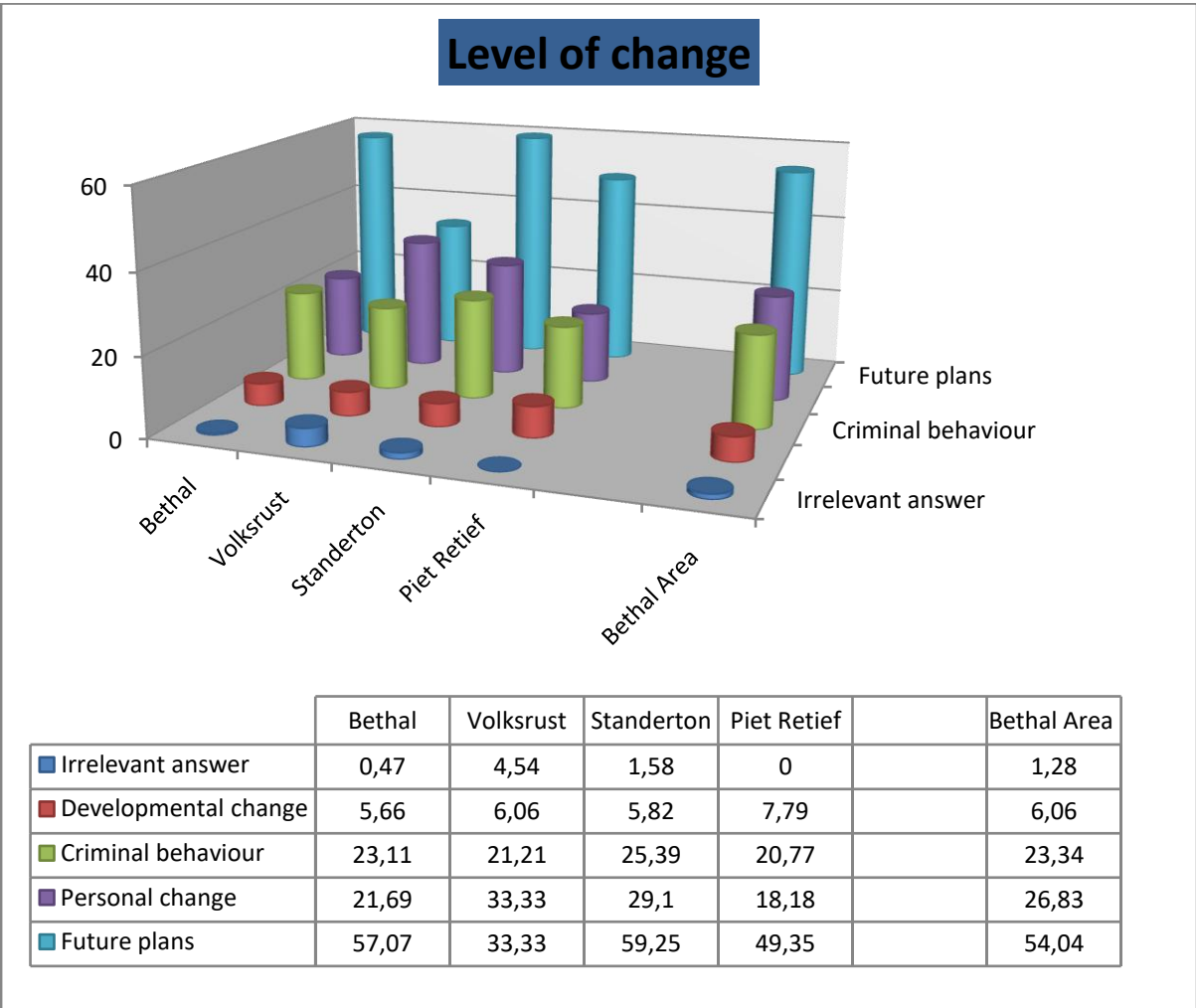
Figure 7.3 Level of change regarding sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area

7.3.3.3 *Rehabilitation through programme involvement*

A number of development programmes are presented in a correctional facility, all contributing to the rehabilitation of an offender. One of the key objectives of the Department of Correctional

Services is to provide corrective and development opportunities to offenders. According to The White Paper of Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2011:80) the DCS put these measures in place by "providing programmes for offenders in order to address, inter alia, the offender behaviour itself and to promote social responsibility and ethical and moral values, alternative lifestyle choices, development needs and the future employability of the offender." The shortage or lack of programmes would therefore directly affect the offender's rehabilitation and re-integration into the community. Development programmes that were focused on in this research study included Spiritual Care, Social Work, Formal Education, Vocational Training, Psychologist Services, Labour, Recreation and other Counselling as is presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2   Programme attendance, nature of programme attended and contribution to rehabilitation of sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area

Programme	Attended Yes	Attended No	Nature of Programme	%	Contribution to rehabilitation	%
Spiritual care	(n=399) 73.34%	(n=141) 25.91%	Church services: Church choir: Bible studies: Personal growth (Baptism, Reading scriptures): Prayer meetings: Courses: Restorative Justice:	36.39 4.96 16.17 8.27 6.80 3.49 1.28	Personal gain: Behavioural change: Reintegration: Spiritual growth:	23.71 13.41 0.55 27.75
Social Work	(n=285) 52.38%	(n=258) 47.42%	Individual intervention: Group work:	4.04 46.13	Values and norms: Criminal behavioural change: Personal improvement: Uncertain:	1.28 10.29 24.44 7.16

Programme	Attended Yes	Attended No	Nature of Programme	%	Contribution to rehabilitation	%
Formal education	(n=164) 30.14%	(n=376) 69.11%	AET Level 1: AET Level 2: AET Level 3: AET Level 4: Grade 12: Tertiary:	2.94 3.12 4.04 6.43 5.69 0.18	Literacy: Knowledge gained: Life direction:	3.67 11.94 5.14
Vocational training	(n=138) 25.36%	(n=406) 74.63%	Agriculture: Plumbing: Brickmaking/ Bricklaying: Electrical: Hairdressing: Computer literacy: Carpentry: Shoemaking: Business skills: Arts: Sewing: House wiring: Welding: Catering: Paving: Firefighting:	1.28 1.28 2.57 0.91 0.18 2.75 1.28 0.18 0.91 0.73 2.57 2.38 2.57 0.55 4.22 0.73	Employment: Trained in skills: Self-employment skills:	7.16 9.19 0.73
Psychologist services	(n=38) 6.98%	(n=500) 91.91%	Individual sessions: Programmes:	1.28 0.55	Self-development: Stress relief:	0.55 1.10

Programme	Attended Yes	Attended No	Nature of Programme	%	Contribution to rehabilitation	%
Labour	(n=292) 53.67%	(n=249) 45.77%	Agriculture:	6.06	Occupied time:	6.80
			Garden:	4.22	Self-	
			Maintenance:	5.33	improvement:	4.41
			Nutrition:	4.59	Personal	
			Cleaners:	17.64	satisfaction:	9.19
			Handcrafts:	0.73	Gratuity payment:	3.86
			Parks:	3.30	Employment:	18.75
			Kiosk:	0.73		
			Mess:	1.65		
			Facilitators:	1.10		
			Sewing:	0.73		
			Tutor:	0.91		
			Car wash:	0.36		
			Laundry:	0.73		
Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture - SRAC	(n=421) 77.38%	(n=121) 22.24%	Choir:	6.43	Occupied time:	4.41
			Sport:	51.10	Personal	
			Indoor games:	13.23	enjoyment –	
			Library/Reading:	9.19	relaxation:	22.24
			Arts/crafts:	0.73	Physically active	
			Music:	5.88	and fit:	18.93
			Dance:	1.28	Behavioural	
					change:	7.16
					Employment:	1.47
					Team work:	7.90
Other counselling	(n=146) 26.83%	(n=380) 69.85%	Correctional programmes:	6.25	Criminal behavioural change:	1.47
			Testing for HIV/TB:	5.33	Status awareness:	2.94
			Spiritual Care counselling /		Spiritual guidance:	2.20
			Restorative Justice:	3.12	Personal development:	6.61

It is reflected in Table 7.2 above that the majority of respondents in the Bethal Management Area (n=399) 73.34% indicated that they do attend **Spiritual Care programmes** in the form of firstly, church services (n=198) 36.39%, and secondly, correspondence Bible studies (n=88) 16.17%. Other less frequently mentioned spiritual care programmes that were indicated by participants included prayer meetings (n=37) 6.80%, participating in the church choir (n=27) 4.96%, attending courses such as Heartlines or Khupula (n=19) 3.49% and personal spiritual growth (n=45) 8.27%. According to Hunter and Dantzker (2012:3) people believe in something, whether it be a supreme being or a system of living, but all people practice some form of religion. This corresponds with the high number of participants in the Bethal Management Area who are involved in Spiritual Care programmes.

The majority of participants indicated that their involvement in Spiritual Care programmes contributed to their rehabilitation because it assisted them with spiritual growth (n=151) 27.75% and personal gain (n=129) 23.71% respectively, in the form of praying, reading spiritual literature and attending group sessions, as well as participating in the choirs. Another large group of participants (n=73) 13.41% stated that Spiritual Care programmes helped them with positive behavioural change and maintaining positive behaviour. It was furthermore mentioned by respondents (n=3) 0.55% that Spiritual Care programmes also contributed to their social reintegration to a lesser extent.

Even though the majority of respondents in the Bethal Management Area indicated that they attended Spiritual Care programmes, 25,91% (n=141) revealed that they did not attend any form of Spiritual Care programmes, which could be an indication of the unsatisfactory rehabilitation level of such respondents.

Approximately half of the respondents, (n=285) 52.38%, in the Bethal Management Area indicated that they were involved in **Social Work Services,** with (n=258) 47.42% not involved. The nature of the involvement in Social Work Services was mostly in group work, (n=251) 46.13%, and less through individual consultations, with (n=22) 4.04%, as reported. The value of programmes is emphasised by Siegel (2011:406) as follows: "Programmes that teach interpersonal skills and use individual counseling and behavioural modification techniques have produced positive results both in the community and within the correctional institutions." Most of the respondents involved in social work programmes, (n=133) 24.44%, revealed that their involvement in Social Work Services contributed to their personal improvement, with (n=56) 10.29% experiencing criminal behaviour change and (n=7) 1.28% improving their values and

norms, whereas (n=39) 7.16% were uncertain about the possible effect of being involved in social work services.

Table 7.2 above reveals that **Formal Education** in the Bethal Management Area was attended by the minority of respondents, (n=164) 30.14%, which left (n=376) 69.11% of the respondents involved in this research study not participating in formal educational programmes. It is evident from research findings that those respondents who were involved in Formal Education were generally Grade 12 students (n=31) 5.69%, as well as ABET Level 1 (n=16) 2.94%, Level 2 (n=17) 3.12%, Level 3 (n=22) 4.04% to ABET Level 4 (n=35) 6.43% students. There was one respondent (n=1) 0.18% who indicated that he was a tertiary student. Those respondents who were involved in Formal Education indicated that it contributed to their rehabilitation because they gained knowledge (n=65) 11.94%, and studying provided direction to them (n=28) 5.14% in their lives; the minority (n=20) 3.67% indicated that they managed to learn how to read and write.

Vocational or skills training as seen in Table 7.2 above, implies that sentenced offenders undergo training that is related to job skills such as welding, electrical work, upholstery, carpentry, bricklaying, and computer literacy. The purpose of such training is to equip offenders with the necessary skills which should assist them in finding employment after release. Amongst those respondents who participated in vocational training (n=39) 7.16% indicated that it contributed to their rehabilitation because they obtained job skills and would be able to be employed after release. Some respondents (n=50) 9.19% stated that the vocational training provided additional knowledge to them in a specific skill that they were trained in, and others (n=4) 0.73% mentioned that they would be able to become self-employed after release. Vocational training is connected to social reintegration because employment can assist an offender with successful reintegration into the community after release. It appears from the research findings that the vast majority of respondents in the Bethal Management Area (n=406) 74.63% did not undergo any vocational or skills training. It was found that the minority of respondents (n=138) 25.36% were trained, and mostly in the skills of paving (n=23) 4.22%, bricklaying (n=14) 2.57%, sewing (n=14) 2.57%, computer literacy (n=15) 2.75%, house wiring (n=13) 2.38% and welding (n=14) 2.57%. Agriculture (n=7) 1.28%, plumbing (n=7) 1.28%, electrical appliances (n=5) 0.91%, business skills (n=5) 0.91% and carpentry (n=7) 1.28% are vocational skills that were presented to a small group of respondents. There were individual respondents in the Bethal Management Area who indicated that they were trained in arts (n=4)

0.73%, business skills (n=5) 0.91%, catering (n=3) 0.55%, hairdressing (n=1) 0.18%, firefighting (n=4) 0.73% and shoemaking (n=1) 0.18%.

One of the challenges or reasons given for not achieving targets in the DCS is stated in the DCS Annual Report (2007:59) as "Inability to recruit and retain health care professionals and psychologists …" **Psychological services** is mostly not easily accessible to offenders in the Bethal Management Area due to their unavailability, which is confirmed by the results in this research study, as reflected in Table 7.2 above. The majority of respondents in the Bethal Management Area, (n=500) 91.91%, indicated that they were not involved in psychological services. Individual participants, (n=38) 6.98%, mentioned that they attended counselling sessions with a psychologist, of which (n=6) 1.10% focused mostly on stress relief and (n=3) 0.55% on self-development.

About half of the respondents in the Bethal Management Area, that is 45.77% (n=249), indicated that they were not part of **Labour** during the day and have not been allocated to any work team, whereas 53.67% (n=292) of the respondents stated that they worked in a work team during the day. Most of the working respondents indicated that they worked as cleaners (n=96) 17.64%, as labourers at Agriculture (n=33) 6.06%, at Maintenance (n=29) 5.33%, as cooks at Nutrition (n=25) 4.59% and as labourers in the garden (n=23) 4.22%. Small groups of working respondents revealed that they worked either in the Parks team (n=18) 3.30%, or as cooks and cleaners in the Mess (n=9) 1.65%. Individual working respondents worked at the Kiosk (n=4) 0.73%, Handcrafts (n=4) 0.73%, Sewing (n=4) 0.73%, Tutoring (n=5) 0.91%, as Facilitators (n=6) 1.10%, at the Car wash (n=2) 0.36% or in the Laundry (n=4) 0.73%.

A group of offenders (n=102) 18.75% who worked in a team indicated that it contributed to their rehabilitation because of the increased possibility of employment after release due to the experience gained while working in the team. Another group of respondents (n=50) 9.19% stated that it made them feel good when they worked; therefore it also assisted in rehabilitation. The rest of the respondents (n=24) 4.41%, who worked revealed that the work assisted them in rehabilitation because they learnt to improve themselves it helped in keeping them busy (n=37) 6.80%, and they received a gratuity when working (n=21) 3.86%.

Table 7.2 above indicates that in the Bethal Management Area the majority of the respondents, 77.38% (n=421), revealed that they were involved in **Recreational Programmes**, mostly through participation (in the order of occurrence) in sport (n=278) 51.10%, playing indoor games

(such as Ludo and Chess) (n=72) 13.23%, reading or utilising Library services (n=50) 9.19%, singing in the choirs (n=35) 6.43%, playing musical instruments (n=32) 5.88%, dancing in various dance groups(n=7) 1.28% and doing arts and crafts (n=4) 0.73%.

Respondents (n=103) 18.93% indicated that their involvement in Recreational programmes contributed to their rehabilitation because sport encouraged them to be physically active, which increased health and fitness. Respondents (n=121) 22.24% furthermore indicated that it made them feel good and more positive about their situation by calming them down and helping them to relax. Another group of respondents (n=44) 8.088% stated that they learnt to work together in a team and it helped them to change, opened their minds and learn something about themselves (n=39) 7.16%. A small group of respondents, (n=24) 4.41%, revealed that recreational activities contributed to their rehabilitation because it kept them busy all the time, in other words drawing their attention away from the long prison sentence; the library helped them to learn from their mistakes, to envisage a new way of living. Others (n=8) 1.47% stated that the music they have practiced might assist them with employment and a financial income after release.

The minority of respondents from the Bethal Management Area, (n=146) 26.83%, revealed that they have been involved in **Other counselling**, which implies that the majority of them, which amounts to (n=380) 69.85%, have not received any other intervention, as reflected in Table 7.2 above. Involved participants explained that the counselling they received was mostly pre-testing HIV and TB counselling, for (n=29) 5.33% of the respondents; crime awareness, restorative justice counselling or Spiritual Care guidance, (n=17) 3.12%, with (n=34) 6.25% indicating that they attended additional correctional programmes. According to this group of respondents who received individual counselling, it contributed to their rehabilitation because they (n=16) 2.94% have gained HIV and TB awareness, (n=12) 2.20% were assisted through Spiritual guidance, (n=8) 1.47% experienced criminal behavioural change and (n=36) 6.61% were of the opinion that they had developed personally.

Ward and Maruna (2008:19) state that no development programme (intervention) can be effective if the offender is not committed to the programme and is not engaged with it. They explain it as follows:

> Any rehabilitation option offered to prisoners and probationers needs to make sense to clients themselves and be clearly relevant to the possibility of their living a better

life. Otherwise there is little chance that individuals will gain anything useful from correctional practitioners' well-intentioned efforts.

In summary, it is clear that most of the participants who are involved in Spiritual Care programmes participate through church services and Bible studies. Social work involvement is mostly through group work, and most of the students who participate in Formal Education are studying either ABET Level 1 to 4, or are Grade 12 students. The minor group of participants who received vocational training was mostly trained in bricklaying, sewing, house wiring and welding skills. Due to the lack of Psychological Services in the Bethal Management Area, only a few individuals attended sessions/consultations with a psychologist. About half of the participants indicated that they worked in a work team, with most of them being allocated to work as section cleaners, labourers in Agriculture and Maintenance, as cooks and cleaners at Nutrition, and as labourers in the garden. The development programme that was attended by most of the participants is Recreation; they are involved primarily through sport, playing indoor games (such as Ludo and Chess), reading or utilising Library services, singing in the choirs, playing musical instruments and doing arts and crafts. A minor group of participants was involved in Individual counselling or therapy, with the focus on pre-testing HIV counselling and pre-testing TB counselling.

7.3.3.4 *Support systems*

Support systems form an integral part of an offender's functioning in a correctional centre, because he needs support from his loved ones and the community during the time of his sentence as well as after his release. In this study, the focus was on various levels of support, such as support from primary relatives, which include parents and siblings; secondary relatives, namely spouses, partners and children, and extended family members such as uncles, aunts and cousins. Friends as well as other community members were also taken into consideration as levels of support as outlined in Pyramid graph 7.1 below.

Pyramid graph 7.1: **Support systems and nature of support received by sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area**

According to the research results, as reflected in the Pyramid graph 7.1 above, most of the respondents in the Bethal Management Area find support from their primary relatives (parents and siblings), firstly in the form of telephonic contact (77.02%, n=419), and secondly through personal visits (76.10%, n=414). There was, however, a group of respondents (22.98%, n=125) who did not have support from primary relatives, neither at an emotional or financial level. The nature of support received from primary relatives were mostly emotional (80.69%, n=439), and thereafter financial (60.84%, n=331).

A large group of the respondents from Bethal Management Area stated that they received support from secondary relatives (that includes spouses, partners and children), mostly in the form of telephonic contact (62.50%, n=340), followed by emotional understanding (59.37%, n=323), personal visits (57.35%, n=312), and financial support (50.91%, n=277), though not as much as from the primary relatives. There was, however, a group of respondents (40.63%, n=221) who did not have support from secondary relatives, neither emotionally or financially.

Extended family members are also a source of support for respondents, but to a lesser extent. Respondents indicated that they were supported by extended relatives mostly through emotional support (54.04%, n=294) and telephonic contact (56.25%, n=306). There was, however, some

participants who were financially supported by relatives (49.63%, n=270) and by means of personal visits (54.59%, n=297).

A large group of respondents from the Bethal Management Area, (54.05%, n=294) revealed that they were not supported by friends, though there was a group (43.01%, n=234) who indicated that they received emotional and financial (38.60%, n=210) support from their friends, whether it is male or female friends.

A small group of respondents stated that they received support from other community members e.g. church members, mostly through personal visits (38.97%, n=212), and telephonically (34%, n=185) as well as in the form of both emotional (36.76%, n=200) and financial (38.60%, n=210) assistance.

In summary it can be stated that family members function as support systems to most of the participants. It seems that it was mainly the primary relatives, such as parents and siblings, who supported the participants both emotionally and financially. Secondary relatives and extended family members also form part of the support system of participants in the Bethal Management Area. It is stated in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (RSA, Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:68) that "a sober analysis of the composition of South Africa's offender population, drives home the reality that the vast majority of our offenders come from communities and families plagued by poverty, hunger, unemployment, absent figures of authority and care, a distorted value system, and general hardship…" This creates the understanding that it is challenging for some families to support their relatives in correctional centres due to financial costs involved, such as transport and purchasing of items (e.g. toiletries) requested by the offender. It can result in families not visiting their relatives in correctional centres, which concurs with the research results of this study that indicated that there are a number of offenders who are not supported by their families. The importance of the role of the family is confirmed by Hagan (2010:400), who stated that "The nature and functioning of the family have a major influence on crime."

7.3.3.5 *Rehabilitation needs*

The greatest rehabilitation need that was revealed by respondents from the Bethal Management Area as a whole was the need for **vocational/ skills training** (32.53%, n=177). One of the key objectives of the DCS is to enhance the productive capacity of offenders by means of skills training. It is described in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for

Correctional Services, 2005:80) as follows: "Therefore, the Department has the responsibility, to ensure that offenders are appropriately skilled in market related skills. This will enable offenders to take their place in the economically active and gainfully employed sector of society upon their release." The shortage of skills training in the Bethal Area causes the DCS to not reach this objective fully and it was also identified through this study as the participants' greatest rehabilitation need. The shortage of skills training is confirmed in the DCS Annual Report (2012:25) where it is stated that: "The department did not achieve the target of 18.9% access to skills development…The main reason for the underperformance in skills development is the lack of funding for skills training…" The rehabilitation needs of respondents are outlined in Bar graph 7.7 below.
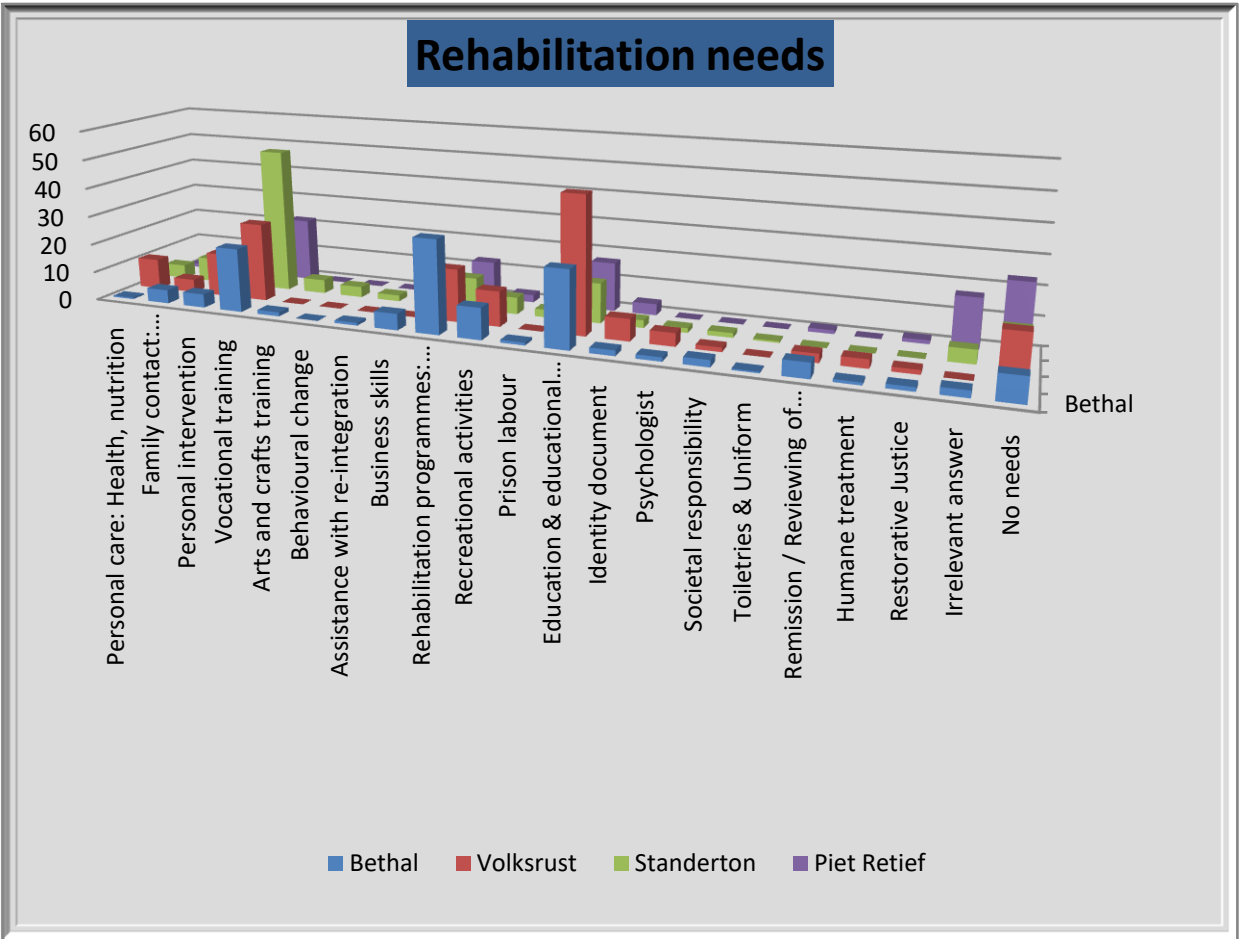
Bar graph 7.7: Rehabilitation needs of sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area that includes the Bethal, Volksrust Standerton and Piet Retief Centres

The need for vocational skills training was reflected in the various correctional centres as follows: Bethal (n=47) 22.16%, Volksrust (n=18) 27.27%, Standerton (n=95) 50.26% and Piet Retief (n=17) 22.07%. The next top four rehabilitation needs that participants from the Bethal Management Area had as a whole was, in order of importance, as follows: better education and educational resources (22.24%, n=121), rehabilitation programmes which include social work

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and spiritual care programmes (20.40%, n=111), personal intervention in the form of individual counselling (6.43%, n=35), and recreational activities (8.08%, n=44).

The rest of the rehabilitation needs that were given by small groups of the respondents are listed below, according to the level of occurrence:

- Family contact: Transfer nearer to family and telephonic contact (5.69%, n=31)
- Personal care – medical needs and nutrition (3.30%, n=18)
- ID Document (3.12%, n=17)
- Remission/reviewing of sentence (2.57%, n=14)
- Business skills (2.57%, n=14)
- Restorative justice (2.57%, n=14)
- Access to a Psychologist (1.65%, n=9)
- Societal responsibility (1.65%, n=9)
- Behavioural change (1.28%, n=7)
- Prison labour (to work in the correctional centre) (1.28%, n=7)
- Arts and crafts training (1.10%, n=6)
- Assistance with reintegration into the community, which includes employment after release (1.10%, n=6)
- Humane treatment (0.55%, n=3)
- Toiletries and uniform (0.36%, n=2)

The treatment of offenders by officials is emphasised by Latessa, Listwan and Koetzle (2014:97) in their statement: "The point is that most of us do not remember what we hear; in fact we retain only approximately 20% of what is told to us. On the other hand we can all think of the people we modeled after and who had a significant influence on our lives. Social learning is much more effective than talking cures." The manner in which the officials behave and treat offenders will therefore have a stronger impact on the offender than just talking.

There was, however, a group of respondents, (n=27) 4.96%, who gave irrelevant responses and stated that they had no rehabilitation needs (n=71) 13.05%.

7.3.3.6   Envisaged life of sentenced offenders after being fully rehabilitated

The envisaged life that most respondents envisaged for themselves (n=151) 27.75% after successful rehabilitation was reached, as is seen in bar graph 7.7 below, focused on being an exemplary community citizen. A large group of respondents in the Bethal Management Area view themselves as being employed (n=114) 20.95%,and another group (n=89) 16.36%has an idyllic view of their lives when they are fully rehabilitated, believing that everything is going to be all right and fine.

Some respondents, (n=68) 12.50%, disclosed that by being rehabilitated would mean that they would maintain correct behaviour. The remainder of the respondents was divided into a vast number of various responses concerning the life they envisaged for themselves after being rehabilitated. These responses are listed in the order of occurrence as follows: Positive family life (n=46) 8.45%, to be successful (n=43) 7.90%, to become an entrepreneur (n=20) 3.67%, and to maintain a positive spiritual life (n=11) 2.02%.

	Correct behaviour	Spiritual Life	Employ-ment	Exemplary community citizen	Family life	Idylic life	Successful life	Entrepre-neurship
Bethal	9,43	1,88	20,28	26,41	2,35	20,28	8,01	4,71
Volksrust	15,15	0	21,21	36,36	4,24	27,27	6,06	4,54
Standerton	12,16	2,64	26,98	30,15	10,05	13,22	10,58	2,11
Piet Retief	19,48	2,59	7,79	18,18	11,68	3,89	2,59	3,89
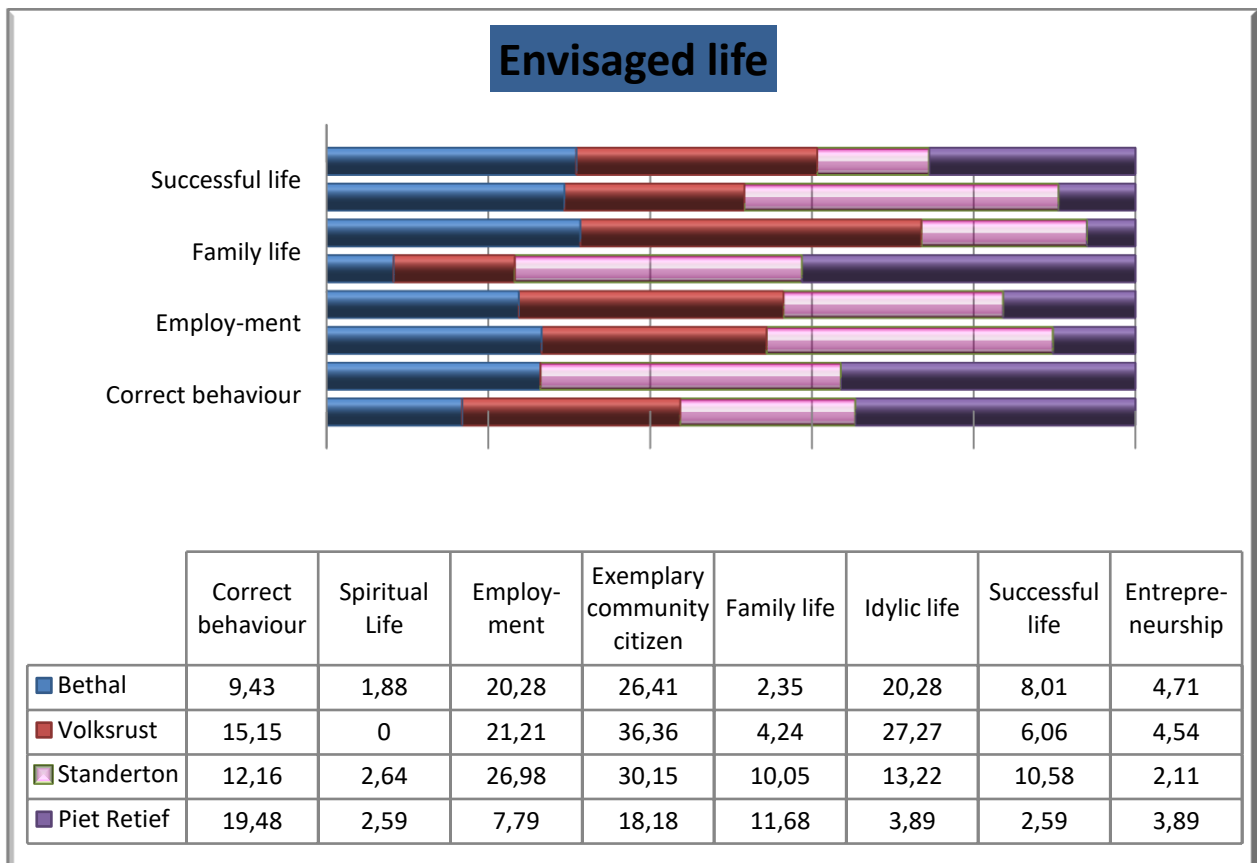
Bar graph 7.8: Envisaged life of offenders after being fully rehabilitated

It is clear that the emphasis of a rehabilitated life in the eyes of the participants lie in their role as being good people to their communities, as well as to work for their families and to strive for

independence after release. It can be concluded that respondents have a positive view of their future as rehabilitated individuals.

7.3.3.7 *Stumbling blocks that may hinder successful rehabilitation*

The research findings indicate that the majority of respondents in the Bethal Management Area as a whole were able to mention stumbling blocks in their rehabilitation, however a large group (n=182) 33.45% indicating that they had no stumbling blocks that could hinder their successful rehabilitation. The stumbling blocks that might hinder successful rehabilitation of respondents are revealed in Line diagram 7.2.
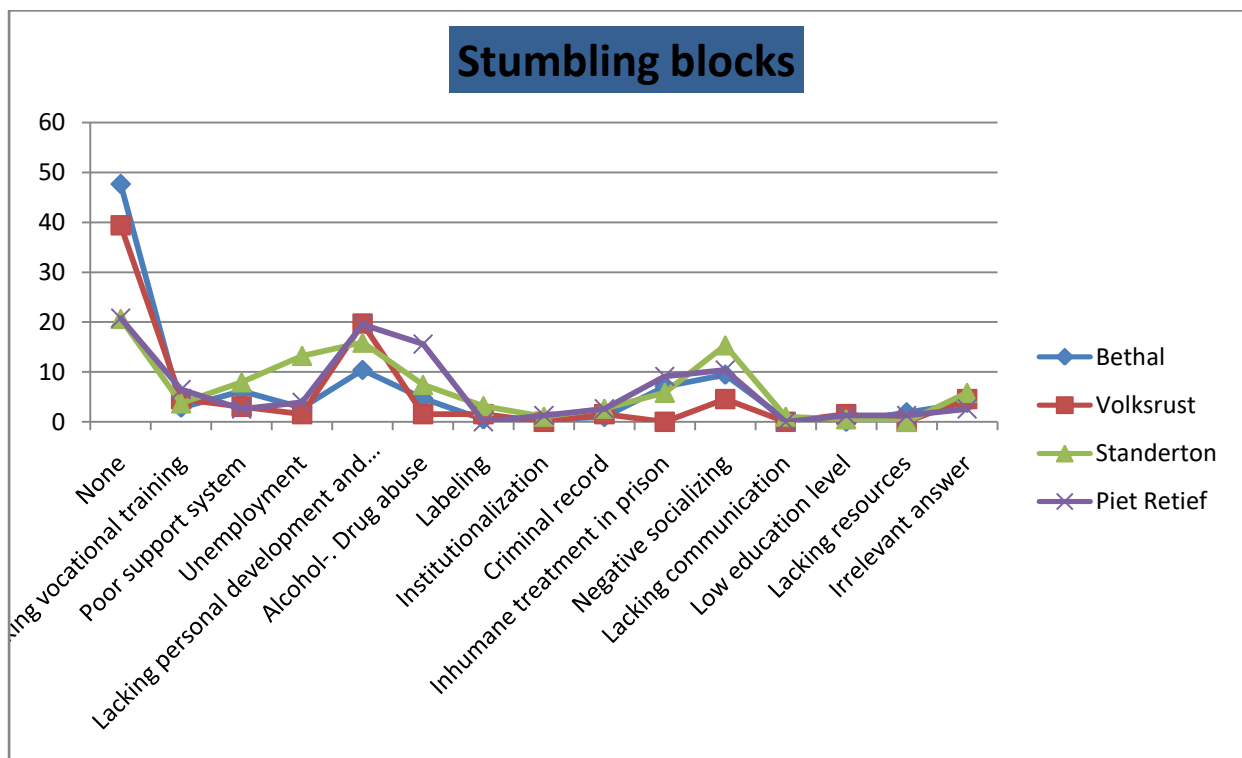
Line diagram 7.2: Stumbling blocks that may hinder rehabilitation

Those respondents who were able to identify stumbling blocks indicated that most of them, (14.52%, n=79) were challenged by **lacking personal development and strength**. Another four groups of respondents revealed that **negative socializing** (11.02%, n=60), **alcohol abuse** (6.80%, n=37), **Inhumane treatment in prison** (6.066%, n=33) as well as **unemployment** after release (6.43%, n=35) were stumbling blocks that might hinder their successful rehabilitation.

It is stipulated in the DCS Code of Conduct: Guiding staff conduct to a high level of professionalism (2005) that correctional officials in DCS should treat offenders with the necessary dignity and respect; they should also develop offenders so that they can live law-

abiding and productive lives after release from a correctional centre. It is therefore recognised in the DCS that correctional officials need to contribute to the development of offenders through their behaviour; if that is not the case, the rehabilitation purpose of DCS could fail.

Poor support systems (5.69%, n=31) was also identified as a possible stumbling block. The Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report 2010/2011 (32) disclosed that the primary offender complaint in correctional centres is related to communication with families. This is an indication of the dire need of offenders to remain in contact with their families, as well as the extreme importance of a support system in the eyes of an offender.

Another group of respondents (3.86%, n=21) revealed that the **lack of vocational training** would be a stumbling block. The remainder of the stumbling blocks that might hinder successful rehabilitation, as mentioned by a few individuals, are listed as follows: Criminal record (1.83%, n=10), Labelling (1.47%, n=8), Lacking resources (0.91%, n=5), Institutionalisation (0.73%, n=4) Low education level (0.55%, n=3), and Lacking communication (0.55%, n=3).

In summary, the major stumbling blocks that might jeopardise rehabilitation for respondents from the Bethal Management Area were determined to be the following: lacking personal development and strength, negative socialising, alcohol abuse, inhumane treatment in correctional centres, as well as unemployment after release.

7.3.4   Findings on unit management

Unit management is a desired method of correctional centre management and it helps to provide the balance in correctional programmes that involves concepts of deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation for individuals in correctional facilities ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:88). Unit management can therefore be viewed as the vehicle through which rehabilitation is supposed to take place. Since unit management plays a vital role in an offender's rehabilitation and the functioning of a correctional centre, it is important that all involved understand what unit management entails. It became evident in this research study that there is a lack of understanding of what unit management is, how it can be defined and what certain elements of unit management involves. Pie diagram 7.3 below illustrates that (n=261) 48% of the respondents involved in both the primary and secondary quantitative research studies from the Bethal Management Area as a whole indicated that they know what unit management is, while (n=283) 52% indicated they did not know.
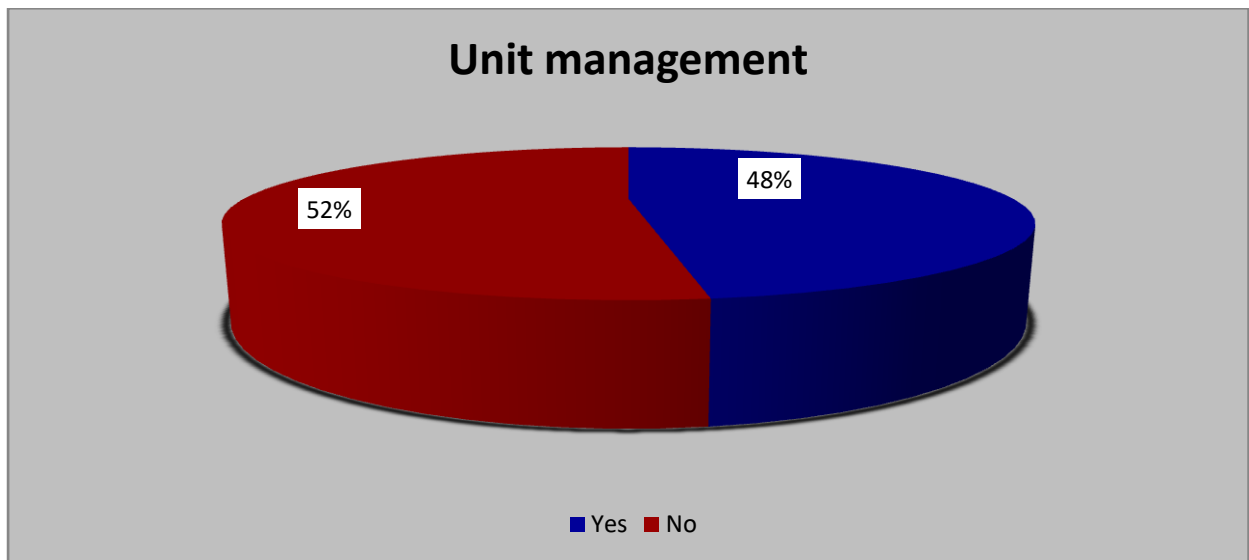
Pie diagram 7.1: Number of respondents familiar with unit management

When respondents had to define unit management, as can be seen in Line diagram 7.4, (n=228) 41.91% responded incorrectly with non-related terms.

	Irrelevant responses	Management of units	Structured day programes	Unanswered
Defining unit management	41,91%	3,12%	1,65%	53,30%
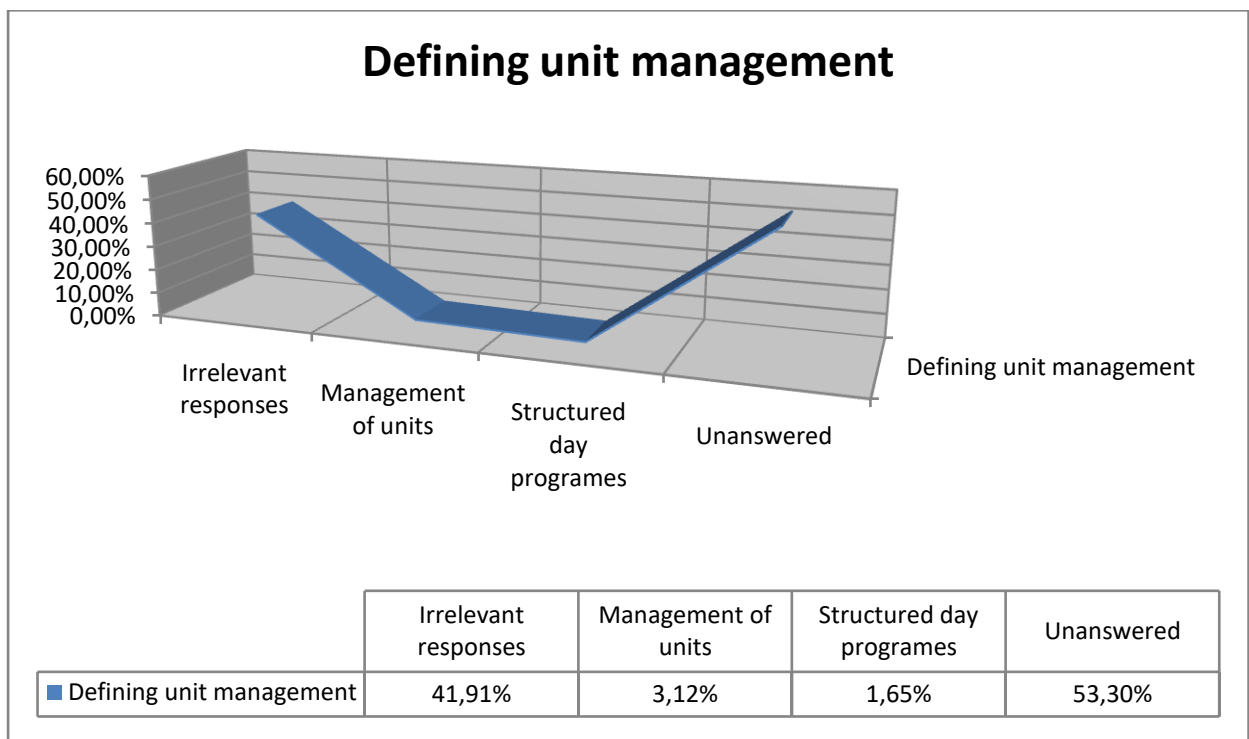
Line diagram 7.3: Definitions provided by respondents in the Bethal Management Area for unit management

A group of (n=17) 3.12% defined unit management as the management of units, (n=9) 1.65% focused on the structured day programme and (n=290) 53.30% left the question unanswered.

7.3.4.1 *Key factors of unit management*

The vast majority of the respondents (n=357) 65.62% in the Bethal Management Area, as is seen in Table 7.3 below, have not experienced accommodation in **decentralised units**. They mentioned that they stayed in general units or single cells. The **structured day programme** seemed to be less familiar to the respondents; (n=210) 38.60% of them indicated that they have experienced being part of a structured day programme though (n=258) 47.42% stated that they had no such experience.

Table 7.3: Elements of unit management

	BETHAL		VOLKSRUST		STANDERTON		PIET RETIEF	
UNIT MANAGEMENT KEY FACTORS	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
Decentralised units	39.15% n=83	59.90% n=127	34.84% n=23	65.15% n=43	26.98% n=51	69.84% n=132	31.16% n=24	67.53% n=52
Structured day programme	54.24% n=115	45.75% n=70	51.51% n=34	48.48% n=32	38.09% n=72	59.25% n=112	10.38% n=8	36.36% n=28
Case files	73.11% n=155	26.88% n=57	37.87% n=25	62.12% n=41	46.03% n=87	51.85% n=98	68.83% n=53	29.87% n=23
Unit manager	66.50% n=141	31.60% n=67	10.60% n=7	89.39% n=59	39.15% n=74	59.25% n=112	63.63% n=49	36.36% n=28
Case Management Supervisor	49.52% n=105	49.52% n=105	9.09% n=6	90.90% n=60	28.57% n=54	69.84% n=132	46.75% n=36	53.24% n=41
Case officer	58.96% n=125	41.03% n=87	10.60% n=7	89.39% n=59	29.62% n=56	68.25% n=129	49.35% n=38	50.64% n=39

The next key factor of unit management, **case files**, was known to the majority of the respondents (n=305) 56.06% from the Bethal Management Area, through their experience that a

specific correctional official opens a case file for an offender, on which all his information is kept. Even though the majority of the respondents were familiar with case files, there was a large group of (n=232) 42.64% who were unaware of case files.

The term **Unit Manager** was unknown to more than half of the respondents (n=295) 54.22% and familiar to (n=244) 44.85% of the respondents. Those participants who were familiar with it were able to explain that the Unit Manager held responsibility for all the units and some were able to identify the Unit Manager in their centers.

The term **Case Management Supervisor** was unknown to (n=358) 65.80% of the respondents involved in this research study. The respondents (n=182) 33.45% that were familiar with the Case Management Supervisor were able to recognise him/her in their centers and they were aware that he/she supervised all the cases, or ensured that everything concerning an offender's case was monitored. It was found from the research results that though the minority of the respondents (n=202) 37.13% in the Bethal Management Area were familiar with a **Case Officer**, there was a number of respondents (n=339) 62.31% that were unfamiliar with a Case Officer. Those familiar were able to identify the Case Officer in their centers and they stated that they reported all their personal problems directly to the Case Officer.

7.3.5   Findings on suggestions to DCS for improved rehabilitation

The research results revealed that involved respondents from the Bethal Management Area had a wide range of suggestions that would contribute to their rehabilitation, which they made to the DCS. The most popular suggestion made by far, (n=152) 27.94% as outlined in Bar graph 7.8 below, is that the DCS needs to provide more courses for offenders regarding **vocational training / job skills**. The second most popular suggestion made by respondents (n=88) 16.17% is the **humane treatment of offenders by officials** (the suggestion is that DCS needs to ensure that offenders are treated humanely and with respect). The provision of **rehabilitation programmes** that include social work and spiritual care programmes was suggested by (n=55) 10.11% of the respondents and a similar number of respondents (n=55) 10.11% suggested that the DCS should **assist offenders with reintegration** into the community after release. The **improvement of educational resources** such as technologically advanced equipment (computers, laptops, notepads), stationary and facilities were suggested by (n=52) 9.55% of the respondents.
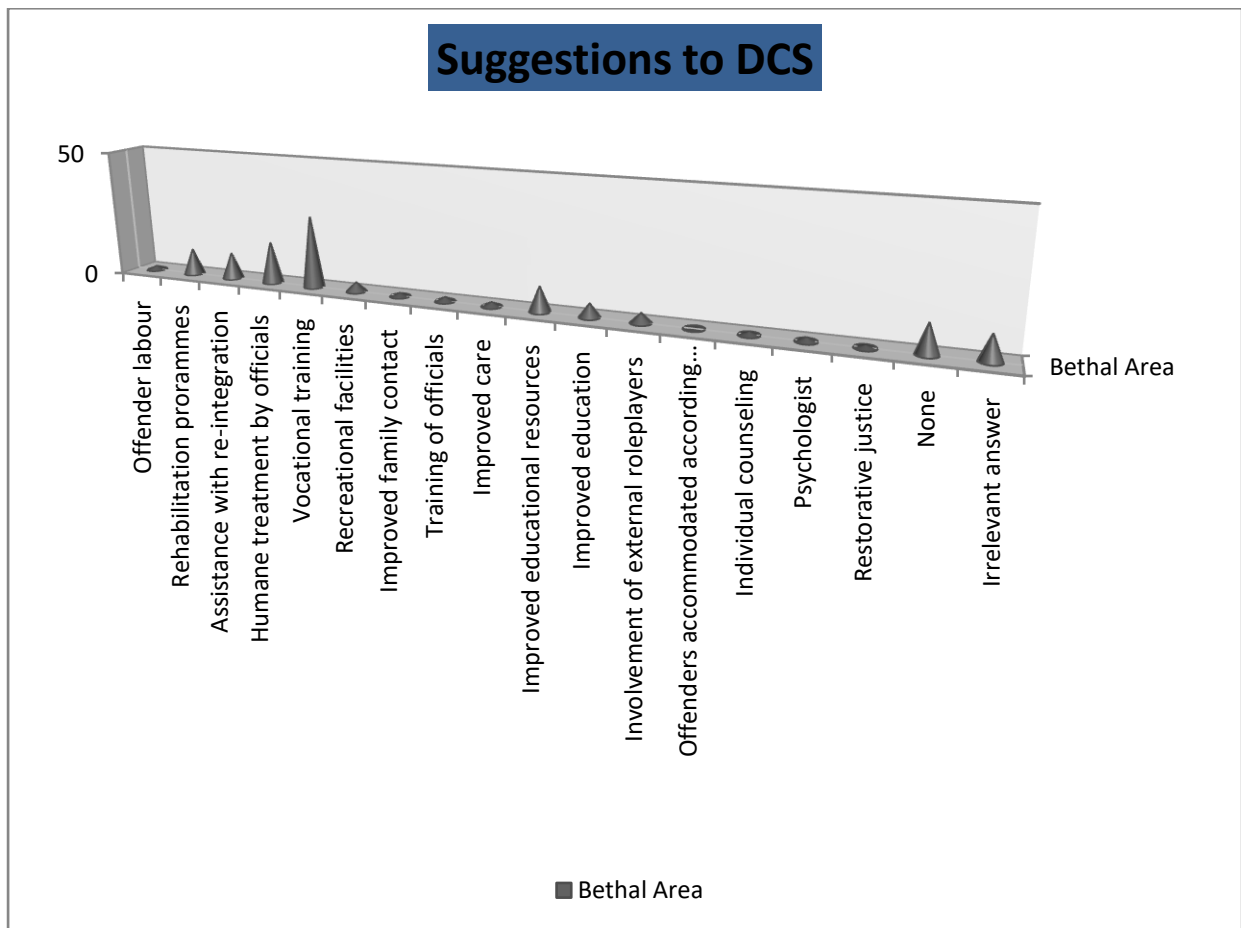
Bar graph 7.9: **Suggestions made by respondents to DCS for improvement of rehabilitation**

The remainder of the suggestions made by minority groups are summarised from highest to lowest in the following order, namely: Improved education (5.14%, n=28), Involvement of external role-players (3.67%, n=20), Recreational facilities (3.67%, n=20), Training of officials (1.65%, n=9), Improved care that included medical and nutritional care (1.65%, n=9), Offender labour (1.47%, n=8), Psychologist (1.47%, n=8), Improved family contact (1.28%, n=7), Individual counseling (1.28%, n=7), Restorative justice (1.1%, n=6) and Offenders to be accommodated in units according to sentence periods (0.18%, n=1). There was a group of (10.84%, n=59) of respondents who indicated that they had no suggestions and then there was a group of (9.37%, n=51) respondents who presented an irrelevant answer.

7.4.   SUMMARY

A research study was done in DCS, in the LMN Region (Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North-West), at Bethal Management Area that included the Bethal, Standerton, Volksrust, and Piet Retief Correctional Centres. The focus of this research study was to optimise rehabilitation and unit

management in the DCS. Sentenced offenders from the above-mentioned correctional centres participated in a quantitative research study by completing a group administered questionnaire. Data gathered was analysed and presented in this chapter through various graphs, bars, tables and figures.

Empirical findings from the qualitative study with correctional and professional correctional officials will be presented in Chapter 8.

CHAPTER 8

EMPIRICAL PRESENTATION AND RESEARCH FINDINGS FOR CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

8.1   INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 7 the research findings for sentenced offenders was discussed as the quantitative phase of the mixed methods study. Emphasis was on the biographic particulars of respondents, their understanding of their own rehabilitation as well as their knowledge about unit management. This chapter focuses on a qualitative primary and secondary study that formed the second phase within the framework of mixed methods research in the Department of Correctional Services and involved specifically correctional and professional correctional officials in the Bethal Management Area. The researcher made arrangements with the various centres beforehand in order to establish a contact framework that assisted and guided her during the visits to the centres. The contact framework consisted of social workers, security officials, case intervention officials and a Centre Coordinator: Corrections, depending on who was available at the centre during the data collection. Participants were purposively selected because views from different officials were important; therefore officials in various key posts participated. Data was gathered from the officials by means of individual interviews that were guided by a semi-structured interview schedule.

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section discusses the biographic particulars of officials involved in the research and the data is presented in the form of graphs and tables. The second section focuses on the official's career particulars that include the number of years in service of the DCS and the present post occupied by the official. This data is also presented in graphs and tables. The themes regarding rehabilitation and unit management according to the views of the officials are described in narrative style, in the third section of this chapter.

8.2   RESEARCH FINDINGS – CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

Correctional centres that were involved from the Bethal Management Area included the Bethal, Volksrust, Standerton and Piet Retief Centres. A total number of 133 correctional and professional correctional officials representing the Bethal Management Area participated in the primary and secondary qualitative research study. At the Bethal Correctional Centre a number of 14 and 8 participants respectively participated in the study, while the Volksrust Centre had 15

and 11participants respectively. The Standerton Centre had 52 and 11 participants respectively, with 15 and 7 participants at the Piet Retief Centre who participated respectively in the primary and secondary research studies.

8.2.1 Biographic particulars

The biographic particulars of officials included gender, highest qualifications, age, and marital status. This data enabled the researcher to contextualise the participants' responses within the correctional environment. The findings from the various participating centres will be consolidated in this section of the chapter, and presented as a representation of the Bethal Management Area as a whole in instances where findings are similar from centre to centre. In the case where findings differ from centre to centre the data will be presented per centre.

8.2.1.1 *Gender*

The majority of the correctional officials from all the centres who participated in this study from the Bethal Management Area were males, with female correctional officials in the minority. Out of 96 participants from the primary and 37 participants from the secondary research studies, 101/133 (75.93%) were males and 32/133 (24.06%) were females. The gender difference in correctional officials employed at the different centres in the Bethal Management Area is reflected in Bar graph 8.1 below.
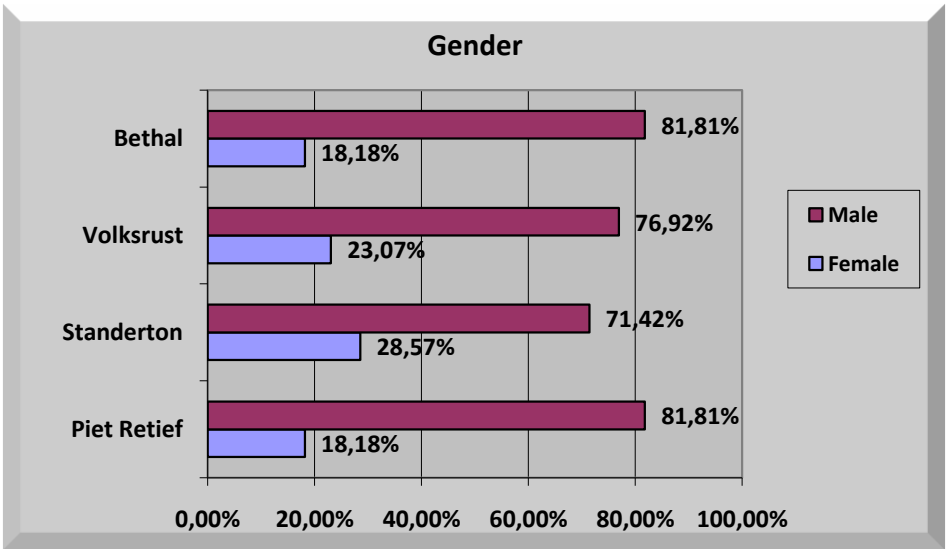
Bar graph 8.1: Number of male and female correctional officials in the Bethal Management Area

As reflected in Bar graph 8.1 above, 18/22 (81.81%) of participants at Bethal Centre were males and 4/22 (18.18%) were females. The Volksrust Centre was represented by 20/26 (76.92%) males and 6/26 (23.07%) females, whereas the Standerton Centre had 45/63 (71.42%) males and

18/63 (28.57%) females. At Piet Retief Centre 18/22 (81.81%) male officials participated in the study, with 4/22 (18.18%) females participating. Gender in correctional centres is mainly dominated by males since prisons were traditionally a workplace for men, due to possible harsh circumstances and safety risks.

8.2.1.2 *Home language*

The majority of the correctional officials from the Bethal Management Area, 63/133 (47.36%), who participated in the study spoke isiZulu as a home language. Afrikaans was spoken by a large group of the participants, namely 36/133 (27.06%), while languages such as English, 7/133 (5.26%), Northern Sotho, 6/133 (4.51) Venda, 2/133 (1.50%) and SiSwati, 9/133 (6.76%) were spoken by the minority. The home language spoken by officials per individual centre is visible in Bar graph 8.2 below.

Home language

	Bethal	Volksrust	Standerton	Piet Retief
■ English	0	3,84	9,52	0
■ isiZulu	36,36	50	39,68	77,27
■ Northern Sotho	9,09	3,84	3,17	4,54
■ Afrikaans	45,45	23,07	31,74	0
■ Venda	4,54	3,84	0	0
■ Siswati	0	7,69	4,76	18,18
■ Other	4,54	11,53	9,52	0
■				
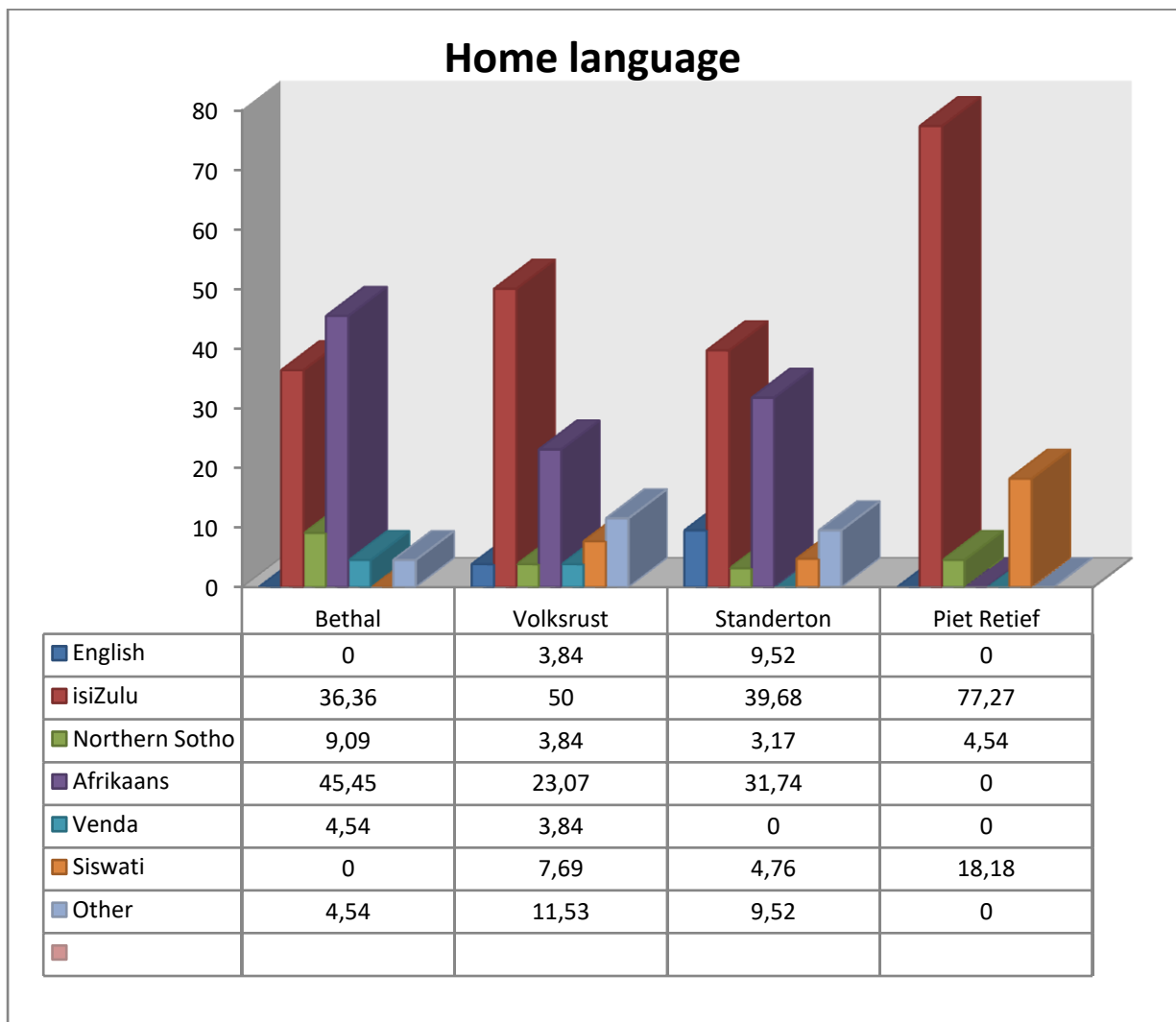
Bar graph 8.2: Home languages spoken by correctional officials in the Bethal Management Area

It is clear from Bar graph 8.2 that at Bethal Centre the majority of participants 10/22 (45.45%) spoke Afrikaans, 8/22 (36.36%) spoke isiZulu and minority groups of 2/22 (9.09%) spoke Northern Sotho, 1/22 (4.54%) spoke Venda and 1/22 (4.54%) spoke another language.

At the Volksrust Centre it was found that half of the participants 13/26 (50.00%) spoke isiZulu as a home language, with 6/26 (23.07%) Afrikaans-speaking participants. Minority groups of 2/26 (769%) spoke SiSwati, 2/26 (7.69%) spoke other languages, and three individuals 1/26 (3.84%) spoke English, Northern Sotho and Venda respectively.

Standerton participants were mostly isiZulu speaking, with 25/63 (39.68%). Another large group of participants 20/63 (31.74%) were Afrikaans-speaking, with 6/63 (9.52%) English-speaking. Minority groups of 6/63 (9.52%) spoke other languages, 3/63 (4.76%) spoke SiSwati and 2/63 (3.17%) were Northern Sotho-speaking. The majority of participants at the Piet Retief Centre, 17/22 (77.27%) were isiZulu-speaking, while 4/22 (18.18%) spoke SiSwati and one individual, 1/22 (4.54%) spoke Northern Sotho.

Many correctional officials daily deal with matters and work, whether verbally or in writing, in the English language, which is not their mother tongue. Communication might be hindered to some extent and in some instances because self-expression can become a challenge.

8.2.1.3 *Highest qualifications*

Even though the majority of participants in the Bethal Management Area, which is 79/133 (59.39%) have a grade 12 qualification, there was a large group, 47/133 (35.33%) holding a tertiary qualification. This is broken down into 30/133 (22.55%) officials who have diplomas, and 17/133 (12.78%) with degrees. The various qualification levels of participants at the different centres are reflected in Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1: Highest qualifications of participants in the Bethal, Volksrust, Standerton, and Piet Retief Correctional Centres

HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS	CORRECTIONAL CENTRES								TOTAL PARTI-CIPANTS
	BETHAL		VOLKSRUST		STANDERTON		PIET RETIEF		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
STANDARD 6-9	0	0	1	3,84%	2	3,17%	0	0	3
GRADE 12	10	45,45%	17	65,38%	39	61,90%	13	59,09%	79
DIPLOMA	6	27,27%	6	23,07%	13	20,63%	5	22,72%	30
DEGREE	5	22,72%	2	7,69%	6	9,52%	4	18,18%	17
OTHER	1	4,54%	0	0	3	4,76%	0	0	4
TOTAL	22	100%	26	100%	63	100%	22	100%	133

There was a minority group 3/133 (2.25%) participants who indicated that they have a standard 6 to standard 9 school qualification. Having a minimum qualification of grade 12 is one of the current minimum job requirements needed in order to be employed in the DCS. Three officials indicated that they have a standard 6 to 9 qualification, meaning that they have been employed in the previous era when the minimum job requirement was standard 6 to 9. These officials are probably older than most officials and served a high number of years in the DCS. Professional correctional officials such as social workers, nurses and educators are required to have a tertiary qualification by virtue of the post that they occupy.

8.2.1.4 *Age*

The largest number of correctional officials in all the different centres that participated in this study was in the age group of 34 to 41 years, with a total number of 58/133 (43.60%) belonging in this age group. The different age groups according to the various centres in the Bethal Management Area are reflected in Bar graph 8.3 below.

Age

	Bethal	Volksrust	Standerton	PietRetief
18-25 years	0	3,84	0	0
26-33 years	4,54	26,92	20,63	18,18
34-41 years	36,36	46,15	39,68	59,09
42-49 years	18,18	15,38	25,39	9,09
50-57 years	22,72	7,69	11,11	13,63
58-65 years	18,18	0	1,58	0
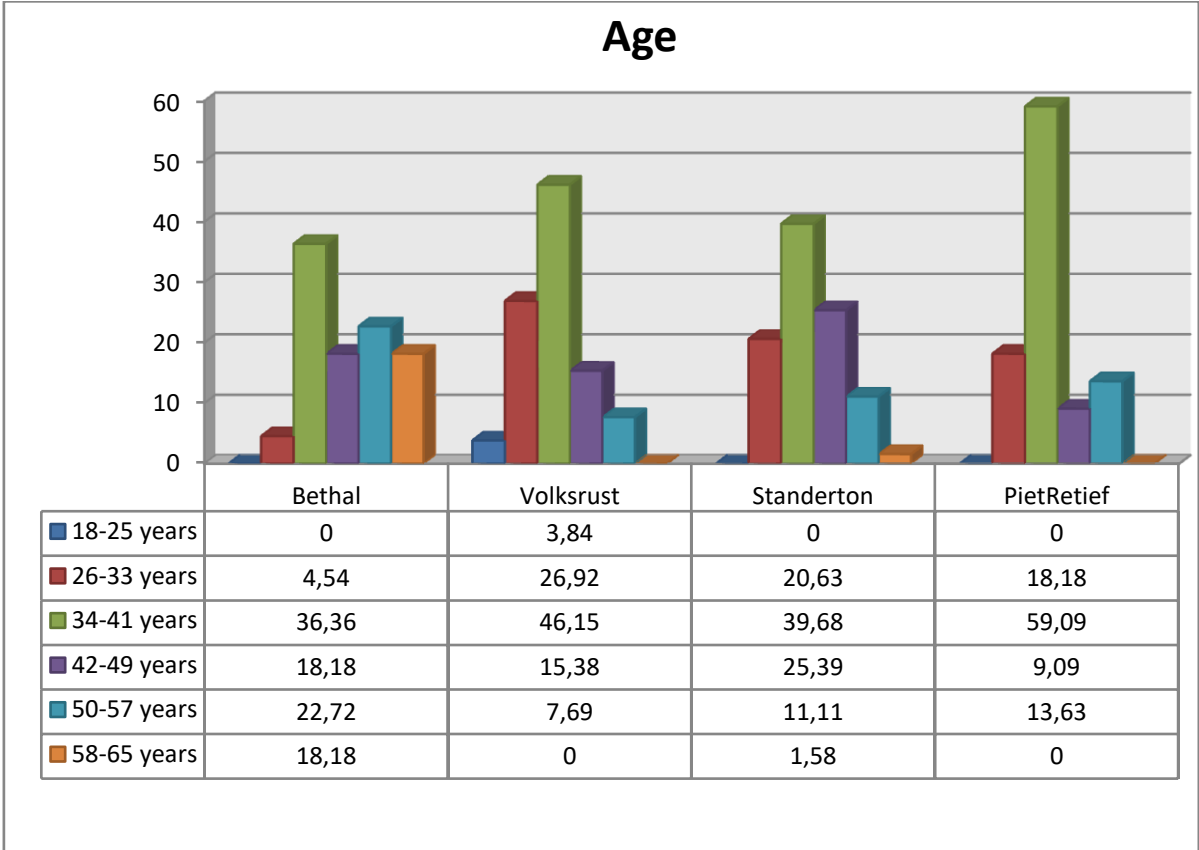
Bar graph 8.3: Different age groups of participants from the Bethal Area

Out of the 133 participants included in the research study from the Bethal Management Area, 25/133 (18.79%) were between 26 to 33 years of age and 26/133 (19.54%) were in the age group of 42 to 49 years. Participants in the minority were the following: 1/133 (0.75%), an official who

was between 18 and 25 years; 17/133 (12.78%) officials who were 50 to 57 years old, and 5/133 (3.75%) who were older than 58 years.

It is reflected in Bar graph 8.3 above that the majority of participants, 8/22 (36.36%), at the Bethal Centre were in the age group of 34 to 41 years. A large group of 5/22 (22.72%) were between 50 to 57 years of age, and two smaller groups of 4/22 (18.18%) each were in the age groups of 42 to 49 years, and 58 to 65 years respectively. One participant 1/22 (4.54%) was between 26 to 33 years of age.

Participants at the Volksrust Centre were mostly in the 34 to 41 years age group, with a number of 12/26 (46.15%). A smaller group of 7/26 (26.92%) were between 26 to 33 years old and 4/26 (15.38%) were between 42 to 49 years old. Two participants, 2/26 (7.69%), were between 50 to 57 of age, and one 1/26 (3.84%) was in the age group of 18 to 25 years.

Bar graph 8.3 reveals that at the Standerton Centre the majority of participants, 25/63 (39.68%) were 34 to 41 years of age, while 16/63 (25.39%) were in the age group of 42 to 49 years. Another group of 13/63 (20.63%) were between the ages of 26 to 33 and 7/63 (11.11%) were between 50 to 57 years of age. One participant, 1/63 (1.58%), was older than 58 and younger than 65.

Most of the participants at the Piet Retief Centre, 13/22 (59,09%), were included in the age group of 34 to 41 years, whereas a much smaller group of 4/22 (18,18%) were between 26 to 33 years of age. The minority of participants 3/22 (13.63%) were between 50 to 57 years old, and another two 2/22 (9.09%) were between 42 to 49 years of age.

8.2.1.5 *Marital status*

It was found from this research study, as can be seen in Line diagram 8.1 below, that most of the participants in all the centres in the Bethal Management Area indicated that they were married. From the 133 correctional officials, 82/133 (61.65%) indicated that they were married; another 8/133 (6.01%) were living together, while 32/133 (24.06%) of the officials stated that they were single. A small group of 8/133 (6.01%) participants indicated that they were divorced, and 2/133 (1.50%) reported to be widowers. The marital status of correctional officials at the Bethal, Volksrust, Standerton and Piet Retief Correctional Centres can be seen in Line diagram 8.1 below.

Marital status

	Bethal	Volksrust	Standerton	Piet Retief
Single	13,63%	38,46%	20,63%	27,27%
Living together	0	3,84%	7,93%	9,09%
Married	63,63%	54%	63,49%	63,63%
Separated	0	0	0	0
Estranged	0	0	0	0
Divorced	18,18%	3,84%	6,34%	0
Widow/Widower	4,54%	0	1,58%	0
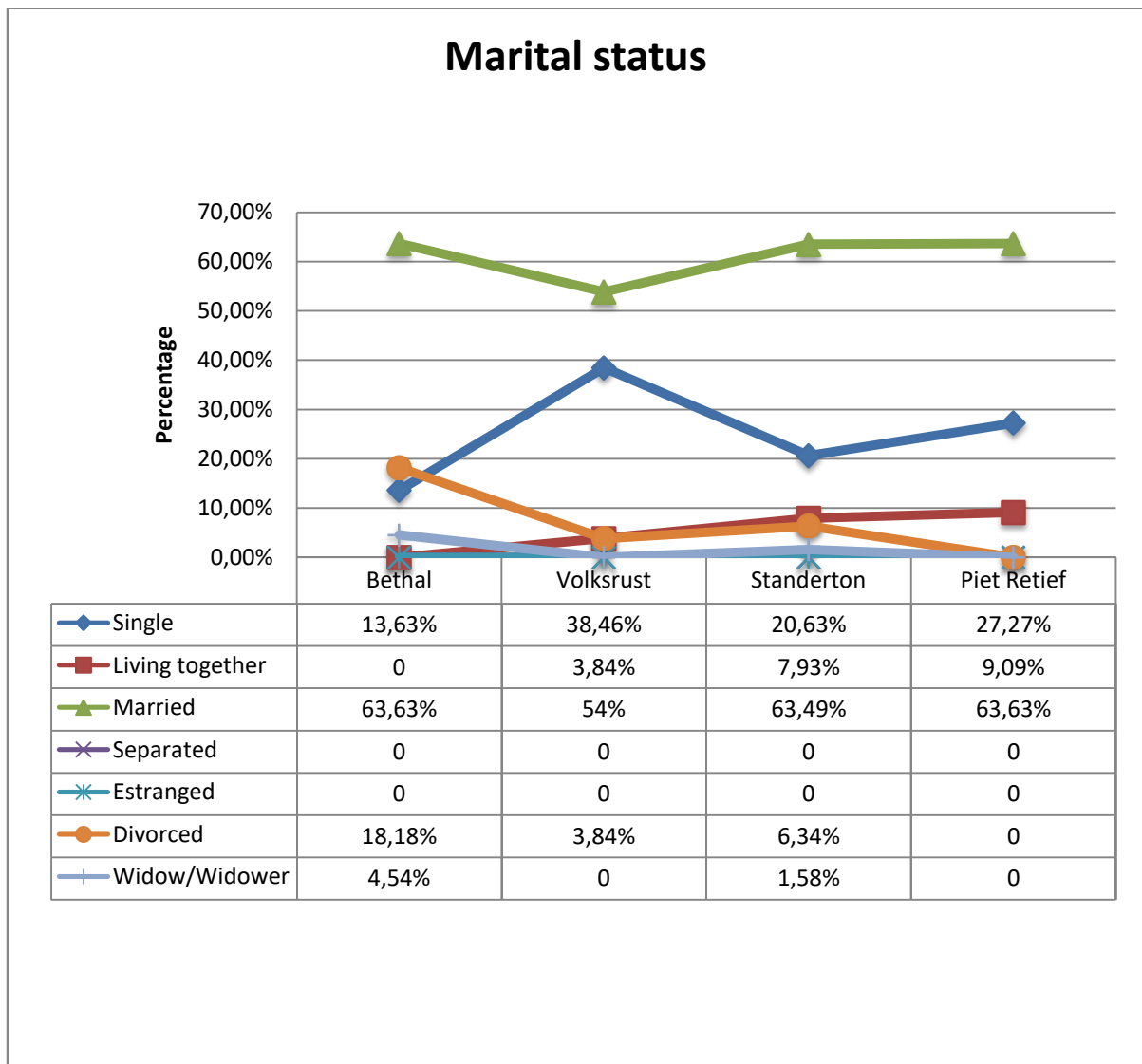
Line diagram 8.1: Marital status of participants from the Bethal Management Area

Findings indicate that the majority of correctional officials who participated in this research study are in a committed relationship with a life partner. This tendency can be linked to the majority age of participants, since most of them were in the 34 to 41 years age group, which in turn indicates that they are adults with some form of stability in their lives.

8.2.2   CAREER PARTICULARS

Career particulars of officials in this study pertains to the number of years in service of DCS, and the present post occupied by the participant at the time of the study.

8.2.2.1   *Number of years in service of the DCS*

The number of years in service of the DCS by participants was found to be different at the various correctional centres, therefore the findings will follow according to each correctional centre, as summarised in Figure 8.1 below.

Years service

	Bethal	Volksrust	Standerton	Piet Retief
0-2 Years	0	11,53%	14,28%	9,09%
3-7 Years	9,09%	19,23%	12,69%	9,09%
8-12 Years	18,18%	23,07%	17,46%	50,00%
13-17 Years	9,09%	15,38%	9,52%	13,63%
18-22 Years	13,63%	23,07%	22,22%	9,09%
23-27 Years	9,09%	7,69%	12,69%	4,54%
28-32 Years	22,72%	0	9,52%	4,54%
33+ Years	18,18%	0	1,58%	0
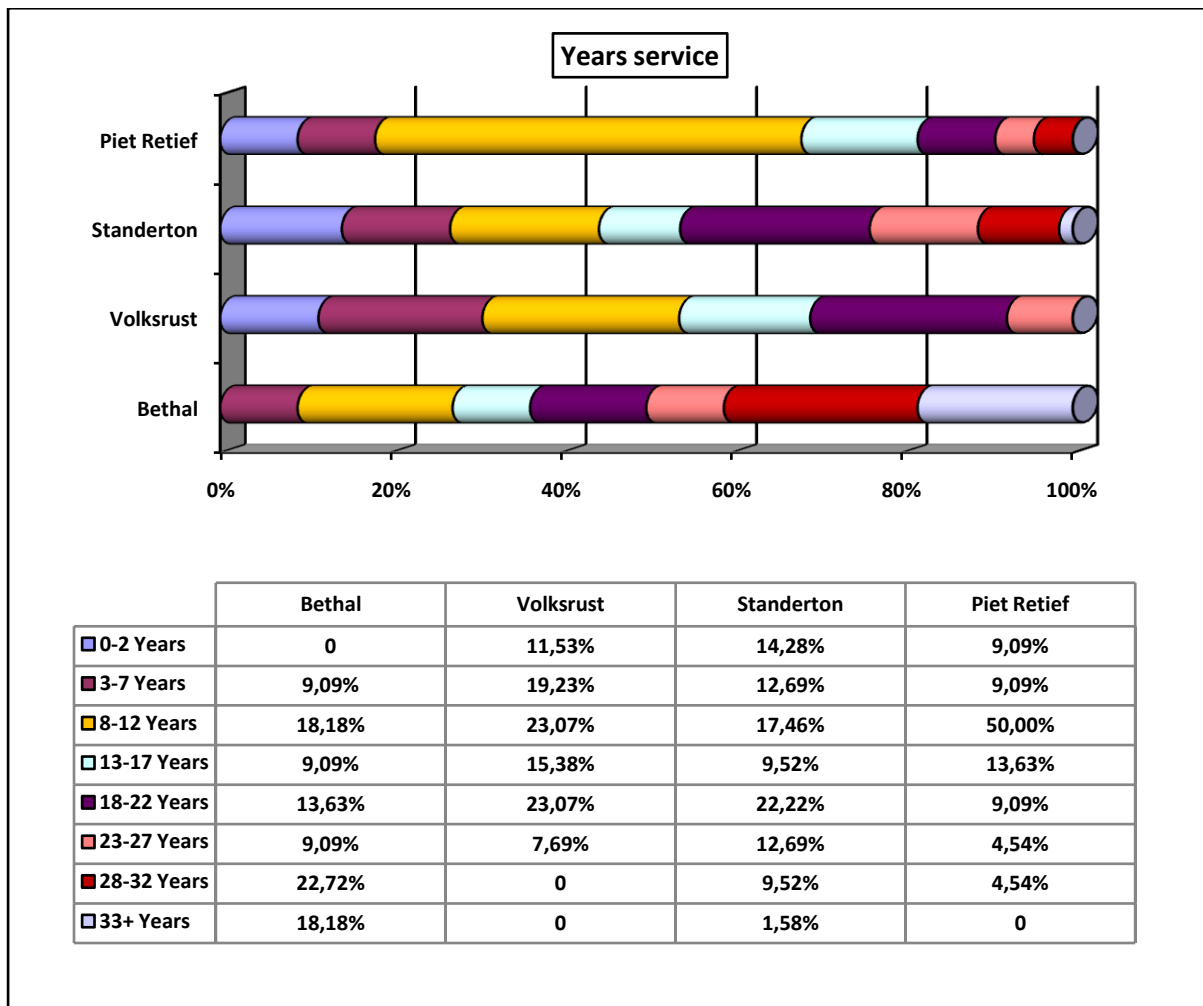
Figure 8.1: Number of years in service of the DCS of participants in the Bethal Area

Twenty-two correctional officials from the Bethal Correctional Centre participated in the study. Two groups, 4/22 (18.18%) and 3/22 (13.63%), have been serving 8 to 12 years and 18 to 22 years respectively. There were 2/22 (9.09%) participants who have been employed in the DCS for 13 to 17 years, and 4/22 (18.18%) have been serving 33 years and longer. Two individuals, 2/22 (9.09%) fell in the 23 to 27 years of service category with another 2/22 (9.09%) who have been serving between 3 to 7 years. Five participants 5/22 (22.72%) reported to have 28 to 32 years of service.

The research indicated that nearly all the correctional officials from the Bethal Correctional Centre who participated have been serving in the DCS for more than 8 years, and up to 33 years and longer.

Out of the 26 correctional officials from the Volksrust Correctional Centre who participated in the research study, Figure 8.1 above outlines that 5/26 (19.23%) have been serving between 3 to 7 years in the DCS, while 3/26 (11.53%) have been employed by the DCS for less than 2 years.

Two groups of 6/26 (23.07%) participants each have been serving between 8 to 12 years and 18 to 22 years respectively, with another 4/26 (15.38%) officials who have been serving between 13 to 17 years. Two officials, 2/26 (7.69%) reported 23 to 27 years of service.

A large group of the participants at the Volksrust Correctional Centre has less than 7 years of service in the DCS. The majority, however, had between 8 to 27 years of service in the DCS.

At the Standerton Correctional Centre, 14/63 (22.22%) participants have been serving between 18 to 22 years in the DCS, and 11/63 (17.46%) between 8 to 12 years. One group of 6/63 (9.52%) have been serving 13 to 17 years and another group of 8/63 (12.69%) had 23 to 27 years of service. A total of 6/63 (9.52%) participants have been serving longer than 28 years and 1/63 (1.58%) was in the service category of 33 years and longer. New correctional officials were represented by 9/63 (14.28%) participants who have been serving less than 2 years and 8/63 (12.69%) who have between 3 to 7 years of service in DCS.

At the Standerton Correctional Centre the majority of correctional officials who participated in this research have more than 8 years of service in the DCS, with 7/63 (11.11%) who have been serving in the DCS for more than 28 years.

It is revealed in Figure 8.1 above that the majority of participants at the Piet Retief Correctional Centre, 11/22 (50.00%) had between 8 to 12 years of service in the DCS, with another group of 3/22 (13.63%) officials who have been serving between 13 to 17 years. Two of the participants, 2/22 (9.09%) indicated that they had been serving between 3 to 7 years while other individuals, 2/22 (9.09%) have been serving less than 2 years, and 3/22 (13.63%) between 18 to 22 years. One participant, 1/22 (6.66%) revealed a service period of between 23 to 27 years of service and another one 28 to 32 years in the DCS respectively.

At the Piet Retief Centre the majority of correctional officials who have participated in the study have more than 8 years of service in the DCS.

8.2.2.2 *Present post occupied by correctional officials*

It can be seen from Bar graph 8.4 below that correctional officials representing various sections in the correctional centres participated in this research study, including officials from Management, Security, Incarceration, Administration, and Rehabilitation and Care. These sections represent both correctional and professional correctional officials.

The Management, comprising the Head Correctional Centre (HCC) and Unit Managers, were represented by 6/133 (4.51%) of the correctional officials who took part in this study.
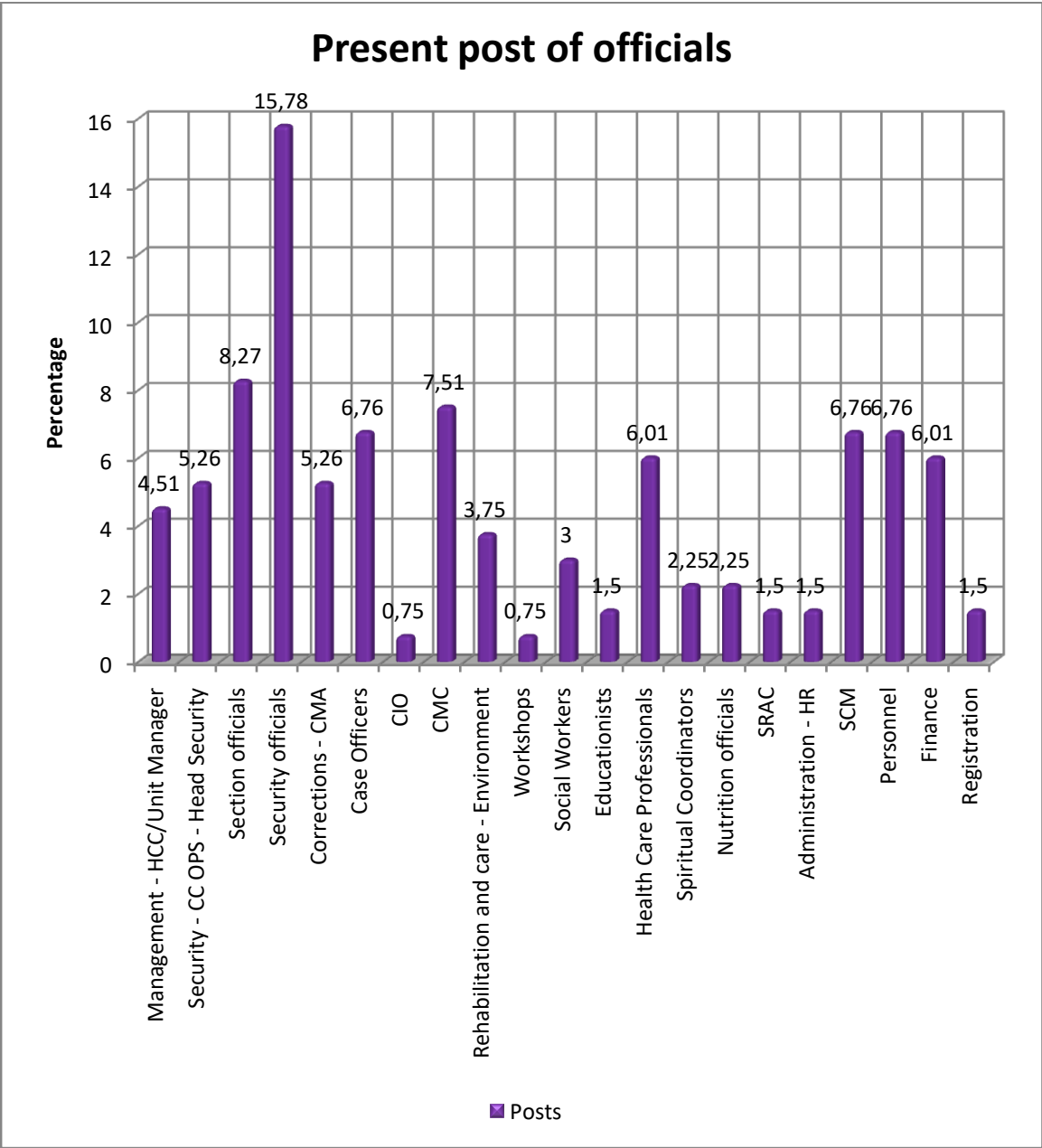
Bar graph 8.4: Various posts occupied by participants from the Bethal Area

Even though various sections were represented, 39/133 (29.32%) of the participants were Security officials which included the Centre Coordinator Operational Support (CC OPS) and Head: Security 7/133 (5.26%), 11/133 (8.27%) section officials, and 21/133 (15.78%) security officials, who constituted the majority of all the participants.

The Corrections section was represented by 27/133 (20.30%) officials that included 7/133 (5.26%) from Case Management Administration (CMA), 9/133 (6.76%) case officers, 1/133

(0.75%) case intervention officer and 10/133 (7.51%) from the Case Management Committee (CMC).

According to Bar graph 8.4 as seen above, the Rehabilitation and Care section was represented by 28/133 (21.05%) participants that consisted of 5/133 (3.75%) Environmental officials, 1/133 (0.75%) Workshop official, 4/133 (3.00%) Social Workers, 2/133 (1.50%) Educationists, 8/133 (6.01%) Health Care Professionals, 3/133 (2.25%) Spiritual Care Coordinators, 3/133 (2.25%) Nutrition officials, and 2/133 (1.50%) Sports Recreation Arts and Culture (SRAC) officials.

The Administration personnel were represented by a total of 30/133 (22.55%) participants that involved 2/133 (1.50%) officials from Human Resource, 9/133 (6.76%) from Supply Chain Management, 9/133 (6.76%) from the Personnel office, 8/133 (6.01%) from Finance and 2 (1.50%) from the Registration office.

It is important to note that officials from most sections in the correctional centres were involved in this study, which contributed to rich data concerning rehabilitation and unit management from various perspectives.

8.3   THEMES IDENTIFIED FROM CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

The third section of this chapter presents the themes that were identified during the data analysis process. The research findings indicate the respective themes and patterns which were identified from the responses given by participants. The themes identified are rehabilitation, unit management, and recommendations to the DCS concerning rehabilitation and unit management which are presented next with its underpinning sub-themes, and where applicable, supported by verbatim quotations and integration with literature.

The identified themes and sub-themes, as summarised in Table 8.2 below, will be discussed in terms of the Bethal Management Area as a whole.

Table 8.2: Themes and sub-themes that were identified from the qualitative study

Themes	*Sub-themes*
1. Rehabilitation	1.1 Perceptions of rehabilitation
	1.2 The place of rehabilitation in the DCS
	1.3 Official's own contribution towards

	rehabilitation of offenders
	1.4 Skills and tools needed by officials to improve rehabilitation
	1.5 The official as rehabilitator
	1.6 Elements of rehabilitation such as views on multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking, relapse prevention after release
2. Unit management	2.1 Understanding of unit management
	2.2 Unit management needs to be successful
	2.3 Effectiveness of unit management
	2.4 Job satisfaction in present post
3. Recommendations to DCS concerning rehabilitation and unit management	3.1 Suggestions concerning rehabilitation
	3.2 Suggestions concerning unit management

8.3.1 *Research findings from correctional officials*

The research findings from correctional officials will be presented next focusing firstly on rehabilitation, followed by unit management and suggestions made to DCS.

8.3.1.1   Rehabilitation

The quantitative study presented findings on the offenders understanding of what rehabilitation in the DCS entails (see Chapter 7, Section 3.3). This information was necessary in order to determine how the offender understands the rehabilitation that he is expected to reach during the time that he serves his sentence. It was imperative to obtain the perception of correctional officials about rehabilitation, as they are the "rehabilitators" and the ones expected to ensure that the offender becomes rehabilitated. The data presented in this section indicate the level of understanding by the officials.

The sub-themes that will be discussed next are the officials' perceptions of rehabilitation, the place of rehabilitation in the DCS, the officials' contribution towards the rehabilitation of

offenders, the skills and tools needed by officials to contribute to rehabilitation, the official as rehabilitator and elements of rehabilitation.

8.3.1.1.1   *Perceptions of rehabilitation*

Singh (2005:36) indicates that in 2002, the Department recognised the incompleteness in the transformation of the Department, which resulted in a lack of coherence of paradigm, and the lack of a common understanding of the meaning of rehabilitation across the entire Department. A concept document called "Conceptualising Rehabilitation" was developed for internal discussion in all sections of the Department. During this qualitative study officials were asked what they regarded as rehabilitation in the DCS and it was found that they saw it as change, programme involvement by offenders and sending a better person back to the community.

With regard to **change,** close to half of the correctional official participants had the perception that rehabilitation involved an element of change – to change the bad behaviour and or mindset of an offender to good behaviour and or a positive mindset. Correctional officials voiced their opinions as follows:

- "It is fixing an offender's criminal behaviour whilst incarcerated to promote change and to be able to reinstate him or her back in society as a law-abiding citizen."

- "Rehab is supposed to change a person's life in such a way that he can look after himself as well as his family and the community – good manners and discipline."

- "Rehabilitation is a process of creating an enabling environment whereby offenders discard their offending behaviour and become law-abiding citizens."

- "I regard it as a way where a person needs to change his bad behaviour to (behaviour acceptable to the community) an acceptable behaviour in the community."

- "A changed person (from a criminal mind to a law-abiding citizen)."

- "To change someone's behaviour from bad to good."

The above views reflect that rehabilitation requires the offender to change from somebody who can be described in a negative manner such as 'bad', 'criminal' or 'offending behaviour' to somebody who could be described positively, for example 'good', 'law-abiding citizen', or

'acceptable behaviour'. Walsh and Hemmens (2011:77) explained that according to the rational choice theory offenders decide when to commit crime – it is confirmed in their statement as follows: "… humans have the capacity to make choices and the moral responsibility to make moral choices regardless of the internal or external constraints on one's ability to do so." It gives the impression that when an offender is admitted to a correctional centre he can be easily perceived by officials as someone with negative, bad, criminal behaviour. A number of studies found that the strength of the relationship between staff and the client impacts retention and criminal behaviour post-treatment (Latessa et al., 2014:104).

Some of the participants were of opinion that rehabilitation is a combination of **programme involvement** by offenders:

- "Programmes, skills and motivations in the centre, I think that is what we call rehabilitation."

- "Ensuring that they get the necessary support and undergo the correct programmes to change their behaviour."

- "For offenders to be more involved in Life Skills programmes and Developmental skills."

- "We rehabilitate offenders through programmes – life-skills, to avoid them to come back."

- "Giving of different skills to inmates e.g. sewing, school, plumbing etc. When they go out they can use those skills to empower themselves."

- "To empower offenders by equipping them with life-skills and be successfully re-integrated into society."

Officials refer to two kinds of programmes that are presented in a correctional centre. Firstly, the social work or correctional programmes such as life-skills programmes (though there is a vast number of such programmes, life-skills seems to be the one that officials are familiar with since it features often), and secondly vocational skills training programmes where offenders can be equipped with a job skill that will assist with employment after release. Findings show that emphasis should be placed on the correctional officials' attitude towards the offender. This is in line with one of the DCS's key objectives that a controlled environment should be created in correctional centres for intense and needs-based rehabilitation, correction and development

([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:79). The correctional official plays a huge role in creating this much-needed environment. Though officials attempt to contribute towards rehabilitation they are not exactly sure what is expected of them and how the situation should be handled. According to Latessa et al. (2014:103) the attitude of officials determine the success they have with effective rehabilitation programmes by stating that "In particular, those who were warm, non-confrontational, empathetic and directive were more effective".

Sending a better person back to the community was viewed by a number of officials as rehabilitation in the DCS. It is taken from the views below that the aim of rehabilitation would be to prepare an offender for his release – the offender should exhibit improved or better behaviour by the time he needs to be released from a correctional centre. Officials' views confirming this information follows:

- "I regard it as a tool that makes offenders better people when released."

- "To make offenders better persons when they go out of DCS."

- "To improve the behaviour of inmates when they are released from prison."

Pointing out the **mistakes** made by offenders is viewed by a smaller group of participants as part of rehabilitation because it prevents them from re-offending. It is gathered from the perceptions below that a lot of focus is on the negative behaviour, the mistake made by the offender which he needs to understand, recognise and gain insight into. The offender is therefore frequently reminded about the negative behaviour he displayed – a process that can continue for years, depending on the length of his sentence. Some of the views are presented below:

- "Rehabilitation is a process that is aimed at helping the offender gain insight into his offending behaviour and also understands that the crime committed has caused injury to others."

- "That an offender understand what he did wrong and don't commit crimes again, to go back to society to work hard to achieve something."

- "It is regarded as to correct the wrong or unacceptable behaviour in public and at work."

- "Making prisoners to realise the wrongs they did and to acquire them with skills."

The phrase 'rehabilitation is the core business of DCS' or 'rehabilitation is at the centre of service delivery' is used frequently in speeches made by the DCS Management and in departmental documentation such as the Department of Correctional Services Strategic Plan (2013/2014-2016/2017:10) and the Annual Performance Plan (2016/2017:5). A few participants perceived rehabilitation as the **core business of DCS.** Such a perception is as follows:

- "Rehabilitation is our core business in DCS that must be handled through corrections, and human development in secured, safe and humane detention and therefore this has an impact on the role that DCS play in the Justice Cluster and the Social Sector Cluster of Integrated Governance."

Starting a new life or turning a new page is the essence of the views of officials mentioned below, concerning rehabilitation. A small group of participants viewed rehabilitation as a **new beginning,** by stating the following:

- "Rehabilitation is a place of new beginning."

- "To help inmates out of bad habits to a new beginning."

A few participants indicated that they regard rehabilitation in the DCS as training offenders to become self-employed in order to care for their families, or any form of help with addiction. There were individuals who perceived rehabilitation as a spiritual intervention, or reconciliation with the victim respectively.

Some individual participants shared a **negative perception** about rehabilitation in the DCS, such as:

- "It is not correctly implemented and wasn't thoroughly researched."

- "It's a mess because 98% of offenders taken to do courses, always come back to prison after some couple of months and they always steal at the prison."

- "Quite difficult indeed because of lack and scarcity of human resources and resources."

8.3.1.1.2   *The place of rehabilitation in DCS*

Most of the correctional official participants felt that **rehabilitation has a place** in the Department of Correctional Services. Their perceptions indicated that there is a source of hope for rehabilitation in the DCS and that officials are positive about the function and role of rehabilitation which is ultimately to cause an improvement in an offender's functioning. These views are confirmed through the following statements:

- "Rehabilitation in DCS can have a positive impact in a way that it reduces recidivism."

- "Major place as it is supposed to be at the centre of all the DCS programmes."

- "It has the greatest impact particularly to reach a point where an offender admits to his mistakes."

- "Very huge as we are dealing with humans thus concerted efforts should be employed to change them."

Some participants felt that there was no place for rehabilitation in the DCS. Information gathered in this regard indicate that officials are aware of rehabilitation and realise that it might even have positive consequences, but there are certain challenges that cause rehabilitation not to come to its full right and therefore their opinion supports the notion that there is no place for rehabilitation in the DCS. Their views are as follows:

- "I think DCS still has a long way to go in rehabilitating offenders, but I think they should focus on training officials on how to rehabilitate offenders."

- "It is not placed at the fore front of everything hence fewer offenders respond positively to the program."

- "At this moment rehab does not take place well because members still see offenders as someone that cannot change and I am talking of 'all' the members."

- "All programmes cannot be implemented because of personnel shortages, especially scarce skills."

- "It has an important place but it lacks correct fitting."

8.3.1.1.3   *Official's own contribution towards rehabilitation of offenders*

Even though there was a small group of participants who indicated that there is nothing that they could contribute towards the rehabilitation of offenders, the majority of the correctional officials who participated in this research study were of the opinion that they could contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders in one way or the other. A large group of participants stated that their contributions towards rehabilitation of offenders focused mostly on the **motivation** that they give to offenders to participate in programmes. They described themselves as fulfilling the role of motivator. Such views are listed as follows:

- "By having a one-on-one discussion with the inmates, encourage inmates to be involved in community work, also encourage juveniles to further their studies."

- "I will advice the offender to attend school, I will advice those who cannot write and read that they must attend and I will advice offenders who dropped out of school outside to go back to school here in the centre."

- "By motivation of offenders to participate in attending church sessions, sport and recreation."

As correctional officials daily deal with offenders and spend hours in their presence, it is valuable if the official enjoys personal well-being which comes across when he or she takes on the role of motivator when encouraging offenders to participate in programmes. Being an **example of good conduct** to offenders was raised by a large group of participants as their contribution to the rehabilitation of offenders. The official's behaviour and conduct are important to the success that he or she will have in rehabilitating offenders, because the latter regard the official as a role model (or not). If the official sets a negative example it will be difficult for offenders to follow him or her on the road to rehabilitation. Bad conduct can strip the official of integrity. They stated it as follows:

- "Most importantly being an example to offenders."

- "To be an example, to listen, always pay attention and give feedback."

- "Leading an exemplary life that offenders can model."

- "Pure role modeling of desired behaviour."

Another large group of participants believed that they contribute towards the rehabilitation of offenders by referring them to participate in **formal education,** assisting with the programmes, or assisting participating offenders. Formal education is presented in correctional centres nationally and in centres in the Bethal Management Area as well, despite the shortage of appointed qualified educationists. Offenders can follow the Adult Education and Training programme (AET) which consists of Level 1 to Level 4. Grade 12 is presented as well. The involvement indicated above confirm that participants regard formal education as an important part of the offender's rehabilitation. Their perceptions are presented as follows:

- "Motivating offenders to attend classes to be educated."

- "I can assist with adult school so that they can learn."

- "Advise them to register with whatever institutions."

Some participants shared the idea of contributing to the rehabilitation of offenders through the provision of different forms of **training**, such as job skills. These perceptions are an indication of the official's willingness to share information with offenders and to contribute to their rehabilitation by imparting knowledge to them. This manner of contribution is confirmed through the following statements:

- "Providing offenders with materials e.g. bricks with which to acquire skills and knowledge to help train prisoners on how to manage stocks and assets."

- "I can assist offenders to read and write, to change for the better, to voice out their problems, especially those who want to change."

- "Equip them with important techniques, technical skills, trade skills such as bricklaying, plastering, carpentry, painting, plumbing and roofing, thus cover those who are illiterate."

A small group of participants felt that they contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders by treating offenders in a **humane manner**, with dignity and respect. By merely treating and handling offenders in a humane and dignified manner is already contributing to rehabilitation,

according to the statements given below by the participants in this qualitative study. Humane treatment should form the basis of rehabilitation. Such views are presented below:

- "Treat offenders as human beings, respecting the rights of individuals, attend to their needs and development and education."

- "By showing them that we still love them no matter what. Treat them in a humane manner and show them that they still have a second chance in life."

- "Be kind to them and show them that the world outside is not as bad as they think, hopefully they will then also be kind to others."

- "To handle offenders humanly" as well as "Treat offenders with dignity."

Another small group of participants were of the opinion that they contributed to the rehabilitation of offenders by means of **their assistance in the offender's re-integration** into the community through, for example, assisting with employment after release. Participants' opinions give direction towards the offender's functioning after release and successful reintegration into the community. Assisting offenders to reintegrate successfully can furthermore have an impact on reducing recidivism. They stated their views in the following manner:

- "To involve the community and family with the offended ones."

- "We can try to stop objective controllers from buying 'nice to have' items and instead buy items to train prisoners in for example making candles, starting a 'shop in a box', hair cutting on pavements and growing seedlings."

The **identification and handling of an offender's problems** during daily contact with them, together with the relevant referral in order to address his needs was also described by a small number of participants as their contribution towards the rehabilitation of offenders. The statements below made by participants reveal that they are aware that offenders do have needs that should be attended to and if it seems that the participant cannot handle the matter him/herself, it will be referred to the relevant section. Examples of such views are, amongst others:

- "I can contribute to rehabilitation of offenders by playing my role of identifying their individual needs and refer such an offender to the relevant section to help an offender to become a law-abiding citizen."

- "By referring offenders to the relevant programme according to his need…"

- "I think by communication or interaction with offenders – understanding their minds or thoughts."

- "Identify their needs, ensure that attention is given to their needs."

Rendering counselling to offenders was presented as the contribution made by a small group of participants. Most correctional officials are not trained as counsellors, but it is clear from the perspectives below that officials do act in counselling capacities from time to time in order to contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders. They explained it as follows:

- "Encourage offenders to think positive all the time and ensure offenders that a crime free life is better than living a crime driven life."

- "Health education about their life styles. I teach them about the dangers of drug abuse and the importance of taking their treatment correctly."

Instilling values, norms and discipline into offenders was the contribution made to rehabilitation by a small group of participants. Discipline seems to be considered part of the rehabilitation process, gathered from the statements below made by participants concerning their contribution towards the rehabilitation of offenders. It is interesting that the participants mentioned that discipline started with the official and was then carried over to the offender.

- "Be more disciplined as an officer to promote some discipline to offenders – increase security to lessen any articles that are illegal."

- "I can revive discipline and respect within an individual."

A few individuals were of the opinion that they contribute towards the rehabilitation of offenders by referring them to **external role players** where their needs were met. Another group of individuals reminded offenders of **their own responsibility** for their own rehabilitation. Community involvement in corrections is always beneficial, since rehabilitation is also a societal

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responsibility. The offender originated from the family system, which is part of the community system, where he needs to return to again after release. Community involvement is definitely contributing towards the rehabilitation of offenders, as stated by the participant above. Rehabilitation is a personal choice which cannot be forced on an offender, which probably motivated the participant above to indicate that the offender should take responsibility for his own rehabilitation. This is explained as follows:

- "Encourage and nurture skills that was not observed and give back moral by inviting capable people (stakeholders) from outside."

- "Learn to be responsible, realisation of flaws and stop blaming others."

Some individuals felt that they contribute towards rehabilitation by ensuring the **development of officials,** either by training or by assisting them to first undergo personal rehabilitation themselves.

- "Get qualified people for the job."

- "By equipping staff with necessary skills required."

These perceptions give the impression that officials are not equipped sufficiently to do the task at hand, which is the rehabilitation of offenders. There seems to be a need for officials to be trained.

8.3.1.1.4   *Skills and tools needed by officials to improve rehabilitation*

Participants were requested to list the skills and tools that they need to improve the rehabilitation of offenders, which they indicated mostly in key terms. Some participants listed a number of needs whereas others focused on one need only. These needs will therefore be presented in this section, starting from the highest priority need to the need least mentioned.

The majority of the participants shared their views in this regard when they indicated that **courses** should be made available to correctional officials, who should also be **trained and multi-skilled** as well as **specialised** officials. Concerning courses, officials should be provided with the opportunity to attend courses that include subjects such as Psychology, Offending behaviour, Rehabilitation, Life-skills, Anger Management, skills related to Management, Finance, Law, Social Work, Primary Health Care and Conflict Management. Participants

indicated that they need to be enabled to handle offenders by acting and responding to them in the correct manner. This need that participants registered revealed their need for professionalism. Participants who mostly have a grade 12 qualification need specialised training in order to serve their clients in a knowledgeable and professional manner.

Trained and multi-skilled correctional officials who are willing to learn – officials with a clear understanding of DCS policies concerning rehabilitation and case management are required to do the work. The registration of this need gives the impression that the DCS currently has officials who are unfamiliar with DCS policies concerning rehabilitation and case management – in other words, appointed officials who do not know how to do the work that is expected of them.

The need for more personnel, specifically specialised officials such as artisans and professional correctional officials like nurses, social workers, educationists and chaplains, was registered by a number of participants. These specialised officials would bring expertise to the table that would contribute to the professional handling and treatment of offenders.

Another large group of participants stated that **communication skills** are needed specifically by Unit Managers, Security officials and Administrative officials – basically, better communication between the different sections in a correctional centre. Open communication lines can lead to improved problem-solving amongst colleagues, it can increase work flow, and result in openness and transparency.

A dire need for **equipment, materials and resources** (e.g. computers, medicines) was registered by a group of participants when indicating what they needed to be able to improve the rehabilitation of offenders in their correctional centres.

Modern facilities with well-established **infrastructure** that caters for rehabilitation was reflected by a group of participants as one of their needs which is required to improve the rehabilitation of offenders. Most centres in the Bethal Management Area were built many years ago, with an infrastructure that leaned towards the punitive purpose of incarceration with no attention given to the possibility of rehabilitation. The current situation is that centres have limited office space – insufficient office accommodation for professional correctional officials, a lack of space for running programmes, insufficient accommodation for formal education that requires space for teaching facilities. These are only a few challenges brought by the infrastructure of the correctional centres.

A few participants indicated that they have a need to be **trained in vocational skills** such as carpentry, plumbing, agriculture, art and coaching skills in order to train offenders and ultimately equip them with job skills that can assist offenders with employment after release.

There were smaller groups of participants who registered further needs of skills and tools which are in order of relevance as follows: Funding for projects, together with financial and logistical management skills; Personnel issues such as reviewed salaries, shift patterns, support and counselling to be made available to officials; Sport and recreation facilities and events for correctional officials; The involvement of external stakeholders and community members in the reintegration of the offender back into society; Training on unit management; Cooperation amongst officials in DCS; Language barrier – interpreters not always available; and a sound discipline system is needed that officials can implement with reference to offenders.

Comments shared by individuals were that: There is a language barrier between some officials and offenders; Officials need a passion for teaching and motivating offenders; Officials need to be committed, with a positive attitude towards rehabilitation; Shift pattern – shifts exceeding eight hours are too long for some officials; and official / offender ratio is not balanced, causing security problems.

There was however, a small group of participants who indicated that they do not need any tools or skills to improve rehabilitation in their centres.

8.3.1.1.5   *The official as rehabilitator*

An overwhelming number of participants in this study stated that they perceived themselves as **rehabilitators** by means of their approach to offenders, coupled with the **encouragement** and advice that they share with them. Confirmation of such views are as follows:

- "My approach and interaction ability with people ensure that I am in the position to rehabilitate people."

- "Because of my contributions e.g. encouraging offenders to undergo certain programmes relevant to their crimes."

- "I constantly motivate offenders to take part in rehabilitation programmes."

- "Yes, because I regard offenders as human beings, they are part of our lives. I respect them. Our centres are not dumping areas. I keep on motivating and encouraging them to stay away from crime because crime does not pay."

- "Because I interact with inmates on daily basis to let them change their bad attitude."

Other participants felt that they can be perceived as rehabilitators because of the **good example** they set and their healthy work ethics.

- "By setting a good example of responsibility, trustworthiness and good work ethics."

- "Continuously setting an example through my own behaviour and working with offenders through programmes."

- "As I believe that each and every one of us do come into contact with the offender in either way. As we come into contact with them we need to instill the culture of being responsible and being disciplined."

The **variety of skills and education** obtained by some participants lead them to believe that they are rehabilitators of offenders, as they confirmed with the following statements:

- "I have developed myself about rehabilitation processes. I have acquired important skills and knowledge of rehabilitation through studying."

- "A social worker is bound by the nature of his/her work and services to render a caring, educative, supportive role towards rehabilitation of offenders. It is not optional but a compulsory role – directly and indirectly."

- "I make sure that the offenders that are entrusted to my care (learners) are getting the best education."

- "With my skills and expertise that I have gained both educationally and in life I can contribute towards their rehabilitation."

- "I am an intellectual who understand that change in behaviour is caused by psychological elements."

There was a smaller group of participants who had the perception that their **involvement in rehabilitation programmes** presented to offenders resulted in their becoming rehabilitators. These perceptions are presented as follows:

- "I render rehabilitation programmes on a daily basis to offenders."

- "I am always in the centre of all religious, facilitating and coordinating our local pastor with our centre."

As can be expected from such a study there was a small group of participants who were of the opinion that they were **not rehabilitators.** Though these negative views are the minority, it creates a concern because it causes a division amongst officials and is in direct opposition to the rehabilitation strategy that sees each official as a rehabilitator. These responses confirm that each official is, in actual fact not a rehabilitator; participants motivated their responses through the following statements:

- "Because the system on its own is not conducive for rehabilitation."

- "I am too sensitive for other's problems."

- "No specific training received and insufficient salary."

- "How can you rehabilitate offenders when members are still facing problems with the Department of Correctional Services."

- "No because I do not have all the skills to fully help them with social problems and addictive problems."

- "No, but I would like to be of some help. Maybe with the help of a course."

8.3.1.1.6   *Views on multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking, relapse prevention after release*

Findings concerning multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention will be presented in this section.

Multi-disciplinary cooperation

The participants were asked how they perceived the implementation of multi-disciplinary cooperation in their centres to be. The majority of the participants either did not know what the term multi-disciplinary meant, confused it with offender discipline, responded with wrong answers or responded by stating directly that it was not working in their centres.

Some of the correctional official participants involved in this qualitative study that was done in the DCS did not know the term and could not respond, whilst others responded with irrelevant answers that indicated that they in fact were not familiar with the term multi-disciplinary cooperation. Another group of participants confused multi-disciplinary cooperation with offender discipline and responded along those lines – responses that were not in accordance with the true meaning of the term. The largest group of participants indicated directly that it was not functional in their centres. The following views from participants support the above findings:

- "I do not know the concept Multi-Disciplinary Cooperation and what it's all about."

- "It is not existing, everyone is operating in his/her little corner."

- "It is not working because of a great shortage of staff and lack of training."

- "We need improvements in working relationships."

- "The offender's discipline is 50/50."

A few participants were familiar with multi-disciplinary cooperation and were able to identify reasons why it is not successfully implemented. They were positive that it could work, if some circumstances changed. Examples of this point of view are as follows:

- "Co-operation is high, the hick-up is that some are not available e.g. psychologists."

- "That's where the problem lies because other professionals are not available e.g. social workers, psychologists.

- "The multi-disciplinary cooperation works if all the parties are working together, not in silos."

- "Cooperation between stakeholders can work but trusting each other should be in place."

Some participants were familiar with multi-disciplinary cooperation and could present their perspectives in the following manner:

- "By working together with the social workers, priests from various denominations, teachers, CMC, and Heads of sections where relevant offenders are under their supervision."

- "Personnel from the various disciplines work together as a team and it is one of the primary principles of unit management."

It is clear from the above perceptions that multi-disciplinary cooperation is not known or implemented in the Bethal Management Area. Views were also raised by participants that there are challenges that cause multi-disciplinary cooperation to be unsuccessful. Successful multi-disciplinary cooperation is where different role players in the centre meet and discuss offender cases, exchange expertise and provide information on a platform where decisions have to be taken about the offender's progress and further rehabilitation. In instances where there is no multi-disciplinary cooperation, the rehabilitation process of an offender can be affected negatively.

Networking

Participants were requested to indicate their involvement in networking between the DCS and community organisations if it was applicable to their posts; it was found that most of the participants indicated that networking was not part of their posts and those who were involved in networking mentioned that they attended meetings and communicated with external organisations such as sister departments, NGOs, and faith based organisations. Examples of such networking are set in the following statements:

- "I have organised different events within the centre whereby media would be always invited to inform the community what is happening inside – have a vibrant relationship with local schools, hospitals, municipality etc."

- "Community organisations particularly churches help DCS with the spiritual care of offenders and others, e.g. Education and Health."

- "Networking with Department of Health, Provincial hospitals, Wellness clinics, NGOs."

- "We do planning together with other external departments for projects e.g. DSD."

Small groups of participants mentioned respectively that the DCS networked with external spiritual care providers and that society has a responsibility towards the DCS. Such perceptions are presented as follows:

- "Invite role players to render church services. I play a role in the moral regeneration movement."

- "I represent and market the services of the Department. Clarify and clear out any misunderstandings. Basically, I encourage involvement of all in rehabilitation. Rehabilitation is a societal responsibility."

Another small group of participants were of the opinion that networking assisted with the preparation of offender reintegration after release, based on the following view:

- "To facilitate the relationship between the offender, the community and the victims to come together in unity and make peace with one another."

Individuals stated that networking in DCS involves the invitation of sports teams to participate in sports events at the centre, inviting motivational speakers to address officials and offenders, the participation of officials in community projects and lastly, the invitation of volunteers to render services in DCS. Statements from participants are as follows:

- "We are together with the community playing soccer."

- "Community and DCS are working together through services rendered by a priest, playing soccer with outside community and inviting motivational speakers."

- "Actively involved in Community Policing Forum."

There was a small group of participants who felt that networking in the DCS was ineffective and there was an even smaller group of participants who were unfamiliar with the term networking and therefore gave irrelevant responses. One example is as follows:

- "Very poor. Community do not know how DCS operates and do not know how rehabilitation works."

Relapse prevention

The researcher enquired from participants what relapse prevention, according to their knowledge, was available that could assist offenders after release. Though the majority of participants were aware of some form of relapse prevention, there was a large group of the participants in this research study who indicated that they were not aware of any relapse prevention strategies for offenders, or that the programmes they know of were ineffective. Though most of the responses were a brief "I don't know" the following statement captures the view in more detail:

- "I do not know any because most of the offenders come back to the institution because they do not have resources to use as a start of their businesses."

Those participants who were aware of relapse prevention programmes for offenders focused mainly on social work programmes that are presented either by the social workers stationed at the centres or at the community corrections offices, as revealed in the following perceptions:

- "DCS social workers, integration officials to work together with other departments and NGOs as well as the family of the offender."

- "The social worker at Community Corrections."

A group of participants were aware of employment assistance for parolees and a smaller group thought that parole conditions served as relapse prevention. The involvement of external stakeholders and community structures such as the Community Reintegration Forum was mentioned by a small group of twelve participants as part of relapse prevention. These findings are summarised in the participants' views expressed below:

- "Forward names of those who have acquired skills to the Department of Labour and also refer them to Agricultural organisations."

- "Giving offenders the skill to get a job or to be their own boss."

- "By providing courses like welding, bricklaying, catering."

- "Offenders are being trained in different fields like Agriculture, Electrician and Plumber."

- "To be involved in Community programmes e.g. HIV, TB and to be employed with skills they obtained in a correctional centre."

- "Services by Community Corrections which offender are released to under correctional supervision."

Individuals mentioned the pre-release programme, support groups, the family as support system, and NICRO as relapse prevention strategies.

The above statements confirm that multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention strategies are either unknown or not implemented in the Bethal Management Area, which raises a concern because these function as tools of rehabilitation.

The following view of a participant summarises the situation with reference to rehabilitation in the DCS as follows:

- "The paper work is in order but there are no proper structure to ensure that rehabilitation is one at a professional level."

8.4   Unit management

In this section focus is on the participants' views on unit management, the contribution that unit management makes towards the rehabilitation of offenders, what is needed for unit management to be successful, the effectiveness of unit management in DCS and the participant' level of job satisfaction in their present posts.

8.4.1 *Understanding of unit management*

Themes emerged from data per a pre-determined question and it was revealed that positive feedback was in the minority group. However, a large number of participants in the minority

group had a positive feeling about dividing sections in correctional centres into more manageable units. The rehabilitation value of unit management was mentioned by some of participants, which conveyed their positive view of unit management. These perspectives are revealed by the following statements from participants:

- "It is a management process that is working well so far in terms of having to manage a smaller number of offenders in a unit instead of a larger number that gives problems to successful rehabilitation."

- "It is an approach to inmates and correctional centre management designed to improve control and it makes the correctional centre population into smaller groups."

- "Unit management makes administration in the centre easier as centres are broken down into units."

- "Unit management is an excellent tool for day to day running of rehabilitation programmes in the facilities."

- "To observe the changing behaviour of offenders, to discourage bad ones and to encourage good ones."

- "It organise the whole process of offender rehabilitation path."

- "Good interpersonal communication with members and inmates."

Individuals mentioned that unit management could reduce stress for officials; it could secure the promotion of officials and lastly, could cause the DCS to become a better place to work at.

The majority of participants who had negative views on unit management mostly stated that unit management could not be implemented due to a shortage of human resources – there were not enough officials for the practical implementation of unit management in correctional centres. Their perceptions are expressed below:

- "It is a brilliant concept; however, it needs more training of officials working in units. It needs more manpower to be allocated into units."

- "The Government must provide the centres with the professionals – enough officials and enough courses which will cater for each offender even those who are not educated."
- "Unit management is not fully functional due to the lack of knowledge to the DCS officials and the trainings are too short to stand against unit management."

- "Training is needed in order for officials to understand."

A large group of participants indicated that unit management was not fully implemented and that it actually was a poor concept because of circumstances and a lack of resources. Another group mentioned that unit management sounded wonderful on paper, but the implementation part was not practical. The lack of infrastructure was pointed out by a number of participants as their reason for having a negative view of unit management. Though unit management is described in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], 2005) as the vehicle to rehabilitation it is apparent from the abovementioned perceptions of participants that unit management was not functioning effectively in correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area. With unit management not being in place, rehabilitation was therefore also not effective. These views are conveyed below:

- "In some correctional centres I don't think it works as the officials are not fully trained or don't go on training about unit management and they just don't care."

- "Since it was introduced I never saw where it is fully functional and being conducted in a proper manner following the whole cycle."

- "The idea is good but it needs to be broadened to the lower ranks by organising trainings for both lower ranks and the unit managers because what was implemented from the Apartheid regime is still alive and we must erase that first."

- "It is just a white elephant."

- "I think it is a good idea but not practiced correctly. I see the biggest challenge is the facilities that are used currently."

- "It is not correctly implemented. There is not enough officials and trained officials. The structure is not condusive."

There were individuals who had a negative view of unit management because they stated that the focus in the DCS was on security only and therefore it could not be successful.

A group of participants indicated that they did not know what unit management was, or their responses were irrelevant, which lead the researcher to conclude that they did not understand unit management clearly. The statement below is a case in point:

- "I know nothing about unit management."

8.4.2 *Unit management's contribution to rehabilitation of offenders*

Participants were requested to state how they thought unit management could contribute to the rehabilitation of offenders. The majority of participants had positive responses, with many of them focusing on the value of unit management in terms of the individual attention that could be given to an offender. Unit management allows for a correctional centre to be divided into smaller, **more manageable units**, which means that a correctional official deals with a more manageable number of offenders instead of the entire section. The smaller number of offenders that one official is responsible for gives him/her more time to spend with an offender. This linked up with the focus of the second largest group of participants, who emphasised the importance of early detection of an **offender's needs**, in order to address them in good time. Perceptions given by participants respectively, are presented below:

- "Unit management deals with a low number of offenders in a unit in order to fully place rehabilitation as a core aspect in the incarceration of an offender instead of just a mere safe custody."

- "Every offender is allocated to the case officer which makes it easy for the offender to undergo programmes."

- "Holistic approach to offenders, and case officers within different units to know and understand the needs of offenders."

- "I can ensure that every offender's needs are addressed."

- "If the unit manager knows the needs of his inmates he provides relevant skills and programmes."

A group of participants were of the opinion that unit management contributed to the rehabilitation of offenders because **release preparation** is done with offenders through programmes that could assist them with successful reintegration into the community. An example of such a view is stated as follows:

- "To have a positive way when the offenders are placed out and to change the bad behaviour that the offender had before he/she was sentenced."

Some participants indicated that unit management contributed to the rehabilitation of offenders through **enforcing offender discipline** and by attending to the **correctional sentence plan** of an offender in his case file, as well as the structured day programme. Such perceptions are summarised below:

- "It can help with discipline of offenders, good behaviour, and the programmes will also play a good role."

- "By disciplining them and allowing members also to put some discipline if needed."

- "Offenders participate in the daily structured programmes like going to school and doing some art work."

- "Ensure that all offenders attend the programmes according to the case file."

- "By appointing officials who thoroughly monitor offenders behaviour so that the case files can be a true reflection of the offender's progress made."

It was furthermore found in this study that some participants were of the opinion that unit management did not contribute to rehabilitation of offenders, as revealed in the following statements:

- "It can contribute, maybe if it can go in line with the rehabilitation path but currently the system is yet not there."

- "It does not have an impact in DCS."

8.4.3   *What unit management needs in order to be successful*

A question was posed to the participants on what they thought was needed for unit management to be implemented successfully in their units; an overwhelming group of participants referred to officials, firstly with reference to their appointment and secondly to their training. The majority referred to the need for **more officials to be appointed** and added that these newly appointed officials should be competent, willing, optimistic and motivated. The second group indicated that currently employed **officials should be properly trained** to become experts in the field of unit management. These views are evident in the following statements:

- "Commitment by the centre management. Access to all officials and they should pledge their commitment as well. Officials should develop a sense of responsibility and accountability. Commitment is the key word."

- "We need more officials to address the ratio. We need specialists in development of offenders. Our correctional structure should be changed for housing units. We need a unit manager in each section."

- "Positive dedicated officials and resources. Enough space in correctional centres to separate offenders according to their offences."

- "They need thoroughly training so that they must teach and give offenders good advice or they must attend workshops."

- "Re-training of members must take place."

- "Well trained officials, good coordination of activities and close supervision of activities pertaining to unit management."

A large group of participants mentioned the **facilities and infrastructure** within the correctional centres, emphasising that these should be improved and developed so as to be compatible with unit management. Such opinions are evident in the statements below:

- "Unfortunately it's something that is too farfetched – the buildings. We are still utilising the structure which was designed for locking….feeding….locking."

- "Resources, enough personnel and suitable place where implementation can take place."

- "Enough correctional officials as well as modernised units to allow rehabilitation to take place easily."

- "Improvement of structure to be in line with the challenges of implementing unit management"

Two smaller groups of participants respectively stated that **more professional personnel** for example social workers, educationists and nurses needed to be appointed and **cooperation** between officials, offenders and the community should be established in order for unit management to be implemented successfully. The views of these two groups are reflected below:

- "In our centre we need social workers, educationists, social reintegration officials and enough staff that will ensure that offenders are attending these programmes."

- "Enough professionals e.g. social workers, teachers."

- "Team work of the official with unit manager. Must have a same goal in the unit."

- "Involvement of all stakeholders to play their role in assisting offenders."

- "All the role players including CAO, Case Management Committee (CMC) Secretary, CIO etc."

A small group of participants felt that **more programmes** needed to be presented before unit management could be implemented successfully.

- "More officials, better accommodation for offenders, better work facilities for members, equipment to do the work, more social workers, nurses, teachers, skills programmes and a lot more."

- "Enough resources and life-skills programmes."

- "Courses for officials and programmes for offenders."

The rest of the participants broadly shared their views on what was needed for unit management to be implemented successfully. These views from the minority are listed below:

- Correct placement of members in posts

- Communication – having meetings to resolve issues

- Discipline

- The termination of the continuous reshuffling of officials

- Dispensation of medicine in the units

- Decentralisation of powers to Heads of units

- Treat offenders as individuals – Time and attention should be given to offenders

- Policies must be drafted according to our own situation in South Africa, not according to the American or Canadian model since we are different from them.

- Focus on education and more schools

- Create a balance between rehabilitation and security

- Create an addiction centre to assist offenders to overcome addictions

- Appoint more spiritual care officials

- More recreational facilities for offenders

- Proper supervision of the unit management process

- Members must be treated equally.

The main factors that should be in place according to the perceptions of the participants above before unit management could be effective in the DCS are the appointment of more officials, training of officials, improved infrastructure and prison design, appointment of professional personnel, cooperation between officials, managers and the community as well as making more programmes available to offenders.

8.4.4   *Effectiveness of unit management in DCS*

Participants in the study were asked if they perceived unit management as being effective in the DCS and they had to motivate their responses. An overwhelming number of participants indicated that unit management was not effective in the DCS with the minority stating that it was effective. Participants gave a number of motivations for their responses of which some were broad and varied. The researcher was able to identify motivations that were prevalent; these will be discussed briefly. The broad motivations that were mentioned by a minor number of participants will be listed since they are relevant to the explanations concerning the ineffectiveness of unit management.

Those participants who felt that unit management was ineffective explained that there was, firstly, a **shortage of officials** and secondly, a need for **officials to be trained;** thirdly, they were of the opinion that **officials were not committed** to unit management and were generally demotivated. These motivations are evident in the following statements:

- "Shortage of staff, more work and difficulties in improving working conditions."

- "The issue of proper facilities and adequate staff is [are] still lacking."

- "DCS officials especially those trained before 1996 are still having that knowledge of militarism and they are not easily trained. Courses of unit management are so short, e.g. one week while in other countries it takes a long time."

- "As a unit manager with people not understanding the ideology, you won't succeed and the problem is that officials are still militarised mentally."

- "In other correctional centres it is not functional and most officials are not aware what does it entail. We do not have enough educationists."

- "Cause in the smaller correctional centres the Head Correctional Centre (HCC) and unit managers are ignorant and they don't practice unit management."

- "Officials don't take part to assist and they care about themselves. They mind their own business and not giving advice to others. They don't have vision."

- "The don't care attitude of officials toward management and vice versa is observed by offenders in a negative manner and this results in a good concept of unit management to become useless and a waste of money."

The researcher found that there was a group of participants who explained that the **infrastructure** of the correctional centres cause unit management to be ineffective, as well as the **shortage of professional staff** such as psychologists, social workers, educationists and nurses. Participants' views are confirmed in their statements below:

- "The structure is not fully implemented in the centres to ensure that every unit is managed effectively."

- "Currently not all centres are converted into the ideal area for unit management and the shortage of staff hampers the effectiveness of unit management."

- "There is a big shortage of social workers and officials are not qualified to handle serious issues of offenders"

- "For unit management to be effective it needs new design of structures/buildings, enough personnel and professionals, enough resources like workshops to give offenders the acquired skills."

- "It is good on paper in practical I cannot see how it can happen without real religious workers, social workers and members that care for offenders and their families who are in the communities outside."

Views from the minority who broadly explained the ineffectiveness of unit management by making the following points are presented as follows:

- Lack of resources e.g. finances
- Unit management is not implemented yet
- Unit management is not implemented correctly
- Recidivism
- Lack of discipline amongst offenders
- Militarised or negative attitudes of officials
- Frequent reshuffling of officials to posts where they lack the relevant knowledge
- Unit management is not monitored by management
- All necessary committees are not in place
- Unaware of the reason for the ineffectiveness of unit management
- Relationship problems between management and officials
- Gangsterism amongst offenders that lead to possession of unauthorised articles and bad behaviour
- Offenders need education
- Relevant personnel to work with unit management is not appointed, e.g. Case Administration Official (CAO)
- Shortage of skill courses for offenders
- Many loopholes in the unit management system

- Insufficient time spent with offenders

The ineffectiveness of unit management can be summarised in the following observation made by one of the participants: "Since 1996 when it was implemented it is not working."

Participants from the minority group explained that unit management was effective, firstly because of **offender development**, secondly, the **individual treatment** that offenders receive and thirdly, the **handling of offenders' problems** that takes place in their centres. These convictions are reflected in participants' statements below:

- "Because more and more offenders get involved in programmes, they are really assisted by those programmes."

- "It has to do with ORP and where each and every offender wishes to change ways of doing things."

- "It helps to change the behaviour of offenders though the percentage is still very low."

- "It is effective because the ORP is implemented. Some offenders who are parolees are doing very well outside."

- "Offenders do get enough attention in terms of programmes and assessments."

- "There is a profile of each offender's needs and programmes, Progress can be monitored."

Individual views of the minority participants on the effectiveness of unit management in their centres are listed as follows:

- No escapes
- Security and rehabilitation cooperate well
- Apart from the shortage of officials all is under control
- DCS shifted from imprisonment to rehabilitation
- All case file administration has been done
- Gangsterism is managed
- Unit management and rehabilitation work hand in hand

- Increased programme attendance by offenders
- Progress made by offenders can be monitored
- Offender Rehabilitation Path (ORP) is implemented
- Service delivery is decentralised

Participants' perception concerning the effectiveness of unit management can be summarised in the statement made by one participant –

- "Unit management is effective but not 100% it can be 50%. Fewer escapes are happening and some offenders are changing their behaviour."

Or by the view of the following participant:

- "No, because at our centre we only know the name unit management, staff is not yet trained about it and we have shortage of personnel and our personnel is demotivated."

8.4.5 *Job satisfaction in present post*

Participants' satisfaction with their present post was determined and it was found that the majority were satisfied with their present post. The majority further indicated their level of job satisfaction as mostly satisfied. Most of the participants indicated that they were satisfied with the present post that they occupied, while the minority disclosed that they were dissatisfied with their present post placement. A few individuals declined to respond to the question.

It was found that even though there was a group that experienced full job satisfaction, there were also groups of participants who were uncertain, mostly dissatisfied and not at all satisfied in their present posts. The concern would be with the latter group, since it is expected of them to perform in a post where they are not satisfied and their dissatisfaction might lead to poor work performance in their sections, which can ultimately influence the success of unit management and rehabilitation of offenders. Officials are aware that they are to rehabilitate offenders but they are not sure about the "how to" part. They attempt to act by doing something elementary such as referring or motivating, but it is clear that they do not own the role of the rehabilitator. Though the majority of officials are happily placed in their present posts there are others, albeit the minority, who are dissatisfied with their placement in their present posts. This latter group cause concern because as rehabilitators they should reflect optimism and set a good example to

offenders. Being unhappy with the placement can cause these officials to become negative, with the pessimism eventually revealed in the daily contact with offenders and colleagues.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS/SUGGESTIONS TO DCS CONCERNING REHABILITATION AND UNIT MANAGEMENT

Two sub-themes emerged from the findings namely suggestions concerning rehabilitation and suggestions in relation to unit management.

8.5.1 *Suggestions concerning rehabilitation*

Findings under the sub-theme suggestions/recommendations to the DCS concerning the rehabilitation of offenders established that participants felt strongly that **officials needed to be trained** specifically on rehabilitation and unit management. The second strong notion held by participants was that **offenders should receive more vocational training**. It implies that both officials and offenders are in need of training – officials need to be trained to fulfill their rehabilitation duties and offenders need training in skills which would assist with their development and reintegration into the community. Examples of such views by participants are as follows:

- "Training should be prioritised for officials in order to perform as expected."

- "First train officials about rehabilitation and how can they bring that change about. Don't take negative officials to give programmes to offenders."

- "Training is needed since officials were trained long time ago; they still have got that mentality of military."

- "Officials, especially case officers to be fully trained in handling case management so that it will be easy to assist offenders."

- "More workshops for offenders that need physical ability such as car mechanics, art and promoting aspects such as painting and wood carving."

- "Encourage all offenders to use this chance to upgrade their school qualification in order to be employable on placement."

- "The reformation of offenders and the implementation of skills e.g. use of computers, school attendance, sports participation and religion."

- "Learning offenders some creative skills e.g. beading, basic needlework, making items with waste material – many examples on Google or Facebook."

The DCS should improve and customise the **infrastructure** in correctional centres, was the next recommendation that participants made to the DCS with regard to improving the rehabilitation of offenders. This was followed by the appointment of **skilled and professional officials** for example nurses, psychologists, EAP practitioners, social workers and educationists, as well as **full post establishment** – officials should be appointed until there is sufficient personnel to implement rehabilitation. These participants' views are quoted below:

- "New prisons must be build to accommodate rehabilitation. More staff must still be hired and professionals like social workers, psychologists, teachers etc."

- "Improve correctional facilities. Effective training of officials and better remuneration/compensation for officials."

- "We need more trained officials, a better centre and facilities as well as more training of offenders (workshops)."

- "Train officials to assist in educating offenders. Employ educationists and motivate offenders to understand the importance of a sentence plan."

- "More specialists e.g. educators, artisans must be employed in DCS."

- "DCS must increase the number of the multi-disciplinary team (specialists), e.g. doctors, nurses, psychologists, social workers, physiotherapists etc."

- "Additional of members in security because there is a huge shortage of officials."

- "Appoint more officials, build new centres that cater for rehabilitation and train existing officials."

A small group of participants suggested that rehabilitation should be **marketed** to a greater extent, with offenders and officials being motivated to participate in it, as is evident in the following statements:

- "All members must be made aware that they are rehabilitators and must be professional."
- "Policy makers must make sure that they don't put the cart before the horse. Rehabilitation needs to be marketed before it can be implemented."

The rest of the suggestions/recommendations made by the minority participants are listed in order of the frequency of occurrence, from high to low:

- DCS should have sufficient resources in place – improved budgeting
- Officials generally have a low morale and should be motivated by DCS
- DCS should care for the officials in terms of better compensation and danger allowance
- More officials should be placed in permanent posts
- Officials should be interested in the offender as a person and spend more time addressing offender complaints
- Improved relationship between management and officials – leadership should be respected
- Focus should be on discipline and self-discipline
- Completion of sentence plans for offenders that will guide their rehabilitation from the onset of the sentence
- DCS should focus on improved service delivery
- Offender's privileges should be minimised so that behavioural change can take place
- DCS should provide starter equipment for offenders who passed vocational training in order to assist them in starting their own business after release
- Community involvement through reaching out projects where offenders are involved in
- Ensure that offenders are sincere when attending programmes– that it is for rehabilitation and not to please the Correctional Supervision and Parole Board (CSPB)
- Corruption and assisting offenders smuggling must be rooted out
- Improve inmate support systems
- Revise the parole system – currently parole is given too easily to offenders.

8.5.2 *Suggestions concerning unit management*

Findings made under the sub-theme of suggestions/recommendations to improve unit management in correctional centres indicated that an overwhelming number of participants agreed that the DCS should identify permanent officials and train them to become experts in the scope of their duties – **competent, trained officials** that would provide the people power required. Relevant views from participants are reflected below:

- "Recruiting potential officials (candidates) based on their competence rather than just filling the vacant posts."

- "Unit managers that are focused and have the same ideas as the Department will make the workload lesser."

- "Proper training, competent manpower [sic] and positive monitoring by management will improve unit management."

- "Correctional officials to be trained and developed in the unit management system."

- "I suggest that enough officials must be made available so that each and every official should be allocated with a number of offenders."

Two groups of participants respectively felt strongly about the restructuring of the **infrastructure** inside correctional facilities that needs to be done in order to improve unit management, as well as the **well-being of correctional officials** that should be a focus point for the DCS in the sense of development, incentives, providing opportunities and compensation. These views are reflected in the following statements of participants.

- "I suggest that our Department build suitable structures before implementing."

- "The structure does not allow the ORP to be implemented effectively."

- "Restructuring of the units to increase access. Increase in post establishment."

- "Members themselves need the existence of the most crucial structure which is the Employee Assistance Programme (EAP)."

- "More funding is needed – improve salaries of members."

- "Give members more money in their salaries because their responsibility is more heavy now."

- "Training, because even now if you can ask what are the duties of the Unit Manager I don't know but they are out there giving instructions."

- "Re-training and or vigorous training of the current staff on unit management."

- "Make sure members are continuously trained and give them examples on what is expected of them and with inspections motivate and give recognition for work well done."

The remainder of the suggestions/recommendations made by individual participants will be listed in order of the frequency of occurrence, from high to low:

- Sufficient resources
- Filling of vacant posts of professional correctional officials
- Identify all the role players and different posts in unit management such as unit managers, case management supervisors (CMS) and case administrative official (CAO)
- Programme involvement of offenders particularly in formal education
- Monitoring of unit management by management
- Officials should care more about offenders and communicate regularly
- Vocational training for offenders – skills development
- Revisit departmental policies and implement them accordingly
- Officials should strive for unity – one goal
- Support/encouragement and recognition of officials in their daily duties
- Communication between management and officials
- Change policies to be suitable for the South African community which should be a true reflection of the people of the country
- Minimise the variety of posts in order to have effective unit management
- Improved facilities, equipment and resources for officials to work in
- Implement unit management by ensuring that case files are opened for offenders
- Restrict physical force to offenders

- Involve the community in unit management

When considering recommendations with regard to both rehabilitation and unit management, it was found that the suggestions made by participants were similar in that they focused mostly on the shortage of officials, particularly the need to appoint competent officials; the training for both offenders and officials, reorganising the infrastructure and design of correctional centres that are not conducive to either rehabilitation or unit management taking place, the appointment of professional staff and the well-being of correctional officials.

8.6   SUMMARY

In this chapter, the findings made in the qualitative primary– and secondary study done with correctional and professional correctional officials in the Bethal Management Area through interviews guided by a semi-structured interview schedule were presented. The presentation was divided into three sections. In the first two sections the biographical and empirical data were presented whereas the third section focused on identified themes that were supported by statements from participants.

The following Chapter 9 focuses on an integrated discussion of the empirical findings according to common themes that emerged from the quantitative and qualitative studies.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

9.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 discussed the findings of the quantitative study with sentenced offenders. Chapter 8 presented the findings of the qualitative study with correctional and professional correctional officials. This chapter discusses the findings of the study in an integrated manner according to key themes that emerged from the core findings as presented in the respective chapters. The chapter is concluded by a summary. Whilst analysing the data as prescribed by the convergent parallel mixed methods and concurrent embedded mixed methods research designs (see Chapter 6 Section 6.4) specific themes were identified that lead to the development of key findings.

9.2   DISCUSSION OF THE THEMES

The research question of this study focused on how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective. Eight common themes were identified from the empirical findings in response to the research question, which are reflected in Table 9.1 below. The findings are substantiated by literature and contextualised within the theoretical framework of the study.

Table 9.1 Common themes identified from the empirical findings

THEME	DESCRIPTION
Theme 1	Profile of sentenced offenders as the client system in DCS
Theme 2	Profile of correctional and professional correctional officials who function as the rehabilitators in DCS
Theme 3	The concept of rehabilitation according to the offenders' understanding
Theme 4	The concept of rehabilitation according to the officials' understanding
Theme 5	Rehabilitation through programme involvement

Theme 6	Rehabilitation needs of offenders and skills and tools needed by officials to optimise rehabilitation
Theme 7	The perceptions of offenders and officials on unit management and the implementation of unit management factors
Theme 8	Important elements of rehabilitation and unit management for successful reintegration

9.2.1 Theme 1: Profile of sentenced offenders as the client system in DCS

According to the findings the majority of sentenced male offenders in the Bethal Management Area are between the ages of 22 to 45 years, with most of them being between 22 to 29 years of age. The finding that offenders are generally young resonates well with other studies. Brown et al. (2015:130) state that "The percentage of arrests accounted for by different age groups tends to increase for both violent and property crime through the late twenties and then declines." In a study with offenders in Gauteng, South Africa, Louw (2013:129) found that the majority of offenders vary between the ages of 26 to 35; while the second group was in the age group 36 to 45 years. Wortley (2011:37) confirms that offending behaviour peaks in the late teens and escalates until the thirties, after which criminality steadily declines. Coupled with the young age of offenders behind bars, is the marital status – single and never married – which is confirmed by a study done by Shabangu (2006:85). The offender population consists mostly of young people who are in their productive years and in the prime of their lives. They are in the age group where they should be developing and preparing themselves for the future which includes forming permanent relationships, starting their own families and building their future as opposed to serving a prison sentence. Instead of being removed from society, they should have been contributing to the community. Most of the offenders are the father of at least one child and in some cases more children, despite their youth and marital status. Apart from the pressure to reintegrate successfully, an offender also has a responsibility of caring for and supporting for his children. Having this responsibility can place an extra burden on an offender, who is not only concerned about his personal re-integration after release, but also the matter of 'how am I going to support my child'. Release from a correctional facility can therefore be an anxious time for an offender.

The offender population in the Bethal Management Area represents a variety of cultures, customs, beliefs and traditions. The dominant language spoken by offenders in the Bethal Management Area is isiZulu, though there is a representation of a variety of cultures in correctional centres, including cultures that did not originate in Mpumalanga. Offenders are generally under-educated, with an education level lower than Grade 12. There is some level of illiteracy in the correctional centers and the number of offenders who are involved in the ABET education, which is freely available in the centres, is low. Bartol and Bartol (2014:37) state the premise that school failure and a low level of reading achievement are definite causal factors of crime amongst the youth. The low education level of offenders who participated in this research study confirms the need for offenders to make use of the educational opportunities in the correctional centre. Furthermore, to optimise rehabilitation, the general lack of interest among offenders to utilise this opportunity has to be addressed. Innovative plans are also required to facilitate education opportunities in the case where the length of the sentence might be regarded as too short to commence with such programmes or where they prefer vocational skills training over formal education.

The DCS has the responsibility to prepare offenders for release and to ensure that rehabilitated offenders are released back into the community. This is confirmed in the DCS mission that is stipulated in the DSC Annual Report (2016:23) as follows: "Contributing to a just, peaceful and safer South Africa through effective and humane incarceration of inmates and the rehabilitation and social reintegration of offenders." Prominent factors that surfaced from the above discussion are responsibility, parenting, and low education. Considering the young age of most of the offenders it becomes understandable that they are challenged by irresponsibility, a lack of parenting skills, and a low level of education that leads to unemployment. The DCS therefore has to align rehabilitation programmes to be effective in addressing such issues, particularly to the youth that spent years in a correctional centre.

From the profile of the specific target group in correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area it can be concluded that offenders have very specific rehabilitation needs. Rehabilitation programmes of DCS should meet their needs through programmes that provide them with life skills training and career development opportunities that would prepare them for reintegration into society. Such programmes should include alternatives to a criminal/aggressive lifestyle, vocational skills and prepare them for their roles such as fatherhood and being law-abiding citizens in the community.

The crimes most often committed by sentenced offenders in the Bethal Management Area are in the categories of aggressive and economic offences. Findings from a study by Louw (2013:150) are corroborated by the current study's findings that economic and aggressive offences were the type of crime most frequently committed by offenders. The sentence period that the majority of the offenders in the Bethal Management Area are serving varies between 2 to 10 years imprisonment, although there are a number of offenders who are serving 10 years to 25 years plus. Many of the respondents were at the beginning of their sentences, having served less than 12 months at the time of the research; most of them had already completed at least two years plus of their sentences, though. Nearly half of the participants had existing criminal records before they started serving their present prison sentences. The study by Louw (2013:152) confirmed that the majority of offenders had at least one previous conviction. The study thus confirms that a large number of the offender population re-offend after previously having spent time in a correctional facility, which in turn raises questions about the rehabilitative value of imprisonment.

Findings indicated that a large number of offenders were not involved in rehabilitation programmes, which could indicate why released offenders return to a correctional centre, having re-offended. It seems that offenders are released from correctional centres lacking knowledge, as well as life and job skills that cause them to fail in the reintegration process. As long as the DCS does not provide and involve offenders in rehabilitation programmes that address their reintegration needs prior to release, recidivism will continue and the longer an offender's criminal record becomes, the more difficult his successful reintegration and finding employment becomes.

In summary, the profile of the client system of the DCS, particularly in the Bethal Management Area, depicts sentenced male offenders who are young, single, isiZulu-speaking fathers who have a low education level; they most likely are serving a recently imposed imprisonment sentence of between two to ten years for committing an economic or aggressive offence, and are not first offenders. Knowing the profile of offenders creates an opportunity to plan the nature of offender rehabilitation programmes in the Bethal Management Area. The researcher is of opinion that the offender profile serves as a guideline to social workers and other correctional officials to the type of intervention the offender should be involved in.

9.2.2   Theme 2: Profile of correctional and professional correctional officials who function as the rehabilitators in DCS

Findings indicated that officials were predominantly male. The finding correlates with the traditional gender dominance of males in correctional centres, since prisons are traditionally a workplace for men because of possible harsh circumstances and safety risks. The home language spoken by the majority of officials is isiZulu. There is thus a correlation between the home language of offenders and officials, as the majority of both groups speak isiZulu. Offenders and officials who speak languages other than isiZulu, include the languages Northern Sotho, SiSwati, Venda, English and Afrikaans. The variety of languages of both offenders and officials in the region can be attributed to migration into the Bethal area, for employment purposes, amongst others. However, the official language at work for DCS officials is English, be it spoken or in writing. For most employees English is not their mother tongue. Therefore, communication might be hindered to some extent, with self-expression becoming a challenge in some instances. In the case of language differences between officials and offenders interpreters are used where possible. In other instances, such as in cases involving foreign nationals, communication between officials and offenders often also become a challenge.

Correctional officials' qualifications range from a minimum qualification of grade 12 to a number of them having achieved a diploma or degree. Professional correctional officials such as social workers, nurses and educators require a tertiary qualification by virtue of the post they occupy. However, findings indicated that correctional officials who are in possession of a tertiary qualification are placed in similar posts as colleagues with a grade 12 qualification. Based on the researcher's work experience it can be concluded that some correctional officials are wrongfully placed in posts where their tertiary qualification serves no purpose, which can cause frustration in the workforce.

Most of the correctional officials are older than 34 years, with ages up to 58 years and older. It was found that officials were mostly in a committed relationship either through marriage or cohabitation, which indicates some form of stability in their personal lives and that family life is valuable to them. These positive attributes assist officials, considering that they need to lead offenders by their own example, as stated in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:113): "… principles of justice and fairness in

relations with others, both in and outside of the work environment, are key ingredients of the necessary values of a correctional official…this value also sets a good example for offenders".

The Department of Correctional Services have personnel with a long service history, with most of them having more than 13 years of service in the DCS, and others exceeding 33 years of service in the Department. This means that by the time the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa was launched in 2005 with its focus on rehabilitation as core business instead of punishment, these participants have already been employed in DCS and thus orientated, trained and used to the punitive approach of the previous prison system. The White Paper on Corrections in SA ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:111) confirms that, according to the history of the Department, "correctional officials were not trained in the skills and knowledge critical for a new Rehabilitation-centered Correctional System." The DCS recognises that it is a challenge to retrain officials and that ongoing training is "crucial in an environment where the work is demanding, stressful, varied and at times threatening" ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:111). Findings indicated that the majority of officials identified the most important skill that they needed, and requested the DCS to provide them with specialised training to equip them with the skills and tools required to function as a rehabilitator. This lack of training creates a rehabilitation gap between the official and the offender because the officials are currently not equipped to deal with offenders' rehabilitation needs.

In summary of the current profile of correctional officials, also referred to as the rehabilitators in the DCS, it can be concluded that officials in the Bethal Management Area are mostly isiZulu-speaking males who are married, in the age group of 34 years and older, who are in possession of a grade 12 qualification.

9.2.3   Theme 3: The concept of rehabilitation according to the offenders' understanding

According to findings there are offenders who associate rehabilitation with changing behaviour, and correcting their mistakes that led to criminal behaviour. It was further found that a number of offenders do not have a full understanding of what the term rehabilitation entails and that they are not aware of their own responsibility towards rehabilitation. Rehabilitation is achieved through interventions to change attitudes, behaviour and social circumstances ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:76). This study found that offenders were not always sure what was expected from them in terms of their own rehabilitation. The rehabilitation model emphasises that crime is caused by the offender's circumstances, and that when these

circumstances or needs have been identified and addressed, the offender should be rehabilitated. The rehabilitation model does not deny that people make choices to break the law, but asserts that these choices are influenced by a person's social surroundings, psychological development and biological make-up (Cullen & Jonson, 2012:25). The concern is, however, that if the offender does not have an understanding of his own rehabilitation, how is he going to know where to start with the process of identifying his needs?

According to the findings, offenders do experience change while serving their sentences– some were of the opinion that their bad behaviour had changed, while others were negative about their personal change and indicated that they had not changed since they had been sentenced. The researcher's experience is that the rehabilitative effect of imprisonment depends on the individual offender. If an offender is open to rehabilitation and change and attempts to improve his self-development, it is likely that he would change, whereas an offender would probably not experience a positive change in his life when he is negative about his personal development and rehabilitation. Findings indicated that offenders who changed positively were encouraged by their future plans which included their families, businesses, studies and having constructive relationships. The rehabilitation model, according to Raynor and Robinson (2005:5), "assumes that positive change can be brought about by subjecting offenders to particular interventions, programmes: with the right intervention, offenders can be brought into line with a law-abiding norm."

The conclusion is that those offenders who have positive future plans backed by the support systems in his environment, (which was gained through various interventions that brought them in line with law-abiding norms), are able to experience positive change and/or rehabilitation in their lives.

9.2.4   Theme 4: The concept of rehabilitation according to the officials' understanding

The findings indicated that officials harbour a negative feeling towards offenders upon admission to a correctional centre, when an offender is perceived to be someone with bad and or criminal behaviour and is automatically labelled as such. Officials' views reflect that rehabilitation requires the offender to change from somebody that can be described in a negative manner such as 'bad', 'criminal' or 'exhibiting offending behaviour' to somebody positive, for example 'good', 'law-abiding citizen', or 'displaying acceptable behaviour'. Walsh and

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Hemmens (2011:77) explained that according to the rational choice theory offenders decide when to commit crime – it is confirmed in their following statement: "[H]umans have the capacity to make choices and the moral responsibility to make moral choices regardless of the internal or external constraints on one's ability to do so." It gives the impression that when an offender is admitted to a correctional centre he can be easily perceived by officials as someone with negative, bad, or criminal behaviour because it was his decision to commit crime and therefore he must face the consequences. This negative perception of offenders might hinder the process of rehabilitation, since it can become difficult to remove the negative label assigned to an offender upon admission to a correctional centre at a later stage. The lack of skills and knowledge on the side of officials aggravates the situation, because they do not realise that the principles of the same rational choice theory can form the basis for officials to equip offenders with improved decision-making skills, and therefore contribute to rehabilitation. A number of studies found that the strength of the relationship between staff and the client has an impact on retention and criminal behaviour, post-treatment (Latessa et al., 2014:104). This emphasises the importance of a good relationship between officials and offenders; but with officials harbouring a negative feeling about the offender since admission, whatever rehabilitation efforts will be made might be fruitless.

Social work, as well as correctional and vocational programmes should form part of the rehabilitation process, according to the views of officials, though some of these programmes are currently lacking in the Bethal Management Area. It was stated in Chapter 7 that the main rehabilitation need indicated by sentenced offenders was the need for vocational training (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3.5). Furthermore, in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3.3 it was indicated that most offenders did not participate in vocational training in the Bethal Management Area. According to officials' views offenders are to be rehabilitated through programme attendance, vocational training in particular, although it is not available at all the centres in the Bethal Management Area. This creates a rehabilitation gap as the rehabilitation need of the offender is not met, despite the officials realising that vocational training is a necessary part of rehabilitation. Without vocational training, offenders have no skills to use in their endeavour to find employment. The lack of vocational training results in unemployment after release which causes recidivism that, in turn, contributes to overcrowding in correctional facilities. In order to break this cycle the DCS should prioritise the provision of vocational training, amongst other rehabilitation programmes, to abide by the DCS Mission that emphasises the successful social reintegration of offenders (DCS Annual Report, 2016:23). It is confirmed by Blackburn, Fowler and Pollock (2014:140) that vocational training in the form of trade options such as plumbing,

electrical or agriculture and business skills can assist an offender with employment after release which contributes to a decrease in recidivism.

Viewing the rehabilitation of offenders, according to findings, as releasing an improved or better person back into the community, creates a time frame in which rehabilitation should take place. Offenders are sentenced to serve different lengths of time – some are sentenced for days, some for months, others for years and even for life. The length of a sentence would therefore determine the time available for rehabilitation to take place, though rehabilitation is regarded as a process that cannot be forced on someone. In the event of a short term sentence, for example 12 months' imprisonment, as is stated in Section 73(6)(aA) of the DCS Act no 111 of 1998, the offender would probably serve a quarter before he is considered for release, which is three months. In this case the DCS has three months to 'rehabilitate' the offender and the offender has three months to 'change' through programmes and skills that are, as previously noted, not always available. The possibility of releasing such an offender on parole, without being rehabilitated, is real.

On the other side there are offenders who serve long term, maximum sentences of 15 years imprisonment, twenty-five years, fifty years, or life imprisonment. The question arises when rehabilitation should take place in the instance where an offender does not face release for a very long time, or is not even sure if he will ever see the outside world again. What would be the motivation or inspiration to rehabilitate? By the time such an offender is released, his community of origin has developed, it does not look the same anymore as he remembers it, the people have forgotten about him and many of his relatives have already passed away. Rehabilitation becomes easier when an offender has someone or something that motivates or inspires him to rehabilitate. External factors that serve as motivation, such as family, loved ones, community members, a future can contribute to the success of rehabilitation. This notion is confirmed by Maruna and Immarigeon (2004:238) who are of the opinion that apart from programme involvement, the rehabilitation of offenders relies heavily on their bonding life circumstances such as a marriage, relationships and employment.

Pointing out the mistakes and or wrong behaviour of the offender in order to create insight and awareness might be a negative start to the offender's road to rehabilitation. According to the findings, some officials regard rehabilitation as the process where the wrong behaviour and

mistakes made by the offender should be pointed out in order to create insight and an understanding of his actions. Implementing this perception causes the focus to be on the negative behaviour of the offender, which he needs to be reminded of time and again. In most instances the offender is aware of his behaviour and knows the reason for his incarceration. Focusing on his case and the mistakes he made can lay a negative foundation for the rest of his journey to rehabilitation, because the constant negativity rather has the effect of a breaking down the offender instead of building him up in the process of rehabilitation. The strength-based approach that was discussed in Chapter 4(see Section 4.3.1 states that the focus should rather be on the strengths of the offender in order to maintain a positive experience that would probably yield better results. Focusing on strengths would be less of a threatening experience for the offender, and it could minimise resistance and increase cooperation.

There are officials appointed in the DCS who disagree with the concept of rehabilitation, who feel negatively about it and who do not implement it, according to findings as discussed in Chapter 8 (see Section 8.3.1.1.1). For rehabilitation to be implemented successfully, the implementers, who are the correctional and professional correctional officials, should believe in its value and worth. If officials present a negative attitude towards rehabilitation it would be easy for offenders to adopt the same attitude. According to Latessa et al. (2014:103) the attitude of officials determine the success they have with effective rehabilitation programmes, as is evident from their statement that, "In particular, those who were warm, non-confrontational, empathetic and directive were more effective." Louw (2013:209) found in his study conducted with sentenced offenders that the majority of the participants were of the opinion that correctional officials were not rehabilitators.

If correctional and professional officials are expected to rehabilitate offenders they should be aware of what rehabilitation entails and what they should actually do to be able to reach such a goal. The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:21), introduced the concept of rehabilitation during 2005 when the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa was launched. It has been twelve years since the introduction of rehabilitation in correctional centres, and findings indicate that there are still officials who do not have a clear understanding of rehabilitation or officials who are negative about the implementation or effectiveness of rehabilitation. Furthermore, some officials have not made the concept of rehabilitation their own yet, nor have they taken ownership nor responsibility for it.

Rehabilitation is defined in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:75) as: "…the result of a process that combines the correction of offending behaviour, human development and the promotion of social responsibility and values. It is a desired outcome of processes that involve both the departmental responsibilities of Government and the social responsibilities of the nation." Even though participants focused largely on the rehabilitation's aspect of change, they also touched on the correction of offending behaviour, as well as offender programme involvement. It can be concluded that those correctional officials who participated in this research study had some idea of rehabilitation and understood it partly.

Common factors concerning rehabilitation with reference to officials and offenders are that they:

- Are aware of the term rehabilitation and use it frequently
- View rehabilitation as a process of change
- Need to correct the mistakes that were made in committing crime
- Do not have a full and clear understanding of what their responsibilities are in the rehabilitation process
- Can be negative about the concept of rehabilitation – some offenders are of the opinion that they have no rehabilitation needs and have not changed their behaviour and some officials reflected a negative view or perception of rehabilitation.

Differences concerning focus of rehabilitation between officials and offenders are summarised as follows:

- Offenders' main rehabilitation need, namely sufficient vocational training, is not sufficiently available and cannot be provided by officials in all correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area.
- Officials easily label an offender negatively and treat him accordingly, instead of functioning as the rehabilitator.

It is concluded from the above commonalities and differences that rehabilitation of offenders in the Bethal Management Area is a challenging process. The fact that both parties are not confident about their responsibilities in the rehabilitation process, combined with the emphasis on correcting mistakes, the crime committed and labelling instead of applying the strength perspective to change behaviour, exacerbate the difficulties. Officials and offenders, however, support each other in the process of rehabilitation through most of the offenders who have a

positive attitude about their personal change and future plans, and officials attempting to involve offenders in programmes as far as possible.

9.2.5   Theme 5: Rehabilitation through programme involvement

Findings indicated that the DCS is challenged by the poor attendance of Social work, Formal education, Vocational skills training, Psychology, and Labour programmes: less than half of the participating sentenced offender population in the research study was involved in the programmes. However, non-attendance is not always caused by a lack of interest. Some offenders are scheduled to attend programmes, but some programmes are unavailable due to a shortage of professional officials and a lack of resources. Furthermore, the implementation of the sentence plan is not monitored by the Case Review Team (CRT). All these factors result in a high number of participants in the Bethal Area who are not involved in rehabilitation and development programmes. This implies that they do not have the opportunity to develop, despite having the ability to do so. This results in many participants spending their days in correctional facilities being passive and bored. The DCS is therefore not fully reaching its key objective of providing corrective and development measures to the offender as stipulated in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:80).

According to the Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report (2016:53), less than half of all the correctional centres (46%) they inspected nationally had permanently employed educators. Furthermore, it was found that there were some centres nationally that offered no programmes at all (Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report, 2016:54). Louw (2013:154) confirms that the shortage of social workers in the DCS has a negative influence on attendance of social work programmes. This poses a challenge to the rehabilitation process since education is vital in offender development. According to Latessa, Listwan and Koetzle (2014:195) educational and vocational training should be presented together with programmes that address other criminogenic needs in order for it to contribute to successful reintegration. Reasons why rehabilitation programmes are not attended by offenders or are seen to be ineffective, according to Latessa et al. (2014:98), are the techniques used to change behaviour, e.g. "trying to talk offenders into behaving differently or educating them about their problems". Latessa et al. (2014:98) further indicate that at times "even well designed programmes are not effective because the programme is not delivered with integrity". This may be because the "programme may be targeting non-criminogenic needs – those needs that have

little, if any correlation with criminal behaviour." (Latessa et al., 2014:98). Rehabilitation programmes should therefore be designed to address an offender's individual criminogenic needs and the presenters should be rehabilitation orientated.

The findings indicated that Spiritual care, and SRAC (Sports, Recreation Arts and Culture) programmes are popular in the DCS and are attended by sentenced offenders in great numbers. Offenders find it easier to participate in religion and sporting activities in correctional centres since they are more likely to have been involved in them prior to incarceration. As discussed in Chapter 6, newly admitted offenders should be orientated during the admission phase concerning programme attendance, rehabilitation and their responsibility towards self-development in the correctional centre. However, then the programmes have to be available and, moreover, offered in the DCS to facilitate rehabilitation.

9.2.6 Theme 6: Rehabilitation needs of offenders and skills and tools needed by officials to optimise rehabilitation

According to the findings, vocational skills training is the priority rehabilitation need of offenders, followed by better education and educational resources, rehabilitation programmes (social work, and spiritual care programmes), personal intervention in the form of individual counselling and recreational activities. Offenders were able to identify and voice their basic rehabilitation needs in order to optimise rehabilitation. As discussed in Chapter 7 (see Section 7.3.3.3), vocational training is categorised under skills development, which is a branch of educational programmes. Although vocational training was identified as the priority need, most of the respondents did not participate in any vocational training activities in the Bethal Management Area (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3.3). According to officials' views, offenders are to be rehabilitated through programme attendance and vocational training in particular. Vocational training is also the number one need indicated by offenders. In a study on offenders in Gauteng province, South Africa, Louw (2013:157) found that the majority of offenders did not attend any vocational training. Four years later, this finding is confirmed in the current study which indicates that there was little progress made by the DCS concerning the provision of vocational skills training to offenders. This raises the question of how offenders could find employment after release if the DCS was unable to provide skills training for them during their incarceration.

According to the Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report (2016:82), the fifth most frequent complaint out of 23 categories received from offenders by the Judicial Inspectorate was related to the need for rehabilitation programmes. One of the three main reasons posed by offenders when requesting a transfer from the Judicial Inspectorate was because of rehabilitation programmes that were lacking at their current centres (Judicial Inspectorate for Correctional Services Annual Report, 2016:54). This poses a challenge to the rehabilitation process and the implementation of unit management, since education is vital in offender development, which is one of the aims of unit management.

Some offenders have a desire to develop themselves, participate and improve their skills and knowledge which would facilitate their reintegration into the community; but because these opportunities are currently lacking at correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area, the DCS is failing to rehabilitate offenders fully. Secondly, though offenders would want to rehabilitate, the correctional system fails to remove the stumbling blocks. This creates a rehabilitation gap because the rehabilitation needs of the offender are not completely met. This is despite the fact that officials realise that vocational training is a necessary part of rehabilitation; that insufficient vocational training affects the relapse prevention strategy negatively, and finally, that the rehabilitation of offenders will not be a reality as long as these stumbling blocks were not properly addressed. The optimising of rehabilitation in the Bethal Management Area is possible only when the needs of offenders are met and opportunities for offender development are provided by the DCS.

Psychological services and restorative justice did not feature as major rehabilitation needs of offenders. It was mentioned by only a few participants in this research study, although the DCS strongly emphasises that offenders need to consult with a psychologist and participate in restorative justice. Sentenced offenders are probably unaware of psychological services and the restorative justice process when they are admitted to a correctional centre. They might have functioned without it before incarceration and it could be that their focus is on what is needed for their personal rehabilitation in the form of material survival, such as vocational skills training, education, and programme attendance, according to their perspective.

In order to meet the rehabilitation needs of offenders, correctional and professional correctional officials should be equipped with the necessary skills, 'tools', and knowledge to present rehabilitation programmes. Officials indicated in this study that they needed to be equipped with

the necessary skills and 'tools' to improve offender rehabilitation, that could be acquired by attending specialised courses, for example. Officials feel incompetent and unprofessional when dealing with the rehabilitation issues of offenders. Most of them are in possession of a grade 12 qualification and need specialised training in order to serve the offenders in a knowledgeable and professional manner. Even though professional correctional officials, which include social workers, nurses and educationists, are trained in their field of specialisation, specific training is needed in terms of offender care.

Findings indicated furthermore that correctional officials registered a shortage of trained and multi-skilled officials who understand the DCS policies concerning rehabilitation and case management, including specialised officials such as nurses, social workers, educationists and chaplains. Staff trained in these areas are needed in order to improve rehabilitation. The DCS expects officials to rehabilitate offenders at centre level, where there are personnel shortages – specifically of trained and multi-skilled officials as well as specialised officials. With the shortage of such officials the goal of rehabilitation will not be met easily, because the available officials at centre level are overloaded and stressed. It is revealed in the DCS Annual Report (2016:94) that even though 1055 correctional officials were appointed and transferred into the DCS, during the 2015/2016 financial year a number of 1243 correctional officials terminated service or were transferred out of the DCS. The shortage of officials are therefore not addressed efficiently by the DCS.

It was further found that communication between the different levels of officials and various sections at the correctional centres seems to be a challenge which hampers the rehabilitation of offenders. The communication challenges appear at centre level where the different sections, security, professional officials and management, do not communicate with each other but work in silos, therefore unnecessary problems occur that affect the rehabilitation process of the offender. These problems include, for instance, the availability of offenders for rehabilitation programmes when security programmes enjoy priority.

Equipment, materials and resources were mentioned by officials as important tools that they needed to improve offender rehabilitation but, however, lacked. Officials are expected to function as rehabilitators despite having insufficient equipment such as computers, telephones, materials, stationary, and resources, including funding. Attempting to rehabilitate offenders without the necessary equipment, materials and resources gives an impression of unprofessionalism and it often demotivates the official. Findings further indicated that the design

and infrastructure in correctional centres hinder offender rehabilitation. The plan according to which correctional centres were built many years ago focused more on the punitive aspect of imprisonment. Later, when rehabilitation was introduced into the DCS, the challenges caused by the infrastructure surfaced. It was then realised that the correctional centre structure does not allow for offices for professionals: there are no decentralised units for unit management, no group work or programme rooms, no classrooms for the school section and not sufficient space for the health care section. It occurs that professionals who are supposed to rehabilitate offenders have to make use of spaces that are converted into offices – resulting in an uncomfortable work experience.

The rehabilitation of offenders depends on the skills, tools and knowledge of the officials along with other factors such as the infrastructure in correctional centres and the availability of resources. As long as the DCS does not succeed in providing correctional officials with a working environment conducive to the rehabilitation of offenders, offenders will remain a challenge, irrespective of whether they identified and conveyed their rehabilitation needs.

9.2.7 Theme 7: Offenders' and officials' perceptions on unit management and the implementation of unit management factors

Findings revealed that unit management was a term unknown to offenders, which implies that they were unaware that it is implemented in the centres where they are accommodated. This, in turn, raises questions about the proper or full implementation of unit management in the centres within the Bethal Management Area. The anticipated advantages of unit management could not be reached, because also officials appeared to be unfamiliar with the concept and were, in most cases, not able to define or describe unit management correctly. If a correctional institution does not implement change correctly – like the introduction of rehabilitation and/or unit management – it means that officials are confused about their roles. This researcher can attest to this on the basis of practical work experience, where it was observed that because of role confusion officials tended to step back and withdraw, with the result that no progress was made in rehabilitation and unit management. This is confirmed by Hurley and Hanley (2010:3) who state that, "This challenge often confuses correctional staff, who is caught within the organizational crossfire and must choose between doing things the old, wrong way, which they understand, or the new, right way, which is incomprehensible." The majority of the officials feel negative about unit management because of all the associated challenges, and ultimately because of the failure to

implement it properly. Findings indicated that officials were of the opinion that the shortage of human resources and the lack of resources in general, as well as insufficient infrastructure, make it impossible to put unit management into operation.

According to the views of officials, in order for unit management to function fully, more officials who have to be properly trained, should be appointed; Improvement in the development and designing of facilities and infrastructure that can accommodate rehabilitation and unit management is essential; more professional personnel should be appointed; vocational training should be provided to offenders in order to ensure their rehabilitation, and finally, the well-being of the officials, and not only the offenders, should be prioritised.

According to the research findings, officials either do not recognise the importance of interaction between the rehabilitation of offenders and unit management, or they might regard unit management as not important, or just do not understand the importance and relevance of unit management for rehabilitation. Rehabilitation and unit management complement each other when they are fully implemented, as stated in The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:88), "… unit management is the desired method of correctional centre management and an effective method to facilitate restorative rehabilitation." The current situation in the DCS, however, is that neither rehabilitation nor unit management is implemented successfully and given the nature of the challenges and hindrances indicated by this study, the future of both rehabilitation and unit management in DCS is questionable. It means that unit management as stipulated in the White Paper on Corrections ([RSA], 2005) in South Africa and the Unit management policy will not be implemented successfully in the Bethal Management Area. In turn, the ineffective implementation of unit management implies that rehabilitation of offenders is compromised.

In summary, most of the offenders are unfamiliar with certain elements of unit management such as decentralised units, structured day programmes, case files, unit manager, case management supervisor and case officer. Offenders are probably not aware of these elements of unit management because it is not implemented or functional in their correctional centres due to the officials' lack of understanding it themselves. Though officials are aware of unit management and its elements, they do not have a clear understanding of it and mostly see unit management in a negative light because of all the challenges that surrounds it. This results in the entire concept

of unit management being fruitless for both offenders and officials and hence it will require a serious effort from the DCS to resuscitate it in the Bethal Management Area.

9.2.8   Theme 8:   Important elements of rehabilitation and unit management for successful reintegration

Findings revealed that multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention are not implemented fully in the Bethal Management Area, which hinders the optimising of rehabilitation and unit management. Rehabilitation is defined in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:75) as:

> the result of a process that combines the correction of offending behaviour, [*in other words – multi-disciplinary cooperation*], human development [*in other words – relapse prevention*], and the promotion of social responsibility [*in other words – networking*], and values. It is a desired outcome of processes that involve both the departmental responsibilities of Government and the social responsibilities of the nation.

Officials were not aware of the true meaning of the term multi-disciplinary cooperation and indicated that it was not functional at their centres. The few officials who were familiar with the term mentioned that it was not operational in their centres, which means that an important facet in the rehabilitation of offenders was not being implemented in the correctional centres. This situation correlates with the lack of communication that was mentioned earlier, where different sections work in silos instead of sharing relevant information to the benefit of the offender's rehabilitation. Although offenders might be scheduled to attend programmes, the implementation of the sentence plan was not monitored by the Case Review Team (CRT), resulting in a high number of participants in the Bethal Management Area not being involved in rehabilitation and development programmes. This implies that they do not develop despite their ability and the opportunity to do.

Networking is done by only certain officials – mostly professional officials as indicated in the findings (see Chapter 8, Section 8.4.4.2).Officials do not realise that they all have the responsibility to promote the DCS and its elements such as rehabilitation, unit management and other relevant concepts such as restorative justice to external role players and the community in

general. Such promotions can be done for example during community outreach projects, meetings with external stakeholders and at the commemoration of national and international calendar days. Another form of networking in the DCS, apart from with external stakeholders, are the families of offenders. According to the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:81), the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa obliges correctional officials to ensure contact between inmates and their families. It is explained as follows: "…the achievement of rehabilitation is premised on the building of healthy familial relations" ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:81). Attempts should be made by officials to establish contact between the offender and his primary, secondary and extended relatives, who would probably provide him with emotional, financial and personal support throughout his sentence. Rehabilitation becomes easier when an offender has someone or something that motivates or inspires him to rehabilitate. External factors that serve as motivation, such as family, loved ones, community members, a future, can contribute to the success of rehabilitation.

Findings indicated that officials' knowledge of relapse prevention strategies are narrowed down to the social workers at the centres or at community corrections offices. Some correctional and professional correctional officials have limited knowledge about relapse prevention strategies which is a concern, because it forms an important part of rehabilitation. If officials need to rehabilitate offenders they should be aware of relapse prevention strategies because that is what they actually want to prevent – relapse. The importance of relapse prevention strategies is highlighted by Latessa et al. (2014:212) as follows: "Relapse prevention strategies are designed to prevent or inhibit the likelihood of criminal behaviour in the future. The advantage of working on client's needs and issues in prison is …they can plan for their release in a supportive environment. The disadvantage…is that prison is an artificial environment." Officials need to make life after release a reality to offenders so that they can really understand what to expect after release. Officials must "mirror the risky situations they are likely to confront in the community" (Latessa et al., 2014:212).

Some offenders spend their days in correctional facilities being passive and bored because of ineffective multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention strategies. The DCS is therefore not fully reaching its key objective of providing corrective and development means to the offender ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:80).

In summary, multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention are important elements of rehabilitation and unit management in DCS. Rehabilitation is a burning issue in the DCS and it needs unit management to function correctly in order for it to reach its full potential. Rehabilitation is a concept most officials are familiar with, but due to challenges and shortages it cannot be implemented successfully, which in turn frustrates the officials who are expected to be rehabilitators. On the other hand, offenders are also frustrated because their rehabilitation needs are not met. The DCS should understand the importance of unit management and recognise that it is required for successful rehabilitation. However, failing in unit management means failing in rehabilitation, which has a negative impact on officials and offenders – in other words on rehabilitation in the DCS as a whole.

9.3   SUMMARY

The research question in this study focussed on how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area, from a social work perspective. In response to this question eight themes were discussed in this chapter, that formed the basis for the key findings made. The findings revealed that the profile of the client system can assist the DCS in identifying relevant and necessary interventions that the offender should be exposed to during the time he spends in corrections. The profile of the official, who is regarded as the rehabilitator in corrections, gave an indication that most officials are in an older age group than most offenders and that officials show stability in terms of family life and work record, which can be valuable when the official as rehabilitator should lead by example. Findings pointed out that both offenders and officials are aware of rehabilitation, but not confident about what exactly needs to be done to become rehabilitated and how to facilitate the rehabilitation process. The findings further indicated that rehabilitation programmes were either not available, not accessible or ineffective. About half of the offenders have not participated in rehabilitation programmes which is a concern, because attending programmes is considered as one of the vehicles to rehabilitation. Both offenders and officials were able to identify that there are factors that needed improvement: offenders identified rehabilitation needs that require intervention from officials, who, on their part, specified the skills and tools needed by them in order to meet the offenders' rehabilitation needs. This implies that if officials are not equipped with the necessary skills and tools, the offenders' rehabilitation needs would not be met.

The findings indicated that unit management is held in negative regard by officials because of the related challenges. Offenders basically had no opinion on the matter because they were not familiar with the concept – just as it was revealed in the findings that the elements of rehabilitation and unit management, namely multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking, relapse prevention, smaller units, structured day programme, case officer, case management supervisor, unit manager were unfamiliar terms to most of the offenders and officials.

Chapter 10 will discuss how the objectives of the study have been reached. The key findings will be outlined and conclusions drawn. Finally, recommendations will be made.

CHAPTER 10

KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

10.1   INTRODUCTION

According to Padgett (2008:206) the aim of the final section of a research report reminds the reader of the study's goals and how they were achieved. The chapter firstly assesses whether the goal and objectives of the study have been achieved. The next section presents the key findings of the study as informed by the literature review (Chapters 3, 4 and 5) and the empirical study (Chapters 7 and 8) and the integrated discussion in Chapter 9. Conclusions are then drawn from the respective key findings. The chapter concludes with recommendations.

10.2   GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The goal of the study was to investigate how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimised to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Area, from a social work perspective.

The goal was achieved through the following objectives:

Objective 1

Explore the historic development of unit management in South Africa and internationally as applicable to corrections

This objective has been achieved in Chapter 5, Section 5, where unit management was discussed in terms of its historical development internationally, the development and implementation of unit management in South Africa, and the present challenges faced by the DCS concerning unit management in correctional centers. Unit management originated from the Federal Bureau of Prisons in the United States of America (Stinchcomb, 2011:235) during the 1970s and developed in other countries such as England, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Bezuidenhout, 2011:84) before the concept was brought to South Africa in 1996 (Luyt & Bruyns, 1998:1). The aim of unit management is, amongst others, to focus more on efficient programme delivery and the rendering of services to inmate populations, which was one of the reasons why the DCS adopted this philosophy (A brief history of Corrections in South Africa, 1999:20).

Objective 2

Contextualise rehabilitation in the Department of Correctional Services from a unit management perspective within the theoretical framework of the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model.

Chapter 2 presented the theoretical foundation of the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model as applicable to this study. Section 4 contextualised rehabilitation of offenders from a unit management perspective within the framework of the rational choice theory and the rehabilitation model. It was clarified that the rational choice theory provided the framework based on the premise that correctional and professional correctional officials would be able to present rehabilitation programmes more effectively, which would result in offenders experiencing improved insight and understanding of the importance of their decision-making process when considering to commit crime.

In Chapter 2, Section 3, the rehabilitation model emphasised the criminogenic needs that are causal factors of crime which, within the context of the study, became the identified rehabilitation needs of offenders from a literature perspective. In Section 5 it was clarified that meeting rehabilitation needs of offenders through skilled correctional officials within the framework of unit management, re-offending can be prevented, which in turn would provide a safer society.

Objective 3

Determine offenders' rehabilitation needs as well as their views on and participation in development and care programmes, as facilitated by professional officials within the multi-disciplinary team.

Offenders' rehabilitation needs and views on participation in development and care programmes were discussed in Chapter 7 and summarised in Table 7.2. Offenders' rehabilitation needs included vocational skills training; better education and educational resources, rehabilitation programmes that include Social Work and Spiritual Care programmes, personal intervention in the form of individual counselling, and recreational activities (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3.5). Development and care programmes, and how offenders participated in these, were discussed in Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3.3 under Spiritual Care, Social Work, Formal Education, Vocational Skills Training, and Psychological Services. This objective has thus been achieved.

Objective 4

Identify the skills, 'tools', and knowledge required in order for correctional and professional correctional officials to contribute to the improved implementation of rehabilitation and unit management in the Bethal Management Area, with specific emphasis on the role of the social worker.

The skills, tools and knowledge required to improve rehabilitation and unit management have been identified in Chapter 8, and hence this objective has been achieved. Chapter 8, Sections8.3.1.1.4 and 8.3.1.1.5 focused on the research findings concerning correctional and professional correctional officials and highlighted the priority skills, 'tools' and knowledge required by officials to contribute to rehabilitation and unit management. This included their personal development and specialised training, as well as the appointment of specialised and multi-skilled officials, the proper design of the infrastructure in correctional centres, communication between officials in different management levels and sections, vocational training for offenders, a focus on the well-being of the officials and availability of resources which would enable them to do the work.

Social work in general and correctional social work as profession was discussed in Chapter 4 with emphasis on the history of correctional social work internationally (see Section 4.2), and nationally (see Section 4.3). Correctional social work was defined in Section 4.3.1 and the role of the social worker in the DCS was highlighted in Section 4.3.2, as along with the introduction of the strength-based approach that was suggested by the researcher as a means of intervention (see Section 4.3.1.1), instead of the needs-based approach currently implemented in the DCS.

Objective 5

- *Develop guidelines for optimising the rehabilitation of offenders and unit management to be implemented by correctional and professional correctional officials.*

This objective has been attained in this Chapter (see Section 10.3.1 and Appendix H) where guidelines are presented for optimising the rehabilitation of offenders and unit management by correctional and professional correctional officials. The guidelines are presented in different sections to direct specific officials and their respective fields of focus. The aim of the guidelines is to direct officials towards compliance concerning the optimising of rehabilitation and unit management.

10.3   KEY FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The key findings and conclusions of the study are as follows:

Key finding 1:   Officials regard rehabilitation and unit management negatively due to knowledge and implementation challenges

Challenges such as a shortage of human resources including professional correctional officials (social workers, nurses and educationists),a lack of financial resources, inadequate design and infrastructure in correctional centres, and scarce training opportunities cause officials to have a negative perception (see Chapter 9, Section 9.2.4) of the rehabilitation of offenders and unit management.

It can be **concluded** that the starting point in optimising rehabilitation and unit management is information, knowledge and resources to prepare and equip officials to function as rehabilitators and ensure successful rehabilitation in the DCS. Furthermore, being equipped will motivate officials and develop optimism amongst them concerning rehabilitation and unit management. Therefore, the DCS needs to equip its officials through the necessary training on the rehabilitation of offenders and unit management and continued regular updated training. The provision of financial and human resources, as well as the appointment of professional personnel, should be prioritised by the DCS to start the unit management process.

Key finding 2:   Criminogenic factors derived from the sentenced offenders' profile should be prioritised in rehabilitation and taken into account to optimise unit management

Identified criminogenic factors of sentenced offenders are: their young age, irresponsible behaviour, a lack of life skills, a lack of parenting skills, low education level, a lack of support systems, negative socialising with bad company, substance abuse, unemployment, existing criminal record with previous convictions, as well as the aggressive and economic nature of offences committed.

The **conclusion** is that criminogenic factors, as described in the rehabilitation model (see Chapter 2, Section 3) should be addressed during the time that the offender serves his sentence in order to enhance the rehabilitation process. When these factors are left unattended, it can result in increased risk factors that can lead to recidivism. The assessment phase in the ORP (see Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2) is therefore crucial, since it is the period during which time the offender's criminogenic factors should be identified by the CAO (see Chapter 5, Section

5.1.4.3), and referred to the relevant officials for appropriate action. The criminogenic factors should thus guide the CAO and all other officials involved in the correctional sentence plan (CSP), concerning the scheduling and referring of the offender for necessary intervention.

Key finding 3: Rehabilitation is hindered because officials and offenders have a limited understanding of the concept

Neither officials nor offenders have a full understanding of the term rehabilitation, what it entails and what their responsibilities are in the process.

The **conclusion** is that officials who have only a rudimentary understanding of rehabilitation will find it difficult, if not impossible, to lead offenders who are just as ignorant, in their rehabilitation processes. When offenders are admitted to a correctional centre they normally experience anxiety because of the unknown and unfamiliar circumstances that they find themselves in. It might be that surviving incarceration is prioritised above rehabilitation by the offender during his adaptation period in the orientation stage. However, it is the responsibility of the officials to familiarise the offender with rehabilitation and unit management and to guide them in their rehabilitation process. During the orientation phase (see Chapter 5, Section5.3.2) officials need to exhibit a positive attitude of inspiring nature, since it is the first contact that the offender has with his rehabilitation – it is the starting point of the offender's journey to rehabilitation. If the official does not inspire offenders regarding their rehabilitation process, it is more likely that the latter would also develop a negative attitude towards corrections in general.

Key finding 4: Specific factors should be in place for optimising rehabilitation and unit management in correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area

In order for rehabilitation and unit management to be optimised the following factors should be in place: Rehabilitation programmes that include social work counselling, correctional, spiritual care, psychological and labour counselling, SRAC, Formal educational programmes and provision of educational resources and Vocational skills training for offenders.Specialised courses should be presented for officials;trained and multi-skilled officials should be appointed, as well asadditional human resources.Programmes for the well-being of officials should be offered.Improved design and infrastructure of correctional centres are required, along with the provision of financial resources, equipment and materials.Communication between different levels of management and sectionshas to be established. Opportunities for personal intervention

and individual counselling should be structured, the humane treatment of offenders should be facilitated, and offenders should be assisted with reintegration.

The **conclusion** is that DCS has a responsibility to take certain measures and put certain factors in place before the vision and mission of the DCS can be fulfilled. Correctional and professional correctional officials cannot be expected to function as rehabilitators as stated in The White Paper on Corrections in SA ([RSA], Ministry for Correctional Services, 2005:114) when the means of doing so are not available. The shortage of human resources, for instance, has a direct impact on rehabilitation and unit management, because without officials the posts cannot be filled and the work cannot be done. The shortage of professional correctional officials impacts the presentation of programmes in that some of the programmes are not available, and decentralisation within the framework of unit management requires that a correctional centre is divided into different housing units. If the design and infrastructure of the correctional centre does not allow for this, the practical implementation of unit management cannot be reached.

Key finding 5: Elements of rehabilitation and unit management are not implemented

Elements of rehabilitation and unit management, namely multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention strategies are not implemented fully in correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area.

It is **concluded** that the rehabilitation process of offenders cannot be optimised if these basic elements of rehabilitation and unit management are not in place. Multi-disciplinary cooperation brings different officials from various sections together, all with the aim of providing a better service to the offender. The lack of multi-disciplinary cooperation isolates officials and causes an absence of the officials' contribution pertaining to views and inputs concerning the offender. One section of officials cannot be held responsible for the full rehabilitation of offenders; it requires networking with other stakeholders and role-players, internally and externally. Relapse prevention strategies should be familiar to all correctional and professional correctional officials since the primary aim of rehabilitation is to assist the offender with successful reintegration into the community after release. A referral system, where offenders could be referred to according to their needs, should be in place in order to provide support to offenders after release, which will further contribute to relapse prevention.

Key finding 6: Lack of capacity of the rehabilitators in the DCS should be addressed and improved in order to contribute to rehabilitation of offenders

The current state of the officials in the DCS, also referred to as the rehabilitators, indicate that they are not sufficiently capacitated to implement rehabilitation programmes, particularly with reference to officials in the Bethal Management Area. The current profile of rehabilitators are mostly isiZulu speaking males who are married, in the age group of 34 years and older, with a grade 12 qualification, an average of 13 years of service in DCS, uncertain about their role in rehabilitation, generally negative about unit management, and in need of specialised training concerning offender behaviour, rehabilitation and unit management amongst others.

The **conclusion** is that the available officials in the DCS can be regarded as ineffective in their rehabilitation of offenders, despite their efforts, due to a lack of specific skills and 'tools' they require. If the DCS wants to create the ideal profile for the ideal correctional official, as discussed in Chapter 8 of The White Paper on Corrections in SA, ([RSA], Ministry of Correctional Services, 2005) as opposed to the current profile, attention should be given to the development of these officials in terms of training, tertiary qualifications, provision of resources and materials, including training on new ventures in DCS.

The key findings and conclusions of the study informed the formulation of guidelines for the optimising of rehabilitation and unit management to address the needs of offenders in the DCS, Bethal Management Area. Considering the profile of the target group in a correctional centre, as well as the criminogenic needs of offenders, it becomes important to ensure that these details are properly captured when an offender is admitted. Introducing guidelines on the capturing of such important information would enable officials to be aware of an offender's rehabilitation needs from the onset of the sentence and with a proper referral system in place, the addressing of rehabilitation needs can become a reality.

10.3.1 Guidelines for optimising rehabilitation and unit management

The proposed guidelines for optimising rehabilitation and unit management (hereafter called the ORUM guideline) (see Appendix H) consists of three inter-related pillars, namely the ORP process, role players in the ORP process, and their checking and controlling duties. The ORP process constitutes of three phases, including admission to the correctional centre (Section A); admission into a housing unit (Section B); and intervention (Section C). The intervention is sub-

divided into Correctional programmes (Sub-section C1); Spiritual care programmes (Sub-section C2) and Professional interventions (Sub-section C3), of which the latter consists of three sub-sections; Social Work (C3.1), Education (C3.2), Health care (C3.3), and finally the Correctional sentence plan (CSP) (Section D) which is the overall plan of intervention for an offender.

The role players responsible for the implementation of the ORP process include: the Case Administration Officer (CAO) (Section A): Case Officer (CO), Case Management Supervisor (CMS), and Unit Manager (UM) (Section B); Case Intervention Officer (CIO), Spiritual and Moral Development Coordinator (SMDC), Social Worker, Educationist, Health Care Professional, Centre Coordinator Operational Support (CC OPS), and Centre Coordinator Corrections (CC Corrections) (Section C).

The checking and controlling pillar implies that the progress made in the ORP process is monitored by checking and controlling which duties are executed by the Unit Manager (Section A, B and C), the Case Management Supervisor (CMS) (Section B), and the Centre Coordinator Operational Support (CC OPS) as well as the Centre Coordinator Corrections (CC Corrections) (Section C).
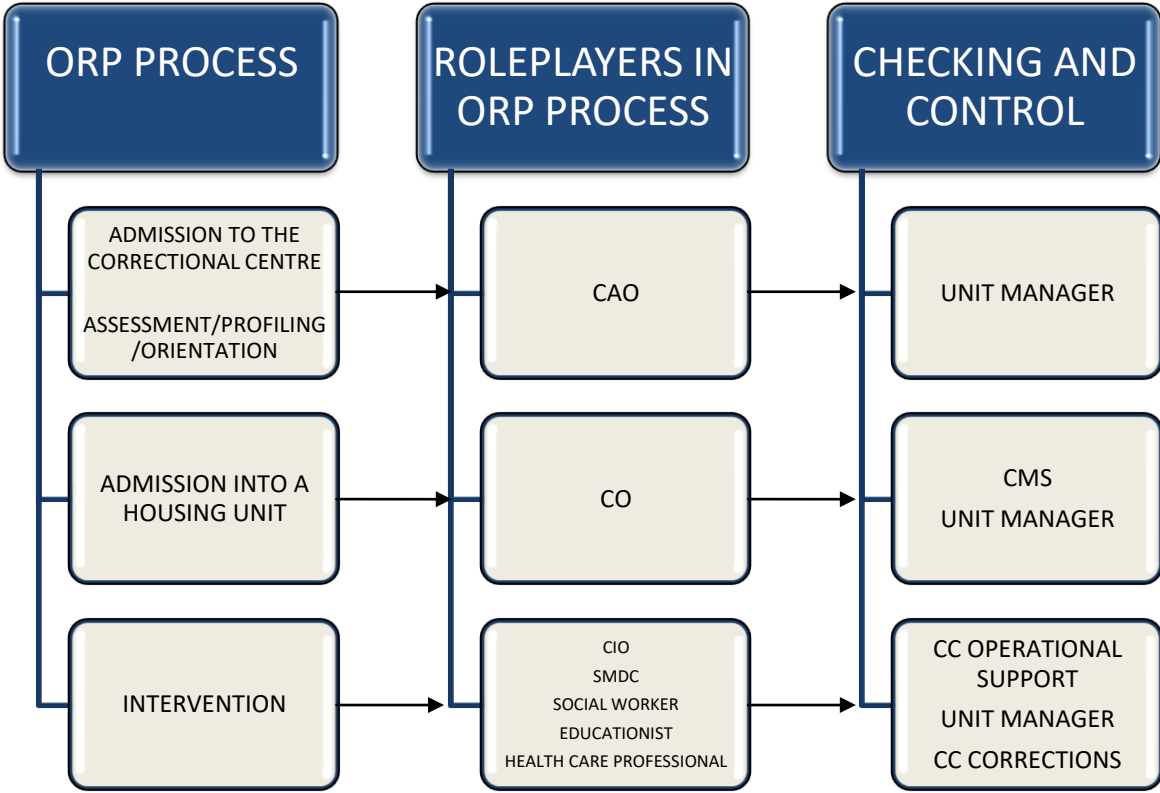
Figure 10.1: Flow chart of pillars, phases and role players in ORP to optimise rehabilitation and unit management

The completion of the different phases of the ORUM guideline by various role players in the ORP process, promotes multi-disciplinary cooperation and networking among the correctional and professional officials - from the admission of the offender to the finalising of the CSP.

The respective phases in the ORP process is structured in chronological order which implies that as the offender progresses from the one phase to the next. The intention is that the respective sections will be completed by the relevant officials involved in that particular phase of the ORP. Officials involved are required to note the sentence plan and indicate planned intervention on the guideline. However, in line with professional conduct, the confidential information regarding the offender will be kept on the offender's separate files, such as medical or social work files.

The role of the respective correctional and professional officials as outlined in Figure 10.1 above, are discussed next in relation to their responsibilities in the various phases of the ORP process:

Case Administration Officer (CAO)

In the admission phase (Section A) to the correction centre, the CAO should compile the biographic profile of the offender with special attention to criminal record, age, fatherhood, and highest qualification. By obtaining this information, possible crimonogenic factors can be identified by the CAO, after which proper programme scheduling and referral can take place. The CAO schedule each offender for intervention. After following the stipulated guidelines the CAO confirms compliance in writing, after which the case file should be referred to the Unit Manager for checking and controlling.

Case Officer (CO)

Section B of the ORUM guideline is to be completed by the CO, who orientates the newly admitted offender and places him/her in the housing unit. It is important that the CO takes note of the content of the correctional sentence plan (CSP), because it points to the relevant intervention needed and it identifies the role players whom the CO should refer the offender to.

After following the stipulated guidelines as outlined in Section B, the CO confirms compliance in writing, which should be checked by the CMS and controlled by the UM.

Case Intervention Official (CIO)

During the intervention phase (Sub-section C1) of the ORP, the CIO is responsible for the presentation of correctional programmes to offenders who were referred to him/her by the CO. In

order to know which programmes should be attended by a specific offender, the CIO first needs to orientate newly referred offenders after which the CSP should be noted when it is done. The CSP should guide the CIO on which programmes to present, because the offender was already scheduled to attend the relevant correctional programmes during admission by the CAO.

After the CIO followed the stipulated guidelines, the programme planning should be reflected in the space provided in the ORUM guideline (see C3.1, sub-section 3), in terms of dates and times that correctional programmes will be presented to the offender. When this is done, the CIO should confirm compliance in writing, and the programme planning should be referred to the UM for controlling.

Spiritual and Moral Development Coordinator (SMDC)

Sub-section C2 in the ORUM guideline outlines the responsibility of the SMDC in the intervention phase, whose responsibility it is to orientate each newly admitted offender and take note of the contents in the CSP, which would provide the SMDC with information concerning the offender's spiritual affiliations and needs. After following the guidelines as it is stipulated in the ORUM guideline, the spiritual programmes planned need to be indicated in the space provided (see C2, sub-section 3).

The SMDC needs to confirm compliance in writing which should be checked by his/her direct supervisor, the CC Operational Support, and controlled by the UM.

Professional Correctional Officials

Sub-section C3 of the ORUM guideline is reserved for completion by the professional correctional officials during the intervention phase, which includes social workers, educationists and professional nurses. The social work and education Sub-sections C3.1 and C3.2 respectively, consist of four parts, namely orientation, guidelines, planning and compliance. The health Sub-section C3.3 consists of orientation, guidelines and compliance. Since each offender is in possession of a detailed confidential medical file it would be unnecessary for the health practitioner to state planned treatment in the guideline. Orientation of the offender, as well as noticing of the CSP, is of importance to all professional officials. The content of the CSP should provide direction to the professional officials in terms of identified criminogenic needs as well as programmes that need to be scheduled for the offender to attend. Both social workers and educationists should indicate the planned intervention as well as the time frames in the space provided, that is C3.1, sub-section 3, and C3.2, sub-section respectively.

Since all professional correctional officials are grouped under 'Development and Care' they report to the Centre Coordinator Operational Support, who needs to confirm that sections related to professionals are completed. The checking that then follows must be done by the unit manager, and the controlling by the CC Corrections, who take note of the scheduled programmes.

Unit Manager

The unit manager is responsible for the completion of Section D in the ORUM guideline, where he/she should indicate that all sections in the guideline were checked and planned interventions noted. The unit manager is furthermore responsible for organizing the multi-disciplinary and the CRT meetings, as well as the implementation of the structured day programme. All the duties of the unit manager are aimed at implementing the CSP, which is intended to enhance the rehabilitation process.

The unit manager monitor the implementation of the ORUM guideline by checking from section A to section D as well as taking note of the scheduled and planned intervention. The CSP is implemented through regular multi-disciplinary meetings, as well as CRT meetings. Checking and controlling the proposed ORUM guideline is the responsibility of the CC Operational Support and CC Corrections who confirm compliance by signing the guideline.

10.4   RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that the ORUM guideline (see Appendix H), be presented to DCS in order to ensure that the department buy in to the idea that the guideline be adopted as an addition to the existing G303 forms such as the Admission Risk Assessment tool, the Offender Profile and the Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP) which are completed by the CAO during Phase 1 of the ORP. Placing the ORUM guideline as an addition to the existing G303 forms on the offender case file should ensure that officials remain focused on the rehabilitation process of offenders.

Recommendations for implementation of the ORUM guideline are as follows:

10.4.1 Training of officials

In order for correctional and professional correctional officials to be able to implement the proposed ORUM guideline and to address the needs of offenders which would contribute to their rehabilitation, the following recommendations are made concerning their training:

- Train officials in the strength-based approach to serve as a framework from which the rehabilitation of offenders could be implemented
- Correctional officials should be trained in the handling and treatment of youth offenders because they are in a different phase of life than other offenders and they represent the majority of the offender population
- Train officials in the concept of rehabilitation and the responsibilities of a rehabilitator
- Train officials in the concept of unit management and its implementation in correctional centres
- In order to improve rehabilitation within the multi-disciplinary team, provide basic training to inform correctional and professional correctional officials about: Psychology, Offending behaviour, Rehabilitation, Life-skills, Anger management, Conflict management, skills related to Finance, Law, Social Work and Primary Health Care
- Correctional officials need to be trained in relapse prevention strategies in order to assist the offender with successful reintegration into the community.

10.4.2 Rehabilitation programmes

Since DCS is generally dealing with a young generation of offenders, it would be appropriate to present rehabilitation programmes – which include correctional, social work and developmental programmes– that are age-related and that would talk to the offenders in the life phase in which they find themselves during the time of serving the prison sentence. Latessa et al. (2014:116) indicate that "staff should be mindful of being responsive to this age group … younger clients tend to be more impulsive and resistant to change … less eager to change their behaviour … more inclined to drop out of programmes particularly ones that are encouraging them to change their peer networks and abstain from alcohol use."

Efforts should be made to cater for all cultures in correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area in terms of rehabilitation programmes and services. Latessa et al. (2014:117) state that "To respect diversity, does not suggest that we should stereotype clients based on their race, culture or ethnicity…Rather, it is more appropriate to respect that people differ based on their individual

characteristics and design their treatment plans accordingly."Recidivism should be addressed by making information available. An offender with previous convictions should be scheduled to undergo more detailed and in-depth programmes in an attempt to enhance the probability of the offender's rehabilitation. Offenders should be prepared concerning parenting, coping with parenting demands and re-establishing relationships after release through programmes.

10.4.3 Prioritising rehabilitation and unit management

It is recommended that a session be scheduled in Phase 1 of the ORP where an offender can be informed about rehabilitation, what it means and what his own responsibility is in the rehabilitation process. The word rehabilitation is used all over the correctional centers, and offenders are regularly reminded that they need to be rehabilitated, but they are not clear on what the exact meaning is of the word and what they need to do about it. The explanation of unit management should form part of the orientation phase during admission as well. This should create a better understanding of what is expected of the offender as well as the officials. The DCS should emphasise that centers ought to be architecturally designed and built and managed in such a way as to facilitate the accommodation and development of young people.

Rehabilitation should start as soon as possible after the admission of an offender, since the time available before the minimum detention period should be utilised fully. During therapeutic sessions with offenders the focus should be on determining his future plans with reference to the different aspects of his life such as family, studies, business and relationships in general. Correctional programmes should be exciting and challenging in order to inspire offenders to develop themselves through attending programmes. In order to address the major rehabilitation need of offenders – vocational training –the DCS needs to provide resources and finances to correctional centres to enable the presentation of skills training. Though offenders are motivated to participate in SRAC activities there is a need to provide and upgrade equipment needed for various sporting codes, as well as other SRAC activities.

Continuously sensitise officials on the humane treatment of offenders. Offenders should be treated with dignity and respect. Awareness should be created amongst officials concerning multi-disciplinary cooperation, networking and relapse prevention strategies. If unit management can be implemented successfully, officials will realise that it can have some advantages that include, amongst others, a more manageable number of offenders, early detection of offenders' needs, and release preparation through programme involvement. Officials might be willing to

accept and cooperate in a unit management system when it is fully functioning because they can see its benefits for them as well as for offenders. The appointment of social workers, qualified teachers, psychologists and spiritual care coordinators to present the rehabilitation programmes, education and individual counselling that offenders identified as a burning rehabilitation need is required.

The lack of equipment, materials, resources (computers, stationary, funding, vehicles) should be addressed by DCS in order to improve rehabilitation of offenders. The appointment of correctional and professional correctional officials in the DCS who need to be trained and multi-skilled, in order to address the shortage of personnel that is responsible for the current failing of unit management. Though rehabilitation and unit management are not implemented fully or properly due to a number of challenges that are difficult to overcome in existing correctional centres in the Bethal Management Area, implementing the above recommendations could contribute to the optimisation of both rehabilitation and unit management.

10.5   FUTURE RESEARCH

The researcher recommends that the proposed ORUM guideline is implemented and tested through a pilot study to determine its effectiveness and further development.

A pilot study can be launched in the Bethal Management Area where the ORUM guideline form part of the series of documents that are opened and filed on each newly admitted sentenced offender. By inviting all role players involved in the completion of the ORUM guideline to participate in the pilot study, valuable contributions and insights in the practical implementation of the guideline, whether positive or negative, will be available for evaluation and further development of the ORUM guideline.

Although the study was targeted at the Bethal Management Area, rehabilitation is priority of all correction centres, and hence the proposed ORUM guideline can also be piloted at another correction centre to compare results and applicability in optimising rehabilitation and unit management.

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PERMISSION LETTER FOR VISIT TO MANGAUNG CORRECTIONAL CENTRE

Ms J du Plessis

Social Worker

Department of Correctional Services: Ermelo

Private Bag X 9020

ERMELO

2350

Attention of: Me Du Plessis

15 May 2009

Dear Jo-Marie

Research Project – Programme for visit to Mangaung Correctional Centre

Jo-Marie our telephonic discussion to this regard refers. You will find the programme underneath will give you on the first day an overview through presentations and a Centre tour of Mangaung Correctional Centre, with specific focus on Unit Management, Structured Day and the Sentence Management Process. The second they you will be exposed to more in-depth discussions with certain role-players and they will show you practical examples of the day to day processes that we follow. The programme for the two days, 17 – 18 June are as follows:

17 June 2009:

07:30 – Pick up at Guesthouse – you will follow my vehicle – Leana Goosen

08:00 – Arrival at MCC – please do not have any keys, cell phones, cigarettes or money with you. You
        may take in basic stationary such as notebook and pen.

08:30 – Welcome and presentation on MCC – Johan Theron – Director of MCC

09:15 – Unit Management and Structured Day – Joseph Monyante

10:00 – Sentence Management process – Jacques (assessment) and Rie (rest of process)

11:00 – Programmes and Interventions – Manie, Dawid and Thabiso

G4S

12:00   Questions - All

12:30 – 13:30 Lunch – Johan and Leana

13:30 – 15:00 Centre Tour – Johan and Leana

15:00 – 16:00 Admission and Assessment Centre in practice - Jacques

18 June 2009

08:30 – Arrive at MCC – Manie

09:00 – Role and function of the multi-disciplinary team – Kay, Dawid, Manie

10:00 – Role and function of the Social worker in a normal housing unit and in the intermediate unit –
        Manie

12:00 – Lunch – Manie and Dawid

12:30 – Unit management in practice – Joseph/Shere/Albert

14:00 – Multi-disciplinary team meeting – Intermediate Unit MD-Team – Ismael/Manie plus team

15:30 – Evaluation and Questions – Johan and Leana

I hope this suggested programme will met the outcomes of your research. You are welcome to
indicate alternative needs that you may have and we will do our utmost to meet it. We are looking
forward to welcome you at the Mangaung Correctional Centre in Bloemfontein.

Yours faithfully

Leana Goosen
Head: Operations and Solutions
G4S Care and Justice Services (South Africa) Pty Ltd
leana.goosen@za.g4s.com
Cell: 082 776 8939

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION LETTER FROM DCS NATIONAL OFFICE

DEPARTMENT: CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X136, Pretoria, 0001. Tel. 012 307 2359 Facsimile 012 - 328 5111
124 Church Street West, Poynton Building West Block Pretoria

Reference: 8/7/1
Enquiries: Ms M. Shilubana
Date: February 2007

Ms. J Du Plessis

Fax: 0178155416

Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in DCS: Bethal area: a social work perspective

It is with pleasure that I wish to inform you that your request to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services on the above topic has been approved.

Your attention is drawn to the terminology used in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (February 2005).

Regional Head: Development & Care-LMNW, Mr. Makgoba has been appointed as your internal guide. You are requested to contact him at telephone number 0123343383 before the commencement of your research project.

The relevant Area and Regional Commissioners will be informed of your pending research project. It is your responsibility to make arrangements for your visiting times. It is recommended that your identity document and this approval letter be in your possession when visiting the center.

Should you have any enquiries regarding this process, please contact the Directorate Research for assistance at telephone number 012-305 8628/305 8619/307 2359

Thank you for your application and interest to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services.

Yours faithfully

CHIEF DEPUTY COMMISSIONER: CENTRAL SERVICES
TJ MOTSEKI (Mr.)

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APPENDIX C

PERMISSION LETTER FROM AREA COMMISSIONER BETHAL MANAGEMENT AREA

Correctional Services
Department Correctional Services
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X1035, BETHAL, 2310, / OTK Building, Cnr. Vuyisile Mini & Kleynhans Street, Bethal, 2310
Tel: (017) 6473886 , Fax: (017) 647 2018

FAX COVER SHEET

REFERENCE: 7/2/1

TO	Ermelo CC
ORGANISATION	Department of Correctional Services
FROM	Area Commissioner's Office
Attention	Ms. Du Plessis
TEL	(017) 647-3886
FAX	(017) 647-3676
ENQUIRIES	Ms NB Qwesha
Date	22/04/2016
NO. PAGES	01

SUBJECT:	**PERMISSION FOR RESEARCH PROJECT- MS J DU PLESSIS : ERMELO COE**

1. The above matter refers.

2. This is to acknowledge the receipt of your request and to grant approval to conduct your research project in the Management Area.

3. Kind regards,

E.S Mndawe
AREA COMMISSIONER: BETHAL MANAGEMENT AREA
LMN REGION
DATE: 22/04/2016

APPENDIX D

ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE

ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE

SENTENCED OFFENDERS

The goal of this research study is to investigate how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimized to address the needs of offenders and to provide guidelines for custodial and professional officials in the Department of Correctional Services (DCS), Bethal area, from a social work perspective.

1.   BIOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

1.1   Age[2]:

16-18 years	
19-21 years	
22-29 years	
30-37 years	
38-45 years	
46-53 years	
54-60 years	
60+ years	

1.2   Marital status:

Never married	
Living together	
Customary marriage	
Lawful marriage	
Separated	
Divorced	
Estranged	
Widower	

1.3   Number of biological children:

None	
1 child	
2-3 children	
4-6 children	
7-10 children	
More than 10 children	

1.4   Home language:

English	
Zulu	
N-Sotho	
Afrikaans	
Venda	
SiSwati	
Other, specify	

---

[2] Age groupings are in accordance with set categories as found within the Department of Correctional Services

1.5   Highest qualifications:

Illiterate	
Grade 1-2	
Standard 1-3	
Standard 4-6	
Standard 7-9	
Grade 12	
ABET Level 1	
ABET Level 2	
ABET Level 3	
ABET Level 4	
N4-N6	
Diploma/degree	
Other, specify	

2. SENTENCE PARTICULARS

2.1   Nature of offence:

Aggressive	
Sexual	
Economical	
Other, specify	

2.2   Sentence period: _____

2.3   Term already served: _____

2.4   Number of previous convictions: _____

3. REHABILITATION NEEDS

3.1   Describe your understanding of rehabilitation in DCS.

_____

_____

_____

3.2   Do you feel that you have changed since you were sentenced?

_____

3.3   If you have changed, on what level did you experience change? (E.g. perception on family roles, criminal behaviour, future plans)

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.4   Are you presently participating, or did you previously participate in any of the following programmes?

PROGRAMME	YES	NO	NATURE OF PROGRAMME
Spiritual Care			
Social work			
Formal education			
Vocational training			
Psychologist services			
Labour (Work Span)			
Recreation (sport, games, music, choir, library)			
Any form of individual counseling or therapy			

3.5   How did your programme involvement contribute to your rehabilitation or process of change?

PROGRAMME	CONTRIBUTION TO REHABILITATION
Spiritual Care	
Social work	
Formal education	
Vocational training	
Psychologist services	
Labour (Span)	
Recreation (sport, games, music, choir, library)	
Individual counseling or therapy	

3.6   Who functions as your support system and on what level?

RELATIVE	CONTACT METHOD		NATURE OF SUPPORT	
	VISITS	TELEPHONIC	EMOTIONAL	FINANCIAL
Primary relatives, e.g. father, mother, siblings				
Secondary relatives, e.g. spouse/partner, children				
Extended family members, e.g. uncle, aunt, cousins				
Friends, e.g. Male or female friends				
Other community members, e.g. church members				

3.7   In what areas of your life in the correctional centre do you still require assistance for outstanding needs that would enhance your rehabilitation?

❖ _____

❖ _____

❖ _____

❖ _____

❖ _____

3.8   How do you see your life when you are fully rehabilitated?

_____

_____

_____

3.9   What problems can you identify that might hinder your successful rehabilitation?

_____

_____

4.   UNIT MANAGEMENT

4.1   Do you know what unit management is?

Yes	No	

4.2   If yes, explain shortly how you understand unit management.

_____

_____

_____

4.3   Discuss your experience of unit management guided by the following key factors and roles: Accommodation in smaller units, structured day programme, case file, unit manager, case management supervisor, case officer.

KEY FACTOR/ROLES	APPLICABILITY TO OWN EXPERIENCE		NATURE OF EXPERIENCE
	YES	NO	
Smaller units			
Structured day programme			
Case files			
Unit manager			
Case management supervisor			
Case officer			

4.4   What suggestions can you make to DCS that would contribute to your rehabilitation?

_____

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU

APPENDIX E

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

OFFICIALS IN DCS

The goal of this research study is to investigate how rehabilitation and unit management can be optimized to address the needs of offenders, and to provide guidelines for custodial and professional officials in the DCS, Bethal Area, from a social work perspective.

1. BIOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

1.1   Gender:

Male		Female	

1.2   Home language:

English	
isiZulu	
N-Sotho	
Afrikaans	
Venda	
SiSwati	
Other	

1.3   Highest qualifications:

Standard 6-9	
Grade 12	
Diploma	
Degree	
Other	

1.4   Age:

18-25 years	
26-33 years	
34-41 years	
42-49 years	
50-57 years	
58-65 years	

1.5   Marital status:

Single	
Living together	
Married	
Separated	
Estranged	
Divorced	
Widow / Widower	

2. CAREER PARTICULARS

2.1   Number of years service in the DCS: _____

2.2   Present post: _____

3. REHABILITATION

3.1   What do you regard as "rehabilitation" in the DCS?

_____

_____

_____

3.2   What place do you think rehabilitation has in the DCS?

_____

_____

3.3   How do you think you can contribute to rehabilitation of offenders from your specific specialized area?

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

3.4   What skills and tools do you need to enable you to fully contribute to rehabilitation?

- ❖ _____
- ❖ _____
- ❖ _____
- ❖ _____

3.5   Do you perceive yourself as a rehabilitator?

Yes		No	

3.6   Motivate your answer:

_____

_____

3.7 How do you perceive the implementation of multi-disciplinary cooperation in your unit?

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.8 If applicable to your post, kindly indicate your involvement in networking between DCS and community organizations.

_____

_____

_____

3.9 What services are you aware of that assist offenders with relapse prevention after release?

_____

_____

4. UNIT MANAGEMENT

4.1 What are your views on unit management in the DCS?

_____

_____

_____

4.2 How can unit management contribute to rehabilitation of offenders?

_____

_____

_____

4.3 What is needed for the successful implementation of unit management in your unit?

_____

_____

4.4   Do you perceive unit management as being effective in DCS at this stage?

Yes		No	

  4.5   Motivate your answer:

_____

_____

_____

_____

4.6   Are you satisfied with your present post?

Yes		No	

4.7   On a scale from 1 – 5, where one presents not at all and five fully, where would you indicate your level of job satisfaction:

1	2	3	4	5

1	Not at all satisfied
2	Mostly dissatisfied
3	Uncertain
4	Mostly satisfied
5	Fully satisfied

5.   RECOMMENDATIONS/ SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING REHABILITATION AND UNIT MANAGEMENT

5.1   What recommendations or suggestions can you make to improve rehabilitation in your unit?

_____

_____

_____

5.2   What recommendations or suggestions can you make to improve unit management in your unit?

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU

CONSENT FORMS FOR OFFICIALS AND OFFENDERS
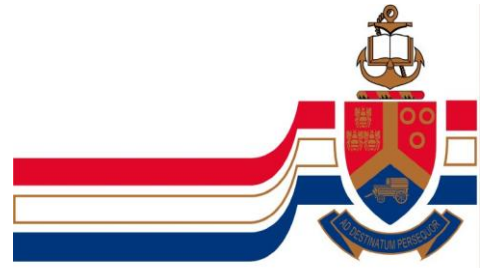
Department of Social Work and Criminology
Faculty of Humanities
Tel. +27 12 420-2325/2030
Fax. +27 12 420-2093/420-5256

CONSENT FORM FOR RESPONDENTS: CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

Research study: Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in the Bethal Area: A social work perspective

I,_____ (the respondent), was asked to participate in a research project titled "Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in the Bethal Area: A social work perspective."

The researcher, Ms J Du Plessis, is a doctoral student at the University of Pretoria, Department of Social Work and Criminology. She is required to subscribe to a code of ethics that respects participants' rights. The researcher will make every effort to safeguard the confidentiality of the information provided by the participants. I understand that any information obtained from this study that can be identified with me will remain confidential and will not be given to anyone without my permission.

I was requested to take part in a semi-structured interview conducted by the researcher, which will be recorded in writing for record-keeping purposes, and was assured that there will be no risks or anticipated discomforts suffered for participating in this research study. I understand that the researcher will not offer either benefits or incentives for my participation.

I understand that I have the right to refuse to participate in this study. I also understand that if I do agree to participate, I shall have the right to change my mind at any time and to terminate my participation. My signature below indicates that I have given my informed consent to participate in the above-described project and further indicates that:

- The information given by me will be treated in a confidential manner and for purposes of the research study only.
- The data and results of the research will be stored for a period of fifteen years for the purpose of further research.
- Research data and results will be reflected in a thesis, conference papers, and scientific articles only.
- I was given the opportunity to ask questions about the described project and my participation, and my questions were answered to my satisfaction.
- I was permitted to read this document, and was given a signed copy thereof.

_____   _____

Signature of participant   Date

_____   _____

Signature of researcher   Date

CONSENT FORM FOR RESPONDENTS: OFFENDERS

Research study: Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in the Bethal Area: A social work perspective

I,_____ (the respondent), was asked to participate in a research project titled "Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in the Bethal Area: A social work perspective."

The researcher, Ms J Du Plessis, is a doctoral student at the University of Pretoria, Department of Social Work and Criminology. She is required to subscribe to a code of ethics that respects participants' rights. The researcher will make every effort to safeguard the confidentiality of the information provided by the participants. I understand that any information obtained from this study that can be identified with me will remain confidential and will not be given to anyone without my permission.

I was requested to take part in the completion of an administered questionnaire conducted by the researcher and was assured that there will be no risks or anticipated discomforts suffered for participating in this research study. I understand that the researcher will not offer either benefits or incentives for my participation.

I understand that I have the right to refuse to participate in this study. I also understand that if I do agree to participate, I shall have the right to change my mind at any time and to terminate my participation. My signature below indicates that I have given my informed consent to participate in the above-described project, and it further indicates that:
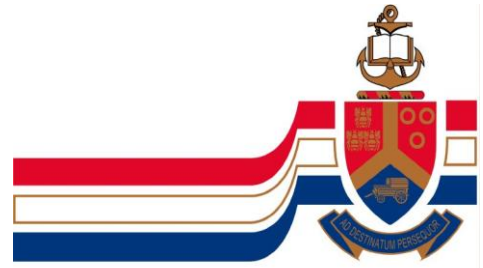
- The information given by me will be treated in a confidential manner and for purposes of the research study only.
- The data and results of the research will be stored for a period of fifteen years for the purpose of further research.
- Research data and results will be reflected in a thesis, conference papers, and scientific articles only.
- I was given the opportunity to ask questions about the described project and my participation, and my questions were answered to my satisfaction.
- I was permitted to read this document and was given a signed copy thereof.

_____   _____

Signature of participant   Date

_____   _____

Signature of researcher   Date

APPENDIX G

ETHICAL CLEARANCE FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

28 November 2008

Dear Prof. Lombard

Project:	**Optimising rehabilitation and unit management in the Department of Correctional Services in the Bethal area: a Social Work perspective**
Researcher:	**J du Plessis**
Supervisor:	**Prof. A Lombard**
Department:	**Social Work and Criminology**
Reference number:	**89443340**

Thank you for your correspondence of 31 October 2008.

I have pleasure in informing you that the Research Proposal and Ethics Committee formally **approved** the above study on 25 November 2008. The approval is subject to the candidate abiding by the principles and parameters set out in her revised application and research proposal in the actual execution of the research.

The Committee requests you to convey this approval to Ms du Plessis.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

B Lou

Prof. Brenda Louw
Chair: Research Proposal and Ethics Committee
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: brenda.louw@up.ac.za

Research Proposal and Ethics Committee Members: Prof P Chiroro; Dr M-H Coetzee; Dr JEH Grobler; Prof KL Harris; Ms H Klopper; Prof E Krüger; Prof B Louw (Chair); Prof A Mlambo; Prof G Prinsloo; Mr C Puttergill; Prof H Stander; Prof E Taljard; Dr J van Dyk; Prof C Walton; Mr FG Wolmarans

APPENDIX H

ORUM (OPTIMISING REHABILITATION AND UNIT MANAGEMENT) GUIDELINE

ORUM GUIDELINE
GUIDELINES FOR OPTIMISING REHABILITATION AND UNIT MANAGEMENT
SECTION A **ADMISSION TO THE CORRECTIONAL CENTRE - COMPLETION BY THE CASE ADMINISTRATION OFFICER (CAO)**
1. BIOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE OFFENDER: 1. Name and Surname: _____ 2. Registration number: _____ 3. Date of sentence: _____ 4. Sentence: _____ 5. Offence: _____ 6. Previous convictions: _____ 7. Date of birth: _____ 8. Age: _____ 9. Highest qualification: _____ 10. Home language: _____ 11. Marital status: _____ 12. Youth (Age between 18 and 26 years): YES / NO 13. Elderly (Age 60+ years): YES / NO 14. Parent: YES / NO 15. Family support system: _____ _____ 16. Other support systems (spiritual, welfare, social, recreational, health) _____ **2. GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE CAO:** After assessment was done, when compiling the CSP (Correctional Sentence Plan), note the following guidelines: 2.1 If a newly admitted offender is identified as a youth, schedule him for the relevant rehabilitation programmes that include, amongst others, the Cool and Fit for life social work programme. 2.2 If a newly admitted offender is identified as a parent, schedule him to attend relevant rehabilitation programmes that include, amongst others, the Parenting social work programme. 2.3 If a newly admitted offender has not passed grade 12, schedule him for formal education at the school section, which should be accompanied by a referral to the Head: Education, who will be responsible for registering the offender. 2.4 If a newly admitted offender committed offences of an economical nature, emphasis should be placed on his involvement in and scheduling for relevant rehabilitation programmes, such as the Economic Crime correctional progamme. 2.5 Upon admission each sentenced offender needs to be informed about rehabilitation, what it means and what his responsibility is in his rehabilitation process. The reality of life after release and how rehabilitation fits into life after release should be emphasised. 2.6 Upon admission each sentenced offender needs to be informed about unit management, what the concept entails and what his responsibility is with reference to his case file, case

officer, case management supervisor, and unit manager.

2.7 An offender with previous convictions should be scheduled to undergo more detailed and in-depth programmes in an attempt to enhance the offender's rehabilitation possibilities.

2.8 Establish family contact between the offender and his primary, secondary or extended relatives upon admission. In cases where family contact is not possible or when there are challenges with the support system, the matter should be referred to the social work section for intervention.

2.9 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.

2.10 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by maintaining good conduct and exemplary behaviour.

2.11 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.

2.12 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender.

3. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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_____   _____
Signature: CAO   Date

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Signature: Unit Manager   Date

SECTION B
ADMISSION INTO A HOUSING UNIT - COMPLETION BY THE CASE OFFICER (CO)

1. ORIENTATION AND PLACEMENT OF THE OFFENDER:

1.1 Orientated upon arrival at the housing unit: YES / NO
1.2 Placement in unit number: _____
1.3 Notedthe Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP) YES / NO

2. GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE CO:

2.1 Ensure that the sentenced offender has been assigned to activities from the time that he is transferred from the admission unit to the housing unit. (For example: social work, correctional, formal education, or spiritual care programme attendance, labour, SRAC).

2.2 Network with the service provider sections in the centre that were identified in the CSP to render rehabilitation programmes.

2.3 Focus the newly admitted sentenced offender's attention on the goal in his life, which is supported by his future plans. Remind the sentenced offender throughout his sentence about his future, as well as his plans concerning his family, employment, business, studies (if applicable) and functioning in general.

2.4 Motivate and encourage offenders to participate in programmes.

2.5 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.

2.6 When an offender is challenged with substance abuse in the correctional centre, refer him/her to relevant professional officials for intervention.

2.7 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by personally maintaining good conduct and

exemplary behaviour.

2.8 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.

2.9 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender and inform the offender of relapse prevention strategies that can assist in avoiding relapse after release.

3. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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_____   _____
Signature: CO   Date

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Signature: CMS   Date

_____   _____
Signature: Unit Manager   Date

SECTION C

INTERVENTION

SUB-SECTION C1

CORRECTIONALPROGRAMMES – COMPLETION BY CASE INTERVENTION OFFICIAL (CIO)

1. ORIENTATION:

1.1 Orientated newly referred offender: YES / NO
1.2 Noted the Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP) YES / NO

2. GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE CIO:

2.1 Focus the newly admitted sentenced offender's attention to the goal in his life, which is supported by his future plans. Remind the sentenced offender throughout his sentence about his future, as well as his plans concerning his family, employment, business, studies (if applicable) and functioning in general.

2.2 Motivate and encourage offenders to participate in programmes.

2.3 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.

2.4 When an offender is challenged with substance abuse in the correctional centre, refer him/her to relevant professional officials for possible intervention.

2.5 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by personally maintaining good conduct and exemplary behaviour.

2.6 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.

2.7 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender.

2.8 Inform the offender of relapse prevention strategies that can assist in avoiding relapse after release.

3. PLANNING CONCERNING PROGRAMMES SCHEDULED:

PROGRAMME	*DATE SCHEDULED*

4. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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_____   _____
Signature: CIO   Date

_____   _____
Signature: Unit Manager   Date

SUB-SECTION C2

SPIRITUAL CARE PROGRAMMES - COMPLETION BY SPIRITUAL AND MORAL DEVELOPMENT COORDINATOR (SMDC)

1. ORIENTATION:

1.1 Orientated newly referred offender: YES / NO
1.2 Noted the Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP) YES / NO

2. GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE SMDC:

2.1 Focus the newly admitted sentenced offender's attention on the goal in his/her life which is supported by his/her future plans. Remind the sentenced offender throughout his/her sentence about his/her future, as well as his/her plans concerning his/her family, employment, business, studies (if applicable) and functioning in general.
2.2 Motivate and encourage offenders to participate in programmes.
2.3 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.
2.4 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by personally maintaining good conduct and exemplary behaviour.
2.5 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.
2.6 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender.

2.7 Inform the offender of relapse prevention strategies that can assist in avoiding relapse after release.

3. **PLANNING CONCERNING PROGRAMMES SCHEDULED:**

PROGRAMME	*DATE SCHEDULED*

4. **CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:**

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_____   _____
Signature: SMDC   Date

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Signature: Centre Coordinator Operational Support   Date

_____   _____
Signature: Unit Manager   Date

SUB-SECTION C3
PROFESSIONAL INTERVENTIONS – COMPLETION BY C3.1) SOCIAL WORKERS,C3.2) EDUCATIONISTS AND C3.3) HEALTH CARE PROFESSIONALS

C3.1 SOCIAL WORK SECTION

1. **ORIENTATION:**

1.1 Orientated concerning Social work section: YES / NO
1.2 Noted the Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP): YES / NO

2. **GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE SOCIAL WORKER:**

2.1 Focus the newly admitted sentenced offender's attention on the goal in his/her life which is supported by his/her future plans. Remind the sentenced offender throughout his/her sentence about his/her future, as well as his/her plans concerning his/her family, employment, business, studies (if applicable) and functioning in general.
2.2 Determine if a sentenced offender is in need of individual counselling upon admission (or thereafter) and refer him/her to the relevant social worker for intervention and/or further referrals.
2.3 Motivate and encourage offenders to participate in programmes.
2.4 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.
2.5 When an offender is referred with substance abuse challenge in the correctional centre,

provide intervention and/or refer him/her to relevant external stakeholders for intervention.

2.6 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by personally maintaining good conduct and exemplary behaviour.

2.7 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.

2.8 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender.

2.9 Inform the offender of relapse prevention strategies that can assist in avoiding relapse after release.

3. PLANNING CONCERNING PROGRAMMES SCHEDULED:

PROGRAMME	*DATE SCHEDULED*

4. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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_____   _____

Signature: Social Worker   Date

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Signature: Centre Coordinator Operational Support   Date

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Signature: Unit Manager   Date

C3.2 EDUCATION SECTION

1. ORIENTATION:

1.1 Orientated concerning the Education section: YES / NO

1.2 Noted the Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP): YES / NO

2. GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE EDUCATIONIST:

2.1 Focus the newly admitted sentenced offender's attention on the goal in his/her life which is supported by his/her future plans. Remind the sentenced offender throughout his/her sentence about his/her future, as well as his/her plans concerning his/her family, employment, business, studies (if applicable) and functioning in general.

2.2 Refer qualifying offenders (offenders who lack job skills), for vocational training. Where vocational training is not available in a correctional centre, collaborate with the Case Management Committee (CMC) for a temporal transfer of the offender to a centre where skills training can be obtained.

2.3 Motivate and encourage offenders to participate in programmes.

2.4 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.

2.5 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by personally maintaining good conduct and exemplary behaviour.
2.6 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.
2.7 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender.
2.8 Inform the offender of relapse prevention strategies that can assist in avoiding relapse after release.

3. PLANNED INTERVENTION SCHEDULED:

PLANNED INTERVENTION	DATE SCHEDULED

4. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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_____   _____
Signature: Educationist   Date

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Signature: Centre Coordinator Operational Support   Date

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Signature: Unit Manager   Date

C3.3 HEALTH CARE SECTION

1. ORIENTATION:

1.1 Orientated offender concerning Health Care section: YES / NO
1.2 Noted the Correctional Sentence Plan (CSP): YES / NO

2. GUIDELINES TO BE FOLLOWED BY THE HEALTH CARE PROFESSIONAL:

2.1 Focus the newly admitted sentenced offender's attention on the goal in his/her life which is supported by his/her future plans. Remind the sentenced offender throughout his/her sentence about his/her future, as well as his/her plans concerning his/her family, employment, business, studies(if applicable) and functioning in general.
2.2 Treat and handle offenders with dignity and respect.
2.3 Upon admission newly admitted sentenced offenders should be orientated about psychological services and referred if it is necessary.
2.4 Motivate and encourage offenders to participate in programmes.
2.5 Impact offender rehabilitation positively by personally maintaining good conduct and exemplary behaviour.

2.6 Participate in a multi-disciplinary team.
2.7 Network with internal and external stakeholders in order to address the needs of the offender.
2.8 Inform the offender of relapse prevention strategies that can assist in avoiding relapse after release.

3. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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Signature: Health Care Professional   Date

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Signature: Centre Coordinator Operational Support   Date

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Signature: Unit Manager   Date

SECTION D
IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CORRECTIONAL SENTENCE PLAN (CSP) –
COMPLETION B Y THE UNIT MANAGER

1. CHECKING:

1.1 Checked Section A to Section C of the Annexure – YES / NO
1.2 Noted planned interventions – YES / NO

2. GUIDELINES:

2.1 Arrange multi-disciplinary meetings between correctional and professional correctional officials involved in the rehabilitation of offenders, specifically those officials who have specific responsibilities in terms of the guidelines.
2.2 Arrange and lead Case Review Team (CRT) meetings where the progress of offenders are determined concerning their involvement in intervention with reference to the programmes scheduled in the CSP.
2.3 Introduce, implement and follow the structured day programme.

3. CONFIRM COMPLIANCE:

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Signature: Unit Manager   Date

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Signature: Centre Coordinator Corrections   Date