

**The impact of rehabilitation programmes on prisoners:
A case study of the Westville Prison Educational
Programmes.**

SITHEMBISO MAGNUS NGUBANE

**Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the
degree of Masters in Education, in the School of Education,
University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg)**

Supervisor: Ivor Baatjes

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary, is my own original work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any university or institution.



SITHEMBISO MAGNUS NGUBANE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the following people for their support, guidance and encouragement:

- My supervisor, Ivor Baatjes, for his support and guidance

- My family and friends for their encouragement and support

- The Department of Correctional Services for granting me permission to conduct this research at Westville Prison.

- The Correctional Officers, Social Workers and Educators at Westville Prison for their willingness to contribute to the success of the research.

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the impact of education programmes on the rehabilitation of prisoners. For the purpose of this study, rehabilitation of a prisoner is a stage reached when a person, after admission into prison, undergoes specifically planned programmes that will help him or her to fit well into society (social adjustment), be accepted by family and community and not to re-enter prison after release.

This study acknowledges the fact that education on its own is not necessarily rehabilitative, but education helps to equip people with knowledge and skills that they may use in the outside world so that they may not resort to criminal practices as a result of unemployment.

Methods of rehabilitation in different countries have been studied with the aim of comparing them with those in the South African context. Theories concerning the causes and treatment of crime and some ways of rehabilitating prisoners have also been examined. Questionnaires with personal, administrative and institutions items were given to programme facilitators, participants in programmes, non-participants in programmes and to ex-prisoners. Some questionnaires were given to family members of prisoners. Also, interviews with prison warders were conducted.

This study has shown that educational programmes have a positive impact on the rehabilitation of prisoners. Sentenced prisoners and ex-prisoners that participated in educational programmes confirmed this.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of Contents	v
Introduction	1
Chapter 1	3
1.1 Critical questions	3
1.2 Available educational programmes	3
1.3 Research site	4
1.4 Some correctional goals	5
1.5 Definition of terms and the purpose of the research	6
1.6 Research methodology	8
1.7 Research site and programme description	10
1.7.1 Research site	10
1.7.2 Staffing	11
1.7.3 Description of programmes	12
1.7.3.1 Orientation	12
1.7.3.2 Aggressive offender programme	12
1.7.3.3 Sexual offender programme	13
1.7.3.4 Life skills programmes	13
1.7.3.5 Marriage and family care	13
1.7.3.6 Drug and alcohol	13
1.7.3.7 HIV/AIDS	13
1.7.3.8 Pre-release	14
1.7.4 Research tools and sample	14
1.7.5 Literature search	15
1.8 Capturing of data	16
1.9 Reliability of the research	16
1.10 Difficulties with the research	17

1.11 Merits and demerits of the research	18
Chapter 2	20
2.1 Introduction	20
2.2 Methods of rehabilitation in different countries	20
2.3 Imprisonment and unemployment	22
2.4 Theories concerning the causes of crime	24
2.4.1 Environmental Theory	25
2.4.2 Psychopathic Theory	26
2.4.3 Contra-Cultural And Sub-Cultural Theories	27
2.5 Theories concerning the treatment of crime	28
2.5.1 Prediction studies	29
2.5.2 Types of punishment	29
2.5.3 Experimental studies	30
2.5.4 Cross-institutional studies	31
2.5.5 Correctional model	32
2.6 Radical model	33
2.7 Some ways of rehabilitating offenders	33
2.8 Strategies of treatment	36
2.9 Imprisonment and education	38
2.10 Rehabilitation programmes in South Africa	42
2.11 Education and training of the DCS	46
2.11.1 Formal education programmes	46
2.11.1.1 Adult Basic Education	
Training programmes (ABET)	47
2.11.1.2 Mainstream education programmes	47
2.11.1.3 Tertiary education	47
2.11.2 Informal education programmes	47
2.11.2.1 Recreation educational programmes	48
2.11.2.2 Library educational programmes	48
2.11.2.3 Life Skills programmes	48
2.11.3 Training programmes	49
2.12 Youth offender programme	51

2.13 Development programmes for young offenders	53
2.14 Curriculum theory and adult learning	54
2.15 Treatment of females in prisons	56
2.16 Summary	59
Chapter 3	61
3.1 Introduction	61
3.2 Questionnaire to programme facilitators	62
3.2.1 Personal items	62
3.2.2 Administrative items	66
3.2.3 Institutional items	69
3.3 Questionnaire to participants	73
3.3.1 Personal items	74
3.3.2 Administrative items	77
3.3.3 Institutional items	79
3.4 Questionnaire to non-participants	83
3.4.1 Personal items	83
3.4.2 Administrative items	86
3.4.3 Institutional items	88
3.5 Questionnaire to ex-prisoners	89
3.5.1 Personal items	90
3.5.2 Administrative items	91
3.5.3 Institutional items	93
3.6 Questionnaire to family members	94
3.7 Interviews with prison warders	95
Chapter 4	98
Conclusion	98
4.1 Some suggestions	102
4.1.1 Workshops on re-integration of ex-prisoners	102
4.1.2 Removal of discriminatory request on form Z83	102
4.1.3 Improve the quality and quantity of programmes	102
4.1.4 Affirmative action required to address needs of females	103
4.1.5 Stakeholder participation in policy decision-making	103
4.1.6 Increase professional capacity in prisons	104

4.1.7 Involve and increase prison warders' participation in the rehabilitation process	104
Bibliography	105
Appendices	
Appendix A	113
Appendix B	115
Appendix C	116
Appendix D	117
Appendix E	118

INTRODUCTION

The rate of crime in South Africa and the number of people being imprisoned is very high. Some of the issues associated with the high crime rate and imprisonment include poverty, unemployment, under-education, dysfunctional family backgrounds and so on. This study looks at the impact of rehabilitation programmes on prisoners with specific reference to the Westville Prison educational programmes.

There are many individuals who are also imprisoned more than once as a result of repeated criminal activity. Such individuals may have specific problems that require the assistance and support of external experts. Specific programmes and strategies may also be required to help such individuals so that, in the end, they become socially acceptable citizens who are integrated into society.

In South Africa an estimated 7.4 million adults are regarded as illiterate, of which 3 million have no formal schooling. In addition to these figures, many people did not complete nine years of schooling and, in an era where higher levels of literacy are required, the actual number of adults in need of basic education increases to approximately 10 million. As part of rehabilitation programme, this study looks at educational programmes that contribute to adult literacy that may also increase the employability of adults in South African society. This study acknowledges that education on its own is not rehabilitative, but that education helps to equip prisoners with knowledge and skills that they could use in society and could deter them from criminal practices.

This study has found that educational programmes have a positive impact on the rehabilitation of prisoners. Sentenced prisoners and ex-prisoners that participated in educational programmes find some form of positive transformation in themselves and tend to have positive attitudes towards themselves, their families, friends, community and life in general. Ex-prisoners that participated in the programmes stated that they were able to:

- love and be tolerant;
- be of help in the community;
- exhibit good behaviour;
- communicate with others;
- respect others and their property; and
- differentiate between good and bad habits.

This research report is divided into four chapters and ends with a detailed bibliography and appendices. The first chapter provides an overview of the research methodology. Some correctional goals, rationale for the study, critical questions guiding the study and educational programmes available at the site are discussed. A detailed description of the site, statistics and demographics of prisoners are provided. This chapter also provides a discussion about the research methods used. The first chapter also includes capturing of data, difficulties with the research, reliability of the research and merits and demerits of the study.

The second chapter provides an overview of the literature reviewed. A variety of rehabilitation methods as used in different countries are also discussed. This part of the report also looks at some models and theories concerning the causes of crime and theories concerning the treatment of crime. These models and theories provide a solid basis for the conceptualisation of educational and rehabilitation programmes. Apart from looking at rehabilitation methods in other countries, this section looks into rehabilitation programmes within the South African context. This section also discusses education and training in the DCS.

The third chapter presents the data gathered for the report and provides an analysis of the data. This section discloses all the information obtained by the researcher. Information obtained using questionnaires and face-to-face interview is presented and analysed. This chapter also highlights key findings of the research.

The fourth and final chapter summarises the key conclusions that could be drawn from this research and the researcher made some suggestions about educational programmes and rehabilitation to the DCS.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

This chapter discloses critical questions, available education programmes, research site, some correctional goals, rationale, research methodology, methodological tools, sample used in the research, literature search, interview schedule, capturing of data, reliability of the research, difficulties with the research, as well as merits and demerits of the study.

1.1 Critical questions

This research was guided by the following questions:

- What criteria does Westville Prison Educational Programmes Centre use in determining the needs and expectations of prisoners and the larger community?
- How are these needs reflected and incorporated into and addressed through educational programmes?
- What changes can be made to improve programme accessibility and delivery?
- How can we prove that existing programmes do assist in the rehabilitation of prisoners?
- What other forms or ways of rehabilitation can be employed at the centre?

1.2 Available educational programmes

The Westville Prison provides educational programmes for both youth and adults. Youth prisoners are taught the same subjects that are taught at schools, including Languages, Mathematics, History, Geography, Science and Commercial subjects. Adult prisoners are taught the same subjects as the youth, but programmes available to adults include technical training such as bricklaying, plumbing, carpentry, etc.

At the time of the site visit, adult prisoners pointed out that technical training was no longer offered. The reason was that there were no facilitators employed in the adult section to offer technical training. Only the Usethubeni Youth Centre offered technical training to youth offenders.

A number of rehabilitation programmes are also offered. These include the programmes that focus on the following:

- Orientation
- Aggressive offender programmes
- Sexual offender
- Life skills
- Marriage and family care
- Drug and alcohol
- HIV/ Aids
- Pre-release programmes

A description of these programmes is provided in section 1.7.3.

1.3 Research site

Westville prison is one of the largest prisons in KwaZulu-Natal. It is situated about twenty kilometres north of Durban. The prison accommodates male and female prisoners, adults and youth¹. Educational programmes are available to all prisoners. The research looks at what impact the educational programmes have on the rehabilitation of prisoners. The major focus of this research project explores:

- Whether or not programmes are appropriate in bringing about changes in the lives of prisoners when they leave the prison.
- Whether the programmes are in accordance with the needs of learners and the community. For instance, the researcher was interested to know whether prisoners were able to find employment on release from prison.

¹ Tshiwula (1998: 178) defines youth as all those who are 18 years old and younger and adults as those who are 18 years and older.

1.4 Some correctional goals

Glaser (1972: 102) summarized correctional goals as revenge, restraint, rehabilitation and reintegration. According to Glaser revenge is the traditional concern of a victim in reaction to predation (the act of harming another person). The state's role in trying and sentencing "predators" (Glaser's term) began with efforts to minimize disruption of society from private vengeance seeking. Glaser distinguishes five goals of state policy in relation to the punishment of offenders:

- The first is **pure revenge** - to satisfy the passions of the victims and their supporters.
 - The second is **abstract justice** - to balance each wrong with a penalty, as a matter of religious or philosophical principle.
 - The third is called **individual deterrence** - to make the punished person fear the consequences of crime.
 - The fourth is **general deterrence** - to make others refrain from crime and to fear its penalties.
 - The fifth is **symbolic** - to communicate the state's disapproval of certain acts by classifying them as criminal.
- (ibid: 102).

None of the above motivations to impose punishment has disappeared by any means, but all are less frequently and stridently voiced now than they once were.

At first restraint was used only pending trial and during the determination of sentence. Punishment was then primarily corporal (e.g. lashings), capital, economic (fines or forfeiture of property), or social (punishment or ostracism). Gradually confinement became the preferred penalty in modern times.

Workhouses for misdemeanants developed in Europe in the sixteenth century, but imprisonment became the predominant punishment for felons only in the nineteenth century. The United States led this development with the Pennsylvania

System, promoted by the Quakers² of that state (ibid: 103). They emphasized solitary confinement and religiously oriented personnel and visitors.

Rehabilitation of prisoners by education, vocational training and counselling received growing emphasis during the twentieth century (ibid: 106). This had begun in the late nineteenth century when reformatories were introduced as separate prison for youth. Rehabilitation is discussed further in the next section. Reintegration of offenders into society, after their presumed rehabilitation by prison programmes, is proclaimed as a goal of correctional service and parole. Parole refers to the early release of a prisoner on a promise of good behaviour. More specific claims comprise the manifest or official functions of parole. These are:

- Make better decisions on the optimum duration of confinement by deferring such decision so that they may be based just upon observation of the offenders in prison rather than just upon impressions conveyed in the courtroom.
- Assist released prisoners achieving a law-abiding life.
- To protect the public by making release from prison conditional, with surveillance of the releases so that they may be promptly confined if they show evidence of not conforming to conventional norms and drifting back into crime.

(Ibid: 106)

1.5 Definition of terms and the purpose of the research

It is important to define the term rehabilitation. Rehabilitation is a relatively new concept originating in the late nineteenth century, when agitation by charity organizations led general concern about handicapped³ people. At the time the

² Quakers are members of the Society of Friends, a Christian sect emphasizing simple, personal experience of divine revelation and a belief in pacifism.

³ Handicapped people according to modern use, refers to people with possible physical, mental, etc. disabilities who experience difficulty helping themselves.

attitude towards disabled people was aversion, neglect, and pity, and the approach to this group of people was merely to give them alms. This is in contrast to the modern understanding of helping the disabled people or handicapped or disorganized person to become independent and self-supporting, and thus living a socially acceptable life.

Webster's New International dictionary defines rehabilitation as:

The process of restoring an individual (as the convict, mental patient or disordered victim) to a useful and constructive place in society through some form of vocational, correctional or therapeutic retraining or through relief, financial aid or other reconstructive measure.

A number of other scholars have contributed to the definition of rehabilitation. Hagan (1985: 289) says rehabilitation or reform is concerned with imposing a punishment, usually in this case called "treatment" to correct what went wrong in the person who committed the crime. Gibbs (1975: 72) argues that an offender is "rehabilitated" if he or she ceases to isolate the law as a result of non-punitive means, whereas he or she is "reformed" if he or she ceases to violate the law as a result of punishment but for reasons independent of the fear of punishment. Ten (1987: 160) argues that rehabilitation calls for the individualisation of punishment to suit the particular needs of each offender, and although it does not require *indeterminate sentencing*, such sentencing is seen as providing the flexibility for the successful implementation of rehabilitative programmes. Morris (1974: 14) says in the late nineteenth century rehabilitation was to be achieved by removing the offender from his or her corrupting peers, by allowing him or her time for reflection and regenerative self-examination, and by giving him or her the guidance of uplifting religious and moral precepts. Morris proceeds to argue that rehabilitation must cease to be a purpose of the prison sanction. He says the above does not mean that the various developed treatment programmes within prison need to be abandoned, but they need expansion (ibid: 15). Hirschberg et al. (1976: 6) argue that rehabilitation is concerned with the preservation and the restoration of the function of any part of the individual or the individual as a whole. Van den Haag (1975: 58) argues that rehabilitation is meant to change the offender's intent, motivation, or even character towards law-abiding conduct. He further argues that rehabilitation assumes that the convict committed offences because of some personality disorder that can be corrected by treatment. Brown

(1986: 1) says rehabilitation education refers to the broad range of programmes, which from behavioural, educational, and social points of view enable children and adults to function increasingly effectively within society.

When studying the above definitions of rehabilitation one concludes that they are essentially value judgments made by a community. Implicit in the above definitions is the idea that a community and the individual are somehow discomfited if the latter fails, or is unable to conform to societal demands. Therefore, in terms of the definition, some action or process must be initiated in order to help the individual to become a functioning member of society. The definitions cover most aspects of adjustment or reform, i.e. community acceptance, acceptance by the individual of society's regulations and restrictions, material possessions (attainment of previous possessions) and employment (occupational establishment with a view to complete or partial economic independence).

For the purpose of this study the researcher chose to define rehabilitation of a prisoner as a stage reached when the prisoner, after admission into prison, undergoes specifically planned programmes that will help him or her to fit well in society (social adjustment), be acceptable by family and community and possibly to not re-enter prison after release. Harris (1988: 1) says a rehabilitated person is treated as a person who has not committed an offence or has not been sentenced for that offence. Harris further says a rehabilitated person is entitled to ignore spent convictions in reply to questions about his past, whether put to him in court or out of court, and, the existence of a spent conviction should not prejudice him or her in getting or keeping a job (ibid: 1).

1.6 Research methodology

Since this research is a case study, descriptive and historical methods have been used. Bless & Achola (1988: 42-43) describe a case study as a detailed and thorough investigation of a few cases and a way of organising social data and looking at the object to be studied as a whole. Bless & Achola also argue that in a case study all aspects are considered, which means that the development over time of the event or person constitutes an important dimension.

The above is true in this study since the researcher investigated the programmes offered in Westville prison by interviewing facilitators of the programme, participants in the programme, non-participants, ex-prisoners and family members.

Descriptive research describes a behaviour or condition. The data is collected using questionnaires, observations and or interviews. Collected data is then presented using Chi Square, percentages and so forth. Bless & Achola (1988: 42) say the purpose of descriptive research is to give an accurate account of the characteristics of a particular phenomenon, situation, community or person. Descriptive research includes the estimate of how frequently some events occur or of the proportion of people within a certain population sharing certain views or acting in a certain manner. The reason for using the descriptive method in this study is because the researcher wanted to present an accurate account of the DCS about the effective delivery of the programme where applicable.

The purpose of the research is to explain or predict a phenomenon. In such a case the researcher has no measuring instruments, but is concerned with analysing previously produced documents and, on occasion, interviewing witnesses. The researcher is called upon to formulate and report conclusions and generalisations. The above research method is appropriate in this study because the researcher, after interviewing people involved in the rehabilitation of prisoners, makes generalisations and recommendations about the effectiveness of programmes. The researcher collected qualitative data because this research involves descriptive and historical methods. Qualitative data allows respondents to express their views and feelings about the investigation without the influence or interference of the researcher. However, quantitative data are also used to present statistical data involving responses of the interviewees.

1.7 Research site and programme description

1.7.1 Research Site

The research was conducted at Westville Prison, situated about twenty kilometres North of Durban. During the site visit, the researcher found that the Westville Prison was well fenced with the following buildings:

1. An administration building where all administrative and operational tasks are carried out.
2. The Usethubeni (Westville) Youth Centre where both sentenced and unsentenced young male offenders are kept.
3. The Medium A Prison where unsentenced adult offenders are kept.
4. The Medium B Prison where sentenced adult offenders are kept.
5. The Medium C Prison where sentenced adult offenders awaiting release are kept.
6. The Female Prison where both sentenced and unsentenced female offenders are kept.

Although the number of prisoners changed on a daily basis, the total number of sentenced and unsentenced prisoners is approximately 12000. The research focus was on sentenced prisoners only, since unsentenced prisoners were not necessarily participating in rehabilitation programmes. During the site visit there were about 520 sentenced young offenders, of which 220 attended courses offered at Usethubeni Youth Centre. Ten educators were employed in the Adult Basic Education (ABE) and Further Education⁴ programme. During the visit, some of the learners were writing the final examinations.

The Westville Youth Technical Centre offered technical subjects to young offenders. Subjects offered include welding, bricklaying, carpentry, joinery with machinist and block making. Technical courses were offered on a six weekly basis per course, taught by five technical specialists. On an average, about 250 learners

⁴ Further education refers to the equivalent of Grade 12 (or Senior Certificate).

enrolled at Westville Youth Technical Centre per year. Participation is limited because of space.

1.7.2 Staffing

Four social workers are employed at the Westville Youth Technical Centre. Social workers play an important role in the rehabilitation of youth offenders. Social workers firstly determined the cause of engaging in criminal practices and the needs of prisoners and then place the prisoners into the specific and most appropriate rehabilitation programmes. Only two psychologists are employed in the entire prison. Numerous attempts were made to interview the psychologists. All attempts were unsuccessful.

Medium B keeps sentenced adult male prisoners. Although statistics are difficult to find, the number of inmates who participated in learning programmes (ABET and mainstream) was estimated to be 300 learners. Medium B keeps 3000 adult prisoners. At the time of the site visit, the researcher was told by one of the programme facilitators that 1500 adult prisoners were enrolled in educational programmes. Some of these prisoners were enrolled in programmes offered by tertiary institutions. There were 16 educators of which 11 were prisoner-educators. Prison officials used prisoner profiles to identify, recruit, train and employ prisoner-educators. (Qualifications of educators are discussed in Chapter 3).

During the site visit there were about 400 female inmates. The female prison keeps sentenced and unsentenced prisoners in separate cells. There were 200 sentenced and 200 unsentenced female prisoners. Participation in educational programmes was very low in the female prison. The reason cited by prisoner-educators is a lack of motivation amongst female prisoners. Two social workers are employed in this centre and are involved with rehabilitation programmes.

Learners who participated in ABET were taught literacy, numeracy and life skills while mainstream learners were taught languages (Zulu and English), Mathematics, History and Geography. Mainstream education programmes are offered as a continuation of the ABET programme and are offered in co-operation

with the provincial department of education in KwaZulu-Natal. Some prisoners were enrolled in programmes offered by tertiary institutions, including the University of South Africa, Technikon South Africa and Damelin. Prisoners enrolled in higher education, funded their own studies whilst ABET and mainstream education programmes are offered free of charge. Nine social workers were employed in Medium B. Social workers helped to facilitate rehabilitation programmes.

The researcher did not visit Medium A and Medium C since the former keeps unsentenced prisoners only and the latter only keeps prisoners that are awaiting release. The reason for not visiting these centres is because rehabilitation programmes are only offered on a relatively small scale and because they are identical to those offered in the other centres. Prisoners in Medium A are taught orientation and life skills while prisoners in Medium C are taught pre-release and offender reintegration. Prisoners in Medium A and C participate in sport and participation is voluntary.

1.7.3 Description of programmes

The prison offered a variety of rehabilitation programmes to offenders. A brief description of these programmes are provided below:

1.7.3.1 Orientation

This programme introduces the prisoner to prison life with the aim of helping him or her to make wise choices about activities to engage in.

1.7.3.2 Aggressive offender programme

This programme helps the prisoner to cope with different situations in life. Prisoners engaged in this programme include those charged with grievous bodily harm (GBH) and murder.

1.7.3.3 Sexual offender programme

This programme is designed to offer counselling to prisoners regarding women abuse. A significant number of young prisoners were in jail because of crime related to sexual harassment. The sexual offender programme acknowledged the fact that assaults against women take place more often in the home than on the street, and a husband or boyfriend committed the majority of assaults.

1.7.3.4 Life skills programmes

This programme acknowledges that we live in a rapidly changing society. To cope with changes and transformations, young offenders needed to develop life skills. Essential life skills include the building of a positive self-image, self-esteem, survival skills and a healthy lifestyle.

1.7.3.5 Marriage and family care

This programme helps the young offender to develop a positive attitude towards himself or herself and his/her family members, as well as to society at large. Social workers identify specific family problems that a young offender has and employed suitable strategies of solving problems.

1.7.3.6 Drug and alcohol

Criminal offences often occur when people are under the influence of alcohol or drugs. Since young people are particularly vulnerable to drugs and alcohol abuse, they are also implicated in crime whilst intoxicated. The drug and alcohol programme provides counselling to offenders.

1.7.3.7 HIV/AIDS

This programme helps offenders to gain greater awareness of sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS. Young offenders are introduced to the A B C principle of engaging in sexual practices where 'A' stands for abstinence,

'B' for being faithful to ones partner, and 'C' for condomising. Young offenders are provided with clear definitions, meaning and explanations, of HIV/AIDS.

1.7.3.8 Pre-release

This programme offers young offenders opportunities to make links with their immediate family as well as with members of society. The aim is to challenge young offenders to live constructive, crime-free lives once they are released from prison.

1.7.4 Research tools and sample

Questionnaires were used to gather data from a number of communities within the prison. The first community consisted of all those involved in the education and training and rehabilitation of prisoners. Programme facilitators referred to all those involved in the rehabilitation of prisoners including management personnel, teaching personnel, social workers, psychologists, ministers of religion and prison warders. A total of 20 questionnaires were provided to this community (See Appendix A).

The second community consisted of prisoners who participated in rehabilitation programmes. These included sentenced male and female inmates. A total of 20 questionnaires were provided to prisoners (See Appendix B).

A further 20 questionnaires were provided to non-participants. Non-participants included sentenced male and female inmates. Non-participants acted as a control group for this investigation (See Appendix C).

The researcher also prepared a questionnaire for ex-prisoners. A total of 10 questionnaires were provided (see Appendix E). This questionnaire catered for both ex-prisoners who participated and those who did not participate in the programmes. This was done because the researcher was unable to establish whether or not ex-prisoners participated in the programmes. At the time of the research such information was not kept or recorded. The prison provided the addresses of ex-prisoners.

The researcher also prepared a fifth questionnaire that was used to gather information of family members of ex-prisoners (see Appendix D). Family members included parents, wives, husbands, and brothers or sisters of the ex-prisoners. The researcher obtained the addresses of family members from the prison officials.

The researcher also conducted face-to-face interviews with 10 warders in charge of prisoners participating in the programme and 10 warders in charge of non-participating prisoners. An interview schedule was developed for use by the researcher on site visits. The interview schedule was specifically designed to gather both qualitative and quantitative data about provision and delivery of rehabilitative programmes within Westville prison. Some of the key aspects investigated included:

- The number of prisoners participating in the programmes
- Service providers
- Rehabilitation programmes offered
- Reason for non-participation in programmes

The interview schedule also gathered data about the impact of rehabilitation programmes on prisoners.

1.7.5 Literature search

An extensive literature search related to rehabilitation of prisoners was conducted through the library and in consultation with the DCS. Among other documents that the researcher consulted were the brochures from the National Institute for Crime Prevention and Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO) and brochures from the DCS.

Brochures from NICRO included:

- From victims to victory
- Join us on a journey

- Make a fresh start
- Youth at risk
- Start your own business

Brochures from the DCS included:

- Young offenders
- Education and Training

1.8 Capturing of data

Data was captured using both questionnaires and interview schedules. Structured self-administered questionnaires were used for prisoners, ex-prisoners and family members (see Appendices). These questionnaires were completed by the respondents and without the help of the researcher. The reason for using the above type of questionnaires was to minimise the role and influence of the researcher so that interviewees would be free to elaborate on whatever information they regarded appropriate and relevant. The researcher also captured data using face-to-face interviews with prison warders. In the above technique the researcher used non-schedule, structured interviews. The reason for using the above technique was to enable respondents to give as much information as they wanted but to focus on rehabilitation. Another reason for using the above technique is that in a non-scheduled structured interview, respondent are not confronted with already stated definitions or possible answers, but are free to choose their own definitions, to describe a situations or to express their views and answers to the problem (Bless & Achola, 1988: 88). The researcher also expected prison warders to provide as much information as possible pertaining to rehabilitation programmes offered at Westville Prison.

1.9 Reliability of the research

The researcher considered the research findings reliable for the following reasons:

- The researcher personally conducted the interviews and to gather information from the site.
- The research project was highly consultative, involving those with many years of experience in the department as well as practitioners working in the department.
- The researcher involved almost all communities within the department including male and female prisoners, prison warders, facilitators, social workers and family members, and the researcher used self-administered questionnaires that were answered independently by the respondents.

Despite time constraints, the investigation was thorough as reflected in the literature search and data gathering tools, the selection of the sites (excluding unsentenced prisoners) and the selection of those interviewed. The researcher believes that this case study is reliable because it would produce similar results if carried out using a similar sample. This is a case study and like any other case study, the findings might not be generalised, but could be transferable to another context.

1.10 Difficulties with the research

Before conducting interviews in the prison, the researcher had to complete application forms from the DCS, Pretoria, requesting for permission to conduct research in Westville. With the help of the supervisor, application forms were sent to Pretoria by electronic mail. The researcher and the supervisor made several follow-up calls since there was no response from the DCS. It was only after about five months that the researcher received confirmation from the department saying that the request had provisional approval. This meant that the researcher first had to sign an agreement form regarding conditions applicable to research done in institutions that are under the authority of the commissioner of Correctional Services. The copy of the agreement form was discussed with the research supervisor. It was only then that the researcher was granted permission to conduct visits to the site. Though the researcher did not experience problems issuing questionnaires, great difficulty and frustration was experienced with the return of completed questionnaires. The same problem was experienced with completed questionnaires from prisoners and staff. The reason with regard to prisoners may

be that some of them were writing exams during the research and some prisoners had embarked on a hunger strike. The reason with regard to the personnel may be that they were invigilating or simply had no time to attend to the questionnaires. The researcher was also advised to go to Durban Community Corrections Centre to get addresses for ex-prisoners and their families. The copy of addresses was discussed with the supervisor. During home visits, the researcher sometimes could not find either a member of family or an ex-prisoner to fill in the questionnaires. In some cases the problem was with the language used in the questionnaires, i.e. English, and someone who could read and write English had to assist in filling in the questionnaires. The researcher had to make several home visits to collect the completed questionnaires and this was a time consuming and costly exercise.

1.11 Merits and demerits of the research

This research contributes to the DCS in providing a deeper understanding of the impact of educational programmes designed to help rehabilitate prisoners and in the process reducing recidivism. The research also helps the Department to identify the needs and expectations of both the prisoners and the larger community so that prisoners do not become misfits in society when they are released. The research contributes to our understanding of the role of adult education in relation to rehabilitation of prisoners and advises the Department on how programmes could be improved.

Among some limitations of this study is the acknowledgement of the fact that education in itself is not rehabilitative (Glickman, 1983: 193). Most people think that people who are in prison are not educated, as implied by the notion that if you provide criminals with an education, they will cease to commit crime. Silberman says, on the basis of his experience in the United States, that:

...the United States is becoming more and more of a 'credential society', a kind of pseudo-meritocracy in which a person is judged by his performance on the job. These tendencies have been aggravated by the various campaigns to persuade youngsters to finish high school. The fact that there seems to be little correlations with the people's performance on the job and either the amount of education they have or the marks they have received does not help the young man who has been turned down on the grounds of insufficient education before he can demonstrate his competence or before he can develop that competence. (Silberman, 1973: 66.)

Since the process of rehabilitation occurs within the prison it is hard, and sometimes impossible, to ascertain if a rehabilitated ex-prisoner continues to commit crime unless he or she is apprehended by the police and readmitted to prison. The sample used in the research may not necessarily be representative of the whole group. Some participants may get parole before benefiting from all the programmes of rehabilitation. This may bring about some uncertainty on the effectiveness of the programmes.

CHAPTER 2

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key models, concepts and constructs pertaining to rehabilitation programmes sourced from the literature reviewed. It includes discussion about rehabilitation programmes in other countries, as well as in South Africa. A connection between imprisonment and unemployment is also discussed. The reason for discussing a connection between imprisonment and unemployment is informed by a growing set of literature that shows a relationship between imprisonment and unemployment. For instance, Galster & Scaturro (1998: 164) argue that in times of stronger industrial demands for labour, the criminal justice system responds by granting more conditional releases (i.e. paroles) so that, while gainfully employed, part of the workforce remains under the control of the state. Western & Beckett (1999: 1030) argue that social survey data show that incarceration raises unemployment by reducing the job prospects of ex-convicts. Theories concerning the causes and treatment of crime are also discussed as well strategies of rehabilitation. This is followed by a discussion of imprisonment and education. This chapter also provides a discussion of rehabilitation programmes in South Africa with specific focus on programmes provided by the DCS. Rehabilitation of youth is of particular importance and a short section is also dedicated to youth offenders and programmes for youth in conflict with the law. The final two sections of this chapter deal with two other important issues. The first being the role of transformative learning in rehabilitation. The second issue deals with female prisoners.

2.2 Methods of rehabilitation in different countries

Countries use a variety of methods to rehabilitate prisoners. In most countries, however, the cellular prison remains, with variations in society, as the basis of the penal and rehabilitation system. Howard (1960) shows that in Denmark open

prisons are used for younger offenders and at two special prisons, psychopaths serve indeterminate sentences and may be subject to mental and surgical treatments. The Netherlands uses prisons and camps; a clinic in Utrecht provides psychological rehabilitation and observation. Belgium also has open agricultural establishment where group responsibility among prisoners is encouraged. In Louvain long-term prisoners stay for at least ten years, but they work in open cells or workshops at a variety of useful industries. In such workshops, prisoners acquire a variety of skills that they may use when they leave prison. In Sweden, Norway and Finland emphasis is placed on small groups and individual training in prison and many prisoners live and work on the land or in forestry units (Howard, 1960).

The classical cellular prison is still in general use in France, and also in Germany, where new experiments are, however, being conducted. In Italy, cellular prisons remain even for boys and young prisoners, but use is also made of islands for self-supporting agricultural penal colonies. In Switzerland, prisons are a cantonal responsibility, profitable industries on a commercial basis have been introduced in prisons, and agricultural centres established, in one of which, Witzwil, 400 men live in conditions of minimum security with little use of punitive restraints (Ibid). Several South American countries have introduced 'modified discipline' schemes. Solitary confinement has been abandoned in most countries. Most countries have schemes for payment of prison labour, the proceeds being shared between the state, the prisoner and his family. This method tries to make links between the prisoner and the family so that the prisoner does not feel too isolated from his or her immediate family. There has been a growing use of psychiatry, and of social workers in prison, particularly in the Netherlands, Belgium and the Scandinavian countries. The Canadian prison were harsh and backwards until the beginning of the 1930s when a comprehensive plan for improvement was prepared with the advice of Sir Alender Peterson who was so largely responsible for advances in British methods.

In the United States the early settlers took with them the stocks and whipping post and built their lock-ups. The use of prison as a punishment (rehabilitation) developed in the eighteenth century, but the accommodation for offenders were inadequate and various prison associations, often with a strong Quaker element,

roused public opinion about prison conditions and propagated new ideas. The development of American prisons was similar to the British, the Auburn system of separate cells, but associated industry in strict silence and discipline competing with the Pennsylvania system of complete solitary confinement. Zebulon Brockway controlled the Elmira reformatory and his name is one of the foremost in penal history, which in America is largely that of great wardens. He introduced a system of classes with progress between them earned by good conduct, and developed a wide range of educational activities, technical teaching, planned physical training and useful industries. The system was 'based on the ability to form and change habits' and was copied in some places, derided in others (ibid). In the present century, modern reformers have introduced new ideas but there are still considerable contracts within the American system.

The DCS is responsible for the safekeeping of all prisoners in South Africa. The Department offers educational programmes to prisoners with the aim of eliminating illiteracy and under education and to empower prisoners with knowledge and skills. The purpose of training is to develop the market-related labour potential of sentenced prisoners who do not have the necessary level of training to be productively utilized either in incarceration or in the external labour market after release. The other purpose of training is to equip the prisoner to lead a honourable, self-supporting and decent life after release from prison using the skills that were acquired. There is also a community correction service where prisoners are monitored while at home. Social workers and psychologists are employed by the Department and offer organised programmes to prisoners. Details of these are discussed in the third chapter.

2.3 Imprisonment and unemployment

Before the research was conducted, the researcher assumed that there was a positive relationship between unemployment and imprisonment. The researcher felt that the majority of unskilled people do not easily get employment and that many of them might resort to criminal activity that then leads to imprisonment. The above does not necessarily mean that skilled people do not commit crime or that they are not imprisoned, but chances of getting imprisoned are relatively higher amongst unskilled people. Reasons & Kaplan (1975: 368) argue that, "in a

depressed economy, prisons keep low income individuals out of the job market". Inmates are therefore generally unskilled and if they were out in free society, they would be competing with other unskilled individuals for a steadily shrinking supply of jobs. Imprisonment therefore plays a role in reducing competition. For instance, removing 200,000 unskilled persons from the labour market makes the economy look better - if they were not institutionalised, the unemployment rate would be higher. Thus, the prison keeps the unemployment rate lower than it would be otherwise. Barker (1995: 140) argues that the situation, with regard to skilled and unskilled workers in South Africa, is very similar to that in other developing countries. There is an oversupply of unskilled workers (unemployment), and a shortage of skilled workers. Barker (ibid: 146) further argues that in 1991, 35% of the economically active population of South Africa (excluding the former TBVC territories) was functionally illiterate. Among Blacks the figure was 40,7% (Central Statistical Services, Population Census, 1991). Since South Africa is an economically developing country with a relatively high illiteracy rate, it is highly likely that the majority of prisoners are under-educated, unskilled or illiterate and are thus having difficulty in accessing jobs in the formal and informal economies. This argument suggests that rehabilitation and educational programmes should be designed so that participants acquire numerous skills with which they will be equipped to enter the job market once they are released. Without appropriate skills, the rate of recidivism is likely to be higher. Galster & Scaturro (1985: 166) argue that there is a large body of theoretical and empirical literature supporting the contention that unemployment creates both economic and psychological stress that frequently is manifested in criminal behaviour, especially of the violent type. Galster & Scaturro (1985: 168) further argue that the key claim of the neo-Marxian criminological view concerns the direct paths from unemployment to the five endogenous components of incarceration which include the following:

- A smaller likelihood of unconditional releases during the given period both due to lowered chances that sentences originally given in prior years would be reduced for good behaviour and due to increased chances that new prison commitments made during the period would be for longer terms.

- A greater likelihood that any given conviction will result in a prison sentence, that is, for any crime rate, the rate of court commitments will be higher.
- A smaller likelihood that prisoners will be conditionally released.
- A greater likelihood that prisoners will be conditionally released.
- A greater likelihood that those violating terms of their parole will be returned to prison.

Galster & Scaturro (1985: 171) argue that in the United States of America where unemployment rates are higher, paroles are likely to have fewer opportunities to succeed in finding work or engaging in legitimate economic endeavours. As a result a relatively higher fraction of parolees may be led to violate the conditions of their parole, which could lead to the severity of judgement concerning a given parole violation to be no more stringent. This suggests that rehabilitation and educational programmes should include entrepreneurial skills so that participants are able to create their own business opportunities rather than expecting to find formal employment.

Western & Beckett (1999: 1031) argue that the United State incarceration lowers conventional measures of unemployment in the short run by concealing joblessness among able-bodied, working age men, but it raises unemployment in the long run by damaging the job prospects of ex-convicts. In South Africa, the DCS needs to design rehabilitation programmes so that inmates acquire skills that they can use in both the formal and informal economies. This may help to reduce the rate of recidivism. This, however, may remain a difficult task if job creation remains slow.

2.4 Theories concerning the causes of crime

Before attempting the treatment or rehabilitation of an offender, it is normally useful to know the cause of an offence. This section investigates some theories associated with the causes of crime as developed by criminologists. Among other theories that will be discussed is environmental influence, psychopathic theory, and contra-cultural and sub-cultural theory.

2.4.1 Environmental theory

Criminologists such as Scull (1983) and Marquand (1974) suggest that there is a high correlation between poverty and delinquency. This suggestion is based on studies conducted in England (Scull, 1983; Marquand, 1974). For instance, in the 1930s, a survey of London life and labour graded all streets within the area surveyed according to the economic position of all the inhabitants. All offenders arrested for indictable offences in 1929 were classified according to people's street addresses. There was a criminal concentration of 35,5 per 10,000 in the poor neighbourhoods and 10,3 per 10,000 in the rich. In another instance, Bagot (cited in Marquand, 1974: 9) studied the details of family income from probation officers' reports in Liverpool. The study revealed that more than half of the offenders came from families below the officially recognized poverty line and 85% were below the human needs standard. The above studies emphasize the assertion that there is high correlation between poverty and delinquency. However, it must be noted that the above does not necessarily mean that poverty is a cause of crime. One argument against any such supposition is that it may ignore Sutherland's theory¹ of 'white collar crime' (Marquand, 1974:6).

Another environmental influence associated with the cause of crime is the role of religion. It is commonly believed that church attendance reduces criminal practices in individuals. Literature, the press and the cinema are often said to have an adverse moral effect, characterized by criminal activities or with criminal elements.

Drunkenness is normally considered to be a cause of many criminal activities. Apart from motoring offences, many crimes are committed after a person has consumed a considerable amount of alcohol. Youth who are exposed to people with high alcohol consumption tend to copy and practice drinking and often fall victim to crime. It is also believed that people with broken home backgrounds are more likely perpetrators of crime. A relatively high percentage of delinquents come from disturbed families, but the mere incidence of divorce between

¹ Sutherland's theory of white collar crime states that the relatively respectable and wealthy are protected in all sorts of ways against detention and punishment.

husbands and wife does not mean that their children will turn into criminals. It is also necessary to analyse other factors in the home such as repeated arguments, neglect, violence, extreme repression and others. Many youth found loitering in streets and who are involved in crime come from such family backgrounds. Some criminologists have studied the ecology of crime.² This is based on a theory that a given organism, whether it is in an individual, a social group or other species, will adapt to a certain environment. This theory states that delinquency tends to predominate in central districts of towns, near factories and in areas of poor housing.

Such areas are also characterized by a lot of illness, truancy, adult crime, mental illness and infant mortality. Such areas also have a high social turnover rate with new immigrants entering as old inhabitants leave. In such set-ups people come with a variety of lifestyles and the survival of the fittest dominates. This is advocated by Sutherland's social learning theory in which he points out that, as the individual learns most of his behaviour patterns through contact with others, usually in small group, so he will learn a criminal behaviour if this predominates in his own particular reference group.

In South Africa, a lot of people migrate to cities in search for work. Because they do not have enough money to buy houses, they find a home in informal settlements or on the streets. It is in these settlements that people compete for food, shelter, health services, etc. This may often lead to criminal activity especially if the person is unemployed.

2.4.2 Psychopathic theory

The psychopathic theory argues that the criminal has a certain recognizable physiognomy³ (Marquand, 1974: 13). On the contrary, the modern psychopathic theory asserts that there is a 'constitutional inferiority' or 'moral imbecility' among certain classes of unfortunates who, because of early emotional and

² Ecology of crime refers to the tendency of crime to be associated with certain geographical areas (Mays, 1978: 49)

³ Physiognomy refers to some type of the feature of a face especially when used to assess a person's character.

environmental experiences or because of certain inherited traits, have an innate defect of feeling which prevents them from controlling their impulses or feelings for others. Their features of psychopathic make-up according to Marquand (1974: 14) include the following:

- A severe behaviour disturbance with no recognized psychotic or neurotic illness to explain it.
- Anti-social behaviour suggestive of inhuman indifference to the feeling of others.
- A liability to unrestrained and impulsive aggression at slightest provocation.

It is however important to note that psychopathic theories of crime and the tendency to emphasize the use of a criminal classification both run the risk of thinking that crime is some kind of illness which can be cured by prison, the police or wardens (Studt et al. 1968: 16). In South Africa people who commit serious crimes such as murder and rape are normally sent to psychiatrists before the trial of their cases. The justice system in South Africa sometimes regards people who commit serious crimes as ill people. Theories concerning the causes of crime are of use as they clear a path in deciding the appropriate programme to use to treat (rehabilitate) the offender. For instance, a prisoner convicted of a rape offence should be placed in a sexual offender and HIV/AIDS programmes.

2.4.3 Contra-cultural and sub-cultural theories

With particular reference to criminal practices, the contra-cultural theory implies that the criminal 'culture' is a rebellious or retreatist one in so far as it rejects both goals and values of the overall society (Marquand, 1974: 18). Within a specific society there are some procedures, norms, rules, etc. that are observed and accepted, in view of the welfare of all. In that society the delinquent gang sometimes forms a complete society of its own, with its own norms and regulations and its own standard of values. The latter is not in harmony with the norms of the whole society. For instance, smoking publicly of teenagers may be prohibited by society, yet cherished by the gangsters. Theft is not admired by society, but one who steals among the gangsters may be regarded as a hero. The sub-cultural as opposed to contra-cultural idea is perhaps complex as it involves

clear definitions of class and distinctions of culture. Contra-culture is perhaps only a more violent or more conscious affirmation of the sub-culture. Some people choose to accept what the society defines as bad from their own free will. This may not necessarily come from the pressure of those around them. In other words, sub-culture involves a subjective acceptance of an objective situation. For instance, a person may choose to be or calls himself a criminal, thereby implicitly accepting society's right to categorise him and judge him in this way. Such people tend to commit crime merely by virtue of accepting that they are and called criminals. In South Africa the majority of offenders, particularly youth, commit crime due to peer pressure. Gangsterism, where the majority of offenders belong, sets its own norms, values and beliefs, which are contrary to those of society. Members of the gangsters find themselves obliged to commit crime merely by virtue of being members of that gang. In other groups of gangsters a newly recruited person is forced to commit murder before being recognized as a fully accepted member. In such cases rehabilitation programmes should include the aggressive offender programme and intensive counselling.

Coetzee et al. (1995: 188) confirm the above when they point out that:

Approximately 250,000 prisoners died at the hands of fellow-prisoners in the period from 1984 to 1994. From the circumstances surrounding the deaths, there is no doubt that at least 70% of these deaths were gang murders or due to gang activities. The estimate of 70% is conservative and it could be even higher. (Coetzee et al., 1995: 188.)

They further suggest that:

Prisoners often attempt to impress their cellmates by escaping. They want to prove their masculinity in order to be accepted by the group as 'one of them'. Some gangs demand that a person escapes before becoming a member of the gang. (ibid: 178).

2.5 Theories concerning the treatment of crime

The reason for discussing theories concerning the treatment of crime is that such theories are relevant to the discussion pertaining to the rehabilitation of offenders. Marquand (1974: 23) has discussed prediction studies and types of punishment in her rehabilitation theory. Eysenck & Gudjonson (1989: 205) have discussed the

prediction studies, experimental studies and cross-institutional studies in their theory of rehabilitation of offenders. I provide an overview of these in the section below.

2.5.1 Prediction studies

Within a given large group of convicted offenders, prediction studies help to give some guide as to which group is likely to respond positively or negatively to a given treatment. Prediction studies do not necessarily tell us exactly who will offend again. The application of prediction studies involves analysing various factors of the individual background and weighting each of them on a scale to get result relative to each other. Factors include:

- Evidence of drunkenness in family
- Previous offences leading to a fine
- Previous offences leading to approved school
- Not living with parents
- Home in an industrial area
- Longest period in any one job

People conducting prediction studies use a specific boarder line where offenders who fall above it are considered to have a better chance of being rehabilitated, whilst those falling below it do not. Offenders falling below the average may be sent to institutions with specially planned programmes to help them. Prediction studies may also help offenders get parole with the hope that they will fit in well in society after rehabilitation.

2.5.2 Types of punishment

Punishment is another method believed to be rehabilitative. Jones (cited in Marquand, 1974: 28) maintains that there are six motives underlying the punishment of crime. These are:

- Expiation
- Restitution

- Retribution
- Deterrence
- Reformation
- Prevention

According to Jones, the principle of expiation is that once a person has paid his crime, the sin is over and his record should not be held against him. The above principle maintains that people, especially young offenders, should know that they would pay for crimes they commit. The principle of restitution maintains that the criminal should restore or make compensation for the loss or damage caused. The idea behind the principle of retribution is that the punishment should fit the crime committed, while deterrence refers to the motive which discouraging a criminal to commit crime (Walker 1980: 65).

Some countries go to an extent of using the death penalty to discourage criminal practices. The principle of reformation is normally considered as a spiritual process. Some people believe that if an offender were left in solitary confinement to meditate on his offence, his soul would be called back to godliness. However, people opposing the above idea say solitary confinement may lead to a state of apathy and despair rather than to spiritual regeneration. Recent psychological, sociological and criminological research considers the treatment of crime to be more reformatory (Marquand, 1974: 31). This is because, if the prisoner is released, he or she goes back into society. Hence, he or she must therefore learn to adapt more adequately to society. It is for this reason that psychiatrists, social workers, priests, family members and friends are encouraged to visit prisons and form personal contacts with prisoners in an attempt to understand them and help them solve their problems. It must also be noted that some people misuse this privilege as they find a chance of passing all unwanted and unhealthy things like drugs to prisoners. This makes the process of rehabilitating prisoners a waste of time.

2.5.3 Experimental studies

Experimental studies as used in the rehabilitation of prisoners involve engaging a particular group with an aim of getting results. For instance, Clarke & Cornish

(1978) conducted a study with 280 boys in 'Approved Schools' also called 'Community Homes'. The boys were grouped and placed into three different houses of the school. The three groups consisted of:

- A 'therapeutic community' based on four principles of democratisation, communalism, permissiveness, and reality confrontation.
- A 'control house' with a traditional paternalistic regime.
- Boys considered 'unsuitable' for either the therapeutic community or the control house.

A 'control house' with a traditional paternalistic regime worked well in the above study. The researcher considered the above study relevant so that rehabilitation programme facilitators could know which principle to apply when dealing with offenders.

It must be noted that when dealing with young people in particular, the application of laissez faire principles in dealing with treatment do not assist with the rehabilitation of offenders. The application of more stringent principles is usually more effective.

2.5.4 Cross-institutional studies

Cross-institutional studies involve comparing a number of institutions within the context of a single study. Sinclair (1971) carried out his study in a number of probation hostels. He discovered that there were marked differences between hostels with respect to residents' misbehaviour like absorbing, further offences, etc. Dunlop (1974) interviewed some boys from approved schools. The results indicate that the schools that emphasized trade training and responsible behaviour had lower rates of absorbing and other kinds of misbehaviour during residence, and marginally lower reconviction rates at follow-up.

Other techniques for treating antisocial behaviour involve the 'parent management training' (PMT) and the 'functional family therapy' (FFT). Kazdin (1987) recognises that PMT is based on the assumption that conduct disorder is developed and maintained in the home by maladaptive parent-child interactions.

The ultimate aim of PMT is to improve maladaptive interactions and help parents develop prosocial behaviour in the child. TFFT on the other hand places emphasis on viewing a child's problem as serving functions within the family. The aim of the FFT is to make the family more aware of the functions the conduct problems serve within the family and help identify solutions to interpersonal problems. This may increase positive reinforcement among family members and help improve effective communication. Cross-institutional studies may help people like social workers, psychiatrists, etc. in identifying the appropriate institution for offenders with specific problems. This may help in identifying appropriate methods of rehabilitation to be employed. Alper (1974: 153) says 'institution' does not mean prisons, jail and reform schools, but instead the larger system, which composes society. Within this context, Alper includes the schools, the economics of production and distribution, the ameliorate social services, and the agencies which compose law enforcement. The above assertion by Alper explains that institutions for the rehabilitation of offenders should not only be prisons or jails. Other institutions such as schools and ameliorative social services should be used to rehabilitate offenders.

2.5.5 Correctional model

Alper (1974: 148) views delinquency as antisocial behaviour that indicates the existence of deficiencies in the individual that need to be corrected. He suggests that this could be addressed through the correctional model. The correctional model focuses on the individual who committed an offence rather than external influences like the family background, peer pressure or the environmental factors. However, the existence of such influence is not denied. The correctional model is open to a number of approaches to individual remediation including institutionalisation, community-based alternatives, group therapy, individual psychotherapy and educational and motivational programmes. Implementation of these techniques varies as to the nature of the crimes committed and the identification of individuals to specific treatment. At this point, it is important to note that some people consider the justice system as a cause of criminality or that it provides opportunities for training for criminal careers. It is for this reason that techniques like group therapy, institutionalisation and others need to be exercised

with great care. Prisoners that committed crimes that are regarded as serious should not be mixed with those who committed 'minor' crimes.

2.6 Radical model

Alper (1974: 157) says the radical model looks primarily at the social order as some societies have high, middle and lower class citizens. The radical model challenges the assumption that delinquency or socially prohibited behaviour is a legitimate expression in response to intolerable oppression. Since some people have power over others and enjoy certain privileges, delinquent behaviour becomes a matter of individual choice or political expressions. It also reflects expressions of inequitable patterns of opportunity or access to material goods and personal fulfilment. Delinquency is viewed as an attack on a system with which the individual is at war as a result of asymmetrical power relations. Crimes normally associated with this model involve the kidnapping of wealthy people. Such behaviour is usually corrected through torture, hard labour and sometimes exile.

2.7 Some ways of rehabilitating offenders

Writers view a number of ways of rehabilitating offenders including punishment, medical treatment, counselling, training and many more. Some writers feel that it is important to determine the cause of crime and thereby establish ways of rehabilitating offenders. Van der Westhuizen (1982: 75) says both theoretical criminology and empirical research have shown that social factors are particularly significant in the explanation of crime. The escalating rate of crime is noticeable among the lower socio-economic groups in community. Many identifiable social factors are of particular significance in crime causation like:

- Housing conditions and over-crowdedness
- Limited ownership and proprietary rights
- Racial and ethnic concentrations
- Restricting economic possibilities, accompanied by unemployment, low income, etc.

- Unhealthy family life

It is therefore essential that these factors be given special attention if the rate of crime is to decrease. Town planning and urban development, especially with regard to those groups displaying a high incidence of crime, should be given attention. Factors that may contribute to a healthy community life may involve housing aspects, services, proprietary rights, citizen participants, etc. Prisoners should also receive special training or knowledge about these factors so that they may not become misfits in society upon release. Social problems that contribute directly or indirectly to criminal practices can thus be eliminated. Stable families and communities at large, where the processes of socialization, maturation, development, and the inculcation of healthy and positive values, i.e. religious, cultural and social, form the basis of a healthy society. These need to be included in the rehabilitation programmes for prisoners.

The other way of rehabilitation is by medical means. Russell says:

I merely wish to suggest that we should treat the criminal as we treat a man suffering from plague. Each is a public danger; each must have his liberty curtailed until he has ceased to be a danger. But the man suffering from plague is an object of sympathy and commiseration whereas the criminal is an object of execration. This is quite irrational and it is because of this difference of attitude that our prisons are so much less successful in curing criminal tendencies than our hospitals are in curing disease. (Russell, 1925: 60-62.)

Russell argues that rehabilitation of prisoners should take the same form of treating sick people. Medical rehabilitation includes the use of drugs, such as antabuse for alcoholism and what is referred to as 'chemical castration' for sex offenders. Other medical rehabilitation of offenders takes a form of psychiatric treatment like psychotherapy. Johnstone (1996: 3) outlines two main forms of psychiatric approach, i.e. the medical-somatic approach that tends to be modelled on treatment in physical medicine, and the social-psychological approach that consists of the use of environmental, organizational and personal influences. Clinical psychiatrists help to identify problems related to the crime committed and thereby identify ways suitable for offender rehabilitation.

Crow (2001: 8) argues that other treatment paradigms that have been used by social workers and probation officers for many years are casework and counselling techniques. The above forms of rehabilitation are based on a one-to-

one relationship. Other forms of rehabilitation involve group work including role-play and encounter groups, which are most likely to be found in therapeutic communities. Other ways of rehabilitation focus on the development of skills like cognitive skills, social skills, parenting skills and anger management, while others focus on promoting certain activities like motor projects, arts projects and projects featuring sport and other forms of physical activities. Other forms of rehabilitation are directed towards the social re-integration of offenders. These include programmes that aim to provide offenders with accommodation, education, training and employment. Much has been discussed pertaining to education and vocational training as ways of rehabilitating prisoners. A prisoner that is exposed to educational and vocational training opportunities stands a better chance of getting employment. Employment helps in keeping people occupied rather than engaging to criminal practices.

Gendreau & Ross (1979:8) reviewed some treatment programmes from 1973 to 1978. Their programmes were considered under the following headings:

- Family and community intervention- which involved attempts to improve family functioning in such a way as to reduce the kinds of behaviour that result in delinquency.
- Contingency management, which is a form of behaviour modification in which approved behaviour, is reinforced by a token economy system, and individuals are rewarded for demonstrating such things as appropriate verbal interaction, completion of assigned chores, and promptness in schoolwork. Other approaches included behavioural contracts, such as the study by Doctor and Palikow (cited in Gendreau & Ross, 1979: 14), where the targeted behaviour was employment. In this instance the time worked increased between 45% and 77%, and re-arrests decreased from 2.0% to 0,15%.
- Counselling which included social learning, modelling, and transactional analysis.
- Diversion that covered interventions that sought to avoid bringing people into the correctional system, using a variety of intervention strategies. One concentrated on family communication, another on vocational counselling

and training. However, interventions using a single technique were found to be less successful than those employing a variety of techniques.

- Biomedical interventions included remedying nutritional and other chemical deficiencies, with claims of success rates of 80% and more having been made for vitamin therapy and nutritional regimes.
- Miscellaneous treatment includes probation, work leave programmes, a pre-release programme for incarcerated drug offenders offering academic education and counselling, the treatment of alcoholic offenders with antabuse, financial assistance and job finding services, and related programmes addressing alcoholism, drug abuse and sexual deviation.

Other ways of rehabilitating offenders as discussed by Garrett (1985: 287-308) included psychodynamic counselling or therapy. This was performed by a professional psychiatrist and social worker trying to restore a state of mind of a confused offender so that the socially acceptable behaviour is maintained. Other programmes involved treatments designed to enhance life skills such as academic and vocational experience and leisure pursuits. Other programmes involved music therapy and vitamin treatment.

Rehabilitation programmes in South African prisons should include some or all of the above ways of treatment, so that prisoners can have diversity in making choices about available programmes.

2.8 Strategies of treatment

Whiteley et al. (1972: 7), argue that deviance is commonly regarded as 'badness' and deserving to be treated by punishment and imprisonment, or as 'madness' and requiring treatment by medicines and hospitalisation. The above solutions to deviants are only temporary and produce no lasting resolution to the real problem. In terms of functionalist theory, as argued by Whiteley et al. deviance may be seen as an essential and permanent part of any group or organization, in which case the surrounding society will need to organize itself to contain and moderate the extent and effects of the deviant sector with little hope of or interest in bringing about reformation or integration. On the other hand Hardy & Cull (1974: 94) argue that, since criminal delinquency involves more direct physical harm,

institutionalisation may occasionally be relevant. However, a variety of behaviour approaches are available, encompassing a number of specific operations (i.e. token economy, time-out, contingency management, etc.) in institutions and highly controlled 'schools' and 'homes'. Atras (1972) emphasizes that a great deal of deviant behaviour is learned in the natural environment, thus the primary focus of change should be working with this environment.

Stumphazer (1973: 239) asserts that institutions for delinquents, or rather the people that support and run such institutions, have failed miserably. It is for this reason that Stumphazer argues for intervention, or more importantly prevention, in the natural environment (family, school, peer relations, social structure) of the youth and not in an artificial institution from which he or she will be discharged to this same environment armed with newly learned anti-social behaviours. The above claim may be possible perhaps only with young delinquents, but is questionable in adults. The reason for the above proposal is argued by Stumphazer when he says that:

Prison is a good place for murderers, thieves and drug pushers. Unfortunately, it's also a good place to become a murderer, a thief or a drug pusher, and that's just what's happening. Every year thousands of young men and women are arrested and send to prison for petty larceny or smoking pot or joy-riding in a stolen car. And every year thousands of kids with a little problem on their minds come out of jail with a big chip on their shoulders. Kids who once might have been helped by us are now beyond the help of anyone. The answer isn't prison reform. Because the answer isn't prison. These kids don't need punishment. They need treatment. By a social worker. Or a psychiatrist. Or a trained counsellor. Or a community centre for job development and training. Stumphazer (1973: 4)

Stuart (cited in Khanna, 1975: 36) affirms that the failure of institutional treatment programmes to help deviant children as well as the inhumane and debilitating conditions of institutions for children has been clearly documented by many authors. Stuart further says, these children are being taught passive dependent behaviour that is appropriate for institutional inmate, but which is contrary, in most respects, to the requirements of community living. Khanna (1975: 37) argues that the illness model of deviant behaviour with its hospital-like institutional treatment philosophy is becoming less generally accepted because of its history of repeated failure and great expense. Khanna says, instead of basing treatment strategies on a mental illness model, modern behaviour theory suggested a behaviour deficiency model where the behaviour problems of children is viewed

as deficiencies in essential skills. The behaviour deficiency model is considered more effective, cheaper and more humane since it is community-based and community-controlled by professionally trained teaching-parents.

2.9 Imprisonment and education

A number of teachers in the corrections field have argued that education works. Teachers have always asserted that once a correctional education student earns a certain level of education or job skills, he or she on release, is more likely to remain in the community as a taxpaying citizen than to return to prison. In a study conducted by Tracy in the United States, she describes how the State of Maryland sought to eliminate all adults' correctional education during a state fiscal crisis (Tracy, 1998: 144). In response, correctional education teachers persuaded the state legislature that research proved correctional education was an essential tool in the rehabilitation of criminal offenders, and the funds for the programmes were restored. Again in 1996, the new Maryland governor eliminated adult correctional libraries and vocational education from his budget. Teachers again persuaded the legislature by documentation of inmate achievements in prison schools.

Ryan (1984) reviewed 24 years of literature documenting the effect of education on recidivism rates. They found that 67% of the articles they read reported that education had a positive effect on the rate of recidivism, and the majority of articles that showed a negative relationship were descriptive and had no supportive evidence for their claims. The Correctional Education Association examined seventy-five articles and studies and found that almost all showed that education was effective in lowering the rate of recidivism. Another study was conducted in Texas in 1994. Conclusions made were that the majority of research demonstrated that individuals who participated in adult basic and secondary education programmes had a lower rate of recidivism than individuals who did not participate.

Penny (2000) when delivering his speech to the graduating class in Minnesota said that studies from around the nation conclude that somewhere between 40% and 55% of inmates find themselves back in jail. He said for those who secure a

general education, the re-incarceration rate is in the range of 15% to 23%. There are even better statistics for those who achieve the equivalent of an associate of arts degree, a two- year college or vocational degree.

In the United Kingdom the provision and education in prison is regarded as the key to stopping criminals from re-offending. Statistics were used to prove that education is by far the most effective as far as challenging re-offending is concerned. The argument further suggests that while the needs of those prisoners who are deficient in the 3R's must be addressed; prison education should cater for all levels of ability (Ramsbotham, 2002).

Frolander-Ulf and Yates (2000: 116) argue that the rate recidivism in the United States is very high, ranging from 41% to 60%. The above depends on whether one refers to the re-arrest rate (more than 60%) or the re-imprisonment rate (about 40%). This means that for many people prisons are a revolving door such that when people leave, they know that the chances are very high that the door they walked out of will soon enough be the door they will walk back into. But the only thing that is most likely to prevent their return to prison is education. Frolander-Ulf and Yates also maintain that studies show that the more schooling an imprisoned person received, the less likely he or she is to get in trouble upon release. One prison student who said, "I believe college education within a penal environment is not only a valuable tool for the prisoner in gaining self esteem and confidence, as well as future employment, but is advantageous to society at large", has also positively argued this.

Frolander-Ulf and Yates also argue that it is cheaper and more socially desirable to educate people than to merely imprison them. People must struggle for a society in which education, at all levels, and is provided to everyone as a matter of right. The struggle to make education available to people in prison can be coupled naturally with a fight to make education available to all. It is obvious that not having access to a good education increases the probability that a person will end up in jail or prison. The studies linking education to recidivism show that the higher the level of schooling attained the lower the rate of recidivism. The more classes people take, the more they can envision themselves as productive members of society. Members of society should also access prisons easily in

order to interact with prisoners in a constructive way. Prisons should therefore not be built in places too remote so that the public has difficulty to reach them. Most prisons are located in rural areas, often very far from the urban areas where the majority of the prisoners are from. Usually public transport is not available, or at least not easily accessible or affordable for family members and friends, thus making visits less frequent. Facilitators of rehabilitation programmes may also be reluctant to travel long distances to prisons where they are to offer such programmes if such prisons are far away from where they live.

In some countries like Canada education was primarily not regarded as something that had a potential of reforming offenders. Ekstedt & Griffiths (1988: 194) say that throughout the 1800s the primary task of the penitentiary was punishment and the emphasis was on hard labour and solitary confinement enforced by a strict code of discipline. Attempts to introduce basic literacy courses encountered considerable opposition. Literacy training programmes that eventually developed were closely allied with the religious efforts. Cosman (1980: 42) confirms this when he points out that prison education was thought of in association with spiritual development and was viewed as the responsibility of the prison chaplain. Weir (1973: 40) also observed that the chapel was the classroom for the forty minute daily period of instruction, the chaplain was the schoolmaster, and the Bible the text in a sense that the objective of the basic literal programmes was to enable the scholar to become familiar with the Bible. However, in the early 1970s the Simon Fraser University in British Columbia started operating post-secondary school programme in many federal institutions. This programme was used as a model for prison education programmes in the United States. Duguid (1979: 83) says the programme emphasizes the role of cognitive growth in producing changes in moral reasoning that in turn facilitates changed behaviour. Griffin (1978: 62) notes that while many observers view prison education as a means of moral reformation, others see it as a means of increasing the employability of the inmates upon release. It must be noted that an offender who secures an education certificate or diploma has many chances of getting a better job, and thus to live a socially acceptable life than an offender who does not.

Offenders who do not participate in prison education programmes are most likely to return to prison upon release as their chances of getting employed are limited if

they did not have an education before they were sent to prison. It is for this reason that prison education programmes should be realistic and meaningful in order that all prisoners participate. One of the most extensive and well-designed evaluations of the impact of the effectiveness of prison education programmes was conducted by Glaser (1964) and reported in the volume, *The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System*. The finding of the study with respect to prison education were as follows:

- For most inmates prison education is statistically associated with above average post-release success only when the education is extensive and occurs in the course of prolonged confinement.
- For most prisoners, especially those with extensive felony records, the usual duration and types of involvement in prison education are associated with higher than average post-release failure.
- A small amount of education in prison frequently impairs post-release prospects of inmates indirectly, by inspiring them with unrealistic aspirations, or by the education's being pursued instead of alternative prison programmes which could provide more useful preparation for post release life.

From the above points it can be concluded that inmates attending school for a longer period of confinement and who advance through several grade levels have higher rates of success upon release than those who attend for only shorter periods of time or not at all.

Prison education is by far better coupled with vocational training programmes where prisoners learn a skill that they can use productively upon release. Lightman (1982: 37) argues that in the nineteenth century prisoners in both the United States and Canada were viewed primarily as a cheap and readily exploitable source of labour, by their work activity making products such as boots, shoes and clothing, inmates could help contribute to the costs of their upkeep. Gosselin (1982: 22) noted the importance of providing meaningful work experience to inmates and therefore suggests that correctional services furnish inmates with work opportunities. Inmates who display good conduct within the institution should receive a salary for their labour. Training in vocational

programmes, designed to provide inmates with marketable skills to be utilized upon release from confinement, were expanded during the movement towards the rehabilitative model of corrections. Jarvis (1978: 169) identifies the following tenets of vocational training programmes in correctional institutions:

- Successful social living requires a secure economic base.
- Most sentenced offenders do not have a trade or skill by which to earn a living.
- If former offenders are returned to society with a trade or skill they can earn a living and will not return to crime.
- By training offenders a skill, we will increase their opportunities of employment.
- Rehabilitation can be provided through correctional programmes that include vocational training.

Closely related to vocational training programmes for inmates are prison industry programmes, which are often a major mechanism for teaching inmates skills and work habits. This is because a number of people resort to criminal practices simply because they have inadequate or poor work habits. Griffin (1978: 12) in discussing prison industry, distinguished between maintenance functions, which involve physical and service maintenance in the prison, and production work, which involves the manufacture of goods that are consumed by other departments of the government or by non-profit organizations.

The importance of identifying the causes of crime needs of the offender and appropriate rehabilitative measure cannot be over-emphasized. In some cases programmes offered to offenders seem not to work because some of the factors are sometimes not given due consideration. Von Hirsh (1976: 13) argues that no programme is proven effective unless those enrolled in it show a consistently lower rate of return to crime than offenders not enrolled.

2.10 Rehabilitation programmes in South Africa

Since this research takes place in South Africa, it is important to look at rehabilitation programmes in South Africa. Coetzee et al. (1995: 115-118) look at

the medical model (or pathology model), the reintegration model, the justice model, and programmes approach. According to the medical model, crime is regarded as an 'illness' which should be cured through treatment. Through diagnosis, the criminal behaviour has to be exposed and treated. Prisoners are regarded as people to be 'cured' so that they adapt to society. An environment has to be created where the 'illness' could be cured. Opponents of the medical model feel that emphasis is placed on exposing the behavioural problems through diagnosis and the treatment of these problems that the life skills a prisoner requires to be reintegrated meaningfully into society are ignored.

The reintegration model is based on the idea that offenders come from a society and must return to that society when released. Society is therefore expected to help the released prisoner and facilitate reintegration. Prison programmes should be structured in such a way that they make provision for service and facilities to maintain and strengthen relationships between the prisoner and his/her friends, family and the larger society.

The justice model looks at prisoners as people entitled to fair treatment where justice rather than rehabilitation should be prioritised (Coetzee et al., 1995: 117). The justice model looks at prisoners as people that need to be treated with respect and dignity, as responsible beings with their own will, and not as passive 'sick people'.

As has been pointed out earlier, a programme refers to any structured action aimed at influencing the prisoners positively with the intention of improving their quality of life. For the above to be practicable, the needs of a specific individual must be determined before the individual is exposed to a particular programme. Clement (1986: 3) defines a need as a lack of something essential, desirable, useful or as a condition that requires relief. A needs assessment scheme should be conducted to identify the needs of a prisoner. The list of needs of a particular prisoner is called the needs disposition of a prisoner. The types and number of programmes, which must satisfy the needs disposition, is called the programmes profile of the prisoner. Clements (1986: 7) argues that programmes should be subdivided into universal, subgroup treatment, problem-oriented and individual programmes. The universal programme aims at effective control, but still focus on

the modification of the behaviour of the prisoner. Privileges, gratification, discipline and security classifications are examples of universal programmes. Subgroup treatment programmes make provision for differentiated treatment strategies to accommodate prisoners who have common characteristics for structure, control, support and confrontation. Problem-oriented programmes are aimed at eliminating a specific adaptation, criminal or community integration problem. Some examples of problem-oriented programmes include job skills, alcohol and drug abuse, basic education and sexual adaptations. Individual programmes are aimed for a specific prisoner, irrespective of other programmes in which the prisoner is involved. Examples of individual programmes include medical care, after-hour classes, consultations, individual therapy and support. The programmes approach as was accepted in South Africa in 1986 has been divided into two categories, namely, the detention programmes and the development programmes. The detention programmes include the following:

- The victimization potential programme which aims to detain prisoners in such a way that victimization is kept to a minimum.
- The privileges programme that aims to regulate the behaviour and co-operation of prisoners through a privilege system.
- The discipline programme which focuses on the promotion and maintenance of sound discipline and order in the prison.
- The gratuity and financial assistance programme which aims to provide sentenced prisoners with financial recognition, to promote good behaviour, industry, loyalty, responsibility and to motivate prisoners to improve job skills and qualifications.
- The community integration programme that aims to ensure the successful reintegration into society of prisoners on their release or placement.
- The programme for the management of prisoners with behavioural problems that aims to correct anti-social behaviour in prisoners.
- The labour programme that aims to ensure that prisoners are kept busy with productive labour.

The development programmes include:

- The psychological mental health programme that aims to improve or maintain the mental health of prisoners.
- The alcohol dependence programme which aims to reduce alcohol dependence and related crime
- The drug dependence programme which aims to reduce drug dependence and related crime.
- The education programme that aims to increase the level of education of prisoners.
- The training programme that aims to develop the job skills of prisoners in a market-related manner.
- The interpersonal and social skills programme that aims to develop and improve these skills in prisoners.
- The social functioning programme which aims to run a programme in which the roles of the prisoners regarding their relationships with others are meaningful and therefore improve their adaptation to society.
- The programme for juvenile delinquents that aims at addressing the unique needs of juvenile delinquents, thereby ensuring that they are equipped with the necessary skills to satisfy their requirements in life.

Neser (1989: 317) has added vocational aptitude, job skills and intellectual and adaptive ability.

Entrepreneurship programmes have also been added as a further extension of the DCS. For effective functioning in modern society, education and training has gained priority. The DCS aims at providing education to all prisoners who are illiterate or wish to further their education. To achieve the above, the following services are available:

- Functional literacy programmes
- Distance education programmes
- Recreational education programmes including library education
- Intra-disciplinary presentations, namely, life skills programmes and youth programmes

Young offenders who are classified as juveniles and who are accommodated in specially equipped juvenile prisons receive education during the day in subjects up to Grade12 level. Some female prisoners spend time learning handwork like knitting, weaving, etc. Vocational training implies training in which a prisoner can obtain a diploma or certificate from the Department of Labour or National Training Council. Proficiency training represents those fields of training where trade status cannot be obtained, but which require specialized training. The above programmes form part of a rehabilitation strategy for prisoners.

2.11 Education and training of the DCS

Since this study looks at the impact of educational programmes at the Westville prison in the rehabilitation of prisoners, it is therefore vital that considerations be made on what the DCS has to say about education and training that it provides. The DCS has prioritised the crimation of illiteracy among prisoners. The objective of educational programmes is to utilize education as a basis for further development opportunities for prisoners. These programmes should be outcomes-based, need-oriented, cost-effective and meet the requirements of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Learners have access to General Education and Training (GET), Further Education and Training (FET) and Higher Education and Training (HET). The education programmes available to prisoners can be divided into two categories, namely formal and informal education programmes. Formal education programmes include ABET and mainstream programmes while informal education programmes include recreation programmes, recreational education programmes, library educational programmes and life-skills programmes. Some details of formal and informal education programmes are discussed below.

2.11.1 Formal education programmes

The main guideline with regard to the presentation of education in prisons is to offer diverse education and training opportunities that are need-directed and market related. The formal education programmes cover the entire spectrum of academic training. The department offers the following programmes:

2.11.1.1 Adult Basic Education Training programmes (ABET)

ABET is offered from Level 1 to 4 which is equivalent to Grade 1 to 9. This course is offered to all sentenced prisoners and is aimed at all illiterate inmates. However, ABET goes beyond reading and writing skills. It includes communication skills, numeracy training and understanding of the world in which we live, as well as practical skills.

2.11.1.2 Mainstream education programmes

The above programmes are conducted as a continuation of the ABET programmes and are offered in co-operation with the national and provincial departments of education. Mainstream education programmes are offered from Grade 10 to 12.

2.11.1.3 Tertiary education

The above programmes offers courses through a medium of correspondence, e.g. the University of South Africa, Technikon SA and Damelin. Educationists provide administrative support and study guidance

The other role of educationists within the DCS include the identification of prisoners' education and training needs as well as the presentation of education and training programmes. Educationists are responsible for classroom tuition, study guidance, internal preparation with a view to testing and examination, the administration of studies as well as the presentation of informal educational programmes. Technically qualified educationists are responsible for the presentation of classical tuition in technical subjects. Educationists are also involved with the presentation of internal skill programmes.

2.11.2 Informal educational programmes

The informal educational programmes include the following programmes:

2.11.2.1 Recreation educational programmes

Organised recreation educational programmes provide a safety valve for excess energy and also promote physical health. The aim is to equip the learner with important techniques to master the rules of the various sports and games as well as to train learners to act as coaches for various sports and games. The main goal of recreation educational programmes is the fostering of a healthy and balanced lifestyle with regard to leisure-time activities. Recreation educational programmes entail the training and coaching of inmates in a variety of sports and hobbies, such as soccer, volleyball, crafts, knitting, weaving and flower arranging.

Opportunities are provided for cultural activities such as choirs, traditional dance groups and music and drama groups. Skills that learners acquire from the above recreation educational programmes can be utilized upon their release and can help to reduce recidivism. The more the learner is engaged with the above programmes the more skills he/she learns which may be used upon released.

2.11.2.2 Library educational programmes

The objective of the library educational programmes is to teach prisoners the value and use of a library. The library plays a supplementary role with regard to the educational programmes and provides reading material for leisure time. It also serves as a link with the outside world. Libraries are established and maintained in co-operation with the Provincial Administrations, but are administered internally by the DCS. All larger prisons have well-stocked libraries containing fiction and non-fiction, reference books and technical journals. Prisoners are encouraged to make use of the above facilities.

2.11.2.3 Life Skills programmes

The aim of the life skills programmes is to equip prisoners with specific social skills. This programmes focuses on re-educating the prisoner with regard to the norms and socially acceptable behaviour patterns. Life skills programme deals directly with the cultivation of social skills and attitudes, which are necessary for effective adjustment to everyday life in the community. This programmes

consists of a variety of modules such as family affairs, economic aspects, hygiene, communication skills and job skills. The above programmes are presented in conjunction with social workers and psychologists by means of lectures, group discussions and individual interviews and include guidance programmes, social proficiency programmes and community reintegration. For the community reintegration programmes, Nicro also offers a nine to twelve months' intensive programmes that assists prisoners to take full responsibility for their lives and helps to create a better future for themselves and their families.

2.11.3 Training programmes

The purpose of training in the correctional services is firstly to develop the market-related labour potential of sentenced prisoners who do not have the necessary level of training to be productively utilized either during incarceration or in the external labour market after release. The second purpose of training is to equip the prisoner to lead a honourable, self-supporting and decent life after release from prison. Soon after admission to a prison, the Institutional Committee interviews prisoners in order to establish which of the following fields they should receive training in:

- Formal vocational training
- Basic occupational skills training
- Business skills training

Participating in the above programmes depends mainly on the length of sentence, interests aptitude, abilities, previous experience and especially on available training facilities. Training programmes include:

2.11.3.1 Vocational training

This is training in fields in which artisan status can be obtained. A prisoner may receive a certificate from the Department of Labour or from a relevant Sector Education and Training authority (SETA). Vocational training is provided in the Building, Workshop and Hairdressing trades according to the competency based

modular approach and outcome-based training. All training is provided according to the provisions of with the Skills Development Act.

2.11.3.2 Building training

Building training is offered at building training centres (accredited by the Building Industry Training Board) in various fields such as bricklaying, plastering, tiling, plumbing, joinery and painting.

2.11.3.3 Workshop training

Workshop training takes place in equipped workshops in trades related to the wood and metal industries. Accredited Training is offered according to the standard of the Forest Industry Education and Training Authority (FIETA) and the Metal Engineering Industry Education and Training Board.

2.11.3.4 Career-directed skills training

The career-directed skills training is aimed at equipping prisoners with basic skills in 61 fields, for example, welding, fencing, bricklaying, woodwork, needlework, leatherwork and pottery. Agricultural training is offered in three main fields namely livestock, crop farming and mechanized farming. Artisan status cannot be obtained because specialized training is required. Certificates are issued in co-operation with recognized external institutions. Selection of types of training is dictated by the market requirements. Prisoners who have completed their *minimum period of detention can be trained under the Department of Labour's National Skills Fund*. The said Department reserves funds for the above purpose on an annual basis. Prisoners equipped with technical skills are also equipped with entrepreneurial management skills to enable them to establish and manage their own businesses. However, prisoners who have not been trained in technical skills are also given the opportunity to undergo entrepreneurial management skills training.

2.11.3.5 Computer-based training

Computer-based training is provided in basic computer skills at various training centres. The aim of this training is to implement strategically placed multi-media learning systems nationally in order to assist prisoners with their studies.

2.12 Youth offender programme

Tshiwula (1998: 178) points out that Nicro⁴ in Cape Town and the office of the Attorney General established the youth offender programme in 1992 as a joint effort. The programme is used as a part of sentence but also depends on the offender meeting the required court criteria. A probation officer may recommend the programmes as part of probation, but the main issue about the programme is to give a young offender a chance to reflect on his or her crime. The programme is a largely life-skills programme comprising six sessions held once a week over a six consecutive week period.

The programme is designed to encourage young offenders to behave within acceptable societal norms to prevent their further involvement in criminal activities (rehabilitation). Van der Sandt & Wessels (cited in Muntingh & Shapiro, 1993: 11) say the involvement of parents or guardians is encouraged in the first and last sessions.

Other people involved in the youth offender programme include the prosecutor, the investigating officer and the social worker. Every youth participating in the programmes do so on a voluntary basis, but it is made clear to offenders that withdrawal of the case depends on the fulfilment of all stipulated conditions like attendance of family members or guardians, signing of attendance register, etc. The case is ultimately withdrawn depending on completion of sessions. The youth offender programme is planned to include sessions on the following topics:

- Crime awareness
- Development of a healthy self-concept

4 Nicro is a National Institute of Crime Prevention and Rehabilitation of offenders.

- Assertiveness
- Decision making
- Norms and laws
- Parent-child relationship

The programme allows the participants to open up and deal with what had happened to them when they committed crime. Participants are encouraged to focus on the positive aspects of their personality in an attempt to improve their self-esteem, which has been broken down by the crime, the events surrounding it and their family's and peer's reactions. The first session of the programmes, in particular, deals with the biographical information of the offender. Social workers get to know more about the family of the offender, friends, peers, environment from where the offender comes from, and other related information.

Environmental theory and cultural theory may help social workers to identify the cause of crime and thereby select suitable and appropriate rehabilitative measure to be implemented. Other subsequent sessions form part of social learning theory. Participants are taught law-abiding behaviour. Offenders are given more information about family, school, church, bonds formed between people and how these linked with commitment, involvement and belief. Some sessions involve role-play to encourage ways to develop a positive self-concept, life skills, assertiveness, and how to deal with the peers and peer-pressure. Participants are taught law-abiding behaviour and they role-play, develop positive self-concept and they are equipped with life-skills. The above session may help in the rehabilitation of young offenders rather than imprisoning them where they may acquire more crime-committing techniques.

Frolander-Ulf & Yates (2001: 115) argue that since most incarcerated persons in the United States are poor, their poverty often compounded by racial and ethnic discrimination, it is not surprising that they had woefully inadequate schooling. They further argue that according to a 1997 report from the Centre on Crime, Community and Culture, illiteracy among the nearly 100,000 juvenile prisoners in the United States is very high. 90% of teachers providing reading instruction in juvenile correctional facilities reported that they had students who could not read material composed of words from their own oral vocabularies. Plus as high as

40% of juveniles in prison complete their education when they are released. From the above report one can conclude that since a number of juveniles do not attend school, they are at risk of engaging in criminal practices. Education thus becomes a critical vehicle in addressing and preventing criminal activity.

2.13 Development programmes for young offenders

In order to develop and empower young offenders so that they can be assets to the community, the Department has to initiate, develop and implement programmes that focus specifically on the unique care, development and treatment needs of young persons. To this end the DCS endeavours to:

- establish separate facilities for young offenders;
- foster the co-responsibility of parents or peers and other significant persons;
- promote a culture of development and learning;
- follow a holistic approach, aimed at the total development of the young person;
- follow structured daily programmes;
- develop distinctive detention-related packages to accommodate the specific needs and interests of young offenders;
- follow a unit management approach with direct supervision;
- foster personal responsibility;
- utilize community resources;
- establish an effective human resource component.

The following programmes are directed towards the development of youth in prison:

- Education (mainstream and ABET)
- Occupational skills training
- Vocational training
- Entrepreneurial skills development
- Recreational programmes
- Library services
- Social work services

- Psychological services
- Religious care- programmes

The DCS provides all the above-mentioned programmes with the aim of rehabilitating prisoners. Educational and training programmes empower prisoners and give them a chance to become self-supporting and responsible members of the broader community.

2.14 Curriculum theory and adult learning

Curriculum is a word taken from Latin 'currere' which means 'to run' and its associated noun that has been translated as 'a course'. Many writers define curriculum in different ways. Kelly (1977: 3) suggests that it is necessary, to distinguish the use of the word to denote the content of a particular subject or area of study from the use of it to refer to the total programmes of an educational institution. Griffin (1978) says that curriculum refers to the entire range of educational practices or learning experiences. To summarize the definition, curriculum generally refers at all activities that take place in a teaching and learning endeavour, be it planned or spontaneous. When designing curriculum a number of factors need to be considered. Macfarlane (1978) recommends a learner-centered curriculum and regards learners to be active participants in defining their own goals and needs. The process of literacy should be holistic and task-centered. Educators need to view learners as equals that are not to be blamed for failure of carrying out tasks. Learners need to view teachers as friends who will help them to solve problems.

Dobashe et al. (1986: 160) say most social scientists and observers writing about women in contemporary prisons have little to say about work, training or education. Work, training and education form part of curriculum and rehabilitation of prisoners. Comparing men and women prisons, Giallombardo (cited in Dobashe, 1986: 161) notes that there is more 'maid' work (of a domestic nature) in women prisons and more 'productive' work in men prisons.

Giallombardo states that the male is oriented to look upon work as a meaningful activity in career terms, while it is apparent that much of the 'busy work' in the prison designed to keep the female inmate occupied is not like many of the tasks

that women perform in carrying out a home-making role. Hefferman (cited in Dobashe, 1986: 162) says curriculum includes courses in English, History, Mathematics, Current event, Art, Typing, Shorthand and so on. Smart (1979: 50) argues that women are not perceived as potential 'breadwinners' and as such there is no need for them to acquire money-earning skills. From the above views of writers one concludes that curriculum designed for women in prisons equip them to maintain the status quo of their role of domestication even when they are released. There should therefore be a shift from the above role of curriculum to the one that will help women acquire or develop new skills so as to face the challenges of the outside world.

Mezirow's transformation theory states that people make intentional movements in adulthood to resolve contradictions and to move to developmentally advanced conceptual structures by transforming meaning schemes and perspectives through critical reflection (Mezirow, 1991: 160). Transformation theory is appropriate to prisoners because when rehabilitation programmes are offered, the role of prisoners is to reflect on the criminal practices that they have committed and then change their bad attitudes so that they can be acceptable in society. Mezirow (ibid: 161) argues that transformative learning involves an enhanced level of awareness of the context of ones beliefs and feelings, a critique of their assumptions and particularly premises, an assessment of alternative perspectives, a decision to negate an old perspective in favour of a new one or to make a synthesis of old and new, an ability to take action based upon the new perspective, and a desire to fit the new perspective into the broader context of ones life. Mezirow (ibid: 161) also argues that perspective transformation involves:

- an empowered sense of self;
- more critical understanding of how ones social relationships and the culture have shaped ones beliefs and feelings;
- more functional strategies and resources for taking action.

Taking action is an integral dimension of transformative learning. The way that curriculum is designed and delivered by the educator should consider transformative learning theory as a basis to support prisoners to make perspective transformation that might deter them from committing criminal offences. This

theory of adult learning, however, requires a high level of skill from the educator. It does, however, present a solid theory for rehabilitative learning.

2.15 Treatment of females in prisons

Rafter (1985) says female incarceration in the United States has been notorious for sex-stereotyped programming, inadequate medical care, and overall conditions of neglect. Arditi et al. (1973: 1241), says female inmates are offered fewer opportunities for educational and vocational training than their male counterparts. Programmes offered prepare female inmate for typical pink-collar jobs such as secretarial work, horticulture, sewing, and service occupations.⁵ The Yale Law Journal (Vol. 82) states that women prisons tend to have fewer teachers than male prisons. As a result the influence of sexual stereotypes creates a much greater disparity in vocational training. The types of programmes offered at male and female prisons are different. Men are usually given programmes in mechanical skills and physical labour, while women are offered training in clerical skills and personal service. Male prisons consistently offer a far greater variety of vocational programmes than female prisons. The disadvantage for females is compounded by the fact that male inmates are often assigned to a particular institution, at least in part, on the basis of their vocational needs. As a result a bleak picture for the future of female inmates emerges when one compares the historical lack of programming with the continuous increase in the number of female inmates entering state and federal facilities.

The Bureau of Justice Statistics (1999) estimates that as of June 1999, there were approximately 87,199 women in state and federal prisons. This is up some 5,5% from the previous year, and researchers indicate that the rise in the number of women inmates is outpacing the rise in the number of males entering prison (reported as a 4,3% increase). The growing numbers of incarcerated females appear minimal based upon extent research.

The research on educational and vocational programmes (rehabilitation programmes) available to female inmates is outdated for the 1990s, and is based

⁵ Service occupation refers to relatively low income occupation like laundry and food service.

on a small sample of institutions. The important part to consider is that previous research cannot and does not account for the changing roles of women in today's society. Not only are more women entering post-secondary education, but also more women are entering the work force than ever before. These changes invite re-examination of sex disparities in prison programming, because today's female inmate is entering a different economic and educational climate than of perhaps thirty years ago.

Educational programming has always had an uneven distribution between male and female penal institutions. Arditi et al. (1973: 1241) found that several states lack proper educational programmes for women. He discovered that Michigan, for example, did not provide its female inmate with even a first-through-eight-Grade education. In addition, Michigan and California did not provide any study-release programmes for females, but did offer such programmes to male inmates. Alabama only provided male inmates with college classes. Nebraska offered only junior college classes to its female inmates, while offering four-year college programmes on the premises of all its male institutions. The study also revealed that female institutions had fewer teachers.

Ryan (1984) conducted a study on academic education programmes availability across 45 states. He discovered that 83% of the female institutions offered adult basic education programmes, while 72% had college programmes. These results indicated that programmes availability had increased, but they indicate nothing about the actual participation rates in prison programmes or about the qualitative characteristics of the programming offered. Lahm (2000) cites a study by Marash et al. (1994: 197) of more than 14,592 male inmates and 3,091 female inmates which revealed that a slightly greater proportion of female inmates (48.6%) than of male inmates (45%) had taken part in academic programmes since admission to prison. Plus slightly more females were involved in adult basic education classes and college classes. Current statistics show that the number of females that enter prison with an educational deficit increases. This is confirmed by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (1994) report where it revealed that of the female inmates imprisoned in 1991 only 23% had completed high school while 33% had dropped out of high school. Furthermore, 20% had completed general education and about 16% had some college education. The above report supports the notion that

educational programming in prisons is necessary since leaving prison with insufficient education or job related skills sets inmates up for a life struggle and distress. Such attributes certainly increase the rate of recidivism.

In a study by Arditi et al. (1973: 1243), great disparities have been disclosed pertaining vocational training between male and female inmates. Out of 62 institutions studied by the researchers, it was reported that the DCS often assigned male offenders to specific institutions based upon their rehabilitative needs, while female inmates only had a choice of going to one facility. Vocational training for female inmates included clerical skills, cosmetology, dental assistance, floral design, food service, garment manufacturing, housekeeping and nursing assistance. On the other hand, programmes for male inmates included air conditioning repair, auto mechanics, cabinet making, carpentry, chemistry, driving, drafting, electronics, farming, horticulture, laundry, preparation, leather work, machine shop, plumbing, printing, tailoring and welding. The above programmes show both qualitative and quantitative differences. It can be deduced from the above programmes that male inmates were offered training in programmes that could potentially earn them more income upon release. As a result males have better chances of not returning to prison when released as they will be able to generate their own income using skills they have acquired while in prison. On the other hand, Watterson said:

When a woman gets out of prison, she's given \$40, a coat, an address and told to go out and see if she can make it. Most women will return; they do so because of stress, fear and the fact that they haven't learned the skills needed for living more effectively outside while they've been locked up. (Watterson, 1996: 204)

A number of researchers support Watterson's point. Ryan (1984) reported that 83% of the female facilities in his sample had at least one vocational programme while some states like Texas and Pennsylvania offered twelve to thirteen vocational programmes. Crawford (1988) indicated that 90% of the female prisons in her sample offered some type of vocational training. Weisheit (1985: 35-42) reported that 15 of the women's institutions in his sample offered non-traditional programming, whereas in 1973 none of his sample institutions had offered any type of non-traditional programming for females. Morash et al. (1994: 197) stated that female inmates are still receiving fewer vocational programmes than males and that those they receive tend to be sex stereotyped.

Moreover, females are most likely to be involved in office training while males are most likely to be involved in auto repair, construction, and a variety of trade skills. The above differences reflect that males have better chances of playing an active role in society with skills they have acquired in prison once they are released. On the contrary, females will tend to resume their passive role as domestic servants in society. It is therefore essential that programmes offered in prison empower both male and female inmates to stand up on their own and face whatever obstacles they come across in life so as to escape recidivism.

2.16 Summary

This chapter provided a detailed discussion about rehabilitation and education programmes. The reason for discussing methods of rehabilitation in different countries was to compare such methods with those used in South Africa and to determine whether or not South Africa uses similar or different methods of rehabilitation. The overview of the literature also provided a useful insight as to how countries identify and develop programmes that respond to different forms of crime.

The researcher also assumed that there was a positive relationship between unemployment and imprisonment. A section in this chapter deals with imprisonment and unemployment and discussed whether the chances of unskilled prisoners, who acquired skills in prison as part of the rehabilitation process, for employability increased once they are released from prison. A growing body of literature suggests that employability could play a strong role in effective rehabilitation.

Theories concerning the causes of crime were also discussed so that programme facilitators could determine the causes of committing crime and thereby finding appropriate treatment (rehabilitation) strategies. Much of the literature suggests that different rehabilitation programmes are required to respond to different causes of crime. It therefore makes sense that correctional services should provide and deliver a variety of possible programmes to prisoners. Skills programmes seem to become more important in the current economic context.

Imprisonment and education were also discussed in order to determine whether education could be an effective tool of lowering the rate of recidivism. Some ways of rehabilitation of offenders were discussed so that the most appropriate strategies could be employed to specific categories of offenders.

This chapter also looks in detail at the kinds of programmes that are currently being provided to prisoners. The programmes described indicate that the DCS is providing a variety of educational programmes that encourage rehabilitation and skills development. It is the effectiveness of these programmes that inspired the researcher to investigate the impact of the programmes as facilitators of rehabilitation. Some attention is also given to youth offenders and the development of programmes that are responsive to their needs. A focus on this sector of the population is particularly significant because of rising unemployment amongst youth and the fact that the youth forms a significant proportion of the South African population.

Curriculum theory and adult learning was also explored in order to broaden the spectrum of designing rehabilitation programme curriculum for prisoners. One theory that is particularly promising is transformative learning developed by Mezirow. Transformative learning suggests that rehabilitation programmes could be effective if they support the learner to develop a critical meaning perspective. The final section discusses the treatment of females in prisons since prisons also keep female prisoners. Female prisoners are becoming a great concern because of the increase in the number of female prisoners. Much of the literature also suggests that educational programmes do not address the needs of females adequately and are often sex biased.

CHAPTER 3

Presentation Of Data

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the data collected for this study. Statistics and detailed descriptions are drawn from the 60 completed questionnaires in order to provide a description and analysis of the role of education in rehabilitation in the prison. For the purpose of making statistic more comprehensive, I would like to highlight the statistics about staffing as provided in paragraph 1.8.2. In total, the Westville prison employs thirty-five staff involved in rehabilitation and education of prisoners. They are:

- Four social workers employed at the Youth Centre
- *Nine social workers in Medium B*
- Two psychologists for the entire prison
- Ten educators at the Youth Centre
- Five educators for the technical subjects
- Five educators in Medium B

In addition, eleven prisoner educators are also employed. The data presented in this chapter represents the views of eleven (or 31,4%) of the total staff involved in the rehabilitation of prisoners. The rest of the data is drawn from the responses of eighteen programme participants (prisoners), fourteen non-participants (prisoners), eight ex-prisoners and nine family members.

Variables such as age, sex, race and level of education are used to present the findings. The sample used during this study is not representative of the prison but provides useful information about the views held about the role of education in rehabilitation of prisoners.

3.2 Questionnaire to programme facilitators

A questionnaire was designed and used to capture information about programme facilitators. This instrument collected data about personal, administrative and institutional items. Personal items include variables such as age, sex, race and highest level of education. Administrative items captured information about the status of employment of staff and their experience and length of service. The institutional items were concerned with the range of programmes available and reasons that explain the attrition rates, deterrents to participation and areas that can enhance the effectiveness of programmes. Of the 20 questionnaires that were issued 11 (55%) were returned.

3.2.1 Personal items

AGE

An age range of 22 – 56 years existed among programme facilitators who participated in the study. Ages of programme facilitators were categorized into four groups as follows:

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20-29	3	27,3
30-39	5	45,5
40-49	2	18,2
50-59	1	9,0
Total	11	100

Table 1: Age breakdown of programme facilitators

SEX

There were 5 female and 6 male programme facilitators who participated in this study. Westville Prison consists of 4 sections for male prisoners and 1 section for female prisoners and there are fewer female than male programme facilitators.

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Females	5	45,5
Males	6	54,5
Total	11	100

Table 2: Sex breakdown of programme facilitators

RACE

Four different racial groups participated in the survey. The number of participation was, however, not even, as Blacks were in the majority. The reason for this may be that there were more Blacks employed at Westville Prison than the other racial groups.

Race	Frequency	Percentage
Black	8	72,7
White	1	9,1
Coloured	1	9,1
Indian	1	9,1
Total	11	100

Table 3: Racial groups breakdown of programme facilitators.

QUALIFICATIONS

The minimum requirement to be considered for employment in the DCS is that of Senior Certificate. Programme facilitators therefore either had a Senior Certificate, or a Senior Certificate as well as diplomas or degrees.

Qualifications	Frequency	Percentage
Senior certificate	2	18,2
Diploma/Degree	9	81,8
Total	11	100

Table 4: Qualifications breakdown of programme facilitators.

Analysis (personal items)

Personal items in this study included age, sex, race and qualifications. The data gathered suggest that most of the programme facilitators are in the age category 30 - 39 (45,5%) and 27,3% fell in the age category 20 - 29. The majority of programme facilitators are relatively young and could contribute to the quality of rehabilitation programmes in prisons.

Programme facilitators were generally well educated. 18,2% of programme facilitators had Senior Certificate qualifications and 81,8% had either diplomas or degrees (Table 4). Qualified practitioners, for the most part, facilitated rehabilitation programmes. Services delivery was therefore expected to be effective and of a reasonably good quality. Generally, staff were well educated for their respective roles in the various education and rehabilitation programmes.

Seven educators who participated in this study stated that they attended the following rehabilitation courses:

- (a) Life skills
- (b) Basic training in rehabilitation
- (c) Entrepreneurial skills
- (d) Investment in excellence

One of the two correctional officers attended the life skills programme. Two social workers had attended the following courses:

- (a) Life skills

- (b) HIV/Aids
- (c) Leadership
- (d) Investment in excellence
- (e) Sexual offender programme
- (f) Trauma counselling

From the above details, it is clear that educators and social workers are better trained to facilitate rehabilitation programmes than correctional officers. Educators argue that the rehabilitation programmes contributed to changes in prisoners. They highlighted the following changes that occurred as a consequence of attending the programmes:

- They improved their ability to read, write and communicate effectively.
- Their self-motivation, self-discipline and self-confidence had improved.
- They had improved their ability to manipulate tools.
- They had enrolled with tertiary institutions.
- They had an increased willingness to face the outside world with the skills that they have acquired.

Social workers who participated in this study stated that inmates who participated in the rehabilitation programmes manifested the following changes:

- They had gained insight about crime.
- They had gained insight about life in general.
- They had shown acceptance of their wrong behaviour.
- They had shown a willingness to change.

This study showed that 72,7% of Blacks, 9,1% of Whites, 9,1% of Coloureds and 9,1% of Indians participated in the programmes (Table 3).

3.2.2 Administrative items

EMPLOYMENT STATUS

People who participated in this study were educators, correctional officers¹ and social workers. The respondents represent 31,4% of the staff that play a role in the education and training of prisoners.

Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage
Educators	7	63,6
Correctional Officers	2	18,2
Social Workers	2	18,2
Total	11	100

Table 5: Employment status breakdown of programme facilitators.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

Length of services of programme facilitators ranged from 1 year to 23 years. As a result 5 categories in multiples of 2 were made.

Length of Service	Frequency	Percentage
1-2 years	1	9,1
3-4 years	5	45,4
5-6 years	2	18,2
7-8 years	1	9,1
9 and more	2	18,2
Total	11	100

Table 6: Length of service breakdown of programme facilitators

¹ Correctional officers are warders of whom a small number act as educators within the prison.

Analysis (administrative items)

For the purpose of this study, administrative items included employment status and length of service. The study revealed that of those who participated in the rehabilitation programmes, 63,6% were educators, 18,2% were Correctional Officers and 18,2% were social workers (Table 5). Most of the programme facilitators (81.8%) are well educated. Collectively, they seem to have many years of experience and one can assume that the quality of education provided is good. Together with the levels of qualifications and the support programmes provided to them, one would expect that their contributions to rehabilitation to be of significant value.

Correctional officers' roles in the rehabilitation of prisoners, however, are not clearly defined. Their roles are predominantly authoritative, punitive or strictly corrective. The two correctional officers were not trained as educators. Both had only Senior Certificates.

Educators at Westville prison were very clear about the impact of the rehabilitation programmes. They strongly suggested that the programmes could:

“...help inmates further their studies and be self-employed” “...keep inmates busy and to develop skills” “... inmates can be self-employed and improve their life skills” “...I feel that we need scientists to develop our country” “... to change the perceptions of life in general” “... to be able to cope with the outside world” “... we give them a skill which they can use.”

Other statements about the role of programmes include the following:

“...I cannot rehabilitate a person. He has got to change his attitude and outlook on life. I cannot do that for him. I can teach him to help himself” “... I think I can do more to educate learners, motivate them to know their responsibilities in society, learn how to identify their problems and come out with solutions.”

Social workers played a very important role in the rehabilitation of prisoners. This is evident from the kinds of programmes offered by social workers and the level of their expertise. In response to the role of course in rehabilitation, social workers recognized the need to respond to different needs of prisoners. One respondent stated,

“The course is aimed at rehabilitation and to address different needs of the client... I teach different programmes but the general purpose is to address the offending behaviour”.

When examining the above responses, one can conclude that rehabilitation programmes are generally aimed at equipping inmates with knowledge, skills and values that they can use in the outside world. However, one respondent highlighted that the above can only be achieved if an inmate is prepared to change his or her attitude or outlook on life.

Social workers stated that some of the participants re-enter prison although they have attended the programmes. They argue that this is because of a lack of supportive structures in communities, poverty and a lack of employment opportunities.

Social workers further provided explanations for attrition. According to them the drop out rate amongst prisoners are due to:

“Clients are transferred to other prisons without proper arrangements...language difficulties...programmes are offered in English only.”

From the above statements, the DCS should consult programme facilitators when transfers are made. Programmes should preferably be offered in mother tongue.

The DCS should therefore ensure that there are enough social workers within the system so that they help to address the needs of the inmates. It is also important that the DCS ensures that prisons recognize the importance of a skilled human resource that could provide rehabilitation programmes. A dedicated, skilled and educated group of programme facilitators could play a crucial role in addressing:

- a lack of interest in programmes amongst prisoners;
- attrition from programmes;
- a means of measuring the effectiveness of the rehabilitation programme if it is not completed;
- a wastage of resources.

The DCS must ensure that programme facilitators work within the Department by:

- making the environment conducive to working and learning;
- addressing the needs of programme facilitators that promote effective service delivery;
- ensuring that programme facilitators are not put under pressure by other external needs of prisoners such as health problems, hunger strikes, etc.

3.2.3 Institutional items

(a) Programme offerings

The following courses were offered in Westville Prison:

1. ABET levels 1 to 3 with literacy, numeracy and life skills.
2. Mainstream: Zulu, English, Mathematics, Geography, History, Technical Drawing.
3. Technical courses: welding, electricity, joiner, wood machinist, bricklaying, carpentry and technical studies.
4. Orientation - a programme that introduces prisoners to prison life.
5. Aggressive offender programme - a programme that helps prisoners to cope with different situations in life.
6. Sexual offender programme - a programme designed to offer counselling to prisoners about women abuse.
7. Life skills - a programme that acknowledges the fact that people live in a rapidly changing society and that prisoners need to cope with such changes without harming others.
8. Marriage and family care - a programme designed to develop a positive attitude towards members of family and a prisoner.
9. Drug and alcohol abuse - a programme designed to help prisoners against drug and alcohol abuse.
10. HIV/Aids - a programme designed to make prisoners aware of sexually transmitted diseases.
11. Pre-release - a programme designed to help prisoners with social integration.

12. Trauma counselling - a programme designed to help prisoners with trauma problems.
13. Stress management - a programme designed to help prisoners overcome stress.
14. Sport and recreation, music and computer courses are only offered on the basis of individual needs and interests.

Programme facilitators highlighted that the following courses should be included in the rehabilitation of prisoners:

1. Violence management - a programme that teaches inmates how to control their emotions.
2. Family/community integration programme - a programme that enhances family/community relations.
3. Leadership - a programme that encourages responsibility and accountability.
4. Conflict management - a programme that encourages tolerance and respect.
5. Entrepreneurial skills - a programme that teaches inmates how to start and manage their own enterprises.
6. Computer course - a programme that teaches computer skills.
7. Career guidance - a programme that exposes inmates to a diversity of career opportunities.
8. Self-awareness courses - a programme that teaches inmates to understand themselves better.
9. Handy skills training and development - a programme that trains and develops skills.

The number of prisoners who participated in the programmes varied from course to course.² This was the same with the number of dropouts. Programme facilitators highlighted the following causes for dropouts:

- Language of instruction - English was a problem to some inmates.

² No statistics were available at the time of the study. It is estimated that approximately 2000 prisoners were involved in the different programmes offered.

- Dedication and motivation - the majority of inmates who did not participate lacked motivation and dedication.
- Draft, release or transfers of participants - the majority of inmates were transferred to other prisons without prior notice to services providers.
- Lack of self-discipline - the majority of inmates were not properly disciplined to take responsibility of their work.
- Environmental conditions within the prison that may not encourage uninterrupted participation like further charge.

The number of prisoners that re-entered prison after attending rehabilitation programmes varied. Numerous reasons were given by programme facilitators, which include:

- Negative attitude of employers towards ex-prisoners
- Poor accommodation when prisoners are released
- Frustration
- Poor employment opportunities
- Poor placement after release
- Peer pressure, including drug and alcohol abuse
- Poor working habits
- Lack of supportive structures in the community
- Poverty

Programme facilitators highlighted the following changes that had occurred in the lives of learners that had attended rehabilitation programmes:

- They had acquired self-discipline and motivated to help themselves and others.
- They had respect for themselves and others.
- They showed a willingness to study further.
- They had knowledge and insight of crime and life in general.
- They utilized the skills they have acquired so that they did not become involved in crime.
- They showed self-confidence.

In order to improve the existing rehabilitation programmes, programme facilitators suggested that the following should be done:

- Experts from universities and technical colleges needed to be more involved in order to improve the standards of education.
- More workshops with suitable equipment needed to be built.
- There was a need to improve available resources.
- They needed to establish links with employment bureaus.
- Follow-up programmes after release had to be enhanced.

Analysis (institutional items)

Educational programmes offered in Westville Prison included ABET, mainstream and technical courses. Among the mainstream subjects, Zulu, English, Mathematics, Geography, History and Technical Drawing were mentioned. Other subjects such as Biology, Physical Science, Accounting, Business Economics and Economics were not mentioned. Technical courses that were mentioned in the survey included Welding, Electricity, Joiner wood machinist, Bricklaying, Carpentry and Technical Studies. Other technical courses such as motor mechanics, upholstery and vehicle driving were not mentioned.

The following courses were also offered in the centre:

- Orientation
- Aggressive offender programme
- Sexual offender programme
- Life skills
- Marriage and family care
- Drug and alcohol abuse
- HIV/Aids
- Pre-release
- Trauma counselling

- Stress management

Sport and recreation, music and computer courses were offered on the basis of individual needs and interests. Programme facilitators felt that the following programmes or skills should be included in the rehabilitation of prisoners:

- Conflict and violence management
- Family/community integration programme
- Leadership
- Entrepreneurial skills
- Computer literacy
- Career guidance
- Self-awareness programme
- Handy skills training and development
- Voter education
- Problem solving
- Decision making
- Human rights
- Social awareness
- Communication skills
- Economic empowerment
- Confession

3.3 Questionnaire to participants

The above questionnaire was designed to include personal, administrative and institutional items. Of the 20 questionnaires that were issued, 18 were returned.

3.3.1 Personal items

AGE

An age range of 20 - 54 years existed among those inmates who participated in programmes. Ages of participants were categorised into four groups as follows:

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20-29	8	44,4
30-39	5	27,8
40-49	4	22,2
50- & Above	1	5,6
Total	18	100

Table 7: Age breakdown of participants

SEX

There were 4 female and 14 male inmates who participated in this study. Some female inmates were unable to write and could not be part of those who participate in filling in questionnaires.

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Females	4	22,2
Males	14	77,8
Total	18	100

Table 8: Sex breakdown of participants

RACE

Two different racial groups participated in the study. There were 17 Blacks and 1 Indian who participated in the study. The reason may be that there were more Black inmates than any other racial group at Westville Prison.

Race	Frequency	Percentage
Black	17	94,4
Indian	1	5,6
Total	18	100

Table 9: Racial groups breakdown of participants.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Participants were categorized as pre-Senior Certificate or post-Senior Certificates. Pre-Senior Certificates were those inmates with the level of education from Grade 1 to Grade 12. Post-Senior Certificates were those inmates with senior certificate plus diplomas or degrees.

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-senior certificate	17	94,4
Post-senior certificate	1	5,6
Total	18	100

Table 10: Level of education breakdown of participants.

RESIDENCE

Of the 18 inmates who participated in this study, 16 lived in urban areas and 2 lived in rural areas.

Analysis (personal items)

Personal items in this study included age, sex, race, level of education and residence. Participation in programmes was highest among inmates aged 20-29 years, which constituted 44,4%. There was 27,8% participation among inmates aged 30-39 years, 22,2% participation among inmates aged 40-49 years and 5,6% participation among inmates aged 50 years and above (Table 8).

The study revealed that there was 94,4% participation of pre-Senior Certificates and 5,6% participation of post-Senior Certificates. Reasons for this could include:

- Pre-Senior Certificates were encouraged to participate so that they would be able to read, write and speak languages.
- Pre-Senior Certificates were motivated to participate so that they could increase their chances of employability.
- Pre-Senior Certificate education was offered free of charge.
- Post-Senior Certificate education has to be financed by prisoners themselves.
- Post-Senior Certificate education had to undertaken by the prisoner's own effort.

Participants in rehabilitation programmes stated that they studied courses as outlined in paragraph 3.3.3. Apart from the courses offered, some participants highlighted that they would like to study the following:

- Music and radio broadcasting
- Electrical engineering and electronics
- Fashion design, arts and architecture
- Social work
- Degrees in Business Administration and commerce
- Meteorology
- Information technology
- Criminology
- Interpretation services (in court)
- Catering/florist
- Upholstery
- Mechanical engineering
- Public relations and communication

Participants also stated the following measures that could prevent them from committing crime.

- Further studies
- Finding good employment
- Being involved in community work
- Remaining single (not to marry)
- Not to mix with bad people
- Be given a second chance in life

3.3.2 Administrative items

TYPE OF OFFENCE

Types of offences committed by inmates who participated in the programmes included robbery, rape, murder, fraud, possession of firearm and ammunition (PFA) and car hijacking. Two inmates were unwilling to disclose the type of offence that they committed.

Type of Offence	Frequency	Percentage
Robbery	6	33,3
Rape	2	11,1
Murder	5	27,8
Fraud	1	5,6
PFA	1	5,6
Car hijacking	1	5,6
Other	2	11,1
Total	18	100

Table 11: Type of offence committed breakdown.

LENGTH OF SENTENCE

The length of sentence ranged from 5 - 30 years imprisonment. Length of sentence was categorized in multiplies of five as follows:

Length of Sentence	Frequency	Percentage
5-10	11	61,1
11-15	5	27,8
16-20	0	0,0
21-25	1	5,6
26-30	1	5,6
Total	18	100

Table 12: length of sentence breakdown of participants.

Of the 18 inmates who completed the questionnaires 9 were employed before they were imprisoned and 9 were unemployed before they were imprisoned. The 9 inmates that were employed include those who were self-employed.

Analysis (administrative items)

Among the offences that were committed by inmates, robbery was the highest with 33,3% and murder with 27,8%. Rape was 11,1%. Car hijacking, PFA and fraud all had 5,6% (Table 12). Other inmates did not disclose the types of offences that they had committed. Since robbery was associated with money, the following reasons for committing it could be identified:

- Poverty
- Unemployment
- Low levels of education
- Poor habit of working
- Eager to be rich quickly

Rehabilitation programmes were to be designed such that they address the above causes of crime. The study revealed that there was 61,1% participation among inmates sentenced 5 to 10 years. There was 27,8% participation among inmates sentenced 11 to 15 years. There was 5,6% participation among inmates sentenced 21 - 25 years and 5,6% participation among inmates sentenced 26 - 30 years (Table 12).

The above statistics suggested that inmates that were sentenced to 16 years and above had poor participation than those that were below 16 years. Again inmates that were sentenced below 5 years did not participate at all. The reason for poor participation among inmates sentenced 16 years and above could be that they felt participation would be a waste of time since they would spend almost all their lives in prison. The study showed that recidivism was more likely among inmates with shorter sentences than those with longer ones. Participation in rehabilitation programmes should therefore be compulsory among inmates with short sentences in order to reduce the rate of recidivism. The individual needs of inmates were to be identified before engaging the inmates in programmes.

3.3.3 Institutional items

Among other courses that participants were studying, the following were highlighted:

- ABET: Literacy, numeracy and life skills
- Mainstream: Zulu, English, Technical Drawing, Geography, History and Mathematics
- Technical courses (male inmates)
- Orientation
- Aggressive offender programme
- Sexual offender programme
- Life skills
- Marriage and family care
- Drug and alcohol abuse
- HIV/Aids
- Pre-release
- Trauma counselling
- Stress management

Other inmates had registered with tertiary institutions. Such inmates had enrolled in the following courses:

- Communication
- Marketing
- Media studies
- Research in social sciences
- Communication law
- Water and waste water treatment practice
- Computer literacy.

By virtue of attending the programmes, inmates highlighted that they were able to:

- communicate with other people freely;
- educate other people about how to prevent HIV/AIDS;
- construct a sentence in English correctly;
- contribute ideas that are of benefit to others;
- study effectively as they are able to cope with family problems;
- set goals for their future;
- understand the importance of education;
- respect other people;
- apply skills acquired in the classroom situation;
- face problems with an open mind set;
- tell other people about the existence of God;
- accommodate opinions of other people.

All inmates who participated in the rehabilitation programmes felt that finding employment upon release could prevent them from being imprisoned again. When asked the question what would prevent them from being rearrested, the responses were:

“To get employment, or money to study” “...keep myself busy by working or continue with my studies” “... get a job” “... finding work with a reasonable salary.”

Other participants stated that they wanted to further their studies at tertiary institutions so that they could get good jobs, earn a good salary and thereby live a good life. This sentiment is echoed in the above responses. Inmates had a feeling that the DCS should make funds available for those who wish to further their studies at tertiary institutions. Inmates felt that those who participate in programmes should be separated from those who did not. This could help reduce the problem of gangsterism within the prison. Inmates also felt that first-time offenders should not be mixed with regular offenders. People who commit crime regularly overtly do not want to change their attitudes and may therefore influence other offenders. Participants were asked to give any other information about the provision of rehabilitation programmes. These are some of their responses:

- All inmates should receive education.
- First offenders should not be mixed with regular offenders.
- Career guidance to be provided to all inmates.
- Music should be offered.

Analysis (institutional items)

The study showed that inmates participated in the following programmes:

- ABET: Literacy, numeracy and life skills
- Mainstream: Zulu, English, Technical Drawing, Geography, History, Mathematics.
- Technical courses: welding, bricklaying, carpentry, electricity, joiner wood machinist, technical studies (male inmates)
- Patchwork, knitting, sewing, baking, music and dance, drama, computer studies (female inmates)
- Orientation
- Aggressive offender programmes
- Sexual offender programmes
- Life skills
- Marriage and family care

- Drug and alcohol abuse
- HIV/Aids
- Pre-release
- Trauma counselling
- Stress management

When asked what could be done to improve programmes so that participants are not imprisoned again, respondents stated that:

“To be funded to further my studies and also not to be stigmatised as a prisoner” “...to get financial support to complete my studies so that I can get employment” “...there must be youth programmes in the community that will teach us to be responsible in life and set goals for what ever we do” “... to help the inmates by giving them life skills” “...introduction of some counselling in the programme and focusing the syllabus on our needs” “... the programme must be improved by opening chances to study in universities and provide us with good education” “...to separate us according to our experiences we have had in jail. To stop gangsterism.”

A number of participants pointed out the necessity of getting a good education and securing a good job. This could lower the rate of crime and recidivism. A possibility of scholarships from DCS could be considered for inmates that show interest to further their studies at tertiary institutions.

There were a number of other subjects that were not included in mainstream like Economics, Business Economics, Accounting, Physical Science, Biology and many others. There were other technical courses that were not included, such as motor mechanics, upholstery, etc. The study revealed that male and female inmates participated in different technical courses. More courses offered to female inmates were of domestic nature. This would probably not broaden the spectrum of employability to female inmates once they were released.

The study showed that few inmates had registered with tertiary institutions. Among other barriers to participation in tertiary institutions was that inmates had their own financial responsibility for the courses that they had registered for. Since inmates were unemployed, they could not pay for the courses they wanted to study. The

government has the responsibility of ensuring that inmates who want to further their studies, especially in basic and further education, are allowed to do so.

3.4 Questionnaire to non-participants

A questionnaire to non-participants was designed to include personal, administrative and institution items. Of the 20 questionnaires that were issued, 14 were returned.

3.4.1 Personal items

AGE

An age range of 18 - 42 years existed among those inmates who did not participate in the programmes. Ages of non- participants were categorized into four groups as follows:

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Below 20	2	14,3
20-29	6	42,9
30-39	5	35,7
40-49	1	7,1
Total	14	100

Table 13: Age breakdown of non-participants

SEX

There were 6 females and 8 males inmates who completed the questionnaires of the non-participants. The reason for the above inequality may be that there are more male than female inmates in Westville Prison.

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Females	6	42,9
Males	8	57,1
Total	14	100

Table 14: Sex breakdown of non-participants.

RACE

There were two racial groups that participated in the survey.

Race	Frequency	Percentage
Blacks	11	78,6
Indians	3	21,4
Total	14	100

Table 15: Racial group breakdown of non-participants.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Inmates were categorized as pre-Senior Certificate or post-Senior Certificate. Pre-Senior Certificates were those inmates with the level of education from Grade 1 to Grade 12. Post-Senior Certificates were those inmates with Senior Certificate plus diplomas or degrees.

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-senior certificate	7	50,0
Post-senior certificate	7	50,0
Total	14	100

Table 16: of education breakdown of non-participants

RESIDENCE

Of the 14 inmates who filled in questionnaires of the non-participants, 13 lived in urban areas and 1 lived in a rural area. Residence was a non-significant factor in this study and was therefore not discussed in details

DEPENDANTS

Of the 14 inmates who completed questionnaires to non-participants 11 had people who were their dependants and 3 had none. Dependants included family members like children, parents, brothers, sisters, etc.

Analysis (personal items)

Personal items included age, sex, race, level of education and residence. Table 13 showed that 14,3% of non-participants were below 20 years of age, 42,9% of non-participant were 20 - 29 years of age, 35,7% of non-participants 30 - 39 years of age 7,1% of non-participants were 40-49 years of age. Most of the non-participating prisoners were 20 - 39 years. Possible reasons for this were identified as:

- Prisoners of this age group were sentenced to a relatively long period of imprisonment and were therefore reluctant to participate.
- The majority of prisoners of the above age group had completed Senior Certificate and had no money to further their studies, as the prisoners that were registered with tertiary institutions paid for their studies themselves.

The study showed that there were 42,9% female inmates and 57,1% male inmates who did not participate in the programmes.

The study showed that 78,6% of Blacks and 21,4% of Indians were non-participants in the programmes. For the difference of non-participation between Blacks and Indians, the following reasons could be identified:

- There were more Black inmates than Indians inmates.
- More Black inmates did not realize the need for being engaged in the programmes, they were consequently not motivated to participate.

The study showed that of the inmates who did not participate in the programmes, 50% were pre-Senior Certificates and 50% were post-Senior Certificate. A number of inmates that had completed Senior Certificate did not further their studies at tertiary institutions due to financial constraints. Some of pre-Senior Certificates non-participants felt that further participation in the programmes would be a waste of time since they would spend almost all their lives in prison. Some of the pre-Senior Certificate non-participants were just not motivated to participate in the programmes.

3.4.2 Administrative items

TYPE OF OFFENCE

Offences committed by inmates who did not participate in the rehabilitation programmes, included murder, fraud, theft, assault, robbery, car hijacking and possession of firearms and ammunition (PFA).

Type of Offence	Frequency	Percentage
Murder	3	21,4
Fraud	2	14,3
Theft	2	14,3
Assault	1	7,1
Robbery	4	28,6
Car Hijacking	1	7,1
PFA	1	7,1
Total	14	100

Table 17: Type of offence-committed breakdown

Responders of the questionnaire of the non-participants stated a number of reasons that led to them committing the crimes. Among the reasons they gave, the following were identified:

- Desperation and helplessness
- Lack of financial support
- Peer pressure
- Poverty
- Temptation
- Anger and a desire to revenge

Of the 14 respondents that filled in the questionnaire of the non-participants, 10 were first-time offenders and 4 had been imprisoned before. Of the 14 respondents, 6 were employed before imprisonment and 8 were unemployed. Those who were employed before imprisonment had worked as:

- Insurance broker
- SAPS-VIP protection service
- Administration clerk
- Supervisor (bond registration: bank)
- Confectioner
- Social worker

LENGTH OF SENTENCE

The length of sentence for inmates who did not participate in programmes ranged from 1 to 18 years. Length of sentence was categorized as follows:

Length of Sentence	Frequency	Percentage
1-2	3	21,4
3-4	3	21,4
5-6	5	35,7
7-8	0	0,0
9-10	2	14,3
11- and more	1	7,1
Total	14	99,9

Table 18: Length of sentence breakdown of non- participants

Analysis (administrative items)

Among the types of offences that were committed by non-participants, robbery was rated the highest with 28,6%. The following factors were associated with robbery:

- Unemployment
- Poverty
- Homelessness due to financial constraints, unstable family backgrounds including divorce, etc.
- Low level of education leading to unemployment

Rehabilitation programmes were to be designed in such a manner that there would more counselling, motivation and encouragement so that all prisoners would participate. The study also revealed that there was 21,4% of non-participants who had committed murder, 14,3% fraud, 14,3% theft, 7,1% assault, 7,1% car hijacking and 7,1% possession of firearm (Table 17).

The study also indicated that 35,7% of the non-participants were sentenced from 5 - 6 years, 21,4% to 3 - 4 years and 21,4% to 1 - 2 years imprisonment (Table 18). There was 14,3% of the non-participants who had 9 - 10 years imprisonment and 7,1% who were imprisoned 11 years and more. These statistics suggest that there was remarkable non-participation among inmates that had longer sentences, i.e. more than 5 years imprisonment.

3.4.3 Institutional items

All respondents indicated that every prisoner is allowed to participate in the rehabilitation programmes. Among their reasons for not participating in programmes were the following:

- There was too much stress as a result of the length of sentence.
- The programmes are limited.

- Laziness was a factor.
- There was insufficient information about programmes (orientation).

Analysis (institutional items)

A number of inmates who did not participate in the programmes indicated that they had too much stress due to the length of sentences that they had. Because of this reason, stress management programmes needed more attention. Inmates also required more counselling and motivation on the part of programme facilitators so that more inmates could participate. During this research the inmates in the adult male prison (Medium B) indicated that technical subjects were no longer offered. There was no ostensible reason that was highlighted by inmates for the discontinuity of technical subjects. Some inmates indicated that attendance in the programmes was not compulsory. The research wanted to know about the future plans of non-participants when they are released. One respondent stated: “ I have no idea. I will see when I am out”.

Other future plans of non-participants are captured in the following:

“...being involved in community projects” “...unite with family” “...entrepreneur”
 “...change bad behaviour” “...find employment”.

3.5 Questionnaire to ex-prisoners

The above questionnaire was designed to include personal, administrative and institutional items. The researcher collected 8 questionnaires from the 10 questionnaires that had been prepared.

3.5.1 Personal item

AGE

An age range of 30 - 42 years existed among ex-prisoners who participated in this survey. Ages of ex-prisoners were categorized as follows:

Age	Frequency	Percentage
30-33	2	25,0
34-37	3	37,5
38-41	2	25,0
42 and above	1	12,5
Total	8	100

Table 19: Age breakdown of ex-prisoners

SEX

All ex-prisoners that were visited were males. This was because of the addresses that the researcher received from Community Corrections of the DCS.

RACE

All ex-prisoners that were visited were Blacks. This was because of the addresses that the researcher received from Community Corrections of the DCS.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Ex-prisoners were categorized as pre-Senior Certificate or post-Senior Certificate. Pre-Senior Certificates were those ex-prisoners with the level of education from Grade 1 to Grade 12. Post-Senior Certificate ex-prisoners were those with Senior Certificate plus diplomas or degrees.

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-Senior certificate	6	75,0
Post-Senior certificate	2	25,0
Total	8	100

Table 20: Level of education breakdown of ex-prisoners

Analysis (personal items)

Personal items in the above questionnaire included age, sex, race and level of education. The study suggested that there was 25,0% of ex-prisoners aged 30 - 33 years, 37,5% aged 34 - 37 years, 25,0% aged 38 - 41 years and 12,5% aged 42 years and above (Table 20). These statistics suggest that younger inmates are more likely to attend programmes than older ones. Ex-prisoners that were visited were only Blacks. This was also because of the addresses for ex-prisoners that were given to the researcher by officials from Community Corrections of the DCS. The study showed that there were 75,0% pre-Senior Certificates and 25,0% post-Senior Certificates of ex-prisoners who participated in the survey. Most of the pre-Senior Certificates had been released from prison before they could finish their Senior Certificate.

3.5.2 Administrative items

TYPE OF OFFENCE

Types of offences that were committed by ex-prisoners included murder, theft and robbery.

Type of Offence	Frequency	Percentage
Murder	5	62,5
Theft	1	12,5
Robbery	2	25,0
Total	8	100

Table 21: Type of offence breakdown of ex-prisoners

The ex-prisoners gave the following reasons for the crimes they committed:

- Self defence
- Revenge
- Alcohol abuse
- Financial constraints
- Peer pressure

Ex-prisoners who filled in questionnaires stated that they would not be involved in criminal activities in future. The reason for this included:

- They had learnt not to take law in their hands.
- They had learnt that if one does wrong things, one ends up in jail.
- They had learnt that alcohol abuse is not good.
- They had learnt that a criminal ends up losing all his or her belongings.

Analysis (administrative items)

The study showed that 62,5% of ex-prisoners had committed murder, 12,5% were imprisoned for the theft and 25,0% for robbery (Table 21). The study also suggests that ex-prisoners were less likely to engage in criminal activities as a result of attending rehabilitation programmes. Instead, those ex-prisoners that were not yet employed were looking for jobs or were helping their families at homes.

Ex-prisoners expressed that they could differentiate between good and bad habits and were not prepared to engage in criminal activities. Ex-prisoners also indicated that rehabilitation programmes were of benefit to them because they had learnt:

- not to take the law into their own hands;
- that if someone did something wrong, one ended up in jail;

- that alcohol abuse was a bad habit;
- that a criminal person ended up losing all his or her belongings.

3.5.3 Institutional items

Among other rehabilitation programmes in which the ex-prisoners participated, the following were highlighted:

- Bricklaying
- Welding
- Mainstream
- Bible Studies
- HIV/Aids

Some ex-prisoners did not mention courses that they attended because they had either forgotten the names of the programme or had only participated in a programme for a short time. Ex-prisoners stated that prison warders were not involved in the rehabilitation programmes. Prison warders only escorted prisoners from the cells to the rehabilitation centres and back. When describing the role of prison warders, two ex-prisoners said: “They take us to from sections to rehabilitation centres... They tell us what is wrong and what is right”

Analysis (institutional items)

Ex-prisoners indicated that they had acquired skills like welding and bricklaying as a result of attending the programmes. They had learnt about HIV/AIDS and had done Bible Studies and were therefore able to behave in a socially acceptable manner. Ex-prisoners indicated that rehabilitation programmes were of benefit to them because they were able to:

- love and be tolerant to others;
- be of help in the community;

- exhibit good behaviour;
- communicate with others and not to fight;
- respect others and their property;
- differentiate between good and bad habits, the latter of which could have them ending up their lives in jail.

These attributes indicated that rehabilitation programmes were of good use to the ex-prisoners and had contributed to a change in behaviour. As a result they were given parole and were only monitored at their homes by officials of Community Corrections from the DCS.

3.6 Questionnaire to family members

The above questionnaire consisted of personal items only. The questionnaire required the respondent's own assessment, point of view and subjective answers. The answers related specifically to the ex-prisoner with whom the family member lived. These helped the researcher to understand the impact of the rehabilitation programme in the life of each ex-prisoner. Family members included parents, brothers, sisters and wives, since the ex-prisoners that the researcher visited were males.

The researcher found that most ex-prisoners had been imprisoned for a period of 5 to 12 years. No ex-prisoner had a sentence below 5 years. All family members who participated in the survey highlighted that every ex-prisoner had good attitudes towards other members of family, friends and the larger community. The following was noted about the behaviour and personality of ex-prisoners:

- Their behaviour was good and they regularly attended church.
- They had respect for other people.
- They shared personal ideas with other people.
- They played good paternal roles in the family.
- Their personality was good.

One ex-prisoner was said to have started a drinking habit. Ex-prisoners who were not yet employed were reported to be very responsible at home and were taking good care of their families. Ex-prisoners either wanted to get good jobs or start their own businesses.

Analysis

The above questionnaire consisted of personal items only because the researcher wanted family members to express their personal views about the ex-prisoners with whom they lived. The researcher was aware of the fact that most responses could be biased, as questionnaires were directed to immediate family members of ex-prisoners. Ironically one ex-prisoner was reported to have started drinking alcohol. But summatively, family members indicated that ex-prisoners had changed their bad habit. Ex-prisoners were reported to be having good attitudes towards other members of family, friends and the larger community.

When asked about the change in behaviour of an ex-offender, his sister said:

“He is still the same, but have learnt many criminal activities in prison”.

The brother to an ex-offender said: “ I notice positive change in behaviour”.

A father to an ex-offender said: “ I notice regular church attendance”.

A wife to an ex-offender said: “My husband plays a fatherly role”.

3.7 Interview with prison warders

The role of prison warders in the rehabilitation of prisoners was not clearly defined. The researcher conducted face-to-face non-schedule unstructured interviews with 5 prison warders from the male juvenile prison and 5 prison warders from the female prison. The reason for conducting non-scheduled unstructured interviews was to get prison warders to express their views broadly on their role in the rehabilitation of prisoners. These would also enable prison warders to be free to expand on the topic, to focus on some of its aspects and to relate their own experiences (Bless, 1988).

Among other roles of prison warders was that of either upgrading or downgrading inmates. Upgrading and downgrading of inmates depended on their behaviour. On admission in prison, inmates normally are categorized as C Group. An inmate in C Group is entitled to 26 visits per year. Each visit lasts for 30 minutes. There are 2 adults allowed inside the prison to pay an inmate a visit. An inmate in C Group is not allowed to buy goods at the prison tuck shop. The role of prison warders is to constantly check whether an inmate behaves in an acceptable manner inside the prison. This includes following of instructions, relations with other inmates, relations with prison officials, relations with visitors and many other attributes.

Depending on good behaviour, inmates are upgraded to B Group after 6 months. An inmate in B Group is entitled to 36 visits per year. Each visits lasts for 45 minutes. There are 2 adults allowed per visit. An inmate in B Group can be downgraded when exhibiting bad behaviour such as fighting, stealing or not obeying orders from prison officials. A record of good or bad behaviour is kept in the individual prisoner's profile.

If an inmate in B Group continually behaves well, he or she is upgraded to the A Group. An inmate in the A Group enjoys 65 visits per year. Each visits is extended to 60 minutes. There are 2 adults allowed per visits. An inmate in A Group enjoys the privilege of buying from the prison tuck shop. Most inmates like to be in A Group so as to enjoy this privilege. Inmates are therefore encouraged to behave well in order to reach A Group thereby reinforcing rehabilitation.

Some prison warders also helped in organizing church services for inmates. Ministers of religion from the community are normally invited to preach the word of God. Other prison warder were said to lead church services on Sundays. Inmates get a chance of converting from their criminal practices through the word of God. Other religions like Islam are also provided for. Prison warders also assist inmates in Bible Studies.

Some prison warders played an active role in sports and recreation. Sporting codes that were highlighted by prison warders included soccer, netball, chess, table tennis and dancing. Inmates are also encouraged to participate in music.

Female inmates were encouraged to participate in the following activities:

- Patchwork
- Knitting
- Sewing
- Baking
- Music and dance
- Drama
- Computer studies

Female inmates attended to the laundry workshop for manual work. Another role of prison warders was that of monitoring prisoners during manual labour, at meals, escorting prisoners to cells and escorting prisoners to the hospital when sick.

Analysis

The role of prison warders in the rehabilitation of inmates was not clearly defined. The researcher regarded prison warders as people who should also play a significant role in the rehabilitation of prisoners since they spent a lot of their time with prisoners. Prison warders were only involved in the upgrading and downgrading of prisoners, organizing church services, organizing sports for inmates, monitoring inmates during manual labour, meals and escorting prisoners to the cells and to hospital. The majority of prison warders were considered capable of having significant input in the effective delivery and facilitation of rehabilitation programmes only if they were given suitable training.

CHAPTER 4

Conclusion

The rate of crime in South Africa and the number of people being imprisoned is very high. Some of the issues associated with the high crime rate and imprisonment include poverty, unemployment, under-education, dysfunctional family backgrounds, and so on. This study looks at the impact of rehabilitation programmes on prisoners with specific reference to the Westville Prison educational programmes.

This study investigates the impact of education programmes on the rehabilitation of prisoners. For the purpose of this study, rehabilitation of a prisoner is a stage reached when a person, after admission into prison, undergoes specifically planned programmes that will help him or her to fit well into society (social adjustment), be acceptable by family and community, and possibly does not re-enter prison after release.

This research suggested that rehabilitation programmes had a positive impact on the lives of prisoners. Family members of ex-prisoners who participated in the survey as well as ex-prisoners themselves confirmed this. However, the majority of ex-prisoners who were still unemployed during this study pointed out that employers did not have a positive attitude towards them as ex-convicts.

The first chapter provided an overview of the purpose of this study and a detailed description of the research methodology and research tools used during the investigation. The study was largely qualitative, using questionnaires and an interview schedule. The chapter also provided an introduction to rehabilitation. The researcher argues that the research findings are reliable, whilst at the same time pointing out some of the key difficulties, merits and demerits of the research. The second chapter provided a detailed discussion of the models, theories and key constructs related to rehabilitation and imprisonment. The literature review looked at the methods of rehabilitation in different countries and in South Africa. Theories concerning the causes and treatment of crime were discussed.

Imprisonment and education were discussed since this study considered education to be playing an active role in the rehabilitation of offenders.

The researcher also assumed that there was a distinct relationship between unemployment and imprisonment. A section in this chapter dealt with imprisonment and unemployment and discussed whether the chances of unskilled prisoners, who acquired skills in prison as part of the rehabilitation process, had a greater chance of finding employment or become employable. A growing body of literature suggests that employability could play a strong role in effective rehabilitation.

Theories concerning the causes of crime were also discussed so that programme facilitators could determine the causes of committing crime and thereby finding appropriate treatment (rehabilitation) strategies. Much of the literature suggests that different rehabilitation programmes are required to respond to different causes of crime. It therefore makes sense that correctional services should provide and deliver a variety of possible programmes to prisoners. Skills programmes seem to become more important in the current economic context.

Imprisonment and education were also discussed in order to determine whether education could be an effective tool of lowering the rate of recidivism. Some ways of rehabilitation of offenders were discussed so that the most appropriate strategies could be employed to specific categories of offenders.

This chapter also looks in detail at the kinds of programmes that are currently being provided to prisoners. The programmes described indicate that the DCS is providing a variety of educational programmes that encourage rehabilitation and skills development. It is the effectiveness of these programmes that inspired the researcher to investigate the impact of the programmes as facilitators of rehabilitation. Some attention is also given to youth offenders and the development of programmes that are responsive to their needs. A focus on this sector of the population is particularly significant because of rising unemployment amongst youth and the fact that the youth forms a significant proportion of the South African population.

Curriculum theory and adult learning was also explored in order to broaden the spectrum of designing rehabilitation programme curriculum for prisoners. One theory that is particularly promising is transformative learning developed by Mezirow. Transformative learning suggests that rehabilitation programmes could be effective if they support the learner to develop a critical meaning perspective. The final section discusses the treatment of females in prisons since they are also part of the prison population. Female prisoners are becoming a great concern because of the increase in the number of female prisoners. Much of the literature also suggest that educational programmes do not address the needs of females adequately and are often sex bias.

The third chapter presented the data and a detailed analysis of the data. Data obtained from questionnaires was either discussed or presented in a tabular form. Analyses of data were also presented in this chapter. The key finding was that the participants in programmes had a better chance of rehabilitation than those who did not participate. Although not all ex-prisoners acquired employment, the majority recognizes employment as a key factor in the rehabilitation process. Even those who remained unemployed were more productive at home which suggests that *rehabilitation programmes contributed to their self-esteem and personal images*. One of the shortcomings of this research was the lack of information gathered from female ex-prisoners. No data about female ex-prisoners were captured. The key finding of this study shows that rehabilitation programmes that were offered at Westville Prison had a positive impact on the lives of those who participated in rehabilitation programmes. Participants, ex-prisoners and family members confirmed this. Facilitators also highlighted that there was very low or no recidivism among the majority of prisoners who participated in the programmes.

A positive impact of rehabilitation programmes was confirmed by social workers when they argued that inmates who participated in the programmes had gained insight about crime, gained insight about life in general, had shown acceptance of their wrong behaviour and a willingness to change. Educators who participated in this study argued that participants in programmes showed willingness to face the outside world with the skills that they have acquired. Educators also highlighted that participants in programmes were able to read, write, communicate effectively,

and improve self-confidence, self-motivation and self-discipline. The above attributes suggest that rehabilitation programmes had a positive impact on prisoners.

The researcher considered programmes offered at Westville prison relevant to rehabilitation. When looking at the types of offence committed by prisoners (Table 11 in Chapter 3), one concludes that the types of courses that participants study, as in paragraph 3.3.3, contribute to rehabilitation.

The majority of inmates in this study who participated in the programmes indicated a willingness to further their studies in tertiary institutions and to find employment. This finding suggests the necessity of education in bringing about change in the lives and behaviour of inmates.

Some of the non-participants stated that they had insufficient information about the programmes. There is a need for proper orientation so that all inmates could access programmes.

This study also suggests that the majority of ex-prisoners who participated in rehabilitation programmes had changed their behaviour. This is evident when ex-prisoners stated that they had learnt not to take the law into their own hands. Ex-prisoners also indicated that, among other things, they were able to love and be tolerant of others, be of help in the community, exhibit good behaviour, communicate with others and not to fight, respect others and their property, and to differentiate between good and bad habits.

The majority of family members of ex-prisoners stated that there was a positive change in the behaviour of ex-prisoners. Positive behaviour meant that ex-prisoners were looking for employment or were employed.

The data and analysis suggest that rehabilitation programmes had a positive impact on prisoners who participate in the variety of programmes offered at Westville prison.

4.1 Some suggestions

Following this study, the researcher proposes the following suggestions:

4.1.1 Workshops on re-integration of ex-prisoners

It is suggested that extensive workshops be conducted to address positive re-integration of ex-prisoners into society. These workshops should involve the various stakeholders including the DCS, Department of Labour, the Business sector and civil society organizations. A key area of discussion should be employment opportunities for ex-convicts including females ex-convicts.

4.1.2 Removal of discriminatory request on form Z83

The researcher also considered that an application form for employment of public employees (Z83) was inappropriate for job seekers who were once imprisoned, as it required such information. Under personal information of the above application form there is a question which reads: "Have you been convicted of a criminal offence or been dismissed from employment?" The researcher regarded the above question as discriminatory since a person who was once convicted of a criminal offence would be unlikely to secure a job when contending with someone who had not been convicted.

4.1.3 Improve the quality and quantity of programmes

Rehabilitation programmes offered to both male and female inmates should be reviewed. The above refers to both the quality and the quantity of the programmes. The majority of inmates did not participate in programmes simply because the programmes were unavailable. Mainstream subjects did not cater for science and commercial subjects. The DCS should build well-equipped science laboratories where subjects like physical science and biology will be facilitated.

4.1.4 Affirmative action required to address needs of females

Courses offered to female inmates should equip them with skills that will enable them to face the outside world with confidence. Courses that depict domestication should be offered at a lower scale.

4.1.5 Stakeholder participation in policy decision-making

Rehabilitation programmes should be designed so that the majority of stakeholders are involved. Stakeholders need to be involved when designing policies regarding the delivery of programmes. Among other stakeholders the following should be consulted:

- *Political leaders who will assist inmates on matters involving human rights. This may include the right to own something, as the majority of inmates deprived other citizens the ownership of their belongings. Other human rights are listed in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, for example the right to basic and further education.*
- *People from the business sector should be involved so that they may empower inmates with entrepreneurial skills. Such skills may be utilized by inmates upon release, for instance when inmates start their own businesses. The above may help to reduce recidivism.*
- *Community leaders such as councillors, mayors, chiefs, etc. should be involved when designing policy for rehabilitation programmes delivery. Community leaders may empower inmates about matters regarding community development programmes, community policing forums, matters regarding district councils, and many other related matters. During such sessions inmates may also be given a chance to give their input about matters regarding community development.*

- Education officials such as superintendents of education management (SEMs), subject advisors, examiners, etc. should also be involved so that they give advice on the delivery of programmes. They could also give advice and input in bringing programmes to be in line with the National Qualifications Framework¹ (NQF).
- Educators, Social Workers, Psychologists, Ministers of Religion, Community, inmates, and all other interested parties should be involved when designing rehabilitation programmes. This is because of the fact that inmates affect the community who are taxpayers. Rehabilitation programmes should be designed in such a way that they address the needs and expectations of both the community and inmates.

4.1.6 Increase professional capacity in prisons

The study revealed that the majority of inmates did not participate in the programmes because they were overstressed as a result of the sentences imposed by the court of law. The research therefore recommends that there should be enough social workers and psychologists employed in the DCS (Westville Prison) so that they may help in addressing this problem.

4.1.7 Involve and increase prison warders' participation in the rehabilitation process

Prison warders spend a lot of their time with inmates. It is for this reason that prison warders should be trained and be involved in the facilitation of the rehabilitation of prisoners. This will also encourage prisoners to practice what they had acquired during learning, when they are out of the learning situation.

¹ According to Cass et al. (1998) NQF is a new approach to education and training that provides opportunities to learn, regardless of age, circumstances and level of education that one had acquired. People are allowed to learn on an ongoing basis (lifelong learning) and get access to nationally accepted qualifications. NQF close the gap between education and training since education has been seen as where one gains knowledge, while training is seen as acquiring skills.

Bibliography

Agras, S.W. 1972. *Behaviour Modification: Principles and Clinical Applications*. Boston: Little.

Alper, B.S. 1974. *Prisons Inside-out; Alternatives in Correctional Reform*. Cambridge: Ballinger Publishing Company.

Arditi, R., Giddberg, F., Hartle, M., Phelps, J. 1973. "The Sexual Segregation of America Prisons" *Yale Law Journal* Vol 82: p1229-1273

Barker, F. 1995. *The South African Labour Market*. Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik Publishers.

Bless, C. & Achola, P. 1988. *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods*. Lusaka

Brown, R.I. 1986. *Management and Administration of Rehabilitation Programmes*. Croom Helm: London

Bureau of Justice Statistics 1994. *Woman in prison Washington DC*. US government printing office.

Chambers's Encyclopaedia 1970. volume XI, London: International learning systems corporation Limited.

Clarke, R.V.G. & Cornish, D.B. 1978. *The Effectiveness of Residential Treatments for Delinquents*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Clement, C.B. 1986. *Offender needs assessment, Maryland*. American Correctional Association.

Coetzee, W., Kruger, W. & Loubser, J.C. 1995. *Correctional Service in focus*. South Africa: Hodder and Stoughton

- Collins, M. 1991. *Adult Education as Vocation. A Critical Role for the Adult Educator*. Routledge: London
- Cosman, J.W. 1980. *Penitentiary Education in Canada*. 20 Education Canada.
- Courtney, S. 1992. *Why Adults Learn. Towards a Theory of Participation in Adult Education*. Routledge: London
- Crawford, J. 1988. *Tabulation of a national wide Survey of state Correctional facilities for Adult and Juvenile female offenders*. College Park, M..D. American Correctional Association.
- Crow, I. 2001. *The treatment and Rehabilitation of offenders*. London: Sage Publications.
- Davies, M. 1974. *Prisoners of Society: Attitudes and after-care*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Department of Correctional Services. n.d. *Education and Training*. Pretoria: Department of Correctional Services.
- Department of Correctional Services. n.d. *Young Offenders*. Pretoria: Department of Correctional Services.
- Dobash, R.P., Dobash, R.E. & Gutteridge, S. 1986. *The Imprisonment of Women*. New York: Basil Blackwell LTD.
- Doctor, R.M. & Polakov, R.L. 1973. *A behaviour Modification Program for Adult Probationers*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association.
- Duguid, S. 1979. " *History and Moral Education in Correctional Education*". 4 Canadian Journal of Education. p81-92.

- Dunlop, A.B. 1974. *The Approved school Experience*. Home Office Research Study no.25. London HMSO.
- Ekstedt, J.W. & Griffiths, C.T. 1988. *Corrections in Canada. Policy and Practice*. Canada. Butterworths Canada LTD.
- Eysenck, H.J. and Gudjonsson, G.H. 1989. *The Causes and Cures of Criminality*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Frolander-Ulf, M. & Yates, M. 2001. *Teaching in Prison*. An Independent Socialist Magazine Vol.53
- Garrett, C.J. 1985. *Effects of Residential Treatment on Adjudicated Delinquents: A Meta-Analysis*, Journal of Research in crime and Delinquency 22.4 p287-308.
- Galster, G.C. & Scaturro, L.A. 1985. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol22 no.2 Sage publications Inc. p163-189.
- Gendreau, P. & Ross, R.R. 1979. *Effective Correctional Treatment: Bibliotherapy for Cynics*, *Crime and Delinquency*. 25,p463-489
- Giallombardo, R. 1966. *Society of Women: A Study of a Women's Prison*. New York: John Wiley.
- Gibbs, J.P. 1975. *Crime, Punishment and Deterrence*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Glaser, D. 1964. *The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Glaser, D. 1972. *Adult Crime and Social Policy*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Glickman, M.J.A. 1983. *From Crime to Rehabilitation*. England: Gower Publishing Company Limited.

Griffin, C. 1973. *Recurrent and Continuing Education - A Curriculum Model Approach*, Association of Recurrent Education. School of Education: University of Nottingham.

Griffin, D.K. 1978. *Ontaria Institution for Studies in Education: Review of Penitentiary Education and Training, 1978-1979. Phase 1: Report to Reviewers* Ottawa: Education and Training Division, Canadian Penitentiary Service.

Gosselin, L. 1982. *Prison in Canada*. Montreal: Black Rose Books.

Hagan, J. 1985. *Modern Criminology: Crime, Criminal Behaviour and its Control*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Hardy, R.E. & Cull, J.G. 1972. *Psychological and Vocation Rehabilitation of the Youthful Delinquents*. USA: Charles Thomas Publisher

Harris, B. 1988. *The Rehabilitation of Offenders*. London: Format Publisher.

Hefferman, E. 1972. *Making it in Prison: The Square, The Cool, and the Life*. London: Wiley Interscience.

Hirshchberg, G.G., Lewis, L. & Vaughan, P. (1976). *Rehabilitation*. J.B. Lippincott Company: Philadelphia

Howard, D.L. 1960. *The English Prisons*.

Jarvis, D.C. 1978. *Institution Treatment of the Offender*. New York: M.C Graw-Hill Ryerson Ltd.

Johnstone, G. 1996. *Medical Concepts and Penal Policy*. London: Cavendish Publishing.

Jones, H. 1965. *Crime and Penal System*. London: Penguin Books.

- Kazdin, A.E. 1987. *Treatment of Antisocial Behaviour in Children: Current Status and Future Directions*.
- Kelly, A.V. 1977. *The Curriculum: Theory and Practice*. London: Harper and Row.
- Khanna, J.L. 1975. *New Treatment Approaches to Juvenile Delinquents*. Springfield: Charles (Thomas Publishers).
- Lahm, K.F. 2000. *Equal or Equitable: An Exploration of Educational and Vocational Program Availability for Male Federal Probation* vol.64
- Lightman, E.S. 1982. *The Private Employed and the Prison Industry* no.22 British Journal of Criminology. p36-48
- Macfarlane, T. 1978. *Curriculum Innovation in Adult Literacy: The Cost of Assularity Studies in Adult Education*.
- Marquand, D. 1974. *Crime: Courses and Treatment*. London: Shed and Ward.
- Mays, J.B. 1978. *Crime and its treatment*. London: Longman
- Mezirow, J. 1991. *Transformative Dimension of Adult Learning*. San Francisco : Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Morash, M., Hoarr, R. & Rucker, L. 1994. *A Comparison for Women and Men in U.S. Prisons in the 1980s*. Crime and Delinquency 2” p197-221
- Morris, N. 1974. *The Future of Imprisonment*. The University of Chicago Press: Chicago
- Muntingh, L.M. & Shapiro, R. Eds.1993. *Diversions*. Cape Town: Nicro.
- Neser, J.J. 1989. *Penitentiary Penology*. Johannesburg: Lexicon Publishers.

- Penny, T.J. 2000. *Educating Prisoners* Vital Speeches of the Bay. Vol.67
- Rafter, N. 1995. *Partial Justice: Women, Prison and Social Control* 2nd ed. Boston: North Eastern University Press.
- Ramsbotham, D. 2002. *Educated Prisoners Less Likely to Re-offend*. Education (UK)
- Reasons, C.E. & Kaplan, R.L. 1975. *Crime and Delinquency*. Canada.
- Russel, B. 1925. *Moral Rules, In What I believe*. London: Kegan Paul, Trubner and Co p60-62.
- Ryan, T. 1984. *Adult Female Offenders and Institutional Programs: A State of the Art Analysis*. Washington DC: National Institute of Corrections.
- Scull, A. 1983. *Decarceration*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Silberman, C.E. 1978. *Criminal Violence, Criminal justice*. New York: Random House
- Silberman, C.E.1973. *Crisis in the Classroom*. Wildwood House: London
- Sinclair, I.A.C. 1971. *Hostels for Probationers*. Home Office Research Study no. 6 London: HMSO
- Smart, C. 1979. *The New Female Criminal: Reality or Myth*, British Journal of Criminology. p50-59.
- Stuart, R.B. 1970. *Behavioural Contracting within the Families of Delinquents*. Paper presented at American Psychological Association.
- Studt, E., Missinger, S.L. & Wilson, T.P. 1968. *C-Unit, Search for community in prison*. New York: Russel Sage Foundation.

- Stumphanser, J.S. 1973. *Behavior Therapy with Delinquents*. Springfield: Thomas.
- Ten, C.L. 1987. *Crime, Guilt and Punishment*. United States: Oxford University Press.
- Tracy, A. 1998. *Standing up for Education*. Corrections Today vol.60.
- Tshiwula, L. 1998. *Crime and Delinquency*. Pretoria: Kagiso Publishers.
- Van den Haag, E. 1975. *Punishing Criminals*. Basic Book, Inc., Publishers: New York.
- Van der Westhuizen, J. 1982. *Crime of Violence in South Africa*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Von Hirsch, A. 1976. *Doing Justice: The Choice of Punishments*. Canada: McGraw Hill Ryerson Ltd.
- Walker, N. 1980. *Punishment, Danger and Stigma*. England: Basil Blackwell Publisher.
- Watterson, K. 1996. *Woman in Prison: Inside the Concrete Womb*. Rev. Ed. Boston: Northeastern University Press.
- Weir, J.D. 1973. " *History of Education in Canadian Federal Corrections*" In Roberts, AR (Ed). *Readings in Prison Education*. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas p39-47.
- Weishet, R. 1985. " *Trends in Programs for Female Offenders. The Use of Private Agencies as Service Providers*. International Journal of Offender therapy and Comparative Criminology: p35-42.
- Western, B. & Beckett, K. 1999. *Labour market*. American Journal of Sociology. University of Chicago.

Whiteley, S. & Turner, M. 1972. *Dealing with Deviants*. London: The Hogarth Press Ltd.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE TO PROGRAMME FACILITATORS

SECTION A

1. Age:
2. Sex:
3. Race:
4. Qualification:
5. Employment status:
6. Length of Service:
7. Name of course taught:
8. Duration of course:
9. Number of participants in your course:
10. Number of possible participants in your course:
11. Write all rehabilitation course that you have attended:
12. Write all rehabilitation courses that you feel should be included in this centre:

SECTION B

1. Numbers of learners who successfully completed your course last year and released:
2. Numbers of drop-outs in your course:
3. What do you think is the reason of dropouts in your course?
4. Number of learners employed after attending your course and released last year:
5. Number of learners employed full-time:
6. Number of learners employed part-time:
7. Number of learners unemployed:
8. What do you think is the reason for the unemployment of your learners:
9. Number of learners that have re-entered prison after attending your course last year:

10. What do you think is the reason for learners to re-enter prison after attending course?
11. How do you think the course that you teach can help to rehabilitate learners?
12. What changes have occurred in the lives of learners that have attended this programme?
13. What do you think can be done to improve this program?
14. Is the rehabilitation program offered to male the same as that of female offenders?
15. What do you think is the reason for the answer you gave above?
16. Briefly write follow-up programs available for learners that have been released if any:

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE TO PARTICIPANTS

1. Age:
2. Sex:
3. Race:
4. Highest level education:
5. Name courses that you study presently:
6. What other courses would you like to be studying except the ones stated above?
7. What are you now able to do that you could not before attending this program?
8. What offence did you commit?
9. What do you think made you to commit the above offence?
10. Is this the first time you have been imprisoned? Yes/ No
11. Do you live in an urban or rural area?
12. Were you employed before being imprisoned? Yes/No
13. If yes, what work did you do?
14. What work do you want after completing this program?
15. What do you think can help to prevent you from being imprisoned again?
16. What do you think should be done to improve this program so that you do not get imprisoned again?
17. What other information do you feel is important about the provision of this program?

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE TO NON-PARTICIPANTS

1. Age:
2. Sex:
3. Race:
4. Highest level of education:
5. What offence did you commit?
6. What do you think made you to commit the above offence?
7. Is this the first time you have been imprisoned Yes/No
8. If no, what other type(s) of offences have you committed?
9. Do you live in an urban or rural area?
10. Were you employed before imprisonment? Yes/No
11. If yes, what work did you do?
12. If no, what kept you occupied?
13. Is everyone allowed to participate in rehabilitation programs in this prison?
Yes/No.
14. If yes, what has prevented you from participating?
15. If no, what do you think is the reason?
16. What is the length of sentence?
17. Do you have people depending on you at home? Yes/No
18. If yes, how many dependants do you have?
19. What do you plan to do when you leave prison?

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE TO FAMILY MEMBER

1. How are you related to the former prisoner?
2. For how long has the prisoner been away from home?
3. What is his/her attitude towards other members of the family?
4. What is his/her attitude towards his/her old friends?
5. What is his/her attitude towards the community?
6. What change in behaviour or personality do you notice?
7. Was he/she employed before imprisonment? Yes/No.
8. If yes, what work did he/she do?
9. If no, how did he/she occupy him/herself?
10. Is he/she currently employed? Yes/No
11. If yes, what work does he/she do?
12. If no, how is he/she occupied?
13. What do you think are his/her future plans?

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE TO EX-PRISONERS

1. Age:
2. Sex:
3. Race:
4. Highest level of education:
5. What level of education did you have when you were imprisoned?
6. What level(s) of education did you acquire while in prison?
7. Name the subjects or courses that you studied while in prison:
8. Name the rehabilitation programmes that you participated in while in prison.
Name all other rehabilitation programmes that were offered in prison.
9. What offence did you commit?
10. What do you think made you to commit the above offence?
11. Do you think you will ever be involved in criminal activities?
12. What do you think is the reason for the answer you gave above?
13. Were prison warders involved in the rehabilitation of prison?
14. What do you think was the role of prison warders in the rehabilitation of prisoners?
15. Who used to teach rehabilitation programmes in prison?
16. What impact did rehabilitation programmes have in you?
17. What other rehabilitation programmes do you think should be introduced in prisons?