



**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON THE REHABILITATION OF
FEMALE OFFENDERS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

By

KRINESHA GEORGE

213506627

Submitted per the requirements

For the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In the subject

CRIMINOLOGY AND FORENSIC STUDIES

At the

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SUPERVISOR: PROF. SHANTA BALGOBIND SINGH

2022

**DISCIPLINE OF CRIMINOLOGY AND FORENSIC STUDIES, COLLEGE OF
HUMANITIES DECLARATION**

I, Ms Krinesha George, declare that:

(i) The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated or acknowledged, is my original work.

(ii) This dissertation has not been submitted in whole or in part for any degree or examination to any other university.

(iii) This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or additional information unless explicitly acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

(iv) This dissertation does not include other persons' writing unless recognized expressly as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have quoted, then:

a) Their words have been re-written, but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.

b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.

(v) where I have used material for which publications followed, I have indicated in detail my role in the work.

(vi) This dissertation is primarily a collection of content, prepared by me, published as journal articles, or presented as a poster and oral presentations at conferences. In some cases, additional material included.

(vii) This dissertation does not contain text, graphics, or tables copied and pasted from the Internet unless expressly acknowledged and the source detailed in the thesis and the References sections.



Signed: Krinesha George

Date: 4th July 2022

Acknowledgements

I want to take this opportunity to thank **God** for his guidance and blessings throughout my life. My parents, **Mr and Mrs Gopichand George**, brothers **Krinesh, Shailen** and sister **Miresha** for their continuous love and support during my studies. **Prof. Shanta Balgobind Singh** (Supervisor: Criminology and Forensic Studies Discipline, University of KwaZulu- Natal) and my language editor, **Kemist Shumba (PhD)** for his scrupulous work. Most importantly, I would like to thank the **participants of the study** for being so responsive. Lastly, I would like to thank anyone who takes interest and the initiative to read my dissertation.

*This dissertation is a tribute to the late Mr Jewoon
George and Mr Roy Mohanlal.*

Lost but never forgotten

ABSTRACT

No two female offenders are the same. No two crimes are the same. Therefore, rehabilitation programmes need to be tailor-made to match the offender and the offender's crime. The purpose of offender rehabilitation stems from more than just discipline, and it is an opportunity for an offender to better herself. Owing to the low rate of female offending compared to male offending, previous studies focus mostly on male rehabilitation and experiences using a blanket approach to address female offender rehabilitation. This study was theorised to explore current rehabilitation programmes explicitly offered to female offenders and further exposes the lack of effective rehabilitative programmes available for female offenders. Female offenders are the key informants of this study, as they are one of the end-users of the rehabilitation programmes which the Department of Correctional Services¹ offers. The marginalisation theory by Meda-Chesney Lind played a vital role in explaining the motive of crime for some female offenders (Mohammed, Banarjee and Khatun, 2014). According to Statistics South Africa (2020), females experience higher poverty levels within South Africa than their male counterparts. The researcher used a qualitative methodology to explore the experiences of female offenders who have been enrolled in rehabilitative programmes. This study concluded that rehabilitative programmes that are currently available are offered to assist female offenders with social challenges like poverty and unemployment. However, the lack of offence-specific programmes results in recidivism and offenders re-entering the correctional system to repeat the same programmes to meet their parole requirements. The risk factors of female offending identified within the study include poverty, anger, and drug use. Although the Department of Correctional Services has firm policy documents in place, poor implementation of these policies has failed the offenders and resulted in increased rates of recidivism. This study has

¹ The Prisons Service in South Africa was separated from the Department of Justice and renamed the Department of Correctional Services; the Prisons Act was renamed the Correctional Services Act in 1991. The 2005 White Paper on Corrections in South Africa ushered in a start where prisons become Correctional Centres of rehabilitation. Prisons became known as Correctional Centres. For the purposes of this thesis the words Prisons and Correctional Services/ Centres will be used interchangeably.

successfully achieved its objectives by exploring current rehabilitation programmes, identifying the limitations of these rehabilitation programmes, and developing offence specific programmes such as career guidance for female offenders.

Keywords: Female, offender, rehabilitation, correctional services, programmes

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CSC:	Correctional Service of Canada
DCS:	Department of Correctional Services
GLM:	Good Lives Model
NCS:	Norwegian Correctional Services
NICRO:	National Institution of Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders
NGOs:	Non-Government Organisations
NMR:	Nelson Mandela Rules
NPOs:	Non-Profit Organisations
ORP:	Offender Rehabilitation Path
POPCRU:	Prison Officers Civil Rights Union
POs:	Probation Officers
PR:	Prison Regulation
RNR:	Risk-Need-Responsivity
SETA:	Sector Education and Training Authority
USA:	United States of America
VPOs:	Volunteer Probation Officers
WCC:	Westville Correctional Centre

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.....	1
1.1 Introduction of the study.....	1
1.2 Background of the study.....	2
1.3 Problem statement.....	8
1.4 Study aim and objectives.....	9
1.5 Research objectives.....	10
1.6 Research questions.....	11
1.7 Assumptions of the study.....	11
1.8 Conceptualization of key terms.....	11
1.9 Rationale of the study	13
1.10 Significance of the study.....	16
1.11 Limitations of the study.....	16
1.12 Research design and methodology of the study	17
1.12.1 Research approach of the study.....	17
1.12.2 Research design.....	18
1.12.3 Demarcation of the study.....	19
1.12.4 Sample size of the study	19
1.12.5 Sampling technique	20
1.12.6 Data collection.....	20
1.13 Ethical considerations.....	21
1.14 Structure of the thesis	22
1.15 Conclusion	23
CHAPTER TWO	24
LITERATURE REVIEW	24
2.1 Introduction to the study	24
2.2 Rehabilitation	24
2.3 The transition from punishment to rehabilitation	25
2.3.1 Justice during the period of ancient cultures	26
2.3.2 Punishment of offenders during medieval times	26
2.3.3 Confinement of offenders during the assize of Clarendon	26
2.3.4 The environment of prisons in medieval Europe	27
2.3.5 Rise of the nations: Offenders used for cheap labour.....	27

2.3.6 Colonial and early revolutionary periods: Punishment of offenders	27
2.3.7 The age of enlightenment: The abolishment of offenders tortured	28
2.3.8 The state of prisons in England and Wales in the 1770s	28
2.3.9 The reform movement: The change in the correctional system	29
2.3.10 Pennsylvania system of offender rehabilitation.....	29
2.3.11 Auburn system of rehabilitation (1819 New York).....	30
2.3.12 The Cincinnati declaration for offender human rights	30
2.3.13 The declaration of principles	31
2.3.14 ELMIRA reformation of offenders	31
2.3.15 Prison reform in the twentieth century	31
2.3.16 Labour of offenders in prison	32
2.3.17 The rehabilitation model during the 1930s–1950s	32
2.3.18 Community corrections during the 1960s.....	32
2.3.19 Justice model during the 1980s.....	33
2.3.20 The goal of the public and its impact on recidivism	33
2.3.21 The separation of adult and child offenders in the United States	34
2.3.22 The transition from prisons to rehabilitative centres in South Africa	34
2.4 The criminological subject rehabilitation	35
2.4.1 Rehabilitation and diversion of offenders to community corrections	37
2.4.2 Rehabilitative punishment	37
2.4.3 Rehabilitative approaches	38
2.4.3.1 Rehabilitative approaches: United States of America, United Kingdom and the Netherlands	39
2.4.4 The desistance approach to offender rehabilitation.....	40
2.4.5 Social learning approach to offender rehabilitation	41
2.4.6 The cognitive model of offender rehabilitation	42
2.4.7 Social labelling theory of offender rehabilitation.....	42
2.4.8 Restorative justice approach to offender rehabilitation	42
2.4.9 The risk needs responsivity model and the good life model of offender rehabilitation.....	43
2.4.9.1 The risk needs responsivity model of offender rehabilitation	43
2.4.9.1.1 Risk assessments of the offender within the risk need responsivity model	44
2.4.9.1.2 Needs assessments of the offender within the risk need responsivity model	45
2.4.9.1.3 Assessing the responsivity of the offender	45
2.4.9.1.4 Limitations of the risk need responsivity model	46
2.4.9.2 The good lives model of offender rehabilitation.....	46
2.4.9.2.1 Primary human goods to reach the good lives model.....	47

2.4.9.2.2 Values and practical identities of offenders.....	48
2.4.9.2.3 Goods versus risks of offender re-integration.....	48
2.4.9.2.4 Ecological stance of the offender	48
2.4.9.2.5 The nature of risk within offenders	49
2.4.9.2.6 The nature of intervention required for offenders	49
2.4.9.2.7 Aetiological assumptions of the good lives model	49
2.4.9.2.8 The good lives model: Implications of practice.....	50
2.5 The Nelson Mandela rules for the treatment of offenders	51
2.6 The importance of policies within correctional services and rehabilitation of offenders	52
2.7 The state of correctional centres: A focus on Norway and Australia	54
2.7.1 The world’s best correctional centre: Norway	54
2.7.2 The state of imprisonment in Australia	55
2.7.2.1 The effective rehabilitation of offenders in Australia	55
2.8 Rehabilitation of offenders within the African Continent.....	57
2.9 Rehabilitation within the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa.....	58
2.10 Policy documents that govern correctional services in South Africa	61
2.10.1 The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa.....	61
2.10.2 The White Paper on Families in South Africa	61
2.10.3 The Bangkok Rules.....	62
2.11 National Institution of Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO).....	63
2.11.1 Social reintegration of female offenders.....	64
2.12 The history of female criminality.....	64
2.13 Background of the female offender	66
2.14 The female offender pathway to correctional centres	66
2.14.1 Types of crimes committed by female offenders.....	67
2.15 Interventions for the female offender	69
2.16 Conclusion	71
CHAPTER THREE	73
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	73
3.1 Introduction.....	73
3.2 Theoretical framework of female criminality.....	73
3.3 Feminism	75
3.4 Women’s feminist identity development.....	75
3.4.1 Passive acceptance	76
3.4.2 Revelation.....	76

3.4.3 Embeddedness-emanation.....	76
3.4.4 Synthesis.....	77
3.4.5 Active commitment.....	77
3.5 Feminist theories of crime and deviance.....	77
3.5.1 Liberation thesis of female criminality.....	77
3.5.2 Control theory.....	79
3.5.3 The class deal versus the gender deal: Pat Carlen.....	80
3.5.3.1 The class deal.....	81
3.5.3.2 The gender deal.....	81
3.5.3.3 Rejecting the deals.....	81
3.6 The feminist pathways perspective.....	83
3.6.1 Victimization and criminality of the female offender in South Africa.....	84
3.6.1.1 Demographics of a victim.....	84
3.6.1.2 Age of victims.....	84
3.6.1.3 Gender of victims.....	85
3.6.1.4 Poly victimisation of victims.....	85
3.6.1.5 Victimization leads to crime.....	86
3.6.1.5.1 Child abuse.....	86
3.6.1.5.2 Partner abuse.....	87
3.7 The general strain theory: Female criminality.....	87
3.8 Total institutions.....	90
3.8.1 The correctional centre eco-system.....	92
3.8.1.1 Batch living.....	92
3.8.1.2 Binary management.....	93
3.8.1.3 The role of the offender.....	93
3.8.1.4 The institutional perspective.....	95
3.9 Conclusion.....	95
CHAPTER FOUR.....	97
METHODOLOGY.....	97
4.1 Introduction.....	97
4.2 The research site.....	97
4.2.1 Entry into the research site.....	99
4.3 Research paradigm.....	100
4.4 Research design.....	100
4.5 Research approach.....	101

4.6 Selection of participants	101
4.6.1 Purposive sampling.....	101
4.6.1.1 Inclusion criteria	102
4.6.1.2 Exclusion criteria.....	103
4.6.2 Snowball sampling.....	103
4.7 Data collection method	103
4.8 Data collection instruments	104
4.8.1 Researcher as the key instrument.....	104
4.8.2 Interview schedule	105
4.9 Pilot study.....	105
4.10 Data collection process for the pilot study.....	106
4.10.1 Interviews	106
4.10.2 Interviews for the main study	107
4.11 Data analysis.....	107
4.12 Trustworthiness.....	108
4.12.1 Credibility.....	109
4.12.2 Transferability.....	109
4.12.3 Confirmability	109
4.12.4 Dependability.....	110
4.13 Reflexivity	110
4.14 Ethical considerations.....	111
4.14.1 Autonomy	111
4.14.2 Informed consent	112
4.14.3 Privacy.....	112
4.14.4 Confidentiality	112
4.14.5 Non-maleficence.....	112
4.14.6 Beneficence	112
4.15 Conclusion	113
CHAPTER FIVE	114
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.....	114
5.1 Introduction.....	114
5.2 Theme one: The crime and its impact	117
5.2.1 Sub-theme one: The cause of the crime.....	118
5.2.2 Sub-theme two: The impact of criminality on the family.....	119
5.2.3 Sub-theme three: The mind of the female offender	122

5.3 Theme two: The experience of rehabilitation at the Department of Correctional Services....	123
5.3.1 Sub-theme four: Training of Department of Correctional Services officials	123
5.3.2 Sub-theme five: Rehabilitative programmes.....	124
5.3.3 Sub-theme six: Risk factors.....	129
5.3.4 Sub-theme seven: Offender interactions	131
5.4 Theme three: The outcome of rehabilitative programmes.....	133
5.4.1 Sub-theme eight: Improvement of the Department of Correctional Services.....	133
5.4.2 Sub-theme nine: Shortcomings of current rehabilitative programme.....	135
5.4.3 Sub-theme ten: Proposed programmes	137
5.4.4 Sub-theme eleven: The effectiveness of a rehabilitative programme	139
5.5 Conclusion	141
CHAPTER SIX	144
DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS	144
6.1 Introduction	144
6.2 Participant demographics.....	147
6.3 Objective one: Exploring the current rehabilitation programmes for female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services.....	147
6.4 Objective two: Determining the limitations of rehabilitation programmes	156
6.5 Objective three: Developing "offence-specific rehabilitation programmes" for female offenders	158
6.5.1 Model one: Based on participant one	158
6.5.2 Model two: Based on participant three	162
6.5.3 Model three: Based on participant five.....	169
6.6 Conclusion	172
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	173
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	173
7.1 Introduction	173
7.2 The research process	175
7.3 Summary of findings.....	176
7.4 Conclusion	179
7.5 Study limitations.....	180
7.6 Recommendations.....	180
7.7 Suggestions for further studies	182
REFERENCES.....	183

APPENDIX ONE: INTERVIEW GUIDE.....	214
APPENDIX TWO: INFORMED CONSENT FORM	i
APPENDIX THREE: ETHICAL CLEARANCE.....	iii
APPENDIX FOUR: TURN IT IN ORIGINALITY REPORT	iv
APPENDIX FIVE: LETTER FROM EDITOR.....	x
Re: Editor’s Letter	x

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction of the study

A female offender is a mother, daughter, wife, and sister; she is a role model within society. The engagement of the justice system usually becomes a difficult phenomenon for her to adapt to (Nakato, 2017). The phrase female offender is complex to define. On the one hand, a female is defined as or denoting the sex that can bear offspring or produce eggs, distinguished biologically by the production of gametes (ova), which can be fertilised by male gametes (Oxford, 2022). The definition emphasises the essence of a female, the nurturer, and giver of life. On the other hand, offender can be defined as a person who commits an illegal act (Oxford, 2022). The societal expectation of a female over decades, has failed to expose the reality of female offending (Estrada and Nilsson, 2012). Hence, the limitation of literature, policy and rehabilitation programmes targeting the female offender.

The rehabilitation of offenders can be traced back to the 1930s. During this period, staff members of correctional services diagnosed the cause of offending, and provided a treatment, which was intended to change or positively improve the behaviour of the offender. They concluded the process of rehabilitation by determining if the offender was rehabilitated (Dominique, 2004). Methods of rehabilitation included group therapy, counselling and behaviour modification. The challenges experienced during the rehabilitation of offenders during this period are still evident in correctional services today (Carl and Lösel, 2021). These include inadequate techniques to rehabilitate violent offenders, insufficient funds to effectively conduct rehabilitation, and over population of correctional service facilities, which prevents effective rehabilitation methods (Murhula and Singh, 2019). Rehabilitation services are structures put in place by the government to provide an opportunity to offenders to realise their mistakes and right their wrongs. It is an important structure for offenders to receive redemption, with programmes implemented to serve as catalysts in helping offenders deal with previous crimes and find ways to move forward in a positive manner (Department of Correctional Services, 2022).

Females experience life, crime and correctional services differently. There is a need for female offenders to undergo rehabilitation differently when compared to their male counterparts

(Cúnico and Lermen, 2020). In the South African context, the rehabilitation of female offenders is guided by the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa. The purpose of the White Paper is to ensure that offenders are rehabilitated and reintegrated back into society. The aim is to ensure that societies are safer places with rehabilitated offenders (White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, 2005). Due to unemployment post-release and isolation from family members because of offender stigma, female offenders find it difficult to adjust to life after incarceration (Cobbina, 2009). There is a need to assist female offenders adjust to society post-release. There is a need to develop the skills of female offenders, to ensure that they can find employment or become self-employed. To prevent recidivism, these are the key challenges that need to be addressed. Female offenders experience emotional challenges, which can easily lead them back to correctional services, as these correctional services become their place of comfort over time, a place of acceptance (Samuels, 2010).

The rehabilitation of female offenders needs to be re-evaluated to mitigate recidivism. Rehabilitation programmes need to be focused on the needs of the female offender, rather than imposing programmes due to availability, cost factors and probation requirements. Female offenders require rehabilitation programmes which will address the emotional and psychological needs of the individual. Rehabilitation programmes should emphasise and correct the cause of the crime in order to be effective. For example, if poverty is the cause of the crime, we need to provide programme that ensure the female offender is not vulnerable to poverty again. Such programmes would include business skills, to assist the offender to develop an income and ensure a life free from poverty.

In this chapter, the researcher introduces the research topic and provides the background to the study. The reader is provided with the key definitions of the study, the problem statement, the aim and objectives of the study, the research questions, assumptions of the study, the rationale, and significance of the study. Further, the researcher reflects on the delimitations of the study, limitations of the study, research methodology, and ethical considerations. To conclude the chapter, the researcher presents an outline of the thesis.

1.2 Background of the study

Female criminality refers to crimes committed by women. According to Khurana and Sharma (2020), it corresponds with male crime and is rather a classification made from a gendered perspective. Female criminality has been ignored or stereotypically demonstrated over

centuries (Heidensohn, 2010). Classical criminology theories have failed to expose the differences in offending patterns between females and males (Estrada et al., 2019). *The Female Offender* was published by Cesare Lombroso, the father of Criminology in 1893. However, his work described female offenders as not developed into feminine women (Bonzom, 2018). According to Pollak (1950), cited in Estrada, Anders, and Pettersson (2019), female criminality was a technique of females obscuring their menstrual cycles and sexual desires. The development of feminist criminology has challenged these notions, resulting in a decrease of theories based on the nature of females and an increased focus on explanatory models. Feminist criminology suggests that the increase in female offending could be attributed to gains in gender equality (Alder, 1975).

The need to develop policies and interventions for female offenders is often overlooked due to the low population of female offenders (Francios and Booyens, 2017). Female offenders are often nonviolent offenders, which fails to put pressure on the governing bodies of correctional services (Hannah-Moffat, 1999; Steyn and Booyens, 2018). The experience of correctional services, which caters for male offenders consists of gang involvement, rape cases, abuse, and peer pressure within centres. Female offenders are however less likely to be involved in gangs, peer-pressure or abuse within correctional services (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). The lack of gang involvement, conflict among offenders and abuse limits the attention given to female offenders, which decreases availability of adequate rehabilitation programmes for female offenders.

Acknowledging gender has been a challenge for the criminal justice system (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2019). Over the past decade, new information about women has improved services in various fields such as health, employment, and education (Covington, 2001; Davidson, 2011). However, there is a need and opportunity to develop new knowledge about the criminal justice system to establish effective rehabilitative programmes for female offenders. Correctional programmes have been designed based on the profiles of male criminality and paths to crime, failing to identify programmes that will be gender and culturally responsive to the needs of the female offender (Covington, 2001).

The importance of rehabilitation stems from more than just discipline. Rehabilitation is a second chance to live; it is an opportunity to change, and an opportunity to be a better human (United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, 2022). The emphasis on rehabilitation rests more

with the word itself rather than the practice. The term rehabilitation is used worldwide, but very little is known about the term's operational definition. According to Anderson and Gröning (2016), rehabilitation is a practice that transforms an offender into a non-deviant citizen. Moreover, Wormit, Althouse, Simpson, Reitzel, Fagan and Morgan (2007), define rehabilitation as a broad array of psychosocial programmes and services that are designed to assist offenders in addressing a range of needs related to their offending behaviour and in achieving a more productive and satisfying lifestyle. Attaining a productive, stable lifestyle will assist the offender, in ensuring that the needs of the offender are met. For example, food and finances. Hence, by attaining these needs the offender will deter from criminal activity.

In South Africa, crime is at a constant increase. According to a report released by the South African Police Services (2021), contact crimes such as murder, attempted murder, sexual offences and all categories of assault registered a 60, 6% increase, compared to the corresponding period of the previous financial year, whilst property related crimes increased by 6.0%. The statistics available do not specify the gender of the offender. In order to prevent, re-offending we need to ensure effective rehabilitative programmes for female offenders.

The rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders back into society is a difficult transition. Society is more judgemental towards offenders (Cilliers and Smit, 2007). The abolishment of apartheid has led to increased development and delivery of offender rehabilitation programmes within the Department of Correctional Services (White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, 2005). However, these programmes are offered to females, regardless of their motive of the offence. They are required to be completed to meet parole requirements or are offered based on the availability of funding.

Globally, correctional services have developed accreditation and quality systems to ensure good practice in offender rehabilitation services (Ward and Birgden, 2007). According to Andrews and Dowden (2007), controlled studies show that offender rehabilitation programmes effectively reduce reoffending. The South African government has employed the “*Batho Pele*” principles to ensure quality service delivery to the people post-apartheid. Batho Pele rests on the following principles to enhance quality service delivery in accordance with the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (2005).

- Consultation: citizens should be consulted about their needs.
- Service standards: all citizens should know what service to expect.

- Redress: all citizens should be offered an apology and solution when standards are not met.
- Access: all citizens should have equal access to services.
- Courtesy: all citizens should be treated courteously.
- Information: all citizens are entitled to complete, and accurate information.
- Openness and transparency: all citizens should know the decision-making process and how departments are run.
- Value for money: all services provided should offer value for money.

The principles of Batho Pele should be evident in all service delivery offices of the government, including the Department of Correctional Services. Offenders must be treated with respect and dignity, and therefore Batho Pele should also be exercised in the services that they receive. The Department of Correctional Services aims to contribute towards maintaining and protecting a just, peaceful and safe society by enforcing court-imposed sentences, detaining offenders in safe custody, whilst keeping their human dignity and developing their sense of social responsibility. Further, it promotes the general development of all offenders and persons subject to community corrections (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). Therefore, to ensure the successful reintegration of offenders into society, the Department of Correctional Services must implement effective rehabilitative programmes.

The Department of Correctional Services is guided by a policy document known as the White Paper of Correctional Services (2005). This document affirms that rehabilitation is achieved by delivering services to offenders, which encourages a change in behaviour, attitude, and social circumstances, which enable offenders to successfully reintegrate into society and become law-abiding citizens (The Draft White Paper, 2005). The White Paper of Correctional Services (2005) emphasises that rehabilitation and prevention of repeat offending are achieved through correction and development rather than punishment. This stems from the belief that every human being can transform if given the right resources and opportunities.

The approach of the Department of Correctional Services can be viewed as a holistic approach. It aims to contribute to offenders' social responsibility, social justice, empowerment of offenders, making South Africa a better place to live in, and promoting active participation in democratic activities among offenders. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2005), rehabilitation has three core objectives: correcting offending behaviour, human development, and promoting social responsibility and positive social values among offenders. There is a bold body of research that suggests that rehabilitation can significantly reduce the

rates of reoffending (Sikhakhane, 2020; United Nations Office for Drugs and Crime, 2018). For example, when rehabilitation programmes are based on the principles of effective treatment, this reduces the rates of reoffending (Cullen and Gendreau, 1989; Lipsey and Cullen, 2007).

Meta-analysis is a widespread technique implemented to gather evidence on the effect of rehabilitation programmes on offenders (Lipsey and Cullen, 2007). This specific technique assessed over a hundred studies to conclude that rehabilitation programmes reduce recidivism by 10% compared to non-treated groups (Cullen and Gendreau, 1989). This suggests that if a control or non-treated group had a recidivism rate of 35%, the rehabilitated or managed group would have a recidivism rate of 25%. This suggests that if a control or non-treated group had a recidivism rate of 35%, the rehabilitated or managed group would have a recidivism rate of 25%. Numerous meta-analytic reviews globally conclude that psychological interventions reduce re-offending significantly to treated groups of offenders as compared to non-treated groups (Beaudry, 2021).

The effectiveness of a rehabilitation programmes is measured by whether it was helpful in terms of preventing reoffending. When an offender becomes a re-offender, it merely implies that the rehabilitation initially offered to the offender failed to serve as a preventive instrument for the offender. To understand the programme's failure, we need to uncover the cause of re-offending. The liberation theory, that is discussed later in the current study emphasises that increasing or gaining females' social structure will lead to females in crime. In the context of South Africa, the marginalisation theory by Meda-Chesney Lind (2006) is applicable. The theory states that criminality often occur among females who fall into a marginal group of society. A study by Hunnicutt and Broidy (2004) found that the integration of economic marginalisation and liberation theories can explain females' criminal patterns. Economic marginalisation is one of the significant factors contributing to females in crime, as their crimes are often nonviolent and economic in nature (Hunnicutt and Broidy, 2004).

The backgrounds of marginalised females consist of low salaries, inadequate jobs, lower-class positions in society, and family victimisation (Banarjee, Islam, and Khatun, 2014). The Living Conditions Survey is affiliated with Statistics South Africa and provides detailed information on household circumstances in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2020). According to Statistics South Africa (2020), half the adult population lives below the upper-bound poverty

line. However, females experienced higher levels of poverty regardless of the poverty line used. Hence, they experience a greater level of poverty as compared to their male counterparts. The victimisation of females instigates them to commit crimes. The marginalisation theory consists of greater validity and reliability based on massive data and facts.

There is need to understand the pathway to the correctional centre to strengthen it. The White Paper of Correctional Services (2005) has helped to sustain South Africa's correctional services; however, it was last updated in 2005. This policy document was developed in an era where females were far from the crime scene on the newspaper's front page. Females were not highly associated with the world of crime, however over time, female criminality has become more exposed. The female offender population has become a trend (Dholakia, 2021). However, the policy document which governs South Africa's correctional services fail to extend the material to attend to the needs of the female offender. Some of the challenges that are addressed by the White Paper of Correctional Services (2005) include the difficulties of adjusting to a correctional environment, adapting to the absent mother experience and the vulnerability of female offenders within system of corrections (Masoma, 2019). Females become more emotional, as they are incarcerated away from their children, they therefore are more emotionally and psychological weak as compared to their male counterparts. The White Paper for Correctional Services acknowledges the changes in a female and her experiences in the correctional environment due to the long distance between her children (The Draft White Paper, 2005).

According to the White Paper for Corrections (2005) policy document, the low female offender population results in less expertise available to female offenders. The shorter periods of female incarceration are seen as an advantage as it results in higher success rates of offender rehabilitation (The Draft White Paper, 2005). However, there is no statistical evidence available that can validate these claims because the statistics of female offenders in South Africa is not available for observation. This is particularly so because crime statistics in South Africa are generalised and measured by the type of crime and the rate of such crime among male and female offenders (Statistics South Africa, 2021). There is no credible source that publishes reoffending statistics or types of crimes that females continuously commit. Therefore, it is essential to establish these facts so that a proper evaluation can be conducted on the offences committed by female offenders and the type of rehabilitation provided to them.

In South Africa, knowledge about the type of rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders can be obtained from the Department of Correctional Services. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), improving offenders' life skills through correctional programmes that target offending behaviour will enable successful reintegration of offenders into society when they are released. These programmes include investing in the personal development of offenders by providing literacy, education, and skills competency programmes during their incarceration. Further, offenders attend psychological, social, and spiritual services (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). The programmes offered to female offenders are accepted voluntarily. Many offenders may reject such programmes; hence, much effort is invested in marketing rehabilitation programmes. The programmes offered to female offenders include bead making, sewing, education from grade nine onwards, technical skills, and counselling.

According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), female offenders have shorter sentences than their male counterparts. However, it is believed that there is a blanket approach when dealing with the programmes offered to female offenders. This study aims to uncover effective offence-specific rehabilitation programmes that can strengthen the governing of rehabilitation programmes within the Department of Correctional Services for female offenders. The process of allocating rehabilitative programmes, is dependent on the length of the sentence of the female offender as well as the availability of the programme at the time when the offender is sentenced (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). This affects the pathway of the female offender, as she may not be able to attend programmes relevant to her needs.

1.3 Problem statement

Female offending is on the rise in South Africa. According to the World Prison Brief (2022), the female offender population has increased from 2.5% in the year 2000, to 2.6% in 2015. Statistics from 2021, show that the female offender population is 2.4 % with the total number of female offenders incarcerated 3453 (World Prison Brief, 2022). The growth in female offenders is consistent with international trends. However, the overall female offender population amounts to 2.2% of South Africa's total correctional services population (Haffejee et al., 2005). There is a lack of research based on the female offender due to the low population of female offenders compared to male offenders (Agboola, 2016). The lack of female criminologists, policymakers, and females within the criminal justice system contributes to the

lack of research and knowledge on female offenders (Chase, 2008). Female criminality requires an in-depth understanding as the needs of the female offender are different from those of male offenders (Andersson, 2013). The rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders, are not specific to individual offenders and therefore lack effectiveness. In order, for rehabilitation programmes to function effectively, they are required to address the motive of the offence (Anderson, 2013).

This study contributes to the experiences of female offenders within South Africa's correctional services system. This study explores the female offender pathway to correctional services, the female offender experience of correctional services, and the female offender experience post-release from correctional services, contributing to the gaps in knowledge about the female offender within correctional services in South Africa. The method of data collection implemented within the study allows the participants to freely express themselves, share their experiences and challenges with dealing with the criminal justice system, specifically the Department of Correctional Services. This study will highlight the experiences of offenders, and address the limitations of current rehabilitation programmes offered within the Department of Correctional Services. Understanding the challenges of female offenders within correctional services and post-release, will allow us the opportunity to identify limitations of rehabilitation programmes.

1.4 Study aim and objectives

The crime rate in South Africa is on a consistent rise, with many repeat offenders. According to trends listed by the South African Police Service, a total of 350 519 have been publicly reported by the Quarter Two of 2021 (South African Police Service, 2022).

When offenders enter correctional services, they go through a rehabilitative process and the purpose of this process is to transform the deviant behaviour of offenders into law-abiding citizens (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Corrective rehabilitative programmes are predicted to decrease reoffending behaviour by eliminating the cause of behaviour among offenders (Muthaphuli, 2012).

The Department of Correctional Services has to ensure that offenders that reintegrate within societies and positively contributes within that society, which allows offenders to grow and

develop. However, when offenders are released, they pose a threat to the communities in which they reintegrate (Davis, Bahr, and Ward, 2013).

Rehabilitation of offenders is one of the essential aspects of incarceration (Murhula and Singh, 2019). The Department of Correctional Services is mandated with the role of ensuring rehabilitation is achieved (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). The main goals of corrections are retribution, deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation (Kifer, Hemmens, and Stohr, 2003). According to Dissel and Kollapen (2010), there is dissatisfaction with the rehabilitation and treatment of offenders within the Department of Correctional Services. The conclusion is that effective rehabilitation rests on several contributing factors, which are challenges for correctional services in South Africa (Mastrobuoni and Terlizese, 2014). These factors include the lack of resources within correctional services, overcrowding of correctional services, the lack of structured programmes for rehabilitation offered by correctional services and the lack of skilled specialists such as psychologists and social workers employed by correctional services. According to the Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services (2020), as of March 2020, a total of 86 psychologists are employed to service a total of 154 449 offenders. The ratio between psychologists and offenders is inadequate for successful services to be offered, or for these services to present a successful outcome.

1.5 Research objectives

There is an apparent lack of “offence-specific rehabilitation programmes” within the Department of Correctional Services (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). The study aims to solve this problem by exploring the programmes currently within correctional services and proposing effective “offence-specific rehabilitation programmes” for female offenders.

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- 1.5.1 Explore the current rehabilitation programmes for female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services.
- 1.5.2 Determine the factors limiting the establishment of offence-specific rehabilitation programmes.
- 1.5.3 Highlight the effectiveness of current offender rehabilitation programmes in responding to offences of the female offender.

1.6 Research questions

The study is guided by the following research questions:

- 1.6.1 What are the current offender rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services?
- 1.6.2 What are possible limitations of the current offender rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders by the Department of Correctional Services?
- 1.6.3 How effective are current offender rehabilitation programmes in responding to offences of the female offender?

1.7 Assumptions of the study

- The low population of female offenders' results in successful rehabilitation.
- The White Paper on Correctional Services, which guides correctional services mandate, is very limited in terms of female offender rehabilitation.
- Offence specific rehabilitation programmes can prevent reoffending.
- The current rehabilitation programmes targets offending behaviour.

1.8 Conceptualization of key terms

The research consists of concepts that are used in various disciplines. Each discipline uses concepts to

- describe, explain, and analyse phenomena
- investigate contexts, issues, and problems, and
- generate responses or solutions.

Each area of study has a specific disciplinary language. To enhance academic integrity, we are required to use concepts, principles, instruments and theories. The following concepts are defined because they are relevant to the study.

1.8.1 Offender: The term refers to a person in a correctional centre for detention, correction and rehabilitation. The Correctional Services Act (Act 111 of 1998) describes an offender as "...any person, whether convicted or not, detained in any correctional centre or who is being

transferred in custody or a route from one correctional centre to another correctional centre”. According to the Government Gazette (2012) of Correctional Services, an offender is an inmate. This meaning relates to a person detained in custody in any correctional centre or remand detention facility, whether convicted or not. An offender can also be referred to someone transferred from one correctional centre or remand centre facility (Government Gazette 35093, 2012). According to the White Paper on Corrections (2005), to describing the type of offender using the following definitions is imperative:

- inmates for those in residential correctional services
- parolees for those released under the parole policy
- probationers for those directly sentenced by the courts to community correctional supervision
- detainee for those not yet convicted and unsentenced, such as awaiting-trial detainees

The South African Gazette focuses on two types of offenders. These are, sentenced and unsentenced offenders. The former refers to a person sentenced to incarceration or correctional supervision while the latter refers to a person that is detained by law in a correctional centre. Hence, the person has been convicted; however, he has not been sentenced to incarceration or correctional supervision (Government Gazette 35093, 2012).

1.8.2 Female offender: A female offender refers to a female who has done something illegally. The work of Lombroso, the “*Father of Criminology*,” describes female offenders as uncontrollable individuals who could not develop morals or femininity. Before World War II, female offending was more discreet and fraudulent than male offending (Pettersson et al., 2019).

1.8.3 Recidivism: This is a popular concept in criminology, which refers to an offender's relapse into deviant behaviour after rehabilitation has been conducted (Cole, 2020). Recidivism refers to the act of repeating behaviour after experiencing the negative consequence of such behaviour. It relates to the re-arrest of offenders. According to the National Institute for Crime Prevention and Reintegration of Offenders (2020), recidivism research plays a huge role in sentencing, corrections, and policy interventions. It assists in informing policy. Recidivism is

a means of evaluation and is an important aspect when considering incapacitation, deterrence, and rehabilitation within the criminal justice system.

1.8.4 Rehabilitation: Refers to the treatment programme in which an offender participates to ensure successful reintegration into society. The goal of any correctional system is to rehabilitate offenders; however, this depends on the assumption that offenders can be treated and live a life without recidivism. Rehabilitation consists of several programmes that are developed to address the needs of offenders. Special programmes are designed to classify offenders such as male offenders, sex offenders, female offenders, juvenile offenders, and parole offenders. The programmes were developed to address various aspects such as mental health, challenges of substance abuse, and the educational needs of offenders. Rehabilitation emphasises the offenders' right to a second chance in life (Huebner, 2007).

1.8.5 Correctional centre: This refers to a governing body mandated to ensure that offenders are in a secure, and safe environment. It is the correctional services' responsibility to ensure that offenders are successfully rehabilitated and reintegrated into society. The governing of the correctional services in South Africa is informed by the Correctional Services Act of 1998, the Criminal Procedure Act of 1997, the 2005 White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, and the 2014 White Paper on Remand Detention Management in South Africa.

1.8.6 Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19): A communicable respiratory disease caused by a new strain of coronavirus that causes illness in humans. COVID-19 was first reported in Wuhan, China, in December 2019. Later, this severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) was declared a pandemic. COVID-19 causes fever, colds, headaches, fatigue, breathing difficulties, loss of taste and smell, and even death. Currently, there is no cure for the virus. However, there are various vaccines in the market. There are several ways to prevent the spread of the novel coronavirus. These include maintaining social distancing, wearing masks, sanitising and washing of hands, covering coughs and sneezes, proper ventilation, and avoiding facial contact.

1.9 Rationale of the study

Female criminality has gained more attention since the rise of feminism and pre-feminist theories (Estrada, Nilsson, and Pettersson, 2019). In South Africa, female offenders are a small portion of the correctional centre population, however, these numbers are on the rise (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). Although female offenders are offered

rehabilitation programmes during the time they are sentenced, they are left vulnerable to risk factors post-release. The lack of employment post-release leads many female offenders to re-offend and return to the correctional system, resulting in these female offenders repeating the same rehabilitative programmes in which they would have participated. The purpose of this study is to propose rehabilitation programmes that increase the employability of female offender's post release, by offering female offenders rehabilitative programmes that assist female offenders to reflect on their crimes and ensure that they can find employment, which gives them the opportunity to attain independence. Effective rehabilitation programmes reduce the rates of recidivism (Anderson, 2013).

The minimal inclusion of female offenders in policy documents such as the White Paper for Corrections (2005) and research models demonstrates a need for further research about female offenders and rehabilitation within the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa. According to Sheldon, Brown, Miller, and Fritzler (2008), the incarceration rate for female offenders has increased due to law enforcement's attention to domestic violence. According to Erez (2002), it is only recently that domestic violence has been seen as a violation of the law. The abuse of men within relationships, is viewed as a "norm", and therefore has failed to receive attention from the criminal justice system.

According to the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), the crime rate among female offenders in South Africa is increasing. However, the population of female offenders is manageable. Therefore, investigating the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes would be beneficial. Effective rehabilitation programmes have significantly reduced correctional centre populations (Anderson and Groning, 2016).

The statistics on female offenders reported to the SAPS are not a true reflection of female criminality. According to Estrada et al. (2019), media coverage for the crimes committed by males and females are similar, however, there is a need for media to constantly search for the reason for female offending. Female criminality is exposed by media in two categories. The female offender motif is either because the female is bad or mad/sad (Brennan and Vandenberg, 2009). Bad refers to female crimes which breach the norms of femininity, whilst sad or mad refers to female offenders as individuals which are out of their minds. The deviance of females can be linked to Lombroso (Smart, 1976). The third theme of female offender media exposure, is referred to as the chivalry hypothesis which emphasises that females are given milder

treatment than men within the justice system (Kruttschnitt and Savolainen, 2009). Female offending is viewed as more deviant and difficult to understand therefore there is a need for media to provide an explanatory context of female criminality.

The lack of reporting on female criminality is due to male victims feeling ashamed or mocked for reporting an incident to law enforcement against a female (Klein, 2006). Female offenders are often overlooked when committing crimes due to law enforcers having sympathy towards their lifestyle situations (Loftus, 2014). These crimes refer to both sexual offences, in cases where by male victims are ashamed to report crimes, as well as general crimes such as domestic violence and abuse, where male victims feel ashamed to report cases.

In most cases, female offenders are known as “double victims” as they may experience victimisation from their families or partners as well as the criminal justice system (Klein, 2006). When female offenders report crimes, they feel as if they are being victimised again, due to the process and procedure of reporting. The services offered to female offenders such as access to skilled counsellors, skills programmes, and education are limited (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). Hence, in some cases, female offenders are not enrolled into programmes that can address their criminality or prevent future criminality. Therefore, female offenders return to communities that are unable to assist them with their needs, which could lead to recidivism.

According to Newton, May, Eames, and Ahmad (2019), when offenders re-enter correctional services, it is costly to the state, which impacts on the budget allocated to rehabilitation of offenders from the government. Yet, the promotion of offence specific programmes will prevent recidivism. The advantage of offence specific programmes is that it ensures that the cause of the crime is rehabilitated. Offence specific programmes, differ from the blanket approach, which is a generalised allocation of programmes. In most cases, these programmes are simply implemented to keep offenders occupied during their incarceration or to meet the probation requirements of the offender. Effective rehabilitation can also positively impact the lives of members of wider the society in which the female offender reintegrates as she will be a law-abiding citizen, adding value to the society.

A pattern of recidivism could be a risk for the offender and society. There are contributing factors in an environment, which can result in recidivism. Therefore, it is essential to uncover the pathway to correctional services for the female offender. Understanding the cause of the

crime and factors that contribute to offending can assist in identifying future offenders and identifying reoffending behaviour. Re-offenders are frequently accommodated at correctional services (The Department of Correctional Services, 2022). The intake of re-offenders depicts that rehabilitation programmes lack effectiveness. According to Murhula and Singh (2019), lifelong sentences have failed to impact the lives of offenders. The escalation of crime and state of rehabilitation demonstrates the need for a better understanding of criminal behaviour, an adequate assessment structure, and offence specific programmes to enhance the effective treatment of offenders.

1.10 Significance of the study

The government of South Africa invests a sum of R6.4 billion over the medium term toward the Department of Correctional Services for the rehabilitation of offenders (The Department of Correctional Services, 2022). The importance of this study is increasing knowledge about effective rehabilitation in order to offer an offender the right to a second chance of life. Effective offender rehabilitation programmes have a positive effect on government expenditure, hence servicing repeat offenders' results in additional costs.

Despite the narrow focus on effective offender rehabilitation in South Africa, few researchers have studied the rehabilitation programmes offered across correctional services (Murhula and Singh, 2019; Cilliers and Smit, 2007; George, Sibanyoni, and Mofokeng, 2022). This thesis uncovers the reality and potential of rehabilitation programmes for female offenders by exploring the experiences of female offenders that have participated in rehabilitative programmes within the Department of Correctional Services South Africa. This study aims to highlight practical rehabilitative tools and will therefore propose offence specific rehabilitative programmes. Further, the study provides the basis for further research.

1.11 Limitations of the study

One of the significant limitations was the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. The country has experienced various levels of the national shutdown and this affected the duration of the research and the methods of data collection used to interview participants. The researcher conducted telephonic interviews with participants. This process limited the researcher from observing facial expressions and the body language of the participant. This process could also limit the freedom of participants to express their observations or lack of understanding. The researcher acted as the key instruments to ensure validity and reliability. The researcher

conducted a pilot study to ensure that the research is practical. Conducting a pilot study also improves the quality of data and effectivity of the research process.

1.12 Research design and methodology of the study

This section on research methodology provides a detailed description of the research approach and design the researcher adopted to answer the key research questions. According to Gilliland (2014), the researcher's research methodology is a strategy to implement a plan. The research plan consists of the population description, the method and instruments used to collect data, and how data were analysed. The description also focuses on the ethical implications which were considered while the data during data collection.

1.12.1 Research approach of the study

The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach. Qualitative research is interpretative research that is based on observation (Aspers and Corte, 2019). It is a kind of research that uses a small sample to examine and analyse a phenomenon, event and experience in depth (Gill, 2020). Qualitative research is particularly qualified to provide researchers with process-based, narrative data that is more directly related to human experience (Stahl and King, 2020). The qualitative research methodology is descriptive in nature. There are six common research designs in qualitative research namely, phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory, historical, case study, and action research (Gerring, 2017).

A research design aims to guide the researcher on the methods and techniques to employ to achieve the desired outcome and maintain ethical standards, which address the research questions (Akhtar, 2016). The study used a case study research design to answer the research questions, following a logical strategy. This research design chosen for this study was based on the research questions to be answered and the researcher's preference for the interpretivist paradigm. This gave room to the researcher to explore multiple realities, within one setting.

The study's qualitative approach allowed the researcher to uncover female offenders' perceptions of the correctional centre. A qualitative research approach produces a complete detailed description of the participant's feelings, opinions, and experiences; it interprets the reasoning and behaviour of their actions. Qualitative research methods such as participant observation, in-depth interviews, focus group discussions are most used for collecting qualitative data. The researcher used in-depth interviews.

1.12.2 Research design

According to Creswell (2000), a research design refers to the methods and procedures used in collecting and analysing data specified in the research problem. The research design is a blueprint of the researcher's steps to conclude (De Vos, 2009). It aims to align the pursuit of each research objective with the practical considerations and limitations of the study. The research design can also be referred to as a research structure as it incorporates every aspect of the research, points out the terms of examining and collecting data in a way that outlines the importance and the goal of the study (Akhtar, 2016).

The research design used in this study is explorative. Exploratory research proves beneficial to get a more transparent investigation of the situation; our focus is to identify the current rehabilitation programmes at correctional services and uncover the reason for the female offender to commit such crimes. The objective of explanatory research is to discover ideas and thoughts; it is a flexible design. This allows the researcher the flexibility to investigate the narratives of offenders. The research process in an exploratory design is unstructured. This is beneficial to the researcher, as the study participants were female offenders, a complex population to communicate with; the case study design allows the researcher to probe the participant.

The sampling process in explanatory research is non-probability; the researcher used purposive sampling. There is no fundamental analysis structure, as the researcher is the critical instrument in the thematic analysis process. Therefore, the explanatory design proves suitable for this study. The purpose of exploration is for the researcher to understand the reasons for reoffending and the experience of rehabilitation programmes (Klopper, 2008). The preferred research design enabled the researcher to understand the reason behind female criminality within South Africa.

Consequently, data collection is subjective and detailed. The qualitative research design (interactive approach) has a flexible structure (Maxwell, 2012). Thus, thorough and appropriate analyses of an issue can be produced by utilising qualitative research methods. The participants have sufficient freedom to share their experiences and challenges post-release (Flick, 2011). As a result, complex issues can be understood.

1.12.3 Demarcation of the study

Female crime is an interesting field of study, as the mind and behaviour of female offenders are motivated by different factors from those that motivate their male counterparts. The researcher chose this study, due to her interest in the female offender population, which developed during an internship served at the Department of Correctional Services. During this time, the researcher, observed the behaviour of female offenders. The researcher observed that the behaviour of female offenders and their adaptation to the correctional environment seemed very natural. It was observed as their place of comfort or home. Female offenders treated the correctional environment, correctional staff and their peers as family. Over a period of one year, there were no cases of aggression, gang involvement, and no anger between female offenders and correctional officials. If any cases were reported to correctional officials, these were resolved with ease. The peaceful environment within the correctional centre was a rather unexpected observation. This motivated the researcher's quest to uncover the cause of female offending, the cause of female recidivism, the process of rehabilitation, and the methods which can be used to prevent reoffending.

To get the optimum results for the nominated study, the demarcation of the research focuses on female offenders who have a history of reoffending. This allowed the researcher to gain information about the flaws in rehabilitation, which supposedly resulted in recidivism. The study focused on female offenders within the South African correctional system. The female offenders that participated in the study were required to have participated in rehabilitative programmes during their time spent within a correctional centre.

1.12.4 Sample size of the study

A sample population refers to the people that are targeted when conducting the study. Majid (2018), refers to the study population as population of interest. The population of interest consists of individuals who represent characteristics relevant to the study (Asiamah et al., 2017). Moreover, the population depicts the interests of the researcher (Gravetter and Forzano, 2009). The sample population for the current study consists of 10 female offenders within KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. There are no specific characteristics required of the female offenders as the study is based on female offenders and the rehabilitation programmes, which they are offered within correctional services. The sample was obtained with the assistance of a social worker who was communicating with female offenders who were released from the Kwa

Zulu-Natal correctional centre. These participants have been released from correctional services, and are currently located across South Africa.

1.12.5 Sampling technique

Sampling involves a process of selecting participants statistically from the population of interest to ensure that the population representation is unbiased, therefore, a sample strategy involves a strategic way of selecting participants, which represent the characteristics of interest of the study (Majid, 2018). Sharma (2017), suggests that sampling is a method adopted by the researcher to scientifically select a small portion of individuals from the population of interest as participants. The purposive sampling technique was adopted. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method, which is beneficial as the participants are not selected based on their availability to participate, but also their uniqueness and relevance to the study. Qualitative research samples purposively (Carter and Little, 2007). Participants must be drawn from divergent backgrounds and have distinct characteristics to attain a diverse range of views. Therefore, in pursuit of this ideal, the researcher implemented a maximum variation type of purposive sampling. The purposive sampling method falls under convenience sampling and it is also known as judgmental and subjective sampling method (Sharma, 2017).

The advantage of using the convenience purposive sampling method is that the sampling technique is inexpensive and easy to conduct (Etikan, 2016). However, the disadvantage of using the convenience purposive sampling method is that it has a high probability of hidden bias, given that the participants are selected based on a specific criterion and a standard that is deemed fit by the researcher (Etikan, 2016; Sharma, 2017). In this study, the researcher mitigated this kind of bias by conducting a pilot study and further including an inclusion criterion for the nominated study.

1.12.6 Data collection

The primary method of data collection was telephonic interviews. The researcher chose the interview method because it is qualitative and allows the researcher to collect a comprehensive database of information. During the time of data collection, South Africa was in lockdown mode to avert the spread of coronavirus, which causes COVID-19. Therefore, it was important for the researcher to use this method of data collection. Telephonic interviews allowed the researcher to observe lockdown restrictions set out by the President of South Africa (Department of Health, 2022).

The secondary source of data collection, which was used for the research study is desktop research. Desktop research involves collecting data from existing resources such as the press, the internet, analytical reports, and statistical publications. The main advantage of desktop research has always been the saving of time (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2005), moreover, the advancement of technology has benefited this type of research beyond measure. Search engines allow users to find appropriate information instantly. Scholars have access to large quantities of information at their fingertips, found through different search engines. However, the challenge continually lies with the individual to distinguish the authenticity of the source (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2005).

1.13 Ethical considerations

The purpose behind research ethics is to ensure that research conducted does not cause harm to the socialisation in an environment or insensitivity to a participant, who may feel discriminated against or degraded to share their experiences on a specific topic or procedure undertaken for the research to be successful. Before conducting any field research, the researcher applied for ethical clearance (Appendix Three) from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC). The researcher started collecting data for the research study only when full approval was granted.

The researcher crafted a consent form, which was approved by the HSSREC. The use of a consent form constitutes best practice in conducting ethical research because it enhances the protection of participants' interests. This consent form was acknowledged by participants before each interview session. The consent form acknowledged the following.

- Voluntary nature of participation in the study.
- The identity of the participants must remain confidential.
- The participant may leave the research if they wish to do so.
- No remuneration will be given to participants for participating in the study.
- Provide details of the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Psychology Department (Psychology Clinic) for participants to access counselling services if required post-interview.
- All participants will receive a final copy of the research report.
- All research notes and recordings of telephonic interviews will be confidential.

- For five years, all research notes and records will be safely held at the University of KwaZulu-Natal in a storage facility; all evidence will be destroyed after five years.

1.14 Structure of the thesis

Introduction and background of the study: This chapter introduces the research topic and provides the background of the study. The reader is provided with the definitions of key terms in the study, the problem statement, the aim and objectives of the study, the research questions, assumptions of the study, the rationale of the study, and the significance of the study. Further, the chapter reflects on the delimitations of the study, limitations of the study, research design and methodology, ethical considerations, and the structure of the thesis, which is an outline of the various chapters.

Literature review: Provides a review of extant literature based on the history of females in crime. It explored how females adapt to correctional services. Further, the chapter explores the limitations of rehabilitation programmes. It emphasises the need for effective rehabilitation programmes and the recidivism of female offenders. The chapter also reflects on various offence-specific rehabilitation programmes for female offenders.

Theoretical framework: Discusses the history of females in crime. It emphasises on the lack of theories relating to females in crime. This chapter identifies two theories, the feminism theory and marginalisation theory as significant theories to explain the offending by female offenders.

Methodology: This chapter explains the research outline and methodology of the study. The researcher adopted the qualitative research approach due to its flexible nature of the methods. Telephonic interviews were used as a method of data collection. This chapter also describes the data analysis used in the study and the ethical considerations that guided the study.

Data analysis and interpretation: Reviews the research findings that will be collected during the telephonic interviews.

Discussion and research findings: Discussion of the research findings and relevance to the theoretical framework and reviewed the literature to further explain the relationship between effective rehabilitation programmes and recidivism of female offenders.

Conclusion and recommendations: In this chapter, the researcher discusses the limitations of the research study, and identifies areas for future research. To conclude the chapter recommendations are proposed for the Department of Correctional Services to consider when implementing rehabilitation programmes for female offenders.

1.15 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the effective rehabilitation of female offenders, emphasising the importance of the research study. The researcher briefly discussed the limitations of existing rehabilitation programmes within the correctional services and the effectiveness of offence-specific rehabilitation programmes. Further, vital concepts were defined to help the reader to understand the terminology used in the thesis. The researcher presented the core objectives and key research questions to explore the rehabilitation of female offenders within correctional services. The conclusion of this chapter consists of an outline of the various chapters that make up this thesis.

Chapter Two is the literature review. A literature review provides a background on the research and allows the researcher to find gaps in the existing body of knowledge. The objectives of the research guide the structure of the literature review for this thesis. Chapter Three consists of a theoretical framework. The sample population is diverse; therefore, the researcher has implemented sociological theories to explain this multi-factorial phenomenon. Chapter Four describes the qualitative methodology used in the study. An analysis based on the findings of the research is found in Chapter Five. The analysis of the data collected is included in chapter six. Chapter Seven is the final chapter, and it entails the limitations of the research study, proposing areas for future research and proposes recommendations for the Department of Correctional Services to consider when implementing rehabilitation programmes for female offenders.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to the study

This chapter consists of an evidence-based, informative, in-depth review of literature. The essence of a literature review is to gather collective knowledge on a subject matter and provide a critical appraisal to demonstrate understanding. The importance of a literature review is to allow the researcher to develop ideas, identify gaps in the existing literature, develop a hypothesis, and contribute to the field of study (Snyder, 2019). This chapter begins by exploring the history of rehabilitation and concludes by exploring the history of female offenders and their pathway to correctional centres. Over time, the methods used to punish an offender has evolved. Societies have transitioned from seeking personal justice, “an eye for an eye” to an orderly process whereby justice is left to judicial bodies such as courts and correctional centres (History of Corrections & its Impact on Modern Concepts, 2014). Along with the transition of justice, history observed a change in correctional systems. Over time, prisons developed into correctional centres whereby the focus transformed from punishment and confinement of offenders to rehabilitation of offenders.

The history of rehabilitation can be traced back to the French law when it was referred to as conviction reversal (Rostaing, Béraud, and Galembert, 2018). To have a better understanding of rehabilitative approaches, the researcher examines those of the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and the Netherlands. The researcher then examines the various rehabilitative approaches that have supported judicial authorities in developing and guidelines and policies that govern the functionalities of correctional centres and documents that guide correctional centre management in South Africa. These include the Nelson Mandela Rules for the Treatment of Offenders, the White Paper on Corrections, the White Paper of Families, and the Bangkok Rules. This chapter concludes by reviewing female offenders’ pathways to correctional centres, the types of crimes female offenders commit and the interventions available to address female offender rehabilitation.

2.2 Rehabilitation

In the discipline of criminology, rehabilitation is an essential concept. The relationship between crime and offender rehabilitation is clear. When a crime is committed, the offender is charged

and incarcerated, and then goes through the rehabilitation process. Rehabilitation refers to the correction of an individual's behaviour. It is the process of helping an offender to return to a law-abiding citizen (Fortune et al., 2011). Rehabilitation has seen changes over the years. This chapter starts by defining the concept of rehabilitation. The importance of rehabilitation extends to policy documents and the administration of the correctional services department.

2.3 The transition from punishment to rehabilitation

The view of punishment has generally evolved. Over time, societies reformed from personal family justice toward a formal code. Jails transformed from being holding places where offenders received punishment such as beatings or executions to rehabilitative centres that seek to correct offender behaviour (McNeill, 2014). At present, The United States Supreme Court recognises that punishment consists of five pillars: deterrence, societal retribution, rehabilitation, incapacitation and restitution (Rev, 2010). Deterrence refers to instilling fear in an individual (defendant) or the public to prevent the re-occurrence of a crime. When deterrence is applied to an individual, the aim is to instil fear into the individual or offender through means of punishment, which would prevent the offender from re-offending.

Generally, deterrence refers to punishment that is publicised to the public. This strategy is designed to instil fear in the public and deter criminal activity because of the threat of punishment (Rev, 2010). Retribution refers to ensuring that communities observe an effective or just correctional system. This can be observed in the methods used by correctional centres to ensure that the punishment of offenders is adequate (Robinson and Crow, 2009). Restitution refers to financially punishing the offender. The fear of this punishment is aimed to prevent reoffending. The methods used in restitution include court orders, which require the defendant to pay for any harm inflicted on the victim, loss of property or damages to the victim and emotional stress caused to the victim due to the experience of the crime. In some cases, offenders are also charged for the expense of prosecution (Rev, 2010). Rehabilitation refers to the prevention of crime motivated by changes in one's behaviour. Rehabilitative methods include vocational programmes, educational programmes, and counselling (Veldhuis, 2012).

Incapacitation is referred to as the removal of an offender from society. This process involves methods such as house arrests, incarceration and execution.

2.3.1 Justice during the period of ancient cultures

During ancient times, if an offender was reprimanded, the victim's family could deliver justice. This created a continuous chain of violence (Frey, 2018). The lack of reconciliation and understanding resulted in the offender's family fighting back in defence. This continued until one or more families were killed. Families would suffer fatalities or financial losses over such blood feuds. Clearly, this was not a sustainable way of dealing with matters related to the attainment of justice.

The population growth of communities resulted in communities claiming the responsibility to ensure justice. The development of writing encouraged written punishments under the offender's crime. The code of Hammurabi in Babylon (1750 BC) was considered the first set of such laws (Bernfeld, 2011). Prior to the Hammurabi in Babylon the Justinian code of Emperor Justinian of the Eastern Roman Emperor organised many of the earlier codes (Bernfeld, 2011). The latter development of empires led to more orderly dealings with legal matters, thus concluding in courts' operation. The sentence of courts rendered the offender a slave to the victim's family. The families of victims could assert general labour, banishment from a specific area or death to the offender. This was a rather unjust system, as the punishment of the offender had no limits, and could even lead to death for white collar crimes.

2.3.2 Punishment of offenders during medieval times

Torture and death were popular means of punishment during the medieval era (Brigden, 2022). The methods of death were described as harsh and sinister. The instruments used to execute such harsh acts included the rack stretch, which stretched its victims until their bodies were torn (Brigden, 2022). An audience would witness the executions; the aim of this strategy was to prevent others within the society from offending, by instilling fear in onlookers. Executions included offenders being burned, hanged, or beheaded (Bennett, 2012).

2.3.3 Confinement of offenders during the assize of Clarendon

Offenders were usually confined until they confessed to committing the offence in question. After a confession, the offender would experience physical brutality or even death (Brown and Dikötter, 2007). Churches used long term incarceration to replace executions, and later, private

prisons were developed, allowing the wealthy to imprison offenders (Halliday, 2007). King Henry's ordinances classified many crimes as crimes that disturbed the "King's Peace", and these crimes were therefore punishable by the state. During the 1160s the first prisons were designed solely for incarceration (Bevan, 2020).

2.3.4 The environment of prisons in medieval Europe

The environment of prisons during medieval Europe was generally unhygienic, as the prisons were cold, rat and roach infested (Brown, 1996). Offenders were required to purchase items they needed for their daily use such as blankets, mattresses, food, and even chains (Chalklin, 1983). The offender had to pay for being charged and released. Wealthy offenders benefited as they were able to finance their stay in luxury (York Museums, 2008). However, the conditions of prisons were generally unbearable and characterised by brutality. Even the wealthiest offenders died due to diseases or victimisation by other offenders cited in Byrne, 1929.

2.3.5 Rise of the nations: Offenders used for cheap labour

During the 1500s, workhouses and debtors' prisons developed cheaper labour sources and housed minor offenders or mentally unstable offenders (Sheehan, 1977). During this time, offenders that were found guilty could be transported instead of executed. England transported many people to colonial Georgia in the United States and later to colonial Australia. France sent many to South America, although transportation was less severe than the brutal deaths, many offenders didn't survive due to conditions on ships or during the time spent in the colonies in which they were located (Evans, 1982).

2.3.6 Colonial and early revolutionary periods: Punishment of offenders

Colonial America shared similar brutality to punish offenders as Europeans. In the United States of America, the brutality of punishment included stocks, pillories, branding, flogging and maiming, such as cutting off, and ear or slitting nostrils (Bevan, 2020). In 1636, thirteen crimes warranted execution, which the Massachusetts Bay Colony listed (Little and Brown, 2008). These crimes included murder, witchcraft, and the worshipping of idols. In New York during the 1750s, 20% of offences concluded warranting the death penalty, including pickpocketing, horse stealing, and robberies (Gottlieb, 1995). Jails became holding cells, but they were not the means of punishment. The Puritans of Massachusetts believed that offenders lacked control of their fate. Therefore, rehabilitation was not required. The implication of this,

robbed the offender of the chance to reform, and integrate back into society. The imprisonment of these offenders meant that they were sentenced until their death.

2.3.7 The age of enlightenment: The abolishment of offenders tortured

The philosophy of the “Enlightenment” (Age of Reason) demonstrated the importance of the individual. The Age of Enlightenment revolved around the ideas of human happiness, and knowledge was obtained through evidence and reason, and logic (McMahon, 2004). After the French Revolution (1789), which was based on the ideas of enlightenment, torture was abolished in all countries in Western Europe (Llewellyn and Thompson, 2020). These countries emphasised that punishment should fit the crime committed by the individual. The goal transformed from punishing the offender into changing the offender. However, during this era, authorities also implemented the head-chopper, popularly known as the guillotine (Irace, 2012).

2.3.8 The state of prisons in England and Wales in the 1770s

John Howard wrote the *State of Prisons in England and Wales* in 1777. He described the inhumane conditions that offenders experienced in prisons in the United Kingdom and emphasised the belief that prisoners should not be harassed or abused (Devereaux, 1999). This document advocated separating prisoners based on their age, sex, type of crime, paying staff members, hiring medical staff, and supplying adequate food and clothing. He forbade the horrible treatment of offenders by their keepers or the death of offenders due to malnutrition or disease.

Howard (1977) used the term penitentiaries to describe prisons. This was due to prisons being a place where offenders went to repent for their sins and offences. The British Parliament passed the Penitentiary Act of 1779 to ensure a secure and sanitary facility for offenders. Previously, offenders were charged fees for their period of their incarceration, the system abolished the charging of offender fees (Devereaux, 1999). Offenders were labourers during the day and they were confined at night. This law was effective in 1842, accompanied by the opening of Pentonville Penitentiary in North London (Matteucci, 2014). Although, the proposed changes by John Howard (1977), took time to implement across penitentiaries. These changes are evident in correctional centres today. The principles of John Howard (1977), are present in policy documents which guide correctional centres globally (United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, 2022).

2.3.9 The reform movement: The change in the correctional system

The reform movement was a social movement that aimed to create an ideal community. The ideals of this movement stemmed from liberalism; however, they had their roots in either social or religious concepts. During the 1800s the reform movement aimed to eliminate slavery, uphold human rights, change the system of corrections and eliminate alcohol use (Blocker, 1989). This was motivated by the concept that people could change by using the permeated American society. The reform movement provided a platform for offenders to attain equal rights as citizens within a country. This allowed more opportunity for offenders to improve on their mental health, reform and social integration back into society.

2.3.10 Pennsylvania system of offender rehabilitation

The Quakers, led by William Penn, considered the brutal practices implemented within other colonies. Prisoners were no longer charged for their needs within prisons. Physical punishments were replaced with imprisonments, and executions were only granted for homicide crimes (Kashatus, 2011). The Pennsylvania system was coined by the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons, and it was a method which encouraged solitary confinement, with the belief that it would foster reformation. The transition from punishment to confinement was a huge change within the system of imprisonment. The belief that confinement gave offenders the opportunity to think and reflect on their crimes was emphasised. This is important to note, because the programmes provided to offenders today promote the process of reflects on the offender's crimes, with the aim to assist offenders to identify that their offense was wrong, and such acts should not be repeated post-release.

In 1787, Benjamin Rush led the Philadelphia society in alleviating the miseries of public prisons (Fuller, 1886). The focus was on attaining more humane treatment for prisoners. The campaign focused on the imprisonment of offenders rather than punishment (Sullivan, 1998). The movement shared the belief that confinement allowed the offender to repent and reform from their crimes. In 1790, the Walnut Street Jail was established in Pennsylvania. This was reserved for hardcore and atrocious offenders. The campaign pressured legislation to develop more prisons and it was generally was successful. In 1829, the penitentiary outside Pittsburgh was developed. This was a safe place; offenders were confined yet listened to the Chaplin on Sunday mornings. They could work, exercise, read their bibles, and contemplate to be rehabilitated (Sullivan, 1998).

Humans are social by nature (Britannica, 2020). Therefore, reformers thought of confinement as means of punishment. It was assumed that offenders would reform, and the prison system would become profitable or save economically, as confinement requires fewer resources and gives the offender more time to repent and reform from their offence (Sullivan, 1998). However, this was not the case, and the system turned into a warehouse of offenders.

2.3.11 Auburn system of rehabilitation (1819 New York)

The Auburn system was a mixture of solitary confinement at night and congregating inmates in a common workroom during the day that demanded discipline (Inside the Auburn Prison, 2018). Supervisors had the authority to fog an inmate who failed to comply with the rules of the day. These rules included no verbal contact or visual contact with other inmates (Ryder, 2013). Reformers believed that the system was economic because prison labour was able to pay for prison expenses (Garvey, 1998). Offenders were able to gain skills, meditate and repent of their sins. European countries were favourable to the Pennsylvania system, whilst American states preferred the Auburn system (Ryder, 2013). However, both systems could not reform offenders and did little to rehabilitate inmates effectively.

Post-American Civil War (1861-1865), industrial prisons were built across California, Northeast and Mid-West. The western states used territorial jails, whilst southern jails believed in leasing offenders for labour, such as farm work (Ryder, 2013). The southern jails, were effective in providing offenders the opportunity to gain work skills and experience. However, this was limited as the surrounding communities, believed that offender labour was decreasing work opportunities for law abiding citizens. Offender labour, was cheaper and therefore preferred by industry.

2.3.12 The Cincinnati declaration for offender human rights

Corruption existed within prison centres; inmates were mistreated and used by officials for cheap labour. Reformists shared the belief that the system required more discipline reforms (Petersilia, 2011). In 1870, the National Prison Association developed a declaration of principles because the Auburn system was considered degrading to offenders due to fixed sentences, silence, isolation, harsh punishment, and lockstep work (Petersilia, 2011).

2.3.13 The declaration of principles

According to the (National Prison Association of the United States, 2018), declaration of principles shared the following,

- Offenders should be educated to be free citizens that can integrate into society.
- Offenders should be rewarded for good conduct.
- Offenders that have undefined sentences should be able to shorten their sentences by earning freedom through hard work and good behaviour.
- The understanding that social factors lead to the committing of the crime on behalf of society.
- The realisation that the offender can reform on behalf of other offenders.

2.3.14 ELMIRA reformation of offenders

The Elmira system was a penal system coined by Zebulon R Brockway in 1876. This penal system focused on the reform of young felons, and it was functional on the notion that education can assist the rehabilitation of offenders. The system allowed felons to earn credits, for good behaviour, which permitted early release (Roth, 2006). Inmates earned points, and their sentences were reduced depending on their success in academics and moral lessons (Petersilia, 2011). This prolonged the sentences of offenders that were not doing well in academics. The importance of this was due to the New York legislature passing a law that allowed indeterminate sentencing and the release of inmates if they had shown they had reformed. However, Brockway found it challenging to distinguish between offenders who were reformed and offenders pretending to be reformed to meet the requirements of parole.

2.3.15 Prison reform in the twentieth century

The prison reform was a method used to improve prison conditions, improve the effectiveness of the penal system and find alternatives to incarceration. The challenges within the prison system, such as lack of staff and infrastructure, made it challenging to implement Brockway's rehabilitation ideas that if offenders were well behaved, they would earn credits to reduce their sentences (Roth, 2016). Offenders that were likely to be reformed avoided reformatories due to the probation system, even though the 1900s behavioural science challenges were emphasised in the early 20th century (Tonry and Petersilia, 2010). The focus on rehabilitating

offenders, ways to rehabilitate offenders, and correct behaviour was popularly advocated (Al-Khatib, 2015). However, this only came into effect decades later. The challenges were still prominent. The success of rehabilitating offenders was rarely seen and therefore brought disbelief to the system.

2.3.16 Labour of offenders in prison

Society believed that prisons should be able to finance their operational needs (Tonry and Petersilia, 2010). Therefore, there were factories within prisons. External factories and farms were also allowed to loan out prisons for free labour. These societies shared the belief that offenders will learn self-discipline by doing labour (Tonry and Petersilia, 2010). Penologists believed the environment of prisons made offenders vindictive to their communities cited in Barnes (1922).

Owing to the 'Great Depression', unemployment prisons were largely impacted by unemployment. Unions complained that they were competing with the free labour of inmates. States limited what inmates could produce, and prison farms decreased, as did offenders' skills. Offenders were no longer given agricultural tasks that could have prepared them for external work. Penologists shared the belief that offenders should work with the prison factories to teach them skills (Tonry and Petersilia, 2010). However, it advocated against the exploitation of offenders.

2.3.17 The rehabilitation model during the 1930s–1950s

The rehabilitation model implied that staff or prison officials need to be qualified to diagnose offenders and recommend the appropriate treatment for the offender based on the crime and behaviour of the offender (Phelps, 2011). After that, the official would have to determine if the offender had been rehabilitated (Rogers and Jenkins, 2011). The approach of rehabilitation was a mixture of group therapy and counselling. However, these techniques had limitations such as unqualified staff, insufficient funds and violent offenders that failed to embrace the process of rehabilitation.

2.3.18 Community corrections during the 1960s

Community corrections stemmed from the notion that rehabilitation was required to occur within the communities from which offenders hailed. Community corrections consisted of vocational programmes, work training and education (Duwe, 2018). During the mid-1960s, the

Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice presented the first standard of correctional services operations (Bevan, 2020). The task force's recommendations included community-based approaches, educational and vocational programmes, and different treatments for notable category offenders. The American Association Commission of Accreditation was mandated to assess the standards by which correctional centres functioned (Kashatus, 2011). The implementation of standards of correctional services, brought about equality across all prisons. Offenders were treated in the similar manner regardless of the centre which they were incarcerated. The treatment programmes provided to offenders were also the same, which meant that all offenders were allowed a fair chance to reform and integrate back into society.

2.3.19 Justice model during the 1980s

The increase in crime in the 1980s brought disbelief in the system of rehabilitation. Penologists believed that offenders should be off the streets to prevent reoffending and be given indeterminate sentences (McCarthy et al., 2016). The use of probation, parole and reduced sentences for good behaviour was no longer in effect (Loeffler and Nagin, 2022). Habitual offenders were given three chances to prove themselves, after which they received life in prison.

According to Giffard and Muntingh (2006), there was a rapid decrease in crime as the population within correctional centres increased. However, the increase in policing could have also played a significant role in crime reduction. The increase in the correctional centre population precipitated high discomfort. Factors such as lack of funding, and lack of rehabilitation programmes had affected the system (National Research Council, 2014). Therefore, the courts limited the number of offenders per correctional centre, and limited the resources provided to centres. Due to crowding, the courts officially rewarded offenders with sentence reduction if the offender maintained good behaviour.

2.3.20 The goal of the public and its impact on recidivism

In 1996, prisons were considered as rehabilitation centres. The rate of recidivism was used to measure the correctional centre's performance (Bevan, 2020). If offenders were reoffending, it reflected poorly on the system. Studies by conducted by the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), show that rates of recidivism increased depending on the length of time that the offender had been released.

2.3.21 The separation of adult and child offenders in the United States

During the reform in the 19th century, child offenders were defined as miniature adults with little developmental capacity; this brought about the separation between children and adults within correctional centres (Estrada et al., 2019). In 1899, the Juvenile Court Act was passed (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2001). This brought about the development of the first juvenile court in Cook County. The court used the British doctrine “parents patriae”, which meant state acted as a parent, to ensure that the lives of juveniles were treated in a different way from that of adults (Rogers and Jenkins, 2011). The courts aimed to focus on the welfare of the juvenile offender. The importance of the court was to see the juvenile offender as an intervention. For this, the focus was aimed at the welfare of the child.

Most states had passed similar legislation by 1925 (Hovey, Zolkoski, and Bullock, 2017). Juvenile courts focused on the legal and non-legal factors when dealing with juveniles. This included factors such as school and home environments. However, the effectiveness of the courts had risen by the 1960s due to the growing population of juveniles being institutionalised indefinitely whilst being reformed.

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act was promulgated in 1974 (Kelly, 2022). This allowed juvenile offenders to be separated from adults and white-collar juvenile offenders from severe offenders. The growth of community-based programmes increased to avoid institutionalisation of juvenile offenders (Ryder, 2013).

However, the increase in juvenile crime led society to question the leniency of the system. This motion led to juveniles being tried at adult courts based on the crime committed and the prosecuting agent. According to Juvenile Justice 1997, stricter laws were developed to deal with the influx of juvenile offenders (Scott and Grisso, 1998). This included transfer provisions, sentencing authority, confidentiality, victim rights, and correctional programming. In addition, states were made stricter to ensure that punishment was in line with the committed crime (Bevan, 2020).

2.3.22 The transition from prisons to rehabilitative centres in South Africa

The transition from prisons to correctional services in South Africa stemmed from the mistreatment of offenders during the apartheid regime. The 1994 elections sparked drastic changes within South Africa across all spheres of governmental units promoting democracy

and equality among all South Africans, including offenders (Stephen and Devenish, 2005). The Department of Correctional Services experienced radical changes to ensure that the functionality and services were parallel to international standards and in line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The establishment of the Correctional Services Act (1998) brought about new methods of management within the Department of Corrections, which focused on the rehabilitation of offenders. The White Paper on Corrections sets goals and objectives, guiding the Department of Correctional Services (White Paper on Corrections, 2005).

2.4 The criminological subject rehabilitation

The theoretical philosophy of rehabilitation refers to history, scientific knowledge and human knowledge (Siegert, Mcpherson, and Dean, 2006). Over time, the nature of rehabilitation has evolved. In Ancient cultures, rehabilitation was known as a means of justice (Phelps, 2011). The victim of a crime was rewarded with the offender and was granted the opportunity to deal with the offender in a manner they felt appropriate. The offender would see this as a means to repent for their sins. In today's system, justice is served by the law and courts and rehabilitation is conducted at correctional services (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). These centres aim to correct the deviant behaviour of offenders (Casey et al., 2012).

To understand the stance of rehabilitation in the 21st century, we must digest the methodological, historical, and theoretical contexts of rehabilitation—the concept of rehabilitation shares “restoration”, which implies returning to a previous state. The idea of offender rehabilitation refers to how historic offenders return to being regular, law-abiding citizens with no desire to re-offend. The operationalisation of offender rehabilitation involves the actioning of interventions to remove deviant or offending behaviour. Symbolically, rehabilitation is the reintegration of the offender back into a community in which they are accepted (Casey et al., 2012). The offender loses the stigma of crime and is welcomed back into society. After that, the offender has the same rights as those in the community.

Rehabilitation can be traced back to French law (Evans, 2011). In the second half of the 17th century, rehabilitation was referred to as criminal behaviour or conviction reversal. Rehabilitation can be described as deleting entries regarding the conviction in records, this is also demonstrated in England and Wales (Mannheim, 2009). The 1974 Rehabilitation of Offenders Act states that an offender goes through rehabilitation and is restored to a non-

deviant, respectable citizen (Mannheim, 2009). Therefore, the offender has earned the right to have their criminal history marked as irrelevant as the criminal history limits the offender's employment.

Human behaviour is characterised by freedom and determinism (Grünbaum, 1971). In criminology, this is reflected as classical and positivist schools of criminology (Cohen, 1998). Criminological theories view the offender as individuals who bear responsibility for the decisions and choices that they make (Garland, 2001). The tradition of 18th century Europe viewed the offender as a rational being with free will. The classical school demonstrates that offending behaviour calculates the costs and benefits of a particular action (Vold, Bernard, and Snipes, 1998). Offending is motivated by the will to pleasure. Classicism shares no distinction between those who offend and those that do not offend. It emphasises that we are all driven by the same impulses and temptations (Robinson and Crow, 2009). Positivism views the offender differently. Positivism sees the offender as a victim of external and internal forces. Therefore, the offender shares little responsibility for his/her actions. Hence, the offender requires treatment or help to remove the causes of his/her offending (Garland, 2001). This gave rise to the treatment model. The notion that offenders' freewill was constrained by poverty, mental illness, anti-social, and pro-criminal peers or family. The belief that offenders can prevent reoffending if these factors were confronted was popular.

Positivist criminology highlights the work of Lombroso (1876) cited in Wickert (2019), which emphasised that offenders were atavistic, and people act in a criminal manner due to the various internal factors driving them. However, not all positivistic approaches are limited to biological factors. Positivistic approaches to criminality focus on changing the offender's biological, psychological, and environmental factors (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). Positivism recommends expert intervention by identifying the cause of a crime and removing it (Bonta, 2007). Hence, if offending relates to a biological factor in biological positivism, little can be done to assist the offender and enhance the rehabilitation process.

The history of offender rehabilitation was parallel to the development of positivist criminology (Robinson and Crow, 2009). Uncontrolled factors within the offender environment resulted in offending behaviour. Positivism was dominant in countries such as Britain and the United States of America (Hollin, 2004). Positivist criminology and the treatment model demonstrated that once the cause and cure were found, this would relieve society of crime. This was referred to as the rehabilitative ideal cited in Allen (1959). The neo-classic perspective of offending

behaviour brought about a decline in positivist criminology. The neo-classic view depicted that the offender has rational free choices. The neo-classic view has been linked to rehabilitative optimism.

2.4.1 Rehabilitation and diversion of offenders to community corrections

Rehabilitative help is not limited to the criminal justice system. If offenders are detected early in criminal behaviour, they can be referred to a criminal justice agency and receive treatment voluntarily. Diversion schemes have existed since the 1970s. There are different instances in which diversions are implemented (Robinson and Crow, 2009). When an offender is a juvenile or mentally unstable, these cases are referred to an agency rather than entering the criminal justice or being prosecuted. The labelling theory emphasises the impact that the stigma of criminality can have on a youth offender. Therefore, the juvenile offender is diverted to a community correctional service centre or agency. To avoid the criminal justice system, offenders may experience diversion at the level of courts (Veldhuis, 2012).

2.4.2 Rehabilitative punishment

The sentencing by courts is a deciding factor of the rehabilitation process, which the offender must undergo. These decisions are guided by conceptualism and retributivism philosophies. Rehabilitation is one of three consequentialist strategies, all of which aim to reduce crimes. Consequentialism justifies punishment concerning its future consequence (Robinson and Crow, 2009). Incapacitation seeks to prevent reoffending. This is operationalised by removing the offender from society. The last strategy is known as deterrence. This ensures that punishment given to the offender is undesirable. According to Cavadino and Dignan (2007), rehabilitation aims to improve the offender's character and behaviour to decrease the chances of offending in the future.

Retributivism is based on the understanding that an offender should be punished because they deserve the punishment based on the crime, they would have committed. Punishment fits the crime within the philosophy of retributivism (Cavadino and Dignan, 2007). For some theorists, rehabilitation is an antidote to post punishment. For example, an offender undergoes discipline that fits their crime. However, if there is any damage or injury during the sentence, rehabilitation should suffice as a treatment to rectify such.

Regardless of post punishment consequences, rehabilitation is a norm for long- and short-term offenders. Long term offenders are subject to supervision by a parole office post-release, ensuring that the offender can reintegrate back into society (Veldhuis, 2012). Similarly, short term offenders have access to helpful tools to ensure subsequent re-entry into the community. This process is symbolic as it emphasises that offenders return to being ordinary law-abiding citizens.

2.4.3 Rehabilitative approaches

Globally, the approaches to rehabilitation differs. Different correctional services share different understandings of rehabilitation. Despite the differences, rehabilitative approaches aim to answer questions, to understand the different methods that work under different conditions, and explore the rehabilitative and reintegrative methods that are effective (Pruin, 2016). These approaches seek to uncover means to rehabilitate an offender, ensuring reintegration back into society successively. The “what works approach”, gathers information from meta-analysis and literature reviews to uncover effective methods of rehabilitation. There are various factors that determine the successful outcome of rehabilitation such as the standard of treatment for offenders, and assessment and evaluation methods that are used (MacKenzie, 2014). According to Laub and Sampson (2003), the desistance approach emphasises that a positive change in the offender’s behaviour can result in their rehabilitation. This includes the adaption to society, increase in positive social bonds and the view that once an offender is rehabilitated, he/she is a citizen of society, rather than an ex-offender.

According to Rupande and Ndoro (2014), the social learning theory is a process of cognitive learning through observation. To ensure successful behavioural changes and reintegration, observational learning must occur (Murhula and Singh, 2019). The cognitive model of offender rehabilitation was proposed by Ross and Fabiano (1985), and emphasises, that offenders have cognitive deficits. The theory states that re-offending is a result of a lack of cognitive skills within the offender, rather than ineffective rehabilitative programmes (Crewe and Bennett, 2012).

The social labelling theory in criminology states that the way that people view the labels given to them by society is influential to the way in which they behave. According to Day et al. (2011), the labelling theory is a sociological approach to uncover crime and deviance, and it refers to the way people are stereotypically classified by others. The cognitive model of

offender rehabilitation sees recidivism as the result of the effect of the labels that society places on offenders (McNeil, 2012).

Whilst both theories relate to cognitive behaviours, the social learning theory emphasises that criminal behaviour is learned, in comparison to the social labelling theory which maintains criminal careers stem from negative labels.

The restorative justice approach allows the victim and offender the opportunity to come together and reconcile. Often, this approach is successful if the offender is willing to change and the social system around the offender is supportive of this change (Wilkinson, 2010). The goal of the risk needs responsivity model, and the good life model is to provide the offender with internal and external resources to achieve their goals and maintain a sustainable lifestyle (Laws and Ward, 2011).

2.4.3.1 Rehabilitative approaches: United States of America, United Kingdom and the Netherlands

Influential countries such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands use the “what works approach” (Craig, Dixon, and Gannon, 2013). Meta-analysis and literature reviews were used decipher the effective rehabilitation programmes from the non-effective ones (MacKenzie, 2014). The reduction in reoffending rates is used to identify effective programmes. The effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes is evaluated by seeking to understand why specific programmes are more effective for some offenders whilst proving non-effective for other offenders. The evaluations show that the programmes' effectiveness depends on offender-related factors, the standard of treatment, and the evaluation methods used within the correctional service centre. Such a conclusion indicates that a blanket approach will be ineffective when treating offenders.

MacKenzie (2014) conducted a study based on the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes and reducing the risk of recidivism in the United States. This study demonstrated that re-offending was reduced by using cognitive behavioural therapy and vocational programmes in correctional service centres. Such programmes aimed to teach offenders employability skills and treat offenders that were abused or sexually exploited. The study also showed that the advancement of labour skills assisted offenders in the reintegration process and offered therapy during incarceration and the post-release phase.

According to Seiter and Kadela (2003), effective programmes included vocational training programmes, work release programmes at the end of a sentence, community-based halfway houses that prepare the offender for life after their release, and some substance abuse treatment programmes that significantly focus on aftercare. Preparing the offender for the post-release phase is critical. According to Ndrecka (2017), therapeutic communities that originate in correctional service centres and continue post-release can increase the chances of rehabilitation and reintegration. Such programmes share a higher impact on high-risk offenders rather than low or moderate offenders. A contributing factor to rehabilitation is the length of the programme. Ndrecka (2017) states that programmes with a duration of 13 weeks or longer show a higher effect on rehabilitation. Programmes with individual treatment also offer a more significant impact on offenders (Ndrecka, 2017). The “what works” approach is based on a limited number of studies (Craig, Dixon, and Gannon, 2013). It is challenging to conduct such analysis due to the importance of a control group within a study (Seiter and Kadela, 2003). A control group is unethical to attain, as this results in the unequal treatment of offenders.

2.4.4 The desistance approach to offender rehabilitation

The desistance approach demonstrates that a change of attitude can put an end to a criminal career. Changes in the philosophy of an offender can be catalysed by external factors such as the improvement of social bonds and the improvement of their perspective of life as a citizen rather than an offender (Laub and Sampson, 2003).

For an individual to change, there needs to be preparation and motivation to access these emotional bonds or “human agency cognitively” (Harper, 2007:204). According to Paternoster (2015), this includes four essential elements namely intention, forethought, reflexivity, and power. Intention refers to having a deliberate purpose, forethought is a concept of planning and preparing future goals, reflexivity refers to the offender's ability to self-monitor, and power relates to self-efficiency (Paternoster, 2015). For an offender to abandon the path of crime, there needs to be a mental attitude change (Paternoster, 2015). The offender is required to have the will to change at the beginning of the rehabilitative process. The offender will also need to maintain this state of mind during rehabilitation and must maintain this state post-release (Giordano et al., 2002).

The criminogenic needs of the offender are essential (Bonta and Andrews, 2010). Therefore, individual support must be prioritised so that the offender can seek change. The support given

to the offender must be consistent within and outside of the correctional service centre, as this enhances the desistance process and strengthens the offender's character. The desistance theory emphasises the need for the offender to engage in a social life, which is imperative for their social integration of the offender (Petersilia, 2011). The goal of desistance theory is to ensure that offenders can reintegrate into society and function within their communities (McNeill, 2012). Desistance is described as a framework that evaluates offender treatment programmes rather than a theory on its own (Maruna, 2001).

2.4.5 Social learning approach to offender rehabilitation

The social learning approach is a cognitive process of learning, which takes place through socialisation, participant observation and the imitation of others' behaviour (Willison et al. 2011). The social learning theory by Albert Bandura consists of four critical processes that help determine if a new behaviour is developed (Rupande and Ngoro, 2014).

1. *Attention*: Attention is crucial. It is referred to as the degree to which we notice the behaviour. For behaviour to be imitated, it must attract us and have our attention.
2. *Retention*: Retention refers to how we remember observed behaviour. For behaviour modelling to take place, retention needs to take place. The observer is required to recognise a particular behaviour to repeat it.
3. *Reproduction*: This refers to the ability to repeat the behaviour that was observed. Our ability to perform a behaviour is essential. In many cases, you may remember a behaviour, but we are limited to performing or reproducing a behaviour due to the lack of ability.
4. *Motivation*: This refers to the need to repeat the behaviour. This is referred to as vicarious reinforcement. Hence, a person is more likely to engage in behaviour by observing another individual. Learning takes place through observation of others rather than a direct experience.

Apart from observing behaviour, rewards and punishment are also kept. The repetition of behaviour is dependent on the rewards or punishment of an action. For example, if the observer finds that a behaviour's reward is greater than the punishment, there is a high chance of them repeating this behaviour (Astray-Caneda et al., 2017).

Offender rehabilitation is compassionate. For rehabilitation to occur within a correction service centre, behavioural changes are required to take place within the offender for successful

reintegration back into society. According to Astray-Caneda et al. (2017), the social learning theory, when combined with work release programmes, can positively impact the reduction of recidivism.

2.4.6 The cognitive model of offender rehabilitation

The cognitive model of offender rehabilitation emphasises that offenders experience cognitive deficits (Crewe and Bennett, 2012). According to Crewe and Bennett (2012), offenders have demonstrated more rigid styles of thinking. They are more impulsive; hence they fail to think before they act and show no concern for the consequences of their actions (Doob and Cesaroni, 2004). This model emphasises that a significant lack of cognitive skills causes recidivism. Therefore, it is imperative for rehabilitation programmes to focus on these offender deficits to improve the cognitive behaviour of the offenders.

2.4.7 Social labelling theory of offender rehabilitation

The social labelling theory conceives that the labels applied to the individual impacts on the behaviour of the individual in question (McNeil, 2012). For example, labels such as rebel or felon may promote deviant behaviour. The social labelling theory emphasises that prevention or reduction of labelling can reduce deviant behaviour. The cognitive model of offender-rehabilitation along with the labelling theory consider the cause of recidivism to be the effects of labels given to offenders by members of the society upon their release from correctional service centres, and not ineffective rehabilitative programmes (Bernburg, 2009). According to Cullen (2013), for rehabilitation to be effective support from policy makers is imperative, and criminologists should develop correctional science, which promotes treatment programmes to reduce recidivism.

2.4.8 Restorative justice approach to offender rehabilitation

Reconciliation between the victim, offender, and community is a holistic approach known as restorative justice. There are various techniques used to attain restorative justice. The techniques include victim-offender dialogue, family, and community re-unifications (Cullen, 2013). However, for maximum benefits, offenders are required to voluntarily opt for rehabilitative programmes. Hence, they must be committed to rehabilitating themselves. It is a shared societal responsibility to ensure that crime, security, and disorder are governed. Thus, offender re-integration is the responsibility of the social system, and it is not limited to

correctional service centres per se. Dissel (2012) emphasises that communities can support the re-integration of offenders by supporting offenders, accepting offenders, and identifying root causes of criminal behaviour. The reconciliation process allows for behaviour change. It provides a platform for the victim and offender to release the effects of the criminal incident.

The aim of restorative justice is to encourage personal change within the offender with the support and encouragement of the system and society (Coyle, 2009). Restorative justice can be explored as a rehabilitation method. The aim is to reconcile and prevent reoffending through rehabilitation policies (Gona, Mugari, and Maziti, 2014). However, in South Africa, the crimes committed are majority high rates of violent offences. In most cases, the family of the victims do not wish to engage with the offender. Whilst the process of reconciliation is cleansing for the offender, it is viewed as an unfruitful experience for the victim and family of the victims.

2.4.9 The risk needs responsivity model and the good life model of offender rehabilitation

The purpose of a rehabilitative theory is to identify the risk or cause of a crime, provide a strategy to manage the risk, engage with offenders and integrate the needs of the offender with the community (Ward and Maruna, 2007). The goal of rehabilitative approaches is to provide offenders with the internal and external resources to achieve their individual goals. Internal resources refer to attitude, beliefs, knowledge, and skills. External resources refer to social support, intimate relationships, education, training, and leisure (Ward and Maruna, 2007). To reduce the risk of reoffending, offenders must be equipped with values and resources that prevent offending. There are two theories implemented within corrective services to ensure that offenders attain the values and competencies that are required for reintegration (Robinson and Crow, 2009). These are the risk needs responsivity model that focuses on risk management, and the good lives model, which aims to enhance the offender's well-being.

2.4.9.1 The risk needs responsivity model of offender rehabilitation

The risk needs responsivity model is also referred to as the risk management approach to the offender. According to the risk management approach, offender risks can be observed through societal variables. The concept in the risk needs responsivity model is reducing the risk of the offender to re-offend as part of the rehabilitation process. The premise of this notion is that the level of rehabilitation should match the level of risk within the offender. Interventions must focus on the risk factors or criminogenic needs of the offender.

Criminogenic needs are referred to as factors that relate to offending (Ward and Maruna, 2007). These factors are assumed to be changeable and therefore require intervention. The risk need responsivity model believes that treatment should reduce risk factors. Risk factors include antisocial associates, antisocial personality, patterns such as impulsivity, aggression, pleasure-seeking, and pro-criminal attitudes (Robinson and Crow, 2009). Risk factors observed among sexual offenders include deviant sexual interest, intimacy defects and poor self-regulation skills. Low self-esteem and a history of victimisation are not identified as a risk factor, therefore receives little focus (Beyko and Wong, 2005; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2020). The responsivity principle informs how interventions should be delivered to offenders. Hence the cultural, psychological, cognitive behaviour of the offender should be matched to the intervention.

Cognitive behavioural interventions use the risk need responsivity model. These interventions are well structured, consist of qualified staff, and operate in environments that are supportive of the rehabilitation of the offender (Andrews and Dowden, 2007). Empirical support has proven successful for sexual offenders (Harrison et al., 2020; Dolan, 2009; Yates, 2013). The risk needs responsivity model states that the offender should first undergo an assessment for rehabilitative interventions to begin the rehabilitative process (Andrews and Bonta, 2007). The assessment process identifies issues or problems and is the starting point for deciding how to treat such matters. Assessments also identify positive aspects of an individual, which can positively assist with the process of rehabilitation (Casey, Day, Vess, and Ward, 2012).

2.4.9.1.1 Risk assessments of the offender within the risk need responsivity model

A risk assessment can be defined as a probability calculator of human behaviour or an event. This includes the frequency or impact of behaviour or event (Kemshall, 1998). To prevent future offending, a risk assessment must be conducted. The dimensions of a risk assessment include;

1. The risk of harm
2. The risk of offending
3. Likely victims of the offender
4. Risks the offender poses to himself
5. The risk that the offender poses to the public at large

The “risk principle” stems from Canadian research that emphasises that programmes are required to suit the needs of high-risk offenders and provide counterproductive programmes to low-risk offenders (Kemshall, 1998). Hence, the level of interventions provided to offenders should align with the level of risk of the offender. Risk assessments should be a routine exercise to ensure adequate rehabilitation.

2.4.9.1.2 Needs assessments of the offender within the risk need responsivity model

There are significant differences between criminogenic needs and non-criminogenic needs, both of which are important for effective rehabilitation (Craig, Dixon, and Gannon, 2016). Previously, penal officers and probation officers would conduct assessments based on the clinical approach (Ward and Maruna, 2007). However, this approach was criticised due to the lack of consistency and accuracy when implemented by practitioners. The disadvantage of the clinical practice is that the report relies mainly on the discretion and interpretation of the assessment practitioner. The assessment of criminogenic needs also assesses the risk of reoffending. According to Robinson and Crow (2009), positive action towards one criminal condition lowers the risk of reoffending behaviour. These criminogenic needs that could articulate positive change include accommodation, employment, drug or alcohol abuse or attitudes (Andrews et al., 1990; Timko et al., 2018).

2.4.9.1.3 Assessing the responsivity of the offender

The principle of accessing responsivity can be described as styles and modes of service that are matched to the learning styles and abilities of the offender (Andrews et al., 1990). However, two factors affect the responsivity of the offender. These are identified as idiographic and nomenic factors. Idiographic factors refer to the intellectual functioning, self-esteem, and motivation of the offender, whilst nomenic elements refer to staff characteristics, therapeutic relationships, environmental support, and the content and the delivery of the programme. The challenge with the responsivity model is that not all offenders are voluntary participants or willing to change (Beyko and Wong, 2005). The levels of motivation among offenders defer. Some offenders may be eager to participate in interventions, whilst others fail to respond positively.

2.4.9.1.4 Limitations of the risk need responsivity model

The risk need responsivity model is limited to ensuring offenders' change during the rehabilitative process. According to Beyko and Wong (2005), the low completion rate for programmes demonstrates poor treatment engagement. According to Robinson and Crow (2009), the following factors contribute to the limitations of the risk need responsivity model:

1. *Time management*: Many offenders require psychological assistance. Due to the environment of corrections, only a limited time can be allocated for such services. Due to this limitation, there is a lack of attention given to offenders.
2. *Imposing programmes*: The programmes offered to offenders are not mutually discussed. They take a top-down approach, prescribed to the offender.
3. *Reintegration*: The risk need responsivity model fails to focus on the offenders' reintegration into society. Reintegration of offenders needs to be a welcoming concept and practice in the community. Effective rehabilitation requires a supportive environment.

2.4.9.2 The good lives model of offender rehabilitation

The good lives model aims to assist offenders with internal and external resources, allowing them the opportunity to live offence free lives (Linley and Joseph, 2004; Mallion, 2021). The model demonstrates aspects of positive psychology as it promotes positivity, offenders' well-being and shares a positive orientation to treatment (Siegert et al., 2007).

The good lives model serves as an alternative approach to the risk need responsivity model. It consists of ethical, metaphysical, epistemological, methodological, aetiological and treatment assumptions to guide practitioners (Ward and Maruna, 2007). The good lives model has been extensively practised on sexual offenders (Landman, 2009). The attention to detail on assessments and interventions focus on the needs of the sexual offender. The model has been widely credited for motivating offenders, the therapeutic focus, and increase in desistance from offending, and agency concerns (Whitehead, Ward, and Collie, 2007). The good lives model is flexible, it is adaptive to both violent and non-violent offenders, and offenders with disabilities (Landman, 2009).

The good lives model focuses on ensuring that offenders are deterred from offending by developing and implementing life plans and achievable goals (Andrews and Bonta, 2010). For

one to achieve these goals and make changes internally and externally, there needs to be complete harmony between the body, mind, and environment (Clark, 2008). The attainment of essential needs is a priority in South Africa. To ensure effective rehabilitation, we need to ensure that offenders are able to access basic needs post-release independently to avoid recidivism.

To avoid feeling vulnerable, human agents are required to ensure that threats to physical integrity are managed effectively. To attain physical integrity, resources such as food, water, clean environments, freedom from physical danger are required to reach the good lives model (Deci and Ryan, 2000). To purchase such resources, human agents must be employable and skilled.

The second assumption of the good lives model is that officials effectively run it due to the constant human need to help others and assist them in reaching attainable goals (Clark, 2008). The resources of human agents extend to both internal and external elements when conducting cognitive tasks (Siegert et al., 2007). The cognitive plasticity of humans enables people to use mental resources to attend to challenges such as problem-solving. However, in regard to offender rehabilitation, the difficulty may be that offenders tend to absorb anti-social behaviour patterns due to their environment within correctional service centres.

2.4.9.2.1 Primary human goods to reach the good lives model

According to Deci and Ryan (2000), for human agents to meet self-satisfaction and function effectively, basic human needs must be completed. Primary human goods refer to physical health, relatedness, creativity, and mastery (Deci and Ryan, 2000). These are the goals that human agents wish to attain to increase their psychological well-being. According to the good lives model, offenders are human agents who seek to acquire primary goods but use destructive methods (Ward and Maruna, 2007). Direct goods are knowledge, excellence in play and work, autonomy, inner peace, relatedness, community, spirituality, happiness, and creativity (Siegert et al., 2007). If offenders are able to attain these primary goods, they are able to increase their self-efficacy, which will prevent re-offending behaviour. Research conducted by Andrew and Bonta (2010) found that the lifestyle attributes of an offender lead to criminal behaviour. These are known as risk factors, which contribute to criminal behaviour. By assessing the risk factors of an offender, practitioners are able to observe the risk of one re-offending (Lewis, 2014). According to Robinson and Crow (2009), intervention in respect to one's criminogenic needs

or risk factors can prevent re-offending behaviour. Methods of intervention include the prioritisation of primary human goods such as knowledge, excellence in play and work, autonomy, inner peace, relatedness, community, spirituality, happiness, and creativity (Siegert et al., 2007).

2.4.9.2.2 Values and practical identities of offenders

The identity of a human agent stems from their commitments (Korsgaard, 1996). A person can take over different identities such as parents, doctors, and students, however, this adds pressure on their life (Ward and Maruna, 2007). Therefore, correctional officials need to identify the primary goods of offenders and how they fit into the offender's life. Offences are committed due to the gap between the offender's desires and how the offender fulfils their desires (Korsgaard, 2009). Violations result from incorrect judgements due to the lack of thought, knowledge, and fear for the consequences of an action (Siegert et al., 2007).

2.4.9.2.3 Goods versus risks of offender re-integration

The stance of the good lives model demonstrates that offenders' interventions should promote better lives for offenders and reduce risk to communities in which they reintegrate. Correctional re-integration can be summarised as a process of helping offenders to attain essential primary goods and maintaining these goods without causing harm to societies (Siegert et al., 2007). Interventions provided to offenders are required to attain the confidence and skills, which allow them to attain basic human needs which in turn can better their lives. Attainment of these primary needs offers the offender a place in society, which prevents deviant, criminal behaviour. The attainment of such goods reduces the risk of vulnerability and exposure to criminogenic risks that reduce re-offending. The greater the positive fulfilment of the offender, the higher the likelihood of an effective re-integration into society. Consequently, the risk of re-offending is reduced (Ward and Maruna, 2007).

2.4.9.2.4 Ecological stance of the offender

The survival of human agents in a habitual environment is highly reliant on such needs as biological, social, cultural, and psychological systems, which are interdependent. Adopting an ecological model is significant for human survival as it functions as a system that includes emotional support, material resources, and education. The process of offender rehabilitation requires the emotional support from families and officials within the correctional centre upon

entering a correctional centre, during the incarceration period and should extend post-release to ensure successful re-integration within society.

According to the good lives model, the behaviour of offenders is dependent on their appreciation of their environment, therefore it is required that assessments such as interventions match offender characteristics and functional domains such as the offender's personal interests, abilities, and aspirations. The good lives model aims to maintain the offender's needs, to ensure the conditions are secure, and that resources are provided to the offender (Siegrét et al., 2007).

2.4.9.2.5 The nature of risk within offenders

Dynamic risk factors such as low self-control, impulsiveness, anger or aggressiveness are significant in the situational environment of the offender (Denny, 2005). When conducting assessments, the challenge is that once an offender is classified as a risk, it is difficult to change this assessment, and the offender becomes an essential risk bearer (Vess, 2009). The nature of risk can be developed in the correctional service centre environment; correctional service centres isolate offenders, resulting in reintegration into society becoming a challenge for the offender post release (Robinson and Crow, 2009).

2.4.9.2.6 The nature of intervention required for offenders

According to the good lives model, an intervention should consider the factors within the offender's possession, such as the individual's strengths, primary goods, relevant environments, and the requirements to achieve and attain such goods (Ward and Maruna, 2007). Individuals require the capacity to make decisions on their own and show self-acceptance of their circumstances. An offender's daily routine should incorporate critical aspects such as education, work, training, and relationships to achieve primary goods (Denny, 2005). Interventions provided to offenders are required to be reasonable for offenders to maintain post-release. This helps to increase the effectiveness of the rehabilitative programme.

2.4.9.2.7 Aetiological assumptions of the good lives model

The good lives model guides correctional officers on the cause of anti-social behaviour. Offending behaviour results from issues related to human functioning such as emotional regulation difficulties, social difficulties, offence support beliefs and problem-solving challenges (Andrews et al., 2010).

The good lives model is beneficial to practitioners as it assists to identify the thoughts and motivation of the offender when committing an offence (Koorsgard, 2009). The identification of the cause is helpful to undertake treatment and discover fewer criminal methods of attaining or securing needs. The good lives model addresses previously failed attempts to achieve goals, it observes the consequences and assists the individual to understand the problems experienced by deviant motivation (Siegert et al., 2007).

According to the good lives model, there are two aspects of offending. These are direct offending and indirect offending (Ward and Maruna, 2007). Direct offending is a phenomenon whereby the offender seeks criminality to attain goods (Andrews et al., 2010). For example, the individual may lack the opportunity to achieve intimacy from a relationship or environment, therefore the individual resorts to crime to satisfy the need for intimacy. The indirect occurrence is a combination of personal circumstances, and additional factors such as alcohol or drugs, which increase the urge to offend or cause reckless behaviour (Emmons, 1999). For example, an individual that experiences a break-up, which results in emotional challenges and resorts to the use of drugs and alcohol to deal with these emotions, this, in turn, increases the risk of offending. The conflict experienced causes the individual to act “out of character”.

During the process of attaining goods, the individual is faced with internal and external dimensions. The lack of skills to reach goods refers to the internal dimensions, whilst the lack of environmental opportunities, resources and support refer to external dimensions (Beyko and Wong, 2005). Humans are viewed as goal-seeking individuals that utilise strategies to secure essential goods. The absence of conditions to attain these goods leads to frustration and concludes criminality (Andrews et al., 2010).

2.4.9.2.8 The good lives model: Implications of practice

The good lives model focuses on building a better life for the offenders, rather than treating the offender as a risk within the environment. The intervention focuses on the identity of the offender and their values. The plan integrates resources and community support to assist the process of integration of the offender (Robinson and Crow, 2009).

There are five phases of the good lives model. The first phase is the identification of factors implicated in the offending, including social, psychological and materials and commits to analysing the level of risk of the offender (Maruna, 2001). The practitioner is required to gather

information from the past of the offender, and observe factors such as living conditions, physical and social problems, psychological capabilities, poverty, substance use and impulsive or aggressive behaviour (Siegert et al., 2007). The second phase is the purpose of offending. The practitioner examines primary goods that can be linked to the deviance of the offender.

Phase three of the good lives model is the development of a focus plan, which integrates the identity, goods, and values relative to the offender (Andrews et al., 2010). The effective intervention consists of the uniqueness of the offender, goals, strategies, and practices. In summary, phase three is the identification of goods and creating means to attain these goods. Phase four of the good lives model focuses on methods or resources that must be acquired for the primary goods to be sustained effectively (Burnett, 2002). The practitioner must identify the environment that the offender will reside in, and the resources necessary to maintain the intervention plan (Veldhuis, 2012). Phase five concludes the intervention plan. The plan includes:

- Internal and external conditions
- Core values and practical identities of offenders
- Detailed tasks for correctional officers
- Primary goods, secondary goods and environments
- Capabilities and competencies to apply the plan

The offender is consulted on the plan and checked on to ensure that effective implementation occurs consistently.

2.5 The Nelson Mandela rules for the treatment of offenders

In 2015, the Nelson Mandela Rules for the treatment of offenders was adopted by the General Assembly (UNODC, 2016). This document serves as a global benchmark for the treatment of offenders. It consists of 122 rules, which emphasise the importance and requirements for the fundamental human rights of offenders (UNODC, 2016). Most importantly, the Nelson Mandela Rules focus on respect, human dignity, non-discrimination, rights for offenders with disabled needs, the importance of healthcare, the role of staff, protection standards such as corporal punishment, access to legal aid and the removal of outdated terminology from the previous United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice -the Standard minimum rules for the treatment of offenders (UNODC, 2016).

The Nelson Mandela Rules sets the standard for the welfare of offenders, rehabilitation, and re-integration. The rules are divided into two subsections. The first addresses basic principles of detention, offender file management, separation of offenders, accommodation standards, personal hygiene, clothing and bedding, food, exercise, sport, health care, use of restrictions, discipline, sanctions, instruments of restraint, searches of cells, information and complaints to officers, external contact, access to books, religious services, retention of offenders property, notifications investigations, removal of offenders, rules regarding inspections (United Nations Prison Support Recommendations, 2009). The second subsection focuses on the rules for the 5 different categories of offenders.

- Inmates under sentence
- Inmates with disabilities or health conditions
- Under arrest or awaiting trial inmates
- Civil inmates
- Persons arrested or detained without charge

The dimension of the Nelson Mandela Rules focuses on the welfare, rehabilitation, and reintegration of offenders into society.

2.6 The importance of policies within correctional services and rehabilitation of offenders

A policy serves as a guideline to an institution and can be defined as an action plan or strategy to address or guide a problem (Anderson, 2013). Rehabilitative policies are focused on the rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders into society (Kilpatrick, 2009). The community and stakeholders also contribute to ensuring a safer community and lower the rates of recidivism. The implementation of policy is dependent on the financial support, community support and legislative support from stakeholders and the criminal justice system (Cullen et al., 2020).

The development of policy involves the assessment of the problem, the individual and the policy. When the government develops policies, the implications must be consistently assessed as re-evaluation needs to ensure that best practice is maintained (Muzondo, 2012). Several factors influence the implementation of effective rehabilitative policies such as economic, individual, research findings, technological advancements, and political influences (Anderson, 2013). Successful policy implementation requires transparency among policymakers and parties included. The policy must be informative, and staff should be well-educated on changes

in the processes within the policy. Effective rehabilitation is a combination of rehabilitative strategies that result in the re-integration of offenders into society; providing them with the assistance and support to become non-deviant citizens of the community (Fili, 2013).

The focus of rehabilitation should be based on the offender as an individual, the offender's criminal behaviour, the background of the offender, and the needs of the offenders. This information will guide successful rehabilitation into society (Kilpatrick, 2009). Correctional reports demonstrate that a significant factor of effective rehabilitation includes the offender's engagement in the rehabilitative process. Offenders that wish to participate actively are more successful in the rehabilitative process.

The diversity among offenders and offender crimes are vast (Bjornstrom, 2010). However, effective interventions are in place to aid the needs of the offender. The literacy, numeracy, life skills and psychological well-being of the offender is addressed. The most common interventions identified by Cullen (2013) are;

- *Needs Assessments*: The purpose of a need's assessment is to identify the offender's needs and demonstrate helpful interventions for the offender.
- *Academic Assessment*: The use of an academic assessment is to assess the educational needs of the offender and demonstrate skills that are offered both for mental and social issues.
- *Behavioural Programmes*: These refer to skills programmes that are offered to challenge the offending behaviour, and to mitigate offender related risks.
- *Vocational Programmes*: These refer to skill programmes that can increase the number of job opportunities for the offender.
- *Work*: This refers to work within the correctional services centre that prepare offenders for the social environment externally.
- *Re-integration*: Assists the offender with the aid of finding social or family support employment post-release.

There are many contextual interventions. However, there are limitations to such interventions. Not all countries will be socio-culturally adaptive or financially prepared to implement programmes effectively (UNODC, 2016).

2.7 The state of correctional centres: A focus on Norway and Australia

According to the World Prison Brief (2021), San Marino holds the record for the world's lowest correctional centre population, with a population rate of 0%. On the other hand, the United States of America has the highest correctional centre population rate of 639 per 100 000 of the national population (World Prison Brief, 2021). South Africa is ranked 42nd with a correctional centre population rate of 248 per 100 000 of the national population.

Hong Kong, China, is ranked first for housing the highest percentage of female offenders. Females make up 20.1% of the correctional centre population. The Federal State of Micronesia holds the lowest rate of female offenders, 0% of the correctional centre population. South Africa is ranked 177th, with female offenders making up 2.6% of the correctional centre population (World Prison Brief, 2021).

2.7.1 The world's best correctional centre: Norway

Apart from the correctional centre population of Norway being consistently low, the rate of recidivism is also low. The most common crimes reported within the country are theft-related, drug trafficking and gangs (Johnsen et al., 2011). The success of the country's system relies on restorative justice (Johnsen et al., 2011). The system prioritises rehabilitation of offenders rather than punishment of offenders—the sentence in Norway refers to removing one's freedom. Correctional centres are reasonably normal. A standard correctional centre consists of no bars, no cells, sharp objects, open, friendly communication between the guards and the offenders. The rehabilitation process prepares offenders for post-release offerings with vocational programmes such as woodworking, assembly workshops and recording studios. The Norway correctional centre system is described as a liberal environment. The comfort of the system ensures offenders are rehabilitated rather than angry post-release (Norwegian Correctional Services, 2020). The Norwegian system of corrections, allows the offender to reflect on their crime, and understand that they have been rehabilitated adequately, as compared to offenders who fail to reflect, and are angry at the correctional system and society post-release. The duration of sentences is limited to 21 years within the Norway correctional centre system, however, if rehabilitation is deemed unsuccessful, judges and courts may increase a sentence (Cameron, 2020).

According to the United States Department of Justice (2021), the stricter the facility of corrections, the more significant the change of offender recidivism. Centres which incorporate

social learning and cognitive behavioural programmes are more successful in reducing reoffending behaviour (The United States Department of Justice, 2021). According to Cameron (2020), a correctional centre should attain the following goals:

1. Retribution
2. Incapacitation
3. Deterrence
4. Restoration and
5. Rehabilitation

2.7.2 The state of imprisonment in Australia

The Australian correctional centre system focuses on the punishment of offenders. However, this has resulted in offenders serving longer sentences, left communities unsafe and added strain to the government budget (The Prison Insider, 2020). The increase in offender sentencing is related to high rates of reoffending. According to Cameron (2020), the return of offenders that have not been rehabilitated leads to unsafe environments and re-offending.

Psychologists argue that short term behavioural changes require specific conditions. For example, the Australian correctional centre system promotes punishment. However, the intensity of the punishment is required to be equivalent to the crime committed by the offender. This is an unfair approach, as it contradicts the justice system (Government of South Australia, 2020). Many offenders show no remorse or emotions, hence for these offenders, punishment or the consequences of their actions have no impact on their conscience and will not affect the offender or the corrections system (Government of Australia, 2020). Delayed punishment leaves room for the development of other criminal behaviours. Due to the court processes, in many cases, the sentencing or punishment of the offender may be delayed (Government of South Australia, 2020).

2.7.2.1 The effective rehabilitation of offenders in Australia

According to White (1976), effective punishment follows policies and programmes that focus on rehabilitating the offender. As a result, rehabilitation will have a greater chance of success in crime prevention and the promotion of safer communities. In Australia, rehabilitation was a system that stemmed from Alexander Maconochie, who was a correctional centre governor in 1840 (Government of Australia, 2020). He promoted the idea of indeterminate rather than fixed

sentences. Maconochie's ideas were developed by the most significant social reformers of the 18th century, John Howard and Elizabeth Fry (White, 1976). These reformers were among the first to transform "institutions of despair and cruel punishment" into a humane environment, which could reform offenders (Day, 2015). The system of rehabilitation that Maconochie developed granted offenders with good behaviour an early release opportunity. Maconochie advocated an approach of aftercare and ensured community resettlement for offenders (Government of South Australia, 2020).

In the 21st century, offender rehabilitation is thought of as a psychological treatment for offenders. Current programmes share psychodynamic psychotherapy, behaviour modification, behaviour therapy, cognitive behavioural and cognitive approaches that depict contemporary practice (Government of South Australia, 2020; Heseltine, Day, and Sarre, 2009). Delinquent behaviour was seen as a failure of psychological development. The cause of the crime could address the offender or deviant behaviour. Therefore, therapy such as group counselling and psychodrama was developed.

The advances in Australian practice are evident in the community-style therapeutic programmes conducted for offenders with substance abuse problems (Government of South Australia, 2020). The programmes are known to monitor offenders' day to day socialisation. These programmes emphasise the need for offenders to take responsibility for their behaviour and active environments (Government of Australia, 2020; Day, 2020).

Rehabilitation focuses on a cognitive approach; this decreases trait that supports criminal conduct (Anderson, 2013). Thinking for change is a 44-hour cognitive based rehabilitation programme which aims to transform personality traits such as hostility, low self-control, lack of empathy or thrill-seeking behaviour. The cognitive rehabilitative approach has proven successive as there are significant reductions in re-offending and effective functional policy. The challenge of correctional centres depends on the functionality of the policy framework. Many countries demonstrate successive policies to ensure successful rehabilitation (Government of South Australia, 2020; Heseltine, Day, and Sarre, 2009). However, they fail to ensure effective implementation.

There must be no engagement between low and high-risk offenders. Contact between the different groups sparks the opportunity for re-offending behaviour (Viglione and Taxman, 2018). In addition, the influence of high-risk offenders on low-risk offenders can negatively

impact the case management system, correctional centre functionality, and the courts. The courts must play a sincere role in ensuring that correctional centres are reserved for high-risk offenders (Muntingh, 2017). The low-risk offenders should be diverted to community corrections or house arrest programmes. Thus, the introduction of cultural-specific programmes also plays a vital role in the process of corrections (Government of South Australia, 2020). Cultural programmes should be more innovative and understandable for offenders to find adaptable.

One of the significant factors of rehabilitation is the support and training of correctional centre officials. Therefore, the officials at a correctional centre should be efficiently trained to offer quality rehabilitation to the most dangerous offenders (Government of South Australia, 2020; Heseltine, Day, and Sarre, 2009). The programmes offered should be aimed at making offenders better. Programmes should be reviewed and evaluated regularly to observe the impact they have on offenders (Government of South Australia, 2020; Day, 2020).

2.8 Rehabilitation of offenders within the African Continent

Offender rehabilitation within the African continent is ineffective, offenders view themselves as labourers, which impacts their reintegration back into society (Ngozwana, 2017). Countries within the African continent, face the similar challenges such as limited human resources and training, which prevents effective reintegration back into society (Dissel, 2008).

Correctional centres, in Swaziland offers Adult Basic Education and Training, to all offenders. Although, these programmes are accredited, research found that very few offenders participated, as these programmes are not compulsory (Ngozwana, 2017). According to Bruyns (2007), the offender attended programmes to meet the requirements of parole and pass time during the duration of the offenders sentence.

The education and skills development of offenders in Lesotho is a priority. According to Ngozwana (2016), Setoi (2012) and Tsepa (2014) skills programmes such as carpentry and joinery, stone cutting, building, welding, leatherwork, electrical installation, plumbing, plastering and brick making, upholstery and sewing are provided to male offenders additionally to the education curriculum. Female offenders are exposed to skills development such as sewing, grass weaving, crochet, cookery, recycling of tins, plastic and paper, hairdressing, housework and poultry. The priority of educations and skills is commendable in Lesotho,

however the major challenge is the shortage of skilled staff to provide services to offenders (Ngozwana, 2017).

2.9 Rehabilitation within the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa

Rehabilitation aims to ensure the successful rehabilitation of offenders, which contributes to safer communities (Murhula and Singh, 2019). Offenders are required to undergo the rehabilitation process to prevent re-offending when they are released (Department of Correctional Services, 2020).

According to the Department of Correctional Services Annual Performance Plan (2020), Programme 3 refers to the rehabilitation of offenders. The purpose of this programme is to provide offenders with needs-based programmes and interventions to facilitate their rehabilitation and enhance their rehabilitation back into their society (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Table 2.1 below demonstrates the rehabilitation process which occurs within the Department of Correctional Services. The programme is divided into two parts. The first division is correctional programmes, which focuses on the development of an offender. This includes the development of occupational training skills of an offender, educational programmes of an offender and the self-sufficiency of an offender. The second division is the psychological, social and spiritual programmes of an offender, which aims to develop the personal well-being of an offender.

Table 2.1: Interventions focused on Rehabilitation at the Department of Correctional Services

Programme 3: Rehabilitation	
Outcome 3: Increased access to needs-based rehabilitation programmes to enhance moral fibre	
Correctional Programmes	
Offender development	Correctional programmes

Occupational training skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occupational long skills programmes • Occupational short skills programmes • TVET programmes
Educational programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General education training • Further educational programmes • Grade 12, National Senior Certificate
Enhancement of self-sufficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manufacturing of Facial Masks and Face cloths for inmates
Psychological, social and spiritual programme	
Personal well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Work Services • Spiritual Care Services • Psychological Care Services

Source: (The Department of Correctional Services Annual Report 2019/2020)

The sphere of correctional services has transformed over years of evaluation and redress. Previously, the system primarily focused on removing offenders from society for the duration of their incarceration to currently rehabilitating offenders to prevent offenders from reoffending (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). Detaining offenders for the duration of their incarceration proved unsuccessful. As a result, offenders returned to the life of crime.

The current rehabilitation programmes are consistent. It focuses on the offender's needs from their incarceration until they are ready to integrate back into society. The rehabilitation programmes develop skills, education, psychological and spiritual wellbeing of the offender (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Correctional programmes offered to the offender are governed by Section 41 of the Correctional Services Act and paragraph 9.7 of the White Paper of Corrections (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). Correctional centres, are governed to ensure that the functions of each centre, and the treatment of each offender is effective and equal.

Correctional programmes offered to offenders are based on the offender's needs and the offending behaviour of the offender (Jonker, 2011). During the COVID-19 pandemic, programmes were offered to offenders based on the lockdown restrictions. In addition, programmes were provided based on the capacity, resources and COVID-19 landscape at the

specific correctional service centre (Department of Correctional Services, 2021; Ricciardelli et al., 2021).

The development of offender skills is an integral part of the rehabilitation process (Bruyns and Nieuwenhuizen, 2004). Skills development assists offenders so that they can become self-employed upon their release. The minimal criteria for an offender to participate in a programme is an NQF level one. Skills such as bricklaying, plastering and welding are offered to the female offenders by qualified officials. The support of DHET, SETA'S and TVET'S and the NSF are imperative for providing skills development and sustainable relationships (Department of Correctional Services, 2021; Ward, 2018).

The National Skills Fund and Sector Education Training Authorities provide funding for accredited skills development programmes to offenders. Salons in the Pollsmoor, Durban, Westville, Breederiver and Bizzah Makhate are registered training centres. This assists the skills development expansion within correctional services. In addition, this increases the employability opportunities of the offender post-release. Educational programmes are offered to offenders in the form of adult literacy (GET and FET). This assists in preparing offenders for work-life post-release. Academic programmes are offered to offenders that may not want to participate in vocational programmes. The Department of Correctional Services aims to increase the number of offenders that complete their National Senior Certificate. The certificate can assist offenders in finding employment. In the long term, this will improve the country's economic growth, reduce crime, and reduce income inequality in South Africa (Department of Correctional Services, 2021).

Offenders are educated about the importance of completing AET level 4 or grade 9, as this is the minimum requirement to enter skills programmes or FET programmes. Improving the literacy rates of offenders will increase the participation of offenders in skills programmes and other educational programmes. E-Learning is a process in development. This will increase the number of offenders that are recruited into the educational system (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Production workshops and agriculture are implemented to reduce expenditure. However, this depends on the investment in capital, infrastructure, machinery, and support from stakeholders. The advantage of such workshops is that they contribute to the development of offenders, skills utilisation, enhancement of work ethics, and the social behaviour of offenders. This will increase the work opportunities and the self-sufficiency of the offenders.

One of the department's initiatives is the manufacturing of face masks and face cloths for offenders (Department of Correctional Services, 2021).

Needs-based rehabilitation plays a vital role in the placement of offenders back into society after the offender's release. Consequently, the Department of Correctional Services plays an imperative role in the subsequent rehabilitation of offenders. The most crucial process is the assessment of the offenders. After the evaluation, offenders are informed of programmes available within correctional services that address the offender's criminogenic needs (Department of Correctional Services, 2021).

2.10 Policy documents that govern correctional services in South Africa

There are currently three policy documents that govern the treatment of female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa. These documents are the White Paper on Corrections, The White Paper on Families, and the Bangkok Rules.

2.10.1 The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa

The White Paper on Correctional Services emphasises corrections, development, security, care, facilities and aftercare regarding the rehabilitation and reintegration of female offenders. The White Paper is a binding document recognising female offenders as a vulnerable population within the correctional system. However, the document focuses mainly on the care of female offenders that are single mothers or pregnant within the system (The draft White Paper, 2005).

2.10.2 The White Paper on Families in South Africa

The White Paper on Families consists of the following goals that relate to the reintegration of female offenders (Department of Social Development Republic of South Africa, 2021).

1. Families play an essential role, with the offender's reintegration back into society
2. Families should also engage in the rehabilitative process with the female offender
3. The Department of Correctional Services needs to improve contact between families, offenders, and children
4. Department of Correctional Services must strengthen its relationship with other departments to involve families in rehabilitation and contact effectively.
5. Offenders must successfully reintegrate back in with the support and help of programmes addressing violence and preventing recidivism.

2.10.3 The Bangkok Rules

The Bangkok Rules focus on the needs of female offenders. It emphasises that care and attention must be provided to the children of female offenders within correctional service centres. The responsibilities of the mother must be fulfilled if the child is living within the correctional service centre. Female offenders must be allowed provisions for their children (United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, 2022).

The Bangkok Rules emphasises that the needs of female offenders should be met regarding:

1. Hygiene
2. Childcare
3. Gender-sensitive programming
4. Prior victimisation and trauma
5. Safety and security
6. Emotional well-being
7. Use of restraints
8. Contact with families
9. Juvenile female offenders
10. The use of gender-sensitive risk assessment and classification tools
11. Pregnant offenders
12. Mothers in correctional service centres with their children.

The policy shows a constructive framework in place to aid the rehabilitation and incarceration of female offenders. However, the resources to support the policy remains a significant challenge.

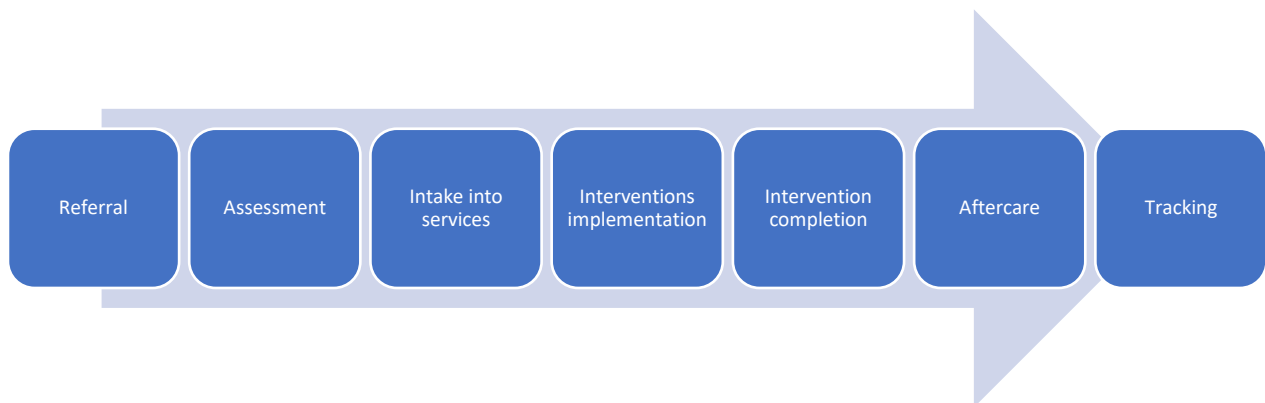
Mental health and social issues that are not addressed during incarceration will impact the parental relationship of the offender, which would have a generational effect. According to the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), a substantial amount of evidence proves the adverse effects of incarceration on children. This includes educational problems, behavioural problems, and an increased probability of conflicting with the law (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020).

2.11 National Institution of Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO)

The National Institute of Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO) was established in 1910. The role of NICRO is to monitor and evaluate statistics of offenders that have engaged with the law. The statistics used to assess the data analysed at NICRO stems from forms, assessment interviews, assessment reports, programme monitoring, evaluation, aftercare, and tracking female offenders (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020).

Diagram 2.1: Stages of NICRO services for offenders

The stages of NICRO service implementation are presented in the diagram below.



Source: (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020)

Diagram 2.1 above, emphasises the stages of the NICRO services offered to offenders. Offenders are referred to the centre. In the second stage, offenders undergo an assessment, which is critical to identify the needs of the offender. During the third stage, offenders are absorbed into services which meet their needs. The fourth stage implements interventions identified in stage three. The fifth stage, is the completion of interventions followed by the aftercare and tracking of offenders.

Offenders are taken through the system over some time. Therefore, there is a piece of probability information that may not be available for all offenders. According to a report by the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), the types of crimes that females commit or are incarcerated for are as follows: 44.80% of women

are incarcerated for economic crimes, 35.71% are incarcerated for aggressive crimes, 11.4 % are incarcerated for narcotics crimes, 6.84% are incarcerated for non-specified crimes, whilst 0.90% are incarcerated for sexual offences (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020).

2.11.1 Social reintegration of female offenders

Females have specific social reintegration needs that differ from that of male offenders. According to the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, (2020), the needs of female offenders are related to the trauma, which they have experienced such as:

Trauma victimisation or abuse: Many female offenders may have experienced a history of physical or sexual abuse.

Mental health: Female offenders have a greater rate of mental health issues than male offenders. These include depression, anxiety, and signs of self-harm.

Parental stress: Females that are mothers are usually the sole breadwinners within their families. They experience a more significant deal of stress and anxiety and can even offend to meet the demands of their families. Reoffending is typically linked to substance abuse, poverty, and a lack of social support.

The reintegration needs of female offenders also include family reunification, foster care support, financial support, safety, parental stress, and child family services. There are a limited number of programmes available within correctional service centres that can assist a female offender in meeting the needs of her reintegration (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020).

2.12 The history of female criminality

The historical explanation for female offending can be demonstrated by two primary schools of thought. The first emphasises psychological and physiological factors within female criminality, whilst the second school of thought explained that social and cultural factors can describe female crime (Dastile, 2011).

The work of Cesare Lombroso (1895), “the female offender”, was the first to uncover female criminality. Lombroso’s theory assumed that criminals could not evolve appropriately, which resulted in offenders being “atavistic”. This is Lombroso’s belief that criminals share the inability to evolve as non-criminals do. Lombroso viewed female offenders on a lower level of evolution as compared to their male counterparts. According to Lombroso (1895), female criminality was predicted by physical traits in female offenders such as larger cranial cavities, heavier jawbones, larger cheekbones, moles and hairiness (Dastile, 2011). These traits were seen as male characteristics, therefore when found in females, it was perceived as criminal traits.

William Isaac Thomas extended the work of Lombroso, by including psychological and social causes into Lombroso’s theory of the female offender. Thomas saw female offending as an effect of social circumstances. This was theorised as symbolic interactionism, a phenomenon where females were reduced to crime due to social disorganisation and injustice cited in Gora (1982). Female crimes include crimes such as shop lifting, theft, drug use. Due to the social system of female offenders, it was evident during this period that females lack the opportunity to commit more serious offences.

Sigmund Freud further viewed the socialisation of individuals as a predicting factor of criminality. He was able to establish a connection between psychological traits, biological characteristics and social structural factors of crime (Klein, 1976). Freud viewed the lack of positive socialisation as causing deviance. He also further coined the concept of “penis envy”, observing that the absence of a penis made females incomplete or inferior, leading them to commit crimes to be like their male counterparts (Gora, 1982).

The criminality of women by Otto Pollak viewed female criminality as a physiological phenomenon. Pollak connected the biological phases of the female offender such as menstruation, pregnancy, and menopause and defined them as vulnerabilities in the phases of a female’s life (Gora, 1982). However, these theories showed flaws, both in past and present times. As female offending would be relatively high as compared to male offending if such ideals were authentic. However, Pollak further explained that female criminality was undetectable due to their compassionate employment, such as nurses and maids. These professions were seen as nurturing, therefore concealing the criminality of female offenders.

According to feminist theorists, the increase in crime in the 1970s was linked to the entry of female offenders into the workforce (Klein, 1976).

2.13 Background of the female offender

Prior to an offence, the lifestyle of the female offender influenced the type of crimes she committed. There is extensive research which demonstrates that female offenders have been victims of violence (Bulman, 2017; Saxena and Messina, 2021; World Health Organization, 2021). According to Agboola (2016), violence is not the only common factor between the female offender and her incarceration. Most female offenders come from deprived backgrounds, have a history of drug abuse, have physical disorders, mental impairments and HIV and AIDS. The female experience is imperative. Francois and Booyens (2017), concluded that child abuse, racial discrimination, economic disadvantage, and intimate violence act as risk factors regarding the female's conflict with the law. According to a study by Booyens and Steyn (2017), only a small number of female offenders reported that they were permanently employed before their offence, whilst other female offenders said they were compelled to engage in drug distribution and sex work to support the demands of their families. The study also recorded that only 50% of female offenders completed secondary school grades. This could be one of the factors which affect the female offender.

2.14 The female offender pathway to correctional centres

There is a limited scope of research based on female offenders. The pathway to a correctional services centre is often criticised due to the low population of female offenders. It is argued that female offenders lack attention within the criminal justice system, due to the lack of gangs and violence within correctional service centres, the low rate of 3% of incarceration, or the stereotypical norm that women are the motherly heavenly images that should remain that way (World Prison Brief, 2021). The lack of attention projected on female offenders is traditionally depicted as masculine due to females' criminal behaviour. There is limited literature within South Africa based on female offenders.

According to Daly (1993), there are five distinct routes female offenders follow to felony court;

- Female offenders that have experienced abuse or neglect during their childhood acted out. The abuse of substances and psychological problems may give rise to aggressive crimes, such as assault and attempted murder.

- Crimes such as reckless endangerment, assault or manslaughter stem from females who have been in violent relationships. Terminating the violent relationship may even result in the female offenders' offence.
- Commercial sex workers and substance users come from an abusive environment, which they ran away from or were forced out during their childhood years. Therefore, the use of substances and engagement in sex work caters for the needs of the female.
- Females in selling or trading drugs usually do so due to their relationships with men or with family. Although there might be signs of other criminality, the primary offence is the distribution of substances.
- The criminality of females that do not have a history of abuse or substance use is motivated by greed and desire (Daly, 1993).

Brennann et al. (2010), mirrored the work of Daly (1993). The study by Brennann (2010), concluded that there are three common pathways of female offenders.

- *Ordinary woman*: These females present lower risk and are nonviolent. The crimes they committed are property crimes and drug-related crimes.
- *Marginalised woman*: These females experienced poverty and anti-drug subcultures.
- *Serious violent woman*: These females have been abused or neglected during their childhood. The addition of substance use and psychological issues lead to aggressive crimes.

The lack of education could also be a contributing factor to offending behaviour (Steyn and Booyens, 2019). According to a study conducted by Steyn and Booyens (2019), one of three female offenders, were unemployed before their incarceration. According to Agboola (2016), the unemployment rate of female offenders doubled post-release. This emphasises that employment is relatively complex post-incarceration. According to Steyn and Booyens (2019), the correlation between the female offender and family criminality is evident. In addition, offender groups are more likely to have family members arrested for a crime.

2.14.1 Types of crimes committed by female offenders

According to a report from the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), the most common crimes committed by female offenders include shoplifting, theft, attempted theft, assault, intent to commit grievous body harm, common assault, possession of narcotics, malicious damage to property and trespassing. Female

offenders mostly committed crimes of aggression (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020). They account for 70% of the child abuse cases referred to the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020). Female offenders constitute 22.07% of offenders that have committed assault with the intent to cause the body harm, 18.44% female offenders have committed offences related to domestic violence, 9.1% female offenders have committed murder or attempted murder, and 33.3% of female offenders have committed acts of public violence (National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020). Most females are sentenced for economic crimes. It must be noted that this behaviour stems from exclusion and marginalisation from society (Steyn and Booyens, 2019).

According to Van Dieten et al., (2020) the highest reports of violent offences committed by female offenders occur within the context of an intimate relationship. There are three types of intimate partner violent offenders that have been identified.

1. Self-defence
2. Bi-directional and mutual
3. Dominate or primary aggressor

The need for accurate offender assessment and individual intervention planning is imperative. The assessment of female offenders can also be an intensive task. There are assessment tools available. However, some have proven to indicate those female offenders are at a higher risk than they are. According to National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), South Africa should promote culturally sensitive tests at no cost to the criminal justice system.

Research conducted by Haffejee, Vetten, and Greyling (2011), proved a strong relationship between female offenders and prior experience of violence. The risk factors between male and female offenders were also delicate. For example, trauma, anger, parenting-related issues, and mental health were salient predictive factors found in female offenders (Haffejee et al., 2011; Saxena and Messina, 2021).

Females reported violence within intimate relationships; this included economic abuse, where females could not cater for the male partner and were therefore abused. Physical abuse, sexual abuse, severe threats, to the extent of the perpetrator killing himself or the victim and children.

Other forms of violence were the rare cases of men tying a woman up and pouring petrol over her, tying her to a moving car, or throwing her into an ice bath (Cilliers and Smit, 2007). The violent behaviour left many female offenders with severe injuries; over 70% of females did not report such incidences to the police (Francios and Booyens, 2017).

The research conducted within the three correctional service centres in Johannesburg concluded that female offenders convicted of murder or attempted murder were more likely to have experienced sexual violence in a past relationship (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). In addition, female offenders who have committed theft were more likely to have experienced economic abuse in a past relationship. The past experiences of female offenders' impact on the type of crime which she commits.

Females are offended, disempowered, and mistreated (Lancaster, 2021). Therefore, the act of crime is something that spontaneously occurs after accepting years and years of abuse. Female offenders also reported that correctional service centres are means of escaping the violence they endure within their environment (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Females commit crimes, to escape domestic abuse, or poverty. As they know that they are safe within correctional centres, their basic needs are met such as shelter, food and education (Agboola, 2016).

There were programmes that were suggested by the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), which will address such factors as general social functioning skills development, conflict management, anger management, trauma therapy, and cognitive behaviour therapy. According to the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (2020), culturally specific tests will prove beneficial to the South African population. The development of female offender statistics will also aid the growth and development of relevant programmes to assist female offenders. Further research is required to develop the most beneficial methods for female offenders, such as life skills and parenting skills. The quality of programmes offered to female offenders should also be monitored regularly to assess methods that work and methods that need improvement.

2.15 Interventions for the female offender

One of the effective interventions for the female offender is profiling. Profiling is an empirical method used to predict patterns of criminality. During the profiling process, factors considered

are the cause of the crimes, the nature of the crime, the offender's conviction record, the offender's social circumstances, general crime trends, factors promoting crime, and the offender's community (Francios and Booyens, 2017). The profile-based intervention seeks the positive acceptance of the offender. The offender needs to accept etiquette, social interactions and develop skills to reintegrate into society without becoming a deviant citizen (Beyko and Wong, 2005). Therefore, the process of profiling requires imperative information about the offender to deliver successful correctional interventions. The support of profiling emphasises the need for rehabilitation, which determines the history of the female offender and the risk factors that contribute to criminality. A sentencing plan is developed based on the quality of information gathered from the female offender. Thus, the programme is guided by the needs and risks of the female offender.

According to Haffejee, Vetten, and Greyling (2005), the pattern of risk factors suggest that the aid of counselling services and legal protection of females could prevent 78% of female offenders from committing the crime. According to Steyn and Booyens (2019), the Department of Correctional Services needs to consider a needs-based approach to rehabilitation to ensure that adequate rehabilitation is implemented. Most female offenders serving sentences are mothers. They tend to experience emotions of despair, frustration, and depression due to the separation from their children. It is recommended that women who experience these maternal emotions are aided with programmes that will strengthen the mother-child relationship (Steyn and Booyens, 2019).

According to Steyn and Booyens (2019), the Department of Correctional Services in collaboration with the Department of Education, has developed the opportunity for mothers incarcerated with infants to access childcare education and rehabilitation, strengthening the relationship between the mother and her child. Most female offenders completed grades 8-11 education. However, the low level of education will make it difficult for a female offender to find work post-release. Therefore, it is suggested that female offenders engage in activities that teach them skills that they can use to make a living outside of the correctional service centre environment and avoid the negative influences such as drugs, crime and peer-pressure. In addition, the criminal record of the female offender will hamper job opportunities (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Therefore, the female offender must be empowered through skills programmes such as nail technology, beading or relevant skills programmes to start her own business.

According to Steyn and Booysens (2019), most crimes committed by female offenders were economic crimes, shoplifting, fraud, and embezzlement due to social exclusion and poverty. Therefore, it is recommended that female offenders should receive adequate and equal vocational or skills training opportunities whilst serving their sentences. This will assist the female offender in finding employment post-incarceration. This employment is not limited to nail technology or beading (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). In addition, female offenders that commit economic crimes should attend programmes that focus on financial crimes. Such interventions will assist the female offender to gain the skills and knowledge to reform from criminal behaviour.

Programmes offered by the Department of Correctional Services fail to address the personal needs of female offenders (Steyn and Booysens, 2019). According to the Department of Correctional Services (2021), female offenders serving fewer than 24 months are not required to attend rehabilitation programmes. Instead, those with shorter sentences attend programmes such as anger management, restorative justice, and HIV programmes. Females with shorter sentences, fail to attend important programmes which can assist their pathway of rehabilitation. These include programmes which use cognitive models to effect behavioural changes within the offender.

The differences between male and female offenders demand different rehabilitation programmes. The profile of female offenders includes suppressed anger (Cilliers and Smit, 2007). Substance abuse for female offenders usually starts due to their emotions, whilst male offenders could start due to peer pressure or trending. Correctional service centres are the environments in which females can express their feelings much better, free of oppression and abuse.

2.16 Conclusion

This chapter began by defining rehabilitation. The literature review focused on the history of rehabilitation from a punishment perspective to the current rehabilitative approaches, which are currently implemented in South Africa. Thereafter, this researcher implemented a funnel approach to further explore rehabilitative approaches that are implemented across the globe. The Nelson Mandela Rules plays a vital role in the standard of correctional services systems around the world. Therefore, it was reviewed intensely in this chapter.

South Africa's rehabilitative stance is guided by the White Paper of Corrections, the White Paper for Families within Corrections, and the Bangkok Rules. To conclude the literature review, the chapter focused on the history of female offending, female offenders' pathway to correctional services centres, as well as the types of crimes female offenders commit, and the interventions that are available for female offenders within the ambit of the South African Department of Correctional Services.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed the feminist pathways approach, which rests on the premise that females offend due to a history of victimisation. The researcher explored the origins of feminism and the identity development of feminists. The feminist theories of crime and deviance were used to emphasise the changes in feminism over time (Effiong, 2020). This study further used Meda Chesney Lind's (2006), marginalisation theory which emphasises that female offenders come from the marginalised group of society. This theory was employed by the researcher because it is relevant to the statistics of crime in South Africa and the practical situations which females experience in South Africa. Agnew's strain theory (1992), further emphasises that an individual is involved in criminality when pressured by strain. The researcher further discussed Carlen's gender versus class deal (1988), which explains that a female is led to criminality when she is unable to attain either the gender or class deal, as she is left with no alternative option, and this in turn concurs with Agnew and Meda Chesney Lind's view. The researcher concluded this chapter by exploring Goffman's concept of the "total institution" (1957), which positions the experience of the female offender within a correctional service centre. Hence, the experience of correctional services makes it difficult for the female offender to re-integrate back into society.

3.2 Theoretical framework of female criminality

The feminist pathways approach stemmed from the school of criminology, which posits that females offend due to a life cycle of victimisation (Opsal and Foley, 2013). Hence, victimisation is a high-risk factor influencing female criminality.

In South Africa, the high rate of gender-based violence has been noted as a "pandemic" that requires corrective action. According to Haffejee et al., (2005), there is a strong relationship between female offending and prior experiences of victimisation involving sexual violence, physical abuse, and neglect. As Haffejee et al., (2005) observes, the only intervention that these victims of crimes have received from the criminal justice system is arrest or incarceration. Apart from victimisation, females also show salient predictive factors of criminality, such as trauma, anger, parenting-related issues, and mental health. Female offenders have also reported

that they have been forced into drug distribution and sex work due to the demands of their families (Steyn and Booyens, 2019). Hence, they endured victimisation in form of violence within intimate relationships, as well as economic abuse, whereby females were not catered for by the male partner. As Steyn and Booyens (2019) observes, females experience physical abuse, sexual abuse, and severe threats, to the extent that the perpetrator kills himself or the victim and kids.

Other forms of violence include rare cases in which men tie up their partners and pour petrol over them, or tie them onto a moving vehicle, or throw them into an ice bath (Steyn and Booyens, 2019). Such violent behaviour has left many female offenders with severe injuries, although over 70% of females did not report such incidences to the police (South African Police Service, 2021). The research conducted within the three correctional service centres in Johannesburg concluded that female offenders convicted of murder or attempted murder had most probably experienced sexual violence in a past relationship. In addition, female offenders who had committed theft had most probably experienced economic abuse in a past relationship (Department of Correctional Services, 2020).

The theory of marginalisation analyses the cause of female criminality within society. The theory emphasises that females that offend belong to the marginal group of society, such as low salary workers, lower class societies, or victimised females (Mohammed et al., 2014). As Meda Chesney Lind (2006), emphasises females that have been abused or tortured by their male counterparts result in female criminality and drug use. The theory of marginalisation is relevant to South African female offenders. According to Statistics South Africa (2020), half the adult population lives below the upper-bound poverty line. However, females experienced higher levels of poverty that is far below the poverty line.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, national lockdown statistics of gender-based violence in South Africa was transparent. Within 21 days of the national lockdown, the Gender-Based Violence and Femicide Command Centre recorded more than 120 000 victims. The statistics on gender-based violence in South Africa is five times the global average (Minisini, 2020). According to the World Health Organization (2022), South Africa is ranked 4th out of 183 countries for female interpersonal violence.

Females are consistently experiencing victimisation at work, home, and in society. Many women may not be equipped with emotional intelligence to deal with their issues, so they find

alternative methods to distress by getting revenge in the societal system and, by so doing, they commit crimes (Mohammed et al., 2014). Thus, a female commits a crime due to her victimisation or low self-esteem.

3.3 Feminism

The marginalisation and exclusion of females is evident in historical documents, which has made it challenging to identify the contributions of females to society over centuries (Effiong, 2020). Apart from the denial of her civil and legal rights, the woman further experienced academic suppression, whereby their contributions were not recognised in academia. Females indeed attempted to express their grievances over time, but little research has been published on female empowerment except for documented articles on the feminist campaigns, which happened during the medieval period (Effiong, 2020).

Feminism arose in the 1970s due to the investigation of the women's movement. The English definition of a feminist was a person who espoused feminism, and feminism was defined as a theory or movement regarding the advancement of the woman through the achievement of political, legal, or economic rights equal to those granted to men (Offen, 1988). According to Delmar (1986), the feminist belief is that women experience discrimination due to their gender, and hence their needs are neglected. To satisfy these needs, radical changes need to be done.

3.4 Women's feminist identity development

Downing and Roush (1985), developed a 5-stage model of positive feminist identity within females, which demonstrates women's feminist identity. The model aims to support women in their feminist identities. The model also assisted clinicians to be more responsive to females who were excluded or experienced subordination in society (McDougall, 2013). It consists of five stages, which Purnell (2006), identified as follows:

- Passive acceptance
- Revelation
- Embeddedness-emanation
- Synthesis, and
- Active commitment.

3.4.1 Passive acceptance

Passive acceptance refers to the first stage of the feminist identity model (Downing and Roush, 1985). It is described as the phase in which females are unaware of the inequalities and oppression which exist against them. During this stage, women unconsciously engage in traditional gender roles, which uphold the privilege and superiority of men. Females often view themselves as inferior, because of the roles they practise in society. Stage one concludes with females becoming more aware of the social injustice against them, further becoming more receptive to “alternative conceptualisations of herself and the world” (Downing and Roush, 1985: 698).

3.4.2 Revelation

In the second stage, revelation stems from the quality, occurrence, and intensity of one or more experiences of gender inequality (Downing and Roush, 1985). The female is more aware of the phenomenon of inequality which she experiences. This results in females evaluating their lives and situations within society (McDougall, 2013). The transition from the first stage to the second stage is due to the female’s readiness to change her perspective. The awareness of the acts of inequality results in females feeling included in the marginalised group of society. Females demonstrate emotions of anger, guilt and their unconscious participation in their oppression (Downing and Roush, 1985).

3.4.3 Embeddedness-emanation

Embeddedness-emanation refers to the third stage of Downing and Roush’s (1985), feminist identity model. This stage consists of two phases, the first phase results in females connecting with other females who have experienced similar injustice. The phase begins with females being more aware of the oppression and withdrawing themselves from the dominant culture. The withdrawal from traditional norms, creates awareness of other female victims of circumstance, hence the introduction to the “bonds of sisterhood” (Downing and Roush, 1985). The second phase refers to the engagement between females. They can view their experience of gender-based oppression and begin to understand how external factors such as social location may impact the experience of gender-based oppression (Downing and Roush, 1985).

3.4.4 Synthesis

The ability for a female to integrate the positive aspects of being a woman with her existing values and beliefs and a more realistic self-concept best describes stage 4 of the feminist identity model. This stage is known by the ability of females to deviate from traditional societal norms and be expressive and free in their choices based on their values (McDougall, 2013).

3.4.5 Active commitment

The final stage of the feminist identity model is best described by females who are so empowered enough by their values to take part in social action (Endalcachew, 2016). This final stage is marked by the process when females are able to use their experiences of gender inequality to influence the future generation of women (Liu and Zheng, 2019). Social activism against gender inequality occurs in different societal levels, as females would be empowering and defending their rights individually, among families, and within communities with the intent to engineer social change (Downing and Roush, 1985).

3.5 Feminist theories of crime and deviance

Criminology was traditionally perceived as a male-dominated area of study. It consisted of male sociologists studying male criminality until the late 1960s. The work of Cesare Lombroso (1976) is one of the limited academic publications which focused on female criminality. This work demonstrated that females engaged in female criminality due to the biological and social differences between males and females. The scholar was of the notion that females who offended had not completely evolved into “female beings” (Simpson, 1889).

During the 1950s there was a significant rise in female criminality, along with societal and social changes during the 1960s and the 1970s (Steffensmeier, 1993). This sparked the growth of female criminality, in relation with feminist movements (Lamb, 2011). Thus, female criminality and deviance have been understood since the development of feminist approaches.

3.5.1 Liberation thesis of female criminality

Freda Adler’s (1975), liberation thesis is one of the first scholarly works to explore the rise of female criminality. Before the rise of the second wave of feminism, females were both formally and informally controlled by societal and traditional norms (Smart, 1979). Females were domesticated and played the roles of housewives. They were believed to be capable of being

housewives only, and hence unpaid labour. The domesticated role of females was to provide emotional support to her family (Hartman and Sundt, 2010). The traditional social control restricted females from joining the workforce and developing independence (Hartman and Sundt, 2010). Thus, the impact of domesticated social control prevented females from crime and deviance.

The post-World War II era was marked by social changes, as women were allowed more employment opportunities. As female employment increased, there were also notable changes in the attitudes of women, as they became more expressive against domesticated norms. However, this spark of female liberation and independence also gave females the opportunity to become more involved in illegitimate activities such as crime.

According to Adler (1933), the empowerment of women increased their confidence to challenge feminine stereotypes. This included the display of criminal behaviour (Smart, 1979). The independence of women also strained females who were the sole providers for their families (Adler, 1933). Thus, liberation resulted in changes in the socialisation of women. Women demonstrated more assertive behaviour, rather than the traditional passive roles. Therefore, self-sufficiency of females who became self-dependent and financially independent increased the statistics of female criminality.

Adler's theory of liberation (1933), proved credible due to the relationship between female liberation and female criminality. The increase in female liberation increased female criminality. The shift from the types of crimes that females committed was also observed (Smart, 1979). Females were traditionally involved in shoplifting and prostitution. However, females eventually moved to more masculine types of crime such as theft, violence, white-collar crimes, and corporate crimes. Thus, female criminality had accelerated with the decline of traditional stereotypes.

In contemporary society, 1 in 4 women commit such crimes, whereas in the 1950s, 1 in 7 women would commit such acts (Armentrout, 2004). Over time, there has been changes in the independence and assertiveness of women which increased female/girl gang engagement within the 21st century (Heidensohn, 2010). In the 1990s the term "ladette" was coined in the media. This referred to the unladylike behaviour of females, such as sexual relations, and the consumption of alcohol.

However, Adler's liberation theory (1933) was criticised on the grounds that the increase of female criminality existed before the second wave of feminism movements (Hunnicut and Broidy, 2004). However, such movements do correlate with female criminality. Contemporary research has shown that female gangs arose with the disappearance of submissive traditional roles of females. The impact of the second wave of feminism was mostly observed in the middle class, with traditional gender roles present in working-class areas. Working-class females were required to conform to traditional gender roles by their peers. The third wave of feminism movements had significant influence and changed how females socialised, which had an impact on the rate of female criminality (Hunnicut and Broidy, 2004).

3.5.2 Control theory

Heidenshon (2010) adopted the control theory to explain how women are controlled by men, leaving them with fewer opportunities to commit crimes. Hence, high levels of patriarchal control were directly linked to lower levels of female criminality. The scholar focused primarily on how females were controlled in both public and private spheres of life, which resulted in lower levels of female criminality. Hence, the lesser the opportunity to commit a crime, the less crime was committed (Heidensohn, 2010).

Heidenshon's (2010), research was based on the ideologies of the separate spheres of life. She argued that males were dominant in different spheres of life. This further explained the difference in the opportunities of crimes that males and females committed (Heidensohn, 2010). Females were dominant in the domesticated sphere of life, such as looking after children and maintaining primary household responsibilities, thus limiting the opportunity of criminality among females (Heidensohn, 2010). Males were dominant in the public workspace sphere of life. Therefore, they exercised their dominance on women through physical force and legitimate power in the workforce (Heidensohn and Silvestri, 2012).

Heidenshon (2010) explained that female opportunities to commit a crime was restricted by their responsibilities at home. Domesticated duties were also inclusive of societal expectations of being the ideal housewife and mother (Smart, 1979). These societal expectations were reinforced by both males and females. The limited opportunity for female criminality demonstrated why females were more prone to commit such crimes as shoplifting. This is a domesticated task that is predominantly carried out by females (Bosworth, 2000).

In the public sphere, the behaviour of women was controlled by the expectations of females to be submissive to men. According to Brown (2015), women were often seen as property in the public sphere. In the workplace, women were legitimately dominated by male authority (Heidensohn, 2010). Males occupied roles of authority within the workplace (McCarthy et al., 1999). Men were direct supervisors or managers to females. Hence, this limited female criminality within the corporate sphere (Hartman and Sundt, 2010). McCarthy et al. (1999) suggested that these levels of control showed evidence of patriarchal control in society and lower levels of female criminality. Heidensohn's (2010) work has proved that the rise in female criminality correlates with the increase in liberation from patriarchal control, as outlined by Adler's (1933) liberation thesis. However, as Carlen (1988) suggested, women were not free from controls, female criminality was limited due to societal expectations within a given social context. It is the researcher's conviction that society has changed, since Smart's (1979), research, for example, the feminism in the workforce and the movement to the service sector occupations. Nevertheless, males are still dominant in the workplace and retain power and authority with only one in three females occupying positions of authority.

Thus, Heidensohn's (1996) research appears to be outdated. There are more women employed in the workforce and more managerial and authority positions are occupied by females within the workforce. There is a significant change in social attitudes towards women's behaviour in both private and public spheres. This suggests that diminishing control over women correlates with the increase in female criminality.

Sociologists argue that patriarchal control is not only enforced by males in society but also by other females in society (Hunnicutt and Broidy, 2004). This is evidence of patriarchal control, as a woman are socialised into using informal methods of control, such as gossiping to control the behaviour of other women. This acts as an additional form of control against women, limiting their desire to commit the crime and their opportunities to do so.

3.5.3 The class deal versus the gender deal: Pat Carlen

Using Travis Hirschi's theory of control (1969) as the basis of her research, Carlen (1988) examined the different ways in which females were controlled within society. Hence, the patriarchal control over woman limited their pathways for a legitimate lifestyle, and the rejection of these pathways or inability to achieve within these pathways, lead to female criminality (Carlen, 1988). The scholar focused on females who turned to criminality for

various reasons. Hence, females who turned to criminality pointed out that there were barriers in society that prevented them from following the legitimate pathway that society emphasised (Hunnicuttt and Broidy, 2004). Carlen's (1988), female participants had a criminal record and also a background in foster care and poverty. Hence, these women were destined for criminality, as they had no other options.

Therefore, Carlen (1988) rejects the notion of Adler's (1933) research since she believes that feminism had not liberated females in the manner that the scholar implied. She emphasised that women were still largely controlled by both formal and informal mechanisms of social control. This control was experienced at work, within families and within relationships. The behaviour of women was controlled by the societal expectations which were dominated at the time (Daly, 1993). According to Carlen (1988), women were expected to conform to societal norms by acceptance of either the class deal or the gender deal.

3.5.3.1 The class deal

As female employment increased, the woman who had chosen employment were rewarded for their labour. Woman sold their labour for rewards, and hence wages. This was used to attain comforts of material gain, usually through consumer goods (Estrada et al., 2019). In this way, women were controlled by the expectation to be obedient to employers. Women were required to be passive and submissive to progress, and this was further extended to education. The ambitions of women to find employment was used as a mechanism to control women to ensure good behaviour and conformity, which would result in good grades (Carlen, 1988).

3.5.3.2 The gender deal

The gender deal is the acceptance of the traditional role of housewife and mother. Carlen (1988), argued that women who chose this deal were rewarded emotionally and psychologically, whilst being financially supported by their partners. Women were rewarded with security for the practical love and care they offered as housewives to their families. Carlen's (1988), publication was set at a time of greater inequality in domestic labour. Women would often have the gender deal or the class deal, rather than a combination of both.

3.5.3.3 Rejecting the deals

Carlen's (1988), research participants revealed that criminality was a means of rejecting the gender and class deals by women, or an expression of the lack of opportunities for attaining

these deals. The research participants were unable to attain the material rewards of the class deal, because they had a history of poverty, since they had grown up in a care facility, troubled by psychological and emotional issues from domestic abuse, long time unemployment, or lack of qualifications to secure employment (Carlen, 1988). This left the gender deal unappealing for such women. For them, a family was far from the source of emotional support which they needed, and the gender deal had little incentive. Therefore, Carlen (1988) argued that the rejection of these deals led to women seeking alternative methods such as crime.

Whilst the work of Carlen (1988) was set in the 1980s, evidence of the gender deal and the class deal can be found in contemporary society and research. According to Corston's (2007), research on the background of females in the United Kingdom correctional centres, many women in correctional centres have a history of long-term unemployment. Majority of females left school with no formal education; 1 in 5 women had no permanent residence, and 1 in 3 women were lone parents, whilst 2 in 3 were single parents. The history of unemployment and lack of formal education demonstrated a rejection of the class deal as argued by Carlen (1988). The lack of permanent residence, and the state of being lone parents, or single parents, also demonstrated the rejection of the gender deal. As Carlen (1988), argues, the gender deal is offered to women and provides compelling evidence of 'a hazard' of refusing to conform to societies expectations of a woman.

The critics of Carlen's (1988) ideas of gender and class deals argue that in contemporary society, there is an increasing social pressure compelling woman to conform to both gender and class deals, which increases the level of social control of women (Smart, 1989). The social pressures to have a good job, beautiful family, and good home is meant to increase the levels of social control on the woman to conform to what society expects of females. Some post-modernists argue that women have more choice in contemporary society and that the class deal is more diverse than ever before. There are different pathways of attaining material rewards, whilst emotional and psychological rewards are not limited to looking after children in contemporary society (Quadrelli, 2003).

Critics of Carlen (1988) suggested that the role of patriarchy is overstated in contemporary society, in particular with increased opportunities for financial success for women, and the change in attitudes towards family life (Quadrelli, 2003). Moreover, Carlen (1988), focused on

those that accepted neither the class nor the gender deal. The limitation of this theory is that it fails to explain why some working-class women or married women turn to criminality.

In South Africa, most females come from a background of poverty. They have never experienced the internal and external factors of the “what works approach”. Furthermore, the gender and class deals are out of their reach. The gender deal refers to attaining the role of a mother or housewife, which role the females fail to attain due to their low self-esteem, poverty, and abusive relationships. The class deal refers to attaining employment and receiving incentives for labour, which role the females also fail to attain due to their lack of education and work experience. The lack of attainment of both the gender and class deals, results in female criminality. As per Agnew’s strain theory, females are pressured into criminality to meet the basic requirements of the “what works approach”. This includes minimal needs to survive such as food. The crime statistics, and unemployment statistics are parallel, and therefore Carlen’s theory is relevant to the living situation of females in South Africa.

3.6 The feminist pathways perspective

The feminist pathways perspective demonstrates that women that offend have a background of victimisation, which has flourished throughout the life of the female. Victimisation harms the development of an individual and affects their psychological wellbeing (Golladay and Holtfreter, 2014). A history of victimisation has been deemed a strong predictor of female criminality. Victimisation affects females differently as compared to their male counterparts. Females respond differently to victimisation and continue to experience a greater deal of trauma due to the existence of gender inequalities (Davidson and Janet, 2009).

Females are often imprisoned due to drug abuse, prostitution or attacking an abuser (Wattanaporn and Holtfreter, 2014). However, such offenses could be perceived as methods used by females to cope with victimisation or as a means of survival. For instance, when a female escapes an abusive home, she may resort to prostitution or the sale of drugs in order to survive. There is therefore a notable distinction between the victim and the offender. However, the criminal justice system fails to separate these terms.

Before the 20th century, the background and history of female offenders were not sufficiently analysed. The lack of socio-historical analysis promoted beliefs that female criminality and anti-social behaviour was a result of biology, environment and socialisation within their

environments (Cauffman, 2008). Lombroso cited in Klein (1976) emphasized that female criminality was due to the physical anatomies of females, with criminal females assumed not to be fully evolved, which led them to develop masculine behaviour such as deviance and criminality.

3.6.1 Victimization and criminality of the female offender in South Africa

Female offenders have recounted a history of both physical and sexual abuse (Francios and Booyens, 2017). This proves that there is a link between criminality and victimisation of female offenders, as compared to the male offenders. The victimisation of females often begins at a developmental stage and flourishes throughout their life. The prevalence of victimisation among females indicates that victimisation is a key factor for female offending (Mohammed et al., 2014). In South Africa, females often avoid the criminal justice system. Females avoid reporting crime or abuse due to the fear of re-victimisation experiences within the system (Steyn and Booyens, 2019). Experiences of re-victimisation within the justice system include the treatment of victims by authorities when reporting crimes. Female offenders experience post-traumatic stress whilst undergoing the procedure of reporting crimes against them (Wemmers, 2013).

3.6.1.1 Demographics of a victim

Victimisation is not gender-selective. However, the feminist pathways perspective emphasises the difference in inexperience. The feminist pathways approach shows that gender has an impact on the experience of victimisation and on how the experience contributes to female criminality. The risk of victimisation stems from environments, social networks, and demographics. According to the lifestyle exposure approach (Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo, 1978), an individual is at risk of criminality based on social interactions, lifestyle, and environment. For example, if an individual in a low-income community has a greater risk of victimisation due to the higher risk of crime and the type of people within the community, the adverse effect of victimisation is criminality.

3.6.1.2 Age of victims

Victimisation and age have demonstrated a significant relationship, especially in crimes associated with drugs, property crimes and violence (Nuytiens and Christiaens, 2015).

Victimisation is more popularly experienced in youth (12-18 years), due to the exposure to risks and to the offenders the youth may have during this phase of development.

Research conducted by the National Crime Victimization survey shows that the risk of victimisation increases by 8% from ages 12 to 15 years and 16 to 19 years (National Crime Victimization Survey, 2020). Child victimisation can be detrimental to the psychological growth and development of a child (Morgan and Truman, 2020). The age at which victimisation occurs is therefore significant. According to the cycle of violence thesis, children that experience victimisation at a young age will more likely engage in crimes of violence in the future. Early victimisation disrupts the livelihood of the individual and contributes to the pathway to deviance and criminality.

3.6.1.3 Gender of victims

The consequence of victimisation is determined by the gender of the victim. According to studies conducted by Britton (2011), except for rape, men experience higher levels of violent crime as compared to females. However, it is important to note that the statistics is not a true representation of female victimisation (Britton, 2011). Females tend to avoid reporting victimisation and tend to tolerate long periods of abuse and domestic violence, due to the fear of re-victimisation after reporting such cases. Women are targets of specific types of victimisations and are more likely to experience abuse at an earlier age than males. Although the experience of victimisation may be the same among females and males, victimisation is a stronger predictor of criminality among females. Chesney Lind's (2006) explanation for the distinct difference is due to how females are groomed and socialised from youth. The manner in which females deal with stress and trauma is limited due to the societal expectations of a woman. Females lack the methods to effectively express their emotions, and therefore their negative emotions are magnified. According to the trauma theorists, trauma is rarely dealt with in a professional manner which could result in females finding other coping mechanisms to express feelings (Kilpatrick, Keyes, and Friedman, 2013). These methods include deviance such as drug use, prostitution and property crimes.

3.6.1.4 Poly victimisation of victims

Poly victimisation refers to the experience of repeated victimisation over a life span. In other words, it refers to the different episodes of victimisation which offenders describe (Finkelhor, Turner, Hamby, and Ormrod, 2011). Female offenders often report experiences of multiple

traumatic episodes, through different phases of their livelihood. Hence, an abused young woman is more vulnerable and may find herself in an abusive adult or teenage relationship further in life, due to the impact of her initial victimisation. Victimisation may result in low-self-esteem, vulnerability, desperation, and tolerance to abuse assuming this is the norm for these females. The continuous experience of victimisation has an impact on the mental stability of the female and completely drives her off the path of “normality” within her life. Research conducted by Britton (2011), shows that early trauma and victimisation in females leads to criminality.

3.6.1.5 Victimisation leads to crime

Victimisation of females has an impact on the criminal behaviour of females. The researcher explored the experiences of child abuse and partner abuse and demonstrated the impact the abuse has on female criminality.

3.6.1.5.1 Child abuse

Research conducted by Asscher et al. (2015) shows that female offenders are more likely to be victims of physical and sexual abuse as compared to males. The study found that 82% of females were abused, whilst 60% of females were sexually abused by a parent or guardian (Asscher et al., 2015). Childhood victimisation is not only a predictor of female criminality but also a predictor of mental health issues. For many female offenders, victimisation correlates directly with their criminality. In some cases, young girls are forced into drugs or prostitution. However, criminologists found that the experience of childhood victimisation tends to be a recurring phenomenon for women, which eventually leads to incarceration (Morgan and Truman, 2020).

Childhood victimisation also contributes to the addiction to drugs and other harmful substances, which may lead to criminality (Salisbury and Voorhis, 2009). Females who have been abused over a long period, indulge in these substances in order to deal with their emotions and traumatic experiences. The lack of employment, use of drugs, and desperation leads to prostitution. The high risks in the socio-environment increase the possibility of incarceration. Females that are abused are vulnerable and are at high risk towards this phenomenon of drugs and prostitution as means of survival, as well as a coping mechanism to deal with their negative experiences and emotions.

3.6.1.5.2 Partner abuse

According to research conducted by Steyn and Booyens (2019), females experience higher levels of violence from their partners as compared to males. The majority of female offenders experienced domestic abuse or sexual abuse, and retaliation against their abuser may have even led to their incarceration. A lifetime of victimisation is a predicting factor of criminality. Partner abuse may influence the incarceration of females in direct and indirect ways. Peer pressure from partners could also be a factor that contributes to female criminality. Studies show that females have been forced into criminality by their partners or peers or the need of finances within a relationship (Gilfu, 2002). Partners may abuse or force the woman to commit murders, sell drugs, conduct robberies, and trafficking or fraud. Most women experience financial abuse when they are run into debt due to their partners' negligence, and thereafter commit crimes as means of survival (Agboola, 2016). Partner abuse can indirectly contribute to female criminality, as women are often implicated for crimes or framed for crimes committed by their partners. The following are some of the examples which demonstrate this phenomenon:

- Retaliation against an abusive partner- females may be charged for homicide
- Implications of child abuse- females also experience abuse from their partners
- Drug use- females are introduced to drugs by their abusive partners or use them to cope with the stress of dealing with an abusive partner.

Females tend to be vulnerable to “partner” abuse. They experience shame, neglect and slowly tend to isolate themselves from both friends and family. The lack of support can lead to stress, anxiety and fear. Women use drugs to cope with the situation. The use of drugs increases the risk of criminality.

3.7 The general strain theory: Female criminality

The General Strain Theory by Robert Agnew (1992) explains how the experience of strain, increases the likelihood of criminality. Some examples of strains experienced that may lead to criminality include parental rejections, criminal victimisation, discrimination and desperation. The response to such strains is significant as they could resort to criminal behaviour, if they lead to negative emotions, which creates pressure for corrective action. When individuals lack the mental stability to cope with the significant strains, they act in a criminal or deviant manner

to cope with the presence of such strain. An example of crimes which are committed in order to cope with a strain would be theft to gain money.

In South Africa, the poverty rate is 55.5% (Business Tech, 2021), whilst the rate of unemployment is a shocking 42.6% (Department of Social Development Republic of South Africa, 2021). South Africans have become poorer over the last six years. Consequently, South Africa's crime rate is 76.80%, which is ranked the third highest globally (World Population Review, 2021). These statistics demonstrate the existence of strain in the lives of South Africans. Therefore, this theory would be used to explain ways in which female offenders' resort to crime as a result of the strain they experience. When females are unable to cope with strain, they are involved in criminality.

The credibility of the general strain theory of crime lies in the empirical evidence, which proves the significance of the theory (Brezina, 2017). The general strain theory stems from the work of Robert King Merton (1938), which however provided limited strains and failed to describe strains experienced among the youth. According to Agnew (1992), innovation occurs when society puts forward ideals of material success, but fails to provide the opportunity to attain such goals or success (Agnew and Jang, 2015).

This assumption was emphasised by the work of Agnew (1992), with the addition that when evaluating the youth other factors contribute or motivate criminal behaviour. Hence, negative experiences contribute to stress, and criminality is not limited to financial strains. According to Brezina (2017), there are four common categories of strain that could lead to deviance or criminality, which are as follows:

1. Strains are seen as unjust
2. Strains are seen as high in magnitude
3. Strains are associated with low social control
4. Strains create some pressure or incentive to engage criminal coping

Agnew (1992) further categorised the types of strains as follows:

1. Failure to achieve positively valued goals
2. Removal of positive stimuli
3. Introduction of negative stimuli

in order to explain higher rates of criminality among males as compared to females. Agnew and Broidy (2011) further analysed the gender differences and how strains are perceived and responded to. Agnew and Broidy's (2011) research found that females experience a greater deal of strain as compared to males, because women are more subjective to strain than males. However, as much as women experience more strain, they commit less crime, as compared to their male counterparts (Agnew et al., 2011). Table 3.1 illustrates Agnew and Broidy's (2011) types of strain experiences:

Table 3.1 Types of strain experiences among women and men

Women	Men
Concerned with creating and maintaining close bonds and relationships with others – thus lower rates of property and violent crime	Concerned with material success – thus higher rates of property and violent crime
Face negative treatment, such as discrimination, high demands from family, and restricted behaviour	Face more conflict with peers and are likely to be the victims of crime
Failure to achieve goals may lead to self-destructive behaviour	Failure to achieve goals may lead to property and violent crime

Source: (Jang, 2007)

Table 3.2 below illustrates the emotional response to crime by the different genders. This emphasises, that females respond to crime more with feelings of depression, anger, fear, guilt, shame and self-destructive behaviours as compared to males, whom respond with anger, outrage which may lead to property and violent crime.

Table 3.2: The emotional response to crime by the different genders

Women	Men
More likely to respond with depression and anger	More likely to respond with anger
Anger is accompanied by fear, guilt, and shame	Anger is followed by moral outrage
More likely to blame themselves and worry about the effects of their anger	Quick to blame others and are less concerned about hurting others
Depression and guilt may lead to self-destructive behaviours	Moral outrage may lead to property and violent crime

Source: (Moore, 2007)

The research concluded that females lack the confidence and self-esteem to resort to crime, and rather employ ways and means to escape or relieve the strain they experience. The emotional attachments of a woman may assist in reducing strain. Men have lower social control and tend to socialise in larger groups, as compared to females who tend to socialise in smaller groups and form closer social bonds (Agnew, 2011). Therefore, men are more likely to respond to strain with criminal or deviant behaviour as compared to females.

3.8 Total institutions

Erving Goffman (1957) defines the concept of “total institutions” as:

“a place of residence and work where a large number of like situated individuals, are cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period, together with lead an enclosed, formally administered round of life” (Goffman, cited in Davies, 1989:78).

Life within ‘total institutions’ is well-scheduled; privacy is limited as activities such as sleep, work and social interactions take place in the same facility. According to Scott (1998), correctional centre facilities were ‘total’, in the manner in which offenders are scheduled to carry out their routines, phone calls are monitored and access to resources are limited. Hence, there is little or no control that the individual has over his or her routine.

The concept of ‘total institutions’, was first presented by Everett Hughes (1952), but the concept was eventually propounded by Erving Goffman in 1957 in his work on “the characteristics of total institutions” (Davies, 1989). Goffman (1957), identified five different categories of total institutions, which are as follows:

1. The first category is reserved for people who required care. These individuals are deemed harmless and incapable. Some examples of these institutions are old age homes, nursing homes, orphanages and poor houses.
2. The second category includes those institutions that give aid and care to individuals who are unable to provide care for themselves and pose a threat to society. Some examples of these individuals are mental patients, and patients who suffer leprosy or long-term illnesses.
3. The third category refers to institutions that were aimed to protect communities from individuals who are assumed dangerous or harmful towards the community. Some examples of such institutions are correctional centres, jails, penitentiaries and concentration camps.
4. The fourth category of institutions are those developed to pursue work like tasks and justify them on these instrumental grounds. Some examples of institutions within this category are boarding schools, ships, work camps, army barracks and employment, including living in servants’ quarters or nannies of large mansions.
5. The final category of institutions that are designed as retreats, while being served as training stations for religious groups. Some examples of such are convents, abbeys and cloisters.

According to Jones and Fowles (2008), not all institutions can be considered total institutions. However, each institution consists of elements that make them distinct from each other. Goffman’s (1957) concept of total institutions can refer to closed ends, separation of a closed group, hence ‘total’. However, open and closed institutions are significant (Jones and Fowles , 2008).

The idea of an institute being completely closed off from society would result in such an institute dying off. The survival of an institute is dependent on the environment around it. For institutions such as mental intuitions, correctional centres, homes, workforce or religious retreats to function, there needs to be engagement with the exterior environment.

3.8.1 The correctional centre eco-system

For an institution such as correctional services to be operational, there is a significant amount of engagement with the external society which is required. Such engagement is as follows:

- Correctional centres officials are external candidates
- Inmates or offenders enter and exit the system
- Material supplies are imported from immediate environments
- The functionality of the system requires interactions with inspectors, students, magistrates and visitors.

The considerations of Jones and Fowles (2008), do not invalidate Goffman's (1957), concept of verbal cluster analysis. The concept is unable to fit each institution specifically. However, it is an ideal type of which real-life practises can be measured (Jones and Fowles , 2008). The clarification of the term 'total institutions' is imperative, because it is commonly used when labelling mental facilities or correctional centres. According to Jones and Fowles (2008), "total institutions", consists of four-main characteristics

- Batch living
- Binary management
- The inmate role and the
- The institutional perspective.

3.8.1.1 Batch living

Batch living refers to a situation whereby all phases of one daily activity are carried out in the presence of the immediate batch, of others. All of the members within the batch are treated similarly and are expected to carry out tasks at the same time.

Unlike individual livings, batch living lacks the privilege of personal choice. It is governed by authorities, consists of rules, time management or scheduled tasks and allows a limited amount of free time (Jones and Fowles, 2008). Batch living limits means of socialisation. The inmate is forced to socialise within groups chosen by an external authority. In the system of the total institution, the amount of freedom is limited, individuals tend to be attacked by the system. There is consistent surveillance, an abundance of rules and offenders are monitored throughout their stay. According to Goffman (1957) cited in Serpa (2018), the total institution is made up of the managers and the managed. Some examples of this include staff and the patients, correctional centres officials, and the correctional centre offenders, teachers and the pupils.

3.8.1.2 Binary management

Binary Management refers to the different social and cultural worlds, which exist within the same environment, although contact between them is limited. Hence, the managers possess power but use social distance as a weapon. Within such an environment, the manager feels superior and the managed feel weak and inferior. These individuals are constrained to socialise and therefore create stereotypes of each other. For example, the managers see the managed as untrustworthy, whilst the managed see managers as hostile. Socialisation between the groups is limited, and even frowned upon. However, the tone of voice and mannerisms when communication does transpire tends to depict the roles of the manager and the managed (Jones and Fowles, 2008).

According to Goffman (1957) cited in Serpa (2018), this process is known as ‘deculturation’ or ‘role-stripping’, and it is so powerful that an individual who experiences it would find it difficult to adapt to normal living when he returns to society. His identity has been reduced from one with many roles to nothing more than the “role of the inmate”.

3.8.1.3 The role of the offender

According to Goffman (1957), cited in Serpa (2018), the role of the inmate is achieved through the admission procedures of such facilities. Hence, the admission process are a series of abasements, degradations, humiliations and profanations of self – a mortification process. Institutions are the forcing houses for changing people. Hence;

“To become an offender involves a total break with the past, symbolised by the acquisition of a new name or number, uniform clothing, and the restriction or confiscation of personal

possessions. All this may be done in a highly ritualised admission procedure in which the inmate may be forced to recite his life history, take a bath, possibly without privacy, submit to weighing, fingerprinting, intrusive medical examination and head-shaving. The overt reason for these activities is an administrative necessity: the real purpose is role dispossession. The bath, in particular, is a highly symbolic ritual, involving physical nakedness as the midpoint of a process of abandoning one life for another. The new arrival allows himself to be shaped and coded into an object that can be fed into the administrative machinery of the establishment, to be worked on smoothly by routine operation. The new clothes are likely to be standard issues, the property of the establishment. Combined with a loss of personal maintenance equipment such as combs, shaving sets or cosmetics, they create a new and humiliating appearance. The process is one of personal defacement. As the stay is prolonged, the loss of personal identity becomes more marked. There may be a systematic violation of privacy through the practice of group or individual confession. The offenders' defences may be repeatedly collapsed by a process called 'looping' where the mere fact of defence is taken as proof of guilt. There may be 'indignities of speech or action' – inmates are forced to beg for a glass of water or a light for a cigarette, to move or speak in a markedly deferential way indicating their lowly status. They may be beaten, or subjected to electric shock treatment, or physically contaminated – there are some particularly nasty examples drawn from concentration camps and political correctional centres. Control may be kept utilising a system of rewards and punishments, petty by outside standards, but assuming pavlovian dimensions in a situation of deprivation. Rules may not be made fully explicit. The inmate cannot appeal to them for protection and may break them unwittingly and be punished for it. Like Kafka's K., he exists in a half-world of guilt and apprehension. He has no privacy, no rights, and no dignity" (Jones and Fowles, 2008:12-16).

Goffman (1957) cited in Serpa, 2018 suggests five types of 'secondary adjustment', which allows for the offender to survive these personal attacks on his or her personality. Hence;

- The inmate may withdraw, cutting himself off from contact.
- He may become intransigent and fight the system.
- He may, in a vivid phrase, become 'colonised', paying lip service to the system like the inhabitant of some African or Asian country awaiting the day of independence.
- He may become converted, genuinely accepting the institution's view of himself, and what is acceptable behaviour.

- The last of these is not survival, but a kind of personal extinction. Curiously, and on the face of it illogically, it is the only adjustment acceptable to the authorities of the institution. Any attempt by the inmate to immunise himself against the destructive forces focused on him will be seen as non-co-operation and may be used as an excuse to detain him longer. He may develop a ‘line’, a sort of edited account of how he came to be an inmate, repeated to his fellows and to anyone else who would listen with increasing self-pity. He may have a sense of ‘dead and heavy-hanging time’ – of life wasted, and the months or years ticking away without gain or satisfaction. Against these reactions, the authorities offer ‘the institutional perspective’.

3.8.1.4 The institutional perspective

To emphasise the institution's existence, the individual undergoes processes to deny the individual of his identity. Institutions are promoted by events such as open days and sports days, which create an artificial sense of society (Cardarelli, 1986). Such events give the inmate a glimpse of liberation, and a sense of normal society but the core purpose is to emphasise the power of the institution and dramatise the effect the institution has on the individual (Jones and Fowles, 2008).

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter reached its objective by introducing the feminist pathways approach and its relevance within South Africa. Thereafter the researcher explored the origins of feminisms and the identity development of feminists. The feminist’s theories of crimes and deviance were discussed to emphasise the changes of feminisms over time. The feminist pathways perspective was used to suit the situation of females in South Africa. The strain theory emphasised the different types of situations and strains that the female population experience, whilst the marginalisation theory explained that female offenders stem from the marginalised populations of society. This chapter lastly analysed Goffman’s (1957) “total institutions”, which positions the experience of the offender within a correctional centre. This chapter emphasised that victimisation is a high predictor of criminality. The experience of strain, such as a lifestyle in poverty, results in criminality. The failure to attain gender or class deals also results in criminality. Female offenders lack the resources to attain either the class or gender deal. Initially in some cases, female offenders lack the internal and external factors of the “what works” approach. The rehabilitation of female offenders can, therefore, be considered as the

rebirth of the female. The experience of the “total institution” -correctional centre- makes it difficult for the offender to reintegrate back into society.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher describes the research site, which is Westville Correctional Centre in Durban. This chapter also explains how the researcher entered the research site. Further, the research paradigm, research design, and research approach used to generate answers to the main research questions of the study are described in detail. Delving into these important building blocks of a sound methodology chapter allowed the researcher to formulate logical questions and design an effective research plan upon which the entire research is built. This chapter also describes the selection criteria used for identifying study participants, the data collection method and the two research instruments used for data collection.

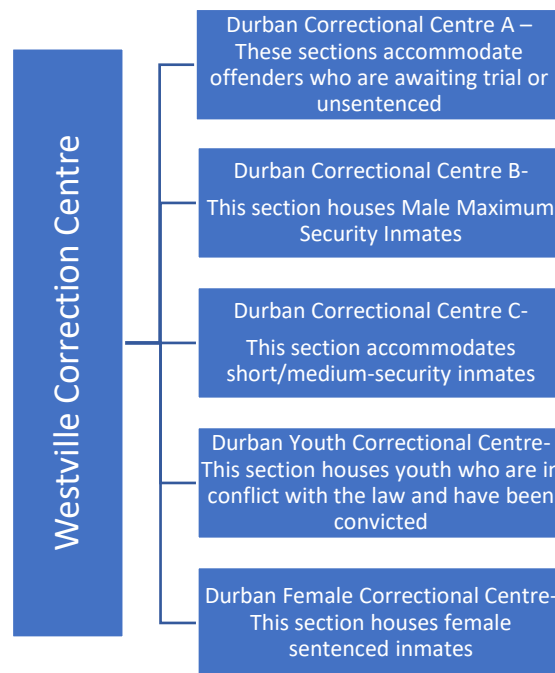
The researcher also describes how a pilot study was conducted to determine the feasibility of the study and to improve the researcher's interviewing skills, given that the researcher is the key instrument in qualitative research. Further, the processes of data collection, and data analysis are described in detail, which is followed by a reflection on the trustworthiness of data reported in the findings chapter. Given the centrality of ethics in social research, the researcher explains the ethical considerations that guided the study in this chapter. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary.

4.2 The research site

The Westville Correctional Centre was the research site for this study. The correctional centre is in KwaZulu-Natal within a residential suburb close to Durban in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, situated 20 kms inland from Durban city centre. There is a total of 243 correctional service centres with a total of 236 operational centres. There are nine isolated centres reserved for female offenders, and 14 youth facilities reserved for offenders aged between 7-18 years old (Makou, Skosana, and Hopkins, 2022). The rationale for the choice of the correctional centre for the nominated study was informed by the Auditor General Report (2018/2019), which concluded that ten of their targets were successfully achieved, with 98.6% of the budget used (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). The Westville Correctional Centre was first opened in 1985. Since the beginning of its operation, gangs and overcrowding have been an

issue of severity. The White Paper of Correctional Services is the policy document that governs the operations and functioning of the correctional centres in South Africa. The Westville Correctional Centre specifically was designed to cater to 6 023 offenders; however, it currently accommodates 12 500 offenders (Department of Correctional Services, 2021). Figure 4.1 below, illustrates the division of offenders within the Department of Correctional Services.

Figure 4.1: Westville Correctional Centre



Source: (Department of Correctional Services, 2019).

The focus of this study is programme 3: Rehabilitation, of the Annual Performance Plan of correctional services. Programmes 3 focuses on ensuring that offenders undergo interventions and needs-based programmes to ensure that offenders can be integrated back into their communities (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). The sub-programmes of rehabilitation consist of

- Correctional programmes
- Offender development
- Psychological services
- Social and spiritual services

Throughout 2018/2019 the Department of Correctional Services successively achieved the following;

- 93419 (90% of the offender population), sentenced offenders with correctional service plans
- 540 offenders and parolees attended the "chance to advance" programme
- 14171 offenders participated in skills programmes
- 159259 offenders participated in spiritual services
- 45331 offenders participated in psychological services
- 112611 offenders, probationers and paroles involved in social work services.

South Africa holds the 12th highest correctional service center population globally with an estimate of 162 875 offenders (World Prison Brief, 2021). The capacity of the country's correctional centers caters for a total of 118 572 offenders (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). The committee acknowledges the rehabilitation programmes and education programmes; however, finding employment after release is still a significant barrier for offenders. Although rehabilitation is one of the fundamental programmes, it received only 77% of the annual budget. There is a gap for improvement to offenders' rehabilitation, regarding the budget spent on rehabilitation (Department of Correctional Services, 2020).

4.2.1 Entry into the research site

Gaining entry into the research site can be such a daunting task that the researcher must accomplish. Entry into the research site is often facilitated by gatekeepers. By definition, gatekeeper is an individual, group of persons or an institution entrusted with either formal or informal authority to control access to the site or research subjects (Neuman, 2006). In simple words, gatekeepers are people whose mandate to decide who is permitted or denied access, and usually these are parties that are concerned with the subject under investigation or the welfare of participants that the researcher intends to recruit for their study (Terre Blanche and Kelly, 1999).

In this study, the main gatekeeper was the social worker working with community correctional services. The researcher obtained gatekeeper permission to recruit ex-offenders as participants for this study. However, getting access to specific participants with the relevant characteristic required someone with knowledge about the specific participant the researcher wanted to recruit. When using purposive sampling, it is important to select information-rich cases (Patton, 1990; Polkinghorne, 2005). Therefore, to obtain access to a few information-rich participants,

the researcher was assisted by a social worker that had experience working with the ex-offenders in question.

4.3 Research paradigm

According to Rehman and Khalid (2016), a research paradigm is defined as a fundamental belief system and a theoretical framework; it is used to understand and explore the reality of the world. According to Kivunja and Kuyin (2017), a research paradigm refers to the way the researcher sees the world, interprets the world, and acts within that world. The research paradigm is the way the researcher investigates and observes the methodological aspects of the research project and determines the research methods of data collection and analysis (Kivunja and Kuyin, 2017). According to Kuhn (1962), a research paradigm is a set of beliefs and agreements about how problems should be approached among researchers in order to be better understood.

This study is based on the interpretivist paradigm, which assumes the social reality that people experience and social situations, rather than a singular or objective reality. Interpretivist research seeks a deeper understanding of a phenomenon, which is only possible when explored from within the social context of a phenomenon, and avoids generalising a concept under study (Creswell, 2007). Interpretivism also recognises the existence of different perspectives, that is, multiple realities (Hammersley, 2013). Diversification has the advantage of contributing to a deeper understanding of the concept under study (Pham, 2018). Interpretivist researchers seek to understand phenomena by tracing the meanings participants attribute to their experiences. This is possible through the use of data collection methods such as interviews that explore participants' thoughts, feelings, and perspectives to gain a deeper understanding (Wellington and Szczerbinski, 2007).

4.4 Research design

The study aimed to investigate and understand the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes that exist within the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa. The study also gets an insight into the possible causes of offence, and hence establish correctional measures. As such it was imperative for the researcher to select a research design that would best address the research questions. A research design is the blueprint of a research study; it is an arrangement of conditions for collecting, and analysing the data (Nieuwenhuis, 2013). A research design aims to guide the researcher on the methods and techniques to employ to achieve the desired

outcome and maintain ethical standards, which address the research questions (Akhtar, 2016). The study used a case study research design to answer the research questions, following a logical strategy. This research design chosen for this study was based on the research questions to be answered and the researcher's preference for the interpretivist paradigm. This gave room to the researcher to explore multiple realities, within one setting.

4.5 Research approach

This study takes a qualitative approach. Qualitative research focuses on understanding the process and sociocultural context that shapes the various perceptions of the participants (Niewenhuis and Smit, 2012). Mertens et al., (2013, p. 296) stated that qualitative strategies are "used in research that aims to portray a particular program, practice, or environment from the inside out." Qualitative research was appropriate for this study because it involves direct inquiry into the practice network to capture participants' perspectives, beliefs, and accounts, leading to deeper inquiry and understanding of habits (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012; Mertens et al., 2013). Qualitative research focuses on understanding and representing participants' experiences and actions in real-life situations. Qualitative researchers tend to take a subjective approach and study things in their natural setting with the sole purpose of gaining a deeper understanding of lived experiences (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2013). In qualitative research, a natural setting is important because participants should be able to go about their daily lives (Yin, 2016). Qualitative research allows the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon being studied by identifying and analysing this information to obtain new data.

4.6 Selection of participants

Given the nature of the study, the researcher realised that it was difficult for a single sampling strategy to be used in selection of the participants. This necessitated the use of purposive sampling and snowball sampling. The two are described in detail below.

4.6.1 Purposive sampling

The study sample consisted of female offenders whom were previously incarcerated at the Westville Correctional Centre in Durban. The participants were offenders, serving a wide range of sentences. A total of 10 female participants took part of this study. Originally, 12 female participants were supposed to be interviewed, based on Guest, Bunce, and Johnson's (2006) argument that data saturation among a homogenous sample is achieved at the 12th interview in but the interview was terminated after 10 participants were interviewed due to data saturation

which was attained at the 7th interview. The researcher proceeded to the 10th participant to ascertain that no new view emerged and was convinced that data saturation was achieved.

The technique of purposive sampling was used to select the sample for the study. This is a non-probability sampling technique that allows the researcher to select a sample based on certain characteristics of a population that are representative of the topic being studied (Laher and Botha, 2012). Purposive sampling is a sampling technique in which the researcher selects participants in the study based on their experience with the phenomenon of the study (Akhtar, 2016). The participants are intentionally selected to meet the goal and purpose of the study. The potential participants were not known to the researcher as the researcher approached them to participate according to ethical principles. In this case, the researcher gained ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal ethics committee, and further gained permission from the gate keeper of the study, who is a social worker in contact with previously incarcerated female offenders. After permissions were granted, the researcher had a duty to obtain informed consent from the female offenders. Informed consent was enhanced by providing individuals with relevant information about the research before they decided whether or not they wanted to participate (Gravetter and Forzano, 2009). Informed consent is a process in which participants have the right to agree or decline to participate in a research study after fully understanding the research process and its potential consequences (Ogletree and Kawulich, 2012).

Purposive sampling is hailed in the selection of participants for qualitative studies. This is the case because qualitative studies use a relatively small sample compared to quantitative studies that use large samples (Neuman, 2014). In his support for the use of purposive sampling, Neuman (2014) argues that because selection of participants in a qualitative study must be a well-thought-out process that must not be left to chance, convenience samples is the worst approach to selecting participants. Similarly, Carter and Little (2007) also aver that qualitative research samples purposively. Below are the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

4.6.1.1 Inclusion criteria

For a participant to qualify to participate in the study, they were supposed to have the following:

- A female ex-offender
- Underwent rehabilitation programme(s)

- Was incarcerated within the Department of Correctional services at the designated centre, i.e., Westville correctional facility
- Willingness to participate in the study voluntarily and without expecting payment.

4.6.1.2 Exclusion criteria

While acknowledging that exclusion criteria cannot be exhausted, the following demographic details were the characteristics that the researcher considered in excluding offenders from participation in this study:

- If they were not female
- Did not attend any form of rehabilitation programme
- If they were from community or private correctional facilities
- Had indicated their reluctance to participate in the study.

4.6.2 Snowball sampling

The process of snowball sampling is whereby the participants of the research sample, assist the researcher by recruiting other participants for the study, hence, a referral process (Akhtar, 2016). This method of sampling is used when it is difficult to find participants or when participants are hard gain access to. The process is considered snowball, as a metaphor. Once the researcher has attained one participant; it becomes easier to gather more participants. Participants are selected based on the judgement of the researcher (Kabir, 2016). The role of the researcher is to identify potential participants, thereafter, ask those participants to refer or recruit other participants. This process is continued until the sample size is attained. The process of snowball sampling consists of ethical risks, as the names of the participants may be shared unconsciously or participants may feel called out, for being selected in a study (Klopper, 2008). It is imperative to ensure that all ethical measures have been adhered to within the process of sampling. The advantage of snowball sampling is that the sample size becomes attainable, due to the referral process of participants. Characteristics of the sample may also be identifiable, during the process of referrals. The disadvantage of snowball sampling is that it is hard to discover if a sampling error may have occurred. The ethical implications within snowball sampling are a risk for the study (Langkos, 2014).

4.7 Data collection method

Data for this study were collected through the use of qualitative interviews with female ex-offenders with a history of attachment to the Westville Correctional Centre (Appendix One).

According to Niewenhuis and Smit (2012), face-to-face interviews allow for the collection of more detailed and comprehensive information from participants. Interviews have traditionally been considered as the “gold standard” for qualitative research (Barbour, 2007:113). Consequently, others argue that it is unnecessary to provide motivation for using interviews as a data collection method (Harding, 2013). However, the researcher believes that it is still important to explain why interviews were preferred to other qualitative data collection methods such as observation, focus group discussions and observation among others. In most cases, in-depth interviews are mainly used when the researcher wants to capture people’s lived experiences considering a given topic (Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey, 2011). In this study, the main reason for selecting semi-structured face-to-face in-depth interviews was to allow the researcher to explore the experiences of female ex-offenders.

Face-to-face interviews are an important method of data collection because they offer a full range of communication benefits, enabling both parties to respond to the non-verbal cues displayed by the other (Harding, 2013). According to Webb and Webb, (1930:130 cited in Ritchie, Lewis, and Elam, 2003), the interview can be understood as a “conversation with a purpose”. In the current study, the researcher’s purpose was to uncover the cause of female offending, the experience of rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders and the limitation of rehabilitation programmes which are offered to female offenders. This conversation was guided by an interview schedule. The interview schedule covered all the wide range of areas that the researcher wanted to explore in depth. In order to extract rich and thick data, the researcher used amplification probes and follow-up questions. Amplification probes are used to encourage participants to provide more detail that is relevant to the topic, which ultimately improves data quality (Hennink et al., 2011).

4.8 Data collection instruments

The research instruments included (i) the researcher as key instrument, (ii) the interview schedule. The following two sections discuss these research instruments in relation to the supporting literature and the achievement of the current study's objectives.

4.8.1 Researcher as the key instrument

The researcher plays a central role in the research process, as he or she has perceptions that can be critical to transforming field data into meaningful data (Barrett, 2007). In this sense, Pezalla, Pettigrew and Miller-Day (2012), emphasised that the researcher's characteristics are important in data collection. The two authorities mentioned above argue that the researcher plays a central

role in taking field notes, reconstructing field notes, transcribing audio data, creating spaces for open participation, selecting salient aspects to find patterns that lead to themes, assigning meaning to data, and including relevant and appropriate data (Barrett, 2007; Pezalla et al., 2012). The researcher as an instrument is expected to foster interaction and connectedness with the participants and the data (Patton, 1994). All data were collected by the researcher who had a thorough knowledge of the objectives of this study. The researcher had appropriate interviewing skills that included systematic and logical questions and probing, thus ensuring the collection of quality data.

4.8.2 Interview schedule

An interview schedule (Appendix One) is a list of topics the researcher wants to address, with questions asked about each topic (Wilson, 2014). It outlines the crucial stages of the interview, from the introduction to the purpose of the interview to the topics to be covered. It is a guide that the interviewer refers to throughout the interview (Wilson, 2014). The importance of the interview schedule is mainly to focus the interview process and avoid the likelihood of deviation. However, the interview schedule is flexible because the researcher has the freedom to ask follow-up questions, especially when necessary. The interview schedule also determines the direction of thinking during the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee, as well as the pace of the interview process. In essence, the interview guide ensures that the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee is systematic and comprehensive (Cohen et al., 2007). In this study, the interview schedule (Appendix one) was used to interview female ex-offenders from a correctional facility in South Africa. The guide was one page long and consisted of two sections. The first section asked for the demographic data of the participants and the second section contained open-ended questions about the topic under study.

4.9 Pilot study

A pilot study is a mini-data collection that is conducted prior to the actual study conducted (In, 2017). The main purpose of the pilot study is to ensure that the study can be conducted efficiently on a larger scale (In, 2017). Hence, others call it a feasibility study because it is to measure if the proposed study is doable or practicable. The main benefits of a pilot study are to improve the quality data, and efficiency of the research process (In, 2017). A pilot study is also conducted to improve the researcher's experience with the data collection process and interventions, as well as to guide the estimation of sample size and time allocation for data

collection to improve efficiency (Mouton et al., 2015). Improving the researcher's skills is important since the researcher is the key instrument in qualitative research (Kvale, 1996; Pezalla et al., 2012).

In this study, a pilot study was conducted with a small sample, but identical to those the sample for main study (Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey, 2011). Therefore, the researcher used the same inclusion and exclusion criteria to select the participants for the main study (Thabane et al., 2010). Apt to note is that the participants that took part in the pilot study were excluded from the main study because they were already exposed to the questions on the interview guide. To avoid participants' exposure to the data collection tool, the pilot study sample of ex-offenders was drawn from another correctional facility. The main purpose was to determine if the questions were not ambiguous, easy to understand and get an idea of how long it would take to complete the interview. This was necessary for both planning purposes, and ethical considerations. The researcher felt that participants needed to know what they were signing for, and decide if they wanted to participate.

4.10 Data collection process for the pilot study

Data was collected through the use of qualitative, in-depth interviews. The following subsections describe each of the two data collection methods.

4.10.1 Interviews

Each of the interviews conducted lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. The interviews were all conducted in a recreational room at the correctional facility with each participant individually. The use of the recreation room was important to encourage participants to volunteer information in a relaxed situation. Prior to each interview, the researcher, with permission from the authorities, scheduled appointments with each participant who volunteered to participate in the study. Each participant was free to choose a day and time of their choice within a two-month period.

Prior to each interview appointment, the researcher had the opportunity to meet with each participant. During this meeting, the research purpose, objectives, any associated risks to the participants, confidentiality and anonymity issues, data retention, and reporting procedures were clearly explained to the participants. The researcher also informed participants that participation in the study was voluntary and that their names would not be associated with the responses in order to maintain anonymity. In this study, all participants agreed to be audio

recorded so that all interviews were recorded, which facilitated data collection. The researcher also advised participants that they had the right to withdraw at any stage of the study. Through this interaction, the researcher established good working relationships with all participants. This was necessary for participants to build trust with the researcher and feel free to provide detailed information.

4.10.2 Interviews for the main study

Given that the world is currently grappling with the COVID-19 pandemic, the researcher used telephonic interviews as a method of data collection for the nominated study. The advantage of telephonic interviews is that it is an efficient method, which allows the participant the opportunity to engage with the researcher at her convenience. Some online surveys and questionnaires offer incentives. Therefore, participants are motivated to complete such, with incorrect details, to qualify for the incentive. This was avoided, with telephonic interviews (Kabir, 2016). The advantage of telephonic interviews is that there was accessibility to participants and reduced risks of coming in contact with the dreaded coronavirus. In conducting telephonic interviews, the researcher would start the interview by explaining the ethical requirements as detailed under the pilot study. Participants were requested to choose a time slot when they were comfortable.

4.11 Data analysis

In this study, the researcher was the sole transcriber and evaluator. To make sense of the data collected, the researcher followed a systematic approach to data analysis. The following steps were followed in this study.

1. *Familiarisation*: The researcher listened to and transcribed the audios of the interviews with the participants. These audios were played and replayed while the researcher manually transcribed to ensure that no information was omitted. In addition, the researcher repeatedly read through the completed questionnaire and transcribed the responses appropriately to make sense of the data.
2. *Coding*: At this stage, the researcher created a dense and detailed description of the responses that reflected the insight value of the topic under study. Codes were created for each set of data that had commonalities.
3. *Generating themes*: Closely related data were grouped based on emerging patterns that made sense.

4. *Reviewing themes*: The researcher compiled related themes and reorganised them into categories that had common descriptions and meanings. These descriptions were used by the researcher to assign headings to the individual data.

5. *Defining themes*: Using the headings and descriptions from the previous phase, the researcher named all emerging themes and gave meaning to the data.

6. *Report*: All emergent themes and subthemes were summarised and a detailed description was written for each theme.

4.12 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness of research findings depends on the methodological approach. This is referred to as rigor of the study. Denzin and Lincoln (2017) and Maher et al. (2018) identified dependability, credibility, confirmability and transferability as necessary for measuring the trustworthiness of a study.

According to Barnes (2000), reliability is continuously debated; however, it is more important that the researcher provides conformability and transferability of results in a qualitative environment. This is important because it shows us that the researcher has broken barriers and fully understood the distinct aspects of the social environment that is being researched. According to Creswell and Miller (2000), although qualitative studies are unable to prove validity statistically, this concept is essential to find responses accurate to the research study. Qualitative studies require the researcher to play an instrumental role in maintaining a trustworthy, authentic, and credible study (Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules, 2017). For this role to be fulfilled, the researcher needs to be unbiased, focused, and able to build rapport with participants and other members in the social environment of the study. In the current study, the researcher played an unbiased role to ensure trustworthiness.

Credibility refers to internal validity; this is a term the researcher used to provide the study measures or test the phenomenon it intends to (Klopper, 2008). This is the process of proving that the results of a study can be transferred to the study population. To ensure validity in qualitative research, transferability is used (Creswell and Miller, 2000). Dependability is a process of ensuring reliability in a qualitative study. It requires the study results to be the same, provided that the method, techniques, and the sample are the same (Creswell and Miller, 2000). According to Creswell and Miller (2000), confirmability is the process of unbiasedness from

the side of the researcher. To regulate this, the researcher needed to ensure that the findings are informed by the participants' views and opinions and not the researcher's preferences.

The researcher implemented trustworthiness to ensure the research has actual value, applicability, neutrality, and consistency of qualitative research. Validity and reliability were improved using trustworthiness in the nominated qualitative study. The elements of trustworthiness guided the nominated study to ensure trustworthiness is maintained. The phenomenon of trustworthiness was secured by implementing precise methodological and data collection tools. This study provided the following processes.

4.12.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to whether the conclusions of the research are something that can be believed or relied upon (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). In this study, debriefing approaches, workshops in university clusters, and conference presentations were used to enhance credibility. Debriefing is a way to confer with a principal investigator about the progress of a study. In this study, the researcher consulted extensively with the supervisor about the data collection process, data capturing, data transcription, data analysis, and reporting of results. This helped the researcher to broaden the view of the concept being studied. In addition, the interpretations of the data and the final conclusions were shared with the participants so that they could clarify certain issues, correct errors, and provide additional information as needed.

4.12.2 Transferability

Transferability refers to the phenomenon of the study that can be applied to other situations (Shenton, 2004). To ensure transferability in this study, the researcher retained the original versions of the data from all data sources. The researcher ensured that an accurate contextual analysis of the fieldwork was conducted; detailed interview transcripts and transcribed questionnaire data were available.

4.12.3 Confirmability

Another strategy for ensuring trustworthiness is confirmability, proposed by Maher et al. (2018), which refers to how research findings can be confirmed or verified by an independent other. To ensure that the research findings fall into the category of confirmability, this study triangulated the data sources by triangulating the data obtained from the interviews with the data obtained from the questionnaire. This study ensures confirmability by ensuring that the

results are consistent with the data collected from the participants and by guarding against bias, thus ensuring that there are no discrepancies with the data collected. This ensures that any interpretation and reporting is based on the original data (Laher and Botha, 2012).

4.12.4 Dependability

Dependability refers to the stability of study results over time using the same methods and techniques (Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules, 2017). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), research processes must be detailed so that other researchers can replicate the process and obtain the same or similar results. In order for the reader to have an expert understanding of the steps taken by the researcher, the researcher provided a detailed description of the data collection process, which included trailing the data by sharing interview transcripts with research participants and engaging peer reviewers (Anney, 2014). The process of sharing interview transcripts with participants is called member checking (Shenton, 2004). It is important because participants get the opportunity to authenticate their own contributions, which overall adds to trustworthiness of the findings.

4.13 Reflexivity

Reflexivity refers to the critical consciousness of the researcher as a key figure in the research process (Haynes, 2012). Accordingly, reflexivity is a process in which the researcher focuses on the research process, potential research obstacles, and the impact of his or her preconceived notions on the research outcome (Haynes, 2012; Dodgson, 2019). In other words, reflexivity is a process in which the researcher is recognised as an active, rather than passive, element of the study. Reflexivity addresses the researcher's epistemological biases related to background information, training, experiences, and worldviews (Cole et al., 2011).

In this study, the researcher was aware of the sensitivity of the topic being studied, as it involved gaining access to information about the participants' personal lives. Therefore, the researcher focused mainly on the relationships between knowledge production, the process of knowledge production, and participant participation. To address the sensitivity of the topic, the researcher-built trust with the participants by assuring them that the data collected would only be used for research purposes. The researcher was extremely attentive and sensitive to any emotions from the beginning to the end of the interview so as not to hurt the participants in any way. In addition, the researcher constantly reviewed the research process, reflected on personal biases, and refined the research process. In addition, the researcher addressed the sensitivity of the topic by reassuring participants that social workers and psychological support services are

always there for them, so they need to accept what is on the ground and move on with their lives in a positive way.

4.14 Ethical considerations

Marshall and Rossman (2011), argue that trustworthiness is intertwined with ethical considerations that guided the study in question. Hence, the judging the trustworthiness of a study using the usual criteria of confirmability, credibility, dependability and transferability (Shenton, 2004) must not be separated from ethics. Similarly, Davies and Dodd (2002), advanced a powerful argument that, “ethics are an essential part of rigorous research...not to be treated as a separate part of our research – a form filled in for the ethics committee and forgotten”. Among the benefits of maintaining a strong commitment to ‘ethics in practice’ is that participants that are informed about their entitlement to withdrawing from the study without any likelihood of facing negative consequences (Wassenaar, 2006), are likely to less likely to lie, hence data quality is positively impacted (Shenton, 2004).

Further, the purpose of research ethics is to ensure that the research conducted does not interfere with socialisation in a setting or make a participant insensitive who may feel violated or demeaned for sharing their experiences on a particular topic or procedure that is not necessary for the success of the research. Prior to conducting the field research, the researcher applied for ethical approval from the University of KwaZulu-Natal’s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC/D0001586/2020). Only after the application was fully approved did the researcher begin conducting the research. While conducting this study, the researcher followed all ethical practices as described below.

4.14.1 Autonomy

Participation in a study should be voluntary after participants have been given the freedom to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. In this study, all potential participants were fully informed about the study. They were also informed of the right to stop participating in the study at any time. In this study, the researcher consulted extensively with the officials about the possibility of having participants with limited autonomy such as minors, the sick, or the mentally disabled. In the study, all participants were over the age of 18 and there was no one with any form of limited autonomy. All participants were fully informed about their participation in the study by means of an information sheet. Verbal information was followed by informed consent (Appendix Two) in an appropriate format. All participants had the opportunity to ask questions, which were addressed by the researcher during the informed consent process. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw from participation in the study at any point during the data collection process without providing a reason.

4.14.2 Informed consent

Informed consent takes the form of a document outlining the purpose of the research and any potential risks or benefits. This document allows the potential participant to make an informed decision about their participation. The researcher of this study provided participants with pertinent information about the study that allowed them to make a decision about their participation. The researcher was responsible for contacting potential participants. Data collection did not occur until consent forms were signed and returned to the researcher.

4.14.3 Privacy

Individual interviews were conducted in a recreational space suitable for efficient participation. The researcher focused on aspects that served to answer the research questions and did not ask for personal information about the researcher that might otherwise be irrelevant to the study and cause discomfort among participants.

4.14.4 Confidentiality

Research ethics require that participants be protected from any form of disclosure of their identity. There are many ways in which participants can be protected from a breach of confidentiality. In this study, data was cleaned to remove any form of identity, participants were informed that their contributions would only be used for research purposes, and participants were assured that any form of data storage would be kept under lock and key until disposed of through destruction (Kaiser, 2009).

4.14.5 Non-maleficence

In this study, neither the participants nor the gatekeepers were exposed to any form of risk or discomfort. The researcher used all possible methods to eliminate any form of risk or discomfort on the part of the participants. This study dealt with participants who were serving a prison sentence, which could trigger shyness or withdrawal thoughts, as some of them might feel like outcasts from society. The researcher assured participants that they would be treated with respect and that they had the right to withdraw as participants or to withdraw information that they had volunteered and felt uncomfortable about having that information used in the study.

4.14.6 Beneficence

Research is conducted to discover new information that adds value to society. Therefore, participation in research is voluntary and does not confer any benefits. In addition, the research

process must not harm anyone, and the information/results of the research must not be at the expense of any person or organisation. Researchers must adhere to the concept *primum non nocere* (First do no harm) (Nueman, 2014). In this study, the participants were informed that they would not receive any direct benefit from participating in the study. The main benefit was to advance knowledge and fill the knowledge gap. The information sought in this study was sensitive, but the researcher used this information to inform policy.

4.15 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher described the research paradigm and design used in the study. The study was based on a qualitative research approach. The researcher described the data collection process from participant selection to data analysis. Further, the researcher described the criteria for trustworthiness based on credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability. Ethical considerations were also described in detail. In the next chapter, the research findings are presented, analysed, and discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

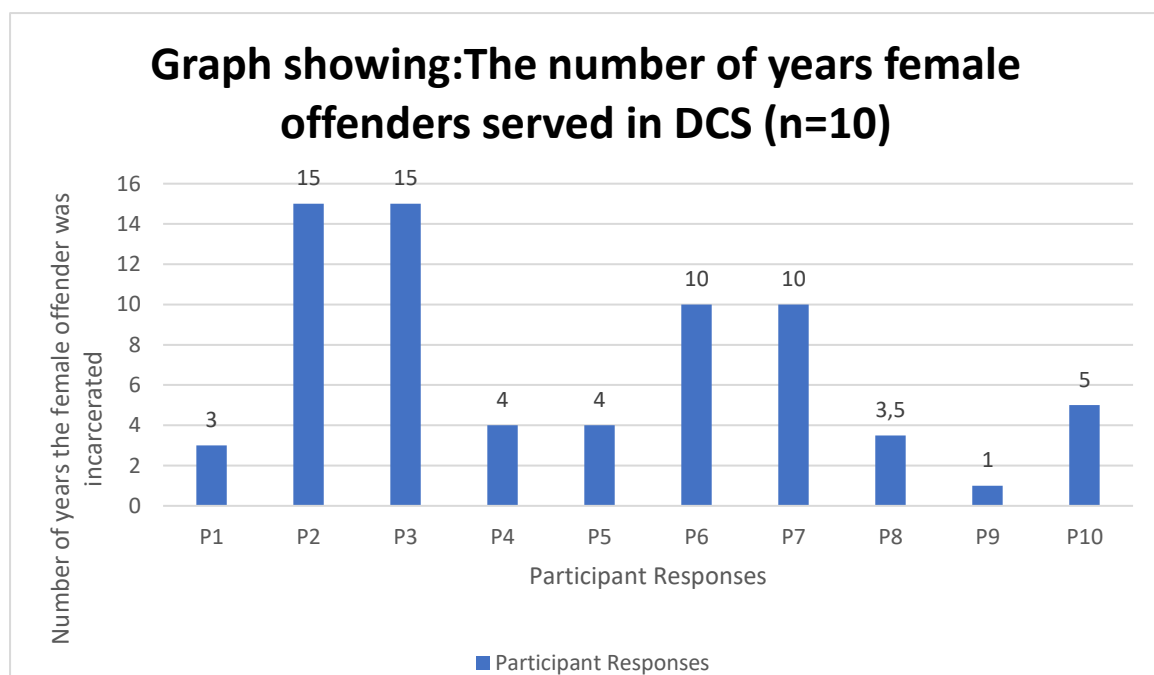
5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher demonstrates the responses of the participants by making use of graphs and tables. The researcher intended to emphasise the individual narratives of each respondent to show the effect of qualitative research.

This chapter analysed and interpreted the data collected by the researcher. Data depicted the experiences of ten female offenders, who were released from correctional services within South Africa. During their time within correctional services, these females participated in rehabilitation programmes and were, therefore, suitable candidates for the research study. Their responses were in accordance with the questions asked from the interview guide provided in Appendix A. This chapter concludes with a summary.

Graph 5.1 shows the number of years that the female offenders served in the Department of Correctional Services. The number of years of incarceration range from 1 to 15 years and depends on the type of crime which the female offender committed. The average number of years among the ten participants is 7.05 years.

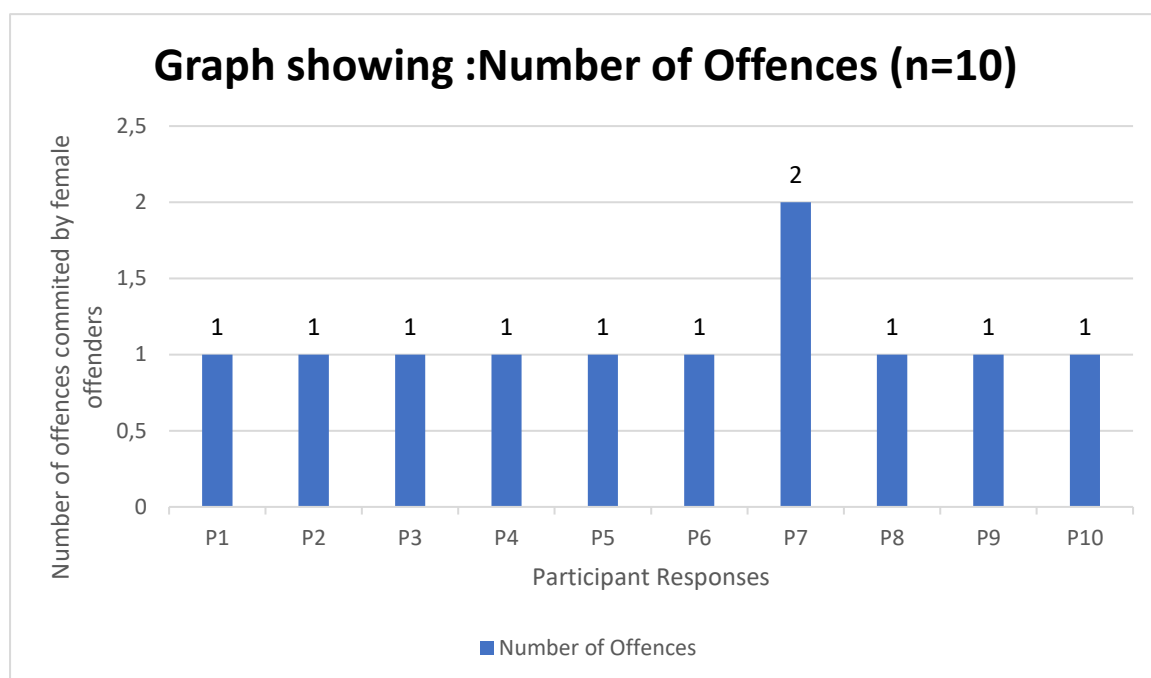
Graph 5.1: Number of years that the female offenders served in the Department of Correctional Services



Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

The findings from in-depth interviews have revealed that most females committed first-time offences, which led to their incarceration within the correctional services. Graph 5.2 depicts the number of offences the participant committed. Whilst these offenders were incarcerated for the nominated crime for the first time, this does not conclude that this was the only crime committed by the female offender. Many crimes committed by females were unreported or the females were not convicted due to the sympathy of the justice system or fear of male victims to report offences against the female offender.

Graph 5.2: Number of offences committed by female offenders

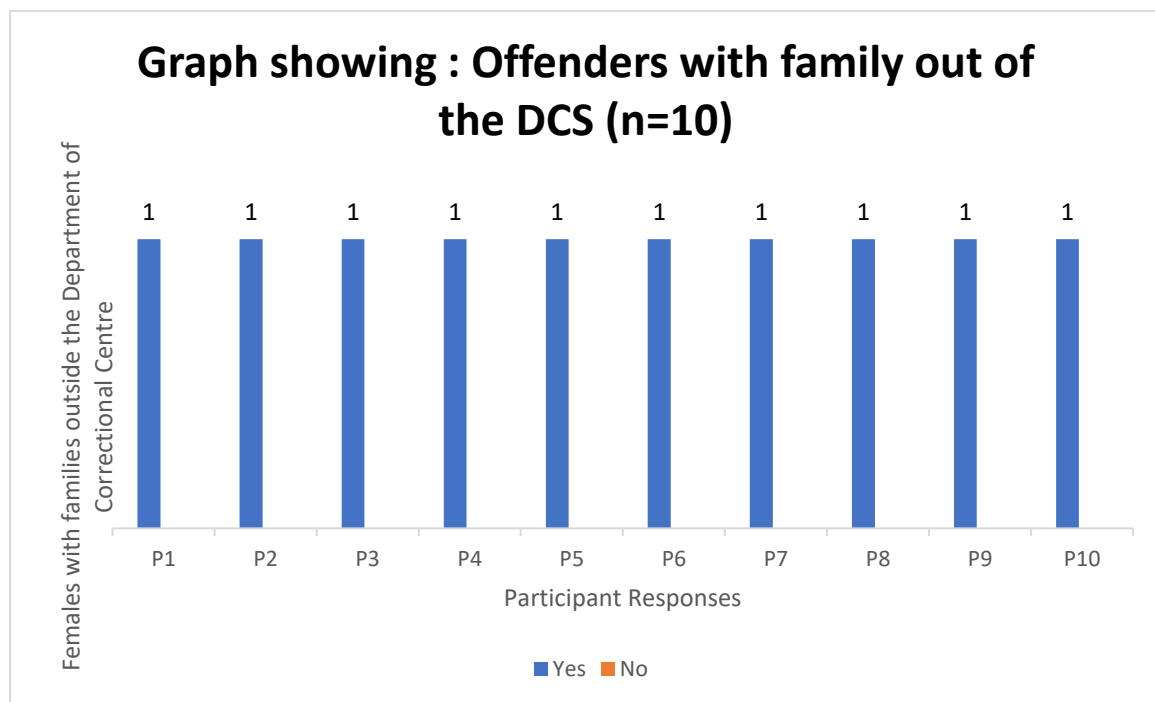


Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

Incarceration has a huge impact on the life of the family of the female offender. All the participants stated that they had families outside correctional services. This shows that all female offenders had a support system or a system that they were supporting financially or

emotionally. Graph 5.3 shows the number of participants with families outside of correctional services.

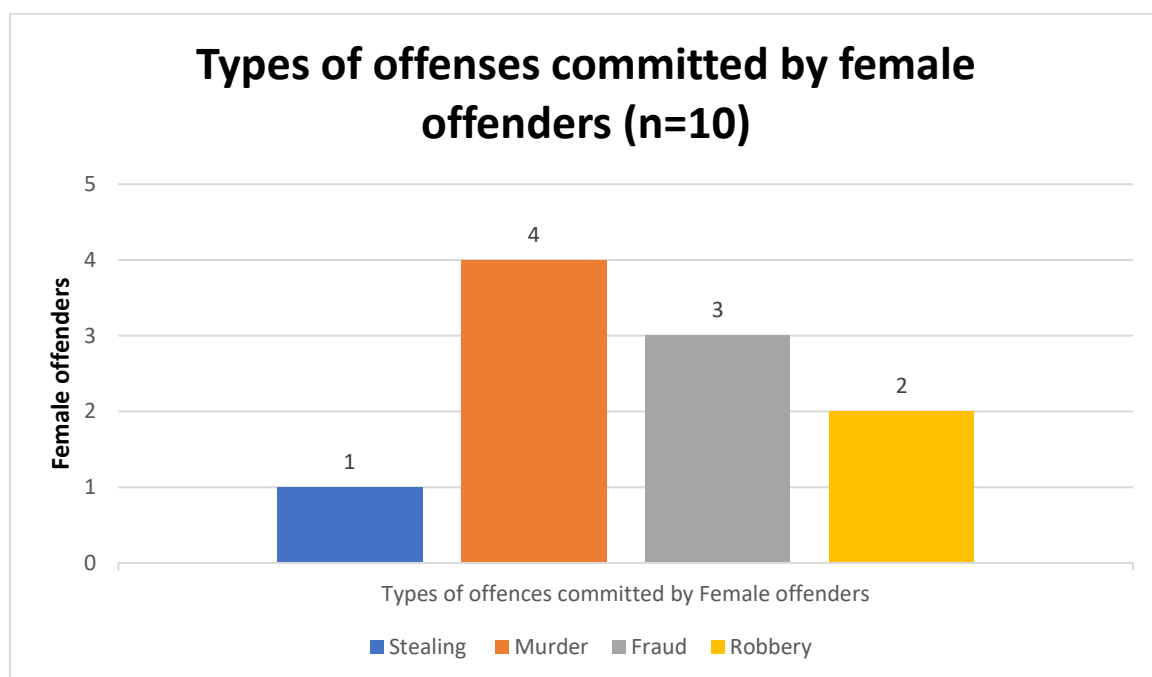
Graph 5.3: Female offenders with families outside the Department of Correctional Services



Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

The type of offences committed by the female offender is significant to determine the course of intervention which the offender needs to undergo. Graph 5.4 shows the type of offences committed by the study participants. The majority of female offenders were incarcerated for murder, whilst others committed theft, robbery or fraud. The motivations behind such crimes would be further discussed in the next chapter.

Graph 5.4: Types of offences committed by female offenders



Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

5.2 Theme one: The crime and its impact

The first theme that the researcher has analysed is the cause of the crime and its impact. This theme is divided into sub-themes: the cause of the crime, the impact of criminality on the family and the mind of the female offender. Female offenders have different motivations for criminality as compared to their male counterparts (Alder, 1933). It is important to focus on

the cause of the crime and the type of crime committed by the offender to understand the offender's justification for the act of criminality. Robert Agnew's (2015) general strain theory emphasises the likelihood of criminality in the presence of strains. Strains include parental rejections, criminal victimisation, discrimination, and desperation (Agnew et al., 2015). Moreover, Agnew's (2011) general strain theory considers criminal behaviour as a response to strains, as individuals who lack the mental stability to cope with their strains become more vulnerable to criminality. Criminality is deemed a coping mechanism in response to strains. Examples include theft as an escape from poverty (Agnew, 2011).

5.2.1 Sub-theme one: The cause of the crime

Extensive literature demonstrates that the female offender stems from a history of violence and abuse. Agboola (2016), emphasises that violence is not the only factor that relates to female criminality. Female offenders come from underprivileged backgrounds and are forced into drug distribution and sex work to provide for the needs of their families (Steyn and Booyens, 2019).

The findings from in-depth interviews have revealed that females that committed murder were emotionally motivated. Participants 2,3,6 and 10 committed murders. Three out of the four cases were self-defence, and these were females that were in abusive relationships. One out of four was a murder due to an upsetting argument. The offenders have justified their actions by the following responses:

"My husband was very abusive towards me, so I murdered him" (P2).

"My husband was very abusive, eventually I murdered him" (P3).

"Anger at the moment, I killed my sisters' friend" (P6)

"It was self-defence" (P10).

Although the responses demonstrate an act of self-defence, it is important to understand that the participants were abused women who experienced such emotions as anger, neglect and sadness, which motivated them to commit the offence. As emphasises Agnews (2011) emphasises, *"Individuals that lack the stability to cope with their strains, are more vulnerable to criminality"*.

Other participants expressed their cause of criminality, by also responding to question 10 and 11. These crimes include fraud, theft and stealing. The responses were as follows:

“I was ‘framed’; working was difficult at the time” (P1, Stealing).

“I was not satisfied with what I had” (P4, Fraud).

“At work, there was a syndicate; at first I was ‘framed’” (P5, Fraud).

“Financial crisis, unemployment. I needed to get some money to survive” (P7: Robbery).

“Peer pressure, friends” (P8, Robbery).

“It was a mistake and negligence” (P9, Fraud).

According to Carlen (1988), female criminality is based on the rejection of both the gender and class deals. Similarly, the participants in this research study found challenges to attain either the gender or class deal. According to Carlen (1988), the rejection of these deals, lead to females seeking other methods of attaining their needs such as criminality. Their responses demonstrated that they found it difficult to attain employment and their specific needs. In some instances, they found themselves in vulnerable situations which forced them into female criminality.

5.2.2 Sub-theme two: The impact of criminality on the family

Whilst these offences were caused by emotional strains, financial crisis or peer-pressure, the deeper motivation was the participant’s insatiable desire to acquire more than they had, which pressured them into the criminality. Many participants intimated that they were motivated to participate into criminal activities because of the need to support their families. The participants felt the need to commit a crime, due to the financial struggles their family experienced. Thus, the females were exposed to financial strains. The following responses help illustrate this point:

“They suffered a lot because I was the breadwinner; they had a lot of financial struggles, and my child had just started University” (P1).

“It affected my kids because they were young. They were questioning everything. I was lying to them that this is where I worked. It was difficult for them at school, and they were confused. Relatives would tell them the truth, and they were scared about me, wondering why there are police at work. They would wonder about the restrictions, like not being allowed to bring me food” (P4).

“It was difficult, especially for my son. It was hard for him to cope in school. Eventually, my family accepted it” (P5).

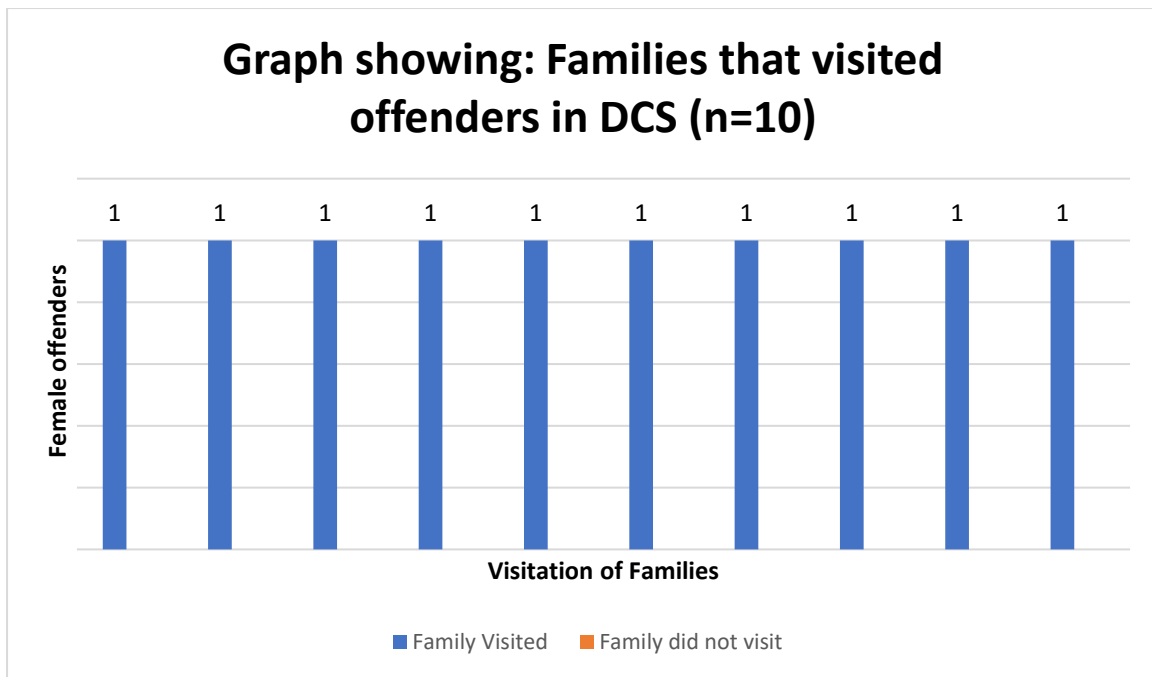
“They were hurt because they didn’t even know what I was doing” (P7).

“Financially, emotionally. I was the breadwinner, so it was difficult” (P8).

“Emotionally and financially, as I am the breadwinner” (P9).

These responses suggest that financial pressure could have been a major strain that led to female criminality. Many participants were breadwinners in their families, and this also financially affected the family during the participant's incarceration. The participants intimated that their families went through many difficulties, as the incarceration affected them emotionally, specifically P4, whose children experienced a lot of confusion and mixed emotions due to her incarceration. Participants expressed that adapting to the life of incarceration was a difficult experience, but the support from families made the transition easier.

Graph 5.5: Visiting time of the offender’s families during incarceration



Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

The responses of participants demonstrated in graph 5.5 showed that their families visited them, which helped them adapt to the life of incarceration. Their responses emphasised the support of families and serves as evidence that there was an understanding and acceptance between participants and their families. These responses are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Participants’ responses to Question 4

Question 4	
<i>Tell me about how your family dealt with the reality of your situation?</i>	
P1	<i>“My family was very supportive”</i>
P2	<i>“They were very supportive”</i>
P3	<i>“They were very supportive”</i>
P4	<i>“Difficult. It was hard to accept; they were disappointed but eventually supportive”</i>
P5	<i>“They were very supportive”</i>
P6	<i>“They were very supportive”</i>
P7	<i>“They were stressed, financially because I was the breadwinner”</i>
P8	<i>“They were very supportive”</i>
P9	<i>“They supported me, but it was difficult and stressful”</i>
P10	<i>“They were supportive”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

5.2.3 Sub-theme three: The mind of the female offender

As much as participants had the support of their families, many participants stated that during and even before their incarceration, they experienced symptoms of depression, and mental and eating disorders. Their responses have revealed that some participants experienced such symptoms before their incarceration. This implies that the treatment of such disorders could have prevented criminality. Thus, there is evidence of symptoms that lead to criminality in accordance with Agnew’s (2011) General Strain Theory. Hence, female offenders that lack the mental stability to cope with their strains are prone to criminality.

On the other hand, the existence of such symptoms could also indicate kleptomania, a mental disorder in which offenders cannot resist the urge to steal. However, with kleptomania cases, offenders may not require these items, and they steal them simply for satisfaction. Thus, due to financial strains resulting from unemployment and poverty in South Africa, the mental health disorders of female offenders is often overlooked.

Table 5.2: Participants’ responses to Question 12

Question 12	
<i>Do you experience symptoms of depression, mental disorders, or eating disorders?</i>	
P1	<i>“Sleepless nights”</i>
P2	<i>“Before I murdered him, I had sleepless nights; I would live in fear”</i>
P3	<i>“I experienced sleepless nights and anxiety before the murder”</i>
P4	<i>“Anger and Short temper”</i>
P5	<i>“None”</i>
P6	<i>“I have sleepless nights and anxiety”</i>
P7	<i>“Sleepless nights, I would recall my missing child”</i>
P8	<i>“No”</i>
P9	<i>“Depression, sleepless nights, anxiety”</i>
P10	<i>“Anxiety”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

Apart from providing clues to the prevention of criminality, the responses in Table 5.2 also provided insight into the type of rehabilitation programmes that these participants require. For example, it would be beneficial if participants experiencing sleepless nights, anxiety or depression attend rehabilitation programmes that address the emotional needs of the participant.

5.3 Theme two: The experience of rehabilitation at the Department of Correctional Services

Although participants expressed that they experience symptoms of depression and anxiety, the Department of Correctional Services has tried to make the transition process as efficient and welcoming as possible. The Department of Correctional Services aims to ensure that effective rehabilitation occurs, which prevents re-offending and allows the offender to integrate back into society. The Department of Correctional Services provides needs-based programmes to offenders, in order to enhance the process of rehabilitation. Participants expressed their views on the officials within correctional service centres in response to question 15, which will be further discussed in the fourth sub-theme.

5.3.1 Sub-theme four: Training of Department of Correctional Services officials

The training and capability of officials at the Department of Correctional Services play a significant role in ensuring that female offenders within the centre receive adequate support. Participants expressed their opinions on correctional officials by responding to Question 15. Table 5.3 depicts the responses of participants.

Table 5.3: Participants’ responses to Question 15

Question 15 <i>Do you think that the correction officials are well trained to deal with the offenders which enter the correctional centres?</i>	
P1	<i>“They are well trained. They have a lot of respect for us. We interact with different people and there is mutual respect”</i>
P2	<i>“They are well trained. We have a Peace Code. Within corrections I learnt English, because of the help of the officials; they are like family and there are no grudges”</i>
P3	<i>“Yes, they are respectful. They treat you like a member of the family, and they explain things to you when you are wrong. They taught me English”</i>

P5	<i>“Some are well trained. Psychologists and social workers are well trained and professional. Some wardens are well trained”</i>
P6	<i>“Yes, they are well trained outside and inside. They educate you and correct you; they are trained to deal with arrogance and anger from offenders”</i>
P7	<i>“Yes, they treat you with respect; they assist you, calm you down, teach you right from wrong, and prevent you from provoking, fighting back, so that you know how to behave. They treat you with respect”</i>
P8	<i>“Yes, they are well trained and helpful”</i>
P9	<i>“Some of them are not well trained. We are treated like criminals”</i>
P10	<i>“Some of them are well trained; it's their personality that shows you care”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

The overall response to this question shows that majority of the participants felt that officials within correctional centres are well trained and helpful. The role of officials is imperative, as it sets the tone and standard for the experience of rehabilitation. If officials are good communicators, helpful, well-trained, caring and good mentors, then this can assist the rehabilitation process of the female offender. Lack of sufficient training and understanding of the official’s role may tamper with the effectiveness of the offenders' rehabilitation. The adaptation to the Department of Correctional Services and acceptance of the incarceration sentence may also be well received if the offender feels that she is in a good, safe and developing environment.

5.3.2 Sub-theme five: Rehabilitative programmes

The officials at correctional centres are required to be well-trained and educated on how to deal with offenders, as well as to understand the rehabilitative programmes which are offered within the centre. The Department of Correctional Services employs social workers and psychologists to address the emotional needs of the offender, whilst private companies deliver the rehabilitative programmes offered. Due to financial constraints, or the challenges of the COVID-19 pandemic, officials at the centre are also required to deliver programmes to offenders.

Rehabilitative programmes offered to offenders are governed by Section 41 of the Correctional Services Act and Paragraph 9.7 of the White Paper of Corrections (Department of Correctional Services , 2020). According to the Department of Correctional Services (2021), these

programmes, attend to the needs of the offender, and the behaviour of the offender. Programmes delivered are limited to the availability, capacity, resources and landscape of the correctional services centre. The development of offender skills is an integral part of the rehabilitation process. Skills development assists offenders so that they can become self-employed upon their release.

In response to Question 7, participants shared the programmes which they have attended during their time of incarceration. Table 5.4 lists the programmes which participants have attended over the period they have been incarcerated at the Department of Correctional Services. The number of programmes attended is dependent on the period of incarceration. It is also important to note that many participants could not recall all the programmes that they have attended but listed as many as they could remember.

Table 5.4: Participants’ responses to Question 7

Question 7		
<i>What were the rehabilitation programmes you were enrolled in at the centre?</i>		
Participant	Offence	Response
P1	Stealing	<i>“I was enrolled in HIV/ Aids, Counselling, Building Stigma. There were others but I don’t remember them.”</i>
P2	Murder	<i>“Traditional Beads, Sewing, Dress Making, Cooking and Catering Services”</i>
P3	Murder	<i>“Beading, Sewing, Cooking, and catering Services”</i>
P4	Fraud	<i>“There were a lot of programmes, I recall beading and HIV programmes”</i>

P6	Murder	<p><i>“Anger management</i> <i>Pre-release Programmes</i> <i>HIV/Aids</i> <i>Counselling</i> <i>Self Esteem</i> <i>Family Life</i> <i>National Bead work training</i> <i>Chat set – Spiritual</i> <i>New Beginnings</i> <i>Changing Love</i> <i>Fast Image</i> <i>Crossroads Programme</i> <i>Mandela Blanket Project</i> <i>My life, my money, finance, education Programme</i> <i>YMCA</i> <i>Peace Education</i> <i>Alpha Course”</i></p>
P7	Robbery	<p><i>“Anger management, restorative justice, beading, sewing, catering services, craft work, cooking, hospitality. I did a lot; I have a lot of certificates”</i></p>
P8	Robbery	<p><i>“Anger management, social worker course at UKZN, and hospitality however COVID-19 disrupted us”</i></p>
P9	Fraud	<p><i>“New Beginnings”</i></p>
P10	Murder	<p><i>“Anger management</i> <i>HIV</i> <i>Peace Program</i> <i>Decision Making</i> <i>Sigma</i> <i>Restorative Justice”</i></p>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

Some participants did not recently attend many programmes due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Whilst others, specifically Participant 5, did not engage in skills programmes, because she was completing a higher certificate in economics. When looking at the rehabilitative programmes which the participants have attended, it is important to note the crime which they have committed. Most programmes offered and entered by participants are skills programmes as demonstrated in table 5.4, which share little relevance to the crime of the offender. The programmes attended by participants are as follows:

- Anger management
- Stigma
- Restorative justice
- HIV and Aids
- Peace programme
- Decision making
- Hospitality courses
- Social worker courses
- Beading
- Sewing
- Craft work
- Cooking
- Pre-release programmes
- Counselling
- Self-Esteem
- Chat Set – spiritual
- New beginnings
- Changing love
- Fast image
- Crossroads programme
- Mandela blanket programme
- My life, my money, finance, education programme
- YMCA
- Peace education
- Alpha Course

- Higher certificate in economics
- Dress making

Participants shared their experience of the programmes by responding to Question 8 of the interview guide. Their responses are shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Participants’ responses to Question 8

Question 8		
<i>Were the programmes you are enrolled of use or not to you as an individual?</i>		
Participant	Offence	Response
P1	Stealing	<i>“The programmes were very useful to me”</i>
P2	Murder	<i>“They were very useful; the beading helps me make money”</i>
P3	Murder	<i>“They were useful, beading helps me make money”</i>
P4	Fraud	<i>“They were useful; they brought out talents in me.”</i>
P5	Fraud	<i>“The programmes are helpful. They help you pass time. There are courses like Anger management, YMCA, Self-Image, Economic crime, pre-release, Alpha Course”.</i>
P6	Murder	<i>“Yes, a lot spiritually, financially, and emotionally. It brings them to a good space. People learn a lot.</i>

		<i>The programmes are rehabilitation; it increases self-esteem.”</i>
P7	Robbery	<i>“Yes, they are useful. People buy my bead work; some people buy my catering services”</i>
P8	Robbery	<i>“Yes”</i>
P9	Fraud	<i>“-” The participant did not respond, as she only attended one programme</i>
P10	Murder	<i>“Useful, especially anger management”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

According to the data collected, the rehabilitative programmes were found to be useful to participants. Apart from the process of rehabilitation, participants expressed that the programmes have assisted them to start businesses externally. These businesses include the sale of beading jewellery and catering services. Participants also expressed that such programmes were able to express and expose the talents of offenders and build the self-esteem of individuals. Although these are skills programmes, they are offered to participants or offenders within the centre as rehabilitative programmes. This is a concern, specifically for participant five, that completed a higher degree certificate, instead of attending skills programmes. This means that participants that complete high degrees or certificates fail to attend skills and development programmes, such as anger management or peace programmes, which means that the system fails to rehabilitate these offenders, as the emotional state of the offender, and means of survival post-release are not addressed. The next theme would further express the ways of improvements suggested by participants.

5.3.3 Sub-theme six: Risk factors

Although the researcher was unable to interact with participants in a correctional services environment, the advantage of interviewing female offenders is that they have interacted and shared experiences that the researcher would not be able to articulate by participant observation or interaction. In question 16 of the interview schedule, participants were asked *“What are the common risk factors that you have observed with other female offenders?”* Participants shared behaviours and traits which they observed over the years as common risk or predictive factors of criminality. The responses to this question are shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Participants’ responses to Question 16

Question 16	
<i>What are the common risk factors that you have observed with other female offenders?</i>	
P1	<i>“Other females were caught for drugs or shoplifting. They have no shelter, some are greedy, some make mistakes.”</i>
P2	<i>“Other offenders do crimes because of poverty, hunger, unemployment. They steal clothes and food because they can’t find work; they don’t have experience.”</i>
P3	<i>“Poverty, Hunger, Unemployment. People steal food and clothes because they have no work experience”</i>
P4	<i>“The majority of women are in for murder; they kill their husbands or boyfriends because of abuse. Some are in for theft; they come from poor families, and they steal food for their families. Some are in for drugs mixed with dagga.”</i>
P5	<i>“Females are caught shoplifting; it is due to peer pressure, new friends, smoking weed. People that murder do it out of anger and abuse. Others just have greed.”</i>

P6	<i>“Anger, Poverty, drugs, unemployment. They feed on drugs and alcohol. They need their families.”</i>
P7	<i>“Poverty, unemployment”</i>
P8	<i>“Poverty, they want more; it is easy to get stealing. Families are abusive, it is a means of getting away from their families. They have to kill or get rid of their abuser. Many regrets it because it wasn’t intentional”</i>
P9	<i>“Unemployment, these people are from poor families there is no school education. Some murder, they are angry, bitter”</i>
P10	<i>“They have a background of abuse, sexual abuse, anger, abusive relations that lead to their murder, unemployment, poverty”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

Common risk factors observed by participants include poverty, peer pressure, unemployment, abusive relationships and anger. These common risk factors have been observed in the literature of female offenders and are therefore evident throughout the history of female criminality.

5.3.4 Sub-theme seven: Offender interactions

To conclude the experience of correctional services, the researcher was interested to know about the relationship female offenders shared, as high risk and low-risk offenders share a similar environment within the Department of Correctional Services. Responses to question 17: *“Do you think interacting with other offenders can be a risk factor to reoffending?”* The responses of the participants showed admiration for each other. It demonstrated that there is a sense of respect and understanding for each other. The responses to Question 17 of the interview guide are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Question 17 participant responses

Question 17	
<i>Do you think interacting with other offenders can be a risk factor to reoffending?</i>	
P1	<i>“No, it is comfortable to interact with them”</i>

P2	<i>“No, we are a family. When interacting with others we learn to be positive, we learn the right path; when you are inside you must make positive decisions.”</i>
P3	<i>“No, we learn to help each other.”</i>
P4	<i>“Not at all. They have all learned from their mistakes. There is a reversal of roles. It helps to be among them. We learn that if there are misunderstandings you walk away. There are lessons learnt from there.”</i>
P5	<i>“Both. It is positive because we learn to be good, we don’t want life sentences. It is negative because we learn a lot of things from others, and we learn negative.”</i>
P6	<i>“These interactions motivate and encourage us. There is no hate and no revenge We pray together, we teach each other.”</i>
P7	<i>“No”</i>
P8	<i>“No, it is helpful. It changes our way of thinking. It assists you in thinking about who I was, and I don’t want to commit a crime. We learn from officials to be better people”</i>
P9	<i>“It is beneficial, that similar crime groups become friends. Some people judge people until they know the crime. However, within corrections we are in no position to judge each other, we motivate and learn from each other”</i>

P10	<i>“No, communication allows us to understand, maybe they are hurt”</i>
-----	---

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

Participants expressed that their interactions with other offenders was harmonious, an open communication line, filled with motivation and support for one another. This support structure may help an offender to adjust to the challenges of adaption to the reality of incarceration. It is important to note the response of participant 5, who stated that: *“Both. It is positive because we learn to be good, we don’t want life sentences. It is negative, because we learn a lot of things from others, and we learn negative”*. Social learning does occur in correctional environments, and it is a concern and a risk that negative behaviour traits or patterns can be replicated within the correctional services centre.

5.4 Theme three: The outcome of rehabilitative programmes

The experience of rehabilitative programmes can either have a positive or negative impact on offenders. To obtain data on this theme, the researcher focused on asking questions about the way that the Department of Correctional Services can improve on the rehabilitative programmes offered to offenders, the shortcomings of the programmes which they attended, and whether or not the programme has reformed them or would prevent them from committing crimes again.

5.4.1 Sub-theme eight: Improvement of the Department of Correctional Services

Although the responses showed that existing rehabilitative programmes are helpful and useful to participants, Question 20 allowed participants the opportunity to express ways in which they feel the Department of Correctional Services can improve their role in rehabilitation. Question 20, on the interview guide, reads *“Anything corrections can do to improve?”* The responses of participants are shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Participants’ responses to Question 20

Question 20 <i>Anything corrections can do to improve?</i>	
P1	<i>“They should help people to find jobs and get settled; this will prevent us from going back to crime.”</i>

P2	<i>“We need help to find job; we want to work. Even if they can help us become cleaners in hospitals.”</i>
P3	<i>“They should help us find employment. I want to work as a cleaner, but it is very difficult.”</i>
P4	<i>“They should create jobs for us when we are released. There should be a programme for ex-offenders. Instead of supervisors coming to us to sign registers. We should do Agri-culture or planting. With a criminal record, it is hard to get help or employment.”</i>
P5	<i>“Unemployment, it is hard to find a job with a criminal record. Even if you have a degree and experience. There is a need for community interventions, going back to the community and not being accepted by them. The community needs to be educated</i>
P6	<i>Find employment; this is additional stress. It is difficult for our families.”</i>
P7	<i>“It would help a lot if we invested in ourselves. DCS should help us set up businesses”</i>
P8	<i>“They should help you find a job. Bring more programmes”</i>
P9	<i>“Extend rehabilitation programmes till post-release; The government needs to subsidise, to stop re-offending we need to find work.”</i>
P10	<i>“Help us find employment. Make time to socialise with us not just parole supervise”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

All participants expressed the difficulty of finding employment with a criminal record. All participants believe the Department of Correctional Services can do more to help them find employment or even continue skills programmes after their release. It is important to highlight the response of Participant 9, *“The government needs to subsidise, to stop re-offending we need to find work”*. The reason to emphasise this is that the risk factors indicated in sub-theme six mention factors such as poverty, peer pressure, unemployment, abusive relationships and anger show that, regardless of the effectiveness of a rehabilitation programme, if an offender is unable to overcome the risk factors, such as poverty or unemployment after her release, she would be forced to revert back to criminality.

5.4.2 Sub-theme nine: Shortcomings of current rehabilitative programme

A shortcoming is defined as a fault or failure to reach a specific standard (Cambridge Dictionary, 2021). To uncover the shortcomings within the rehabilitative programmes offered at the Department of Correctional Services, the researcher posed question 18 “*Are there any shortcomings to the current rehabilitation programmes that are offered?*” Participants responded with either yes or no responses. However, specific participants expressed their opinions thoroughly. Table 5.9 tabulates the responses of participants.

Table 5.9: Participants’ responses to Question 18

Question 18 <i>Are there any shortcomings to the current rehabilitation programmes that are offered?</i>	
P1	<i>“No. However, we did not receive certificates”</i>
P2	<i>“No”</i>
P3	<i>“No”</i>
P4	<i>“No”</i>
P5	<i>“Don’t fit the crime. Facilitators are not experienced. Programmes like self-image and anger management are done by pastors, and they come and speak of GOD, which changes the focus of the programmes.”</i>

	<i>There are courses done by officers. They don't have time. It takes three days for a post-release course. There are things we need to know like, relationships, how we deal with it."</i>
P6	<i>"No, every time they are offered, we attend."</i>
P7	<i>"No, the growth helped."</i>
P8	<i>"They should allow us to complete it even after we have been released. They should offer programmes such as driving licence and driving schools"</i>
P10	<i>"Programmes should be extended post-release. People that are released also need development."</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

The researcher found that some participants who were completing higher certificates and degrees rather than skills programmes expressed different views of the rehabilitative programmes offered at the Department of Correctional Services Centre. For Example, Participant 5 completed a higher certificate in economics, and expressed her opinion on the rehabilitative programmes as follows: *"Don't fit the crime. Facilitators are not experienced. Programmes like self-image and anger management are done by pastors, who come and speak of GOD, which changes the focus of the programmes. There are courses done by officers. They don't have time. It takes three days for a post-release course, but there are things we need to know like, relationships, how we deal with it"*.

This is important to note as the curriculum of courses should not be culturally specific, or speak to the belief structure of some offenders, as this may be offensive to offenders that share different beliefs. Courses delivered by officials need to be delivered by officials who have time to complete this role as the course facilitator. Programmes must address the needs of all female offenders, if an offender chooses to complete an educational curriculum.

Participant 8, who completed a social work course at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, whilst in rehabilitation, stated that *"They should allow us to complete even after we have been released. They should offer programmes such as driving licence and driving schools"*. This shows that the duration of the course might have not been considered in conjunction with the sentence of the offender. The proposed courses such as driving licences may assist the offender

to find employment easily after release. Transportation or driving occupations don't discriminate on applicants with a criminal record when appointing employees.

Participant 9 who completed a higher certificate in banking before her incarceration stated that *“They do not help, e.g., self-image is for someone that is depressed, but the person needs to see a psychologist. We need to express how we are coping and feeling. There needs to be assistance, so we stay out of trouble.”* This is an important observation to note, as skills programmes may be beneficial to the offender, and provide growth, but does not necessarily address the rehabilitative psychological needs of the offender.

Participant 10 who did not disclose her level of education stated that *“Programmes should be extended post-release. People that are released also need development”*. This suggestion is commendable, as many offenders find it difficult to adjust post-release. Development programmes after release may assist the offender to adapt to the societal environment.

5.4.3 Sub-theme ten: Proposed programmes

Question 9 of the interview guide required participants to propose programmes that they would like to be included in the rehabilitative courses offered at the Department of Correctional Services. The responses of participants are shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Question 9 participant responses

Question 9	
<i>Are there any programmes that you would like to propose that are currently not available within the centre?</i>	
P1	<i>“Cooking, baking and catering”</i>
P2	<i>“A teaching course”</i>

P3	<i>“Teaching courses, English courses”</i>
P4	<i>“Workshops, tiling or building programmes, programmes that can help us design uniforms, clothing”</i>
P5	<i>“Yes, most of the programmes are run in groups. Some learners may not relate due to the cause of the crime. For example, a shoplifter doing Anger management”</i>
P6	<i>“No”</i>
P7	<i>“Communication, how to stay with people, respect parole”</i>
P8	<i>“No suggestions”</i>
P9	<i>“N/A”</i>
P10	<i>“Self-image, how to deal with family, facing life after correctional centres is way harder, we need to be prepared for family interactions”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

It was exciting to note that participants knew what they need. The programmes suggested, such as cooking, baking, catering, teaching courses, English courses, tiling, building, uniform making, are skills programmes, which would allow the participant to become an entrepreneur after their release. Employment opportunities after their release are a challenge and, therefore, these programmes aid the growth of the participant's skills and self-employment.

Participants also express the need for programmes which can assist them with the process of adaptation after release. Participant 7 expressed that there is a need for *“Communication, how to stay with people, respect parole”*. Participant 10 emphasised this by stating that *“Self-image, how to deal with family, facing life after correctional centres is way harder; we need to be prepared for family interactions”*.

The Department of Correctional Services indeed provides programmes which address these needs. However, such programmes are run in groups and not in conjunction with the sentence of the offender. This means that an offender with a shorter sentence may be released before being engaged in programmes that address or prepare her for life after serving her sentence.

5.4.4 Sub-theme eleven: The effectiveness of a rehabilitative programme

Criminal rehabilitation is a significant process that allows the offender to grow and develop by separating themselves from factors leading to criminality, such as peer pressure, poverty and unemployment. The purpose is to ensure that after rehabilitation the offender can live a crime-free life. Therefore, each contributing factor needs to be treated with careful consideration.

The researcher sought to obtain the view of the participants based on the rehabilitative programmes in which they engaged. In order to ensure the reliability of the response, the researcher asked the same question in 3 different ways. The responses from participants about questions 13, 14 and 19 are shown in Table 5.11. Most responses showed that the study participants found the rehabilitative programmes offered at the Department of Correctional Services to be helpful after their release. This would be further discussed in the next chapter.

Table 5.11: Participants’ responses to Question 13, 14 and 19

	Question 13 <i>Do the programmes you attend help prevent you from resorting to crime?</i>	Question 14 <i>Do you think the programmes that were enrolled in assisted you when you are released or prevented re-offending?</i>	Question 19 <i>Do you think that the programmes offered to you have helped you reform from the crime you initially committed?</i>
P1	<i>“Yes, they helped me create a positive mindset; it allowed me to</i>	<i>“It prevented re-offending”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>

	<i>accept the situation and everything I was experiencing”</i>		
P2	<i>“Yes, they do”</i>	<i>“Yes, they help; they assist to make life easier, it helps bring in money, it helps us survive, it helps us to learn to do things, like communicate and be friendly.”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>
P3	<i>“Yes, they provide an income”</i>	<i>“Yes, it prevents me from going back to crime”</i>	<i>“Yes, you learn positive things. The right way of life. When you are inside, you must decide on the right choices.”</i>
P4	<i>“Yes”</i>	<i>“Yes, beading for example changes your mindset, it requires you to focus, and pay attention.”</i>	<i>“It has improved me.”</i>
P5	<i>“No, people go back to crime”</i>	<i>“No, they need to design programmes that link to the crime. Courses that help. Call it a crime, impact of crime to family or communities. Re-offending happens after the courses, people come back are redo the same courses. They do them for the parole board, to meet parole requirements.”</i>	<i>“No, not really, the crime doesn’t fit the programme. Everyone has different situations. They should select people. they should group offenders. Teach us how to be careful, show us patterns to report incidences, we must deal with the fears when reporting or whistle blowing.”</i>

P6	<i>“No, they are helpful programmes”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>
P7	<i>“No, I’m surviving on catering”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>
P8	<i>“Yes, it helped”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>	<i>“Yes”</i>
P9	<i>“N/A”</i>	<i>“N/A”</i>	<i>“N/A”</i>
P10	<i>“Yes, it prevents reoffending and unemployment”</i>	<i>“Yes, anger management helped me to calm down and walk away”</i>	<i>“Yes, it helped a lot. It was my first and last crime”</i>

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter analysed the data collected by the researcher. Three main themes were highlighted in this chapter, namely, the crime and its impact, the experience of rehabilitation at the Department of Correctional Services, and the outcome of rehabilitative programmes. Female offenders have a history of poverty, unemployment, abuse and neglect. It is significant to note that the incarceration of an offender has a negative impact on the family of the offender financially and emotionally. Whilst the family experiences emotional anguish, participants also experience emotions problems and symptoms of mental disorders, both before and during incarceration. The data collected by the researcher emphasised Agnew’s (2011) general strain theory and Carlen’s (1988) rejection of deals scenario. Hence, if females are unable to cope with strain, they may be led to criminality. Females who reject or are unable to attain the gender or class deal may choose the alternative and lapse into criminality.

The experience of correctional services includes such aspects as official training, rehabilitative programmes, risk factors, and offender interactions. Most participants expressed that officials within the Department of Correctional Services are well trained. However, it was highlighted that the role of officials is not to deliver rehabilitative programmes. Officials who do present programmes need to be trained to ensure the effectiveness of the programme. Whilst there is a long list of rehabilitative programmes provided to offenders, many of these programmes are not run-in conjunction with the duration of an offender’s sentence. Programmes are limited and

fail to address the needs of the offender. These programmes are considered skills programmes and, therefore, offenders who are completing higher certificates or degrees are not exposed to them. Participants expressed that rehabilitative programme are beneficial post-release, as it assists them in gaining financial income, helps develop emotional intelligence, and prevent short temper situations.

The experience of correctional service centres allowed participants to observe others. Participants were asked about common risk factors which they were able to identify among others within the centres, and in response identified factors such as unemployment, poverty, abusive relationship and peer-pressure. Participants expressed interactions with other offenders as harmonious, an open communication line, filled with motivation and support for one another. This support structure may help an offender to adjust to the challenges of adaption to the reality of incarceration.

The aim of this study was to explore the effectivity of the current rehabilitation programmes offered within the Department of Correctional Services by reducing re-offending. Participants expressed that their main concern is finding employment after incarceration and that more should be done by the Department to assist their employability post-release. This is significant because lack of employability can lead to re-offending. The researcher found that participants with a higher level of education found flaws in the rehabilitative programmes offered by the Department of Correctional Services. Participants also proposed that the programmes offered should fit the crime of the offender. Development courses and adaptation courses should also be implemented. Participants proposed programmes that should be offered within the centre which are more likely to increase employability post-release. Such programmes are cooking, baking, catering, teaching courses, English courses, tiling, building, and uniform making. Overall, the effectiveness of a rehabilitation programme is measured by its ability to prevent re-offending. Whilst the majority of the participants are satisfied with the programmes they were offered, a significant view was shared about the programmes offered. Participant 5 expressed that the Department of Correctional Services should provide programmes that link to the crime of the offender, as this would be more helpful. Participant 5 further stated, offenders come back into centres and re-do programmes which they have previously completed, due to parole requirements. To conclude, participant 5, expressed that offenders need to learn how to report misconduct or whistle blowing within the Correctional Centre. Although this response was from one participant, the importance of this response is imperative

to improving the type and manner of rehabilitation programmes that are offered within correctional centres.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the analysis and interpretation of data collected by the researcher. The data was divided into themes and sub-themes, in order to address the research objectives of the study. The aim of the study was to explore current rehabilitation programmes offered within the Department of Correctional Services and develop offence specific rehabilitation programmes that address the needs of the female offender.

Theme one explored the cause of the crime and its impact. The research findings have revealed that female criminality is influenced by strains, which females in South Africa experience. These strains include poverty, unemployment, peer-pressure, mental illness and abuse. The data has also shown that the offence of the offender has a negative impact on the family of the offender. Offenders were supported by the family during the process of incarceration. However, it was reported that families lost support of the female offender who was the bread winner within the family. The data further revealed that females experience symptoms of depression and mental illness both prior to and during incarceration. This is important to note because if issues of mental illness were addressed criminality could potentially have been avoided.

Theme two explored the experience of rehabilitation within the Department of Correctional Services. The data analysed demonstrated that many participants felt that correctional officials are well trained. However, participants also reported that some correctional officials are not adequately trained to deliver rehabilitative programmes to the offenders. This is an additional role to the correctional officials' duties, and officials do not allocate the time required to deliver rehabilitative programmes. The data analysed demonstrated that the rehabilitative programmes offered to offenders would be helpful to them after release. However, it is important to note that the offenders with a higher qualification viewed the skills programmes as unhelpful as they were not offence specific. It was also found that offenders with higher qualifications did not participate in skills programmes. This is important to note as skills programmes offered offenders the opportunity to rehabilitate and reflect on the crimes and decisions of the offender. Risk factors of criminality observed consisted of poverty, peer-pressure, unemployment, abusive relationships and anger. Female offenders reported that interacting with other offenders

was helpful as it helped them reflect on the choices they have made, and this communication between offenders also educates offenders on crime and its consequences, which is motivational to other offenders.

Theme three explored the outcome of rehabilitative programmes. Participants expressed the need for the Department of Correctional Services to assist them to secure employment after their release. Offenders need to overcome risk factors such as poverty and unemployment to prevent re-offending. The shortcomings discovered from the data analysed include the fact that rehabilitative programmes fail to address the offense of the offender. Participants also expressed the need to continue rehabilitative programmes after their release. The data collected allowed participants to share programmes which they wish to propose that the Department of Correctional Services should offer. The analysis found that these programmes include cooking, baking, teaching courses and driving licenses. The effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes was also expressed by participants. The research findings have revealed that the majority of the participants found rehabilitation programmes helpful. However, the response that contradicted other participants was that the rehabilitation programmes fail to fit the offense of the offender and re-offending occurs after their release, whereby offenders return to complete the same rehabilitation programmes.

This chapter would present the results from the research study and further discuss them. The data for the study was obtained from structured interviews conducted by the researcher. The interviews were done telephonically between the researcher and participants, who were female offenders released from the Department of Correctional Services.

There is an apparent lack of “offence-specific rehabilitation programmes” within the Department of Correctional Services (Department of Correctional Services, 2004). The study aimed to solve this problem by exploring the programmes currently offered at correctional services and developing effective “offence-specific rehabilitation programmes” for female offenders. The researcher implemented thematic analysis, as this method is advantageous when collecting and analysing qualitative data.

This study focused on female offending due to the lack of focus and literature on females. Over centuries female criminality has been neglected (Heidensohn, 1996). Although the work of Lombroso highlighted the female offender within criminology, it discussed females as overgrown children that lack moral intuition. The work of Lombroso emphasised that female

offending was due to females having male characteristics, concluding that females who partake in criminal activities resembled males. The growth of feminist criminology gave rise to explanatory models of female criminality. According to feminist criminology, the growth in female criminality could be attributed to the increase in gender inequality over time. Francios and Booyens (2017), explain that the low population of female offenders explains the lack of attention given to female offenders by policy and invention makers. According to Moffat (1999), the non-violent behaviour of female offenders often fails to gain attention or put pressure on correctional bodies. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), centres with male offenders consists of gang involvement, rape cases, abuse, and peer pressure within centres, but female offenders fail to attract such issues. Females and female criminality have always been a challenge for the criminal justice system. The use of a “blanket approach” fails to address the specific needs of the female offender. There is a need to establish effective rehabilitative programmes for female offenders.

To address the research questions and objectives, data was collected from 10 participants. The demographics of the participants were not relevant to the study. Participants were selected if there were females who have been exposed to criminal rehabilitative programmes within the Department of Correctional Services. Female offenders that have been exposed to rehabilitative programmes were able to provide key information regarding their experiences of these programmes. The process of thematic analysis was used to analyse the data collected by the researcher during the telephonic interviews with participants. The researcher was required to familiarise herself with the data collected by re-reading and understanding the information provided by participants. The researcher thereafter deduced themes by grouping similar experiences and organising them according to the objectives and research questions of the study. The process of coding was followed to ensure that the data was manageable to analyse further. The researcher, thereafter, went through the process of elaboration by extending the coded data forming sub-themes.

Before collecting data, the researcher ensured that all ethical considerations were adhered to. The researcher followed the ethical guidelines provided by the University of KwaZulu-Natal’s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. The identities of the participants were protected using pseudonyms.

6.2 Participant demographics

The demographics of the participants who participated in the study are tabulated in table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Demographics of research participants

Participant	Race	Gender	Offence
P1	Black	Female	Stealing
P2	Black	Female	Murder
P3	Black	Female	Murder
P4	Black	Female	Fraud
P5	Black	Female	Fraud
P6	Indian	Female	Murder
P7	Black	Female	Robbery
P8	Black	Female	Robbery
P9	Black	Female	Fraud
P10	Black	Female	Murder

Source: (Empirical research, 2021)

The table 6.1 above demonstrates the demographics of the research participants. This includes the race, gender and offence of the participant. The participants were nine Black South African females and one Indian South African female. These participants were randomly selected based on their availability to participate in the study. The majority of females committed murder, whilst others committed economic crimes in the form of fraud, robbery or theft. The following research objectives would guide the discussion about the theoretical framework and literature reviewed by the researcher. The purpose of the discussion is to emphasise patterns over historical and current qualitative findings.

6.3 Objective one: Exploring the current rehabilitation programmes for female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services

This objective aimed to explore the current rehabilitation programmes for female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), the purpose of rehabilitation programmes is to prevent re-offending and ensure that offenders can reintegrate with society, ensuring safer communities.

Rehabilitation programmes offered by the Department of Correctional Services are currently guided by Section 41 of the Correctional Services Act and paragraph 9.7 of the White Paper of Corrections (Department of Correctional Services, 2020). There are currently three policy documents that are used to govern the treatment of female offenders: The White Paper on Corrections, the White paper on Families, and the Bangkok Rules. All policy documents demonstrate a constructive, detailed framework to ensure that the rehabilitative process is effective. However, there is a lack of implementation due to the resources required to fulfil the potential of these policies.

The White Paper recognises female offenders as a vulnerable population within the correctional environment and therefore focuses on the corrections, development, security, care, facilities and aftercare regarding the rehabilitation and reintegration of female offenders. According to the White Paper (2005), special priority is focused on female offenders who are pregnant within the system, as this is a crucial time for both mother and child.

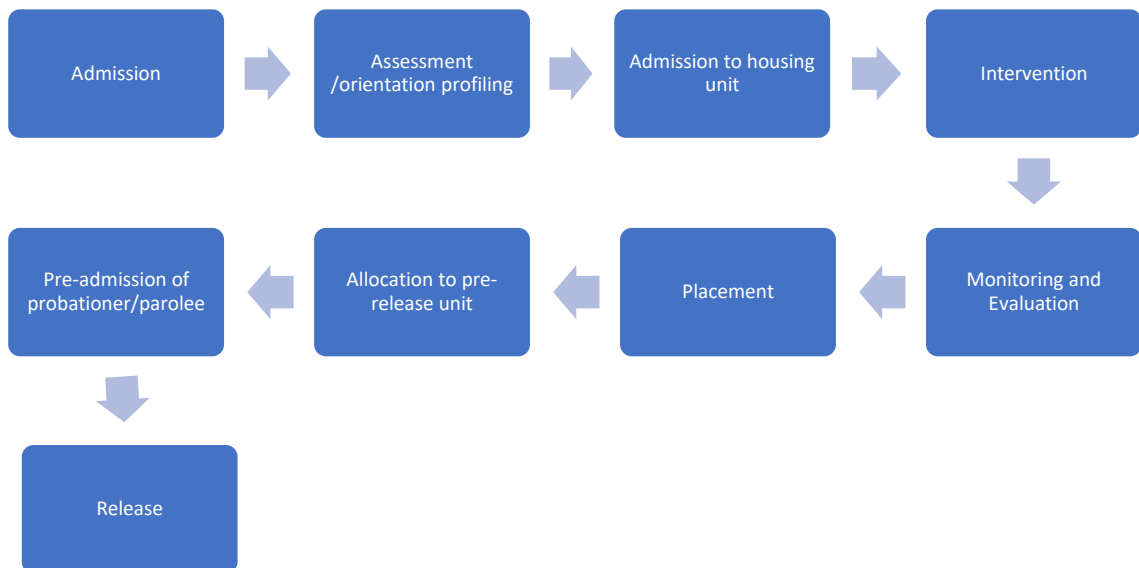
The White Paper on Families acknowledges the family of the offender as an essential role player in the reintegration process, back into society. The objective of this document, among others, is to ensure that families engage with the rehabilitative process with the offender and that there is improved contact between the offender and her family.

The Bangkok Rules ensures that the needs of incarcerated females are met, as this aids the rehabilitative process. This includes the following aspects;

- Hygiene
- Childcare
- Gender-sensitive programming
- Prior victimisation and trauma
- Safety and security
- Emotional wellbeing
- Use of restraints
- Contact with families
- Juvenile female offenders
- The use of gender-sensitive risk assessment and classification tools
- Pregnant offenders

- Mothers in correctional services centres with their children

Figure 6.1: Offender rehabilitation path within the Department of Correctional Services

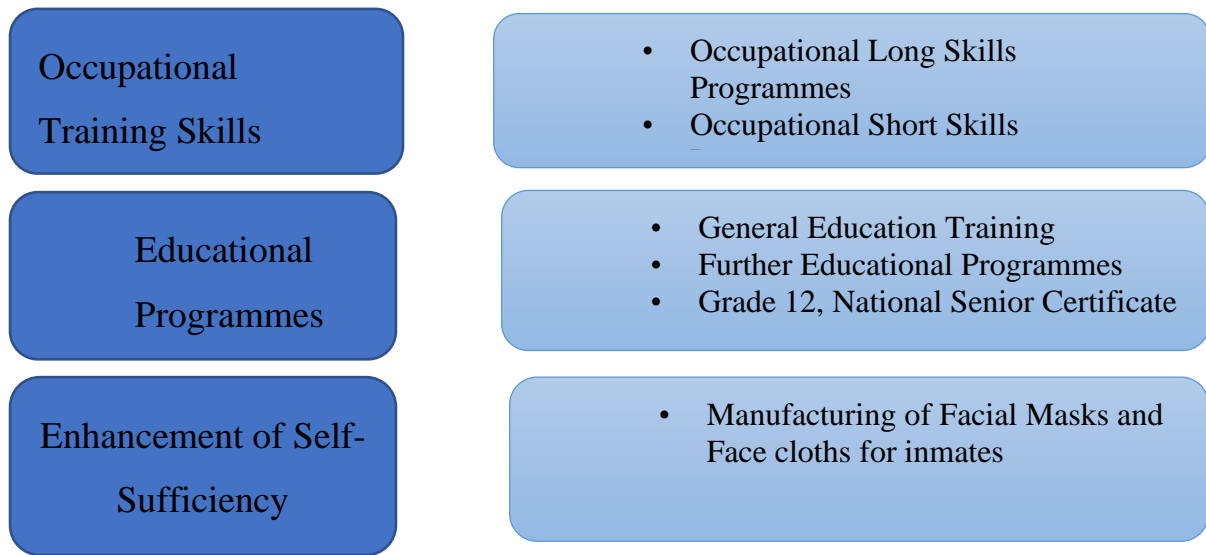


Source: (Department of Correctional Services, 2020)

The offender rehabilitation path demonstrated in figure 6.1 consists of all the interventions for an offender from the point of entering the correctional services centre (admission), to the point when he/she is reintegrated into society (social reintegration).

The Department of Correctional Services addresses rehabilitation of offenders in programme 3 of their annual performance plan. The purpose is to provide offenders with needs-based interventions to aid their rehabilitation. The programme is divided into two parts, which include correctional programmes and psychological, social and spiritual programmes. Correctional programmes as shown in figure 6.2 below consist of offender development, such as occupational training skills, educational programmes and enhancement of self-sufficiency. Psychological, social and spiritual programmes focus on the personal development of the offender which are demonstrated in figure 6.3.

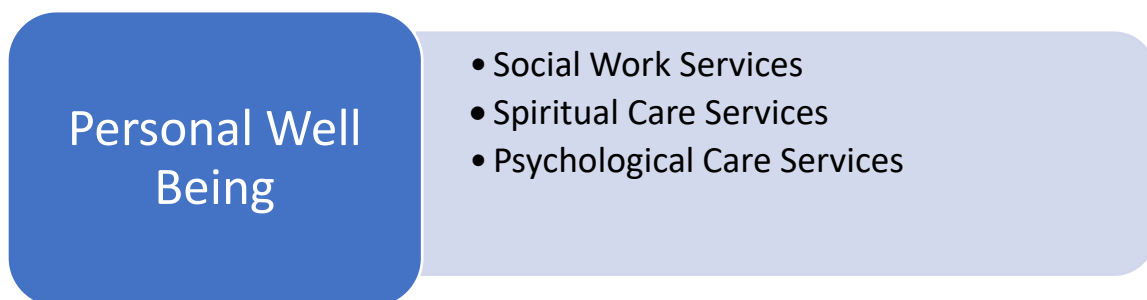
Figure 6.2: Correctional programmes, for offender development



Source: (Department of Correctional Services, 2020)

The rehabilitative process is effective. However, there is a lack of implementation due to the resources required to fulfil the potential of these policies.

Figure 6.3: Psychological, social and spiritual programme for the personal well-being and development of offenders



Source: (Department of Correctional Services, 2020)

Rehabilitation programmes within the Department of Correctional Services have evolved over the years. The previous method of rehabilitation was to isolate the offender from the environment of society until the duration of his or her sentence was complete. This proved unsuccessful, as offenders reverted to criminality. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2021), current programmes focus on the needs of the offender and are consistent until

the release of the offender. Programmes are prioritised by the capacity and landscape at a specific correctional service centre.

The Department of Correctional Services currently focuses on the skills development of offenders as part of the rehabilitative process. This objective aims to assist offenders with employability after release. The current rehabilitative programmes require offenders to have a minimal criterion of an NQF level one. Skills programmes offered include bricklaying, plastering and welding by qualified training officials.

Post-release employability is a major concern, as lack of employability can lead to recidivism. Accredited skills programmes are funded by the National Skills Fund and Sector Education Training Authorities. Registered training centres are opened in Pollsmoor, Durban, Westville, Breederiver and Bizzah Makhate as salons, to expand training and development among female offenders.

Preparation for post-release work-life is also aided by educational programmes such as adult literacy. Academic programmes are provided to offenders who do not wish to engage in vocational programmes. The Department of Correctional Services goal is to increase employability, and therefore, aims to increase the number of offenders, that enrol, and complete the national senior certificate. In the long run, this would prevent deviant citizens, reduce crime and increase the economic growth of the country. Offenders are educated on the importance of part-taking in skills programmes and encouraged to complete AET Level 4 or Grade 9 so that they meet the criteria to enter skills programmes offered within the correctional service centre.

Skills such as socialisation and work ethics are also considered within the Department of Correction's rehabilitative programmes. There are workshops and infrastructure set up in some correctional service centres, to aid the development and socialisation process of offenders. However, this is dependent on the resources and support of stakeholders. The added skills development, and ability to re-integrate effectively into society would assist offenders in increasing their opportunities of employment. During the COVID-19 pandemic, the Department of Correctional Services implemented an initiative to manufacture, face masks and cloths for offenders. This not only provides offenders protection during the pandemic but increases the skills of offenders in the process.

The Department of Correctional Services recognises that need-based rehabilitation programmes are imperative for the placement of offenders. Therefore, offender assessment is deemed the most crucial process. Programmes are provided to offenders, based on the availability within correctional service centres, and the criminogenic needs of the offender.

Findings from the process of data collection identified programmes that female offenders were exposed to during their period of incarceration. The data also exposed risk factors that contribute to offending. The data collected identified poverty, unemployment, peer pressure, abusive relationships and anger as risk factors. These are imperative to note because, for an offender to successfully rehabilitate, she needs to overcome the risks of offending. Failure to overcome these risks could lead to re-offending. Participant 4 of the study shared her view *“Majority of women are in for murder; they kill their husbands or boyfriends because of abuse. Some are in for theft; they come from poor families, and they steal food for their families. Some are in for drugs mixed with dagga.”*

The course of rehabilitation begins when an offender is admitted to the Department of Correctional Services. The most significant part of the process is case profiling management. The individuals that conduct these assessments need to be well trained to assess the offender and identify programmes which she needs to attend. Participants were interviewed about the training and competency of correctional officials. The data collected found that the majority of the sample shared a strong belief that officials are well trained. The reasoning is that they shared a relationship of mutual respect and that officials were good role models. Participant 4 stated that *“Yes, they treat us like family; they respect us. There are bad situations, but you need to accept and understand everyone is human”*. Participants expressed that officials would correct them when they are wrong; they are respectful; there is a sense of diversity and professionalism. However, one response, contradicted the majority by stating some officials who are not well trained. Participant 6 expressed *“We are treated like criminals.”*

According to the Department of Correctional Services Australia, one of the most significant factors of rehabilitation is the support and training of correctional service centre officials. Correctional officials need to have the ability to offer quality rehabilitation to the highest risk of offenders (Government of South Australia, 2020). According to the Department of Correctional Services Norway (2020), the competency of correctional officials is imperative to the development of the offender. The Norway correctional centre system is known to be one of the best in the world, with the population of offenders and recidivism rates maintained at a

low rate. Officials employed at the centre are criminologists, psychologists, and social work degree holders. Hence, officials have high-rank qualifications as compared to officials in centres around the world (Norwegian Correctional Services, 2020). The environment of Norway's correctional centre is referred to as liberal. The rehabilitative process prepares offenders for release by offerings of vocational programmes such as woodworking, assembly workshops and recording studios. The centre encourages maximum socialisation among officials, offenders and the comfort of the system ensures offenders are rehabilitated rather than angry post-release (Johnsen et al., 2011).

Association with other offenders' forms part of the rehabilitation process. Socialisation and communication are key skills in the integration back into society. Question 17 required participants to share their views on offender interactions during the period of incarceration. Participants established that their relationships with other offenders are peaceful with support and motivation towards one another. The relationships described show positivity. It can be influential in assisting the offender to adapt to the environment of correctional services, and influential in developing the socialisation skills of offenders, in order to prepare them for the re-integration phase. When asked, if associating with other offenders, might be a risk, Participant 4 stated "*Not at all. They have all learned from their mistakes. There is a reversal of roles. It helps to be among them. We learn that if there are misunderstandings, you walk away. There are lessons learnt from there.*"

The view of Participant 4 emphasises the concept of social learning. The social learning theory by Albert Bandura (1977), is a cognitive process that takes place through socialisation, participant observation and the imitation of others' behaviour. According to Rupande and Ndoro (2014), to determine behavioural changes, four critical processes can assist and these processes include attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. Within the correctional environment, socialisation allows offenders to learn from other mistakes. Hence, rewards and punishment are being shared. Learning of the sentences of other offenders can contribute to the decrease in crime, as offenders learn from the negative reward after an act of crime. According to Astray-Caneda (2017), the social learning theory, when combined with work release programmes, can positively impact the reduction of recidivism.

During the process of data collection, participants shared programmes which they attended during their incarceration period. These programmes include, but are not limited to;

- Anger management
- Stigma
- Restorative justice
- HIV and AIDS
- Peace programme
- Decision making
- Hospitality courses
- Social worker courses
- Beading
- Sewing
- Craft work
- Cooking
- Pre-release programmes
- Counselling
- Self-Esteem
- Chat Set – spiritual
- New beginnings
- Changing love
- Fast image
- Crossroads programme
- Mandela blanket programme
- My life, my money, finance, education programme
- YMCA
- Peace education
- Alpha course
- Higher certificate in economics
- Dress making

Participants stated that if they were completing higher qualifications or degrees that they were not required to attend development programmes such as anger management. Participant 5 expressed that *“I didn’t attend any skills programmes, I continued with my studies within the centre. I did a higher certificate in economics”*. Overall, participants reported that the

programmes offered within the Department of Correctional Services were useful, after their release. Courses such as beading and catering, have aided participants to open post-release businesses. Participant 7 stated that *“Yes, they are useful. People buy my bead work; some people buy my catering services.”* Participant 6 expressed a similar view, *“Yes, a lot spiritually, financially, and emotionally. It brings them to a good space. People learn a lot. The programmes are rehabilitation, it increases self-esteem.”* Although the majority of the participants expressed that the programmes were effective and useful, participant 5 responded to question 18, commenting on the shortcomings of rehabilitation, stating that *“Don’t fit the crime. Facilitators are not experienced. Programmes like self-image and anger management are done by pastors; they come and speak of GOD, which changes the focus of the programmes. There are courses done by officers. They don’t have time. It takes three days for a post-release course. There are things we need to know like, relationships, how we deal with it”*. This contradicting view leaves room for improvement within the system of correctional services. The view of participant 5 emphasises the need for rehabilitative programmes, that match the crime of the offender.

During the process of data collection, participants were also asked about their mental health. The crimes committed by the participants show signs of emotional distress or vulnerability. In response to question 12 *“Do you experience symptoms of depression, mental disorders, or eating disorders?”*, participants shared that they experience depression, anxiety, sleepless nights, anger, and short tempers. Depression is a treatable common mental illness, which impacts the way an individual think, feels and acts. Depression can easily lead to emotional and physical problems that can hinder one’s functionality (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). According to the American Psychiatric Association (2013), anxiety disorders are the most common of mental illnesses and involve excessive fear or anxiety. However, effective treatment could lead to a normal productive lifestyle. Sleeping problems are common and include the lack of sleep and feelings of restlessness. Sleeplessness can affect daily functions and harm your work and social life.

According to the National Alliance (2021), mental illness, sleeplessness or problems with sleeping can be secondary to mental illness or a mental health condition such as depression and can also worsen medical and mental health conditions. Sleep issues can also signify an impending disorder, such as bipolar disease (National Alliance on Mental Illness, 2021). Anger is caused by an underlying disorder, such as alcoholism or depression and is a known symptom

of several mental health conditions (Healthline, 2021). According to Healthline (2021), short temper can also be a sign of an underlying condition like depression or intermittent explosive disorder (IED), which is characterised by impulsive and aggressive behaviour. Symptoms expressed by participants show signs of impending mental disorders or illness. Rehabilitative programmes must address these issues ethically. Current rehabilitative programmes offered, consist of psychological programmes. However, resources are limited to successfully treating female offenders.

6.4 Objective two: Determining the limitations of rehabilitation programmes

During the process of data collection, the researcher engaged with participants to identify factors that limit the success of current rehabilitative programmes offered at the Department of Correctional Services. In response to Question 15, *“Do you think that the correction officials are well trained to deal with the offenders which enter the correctional centres?”* Although many participants stated that officials are helpful and well trained, Participant 9 shared that *“Some of them are not well trained. We are treated like criminals.”* This is a limitation, as untrained officials may hinder the success of rehabilitation.

The process of rehabilitation begins at the phase of admission within the corrective service centre. The behaviour and treatment of officials towards offenders are significant in the process of rehabilitation. According to the rehabilitation model, staff or correctional service centre officials are required to be qualified to care for and recommend the proper treatment for offenders based on the crime of the offender and the behaviour of the offenders. Further assessment of the offender rehabilitation also needs to occur (Rogers and Jenkins, 2011). The challenges of the correctional service centres still exist: unqualified staff, insufficient funds, and violent offenders who failed to embrace the process of rehabilitation.

Another limitation identified in the study is that many female offenders experience symptoms of mental health illnesses. In response to question 12, *“Do you experience symptoms of depression, mental disorders, or eating disorders?”*, participants shared that they experience depression, anxiety, sleepless nights, anger, and short tempers. Symptoms expressed by participants show signs of impending mental disorders or illness. Rehabilitative programmes must address these issues ethically. Current rehabilitative programmes offered, consist of psychological programmes. However, resources are limited to successfully treating female offenders. Many female offenders are also single parents and, therefore, experience emotional

distress, due to being away from their families. According to the Department of Correctional Services, apart from the difficulties of adjusting to a correctional environment, adapting to the absent mother experience, females are more vulnerable to the system of corrections (Masoma, 2019).

The White Paper for Correctional Services acknowledges the changes in a female and her experiences in the correctional environment due to the long distance between her children (The draft White Paper, 2005). According to the White Paper (2005) policy document, a disadvantage of the low female offender population is less expertise available to these offenders. The advantage is that females are incarcerated for shorter periods, which results in the higher success of rehabilitation, but there is no statistical evidence available now that validates such claims. The limitation identified is the lack of attention focused on the emotional needs of the offender.

Rehabilitative programmes are offered based on availability and resources at the correctional service centre. The mental health of offenders is imperative to ensure effective changes can take place. Therefore, this is a requirement that needs to be improved. The limitation most significant to the study is that rehabilitation programmes fail to fit the crime of the offender. In response to question 18, *“Are there any shortcomings to the current rehabilitation programmes that are offered?”* Participant 5 responded, *“Don’t fit the crime. Facilitators are not experienced. Programmes like self-image and anger management are done by pastors; they come and speak of GOD, which changes the focus of the programmes. There are courses done by officers. They don’t have time. It takes three days for a post-release course; there are things we need to know like, relationships, how we deal with it”*. Participant 5 further expressed, how programmes should improve *“No, they need to design programmes that link to the crime. Courses that help. Call it a crime, impact of crime to family or communities. Re-offending happens after the courses; people come back and redo the same courses. They do them for the parole board, to meet parole requirements.”* Participant 9 expressed, *“They do not help, e.g., self-image, is for someone that is depressed; however, the person needs to see a psychologist. We need to express how we are coping and feeling. There needs to be assistance, so we stay out of trouble”*

Apart from the content of the programme failing to suit the crime of the offender, offenders expressed a need to have programmes that allow them or educate them on lifestyles after their

release. Participant 10 expressed “Programmes should be extended post-release. People that are released also need development”.

Apart from the lack of offence specific programmes, the Department of Correctional Services does provide programmes for post-release, but many offenders failed to attend these as they were released before the programme was offered. Programmes are run in groups and not in conjunction with the sentence of the offender. This means that an offender with a shorter sentence is released before she has not been engaged in programmes that address or prepare her for life after serving her sentence. During the case profiling step of admission, programmes need to be provided based on the duration of the offenders' sentence and the priority of the programme should be linked to the crime which she has committed.

6.5 Objective three: Developing “offence-specific rehabilitation programmes” for female offenders

The development of offence specific programmes is a delicate process. Offenders need to be assessed on the crime which they have committed, as well as their emotional stability. The most important aspect of assessment is looking at the risk factors which contribute to the offence. Post-release employment is a difficult task to attain. However, the researcher would contribute options that are suitable to overcome offender risks and attain post-release employability. The researcher would propose programmes based on three different crimes and offender sentences that have been provided within this study and thereafter provide the benefits for engaging in programmes in the way that it is presented. The crimes which the researcher would focus on are murder, theft and stealing.

6.5.1 Model one: Based on participant one

Figure 6.4: Model one



The first participant committed the act of stealing as her crime. In many cases, people steal due to poverty and unemployment. However, stealing has been identified as a coping mechanism for people who are suffering from depression. According to the Canadian Journal of Psychiatry (Carpentier, 2021), a study reported over 30% of first-time shop lifters, were clinically depressed. The participant was incarcerated for 3 years and expressed that she stole jewellery and she was 'framed' at work. It was a difficult time at work. The participant also expressed that she experienced sleepless nights. This shows that the participant was experiencing strain. According to the General Strain Theory, when individuals lack the mental stability to cope with the significant strains, they act in a criminal or deviant manner to cope with the presence of such strain. Examples of crime to cope with a strain would be theft to gain money. The experience of sleepless nights also shows vulnerability, as the participants may not have the ability to make functional decisions (Carpentier, 2021).

The objective of the model is to first overcome the risk factors, which the participant experiences. The offender has been convicted for the crime of shoplifting; therefore, we need programmes in place to overcome this risk factor. The duration of the participants' sentences is three years. The offender would first be allowed to undergo career guidance counselling. During career guidance, the participant would be educated about opportunities of employment that are possible for someone with a criminal record. These include dog training, dog walking, carpentry, welding, truck drivers, plumbing, cleaners, administrators or entrepreneurial opportunities such as catering, hair dressing, nail technology, and etcetera. The participant would be given a comprehensive list of opportunities for employment and self-employment. If the participant chooses to follow the path of self-employment, she would be given a choice to part take in nail technology, catering or hair dressing, all of which are three-month courses that are provided by SETA's funding.

In addition, the participant would also be sponsored R5 000 to start her own private business. The reason for this is that the offender would find it difficult to find employment post-release. The R5 000 sponsored to the offender would be spent with the guidance of an official to ensure all the requirements to invest in self-employment are met. Before the release of the offender, the business plan would be developed and approved by the guidance counsellor and sponsor. Therefore, when the offender is released, she would be ready to open her business, with a marketing plan and strategy readily available.

The next risk factor or strain that would be addressed in the process of rehabilitation is sleeplessness, one of the symptoms of depression. To address, this symptom the participant is required to attend cognitive behavioural therapy. The first line of treatment recommended for people that suffer from insomnia, or sleeplessness is cognitive behavioural therapy, as it is proven to be more effective than sleep medications. Cognitive behavioural therapy can eliminate negativity and actions which usually keeps the mind awake. The process of cognitive behavioural therapy allows one to recognise and change beliefs that affect the ability to fall asleep. It is a procedure which controls and erases negative thoughts that may keep one awake. Cognitive behavioural therapy aims to develop good sleep habits. Strategies used to ensure that this is effective include stimulus control therapy, relaxation techniques, sleep restriction, remaining passively awake and light therapy. Overcoming sleep deprivation can increase the potential for the participant to make sound decisions. As the participant's response to strains is significant as they could resort to criminal behaviour if they lead to negative emotions, which creates pressure for corrective action.

After addressing the risk factors and strains which exist, the offender is ready to be prepared for life after incarceration. The researcher suggests the effective implementation of existing programmes, such as the pre-release programme. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2021), the objective of the pre-release programme is to ensure that offenders are adequately prepared for re-integration back into society. During the programme, offenders are equipped with skills and information to cope with challenges which they may encounter post-release. This programme is required to be completed by all offenders that receive a release date. The goals of the programme are as follows:

- Prepare offenders for successful reintegration into society
- Provide offenders with the skills necessary to overcome difficulties associated with reintegration
- Prevent re-offending and relapse
- Ensure that proper support systems are in place before placement
- Provide information on external resources
- Restore relationships
- Teach offenders to take responsibility for their behaviour, build self-esteem and self-confidence

The outcomes of the programme are as follows.

- The offender understands the aims and objectives of the pre-release programme
- Offenders realise their responsibility to themselves, their families, their communities and to provide for their futures
- Offenders can compile and implement a personal coping plan to deal with and manage future challenges
- Successful social reintegration takes place
- Offenders can establish support systems and meaningful relationships
- Recidivism is reduced
- Offenders are provided with the necessary skills and after-care to enable them to adapt.

The structure of the programme is as follows.

- Session 1: Introduction and orientation
- Session 2: Health education
- Session 3: Financial management
- Session 4: Relationships
- Session 5: Restorative justice
- Session 6: Finding employment
- Session 7: Parole conditions
- Session 8: Substance abuse: relapse prevention
- Session 9: Closure/evaluation

It is important to increase the communication and socialisation skills of offenders during their rehabilitative process. It is encouraged that all stakeholders involved in the experience of the offender's transition, communicate more, and socialise more so that the self-esteem and confidence of the offender are increased before her release.

The outcome of model one is to ensure that the vulnerabilities of the offender are overcome. The offender has a boost of self-esteem which allows, her to positively deal with strains and risk factors. The offender can use cognitive behavioural therapy, to overcome symptoms such as sleep deprivation. This would assist the offender in making sound, positive decisions in the future. Employability opportunities of the offender would also increase, or opportunities of

self-employment would be more successive, due to the adequate planning and assurance, from career guidance and sponsorships. The duration of the rehabilitation process would be complete, and the offender would complete the pre-release programme to ensure successive integration back into society.

6.5.2 Model two: Based on participant three

Figure 6.5: Model two



The participant has been incarcerated due to murder. She has murdered her husband purporting abuse. Before the offence, the offender experienced anxiety and sleepless nights. The offender has been incarcerated for 15 years. The way the participant explains her criminality demonstrates self-defence. Agnew (2015) explains victimisation as a general strain. According to the general strain theory, low self-control mediates the relationship between victimisation and delinquency. Hence, victimisation can lead to delinquency.

The first objective of model two is to assist the participant through the process of therapy. This is imperative, as the participant may have experienced traumatic events throughout her life. Social therapy is an excellent manner to begin this process. According to Uwe Kazenmaier (2020), a psychologist working at the Social Therapeutic Institution in a Berlin correctional centre, offenders who have gone through social therapy are three times less likely than other ex-offenders to commit another crime. The process of therapy is to allow the participant the freedom to live guilt-free and overcome the victimisation she has experienced throughout her life. The aim is to ensure that the society the participant is placed in post-release, is safer and stable with her in it. The process of this therapy takes up to three years. However, when the

offender is placed back into society, it saves both the lives of members of the community and the state financial strain.

The next objective of model two is to ensure the post-release employability of the offender. The offender would undergo career guidance, whereby she would be educated on the programmes which show the potential for post-release employment. These include employability within trucking companies, volunteer groups, dog walking, catering, tutoring, welding, plumbing, mechanics or self-employability such as hairdressing, cooking, nail technology, sewing, and etcetera. The offender would also have the opportunity to secure a sponsor. The sponsorship would provide the offender post-release funding, to ensure that she is well equipped to begin work or well equipped to begin her own business. The duration of this process should take up to two to three years. This includes deciding on the work path the offender wishes to take, learning the trade and skills involved, and lastly securing sponsorship to financially assist the offender out of the correctional service centre. The participant would further undergo existing programmes within the centre, such as anger management, pre-release programmes, restorative justice and new beginnings. These programmes are key to ensuring that the offender can successfully reintegrate back into society.

According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), the objective of the anger management programme is to raise awareness of causes and symptoms of anger and teach offenders how to manage their anger. The programme consists of skills and techniques to assist offenders, unlearn habits associated with aggression and negativity, and produce healthy means of expressing anger. The programme is targeted at offenders, based on the needs and risk assessment, as well as a sentence plan of longer than 24 months. The goals of the programme are as follows;

- Provide participants with information on the restoration of relationships
- Enable participants to compile and implement a fit of personal anger coping plans to deal with and manage future anger response behaviour.

The outcome of the programme is as follows;

- Understand what anger is and where it comes from
- Control and manage feelings of anger in a socially acceptable manner
- Understand and deal with feelings and behaviour linked to resentment, hostility, revenge and hatred

- Compile and implement a fit of personal anger coping plan to deal with and manage future anger response behaviour.

The programme is structured in the following sessions:

- Session 1: Introduction to anger in anger out programme
- Session 2: The facts about anger
- Session 3: Where does anger come from?
- Session 4: The results of anger: The anger inventory
- Session 5: Dealing with anger
- Session 6: Hatred and revenge
- Session 7: Restorative justice
- Session 8: Refusal skills – say no.
- Session 9: Coping plan – Stop, think and act. Correctional programmes
- Session 10: Closure – Where do I go from here?

The importance of the anger management programme in the offender's rehabilitative course is significant. For an individual to reach a point of murder, it shows that there are a lot of anger, frustrations and emotional issues within. Therefore, the researcher emphasises the need for anger management in a slow course over the offender's incarceration period. It is important that aspects that are structured within this programme and are well understood by the offender.

The next programme that the offender would undergo is the pre-release programme. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), the objective of the pre-release programme is to ensure that offenders are adequately prepared for re-integration back into society. During the programme, offenders are equipped with skills and information to cope with challenges which they may encounter post-release. This programme is required to be completed by all offenders, that receive a release date.

The goals of the programme are as follows;

- Prepare offenders for successful reintegration into society
- Provide offenders with the skills necessary to overcome difficulties associated with reintegration
- Prevent re-offending and relapse

- Ensure that proper support systems are in place before placement
- Provide information on external resources
- Restore relationships
- Teach offenders to take responsibility for their behaviour build
- Self-esteem and self-confidence

The outcomes of the programme are as follows:

- The offender understands the aims and objectives of the pre-release programme
- Offenders realise their responsibility to themselves, their families, their communities and to provide for their futures
- Offenders can compile and implement a personal coping plan to deal with and manage future challenges
- Successful social reintegration takes place
- Offenders can establish support systems and meaningful relationships
- Recidivism is reduced
- Offenders are provided with the necessary skills and after-care to enable them to adapt.

The structure of the programme is as follows:

- Session 1: Introduction and orientation
- Session 2: Health education
- Session 3: Financial management
- Session 4: Relationships
- Session 5: Restorative justice
- Session 6: Finding employment
- Session 7: Parole conditions
- Session 8: Substance abuse: relapse prevention
- Session 9: Closure/evaluation

The pre-release programme reviews general issues such as health education, financial management, substance abuse, employability, relationships and parole conditions. This programme is necessary for all offenders so that they are better equipped to join the society. The objective of the restorative justice orientation programme is to orientate offenders in

respect to restorative justice and prepare them for further intervention. The goals of the programme are as follows;

- Empower offenders in respect of the basic concepts in restorative justice
- Orientate offenders regarding the various programmes in restorative justice
- Illustrate the relationship between restorative justice and rehabilitation
- Introduce the concept of victim empowerment
- Emphasise the importance of support systems
- Illustrate the link between restorative justice and reintegration.

The programme outcomes are as follows:

- Basic concepts in restorative justice
- Factors that lead to crime and how to deal with their importance of changing offending behavioural patterns
- Concept of restorative justice in general and within the context of the Department of Correctional Services
- Relationship between restorative justice, rehabilitation and reintegration
- Various programmes of restorative justice and their benefits
- Concept of and insight into victim empowerment
- Roles of the different support systems

The programme is structured into the following sessions:

- Session 1: Introduction to the restorative justice programme
- Session 2: Circumstances leading to crime
- Session 3: Restorative justice and rehabilitation
- Session 4: Different programmes in restorative justice
- Session 5: Victim empowerment in South Africa
- Session 6: Support systems
- Session 7: Reintegration
- Session 8: Closure.

The importance of restorative justice is an opportunity for the offender to forgive herself of the crime, as well as the victims of the offence to also express forgiveness. It is a platform for the

offender to understand and move on from. Offenders who have been convicted of murder find it challenging to move on, due to their guilt and, therefore, this programme provides key insight and understanding to accept past issues and move on from them.

According to the Department of Correctional Services, the objective of the new beginnings programme is to empower offenders to be more aware of themselves and the situation around them. The programme also allows for the offenders' transition into and adjustment to the correctional service centre.

The goals of the programme are as follows:

- Empower offenders to be more aware of themselves and the situation around them
- Serve as an orientation correctional programme that will help offenders to adjust properly within correctional facilities by focusing on, self-esteem, decision-making, gangsterism, smuggling and services available in the correctional service centre.

The outcome of the programme is as follows;

- A better understanding of the general overview of a correctional setting
- Self-control and adequate decision-making skills
- The ability to identify one's roles in life based on the principle of importance and not urgency
- The ability to set goals for one's life
- Discovering one's role in decision-making and being able to apply decision-making skills
- Understanding and knowledge of how to cope in a correctional service centre
- Knowledge and understanding of the services rendered in a correctional centre.

The programme is structured in the following sessions;

- Session 1: Introduction and general orientation to the new beginning's orientation programme
- Session 2: Human freedom: The power to choose, to respond and change
- Session 3: Four needs of our lives
- Session 4: Myself and crime

- Session 5: Decision-making
- Session 6: How to cope in a correctional centre
- Session 7: Services rendered in a correctional centre
- Session 8: Closure.

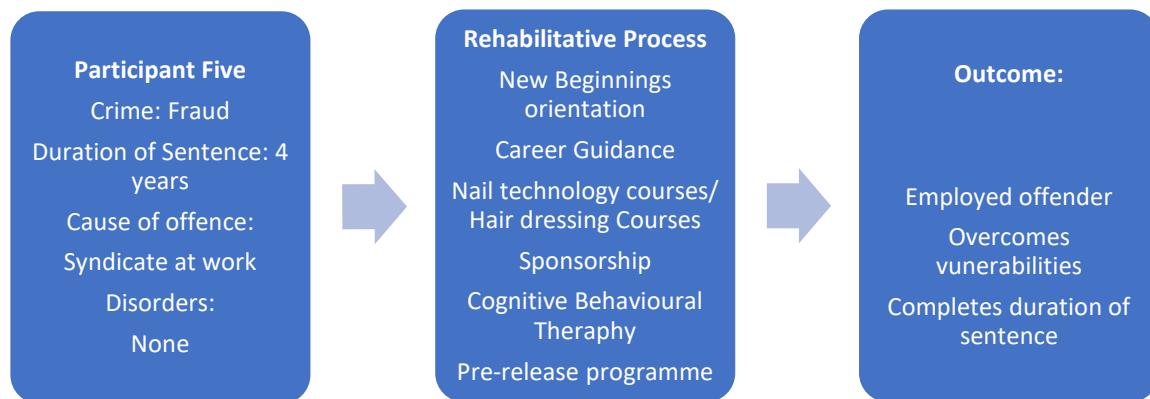
The new beginnings course is imperative as the duration of the offenders' sentence is long. The offender is required to accept the past, accept the sentence, and move on. The offender needs to rehabilitate, in order for any of the programmes to be seen as effective. The new beginnings programme allows the offender to learn about the potential of engagement offered by the correctional service centre.

The outcome of model two is to ensure that the helplessness of the offender is overcome. The offender can use social therapy to overcome symptoms such as sleep deprivation and anxiety, and this would assist the offender in making sound, positive decisions in the future. Employability opportunities of the offender would also increase, or opportunities of self-employment would be more successful due to the adequate planning and assurance from career guidance and sponsorships. The offender would also engage in current rehabilitation programmes, such as anger management, pre-release programmes, restorative justice and a new beginning.

The understanding is that the sooner the offender can accept the circumstances of her sentence, the sooner the rehabilitative process can effectively begin. Anger management deals with issues within the offender, which probably contributed to criminality and should, therefore, not be rushed, instead be done at the offenders' free will and convenience. The restorative justice programme provides the opportunity for the offender to offer forgiveness to both victims, victim families and herself, so that she can move on with a positive start.

6.5.3 Model three: Based on participant five

Figure 6.6: Model three



Participant five was incarcerated due to fraud. She received a 4-year sentence for the crime. The researcher observed that participants involved in cases of fraud have a higher level of education and therefore fail to participate in skills programmes. This participant expressed that she did not experience any symptoms of depression or impending mental illnesses. To begin the rehabilitation process, the participant would first undergo the new beginnings programme, which would assist the participant to adjust to the reality of correctional service centres.

According to the Department of Correctional Services (2020), the objective of the new beginnings programme is to empower offenders to be more aware of themselves and the situation around them. The programme also allows for the offenders' transition into and adjustment to the correctional service centre. The goals of the programme are as follows;

- Empower offenders to be more aware of themselves and the situation around them
- Serve as an orientation correctional programme that would help offenders to adjust properly within correctional facilities by focusing on, self-esteem, decision-making, gangsterism, smuggling and services available in the correctional service centre

The outcome of the programme is as follows;

- A better understanding of the general overview of a correctional setting
- Self-control and adequate decision-making skills
- The ability to identify one's roles in life based on the principle of importance and not urgency
- The ability to set goals for one's life

- Discovering one's role in decision-making and being able to apply decision-making skills
- Understanding and knowledge of how to cope in a correctional service centre
- Knowledge and understanding of the services rendered in a correctional service centre.

The programme is structured in the following sessions:

- Session 1: Introduction and general orientation to the new beginning's orientation programme
- Session 2: Human freedom: The power to choose, to respond and change
- Session 3: Four needs of our lives
- Session 4: Myself and crime
- Session 5: Decision-making
- Session 6: How to cope in a correctional service centre
- Session 7: Services rendered in a correctional service centre
- Session 8: Closure.

The participant does not show signs that require therapy. However, it is suggested that the participant attend financial counselling to deal with strains she might face in the future regarding "quick cash", as it is notable that the participant was involved in a syndicate due to the quick profits she gained.

The participant would undergo through the process of career guidance. This would focus on post-release opportunities that are available for the offender. Thereafter the participant would select an option and further search for a sponsor who would financially assist the offender to prepare for life after correctional service centre. Thereafter, the participant would attend the pre-release programme.

According to the Department of Correctional Services (2021), the objective of the pre-release programme is to ensure that offenders are adequately prepared for re-integration back into society. During the programme, offenders are equipped with skills and information to cope with challenges which they may encounter post-release. This programme is required to be completed by all offenders, that receive a release date.

The goals of the programme are as follows:

- Prepare offenders for successful reintegration into society
- Provide offenders with the skills necessary to overcome difficulties associated with reintegration
- Prevent re-offending and relapse
- Ensure that proper support systems are in place before placement
- Provide information on external resources
- Restore relationships
- Teach offenders to take responsibility for their behaviour build
- Self-esteem and self-confidence.

The outcomes of the programme are as follows;

- The offender understands the aims and objectives of the pre-release programme
- Offenders realise their responsibility to themselves, their families, their communities and to provide for their futures
- Offenders can compile and implement a personal coping plan to deal with and manage future challenges
- Successful social reintegration takes place
- Offenders can establish support systems and meaningful relationships
- Recidivism is reduced
- Offenders are provided with the necessary skills and after-care to enable them to adapt.

The structure of the programme is as follows;

- Session 1: Introduction and orientation
- Session 2: Health education
- Session 3: Financial management
- Session 4: Relationships
- Session 5: Restorative justice
- Session 6: Finding employment
- Session 7: Parole conditions
- Session 8: Substance abuse: relapse prevention
- Session 9: Closure/evaluation.

The participant would first go through programmes, which educate her and teach her to adapt to the reality of the correctional service centre. She would, thereafter, attend career guidance, which focuses strictly on opportunities that are available for offender's post-release. Whilst attending career guidance, the offender would attain helpful skills from finance counselling. This would guide her on life decisions and prevent her from making hasty decisions based on quick cash opportunities. The participant would finally attend the pre-release programme to prepare her for release, and the realities of life outside of correctional service centres.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the data collected and the outcome of the study. The researcher used quotes and examples from the interviews conducted to substantiate secondary sources of data. The current rehabilitation programmes are governed by commendable policies, but the issue of implementation and sufficient resources still does exist. In facilities with a higher success rate of rehabilitation, it was observed that guards and officials are qualified with degrees of psychology, social work and criminology as compared to officials within the Department of Correctional Services, who are trained through the process of learnerships, which has a minimum requirement of a matric certificate.

The current programmes have proven to be successful for offenders, but a major concern noted is that many of the programmes attended are designed to meet the requirements of a parole hearing and fail to match the crime of the offender. The limitations of current rehabilitation programmes are that the duration of programmes are not run-in conjunction with the sentences of offenders and fail to meet the needs of offenders.

The proposed rehabilitative programmes appear to be solely based one aspect behaviourism, particularly positive reinforcement, whereas incarceration was designed from the aspect of negative reinforcement in order to deter offenders from committing crimes with impunity. The superb models need to find ways of incorporating this aspect in their structure, in line with other psychological perspectives.

The next chapter would provide a conclusion, limitations and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The apparent lack of offence specific rehabilitation programmes for female offenders informed the aim of this study. This study achieved its aim by providing rehabilitative models to address the needs of the female offender. The key objectives of the study were achieved. The researcher successfully explored current rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders. The findings indicated that the current rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders within the Department of Correctional Services were considered adequate in terms of meeting the requirements for parole, building the self-esteem of female offenders, and developing the requisite entrepreneurial skills for female offenders. However, this study found that current rehabilitation programmes fail to address the risk factors of female offending such as poverty, unemployment and mental illness. Agnew's General Strain Theory suggests that strains such as unemployment, mental illness and poverty need to be addressed to mitigate recidivism. Carlen's theory of the attainment of Gender and Class deals further, emphasised the failure to attain either the class or gender deals can lead to females resorting to criminality, as there is no other option left.

The researcher successfully identified the various factors that impinge on current rehabilitation programmes. These include offence specific programmes, lack of trained officials, and unemployment of offender's post-release. The current situation at the Department of Correctional Services, demonstrates a lack of resources. Documents such as the White Paper for Corrections have not been updated to address the current goals of rehabilitation. Officials in correctional centres lack the relevant skills required to attend to the needs of the female offender. While psychologists and social workers are employed to attend to the needs of the female offender, they cannot cope with the number of offenders that are incarcerated. It is apt to note that as many female offenders experience symptoms of depression and anxiety both prior to their and incarceration, and during their incarceration. Current rehabilitation programmes fail to run in conjunction with the female offender's sentence. Therefore, they fail to address the needs of certain offenders. Rehabilitation programmes are implemented based on the sphere of the correctional service centre and the availability of the programmes. The

lack of violence, abuse and conflict within correctional service centres for female offenders decreases the attention given to female offenders by governing bodies.

The researcher successfully developed offence specific rehabilitation programmes for female offenders by addressing the main risk factors of female offending, such as unemployment and mental health issues. The researcher presented three models based on the different offences committed by participants. The researcher found that current programmes provide a platform for change in offender behaviour and included the existing rehabilitation programmes within these models. These models introduced career guidance for female offenders. Career guidance aims to provide female offenders the opportunity to find employment post-release. The challenge for many female offenders post-release is finding work, especially with a criminal record in the background. The scarcity of jobs and unemployment are further exacerbated by the lack of relevant qualifications. These challenges that are encountered by female offender's post-release may contribute to re-offending, and returning to the Department of Correctional Services. Career guidance will allow female offenders to seek employment opportunities, which assist them to lead a life free from crime.

Further, the models introduced the idea of sponsorship. This is an opportunity to allow female offenders to become entrepreneur's post-release. The help of a sponsor will help female offenders to access capital to start a business post-release. The career guidance programme will ensure that the female offender has a business plan and marketing strategy to ensure that the capital provided is used profitably. Female offenders that choice to become entrepreneurs post-release, will be guided by officials and monitored on the capital they spend. The entrepreneurial opportunity will also build the esteem of the female offender, and create employment opportunities for others.

The researcher found that many female offenders experienced symptoms of mental illness. Although these are mild symptoms such as sleep deprivation, anger, depression, and anxiety. Addressing these symptoms can help to prevent re-offending. Therefore, the researcher introduced cognitive behavioural therapy and social therapy. Cognitive behavioural therapy aims to overcome symptoms of mental illness, which the female offender may experience. Further, it assists the female offender in making sound decisions, such as choosing not to offend, not to react aggressively in a traumatic situation and not to steal to attain needs. Social therapy aims to address the needs of female offenders who have experienced traumatic events.

The process of social therapy allows the female offender to live a guilt free life and overcome the victimisation she has experienced throughout her life. This is imperative as many participants reported that they were victims of abuse and domestic violence. In South Africa, gender-based violence against woman is a current pandemic. The researcher included current rehabilitation programmes in these models such as pre-release programmes, new beginnings orientation, nail technology, hair courses, anger management and restorative justice. The study's key research questions were successfully answered. The researcher uncovered current rehabilitation programmes offered to female offenders. The researcher found limitations of the current rehabilitation programmes and discovered the effectiveness of current rehabilitative programmes. Although the current rehabilitation programmes served its purpose, the effectiveness of the programmes, were insufficient as offenders repeat crimes, come back to the correctional centres, and re-do the same programmes. Offenders repeat programmes, due to the passing of time or meeting requirements of parole. The limitations of current programmes, is that it fails to address the needs of the offender, and secure employment post-release, which finds offenders re-offending and re-entering the correctional system. Career guidance specifically for offenders was proposed by the researcher. To inform offenders of the career opportunities that are available for them post-release with a criminal record. These opportunities of employment, will assist the offender to attain primary needs and as a result will prevent recidivism.

The previous chapter focused on the presentation of findings in a logical and concise manner. The researcher started this chapter by providing a summary of the research findings and will discuss the methodology used to obtain the findings. This chapter will also reflect on study limitations, conclusions, and recommendations.

7.2 The research process

To begin the research process, the researcher was required to gain access to the research site. To enter the research site, the researcher first attained ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee and further attained permission from the gatekeeper of the study, a social worker who engages with female offender's post-release from the Department of Correctional Services. She assisted the researcher in the recruitment process by identifying ex-female offenders who met the inclusion criteria of the study.

This study adopted a qualitative research approach to address the research questions. The study excelled in providing substantial evidence for the research questions by employing reliable and valid methods of data collection and analysis. The data collected from the telephonic interviews supported both the literature and theories informing the research. In conclusion, the study achieved its aim and objectives whilst maintaining ethical research standards and COVID-19 protocols.

7.3 Summary of findings

The constructive framework of the policies in place aids the process of effective offender rehabilitation, ensuring that reintegration is prioritised. Correctional programmes offered to offenders are governed by Section 41 of the Correctional Services Acts, paragraph 9.7 of the White Paper on Corrections.

The rehabilitation of female offenders is governed by three important policy documents.

- The White Paper on Correctional Services,
- The White Paper on Families, and the
- Bangkok Rules.

To understand the responses of the research participants, it was an imperative task to understand the offerings and resources provided by the Department of Correctional Services. Whilst the programmes delivered are designed to focus on and prioritise the needs of female offenders, this study found that there is a lack of implementation of the delivery of rehabilitation programmes. Despite that the governing documents are bold and emphasise valid objectives, the functional challenges within correctional centres are related to implement effective rehabilitation programmes.

Participants revealed that correctional officials lack the training and skills to deliver rehabilitative programmes. The lack of qualified officials is a challenge to rehabilitative programmes and the overall process of rehabilitation. Correctional services officials must be skilled personnel. According to the Norwegian Correctional Center, staff that are employed to offer correctional services are graduates from the fields of criminology, psychology, and social work. These officials understand that the process of rehabilitation begins when an offender is admitted into the centre. This requires officials to be equipped to assist the offender with the process of adaptation to the centre and acceptance of the reality of one's sentence. In South

Africa, officials are trained through learnerships, which require a matriculation certificate for the qualification process. The quality of skills is therefore limited as compared to officials in international correctional centres (Jonker, 2011). Although most participants stated that officials have good people skills and communicate well, they highlighted that the officials lacked the relevant training to deliver rehabilitation programmes. Officials had time constraints to commit to the task of facilitating programmes, as they do have other duties during the day.

Participants further stated that some course facilitators lacked the requisite skills to facilitate rehabilitation programmes. Rehabilitation programmes are conducted by pastors who emphasise on the religion and focus on God, and this compels the curriculum to adopt a more religious stance. It also interrupts the effectiveness of programmes as some participants may share a disbelief in religious discourses. These statements demonstrate the need to focus on the training of officials. The lack of training may hinder the success of effective rehabilitation.

To prevent reoffending, it is important to eliminate risk factors or factors that promote offending. The researcher identified poverty and unemployment as major contributors to crime. The rehabilitative process provides skills programmes to offenders. However, this does not guarantee employment or elimination of poverty post-release. Offenders are offered skills programmes such as beading and sewing to assist them post-release. Although participants described these programmes as helpful and enhancing their creativity, failure to eliminate risk factors will lead to offender recidivism. It emerged that more needs to be done to assist female offenders to find employment post-release. The researcher has presented models that introduce career guidance to offenders. The purpose of offender career guidance is to focus on opportunities that are available for offenders and can provide realistic incomes for offender's post-release.

Offender career guidance will focus on career paths that allow offenders employment with a criminal record. It is a strategy that will address the employability of offenders and has the potential to prevent poverty. Current programmes which focus on career paths that will not employ individuals with criminal records. For example, offenders' complete qualifications such as Bcom degrees, however are unable to find employment post-release.

The researcher also proposed a sponsorship plan. This is an idea for companies to invest in the growth of offender's post-release by providing capital to start a business post-release or set them up for employment. Although the proposal of a sponsorships farfetched, it is a strategy

proposed to increase the motivation to change within an offender, prevent unemployment and mitigate poverty.

The researcher has proposed cognitive therapy plans and social therapy to assist those offenders with symptoms of mental illness such as sleeplessness, anxiety, and depression. It is important that offenders get clinical assistance during the period of rehabilitation to address these factors. The purpose of rehabilitation is to mitigate factors that may contribute to criminality. Addressing minor symptoms will assist offenders in making good decisions, and it promotes a healthy mindset for positive change.

Although rehabilitation programmes are guided by the White Paper on Correctional Services, which emphasizes individualised case profiling and treatment for offenders to promote effective rehabilitation, participants revealed that the Department of Correctional Services uses a blanket approach in response to rehabilitation. Offenders are rehabilitated based on the availability of resources and programmes. Further, the programmes are not run-in conjunction with the duration of female offender sentences. Therefore, offenders may not attend programmes relevant to their offences.

Offence specific programmes are aimed at targeting offender risks, and the aim is to ensure effective rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders. It is important to prevent reoffending post-release. According to the Nelson Mandela Rules for Correctional Services, the duration of incarceration should prepare offenders for life after correctional centres by minimising risks, vulnerabilities, and differences between life in correctional centres and life after correctional centres. This process is effective when implementing offence specific programmes as it decreases the risks and vulnerabilities of the offender. The challenge at the Department of Correctional Services is the lack of resources and capacity to present such programmes. Therefore, effective rehabilitation programmes for offenders would remain a challenge.

According to the methods employed at the Norwegian Correctional Centres, there is a sense of liberation, communication and control which allows offenders the opportunity to rehabilitate at their own free will. The Norwegian correctional center imposes an empathetic, accepting and caring approach to offender rehabilitation, which allows offenders the freedom to rehabilitate at pace. The support of the Norwegian correctional center, motivates offenders to become law abiding citizens that support the economy.

The environment of liberation also makes it easier for offenders to adapt to life post-release. However, the state of correctional services in South Africa focuses on maximum security. The challenge is overcrowding and the lack of resources. Therefore, the research proposed a more communicative approach from officials from the period of admission. This will assist the offender in feeling more human, increase socialisation skills as well as facilitating the process of reintegration. To promote behavioural changes among offenders, the stance of correctional services needs to emphasize that it is a place of corrective modeling rather than a place of punishment.

7.4 Conclusion

Although female offending is relatively low, it is a growing phenomenon. This study found that the major cause of female offending is poverty, unemployment and the history of abuse and violence. In many cases, females have only met social organisations and the criminal justice system due to the offence, which led to their incarceration. Therefore, it is apt to address the need for employment among females in South Africa to prevent offending due to unemployment and poverty. Most participants suffered from anxiety, depression, and sleeplessness. It will be beneficial to support these women with social help before their contact with the criminal justice system to prevent offending. Addressing these issues before offenders face the criminal justice system will reduce the rates of offending among females. A major concern for the Department of Correctional Services is overcrowding, reducing offending for minor crimes can prioritise the needs of serious offenders.

To promote effective rehabilitation among female offenders, a review of the current implementation of rehabilitation programmes is imperative. The Norwegian Correctional Services should be a good example to follow. International rehabilitative systems and literature has proven that effective rehabilitation can reduce reoffending and can be a cost-effective process compared to the strict sanctions, which are currently implemented within South Africa. The methods of case profiling and assessment of offenders' needs in South Africa must be re-evaluated to ensure individualisation of programmes following the needs of offenders. The elimination of offender risks needs to be prioritised to avoid reoffending among female offenders. Offender rehabilitation programmes need to be prioritised following offenders' risks, assessments and needs to consider the duration of the offender sentence rather than the implementation of a blanket approach whereby programmes are delivered based on the availability of resources and the need to attain parole requirements. Consistent evaluation is

required to ensure that the goals of rehabilitation are met. Increased interactions and engagement from communities will also promote successive reintegration. Participants identified unemployment post-release as their major concern. The Department of Correctional Services must promote more stakeholder engagement to create realistic work opportunities for female offender's post-release. A major challenge for offenders is finding employment with a criminal record.

7.5 Study limitations

The study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the strict restrictions and protocols, face-to-face interviews were not a feasible option.

7.6 Recommendations

The study identified the following recommendations to improve the delivery of offender rehabilitation programmes within the Department of Correctional Services, South Africa.

- Rehabilitation can be successful if offender risk factors are overcome. Female offenders are vulnerable to re-offend due to poverty and unemployment rates. To prevent offenders from continuing the cycle of crime post-release, and re-entering the centre to redo the same programmes, more needs to be done to create employability for offenders and prevent poverty. The Department of Correctional Services must introduce career guidance for offenders. This type of guidance should focus on realistic work opportunities, which female offenders can enter with a criminal record.
- For rehabilitation to be effective, the mind of the offender must be strengthened. Female offenders experience symptoms of depression, anxiety and sleeplessness. To improve the stability of the offender's mind and to encourage motivational change, offenders must attend therapy sessions that address these psychological needs. The Department of Correctional Services must provide more quality therapeutic services, which focus specifically on the symptoms of potential mental illness, as these are common risk factors among female offenders.
- The rehabilitative process begins when an offender is admitted into a correctional centre. To improve the standard of services offered at the Department of Correctional Services, there needs to be more staff development. International correctional centres employ staff with an NQF level 7 (degrees) whilst the Department of Correctional Services employs individuals with an NQF level 4 qualification (matric). This difference emphasises the

lack of skills employed by the Department of Correctional Services. Female offenders are the most vulnerable individuals in the correctional centre population. They find it difficult to adapt to the reality of their incarceration and therefore require the care and understanding from skilled officials within the sector from the point of admission. The Department of Correctional Services needs to improve the quality of skills of officials. Psychologists and social workers are not always available to offenders. However, officials are always disposable to offenders and therefore officials need to be equipped to deal with the emotional needs of the offender. Officials must be well educated about the commitment of facilitation and delivery of rehabilitation programmes. If they were allocated a time and date for a programmes to be completed it should be done within this timeframe. Training manuals on the rehabilitation programmes should be well understood by officials delivering these programmes and developed so that they can be uniformly delivered to female offenders. The human resources of officials should also be improved. There needs to be more staff training on the delivering and care-taking of female offenders within the correctional centre. Officials that are facilitating programmes should focus on delivering rehabilitation programmes to offenders to avoid incomplete training of offenders.

- Effective rehabilitation requires individual assessment and offence specific programmes, to address the specific needs of the offender. The Department of Correctional Services needs to improve on the type of programmes delivered considering the psychological treatment needs of the offender. For example, an offender that is guilty of committing a case of fraud should not be recruited in an anger management programmes. Instead, a course on financial management or fraud course would be relevant. The Department of Correctional Services needs to review their implementation of individual assessment processes in line with the Nelson Mandela Rules and the White Paper for Correctional Services. Although the Department of Correctional Services has excelled in its annual performance target for offenders completing educational qualifications, many offenders that attend higher education programmes opt-out of attending vocational programmes. Offender growth and development relies on both aspects and therefore should be prioritised equally.
- For rehabilitation to be consistent, the stigmas related to the offender must be eliminated. This starts with the families and communities of offenders. The Department of Correctional Services should encourage the support and interaction between families and

offenders. This initiative will assist both offenders and societies to overcome the stigma of criminality attached to the offender and ease the process of acceptance and adaptation post-release. This will assist the process of re-integration.

7.7 Suggestions for further studies

This study attracts the need for a deeper understanding of the approach to female offender rehabilitation and implementation of female offender rehabilitation in South Africa. The following topic should be considered for further research on female offenders.

- **The employment of female offender's post-release**

Given that this study adopted a qualitative, it is critical that future research should focus on uncovering quantitative statistics on the number of females who find employment post-release. The study should uncover the challenges that female offenders face when seeking employment post-release. Further, the research should explore re-offending due to the lack of employment opportunities.

REFERENCES

- Adler, F. 1933. The gendering of criminology feminist theory. *Criminological Theory*.
- Agboola, C. 2016. Memories of the 'inside': Conditions in South African women's prisons. *South African Crime Quarterly*, 56:19-26.
- Agnew, R. 2014. General Strain Theory. *Encyclopedia of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 26(1):224-245.
- Agnew, R. & Jang, S. J. 2015. Strain Theories and Crime. *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, 53(4):571-596.
- Agnew, R. 2011. *Revitalizing Merton: General Strain Theory*, London: Routledge.
- Akhtar, I. 2016. *Research in Social Science: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*. 1 ed. s.l.:s.n.
- F.Alder, 1975. *Sisters in Crime: The rise of the new female criminal*.
- Al-Khatib, T. 2015. Doing Time: A History of US Prisons. [Online] Available at: <https://www.seeker.com/doing-time-a-history-of-us-prisons-1770031128.html>. [Accessed 15 01 2022].
- Allen, F. 1959. Criminal justice, legal values and the rehabilitative ideal. *The Journal of Criminal Law*, 50(2):3-26.
- Al-Saadi, H. 2014. Demystifying Ontology and Epistemology in Research Methods. *Research gate*, 1(1):1-10.
- American Psychiatric Association, 2013. *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders*. In: s.l.:s.n.
- Anderson, T. 2013. Correctional skills training programmes rehabilitation: Policy practice and Prospects. *Criminal Justice System*, 10(18):13-30.
- Anderson, Y.A. & Groning, L. 2016. Rehabilitation in principle and practice: perspectives of inmates and officers. *Bergen Journal of Criminal Law and Criminal Justice*, 4(2):220-246.

- Andersson, F. 2013. The female offender: patterning of antisocial and criminal behaviour over the life-course (Doctoral dissertation, Malmö University, Faculty of Health and Society).
- Andrews, D. A. & Dowden, C. 2007. The risk-need-responsivity model of assessment and human service in prevention and corrections: Crime-prevention jurisprudence. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 49(4):439-464.
- Andrews, D. & Bonta, J. 2006. *The Psychology of Criminal Conduct*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.
- Andrews, D. Zinger, I., Lab, S. & Whitehead, J. 1990. Does correctional treatment work? A clinically relevant and psychologically informed meta-analysis. 1:369-404.
- Annual Report of the Department of Correctional Services, 2019/20. Department of Correctional Services. [Online] Available at: <http://www.dcs.gov.za/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/DCS-Annual-Report-TABLING-FINAL.pdf> [Accessed 01 01 2022].
- Anon, D. 2005. History of corrections—punishment, prevention, or rehabilitation. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 49(4): 439-46.
- Antwi, S. K. & Hamza, K. 2015. Qualitative and quantitative research paradigms in business research: A Philosophical Reflection. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(3):220-236
- Armentrou, E. G. 2004. An analysis of adler's theory and the female criminal. [Online] Available at: https://digital.library.unt.edu/ark:/67531/metadc4642/m2/1/high_res_d/thesis.pdf
- Asiamah, N., Mensah, H. K. & Oteng-Abayie, E. F. 2017. General, Target, and Accessible Population: Demystifying the Concepts for Effective Sampling. [Online] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/317620827_General_Target_and_Accessible_population_Demystifying_the_Concepts_for_Effective_Sampling [Accessed 05 10 2020].
- Aspers, P. & Corte, U. 2019. What is Qualitative in Qualitative Research. *Qual Socio*, 42(2):139-160.

- Asscher, J., Put, C. & Geert Jan, J. M. 2015. Gender Differences in the Impact of Abuse and Neglect Victimization on Adolescent Offending Behavior. *Journal of Family Violence*, 30(2):215-225.
- Astray-Caneda, V., Busbee, M. & Markell, F. 2017. Social Learning Theory and Prison Work Release Programs. [Online] Available at: <https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/sferc/2011/2011/31/> [Accessed 13 09 2021].
- Avramidis, E. & Smith, B. 1999. An introduction to the major research paradigms and their methodological implications for special needs research. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties* *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 4(3):27-36.
- Banarjee, S., Islam, M. J. & Khatun, N. 2014. Theories of Female Criminality: A criminological analysis. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociological Theory*, 7(1): 1-8.
- Bandura, A. 1977. *Social Learning Theory*. NJ: Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs.
- Bandyopadhyay, S. 2020. The Conversation. [Online] Available at: <https://theconversation.com/why-rehabilitation-not-harsher-prison-sentences-makes-economic-sense-132213> [Accessed 27 06 2021].
- Barbour, R. 2007. *Doing Focus Groups*. London: Sage.
- Barnes, H. E. 1922. Some Leading Phases of the Evolution of Modern Penology. *Political Science Quarterly*, 2(37): 251-280.
- Beaudry, G., Yu, R., Perry, A. E. & Fazel, S. 2021. Effectiveness of psychological interventions in prison to reduce recidivism: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Lancet Psychiatry*, 759-773.
- Becci, I. & Roy, O. 2015. *Religious Diversity in European Prisons: Challenges and Implications for Rehabilitation*. Charm, Springer,
- Belknap, J. 2004. Meda Chesney-Lind, *Women & Criminal Justice*, 1-23.
- Berg, B. L. 2009. *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Bernburg, J. G., 2009. Labeling Theory. *Handbook on Crime and Deviance*. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 43(1):67-88.

- Bernfeld, G.A., Farrington, D.P. and Leschied, A.W. eds.2001. Offender rehabilitation in practice: Implementing and evaluating effective programs. Wiley.
- Bevan, R. 2020. Sky History. [Online] Available at: <https://www.history.co.uk/article/the-killer-king-how-many-people-did-henry-viii-execute>
- Beyko, M. & Wong, S. 2005. Predictors of treatment attrition as indicators for program improvement not offender shortcomings: A study of sex offender treatment attrition. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*, 17(4): 75-85.
- Bishop, S. R. & Curiel, R. P. 2018. Fear of crime: the impact of different distributions of victimisation. *Humanities and Social Science Communications*, 4(1):1-8.
- Bjornstrom, E. E., Kaufman, R. L., Peterson, R. D. & Slater, M. D. 2010. race and ethnic representations of lawbreakers and victims in crime news: a national study of television coverage. *Social Problems*, 57(2): 269-293.
- Blesio, E. 2014. The woman: The role of the woman in today's society. s.l., s.n.
- Blocker, J. S.1989. American Temperance Movements: Cycles of Reform. New York: Twayne Publishers.
- Bonta, J. 2007. Offender Risk Assessment and Sentencing. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 7(49): 519-529.
- Bonta, J. & Andrews, D.2010. Viewing offender assessment and rehabilitation through the lens of the risk-need-responsivity model. Oxon: Willan Publishing.
- Bonzom, A. 2018. Female Offenders at the Confluence of Medical and Penal Discourses: Towards a Gender-Specific Criminology (1860s-1920s). Open Editions Journals.
- Borchert, D. M. 1967. *Epistemology*, London: Macmillan.
- Bosworth, M., 2000. Confining Femininity: A History of Gender, Power and Imprisonment. *Theoretical Criminology*, 4(3):265-284.
- Brennan, T., Breitenbach, M., & Dieterich, W. 2010. Unraveling women's pathways to serious crime: New findings and links to prior feminist pathways. *Perspectives*, 34(2): 35-47.

- Brewer, D.2008. *The Enlightenment Past: Reconstructing 18th century French Thought*. Cambridge.
- Brezina, T. 2017. *General Strain Theory*. [Online] Available at: <https://oxfordre.com/criminology/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264079.001.0001/acrefore-9780190264079-e-249> [Accessed 30 06 2021].
- Brigden, J. 2022. *Sky History*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.history.co.uk/shows/britains-bloodiest-dynasty/execution-in-the-middle-ages> [Accessed 09 01 2022].
- Brigden, J. 2022. *Sky History*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.history.co.uk/articles/ouch-8-of-the-most-brutal-methods-of-execution-from-the-ancient-world> [Accessed 15 02 2022].
- Britannica, 2020. *Britannica*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Pennsylvania-system> [Accessed 11 02 2022].
- Britton, D., 2011. *The Gender of Crime*. *Gender & society*,4(3):139-158.
- Brown, R. L. 1996. *A History of the Fleet Prison, London: The Anatomy of the Fleet*. 46 ed. *Lampeter: Studies in British History*.
- Brown, J. 2015. *Revisiting the classics: women in control? The role of women in law enforcement: Frances Heidensohn*. [Online] Available at: http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/64556/1/_lse.ac.uk_storage_LIBRARY_Secondary_libfile_shared_repository_Content_Brown,%20J_Revisiting%20classics_Brown_Revisting%20the%20classics_2015.pdf [Accessed 04 05 2021].
- Bruyns, H. J. & Nieuwenhuizen, C.2004. *The role of education in the rehabilitation of offenders*. *European Journal of Education*, 49(3):312-330.
- Bulman, M. 2017. *Independent*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/home-news/female-prisoners-womenprison-domestic-violence-victims-more-than-half-prison-reform-trust-report-a8089841.html> [Accessed 13 01 2021].
- Burnett, R., 2002. *The Dynamics of Recidivism*. Oxford: University of Oxford Centre for Criminological Research.

- Business Tech, 2021. Business Tech. [Online] Available at: <https://businesstech.co.za/news/finance/503297/south-africans-have-become-poorer-over-the-last-6-years-government/>
- Byrne, R. 1929. Prisons and Punishments of London. Harrap.
- Cambridge Dictionary, 2021. Cambridge Dictionary. [Online] Available at: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/shortcoming>.
- Cameron, B.2020. SLATE. [Online] Available at: <https://slate.com/human-interest/2013/05/why-does-norway-have-a-21-year-maximum-prison-sentence.html>
- Caneda, V.A., Busbee, M. & Fanning, M.,1977. Social Learning Theory and Prison Work Release Programs. pp. 2-7.
- Cardarelli, A. P.1989. Ideas on Institutions: Analyzing the Literature on Long-Term Care and Custody by Kathleen Jones and A. J. Fowles. [Online] Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/1143343.pdf> [Accessed 04 05 2021].
- Carlen, P. 1988. Women's Imprisonment. [Online] Available at: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003172185>
- Carl, L. & Lösel, F.2021. When sexual offender treatment in prison-based social-therapeutic treatment is not completed: Relationship to risk factors and recidivism after release. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*,13:371-379.
- Carpentier, N.2021. Shoplifting and Mental Illness. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 43 (1):38-43.
- Carter, S. M. & Little, M. 2007. Justifying knowledge, justifying method, taking action: Epistemologies, methodologies, and methods in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 17 (10):1316-1328.
- Carter, N., Bryant-Lukosius, D., Blythe, J. & Neville, A. 2014. The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncol Nurs Forum*, 5(41):5545-547.
- Casey, A., Day, A., Vess, J. & Ward, T. 2012. *Foundations of Offender Rehabilitation*. London: Routledge.
- Cauffman, E.2008. "Understanding the Female Offender. *The Future of Children*, 8(2):119-142.

- Cavadino, M. & Dignan, J. 2007. *The Penal System: An Introduction* in Cavadino, M. & Dignan, J. (2007). 4th ed. London: Sage.
- Cele, B. 2021. South African Government. [Online] Available at: <https://www.gov.za/speeches/minister-bheki-cele-quarter-one-crime-statistics-20212022-20-aug-2021-0000> [Accessed 05 05 2021].
- Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022. Violence Prevention. [Online] Available at: <https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/youthviolence/riskprotectivefactors.html> [Accessed 01 03 2022].
- Chalklin, C. W.1983. The Reconstruction of London's Prisons 1770-99: An Aspect of the Growth of Georgian London. *London Journal*, 9(3):21-34.
- Chase, M. 2008. The Chivalry Hypothesis & Filicide: Are There Categorical Differences between Mothers & Fathers who kill their Children? *American Society of Criminology*, 21(2):41-56.
- Chesney-Lind, M. 2006. Patriarchy, Crime, and Justice: Feminist Criminology in an Era of Backlash. *Feminist Criminology*,1(1):6-26.
- Chilisa, B. & Kawulich, B. 2012. Selecting a research approach: paradigm, methodology and methods. [Online] Available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/257944787> [Accessed 01 05 2022].
- Chowdhury, M. 2014. Interpretivism in Aiding Our Understanding of the Contemporary Social World. *Open Journal of Philosophy*, 4(3): 432-438.
- Christiaens, J. & Nuytiens, A. 2015. Female pathways to crime and prison: Challenging the (US) gendered pathways perspective. [Online] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Ann-Nuytiens/publication/283154675_Female_pathways_to_crime_and_prison_Challenging_the_US_gendered_pathways_perspective/links/5744142708ae9ace841b469a/Female-pathways-to-crime-and-prison-Challenging-the-US-gendered-path [Accessed 10 11 2021].
- Cilliers, C. & Smit, J. 2007. Offender rehabilitation in the South African correctional system : myth or reality. *Acta Criminologica: African Journal of Criminology &Victimology*, 20(2):83-101.

- Clark, A. 2008. *Supersizing the Mind: Embodiment, Action and Cognitive Extension*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Cobbina, J. E. 2009. *From Prison to Home: Women's Pathways In and Out of Crime*.
- Cohen, S. 1998. *Against Criminology*. London: Routledge.
- Cole, M. A. 2020. Recidivism. [Online Available at: <https://marisluste.files.wordpress.com/2010/11/recidivism.pdf>]
- Covington, S. S. 2001. A Woman's Journey Home: Challenges for Female Offenders and Their Children. January 30–31, *National conference U.S. Department of Health and Human Services the Urban Institute*.
- Cowan, B. A. 2022. *Incarcerated women: Poverty, trauma and unmet need*. *American Psychological Association*. London: Routledge.
- Coyle, A. 2009. *A Human Rights Approach to Prison Management: A handbook for prison staff*. United Kingdom: International Centre for Prison Studies.
- Craig, L., Dixon, L. & Gannon, T. 2016. *What Works in Offender Rehabilitation: An Evidence-Based Approach to Assessment and Treatment*. London: Wiley-Blackwell
- Craig, L.A., Dixon, L. & Gannon, T.A. 2013. *What Works in Offender Rehabilitation: An Evidence-Based Approach to Assessment and Treatment*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Creswell, J.W. 2007. *Research design. Qualitative and mixed methods approaches*. London : Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. 2013. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. 3 ed. London, Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. & Miller, D.L. 2000. Determining Validity in Qualitative Inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, 39(3): 124-130.
- Crewe, B. & Bennett, J. 2012. *The Prisoner*. London: Routledge.
- Criminology Research Council, 2022. Analysis & Policy Observatory. [Online] Available at: <https://apo.org.au/organisation/81419> [Accessed 01 01 2022].

- Cullen, F., Gendreau, P. & Andrews, D. 2020. Taking rehabilitation seriously the national parole resource center. [Online] Available at: <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1G2-3403000220.html>
- Cullen, F.T. & Gendreau, P. 1989. The Effectiveness of Correctional Rehabilitation. *The American Prison*, 4:23-44.
- Cullen, F. 2013. *Rehabilitation: Beyond nothing works. In: Crime and Justice in America, 1975 to 2025. Crime and Justice: A review of research.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Cullen, F.T. 2013. Rehabilitation: Beyond Nothing Works. *Crime and Justice in America 1975–2025*, 42(1): 299-376.
- Cúnico, S.D. & Lermen, H.S. 2022. Prison from a gender perspective: a systematic review. *Psicología, Conocimiento y Sociedad*, 10: 205-239.
- Dahl, G. B. & Mogstad, M. 2020. The Benefits of Rehabilitative Incarceration. *National Bureau of Economic Research*. 8(1):115-200.
- Daly, K.1993. Women's pathways to felony court: feminist theories of lawbreaking and problems of representation. *Review of Law and Women's Studies*, 2(11):11-28.
- Dantzker, M. L., Hunter, R. D. & Quinn, S. T. 2000. *Research Methods for Criminology and Criminal Justice.* Jones & Bartlett Learning.
- Dastile, N. P. 2011. Female crime. In *A Southern African perspective of fundamental Criminology*, Pearson Cape Town.
- Davidson, K. & Janet, T. 2009. Gender and Crime. In *21st Century Criminology.* Taylor & Francis.
- Davidson, P. M. 2011. The Health of Women and Girls Determines the Health and Well-Being of Our Modern World: A White Paper from the International Council on Women's Health Issues. *Health Care Women International*, 339(19): 870-886.
- Davies, C.1989. Goffman's Concept of the Total Institution: Criticisms and Revisions. [Online] Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/20009046.pdf> [Accessed 21 03 2021].

- Davies, D. & Dodd, J., 2002. Qualitative research and the question of rigor. *Qualitative Health Research*, 12(2): 279-289.
- Davis, C., Bahr, S. & Ward, C. 2013. The process of offender reintegration: Perceptions of what helps prisoners reenter society. *Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 13(4) 446-469.
- Day, A. 2020. At a crossroads? Offender rehabilitation in Australian prisons. *Psychiatr Psychol Law*, 27(6): 939-949.
- Day, T., Ward, B. & Shirley, B. 2011. Social Stigma understanding why labels matter. *American Journal of Sociology*, 2(3):13-66.
- Day, A.2015. The Conversation. [Online] Available at: <https://theconversation.com/crime-and-punishment-and-rehabilitation-a-smarter-approach-41960> [Accessed 17 01 2022].
- De Vos, A.2009. *Qualitative data analysis and interpretation*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Deci, E. & Ryan, R. 2000. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4): 227-268
- Delmar, R.1986. What is feminism?'. What is feminism.
- Denny, D. 2005. *Risk and Society*. London: Sage.
- Department of Correctional Services, 2005. White Paper on Correctional Services. Offender rehabilitation in the South African correctional system: myth or reality.
- Department of Correctional Services, 2020. Department of Correctional Services. [Online] Available at: <http://www.dcs.gov.za/>
- Department of Correctional Services, 2022. Department of Correctional Services. [Online] Available at: <https://www.gov.za/about-government/correctional-services> [Accessed 01 01 2022].
- Department of Correctional Services, 2021. Department of Correctional Services. [Online] Available at: <http://www.dcs.gov.za/>
- Department of Health, 2022. National Department of Health. [Online] Available at: <https://www.health.gov.za/> [Accessed 05 01 2022].

- Department of Social Development, 2012. *White Paper on Families in South Africa*.
Department of Social Development, Pretoria.
- Devereaux, S., 1999. The Making of the Penitentiary Act, 1775-1779. *The Historical Journal*, 42(2): 405-433.
- Dholakia, N. 2021. Vera Institute of Justice. [Online] Available at:
<https://www.vera.org/news/womens-voices/womens-incarceration-rates-are-skyrocketing> [Accessed 01 01 2022].
- Dikötter, F. & Brown, I. 2007. *Cultures of Confinement: A History of the Prison in Africa, Asia, and Latin America*.
- Dissel, A. (2008). 'Rehabilitation and reintegration in African prisons', In J. Sarkin (ed.) *Human Rights in African Prisons*, Cape Town: HSRC Press, 155-177.
- Dissel, A. (2012). *Good practice principles in reducing re-offending: A review of the literature*. Cape Town, South Africa: Community Law Centre.
- Dissel, A. & Kollapen, J. 2010. *Racism and Discrimination in the South African Penal System*. Johannesburg: The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation.
- Dodgson, J. E. 2019. Reflexivity in qualitative research. *Journal of Human Lactation*, 35(2): 220-222.
- Dolan, M. 2009. Recent advances in therapy for sexual offenders. F1000 medicine reports.
- Dominique, 2004. *The history of the educational programs and practices at the Massachusetts*. 3134475 ed.: Harvard University ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
- Doob, A. & Cesaroni, C. 2004. *Responding to Youth Crime in Canada*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Downing, N. E. & Roush, K. L. 1985. From passive acceptance to active commitment: A model of feminist identity development for women. *The Counseling Psychologist, The American Psychologist*, 70 (1): 695-709.
- Duwe, G. 2018. The effectiveness of education and employment programming for prisoners. [Online] Available at: <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED585975.pdf> [Accessed 10 09 2021].

- Effiong, A. 2020. A brief history and classification of feminism. *A General Introduction to Feminism and Feminist Philosophy*, 18 (2):159-164.
- Elo, S. et al. 2014. *Qualitative Content Analysis: A Focus on Trustworthiness*. Sage Open.
- Emmons, R.1999. *The Psychology of Ultimate Concerns*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Endalcachew, B. 2016. The role of empowering women and achieving gender equality to the sustainable development of Ethiopia. *Pacific Science Review B: Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(1): 37-42.
- Erez, E.2002. Domestic Violence and the Criminal Justice System: An Overview. *Online Journal of Issues in Nursing*, 7(1):1-18.
- Estrada, F., Nilsson, A. & Pettersson, T. 2019. The female offender - A century of registered crime and daily press reporting on women's crime. *Nordic Journal of Criminology*, 20(1):138-156.
- Estrada, F. & Nilsson, A.2012. Does it Cost More to be a Female Offender? A life-course study of Childhood Circumstances, Crime, Drug Abuse, and Living Conditions. *Feminist Criminology*, 7(2):196-219.
- Etikan, I. 2016. Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1):1-4
- Evans, R.1982. *The Fabrication of Virtue: Prison Architecture;1750-1840*. Cambridge.
- Evans, M. H. 2011. Judicial Rehabilitation in France: Helping with the Desisting Process and Acknowledging Achieved Desistance. *European Journal of Probation*, 3(1):1-21.
- Fili, A. 2013. Women in prison: victims or registers representatives of agency in Women in Prison in Greece. *Women gender and Prisons National and Global Perspective*, 39(1): 231-236.
- Finkelhor, D., Turner, H., Hamby, S. & Ormrod, R. 2011. Poly victimization: Children's Exposure to Multiple Types of Violence, Crime, and Abuse. U.S. Department of Justice, pp. 1-12.
- Fisher, A. & Polesta, E. 2013. Crime and Punishment through time. *Salem Mass*, 6(3):12- 23.

- Flick, U. 2011. *Designing Qualitative Research*, London: Sage.
- Fortune, C. A., Ward, T. & Willis, G. 2011. The Rehabilitation of Offenders: Reducing Risk and Promoting Better Lives. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, 19(5):1-16.
- Francios, S. & Booyens, K. 2017. A profile of incarcerated female offenders: implications for rehabilitation policy and practice. *Acta Criminologica: African Journal of Criminology & Victimology*, 30(4):33-57.
- Frerichs, R. R. 2008. Rapid Surveys. [Online] Available at: http://www.ph.ucla.edu/epi/rapidsurveys/RScourse/RSbook_ch3.pdf [Accessed 04 01 2022].
- Frey, M. A. 2018. History of Corrections—Punishment, Prevention, or Rehabilitation University of Maryland, College Park ProQuest Dissertations Publishing,
- Fuller, J. 1820. The Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons. *Pennsylvania United States of America Philadelphia*, 18(3): 1855.
- Garland, D. 2001. *The Culture of Control: Crime and Social Order in Contemporary Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Garvey, S. P. 1998. Freeing Prisoners' Labor. *Stanford Law Review*, 38(6): 339-398.
- George, K., Sibanyoni, E. & Mofokeng, J. 2022. Fetching water with a leaking container: Female offenders' rehabilitation programme limitation, South Africa. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science*, 11(2):133-446.
- Gerring, J. 2017. Qualitative Methods. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 20(4) 15-36.
- Ghauri, P. & Grønhaug, K. 2005. *Research Methods in Business Studies: A Practical Guide*. London: Routledge.
- Giffard, C. & Muntingh, L. 2006. The effect of sentencing on the size of the south african prison population. [Online] Available at: <https://acjr.org.za/resource-centre/The%20impact%20of%20sentencing%20on%20the%20size%20of%20the%20prison%20population.pdf> [Accessed 14 02 2022].
- Gilfus, M. E. 2002. *Women's Experiences of Abuse as a Risk Factor for Incarceration*. *Applied Research Forum*, pp. 1-12.

- Gill, S.L. 2020. Qualitative sampling methods. *Journal of Human Lactation*, 36(4):579-581.
- Giordano, P., Cernkovich, S. & Rudolph, J. 2002. Gender, Crime, and Desistance: Toward a Theory of Cognitive Transformation. *American Journal of Sociology*, 107(4):990-1064.
- Golladay, K. & Holtfreter, K. 2014. The Impact of Feminist Pathways Research on Gender-Responsive Policy and Practice. *Feminist Criminology*, 9(3):191-207.
- Gona, S., Mugari, I. & Maziti, Z. 2014. Effectiveness of correctional programmes in curbing re-offending. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Development*, 3(13), 19-26.
- Gora, J.G.1982. *The new female criminal: Empirical reality or social myth*. New York: Praeger.
- Gottfredson, M. R. & Hirschi, T.1990. *A general theory of crime*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Gottlieb, G. 2005. Theater of death: capital punishment in early America, 1750-1800. [online] Available at: <http://d-scholarship.pitt.edu/10187/1/gottlieb.pdf>
- Government Gazette 35093, 2012. CORRECTIONAL SERVICES ACT NO. 111 OF 1998. Government Gazette 35093, 23 July.
- Government of South Australia, 2020. Department of Correctional Services. [Online] Available at: <https://www.corrections.sa.gov.au/>
- Gravetter, F. J. & Forzano, L.-A. B. 2009. *Research Methods for the Behavioral Sciences*. 5 ed.
- Grünbaum, A. 1971. Free Will and Laws of Human Behavior. *American Philosophical Quarterly*, 8(4):299-317.
- Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y.1989. *Fourth Generation Evaluation*, London: Sage.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A. & Johnson, L. 2006. How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1): 59-82.

- Haffeejee, S., Vetten, L. & Greyling, M. 2005. Exploring violence in the lives of women and girls incarcerated at three prisons in Gauteng Province, South Africa. *Agenda*, 19(66):40-47.
- Halliday, S. 2007. *Newgate: London's Prototype of Hel*. The History Press.
- Hammersley, M. 2013. *What is Qualitative Research?* London: Bloomsbury.
- Hannah, M. 1999. Moral agent or actuarial subject: Risk and Canadian women's imprisonment. *Theoretical Criminology*, 3(1):71-94.
- Harding, J. 2013. *Qualitative data analysis from start to finish*. London: Sage.
- Harper, N. 2007. *Mixed Methods Examination of Family Involvement in Adolescent Wilderness Therapy*. University of Minnesota.
- Harrison, J. L. et al. 2020. Sexual Offender Treatment Effectiveness Within Cognitive-Behavioral Programs: A Meta-Analytic Investigation of General, Sexual, and Violent Recidivism. *Psychiatry, psychology, and law. An Interdisciplinary Journal of the Australian and New Zealand Association of Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, 27(1): 1-25.
- Hartman, J. L. & Sundt, J. L. 2010. *Adler, Freda: Sisters in Crime. Encyclopedia of Criminological Theory, and Policy*. London, Routledge.
- Healthline, 2021. Healthline. [Online] Available at: <https://www.healthline.com/health/bipolar-disorder/what-bipolar-feels-like#Bipolar-disorder-in-children>.
- Heidensohn, F. 1996. Women and social control. In: *Women and Crime. Women in Society* Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Heidensohn, F. & Silvestri, C. 2012. Gender and Crime ' in *Oxford Handbook of Criminology*. [Online] Available at: https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/30584629/Gender_and_Crime_Oxford_Handbook_of_Criminology-with-cover-pagev2.pdf?Expires=1649082014&Signature=LSIJPHB-K~BsuEg0VIDXwpvvlzAMVqa0uYFFhbV~fVqOf103cJHX5JXNoUjoH3FZ4Accm rXOppmlncY4fsRBlhsh9jMudGUW6EdIwGGkEG [Accessed 10 01 2022].

- Heidensohn, F. 2010. The Deviance of Women: A Critique and an Enquiry. *British Journal of Sociology*, 61:111-126.
- Heseltine, K., Day, A. & Sarre, R.2011. Prison-based correctional offender rehabilitation programs: The 2009 national picture in Australia. Research and public policy series no. 112. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. <https://www.aic.gov.au/publications/rpp/rpp112>
- Hennink, M., Hutter, I. & Bailey, A. 2011. *Qualitative Research Methods*. London: Sage.
- Higginbottom, G. 2004. Sampling issues in qualitative research. *Nurse researcher.*, 12(2): 7-19.
- Hindelang, G. & Garofalo, D. 1978. Lifestyle exposure model.
- Hirschi, T.1969. *Causes of Delinquency* ed. University of California Press.
- Hollin, C. 2004. *To treat or not to treat? An historical perspective*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Hovey, K. A., Zolkoski, S. M. & Bullock, L. M. 2017. Mental Health and the Juvenile Justice System: Issues Related to. *World Journal of Education*, 7(3):1-13.
- Howells, K. et al. 2004. *Correctional Offender Rehabilitation Programs: The National Picture in Australia*. Criminology Research Council, University of Australia
- Huebner, B. M. 2007. Gangs, guns, and drugs: recidivism among serious, young offenders. *Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 6(2):187-221.
- Hunnicut, G. & Broidy, L. M. 2004. Liberation and Economic Marginalization: A Reformulation and Test of (Formerly?) Competing Models. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 41(2):130-155.
- Ilker, E. 2016. Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics* 5(1):1-4.
- In, J. 2017. Introduction of a pilot study. *Korean Journal of Anesthesiology*, 70(6): 601-605.
- Inside the Auburn Prison , 2018. Inside the Auburn Prison. [Online] Available at: <https://web.archive.org/web/20070620150333/http://co.cayuga.ny.us/history/cayugahistory/prison.html> [Accessed 05 01 2022].
- International Labour Organisation, 2020. Empowering Women at Work. [Online]

Available at: [lo.org/wcmssp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_ent/---multi/documents/publication/wcms_756721.pdf](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/358123456) [Accessed 01 05 2022].

Irace, N. 2012. Guided History. [Online] Available at: <http://blogs.bu.edu/guidedhistory/moderneurope/robespierres-transformation-and-the-french-revolution>

Johnsen, B., Granheim, P. & Helgesen, J. 2011. Exceptional Prison Conditions and the Quality of Prison Life: Prison Size and Prison Culture in Norwegian Closed Prison. *European Journal of Criminology*, 8(6):515-529.

Jones, K. & Fowles, A. J. 2008. Total institutions. In: Understanding Health and Social Care: *An Introductory Reader*, 45(10): S103-S124.

Jonker, D.C. 2011. The role of the department of correctional services in the rehabilitation of child molesters (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).

Kabir, S. M. S. 2016. Methods of data collection. *An Introductory Approach for All Disciplines*, 4(2):168-180.

Kaiser, K. 2009. Protecting respondent confidentiality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(1): 1632-1641.

Kamal, S. S. L. B. A. 2019. Research paradigm and the philosophical foundations of a qualitative study. *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(3): 1386-1394.

Kashatus, W. C. 2011. Pennsylvania Heritage Magazine. [Online] Available at: <http://www.phmc.state.pa.us/portal/communities/pa-heritage/william-penn-legacy-religious-spiritual-diversity.html>

Kazenmaier, U. 2020. The Prison System in Berlin. An Overview of Correctional Centers

Kelly, J. 2022. A Complete breakdown of America's new juvenile justice law. [Online]

Available at: <https://imprintnews.org/featured/a-complete-breakdown-of-americas-new-juvenile-justice-law/33331> [Accessed 02 01 2021].

Kemshall, H. 1998. *Risk in Probation Practice*. Aldershot: Ashgate.

- Khurana, N. A. & Sharma, R. 2020. *Gender justice and empowerment: a study of chhara bootlegger women of ahmedabad. Handbook of Research on New Dimensions of Gender Mainstreaming and Women Empowerment.* (pp. 457-471). IGI Global.
- Kifer, M., Hemmens, C. & Stohr, M. K. 2003. The goals of corrections: Perspectives from the line. *Criminal Justice Review*, 28(1): 47-69.
- Kilpatric, D.2009. International society for traumatic stress. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 21(7): 742-750.
- Kilpatrick, D. G. et al. 2013. National estimates of exposure to traumatic events and PTSD prevalence using DSM-IV and DSM-5 criteria. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 5(26): 537-547.
- Kivunja, C. & Kuyin, A. B. 2017. Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in educational. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5):26-41.
- Klein, A. R. 2006. *Practical Implications of Current Domestic Violence Research.* Hindawi Publishing Corporation, New York.
- Klein, D. 1976. *The etiology of female crime: A review of the literature.* In: *The female offender.* Atlanta: Heath and Company.
- Klopper, H. 2008. The qualitative research proposal. *Curationis* 38(2): 1-9.
- Korsgaard, C. 2009. *Self-constitution: Agency, Identity and Integrity.* New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kuhn, T.1962. *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lamb, V. M. 2011. The 1950's and the 1960's and the American Woman: the transition from the "housewife" to the feminist. *History.*
- Lancaster, E. 2021. Young Feminist. [Online] Available at: <http://www.youngfeminist.eu>
[Accessed 05 04 2021].
- Landman, C.2009. Risk for Criminal Recidivism among Young Sex Offenders. Washington: National Criminal Justice Reference Service.

- Langkos, S. 2014. Research methodology: data collection method and research tools. [online] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270956555_chapter_3_research_methodology_data_collection_method_and_research_tools [Accessed 13 08 2020].
- Laub, J. & Sampson, R.2003. *Shared beginnings, divergent lives—delinquent boys to age 70*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Laws, D. & Ward, T. 2011. *Desistance and sexual offending: Alternatives to throwing away the key*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Lewis, D. M.2014. The risk factor - (Re-) visiting adult offender risk assessments within criminal justice practice. *Risk Management*, 16(2):121-136.
- Liamputtong, P., 2009. *Qualitative research methods*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. 1985. *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Lindlof, T. R. & Taylor, B. C. 2002. *Qualitative Communication Research Methods*. London: Sage.
- Linley, P. & Joseph, S. 2004. *Applied positive psychology: A new perspective for professional practice*. New Jersey: John Wiley.
- Lipsey, M. & Cullen, F.2007. The Effectiveness of Correctional Rehabilitation: A Review of Systematic Reviews. *Annual Review of Law and Social Science*, 3, 297-320.
- Little, J. & Brown, J. 2008. Young, Alexander (1846) *Chronicles of the First Planters of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay*. Boston.
- Liu, Y. & Zheng, Y., 2019. Reliability and Validity of Feminist Identity Composite in Chinese Women. [Online] Available at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02842/full> [Accessed 14 02 2022].
- Llewellyn, J. & Thompson, S. 2022. The ideas of the French Revolution". [Online] Available at: <https://alphahistory.com/frenchrevolution/revolutionary-ideas/> [Accessed 18 02 2022].

- Loeffler, C. E. & Nagin, D. S. 2022. The Impact of Incarceration on Recidivism. *Annual Review of Criminology*, 1(5):133-152.
- Loftus, J. 2014. Offenders and Enforcers: Women in Criminal Justice. *Politics, Bureaucracy, and Justice*, 4(1):1-4.
- Macionis, J. J. & Gerbe, L. M. 2010. *Sociology. seventh Canadian edition*: Canada, Pearson
- MacKenzie, D., 2014. *Examining the effectiveness of correctional interventions. encyclopedia of criminology and criminal justice*, 1471-1479. Springer New York.
- Maher, C., Hadfield, M., Hutchings, M. & Eyto, A. 2018. Ensuring rigor in qualitative data analysis: A design research approach to coding combining NVivo with traditional material methods. *International Journal of Qualitative Method*, 17(1):1-13
- Majid, U. 2018. Research Fundamentals: Study Design, Population, and Sample Size. *Undergraduate Research in Natural and Clinical Science and Technology*, 2(10):1-7
- Makou, G., Skosana, I. & Hopkins, R. 2022. Africa Check. [Online] Available at: <https://africacheck.org/fact-checks/factsheets/factsheet-state-south-Africa's-prisons> [Accessed 06 02 2021].
- Mallion, J. S. 2021. Good lives model: importance of interagency collaboration in preventing violent recidivism. *Societies*, 96(11):1-13.
- Mannheim, H. 2009. *The Dilemma of penal reform* London: Allen and Unwin.
- Maruna, S. 2001. *Making Good: How Ex-convicts Reform and Rebuild their Lives*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Masoma, Z. 2019. Women Behind Bars [Interview] (22 08 2019).
- Mastrobuoni, G. & Terlizzese, D. 2014. *Rehabilitation and Recidivism: Evidence from an Open Prison*.
- Matteucci, K. 2014. The Petionville Model Prison. [Online] Available at: <https://nyccriminal.ace.fordham.edu/?p=606> [Accessed 01 02 2022].
- Maxwell, J. A. 2012. *Qualitative research design: An Interactive Approach*. Academia
- Mazor, K. M. et al. 2002. A demonstration of the impact of response bias on the results of patient satisfaction surveys. *Health Services Research*, 35(5): 1403-1417.

- McCarthy, B., Hagan, J. & Woodward, T. S. 1999. In the company of women: structure and agency in a revised and delinquency* power- control theory of gender. [Online] Available at: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1111/j.1745-9125.1999.tb00504.x> [Accessed 04 05 2021].
- McCarthy, P., Schiraldi, V. & Shark, M. 2016. The Future of Youth Justice: A Community-Based Alternative to the Youth Prison Model. [Online] Available at: <https://www.ojp.gov/pdffiles1/nij/250142.pdf>
- McDougall, S. D. 2013. Defining feminism: a phenomenological exploration of the meaning women assigns to their feminist identities. *Human Development and Family Science*, 18(2):12-18.
- McMahon, D. M. 2004. The history of happiness, 400 B.C. - A.D. 1780. *American Academy of Arts & Sciences*, 133(2):421-445.
- McNeil, F. 2012. *Four forms of "offender" rehabilitation: Towards an interdisciplinary perspective*. Scotland: University of Glasgow Scotland.
- McNeill, F. 2014. Punishment as rehabilitation. *Encyclopedia of Criminology*. 4195-4206.
- Mertens, D. M., Cram, F. & Chilisa, B. 2013. *Indigenous pathways into social research*. London, Routledge.
- Merton, R. K. 1938. Social Structure and Anomie. *American Sociological Review*, 5(2): 672- 682.
- Minisini, V. 2020. Global Insights. [Online] Available at: <https://globalriskinsights.com/2021/03/south-africas-secondary-pandemic-a-crisis-of-gender-based-violence/>
- Mittwede, S. K. 2012. Research Paradigms and Their Use and Importance in Theological Inquiry and Education. *Journal of Education and Christian Belief*, 16(1):23-40.
- Mohammed, I. J., Banarjee, S. & Khatun, N. 2014. Theories of Female Criminality: A criminological analysis. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociological Theory*, 7(1). 1-8.
- Morgan, R. E. & Truman, J. L., 2020. Criminal Victimization, 2019. [Online] Available at: <https://bjs.ojp.gov/data-collection/news> [Accessed 04 05 2021].

- Mouton, R. et al. 2015. Remote ischemic preconditioning versus sham procedure for abdominal aortic aneurysm repair: an external feasibility randomized controlled trial. *Trials*, 16(1):1-9.
- Muntingh, L. M. 2006. *A guide to the rights of inmates as described in the correctional services act and regulations*. Africa Criminal Justice Reform.
- Murhula, P. B. B. & Singh, S. B. 2019. A Critical Analysis on Offenders Rehabilitation Approach in South Africa: A Review of the Literature. *African Journal of Criminology and Justice Studies*, 12(2):1554-3897.
- Musekwa, O., Mulaudzi, T., Takalani, J. & Makhado, L. 2021. Correctional rehabilitation programmes' effectiveness: A phenomenological study of recidivists in a South African setting. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 31(1):102-106.
- Muthaphuli, P. 2012. Crime prevention and sentencing: a practical penological perspective. PhD dissertation, University of South Africa.
- Muzondo, B. 2012. Public Policy and National Development. *Office research working paper* Lusaka.
- Myers, M. D. 2008. *Qualitative Research in Business & Management*. London, Sage Publications.
- Nakato, C. 2017. Female inmate adjustment in prison (Doctoral dissertation, California State University, Fresno).
- National Alliance on Mental Illness, 2021. National Alliance on Mental Illness. [Online]
Available at: <https://www.nami.org/About-Mental-Illness/Common-with-Mental-Illness/Sleep-Disorders>
- National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders, 2020. South African National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders. [Online]
Available at: <https://www.nicro.org.za/>
- National Prison Association of the United States, 2018. National Prison Association of the United States. [Online] Available at: <https://play.google.com/books/reader?id=amgUAQAAMAAJ&hl=en&pg=GBS.PP2>.

[Accessed 25 01 2022].

National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2001. *Juvenile Crime, Juvenile Justice*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.

Ndrecka, M. 2017. *The Impact of Reentry Programs on Recidivism: A Meta-Analysis*. Cincinnati: University of Cincinnati.

Neuman, W. L. 2006. *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Pearson.

Newton, A., May, X., Eames, S. & Ahmad, M. 2019. Ministry of Justice. [Online]

Available at:
https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/814650/economic-social-costs-reoffending.pdf [Accessed 01 01 2022].

Ngozwana, N. (2016). 'Exploring Non-Formal Educational Experiences from Adaptive to Transformative Responses', in The European Conference on Education 2016: Official Conference Proceedings, IAFOR.

Ngozwana, N. 2017. Adult offenders' perceptions of rehabilitation programs in Africa. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 52(2): 218-237.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2013. *Qualitative research designs and data gathering techniques*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Norwegian Correctional Services, 2020. The Norwegian Correctional Service. [Online]

Available at: <http://www.kriminalomsorgen.no/index.php?cat=265199>

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E. & Moules, N. J. 2017. Thematic Analysis: Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16:1-13.

Offen, K. 1988. Defining Feminism: A Comparative Historical Approach. *Signs Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 4(1):119-157.

Opsal, T. & Foley, A. 2013. Making it on the Outside: Understanding Barriers to Women's Post-Incarceration Reintegration. *Sociology Compass*, 7(4):265-277.

Oxford , 2022. Oxford Dictionary. [Online] Available at:
<https://www.lexico.com/definition/female> [Accessed 01 01 2022].

Paternoster, R. 2015. Human Agency and Explanations of Criminal Desistance Arguments for a Rational Choice Theory. *Journal of Developmental and Life-Course Criminology*. 1(3):209-235.

Patton, M. Q. 1990. *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. 2 ed. Newbury Park: CA:Sage.

Petersilia, J. 2009. What Works in Prisoner Reentry? Reviewing and Questioning the Evidence. *Federal Probation* 68(2):4-8.

Petersilia, J., 2011. Beyond the prison bubble. *The Wilson Quarterly* (1976-), 35(1):50-55.

Peté, S. A. 2017. A Disgrace to the Master Race: Colonial Discourse Surrounding the Incarceration of "European" Prisoners within the Colony of Natal towards the End of the Nineteenth and Beginning of the 20th Centuries. *PER/JER* 20(1):234-245.

Pettersson, T., Nilsson, A. & Estrada, F. 2019. The female offender - A century of registered crime and daily press reporting on women's crime. *Nordic Journal of Criminology*, 20(2):138-156.1

Pezalla, A. E., Pettigrew, J. & Miller-Day, M. 2012. Researching the researcher-as-instrument: An exercise in interviewer self-reflexivity. *Qualitative research*, 12(2): 165-185.

Pham, L. 2018. *A Review of key paradigms: positivism, interpretivism and critical inquiry*. University of Adelid.

Phelps, M. S., 2011. Rehabilitation in the Punitive Era: The Gap between Rhetoric and Reality in U.S. *Prison Programs*. *Law & Society Review*, 1(45):33-68.

Polkinghorne, D. E, 2005. Language and Meaning: Data Collection in Qualitative Research. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 25(2):137-145.

Pollak, O. 1950. *The criminality of Women*. University of Pennsylvania Press.

Pruin, I. 2016. "What Works" and What Else Do We Know? Criminological Research Findings on Transition Management. *European Treatment, Transition Management, and Re-Integration of High-Risk Offenders*, 181-196.

- Purnell, L. M. 2006. A Study of Feminist Identity Development of Undergraduate College Women. Think I am a Feminist.
- Quadrelli, C., 2003. Aberrance, Agency and Social Constructions of Women Offenders. [Online] Available at: <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/10884548.pdf> [Accessed 12 03 2021].
- Rehman, A., A. & Khalid, A. 2016. An introduction to research paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 8(2410-3446): 51-59.
- Rev, S.2010. Arizona Revised Statutes, US Law. [Online] Available at: <http://law.justia.com/arizona/codes/title13/00901-01.html>[Accessed 05 01 2022].
- Ricciardelli, R. et al. 2021. Correctional services during and beyond COVID-19. *Facets*, 6(1):490-516.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J. & Elam, G. 2003. *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. London, Sage.
- Robinson, G. & Crow, L.2009. Offender Rehabilitation: theory, Research and Practice. London: Sage.
- Rogers, R. & Jenkins, B. 2011. Sutori. [Online] Available at: <https://www.sutori.com/en/story/1930-1950-rehabilitation-in-the-u-s-kVDMP9ZdStgebBcanqRDEJNB>
- Ross, R. & Fabiano, E. 1985. Reasoning and Rehabilitation. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 1(32): 29-36.
- Rostaing, C., Béraud, C. & Galembert, C. D. 2018. *Religion, reintegration and rehabilitation in French prisons*. Springer, Cham
- Roth, M. P. 2006. Prisons and Prison Systems: *A Global Encyclopedia*. Ed. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Rupande, G. & Ngoro, I. 2014. Challenges faced by prison service in implementing rehabilitation programme. *Journal of Innovative Research Development*, 44(2):25-42.
- Ryder, J. A. 2013. *Auburn State Prison*. *Encyclopedia Britannica*, Boston, Routledge.

- Salisbury, E. & Voorhis, V. P. 2009. Gendered pathways a quantitative investigation of women probationers' paths to Incarceration. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 6(36): 541-566.
- Samuels, J. A. 2010. Challenges that offenders face upon release that contribute to recidivism in the Department of Correctional Services: A case study of the West Coast Medium 'A' Correctional Centre in the Western Cape. Doctoral dissertation, University of the Western Cape).
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A.2012. *Research Methods for Business Students*: Pearson Education Limited.
- Saxena, P. & Messina, N. 2021. Trajectories of victimization to violence among incarcerated women. *Health Justice*, 9(18):2-12.
- Schwartz, S. P. & Yanow, D.2020. Interpretivism. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 9(3), 350-360.
- Scott, E. S. & Grisso, T. 1998. The Evolution of Adolescence: A Developmental Perspective on Juvenile Justice Reform. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*,33(2):113-137
- Seiter, R. & Kadela, K. 2003. Prisoner Reentry: What works, what does Not, and what Is promising. *Crime & Delinquency*. III (49):360-388.
- Setoi, M.S. (2012). *Youth and Adult Learning and Education in Lesotho*. Maseru: Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa (OSISA).
- Serpa, S. 2018. On the concept of Total Institution. *International Journal of Social Science Studies*, 9(31):31-54.
- Sharma, G. 2017. Pros and cons of different sampling techniques. *International Journal of Applied Research*. 3(7):749-752.
- Sheehan, W. H. 1977. Finding Solace in Eighteenth-Century. *Crime in England* 124(3): 467- 502.
- Shelden, R. G., Brown, W. B., Miller, K. S. & Fritzler, R. B. 2008. *Crime and criminal Justice in American Society*. Waveland Press.

- Shenton, A. 2004. Strategies for Ensuring Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research Projects. *Education for Information*, 38(22): 63-75.
- Siegert, R., Mcpherson, K. & Dean, S. 2006. Theory development and a science of rehabilitation. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 27(24):1493-1501
- Siegert, R., Ward, T., Levack, W. & McPherson, K., 2007. A Good Lives Model of Clinical and Community Rehabilitation. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 27(24):4-15
- Sileyew, K. J. 2019. Research Design and Methodology. [Online] Available at: <https://www.intechopen.com/books/cyberspace/research-design-and-methodology> [Accessed 30 06 2020].
- Simpson, S. S. 1889. Online Journals Criminology. [Online] Available at: https://heinonline.org/HOL/Page?handle=hein.journals/crim27&div=38&g_sent=1&casa_token=&collection=journal [Accessed 01 05 2021].
- Sloan, A. & Bowe, B. 2014. The Philosophy, the Methodologies, and Using Hermeneutic Phenomenology to Investigate Lecturers' Experiences of Curriculum Design. Quality and Quantity. *Phenomenology and Hermeneutic Phenomenology*, 48(4): 1291-1303.
- Smart, C. 1979. The new female criminal: reality or myth? *The British Journal of Criminology*, 19(1): 50-59.
- Smart, C. 1979. Women, Crime, and Poverty 1989. [Online] Available at: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1410338?seq=1> [Accessed 10 04 2021].
- Snyder, H. 2019. Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, 104(12):333-339.
- South African Police Service, 2022. South African Police Service. [Online] Available at: https://www.saps.gov.za/services/downloads/july_to_september_2021_22_quarter2_presentation.pdf [Accessed 01 01 2022].
- Stahl, N. & King, J. 2020. Expanding Approaches for Research: *Understanding and Using Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research*, 44(1): 26-28.

- Statistics South Africa, 2020. Statistics South Africa. [Online] Available at: <http://www.statssa.gov.za/>
- Steffensmeier, D. 1993. National Trends in Female Arrests, 1960-1990: Assessment and Recommendations for Research. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 9(4):411-441
- Stephen, P. & Devenish, A. 2005. Flogging, fear and food: punishment and race in colonial Natal. *Journal of Southern African Studies*.31(1):3-21.
- Steyn, F. & Booyens, K.2019. A profile of incarcerated female offenders: implications for rehabilitation policy and practice, *Journal of Criminology & Victimology*, 30(4):33-54.
- Study.com, 2014. History of corrections & its impact on modern concepts. [Online] Available at: <https://study.com/academy/lesson/history-of-corrections-its-impact-on-modern-concepts.html> [Accessed 17 04 2021].
- Sullivan, R. R. 1998. The Birth of the Prison: The Case of Benjamin Rush. *Eighteenth-Century Studies*, 31(3):333-344.
- Taherdoost, H. 2016. Sampling Methods in Research Methodology; How to Choose a Sampling. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 5(2): 18- 27.
- Terre Blanche, M. & Kelly, K. 1999. *Interpretive methods*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Thabane, L. et al. 2010. A tutorial on pilot studies: the what, why and how. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 10(1):1-10
- The draft White Paper, 2005. *White Paper on Correctional Services*. [Online] Available at: Draft white paper. <https://static.pmg.org.za/docs/031201draftwhitepaper.htm>
- The Presidency Republic of South Africa, 2022. The Presidency Republic of South Africa. [Online] Available at: <https://www.thepresidency.gov.za/> [Accessed 02 01 2022].
- The prison insider, 2020. The prison insider. [Online] Available at: <https://www.prison-insider.com/countryprofile/prisonsinaustralia>

The United States Department of Justice, 2021. The United States Department of Justice. [Online] Available at: <https://www.justice.gov/>

The White Paper on Corrections, 2005. Department of Correctional Services. [Online] Available at: https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/202001/whitepaperoncorrectionsouth-africa.pdf [Accessed 01 02 2022].

Timko, C. et al. 2017. Criminogenic Needs, Substance Use, and Offending among Rural Stimulant Users. *Rural Mental Health*, 41(2): 110-122.

Tonry, M. & Petersilia, J. 2010. *Prisons Research at the Beginning of the 21st Century*. National Institute of Justice,

Tsepa, M. (2014). An investigative study on the causes of recidivism/ reoffending among inmates in Lesotho: The case of Maseru Central Correctional Institution. Unpublished B.Ed. in Adult Education Department. University of Lesotho, IEMS: Maseru.

United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, 2022. United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime. [Online] Available at: https://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/Bangkok_Rules_ENG_22032015.pdf [Accessed 30 06 2021].

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2019. United Nations. [Online] Available at: <https://www.unodc.org/e4j/en/crime-prevention-criminal-justice/module-9/key-issues/1--gender-based-discrimination-and-women-in-conflict-with-the-law.html> [Accessed 01 01 2022].

United Nations Prison Support Recommendations, 2009. *United Nations Prison Support Recommendations*. United Nations.

UNODC, 2016. The United Nations standard minimum rules for the treatment of prisoners (the Nelson Mandela Rules).

Van Dieten, M. 2020. The United States Department of Justice. [Online] Available at: <https://nicic.gov/responding-needs-women-veterans-involved-criminal-justice-system>

Veldhuis, T. 2012. *Designing Rehabilitation and Reintegration Programmes for Violent Extremist Offenders: A Realist Approach*. The Hague: ICCT.

- Vess, J. 2009. Fear and loathing in public policy: Ethical issues in laws for sex offenders. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 14(4):264-272.
- Vienne, P. 2010. Introduction to Everett C. Hughes "Memorandum on Total Institutions". *Sociologica*, 4(2): 1-6.
- Viglione, J. & Taxman, F. S. 2018. Low Risk Offenders Under Probation Supervision: Risk Management and the Risk-Needs-Responsivity Framework. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 45(12): 1809-0831.
- Vold, G., Bernard, T. & Snipes, J. 1998. *Theoretical Criminology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ward, M. 2018. Case Study: Private Providers and NSDS III.
- Ward, T. & Maruna, S. 2007. *Rehabilitation: Beyond the risk assessment paradigm*. London: Routledge.
- Wassenaar, D. 2006. Ethical issues in social science research. In: *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press., pp. 60-79.
- Wattanaporn, K. A. & Holtfreter, K. 2014. The Impact of Feminist Pathways Research on Gender-Responsive Policy and Practice. [Online] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Katelyn_Golladay/publication/265161839_The_Impact_of_Feminist_Pathways_Research_on_Gender-Responsive_Policy_and_Practice/links/540367750cf23d9765a5cd92/The-Impact-of-Feminist-Pathways-Research-on-Gender-Responsive-Poli [Accessed 10 11 2021].
- Wellington, J. & Szczerbinski, M. 2007. *Research methods for the social sciences*. : Continuum.
- Wemmers, J.A. 2013. Victims' experiences in the criminal justice system and their recovery from crime. *International Review of Victimology*, 19(3):221-233.
- Whitehead, P., Ward, T. & Collie, R. 2007. Time for a Change: applying the good Lives model of rehabilitation to a high-risk violent offender. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 51(5): 578-598.

- White, S. 1976. Alexander Maconochie and the Development of Parole. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*,67(1)76-88.
- Wickert, C. 2019. Biological Theories of crime. [Online] Available at: <https://soztheo.de/theories-of-crime/biological-theories-of-crime/?lang=en> [Accessed 05 01 2022].
- Wilkinson, R. 2010. Best Practice in Offender Rehabilitation. Los Angeles: ICPA.
- William, M.K. 2022. Cojointly. [Online] Available at: <https://conjointly.com/kb/nonprobability-sampling/> [Accessed 04 05 2021].
- Willison, J., Brazzell, D. & Kim, K. 2011. Faith-based corrections and re-entry, s.l.: Washington DC: The Urban Institute Justice.
- World Health Organization, 2021. World Health Organization. [Online] Available at: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/violence-against-women> [Accessed 16 09 2021].
- World Health Organization, 2022. World Health Organization. [Online] Available at: https://www.who.int/health-topics/severe-acute-respiratory-syndrome#tab=tab_1 [Accessed 01 02 2022].
- World Population Review, 2021. World Population Review. [Online] Available at: <https://worldpopulationreview.com/countries/south-africa-population>
- World Prison Brief, 2021. World Prison Brief. [Online] Available at: <https://www.prisonstudies.org/>
- Wormith, J. S. et al. 2007. The rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 34(7): 879-892.
- Yates, P. M. 2013. Treatment of sexual offenders: research, best practices, and emerging models. *International Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy*, 8(3-4):1-7.
- York Museums, 2008. History of York. [Online] Available at: <http://www.historyofyork.org.uk/themes/1000-years-of-justice-at-york-castle/medieval-prisons>.

APPENDIX ONE: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Participant:

Section One

1. Age
2. Location
3. Race
4. Availability to continue
5. Religion

Section Two

1. How long were you sentenced for?
2. Was this the first time you have been incarcerated (imprisoned)?
3. Did you have family or kids outside of the centre?
4. Tell me about how your family dealt with the reality of your situation?
5. Did they visit?
6. How did your sentence impact your family?
7. What were the rehabilitation programmes you were enrolled in at the centre?
8. Were the programmes you are enrolled for use or not to you as an individual?
9. Are there any programmes that you would like to propose that is currently not available within the centre?
10. What crime have you been sentenced for?
11. What causes you to turn to crime?
12. Do you experience symptoms of depression, mental disorders, or eating disorders?
13. Do the programmes you attend help prevent you from resorting to crime?
14. Do you think the programmes that were enrolled in, assisted you when you are released or prevented re-offending?
15. Do you think that the correction officials are well trained to deal with the offenders which enter the correctional centres?
16. What are the common risk factors that you have observed with other female offenders?
17. Do you think interacting with other offenders, can be a risk factor to reoffending?

18. Are there any shortcomings to the current rehabilitation programmes that are offered?
19. Do you think that the programmes offered to you, have helped you reform from the crime you initially committed?
20. Anything corrections can do to improve?

APPENDIX TWO: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

School of Applied Human Sciences

University of KwaZulu-Natal

Howard College Campus

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Ms K George. I am a Doctor of Philosophy candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, South Africa. I am currently conducting a research study titled: “*An exploratory study on the rehabilitation of female offenders in South Africa*”.

You have been selected to participate in the study.

To gather information, I am interested in asking you some questions.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person but reported only as a population member opinion.
- The interview may last for about an hour and maybe split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, the collection of data will be used for this research study only.
- Data collected will be stored in a secure storage facility and destroyed after 5 years of publication.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in this research study. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The research is limited to exploring the rehabilitation of female offenders in the Correctional Centre of KwaZulu-Natal.
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes and there are no financial benefits involved.
- If you are willing to be interviewed and allow for your voice to be recorded, please fill in the details below;

I _____ (full name), am willing to participate in the above research study, provided the above conditions. I also grant permission for the interviewer (Ms K George) to audio record the response provided to her.

Signature

Date

APPENDIX THREE: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



10 June 2021

Miss Krinesha George (213506627)
School Of Applied Human Sc
Howard College

Dear Miss George,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00001586/2020
Project title: An exploratory study on the rehabilitation of female offenders in South Africa
Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Full Committee Reviewed Protocol

This letter serves to notify you that your response received on 31 May 2021 to our letter of 21 April 2021 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

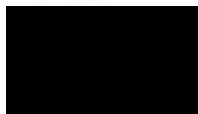
This approval is valid for one year until 10 June 2022

To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours faithfully



Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Tel: +27 31 260 8356 / 4557 / 3587
Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

INSPIRING GREATNESS

APPENDIX FOUR: TURN IT IN ORIGINALITY REPORT

Turnitin Originality Report

- Processed on: 15-Mar-2022 9:28 AM CAT
- ID: 1784728789
- Word Count: 53248
- Submitted: 1

draft one phd By Krinesha George

Similarity Index

13%

Similarity by Source

Internet Sources:

10%

Publications:

2%

Student Papers:

9%

1% match (student papers from 18-Nov-2017)

Class: bruky

Assignment: bruk

Paper ID: [882107848](#)

1% match (Internet from 27-Dec-2021)

https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201409/correctionalprogrammetargetingoffending-behaviour.pdf

1% match ()

[Murhula, Bashizi Bashige.. "A criminological investigation into the South African correctional services approach towards offenders' rehabilitation: a case study of the Westville Correctional Centre in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal.", 2019](#)

1% match (Internet from 17-Apr-2020)

<http://press.nicro.org.za/images/PDF/Exploring-Female-Offender-Trends-and-Dynamics.pdf>

< 1% match (student papers from 28-May-2019)

[Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2019-05-28](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 31-Aug-2018)

[Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2018-08-31](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 27-Oct-2016)

Class: CRIM7RZ - Honours Research 2016

Assignment: Final Submission

Paper ID: [723294027](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 07-Nov-2017)

[Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2017-11-07](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 09-May-2020)

[Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal on 2020-05-09](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 19-Oct-2021)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2021-10-19](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 19-Oct-2021)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2021-10-19](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 20-Oct-2014)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2014-10-20](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 19-Oct-2021)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2021-10-19](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 18-Oct-2021)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2021-10-18](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 19-Oct-2021)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2021-10-19](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 04-Dec-2012)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2012-12-04](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 18-Oct-2021)

[Submitted to University of South Africa on 2021-10-18](#)
< 1% match (Internet from 26-May-2016)

http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/19688/dissertation_mathabathe_mp.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=3
< 1% match (Internet from 11-Sep-2019)

<http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/18327/PH%20D%20%20THESIS%20%20CAROLINE%20AGBOOLA.%20FINAL.%20PDF..pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1>
< 1% match (Internet from 26-May-2016)

<http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/2527/02dissertation.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1>
< 1% match (Internet from 19-May-2014)

<http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/1487/thesis.pdf?sequence=1>
< 1% match (Internet from 10-Oct-2018)

<http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/2023/02chapter1.pdf>
< 1% match (Internet from 25-May-2016)

http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/18353/dissertation_thobane_ms.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 08-Sep-2017)

http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/22138/thesis_tsige%20gebremeskel%20aberra.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 26-Jul-2019)

http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/22587/thesis_de%20langen_an.pdf?sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 27-Apr-2019)

https://researchspace.ukzn.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10413/14673/Atiku_Sulaiman_Olusegun_2014.pdf?sequence=
< 1% match (Internet from 30-Nov-2021)

http://www.dcs.gov.za/wp-content/uploads/2020/04/26-03-2020-SP_complete.pdf
< 1% match (Internet from 10-Oct-2021)

<http://www.dcs.gov.za/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/DCSAPP2021.pdf>
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Nov-2020)

<https://Www.Encyclopedia.Com/Reference/Encyclopedias-Almanacs-Transcripts-and-Maps/History-Corrections-Punishment-Prevention-or-Rehabilitation>
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Dec-2021)

<http://vital.seals.ac.za:8080/vital/access/services/Download/vital:29602/SOURCE1>
< 1% match (Internet from 01-Jan-2019)

<https://pt.scribd.com/document/67868139/White-Paper>
< 1% match (student papers from 18-Jun-2018)

[Submitted to University of Venda on 2018-06-18](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 13-May-2017)

[Submitted to University of Venda on 2017-05-13](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 19-Apr-2021)

[Submitted to University of Westminster on 2021-04-19](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 07-Feb-2021)

[Submitted to University of Glamorgan on 2021-02-07](#)
< 1% match (Internet from 05-Dec-2020)

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/General_strain_theory
< 1% match (Internet from 01-Jan-2022)

["Ontology", Wikipedia, en, 2022](#)
< 1% match (Internet from 13-Mar-2019)

<https://studylib.net/doc/10380126/batho-pele>
< 1% match (student papers from 15-Sep-2011)
[Submitted to University Of Tasmania on 2011-09-15](#)
< 1% match ()
[Albertus, Chesne Joy. "The Right to Health Care of Terminally Ill Inmates in South Africa", 'University of the Western Cape Library Service', 2018](#)
< 1% match ()
[Tyumre, Nocawe. "Challenges faced by high school managers in dealing with pregnant learners in their schools: a case study of selected high schools in the Idutywa district, Eastern Cape Region", Faculty of Education, 2012](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 08-Dec-2020)
[Submitted to Columbia College of Missouri on 2020-12-08](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 26-Jun-2011)
[Submitted to Columbia College of Missouri on 2011-06-26](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 15-Nov-2009)
[Submitted to Columbia College of Missouri on 2009-11-15](#)
< 1% match (student papers from 15-Nov-2009)
[Submitted to Columbia College of Missouri on 2009-11-15](#)
< 1% match (Internet from 16-Jul-2020)
<https://japhetmasatu.blogspot.com/2013/12/oep-309-introduction-to-educational.html>
< 1% match (Internet from 04-May-2021)
<https://bspace.buid.ac.ae/bitstream/handle/1234/1546/20170470.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=3>
< 1% match (Internet from 27-Feb-2019)
<http://www.treasury.gov.za/documents/national%20budget/2019/ene/FullENE.pdf>
< 1% match (Internet from 09-Jul-2020)
<https://ujcontent.uj.ac.za/vital/access/services/Download/uj:7799/CONTENT1>
< 1% match (Internet from 09-Feb-2022)
<https://ujcontent.uj.ac.za/%20vital/access/services/Download/uj:44201/SOURCE1>
< 1% match (Internet from 26-Sep-2021)
<https://ujcontent.uj.ac.za/vital/access/services/Download/uj:16279/SOURCE1>
< 1% match (Internet from 14-Oct-2021)
<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/211294898.pdf>
< 1% match (Internet from 09-Mar-2022)
<https://core.ac.uk/download/229363260.pdf>
< 1% match (student papers from 10-Jan-2022)
[Submitted to Blackpool and The Fylde College, Lancashire on 2022-01-10](#)
< 1% match (publications)
[Patrick Bashizi Bashige Murhula, Shanta Balgobind Singh. "An Empirical Assessment of the Effectiveness of Offenders' Rehabilitation Approach in South Africa: A Case Study of the Westville Correctional Centre in KwaZulu-Natal", The Oriental Anthropologist: A Bi-annual International Journal of the Science of Man, 2020](#)
< 1% match (Internet from 04-Dec-2021)
<http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/26154/Home%20Away%20from%20Home%2cThe%20Emerging%20Forms%20of%20Aged%20Care%20in%20the%20Urban%20Centres%20of%20the%20Greater%20Accra%20Region%20of%20Ghana.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1>
< 1% match (Internet from 15-Dec-2021)
<http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh/bitstream/handle/123456789/25879/Predictors%20of%20Professional%20Psychological%20Help-Seeking%20Behaviour%2c%20A%20Study%20of%20Urban%2c%20Peri-Urban%20and%20Rural%20Dwellers%20in%20Greater-Accra%20Region.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1>
< 1% match (Internet from 03-Jan-2022)
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/319998246_Sampling_Methods_in_Research_Methodology_How_to_Choose_a_Sampling_Technique_for_Research

< 1% match (student papers from 26-Nov-2009)
[Submitted to Walden University on 2009-11-26](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 08-Jan-2022)
<https://mathlacomе.rbind.io/dowyli97087.html>

< 1% match (student papers from 08-Oct-2021)
[Submitted to IMM Graduate School of Marketing on 2021-10-08](#)

< 1% match (publications)
[Christiaan Bezuidenhout, Karen Booyens. "chapter 3 Corrections and Punishment Approaches in South Africa", IGI Global, 2018](#)

< 1% match (publications)
[Makubetse Sekhonyane. "FIRST THINGS FIRST: Rehabilitation starts with alternatives to prison", South African Crime Quarterly, 2016](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 22-Jun-2017)
[Submitted to University of South Florida on 2017-06-22](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 07-Sep-2017)
http://scholar.sun.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10019.1/53418/apollis_exploring_2003.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 03-Mar-2022)
http://etd.cput.ac.za/bitstream/20.500.11838/3455/1/Molebatsi_Dimpho_Gift_2141963_21.pdf

< 1% match (Internet from 03-Dec-2021)
http://etd.cput.ac.za/bitstream/20.500.11838/3085/1/Yousef_Abusaksaka_216152232.pdf

< 1% match ()
[Smith, Lauren R.. "Supporting People After Remand or Conviction \(SPARC\): An Innovation in Pre-Custody Care", 2020](#)

< 1% match (publications)
Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.

< 1% match (student papers from 07-May-2021)
[Submitted to University of Ghana on 2021-05-07](#)

< 1% match ()
[College of Education, Florida International University. "COERC 2012: Proceedings of The 11th Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference", FIU Digital Commons, 2013](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 02-Nov-2020)
[Submitted to University of Pretoria on 2020-11-02](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 08-Apr-2012)
http://www.osf.org.za/File_Uploads/docs/Innovations_in_Diversion_screenPDF.pdf

< 1% match (Internet from 14-Nov-2021)
<https://nicic.gov/united-nations-standard-minimum-rules-treatment-prisoners-mandela-rules>

< 1% match (Internet from 24-Mar-2020)
<https://www.encyclopedia.com/reference/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/history-corrections-punishment-prevention-or-rehabilitation>

< 1% match (student papers from 10-Apr-2020)
[Submitted to Far Eastern University on 2020-04-10](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 16-Jul-2020)
<https://dagda.shef.ac.uk/dispub/dissertations/2011-12/External/GYLES PamelaDissertation.pdf>

< 1% match (Internet from 14-Dec-2013)
http://www.rise-n-shine.co.za/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=276&catid=276

< 1% match (student papers from 14-May-2020)
[Submitted to Deakin University on 2020-05-14](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 10-Jun-2014)
[Submitted to La Trobe University on 2014-06-10](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 08-Apr-2019)
[Submitted to University of Alabama on 2019-04-08](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 23-Nov-2020)
<https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/simple-random-sampling/>

< 1% match (publications)
Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.

< 1% match (student papers from 12-Apr-2017)
[Submitted to Pathfinder Enterprises on 2017-04-12](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 24-May-2020)
[Submitted to University of Edinburgh on 2020-05-24](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 30-Jan-2021)
https://educationdocbox.com/Language_Learning/86285178-Arab-world-english-journal.html

< 1% match ()
[Mahmoud, Oubay. "Managerial judgement and the real options approach in investment appraisal process: evidence from the British automotive components manufacturers."](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 01-Mar-2022)
<https://pdffox.com/untitled-south-africa-pdf-free.html>

< 1% match (Internet from 23-Mar-2016)
http://scu.edu.au/teachinglearning/download.php?doc_id=13647&file_ext=.pdf&site_id=301

< 1% match (publications)
["The Palgrave Handbook of Australian and New Zealand Criminology, Crime and Justice", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2017](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 23-Jun-2018)
[Submitted to Bridgepoint Education on 2018-06-23](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 29-Mar-2020)
[Submitted to Open University Malaysia on 2020-03-29](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 23-Jan-2020)
[Submitted to University of Gloucestershire on 2020-01-23](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 10-Nov-2021)
<https://harvest.usask.ca/bitstream/handle/10388/13391/SMITH-THESIS-2021.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1>

< 1% match (student papers from 06-Dec-2015)
[Submitted to Institute of Graduate Studies, UiTM on 2015-12-06](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 08-Apr-2020)
[Submitted to University of College Cork on 2020-04-08](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 13-Apr-2011)
[Submitted to Dundalk Institute of Technology on 2011-04-13](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 28-Nov-2021)
[Submitted to Florida International University on 2021-11-28](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 20-May-2020)
[Submitted to Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University on 2020-05-20](#)

< 1% match (Internet from 18-Sep-2021)
[http://ir.uz.ac.zw:8080/jspui/bitstream/10646/3996/3/FMangwanya %20Strategies of %20redressing colonial and imbalances.pdf](http://ir.uz.ac.zw:8080/jspui/bitstream/10646/3996/3/FMangwanya_%20Strategies_of_%20redressing_colonial_and_imbalances.pdf)

< 1% match (Internet from 11-Mar-2022)
<https://www.slideshare.net/RajThakuri/measurement-scaling-and-sampling>

< 1% match (student papers from 11-Apr-2021)
[Submitted to AUT University on 2021-04-11](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 15-May-2021)
[Submitted to Eastern Gateway Community College on 2021-05-15](#)

< 1% match (student papers from 23-Aug-2018)
[Submitted to Institute of Technology Carlow on 2018-08-23](#)

< 1% match (publications)

James R. P. Ogloff, Michael R. Davis. "Advances in offender assessment and rehabilitation: Contributions of the risk-needs-responsivity approach", Psychology, Crime & Law, 2004

< 1% match (student papers from 15-May-2017)

Submitted to University of Cape Town on 2017-05-15

< 1% match (student papers from 31-Oct-2013)

Submitted to University of the West Indies on 2013-10-31

< 1% match (student papers from 12-Jan-2022)

Submitted to Vaal University of Technology on 2022-01-12

< 1% match (Internet from 27-Feb-2022)

<https://www.hsj.gr/medicine/knowledge-attitudes-and-practices-of-fourth-year-nursing-students-regarding-the-care-of-people-living-with-hiv-aids-plwh.php?aid=39673>

< 1% match (student papers from 24-Apr-2021)

Submitted to American College of Education on 2021-04-24

< 1% match (student papers from 06-Jun-2017)

Submitted to Columbia Basin College on 2017-06-06

< 1% match (student papers from 31-Oct-2016)

Submitted to Griffith University on 2016-10-31

< 1% match (student papers from 31-Oct-2018)

Submitted to Midlands State University on 2018-10-31

< 1% match (student papers from 23-Aug-2016)

Submitted to University of Leeds on 2016-08-23

< 1% match (Internet from 13-May-2021)

<https://hydra.hull.ac.uk/assets/hull:16593a/content>

< 1% match (Internet from 17-Apr-2018)

<http://www.djsresearch.co.uk/glossary/listing>

< 1% match (Internet from 13-Aug-2018)

http://www.geogroup.com.au/uploads/3/1/0/4/31040789/geo_world_-_q3_2016.pdf

APPENDIX FIVE: LETTER FROM EDITOR



Mufasa Research Consultancy

SERVING WITH DISTINCTION

02 July 2022

To Whom It May Concern,

Re: Editor's Letter

This letter serves to outline the scope of activities that were done during the editing of a doctoral thesis titled:

An exploratory study on the rehabilitation of female offenders in South Africa

The following activities were done:

- Grammar check
- Formatting
- Sentence construction
- Spelling check
- Punctuation
- In-text referencing
- Reference list

As a professional editor, I pledge that the above aspects of the thesis were, to the best of my knowledge, meticulously and correctly done at the time the work was sent to the author. However, I am not responsible for any corrections that were made after the editing process.

Faithfully,

Kemist Shumba (PhD)

