A PENOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON UNIT MANAGEMENT AS A REHABILITATION TOOL FOR YOUTH OFFENDERS

by

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that **A PENOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON UNIT MANAGEMENT AS A REHABILITATION TOOL FOR YOUTH OFFENDERS** is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature: ..... Date: ……

DEDICATED TO MY LATE BROTHERS, L.J MATSHABA AND B.J MATSHABA, WHO WERE

MY MOTIVATORS AND WHO WILL ALWAYS

BE AN INSPIRATION THROUGHOUT MY LIFE.

MAY THEIR SOULS REST IN PEACE.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the implementation of the components of unit management, namely; architecture, case management, risk management and human rights in South African Youth Development Centres. The concept of unit management in correctional centres was adopted by the South African Correctional system in March 1995. However, the formal introduction of the concept was announced by the former Minister of Correctional Services, Dr. Sipho Mzimela, on 16th February 1996. The implementation of unit management was viewed as a vehicle for service delivery in South African correctional centres. Moreover, this concept was also viewed as a strategic move to ensure that corrections and the rehabilitation of inmates, as the core business of the department, are achieved.

In an attempt to assess the application of unit management at South African Youth Development Centres, and how unit management influences the rehabilitation of sentenced youth offenders, a descriptive study was conducted to obtain knowledge and perspective from the available literature. In addition to a descriptive study, the researcher employed a quantitative methodology. Using the quantitative approach, data was collected by means of a structured questionnaire. In the case of coding and data analysis, a Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was utilized. In sum, Frequency Tables and Bar Charts were used to simplify the analysis per section and category. The findings from this study revealed that the conditions of detention at Youth Development Centres, specifically the level of overcrowding, influence of old correctional centre structures and the absence of custodial therapists contribute to the violence, violation of basic human rights and failure to rehabilitate youth offenders in these centres. Moreover, the findings also indicate that any efforts to implement the unit management approach proactively fails due to the abovementioned conditions in Youth Development Centres.

Key Terms : Department of Correctional Services, youth offenders, rehabilitation, unit management, architecture, case management, risk management, human rights and assessment.

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SECTION A: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Crime is a priority in South Africa. Of particular concern is the fact that youth involvement in criminal activities is increasing (Mathiba, 2011: 34; Palmary and Moat, 2002:9). Youth offences are still a problem in many countries around the world. Furthermore, the number of arrests and incapacitation through incarceration among the youth is also increasing. The current number of youth offenders in various youth development centres in South Africa could serve as evidence to support these statements. According to the statistics provided by the Department of Correctional Services, in January 2011, there are approximately 24 862 unsentenced youth offenders between the ages of 14 and 25 and 31678 sentenced offenders between the ages of 14 and 25 (Department of Correctional Services, undated).

To understand the involvement of youth in crime, different theories have been premeditated from ancient times in order to explain the causes of youth offences. Within these theories, aspects such as the status of the youth in the society, particularly their relationships with other social groups that could contribute to youth misbehaviour, were identified. Youth offending in South Africa needs special attention as it poses a serious threat to the South African community at large. The practicality of youth crime, especially serious crimes, can be viewed in examples such as that of the arrest of a sixteen year old boy who stabbed and killed his mother with a kitchen knife. This murder was brutal as he stabbed his mother repeatedly in the head, face, neck, chest and arm. The murder was committed because of an argument regarding the boy's girlfriend (Hosken, 2004:8). A similar example that delineates young offending in South Africa is a crime committed by four girls between the ages of fourteen and fifteen. They allegedly assaulted and killed a man

who took them to a shebeen (Warby, 2000:11). According to Booysen (2003:48), South Africa is facing unprecedented levels of youth arrests and their conviction in serious crimes. In support of Booysen's statement the researcher wants to draw the attention of the reader by providing a table that illustrates the types of crimes committed by youth offenders who are detained by the Department of Correctional Services.

TABLE 1: INMATE PER CRIME CATEGORY.

Crime categories	**Unsentenced**	**Sentenced**	**Total**
Economic	7341	9849	**17190**
Aggressive	12304	17565	**29869**
Sexual	3072	4359	**7431**
Narcotics	435	648	**1083**
Other	907	1712	**2619**
Total	24059	34133	**58192**

Source: Adapted for Department of Correctional Services: Undated

After perusing these statistics there is no doubt as to the severity of the crime problem amongst the youth of South Africa today. The reader must notice that most of the crimes committed by the youth are aggressive crimes. Therefore, after the lengthy processes in the criminal justice system, if found guilty by the court, youth offenders will be sentenced to incarceration for a certain term and the Department of Correctional Services will be responsible for the incarceration, treatment and development of these offenders. Section 7 (2) (c) of Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998 supports this statement by stipulating that youths must be kept separate from adult offenders, including accommodation that is appropriate for their age, so that they will not be disposed to negative influences. Furthermore, the United Nations Rules for the protection

of Juveniles Deprived of Liberty (Beijing rules) (Resolution 45/113 December 1990) provide the guidelines for a primary focus on the incarceration of youth offenders.

Section 79 of the Beijing rules stipulates that youth offenders should benefit from arrangements designed to assist them in returning to society, family life or employment after release. Procedures, including early release and special courses, should be devised to the end (United Nations Office on Drug and Crime, 2007:19). Section 80 of the Beijing rules further stipulates that competent authorities should provide or ensure services to assist youth offenders in re-establishing themselves in society and lesser prejudice on the part of such youth. These services should ensure, to a certain extent, possibilities for youth offenders to be provided with suitable residence, employment, clothing and sufficient means to maintain themselves after their release (United Nations Office on Drug and Crime, 2007:19).

Section 23 of the South African Child Justice Act 75 of 2007 also gives a specific purpose of sentencing for youth offenders who are to be incarcerated. According to this Act, the purpose of a sentence is to encourage the child to understand the implications and be accountable for the harm caused by him or her. Secondly, it should promote an individual response which is appropriate to the child's circumstances and proportionate to the circumstances surrounding the offence. Thirdly, it should promote the reintegration of the child into the family and community. Finally, it should ensure the provision of any necessary supervision, guidance, treatment and services which assist the child in the process of reintegration (Mathiba, 2011: 57; Gallinetti, Kassan and Ehlers, 2006:14).

The United Nations Rules for the protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty, the Child Justice Act 75 of 2007, another piece of relevant legislation and international instruments that will be discussed in the next chapter, makes it clear that the main focus of incarceration is to reform youth offenders. Therefore, this study seeks to provide answers regarding the

development and rehabilitation of sentenced youth offenders in the South African Correctional system. The study focuses, specifically, on the influence that unit management might have on the development of youth offenders.

1.2 THE RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The term "rationale" refers to the researcher's interest in the proposed topic and the significance of the research (Vithal and Jansen, 1997:30). The main aim of this study is to contribute to the existent knowledge on criminal justice systems, specifically correctional systems. Moreover, the researcher will also carve out an interest area or area of specialization. The number of youth involved in crime increases on a daily basis in South Africa. The evidence for the above statement can be linked to the number of youth offenders incarcerated in various correctional centres in South Africa, as expressed in Table 1. Approximately 43 percent of the total inmate population in South African Correctional Centres is 25 years or younger.

It is important to note that this number excludes persons awaiting trial. However, one might propose: "We are aware of the numbers and we need to acknowledge the fact that youth are at risk of becoming involved in criminal offences. What is done to ensure that those who are sentenced are treated for this behaviour?" Therefore, the aim of this study is to evaluate the treatment and conditions of incarceration for young offenders by investigating the role that the unit management approach can play on their rehabilitation. Furthermore, the change in South African legislation, traditional correctional structures, correctional overcrowding as well as the rehabilitation and assessment of inmates will form part of the rationale for this study. Each of the indicated aspects will be discussed in detail below.

1.2.1 CHANGES IN LEGISLATION

The release of Nelson Mandela and other political inmates, in 1990, lead to negotiations for a government of national unity in South Africa. The new book of history was written in South Africa after the first democratic election on the 24th of April 1994. According to Luyt (1999:4), these changes inevitably had an influence on the Criminal Justice System in South Africa, which filtered through incarceration and the treatment of offenders. These changes also lead to the adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa on 8 May 1996. The Constitution is regarded as the supreme law in every democratic country. Therefore, other statutory laws must comply with the Constitution. However, one needs to understand that the Constitution does not replace these laws. Instead, it sets out the standard that other laws must uphold (Luyt, 1999:5). In the case of the South African Correctional System, the Correctional Services Act 8 of 1959 was replaced by the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998.

The Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998 was promulgated on the 11th of September 1998. This Act was influenced by several matters related to the basic human rights of offenders, as addressed in the Constitution (Mathiba, 2011:43). Here is some evidence of the basic human rights of offenders as addressed by the Constitution. Section 12 (1) makes provision that everyone has the right to freedom and security, which includes the right:

- Not to be deprived of freedom and security of the person;
- Not to be detained without trial;
- Not to be subjected to any form of violence from either public or private sources;
- Not to be tortured in any way, and;
- Not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhumane or degrading way (Republic of South Africa 1996:7).

In brief, Section 14 of the Constitution also makes provision that everyone has the right to privacy. According to Section 10 “every person has inherent dignity and the right to their dignity

respected and protected". Finally, an arrested, detained and accused person has, according to Section 35 (2) (e), the right to conditions of detention that are consistent with human dignity, including at least exercise and the provision, at state expense, of adequate accommodation, nutrition, reading material and medical treatment (Republic of South Africa 1996:17). The current conditions in most Youth Development Centres are neither good nor humane. The observation of these conditions, and further comparison with the above mentioned sections from our Constitution, allows one to realize that the stipulated rules and guidelines are not properly followed. As previously stated, by different penologists and criminologists around the world; "prisons are the warehouse where the offenders are dumped". This comparison seems applicable to South African Youth Development Centres today.

1.2.2 THE STRUCTURE OF THE TRADITIONAL CORRECTIONAL CENTRE

We shape our buildings and then they shape us (Graham, 2004:145; Strike, 1994:17; Maier, 1987:59). The correctional centres where youth offenders are detained in South Africa need attention. There are currently 13 youth developments centres in South Africa namely, Leeuwkop, Emthonjeni and Boksburg (Gauteng); Rustenburg (North West); Ekuseni and Westville (Kwazulu Natal); Hawequa, Drakenstein and Pollsmoor (Western Cape); Kroonstad and Groenpunt (Free State); and Barberton (Mpumalanga). The Emthonjeni Youth Development Centre is the only centre that is currently applying the unit management approach supported by the design of the centre. In other words, most sentenced youth offenders are still detained in old traditional correctional centre structures.

Previously, correctional centres were designed with the perception that inmates would engage in violent and disruptive behaviour whenever an opportunity arose. Moreover, the design was specifically based on security, instead of the treatment of offenders. Stainless steel doors, barred windows, regulations and regular searches are all evidence of these negative expectations (Rosenfeld and Kempf, 1991:17; Champion, 2008: 85). The Standard Minimum Rules for the

treatment of prisoners (United Nations, 1955) makes provision for the design of correctional centres on a number of grounds. These rules further provide that the accommodation in which inmates are detained needs to reflect the minimum standards acceptable to the normal community.

Taking into account the Standard Minimum Rules for treatment of the inmates, it is clear that the treatment of inmates and their successful reintegration into society is a priority. However, South African correctional centres are still far removed from what is acceptable to normal communities, and inmates are still detained in the same stressful environment that leads to misbehaviour among the correctional centre community. By the same token, Zupan (1991:90) also indicates that there is an empirically proven interrelation between environmental conditions and human behaviour in a number of settings. Some of these conditions include excessive heat, noise and overcrowding. These conditions produce arousal, stimulus overload, stress that interferes with ongoing behaviour, discomfort and increased aggression. Ultimately, they produce nothing more than hardened criminals.

1.2.3 CORRECTIONAL OVERCROWDING

Correctional overcrowding is an international phenomenon that the majority of penal systems face. South Africa is ranked fourth in the world with regard to crowded correctional centres (Judicial Inspectorate of Correctional Services, 2009: 23). Overcrowding in South African correctional centres may be the result of architecture. It is very easy to add one more inmate in a communal cell in the old, traditional correctional centre structure. According to Luyt (1999:7), in some correctional centres like the Pollsmoor Correctional Centre, the situation can be described as mass incarceration. This is described as a sin against the future by Junger-Tass (1996:1). In the discussion on changes in the legislation of South Africa, several basic human rights were mentioned as one of the contributing factors for the researcher to select the subject. Section 14 of

the Constitution makes it clear that everyone has the right to privacy. Overcrowding deprives inmates of this right.

Crowded correctional centres have more incidents of violence and uncontrollable homosexual assaults than those that are not overcrowded (Reid 1988: 34; Bartol 1995: 78). Furthermore, Reid (1988:492) finds that one of the negative effects of overcrowding is poor hygienic conditions. Within these bad conditions, inmates can easily be contaminated with different communicable diseases. More psychological problems tend to emerge in these crowded situations. One research finding, by Gerald Gaes (Shabangu, 2007:173), was that "inmates housed in large dormitories are more likely to have high pressure than inmates in other housing arrangements, such as single bunked cells and small dormitories". Moreover, other research findings claim that correctional centre overcrowding has negative effects on institutional management and on employee satisfaction and stress (Bartollas and Conrad, 1992:322). Additionally, more psychological problems tend to emerge under crowded conditions. It is also difficult for management and other staff members to control the behaviour of inmates. Reid is of the opinion that (1991:600) issues like escape, suicide and unnatural death caused by violence are aligned to overcrowding. She further adds that inmates who are at risk of victimization often become depressed and desperate regarding their physical safety. Another important negative consequence of overcrowding is the lack of interest, on the part of inmates, in participation in rehabilitation programmes. It is nearly impossible to create an environment that will be conducive to preparation for the inmate after release from overcrowded correctional centres.

1.2.4 ASSESSMENT OF YOUTH OFFENDERS

Immediately after youth offenders are admitted to correctional centres, the Department of Correctional Services must commence with a rehabilitation or treatment plan for each offender. During this phase the focus should be on their needs for rehabilitation. In addition, security classification and the possible risk that this individual poses for the Department should also be

considered. According to Hawk (1996:1), the purpose of the assessment of inmates is to classify each newly committed inmate within four weeks of arrival. Luyt (1999:64) further indicates that each assessment team must include the unit manager, a case manager, a counsellor, and educator as well as psychological services representatives.

He further adds that each member from the said team should interview each inmate on an individual basis, within five days of arrival. To proactively deal with the assessment of newly admitted inmates, the Department of Correctional Services introduced a document which focuses on an inmate development and rehabilitation plan. This document is known as the offender rehabilitation path. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2007:14), the comprehensive assessment team will be responsible for the assessment of inmates immediately after admission. The main aim of this assessment is to determine the major areas of an offender's risks and needs. Some of the main aims of the assessment team include the following:

- Developmental needs, like education and vocational training;
- Wellbeing needs, like family and friend visitations;
- Corrections needs, like clothing and a good hygienic environment;
- Social reintegration needs/risk, like rehabilitation programmes;
- Security needs, like personal protection or protection against victimization by other inmates;
- Facility needs, like warm water and a good living environment.

Although this comprehensive process (the offender rehabilitation path) was introduced, the assessment of inmates remains ineffective. The reason for this ineffectiveness can be linked to the shortage of custodial therapist staff members in our correctional centres. Ideally, incarceration should reduce, not increase, an offender's propensity to reoffend (Hesselink-Louw 2004:111). However, due to the high re-offending rate, which is a result of the lack of appropriate assessment and rehabilitation efforts, it has been suggested that the Department of

Correctional Services contributes to the high re-offending and crime rate, and that South African correctional centres are perceived as "universities of crime".

1.2.5 REHABILITATION OF YOUTH OFFENDERS

In 1994, the former President of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, made the following statement about the problem of youth and children, which was a matter in conflict with the law:

"The government will, as a matter of urgency, attend to the tragic and complex question of children and youth in detention and prison. The basic principle from which will proceed from know onwards is that we must rescue the children of the nation and ensure that the criminal justice system must be the last resort in the case of juvenile offenders"(Dissel, 1999:1).

The main theme of the above quotation is the development and rehabilitation of youth offenders under incarceration. It must be noted that rehabilitation in a correctional setting is directly designed to deal with the criminal behaviour of inmates and to smoothen their reintegration into the community. According to Schmalleger (1995:369), the principle of rehabilitation is based on the belief that offenders can change. Coetzee, Loubsner and Kruger (2005:5-6) support this statement by emphasizing the change in offender behaviour due to rehabilitation. They also emphasize that rehabilitation prevents the offender from getting involved in crime in the future. Rehabilitation is one of the objectives of the South African Correctional system.

The White Paper on Corrections (2005:73) clearly indicates that the mission statement of the Department, developed in 2002, is "to place rehabilitation at the centre of all Departmental activities in partnership with external stakeholders, through:

- The integrated application and direction of all Departmental resources to focus on the correction of offending behaviour, the promotion of social responsibility and the overall development of the person under corrections.

- The cost effective provision of correctional facilities that will promote security, correction, care and development services within an enabling human rights environment.
- Progressive and ethical management and staff practices within which every correctional official performs an effective correcting and encouraging role" (Mathiba, 2011:53).

Finally, the South African Department of Correctional Services Youth Policy embraces an effective rehabilitation system based on the following broad principles and services to youth offenders:

- Placement of suitable staff to work with the youth.
- A unit management approach.
- A multidisciplinary approach.
- A structured day.
- Creation of an environment conducive to rehabilitation, and a
- Restorative justice approach (Department of Correctional Services, 2001:9).

Although the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998, the White Paper on Corrections and the Department of Correctional Services Youth Policy place an enormous responsibility on the Department of Correctional Services to provide rehabilitation programmes, this is constrained by a lack of resources, such as sufficient social workers, educationalists, psychologists and other professional staff members. The rationale of this study stems from the factors mentioned above. It is important for scholars and researchers to investigate different ways to rehabilitate youth offenders who are incarcerated in our correctional centres.

The rehabilitation of offenders is still a question asked by many citizens as to "whether incarceration reforms the offenders or it turns offenders into hardened criminals". Finally, one of the reasons for the selection of this topic is the recommendation made by the previous portfolio committee, under the chairmanship of Dennis Bloem, after visiting private correctional centres in

South Africa. Bloem advises South African Correction system authorities that the unit management approach can be effective in terms of the rehabilitation of youth offenders. He recommends this by observing the practice of this management style in the said correctional centres (Republic of South Africa, 2009:4). Therefore, an investigation into unit management may contribute to more effective methods of addressing the development of youth offenders and ensuring that public safety is maintained in a positive way.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to evaluate the implementation of the components of unit management, namely; architecture, case management, risk management and human rights for sentenced youth offenders in South African Youth Development Centres.

The objectives are:

- To evaluate the application of unit management in the South African Correctional system;
- To determine the architectural influence, as one of the unit management component in the development of sentenced youth offenders;
- To assess the effectiveness of the case management process in South African Youth Development Centres;
- To assess the basic application of human rights in a unit management system in South Africa;
- To establish the role of multi-disciplinary staff members in unit management and youth corrections;
- To make recommendations based on the findings, with regard to the implementation of better application of unit management of sentenced youth offenders.

1.4 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The involvement of youth in criminal activities poses a serious threat to the country. The future of every country lies in the hands of youth. Special attention must be given to those who are

incarcerated and their treatment must be a priority so that they do not relapse into crime after their release. Therefore, the findings of this study will not only benefit academics or academic institutions, but will be of value to the correctional system, the criminal justice system and the broader community.

1.4.1 VALUE FOR ACADEMIA

The various data collection and analysis strategies applied in this study can offer value to future postgraduate students and researchers. This study also covers literature on the historical development of youth facilities around the world and the legislation, including international instruments, relevant to youth who are in conflict with the law. The literature that has been consulted indicates the various approaches to and stakeholders involved in the development and rehabilitation of youth offenders. Furthermore, the literature also assisted the researcher in identifying gaps in the treatment and rehabilitation of youth offenders. Finally, the literature gave a clear indication that the improper management of youth facilitation and old correctional centre structures could contribute to the failure of current efforts to rehabilitate youth offenders.

1.4.2 VALUE FOR THE CORRECTIONAL SYSTEM

This research will make a significant contribution not only to the South African Correctional system, but other countries can benefit from the study's exploration of the best approach to dealing with sentenced youth offenders. The data gathered in this research can be used to identify the problem of youth offences as currently faced by the country, and to design strategies to overcome recidivism among youth offenders. The architecture of correctional centres (structure, system, procedures and operations) can also be changed or adjusted. This could contribute in the following manner:

- Better rehabilitation of youth offenders;

- Improvement of knowledge for correctional officials and other multi disciplinary staff members (social workers, spiritual workers, psychologist, criminologist) to deal with youth offenders effectively;
- Accountability of correctional managers;
- Promotion of effective criminal justice; and
- Informed decision-making with regard to policy changes.

Finally, the research will provide fuller understanding of the youth offenders' backgrounds and the current social and economic challenges that might affect their daily behaviour especially toward committing further crimes after their release.

1.4.3 VALUE FOR ROLE PLAYERS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Role players in the criminal justice system can benefit from this study. Firstly, the South African Police Service can benefit from this study by better understanding the types of crimes that are often committed by youths. This can also assist in the successful investigation and profiling of youth offenders. Secondly, the magistrates, judges, prosecutors and defence attorneys will ensure that, if sentenced, the youth offenders will receive proper treatment and better rehabilitation programmes while incarcerated. Finally, this study will give policy makers and the judiciary more knowledge so as to make informed decisions with regard to effective law enforcement and sentencing practices.

1.4.4 VALUE FOR THE BROADER COMMUNITY

It is important to remember that prior to their incarceration, youth offenders where active members of the community. Furthermore, most crimes committed by them are against social norms and the victims of those crimes are community members. One of the main purposes of incarceration is to reform the offender and to protect society against repeated offences by the perpetrators. This protection must not be visible only when the offenders are incarcerated, but it

must also be applicable after the release of said offenders. In other words, this study will contribute to the protection of the community, by identifying new rehabilitation and development methods for incarcerated youth offenders.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

The demarcation of a study is an important factor for consideration in each research project. According to Silverman (2000:12), the main aim of demarcation is to reduce the research group or phenomenon. This helps the researcher to purify the qualities of the group or phenomenon. As this study focuses on the application of unit management to sentenced youth offenders in South Africa, only sentenced youth offenders who are detained in selected Youth Development Centres will form part of this study. In other words, those who are unsentenced and those who are sentenced under any form of community correction do not form part of this study. In terms of geographical demarcation, the research participants for the pilot study were selected from the Drakenstein Youth Development Centre (Cape Town). For the main study, the participants were selected from three Youth Development Centres in the Gauteng province, namely; the Leeuwkop and Boksburg Youth Development Centres, as well as the Baviaanspoort Correctional Centre, at the Free State Kroonstad Youth Development Centre, which will form part of the research.

1.6 METHODOLOGY

This study is divided into three sections. **Section A** includes the introduction to the study and the literature review (Chapter One to Chapter Five). **Section B** focuses on the empirical and methodological outline of this study (Chapter Six and Chapter Seven), while **Section C** (Chapter Eight) concludes the study by providing the findings and offering recommendations.

1.6.1 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Mouton (2001:55), research design can be seen as the plan or blue print of how the researcher intends to conduct the research. For any research design, the researcher must stipulate clearly what the study wants to find out and ascertain the best way to do this (Babbie 2001:91). Furthermore, research design is a detailed plan that specifies how data should be collected and analyzed. The methodological approach that the researcher used in this study is quantitative approach. According to Borg and Gall (1989:324), the term quantitative refers to investigations that are rooted in a positivistic approach to scientific inquiry. In this study, questionnaires will be used as one of data collecting methods. Therefore, the researcher used both the descriptive and explanatory research designs in addition to the qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches.

1.6.2 DESCRIPTIVE AND EXPLANATORY RESEARCH

The descriptive research design is one of the most common research designs in criminology and criminal justice (Champion, 1993:9). Furthermore, Neuman (2000:22) adds that by using descriptive research one tends to present a depiction of the specific details pertaining to a situation, social setting or relationship. Some of the components that constitute descriptive design are as follows:

- Provides a detailed highly accurate picture.
- Locates new data that contradicts past data.
- Creates a set of categories or type of classification.
- Clarifies a sequence of steps or stages.
- Documents a causal process or mechanism.
- Reports on the background or context situation (Neuman, 2000:22).

Descriptive research has contributed positively to this study by accurately assisting the researcher in the selection of participants. Moreover, descriptive research also provides a clear indication of the conditions under which youth offenders are detained. Explanatory research is, in most cases, used when the researcher wants to determine the motivation behind the behaviour. Furthermore, one of the characteristics of explanatory research is the fact that potentially significant factors may be discovered, assessed and described in greater detail (Champion 1993:57; Gerber and Alberts 1984: 74). In South Africa, forty six percent of the overall correctional centres' population consists of youth offenders. A large number of these offenders are still incarcerated under appalling conditions and in overcrowded correctional centres. Explanatory research answered the aim of this study by explaining the implementation of unit management in South African Youth Development Centres and how unit management can influence the daily conditions of inmates in these centres positively.

Although unit management is a priority in the reform of correctional centres in South Africa, little is known about substantial aspects that can be linked to unit management. According to Luyt (1999:18), case management and the management of different units can be regarded as some aspects of unit management that still pose a problem in terms of effective practice in relation to this phenomenon. Little research has been conducted in South Africa on the effectiveness of unit management or of its influence on the rehabilitation of offenders. However, several international studies show that unit management is effective. The effectiveness of unit management can also be tested according to Likert's management system. According to Luyt (1999:41), this system of management includes four phases. Each of these phases is related to different styles of management that can be illustrated according to the following table:

TABLE 2: FOUR PHASES OF THE LIKERT MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

SYSTEM ONE	SYSTEM TWO	SYSTEM THREE	SYSTEM FOUR
Exploitative Authoritative	Benevolent Authoritative	Consultative	Participative Group

Source: Adapted from Luyt (1999: 41)

By investigating the abovementioned management approaches it is clear that those organisations that fall under the left are indicative of non-participative systems and those that fall under the right are indicative of participation systems. It was also found that organisations that fell to the left are characterized by low productivity and those which fall to the right are the most productive organisations (Luyt 1999:42). The Likert management system confirms that unit management is an effective approach both for the proper management of correctional centres and the rehabilitation of offenders. Therefore, the researcher will pay attention to the effectiveness of rehabilitation methods at selected youth development centres and obstacles faced in the process of rehabilitating youth offenders. Furthermore, other factors as discussed in the rationale for the research will also be examined. Attempts will also be made to determine priorities for further research. This study may also lead to the development of new hypotheses for the practical implementation of correctional management and approaches to rehabilitation in future.

1.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection plays a significant role in any research project. Through data collection techniques the researcher was able to reach reliable conclusions. The choice of data collection, for this study, was categorized into a literature review and questionnaires. Each of the said techniques will be discussed in greater detail below.

1.7.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review of any scientific research makes a substantial contribution to the study as a whole. It is through the literature review that the researcher understands the former and contemporary views of different specialists on the selected subject. Smith (1993:9) also views the study of literature as an integral part of the planning and execution of a research project. A proper study of literature brings the researcher in touch with theories, definitions and philosophical arguments within the chosen topic of the research (Luyt, 1999:16). According to De Vos, Strydom, Fourche and Delport (2007:263), the literature review serves broad functions in research, including the following:

- It demonstrates the underlying assumption of the chosen research questions.
- It also displays the paradigm that underpins the study.
- It describes the assumption and values that the researcher brings to the research field.
- It demonstrates that the researcher properly understands the related research and the intellectual traditions that surround and support the study.
- It shows that the researcher has identified some gaps in previous research and that the proposed study will fill a demonstrated need.
- Finally, a literature review refines and redefines the research questions by embedding those questions in the larger empirical tradition.

Computers have become very important tools in any scientific investigation. Through the use of the internet, computers can be used to access recent articles and other related sources on the field of penology and criminology around the world. The importance of librarians cannot be underestimated in the process of performing a literature review. In this study, the researcher depended on the skills of the librarians as they have specialised and extensive skills in terms of searching for the most recent information on a chosen topic. Finally, personal interviews with national and international experts on unit management, case management and youth corrections were utilized in addition to the review of literatures. In the next section the use of questionnaires, as one of data collection strategies will be discussed in detail.

1.7.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaires can be defined as a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondents in respect of a research project (The New Dictionary of Social Work 1995:51). According to De Vos et al. (2007:166), the basic objective of the questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on that particular issue. For this study, a questionnaire was used to collect data from various respondents in addition to the literature review. For the researcher to obtain the desired information, closed-ended questions were used. The purpose of close-ended was to measure the opinion of inmates regarding the application of components of unit management, namely; correctional centre architecture, case management, risk management and human rights.

Closed-ended questions offer the respondents the same opportunity to answer each question. In other words, each section within the questionnaires must be answered according to the instructions provided by the researcher. Moreover, closed questions are valuable as the researcher can collect large samples. Furthermore, closed questionnaires are advantageous as they are easy to analyze and the result of the investigations are available fairly quickly. Other advantages of closed questionnaires can be summarized as follows:

- The respondent understands the meaning of the question better;
- Questions can be answered within the same framework;
- Respondents can consequently be compared with one another in a more effective manner;
- Answers are easier to code and easier to analyze, and;
- Response choices can clarify questions and replication is easier (Mouton 2004: 178).

The self administered technique was be used in the execution of questionnaires. In the case of this technique, questionnaires will be handed to the respondents by the researcher and research assistants. In order words, the respondents completed the questionnaires on their own but the researcher and the research assistant(s) were available should any problems arise. To design a

questionnaire that was easy to respond and analyzed, the researcher worked with the statistician for the Research Directorate at the University of South Africa. To evaluate the reliability of the questionnaires, the pilot project was part of this study. The approach used in the pilot project will be discussed in greater detail in the next section of this introduction.

1.7.3 THE PILOT STUDY

In order to undertake scientific research on a specific problem, it is important that the researcher understands the background and has proper knowledge about the scientific research in general the pilot study serves a purpose towards addressing the said issue. Mouton (2001) indicates that one of the most common errors in doing research is that no piloting and pre-testing is done. Furthermore, Welmar and Kruger (2001:141) add that the purpose of the pilot study is to detect possible flaws in the measurement procedure, inadequate time limits, to identify unclear items and to allow the researcher to notice the non-verbal behaviour of participants and any discomfort that might affect the research. Therefore, the pilot project of this study was conducted prior to the main study. The testing of questionnaires on a small group of youth offenders in the selected Youth Development Centre was done in order to estimate a reaction before commencing with the main study. Finally, after the assessment and possible changes in terms of the response from the pilot study, the main study was executed. In the next section, a detailed discussion on the main study is presented.

1.7.4 THE MAIN STUDY

As mentioned in the previous section, the main study followed immediately after the pilot study. This was done after the researcher was satisfied with the quality of the questionnaire and that it would lead to reliable conclusions. It must be brought to the attention of the reader that the respondents for this research project consisted of sentenced youth offenders detained in selected Youth Development Centres in South Africa. Therefore, it is important to discuss the procedure

that was used to select respondents. The next section will discuss the definition of a sample and the sampling technique employed in the research.

1.8 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

According to De Vos et al (2007:194), a sample consists of the elements of the population that will form part of the study. Furthermore, Arkava and Lane (De Vos et al, 2007:194) view a sample as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which one is interested. The non-probability sampling technique was utilized in this study. Non-probability sampling indicates that not every subject had an equal chance of being included in the sample. However, the researcher will use purposive sampling.

Purposive sampling involves selecting an appropriate sample that is based on a researcher's skill, judgment and needs. This means that several issues would be considered before respondents were selected to take part in this research project. These issues include, amongst other matters; the age of offenders, the privilege group of the offender, the sentence length of the offender and the literacy levels of the offenders. To give the reader a clear picture of the sample size, in relation to the above mentioned issues, the following procedure was applied for both the pilot and main studies:

- **Age of the offenders:** Sentenced youth offenders who aged from 14 to 30 years;
- **Privilege groups:** Sentenced youth offenders with A, B, C privilege groups;
- **Sentence of offenders:** Only sentenced youth offenders who are detained in Youth Development centres.
- **Literacy level of offender:** Only youth offenders who are able to read and write.

1.9 DATA ANALYSIS

At present, computers play an important role in research projects as they provide for a step by-step process when analyzing the data. In other words, the analysis of this study was performed by using a statistical computer software package. Before selecting one of the statistical packages the researcher constructed a data analysis plan. This ensured that the research analysis and interpretation are in line with the research objectives.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The ethical considerations are one of the most important factors that a researcher must consider when conducting a study. According to Champion (2002:679), ethics can be described as "[n]ormative standards of professional groups or organisations… a morally binding code upon members of the group". Furthermore, De Vos et al (2005:57) define the term "ethics" as a set of moral principles which are suggested by individuals or groups. They elaborate by saying that ethics offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students (De Vos et al 2005:57). Finally, the researcher forwarded a written request to the Department of Correctional Services, in order to conduct the research within their organisation. For the purpose of this study a number of ethical issues were addressed, namely; informed consent, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality.

1.10.1 INFORMED CONSENT

According to William, Tutty and Grinnel (1995:30), informed consent implies that all possible or adequate information on the goal of the investigation, the procedures that will be followed during the investigation, the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers to which respondents may be exposed, as well as the credibility of the researcher, be rendered to potential subjects or their legal representatives. All respondents must have a full understanding of what the research is

about and the implications of their involvement (Noak & Wincup 2004:37). Consent must be voluntary and it is up to the respondent whether he/she wishes to participate or not. These guidelines were followed in the research process.

1.10.2 PRIVACY, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

Firstly, privacy implies the element of personal privacy. Secondly, anonymity refers to the principle that the identity of an individual is kept secret and protected from being known (Mouton 2001:244). Finally, confidentiality indicates the handling of information in a confidential manner. These important principles were adhered to during the research project.

1.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

The main aim of validity and reliability is to ensure that the research project is clear, simple, meaningful, correct and logical. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:82), the purpose of validity in the research project is to ensure that the selected research instruments measure what they are supposed to be measured. They further indicate that reliability differs from validity as its main purpose is to ensure that the measuring instruments are able to produce consistent measurements every time. Silverman (2000:88) professes that the methodologies employed by the researcher, during the research process, must be clearly defined in such a way that another researcher who might repeat the same study is able to attain the same results.

1.12 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The definitions of various key terms, which are used frequently in this study, will be discussed in detail below.

1.12.1 DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

According to the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998, the Department of Correctional Services is established under Section 7 (2) of the Public Services Act, established by Section 197 of the Constitution. This Department is responsible for the incarceration, treatment, rehabilitation and reintegration of inmates into the community (Republic of South Africa, 1998:16).

1.12.2 YOUTH OFFENDERS

The term 'youth', according to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, is defined as a person between the ages of 14 and 35. In terms of the National Youth Commission Act of 1996, a 'youth' is defined as a person between the ages of 14 to 35. In terms of the Correctional Services Act 8 of 1959 youth was defined as any person under the age of 25 years. The Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998 makes no provision for the term youth. The Correctional Services Youth Policy defines a youth as a person between the ages of 14 and 25. Therefore, the definition of the word youth, in this study, will be explained according to the Constitution and the Correctional Services Youth Policy.

1.12.3 REHABILITATION

According to the Department of Correctional Services (2005:71), "rehabilitation is the result of the process that combines the correction of offending behaviour, human development and the promotion of social responsibility and values. It is the desired outcome of processes that involve the departmental responsibilities of government and the social responsibilities of the nation". Silverman (2001:543) also indicates that the main aim of rehabilitation, in a penal system, is to provide offenders with various development services and treatment programmes. He adds by suggesting that one should look at rehabilitation programmes as a way of reducing future criminality and producing a productive member of the community. Singh (2002:51) supports Silverman's statement by defining rehabilitation as a theory which investigates the re-orientation,

re-education, or reformation of an offender towards self improvement, self upliftment, better self control, more acceptance of responsibility towards self and others and, if necessary, a change in personality and an altered lifestyle so that the offender may become a law abiding citizen.

1.12.4 UNIT MANAGEMENT

According to Luyt (2010:2), unit management can be defined as a decentralized approach to institutional and inmate management that divides the inmate population into small, manageable entities in order to:

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

Luyt further emphasises the above definition by describing unit management as a form of correctional management in which decentralized decision making is very important. Decentralized decision making always leads to better administration in a democratic situation (Luyt 1999:15). According to the South African Department of Correctional Services, unit management is an approach to inmates and correctional management with the intention of improving control and relationships by dividing the larger correctional centre's population into smaller, more manageable groups and thus improving upon the delivery of correctional services.

1.12.5 ARCHITECTURE

Architecture can be defined as a correctional centre design in which consideration is placed on factors such as the characteristics and number of inmates, management philosophy and staffing requirements, during the architectural planning (Carlos and Garrett, 1999:337). In terms of this study, architecture will have a specific meaning. Architecture is thus defined, for use in this

study, as the structure of a correctional centre where youth offenders are detained. In other words, the architecture refers to the structural design of the correctional centre.

1.12.6 CASE MANAGEMENT

According to Du Preez (2003:4), case management is a service rendered by correctional officials; they try to rehabilitate and develop individuals who have complex and multiple problems in a manner that offers them help when necessary. Case management can further be defined as a systematic process by which individual correctional officials are responsible for encouraging assigned inmates to achieve the requirements stipulated in their management plans, with the aim of successful reintegration into the community (South Wales Department of Corrective Services, 2009:1).

1.12.7 RISK MANAGEMENT

According to Jones (1976:4), risk can be defined as "the capita frequency (rate) at which the occurrence of any kind of harm can be observed, estimated or predicted among a group of persons over a certain interval of time". Risk management refers to any actions taken by a panel of correctional staff members in an attempt to reduce the risk of the commission of an offence by a particular inmate. In this study, risk management can be described as a process by which correctional staff members can effectively deal with the most problematic correctional centre phenomena such as substance abuse, sexual activities, escapees and violence within correctional facilities.

1.12.8 HUMAN RIGHTS

Various scholars define human rights in different ways. According to Morodi (2004:3), human rights refers to those rights that all people are or should be entitled to regardless of race or

gender. Furthermore, MacFarlane (1985:3) defines human rights as the moral rights which are owed to each man or woman by every man or woman solely by reason of being human. As previously stated, some inmates' rights may be more limited than those of the ordinary citizen. What exactly are inmates' rights? Inmates' rights can be described as a "penal policy or regime which respects the inmate's inherent dignity as a person, recognizing that they do not surrender the law's protection upon being imprisoned, and accords the procedures and facilities for ensuring that their treatment is, at all times, fair and humane" (Kaguongo, 2003:16).

1.12.5 ASSESSMENT

In terms of Section 38 of the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998, as soon as possible after admission as a sentenced inmates, an inmate must be assessed to determine his/her security classification for the purpose of safe custody, health needs, educational needs, psychological needs, religious needs, specific developmental needs, work allocation, allocation to a specific correctional centre and needs regarding his/her reintegration into the community (Republic of South Africa, 1998:38). Moreover, assessment means determining what needs an individual inmate has and which programmes to implement in order to address those needs. The assessment of the risk of recidivism will also form part of this study.

1.13 OUTLINE OF STUDY

This study will be divided into three sections: **A:** Introduction and literature review, **B:** Empirical study and **C**: Conclusions and recommendations. The chapters are organised and developed as follows:

SECTION A: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 1 provides the approaches to and research design that will be applied throughout this study. Various definitions of terms and concepts that will be used frequently are specified in this chapter. Finally, the chapter discusses the matter of ethics with the purpose of preventing unethical behaviour or an unethical approach that might jeopardize the value and quality of the study.

In **Chapter 2**, the historical and theoretical background of youth corrections is discussed in detail. The development of youth detention facilities, from that of previous centuries, both internationally and nationally, was evaluated. Furthermore, the theory related to youth delinquency is also covered in this chapter. Finally, this chapter concludes with a range of international instruments applicable to sentenced youth offenders.

As the core of the study, the concept of unit management is evaluated in **Chapter 3**. The definitions and origins of unit management are key aspects for this chapter. In conclusion, model unit management programmes also form part of this chapter.

In **Chapter 4,** the components of unit management are assessed, including their applicability in different correctional settings. Within the discussion on case management issues, like inmate and staff involvement, the case management team and the use of documentation related to case management is also discussed.

In **Chapter 5,** the role of each multi-disciplinary team member within the unit management approach was discussed. Furthermore, a greater focus is placed on the role of correctional officials, custodial therapists and external role players.

SECTION B: EMPIRICAL STUDY

Chapter 6 offers, in addition to the research methodologies provided in Chapter 1, an in-depth discussion of the research designs and methodologies utilized in this study.

Chapter 7 is based on the analysis of the data. The information is presented using Frequency tables and Bar charts.

SECTION C: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main purpose of **Chapter 8** is to discuss the findings of the study and offer recommendations on these findings.

1.14 SUMMARY

In this chapter, focus was placed on the manner in which this study will be approached. Various problems were discussed in the rationale of this study, with the purpose of providing the reader with an indication of the problem to be addressed in the study. Furthermore, the significance of this study was also discussed. The methodology section of this chapter outlined the research design, data collection strategies, sample procedure and general approach that will be applied to ensure that a reliable conclusion is reached. This chapter concludes with the synopsis of the structure of the dissertation.

History shapes society; to know where we come from can help us know better and pave the way for the future. In this light, the next chapter explores the historical development of youth correction and discusses the theoretical framework employed in this study's assessment of youth correction.

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CHAPTER 2

THE HISTORY AND THEORIES OF YOUTH CORRECTIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The gates of criminal justice systems were initially intended for people who committed unauthorized acts within society. The punishment of a particular person, in most cases, was dependent on the crime committed and the laws of specific countries to deal with such behaviour. Crime is not a new phenomenon as it has been attached to human behaviour since ancient times. Judas was one of the disciples of Jesus Christ; however, he commits a crime by accepting a bribe from the Jews in exchange for the identity of Jesus Christ. The punishment of Jesus Christ, including his co-accused who commits other crimes, was death by crucifixion in front of the people of the community. The main purpose of this punishment was based on one of the theories of punishment: "deterrence". This theory of deterrence will be discussed in detail in this chapter. The justification of this punishment was based on the notion of a lesson that needs to be learned by all the preachers of the so-called "wrong message". In other words, deterring Jesus Christ who preached the so-called "wrong message" and deterring other individuals from committing the same offence.

Although the Bible clarifies that Jesus Christ was wrongly and purposefully executed, the broader picture gives us clarity on the background of sentencing processes and the decision for a particular punishment. Crime has been a part of social life since the beginning of civilization. Throughout the Middle Ages, prisons were used as holding places for offenders. Although the imprisonment was previously used to punish the offenders, at present the entire concept has changed from punishment to the rehabilitation of offenders. As this study focuses on the rehabilitation of youth offenders, the rest of the chapter deals with the purpose of punishment, the historical development of youth correctional centres, youth delinquency theories and the international instruments applicable to the youth in conflict with the law.

2.2 SENTENCE OF INCARCERATION FROM A PENOLOGICAL POINT OF VIEW

Before concentrating on the general discussions of the study it will be important to look at penology as an area of specialization. Penology is an independent field within the field of criminology. While the main focus of criminology is crime, in general, penology concentrates on the phenomenon of punishment (Cilliers and Kriel, 2008:1). Penology can be defined as the science that studies the phenomenon of punishment in its totality, approaching it from a social scientific perspective. Furthermore, Neser (1989:2) defines penology as a specialist direction in criminology which concerns itself with the punishment and handling of transgressors. Penology, as an independent study, is divided into the following areas:

- Fundamental penology that focuses on the philosophical principles of penology.
- Judicial penology that looks at the processes of the court like plea bargaining, bail application and the role of different court officials.
- Penitentiary penology that deals with aspects like, the rights and privilege of offenders, the future of prisons, the handling of youth offenders and institutions for youth who are in conflict of crime.
- Rehabilitative penology, which deals with offenders within institutions, their release and their reintegration into the community.
- Community based penology, which focuses on the reintegration of offenders and after-care of released offenders (Plaatjies, 2008:41).

In this study, the researcher will use the combination of penitentiary penology and rehabilitative penology in the general discussion surrounding the literature review. The reader must note that the main focus of this study will be placed on the handling of youth offenders, in terms of their detention and rehabilitation. However, other areas will also be covered in order to clarify certain aspects within the field of penology in general.

2.3 THE PURPOSE OF PUNISHMENT

It has been established that most of the crimes committed by youth offenders are serious (Mathiba, 2011: 34; Palmary and Moat, 2002:9). Although many criminal justice systems around the world try to use incapacitation as a last resort, the severity of the crimes committed force them to punish youth offenders through incapacitation. Punishment can be defined as an action deliberately inflicted upon an offender by human agency, which is authorized by the legal order whose laws the offender had violated (Cilliers and Kriel, 2008:22; Kodelja, undated: 7). Punishment can only be imposed if an offence has been committed.

It must be clear that offenders are human beings just like an ordinary citizen, but the difference is that this person has committed an offence against the law. However, it is not enough to identify an offender solely as a person who committed an offence. To qualify as an offender, in a penological sense, it must be possible to hold the person responsible for the act committed. Therefore, after a person is sentenced to incarceration for the crime committed, the objectives of his punishment will be applicable (Stinchcomb, 2005: 172-173). The objectives of punishment to be discussed in this chapter are: retribution, deterrence, rehabilitation and incapacitation.

2.3.1 RETRIBUTION AND JUST DESERTS

Retribution is one of the theories of punishment and it is regarded as the oldest form of punishment (Champion, 2001:15; Duffee, 1989:15). The main purpose of retribution as a theory of punishment is to enforce the suffering that the offender caused to the community. In order words the offender must pay for the crime committed. The principle of *lex talionis* is always attached to retribution (William and Barnes, 1999:635; Newbond, 2007:145; Edgar and Newell, 2006:11). Unfortunately, this principle does not give the victim the opportunity to retaliate against the crime committed, although the government exacts revenge on behalf of the victim. In most cases, the victim and offender lose the opportunity to decide on the best solutions to the harm caused. According to Sykes (1978:481), the main essence of retribution is that the offender

receives his/her just desert. Furthermore, Duffee (1989:15) adds that the justification of retribution is usually based on the following elements:

- Punishment should be imposed on a person who committed a crime;
- The severity of the punishment should match the seriousness of crime; and
- The degree of punishment specified is independent of the actual and the predicted consequences of the punitive act. Because the social order suffers when crime occurs, society is also a victim.

Retribution can be seen as a punishment imposed upon the offender, but it also gives the offender the opportunity for expiation and remorse. It must be clear that retribution intends to pay revenge by the state on behalf of the victim. However, little is known about the victim feelings after the offender receives punishment (Snarr, 1996:50; Christie, 1977:7). The other argument on retribution is that the offender is reconciled with the state and the community through the suffering caused by punishment. By the same token, suffering through punishment can be seen as a way to enhance the solidarity of the law abiding group in the community. In his view, Caldwell (1965:421) sees offender punishment as a way of strengthening the moral code among law abiding citizens within the community.

Punishment also shows community disapproval of anything that endangers the existing social order. Sometimes retribution can also be linked to the principle of causality. This argument is based on the school of thought that regards retribution as the inevitable result of behaviour. The principle of causality dictates that all actions have the consequences and each action is measured according to its nature (Sykes, 1978:481; Cantwell, 1998: 86). In other words, good actions have good consequences and bad actions have bad consequences. This principle is also supported by Sykes (1992:481) who sums his argument up by indicating that the underlying philosophy of retribution is that good behaviour is rewarded and bad behaviour is punished. The government is, therefore, under a moral obligation to punish the offender. Generally speaking, the theory of

retribution is not only relevant to the punishment of offenders. What makes it popular is that it is always attached to crime and the punishment of criminals. Retribution as linked to the principle of causality can be applicable to our daily lives as it encourages everyone to take responsibility for their actions. It is sometimes difficult to differentiate between retribution and deterrence as they share a significant number of similarities. It must be clear, to the reader, that retribution aims to exact revenge against the offender as a consequence of the crime committed.

2.3.2 DETERRENCE

Deterrence is another type of punishment which is supposedly grounded in harsh sentences. In other words, the offenders need to be punished by the court of law if found guilty for the crime they have committed. Incapacitation, through imprisonment, is the most popular punishment within criminal justice systems in the world. The concept of deterrence originated 210 years ago from the work of Cesare Beccaria and Jeremy Bentham with the aim of controlling crime within society (Silverman and Vega, 1996:20). The followers of this concept believe that the punishment of an offender can prevent future criminal behaviour and that punishment will serve as a deterrent to other members of the community. Eysenck (1977:161) further states that the purpose of deterrence in terms of punishment is to keep the sentenced offender from committing further crimes, and to obviate criminal behaviour in the potential offender. Deterrence as a philosophy of punishment can also have a positive influence by restraining potential offenders and uplifting the respect towards the law in the community.

The concept of deterrence is divided into individual and general deterrence (Marshall, 2001:104; Snyman, 2002:13). Individual deterrence suggests that strong action should be taken the first time that the offence is committed, to make the offender obey the law in future (Siegel, 2005:87). Individual deterrence is directed, specifically, at the offender. The supporters of individual deterrence believe that once bitten (punished) twice shy (never commit other criminal offences).

General deterrence is aimed at community members in general. The sentencing of an offender influences the morale of the community in many ways. The following important factors can be learned from the punishment of another person:

- Every member of the community must respect the law;
- Those who commit similar offences will be subjected to a similar punishment;
- Those who violate the fundamental rights of other citizens through criminal activities will be subjected to harsh punishment and their fundamental human rights will be removed from them by the court of law. In effect, once an offender begins serving a sentence he/she will not be subject to certain rights, as an ordinary citizen might be, because of the legal rules and regulations in prison (Clear and Cole, 2000:57).

By the same token, general deterrence has the community as a whole as its focal point. Morris (Carter et al 1972:465) mentions that general deterrence functions in two ways: firstly, fear of punishment may be the deciding factor in keeping the would-be criminal from criminal behaviour; secondly, the existence of punishment may have an educational and formative influence on the moral conditioning of society in general. The only way to determine whether the theory of deterrence is effective is to measure the recidivism rate amongst sentenced offenders (Banks, 2005:106-107). According to Visher (1987:41), during the 1970s and early 1980s, imprisonment contributed to approximately 10 to 30 per cent of crime in the United States of America. In the South African criminal system, it is estimated that 85 to 95 per cent of sentenced offenders relapse into crime after their release.

Furthermore, other factors may be considered before measuring the effectiveness of deterrence. These factors include: the social structure and community values, the population group, the law in which punishment is based, the type and severity of the punishment, the certainty of arrest and punishment and the individual's attitude towards the law (Ball, 1955:349; Clear and Cole, 2000: 57-58).

2.3.3 INCAPACITATION

Incapacitation is one of the oldest theories of punishment. According to Silverman and Vega (1996:22), incapacitation can be defined as a punishment directed at preventing offenders from committing additional crimes. During the 19th century, physical restraints like stock and pillory were used on criminals and other wrongdoers for the purpose of temporary restraint. Corporal punishment was used in the case of petty offences. Whipping, branding and mutilation were the most popular forms of corporal punishment. Offenders who committed serious offences were sentenced to death as a permanent form of incapacitation. Incapacitation prevents further crime by controlling the movement of offenders (Meithi and Hong Lung, 2005:90).

At present, the most widespread forms of punishment inspired by incapacitation are total incapacitation, partial incapacitation and castration of sex offenders (Cilliers, 2008:56). Total incapacitation means execution or death penalty. By applying this form of incapacitation, community members are totally protected from the offenders. The death penalty is also called capital punishment. As mentioned above, execution through the death penalty is based on the severity of the crime committed (Snarr, 1996:56; Kratcoski and Kratcoski, 1990: 43). In other words, offenders who committed serious offences are subjected to this kind of sentence. The reader must take into consideration that not all offenders who committed serious offences will be subjected to this sentence as each case is evaluated according to its merit.

The majority of countries in the world do not support the death penalty as a form of punishment. Although the death penalty can be regarded as total prevention, the crime that the offenders committed can make them heroes, especially in the case of gang motivated crimes. Partial incapacitation, temporary incapacitation or imprisonment implies that the offender is placed in custody for longer or shorter periods to protect the public. It must be clear that temporary incapacitation does not give the community total protection because the offender might escape from safe custody. Furthermore, most offenders are detained for only limited periods, so

punishment in this form does not offer permanent protection unless the offenders can be rehabilitated during detention (Cilliers, 2008:57; Courtless, 1998:29).

2.3.4 REHABILITATION

The rehabilitation of offenders has been used by many correctional and criminal justice systems throughout the world. Currently, the rehabilitation of offenders is a key priority in most correctional settings. The concept of rehabilitating simply means "returning someone to a prior state"; in other words, helping offenders to become law abiding citizens after their release. To achieve this, certain interventions need to take place. According to Canadivo and Dignan (1997:159), offender rehabilitation programmes are intended to provide purposeful activities for offenders, challenge the offending behaviour of offenders, provide basic education and equip offenders with the necessary life, social and work skills which they can use once they are released back into society.

Furthermore, rehabilitation, as a purpose of punishment, envisaged inter alia the re-orientation or reformation of offenders towards self improvement, self upliftment, better self control, greater acceptance of responsibilities towards self and others and, if necessary, a change in personality and an altered lifestyle so that the offender may became a law abiding citizen (Singh, 2002:50). However, some philosophers and scholars within the field of social sciences still believe that the rehabilitation of offenders fails to reach its objective of changing the offender's behaviour (Wright, 2004:3; Hippchen, 1979: 406). Umbreicht (1985:59) feels less optimistic about the ability of the correctional system to rehabilitate offenders.

He adds that incarceration only removes offenders temporarily from society, but it does not solve any problem. To justify his statement he indicates that many offences are committed by ex-offenders. In the South African correctional system it is estimated that 85 to 95 per cent of

offenders commits new crimes once they are released (Dissel and Ellis, 2002:5; Vapi and Boyle, 2004:1). Although the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa does not have any comprehensive system to verify this statement, the majority of awaiting trial offenders and sentenced offenders are ex-offenders. The failure of rehabilitation can be ascribed to one, or more, of the following:

- The methods of rehabilitation and the individuals that provide such methods;
- The attitude of the offenders and the community at large; and
- Defects in the offender's behaviour (Day, Howells and Rickwood, 2004:3; Miller, 1989:4).

Some individuals are of the opinion that rehabilitation will be more effective if the offenders rehabilitate themselves. However, a simple question can be asked about this view: "how, where, when offenders should rehabilitate themselves". Firstly, the offenders commit crimes; undergo a long process within the criminal justice system. When they are found guilty by the court of law, they will be sentenced to serve a specific prison term. Secondly, once offenders are incarcerated they will be faced with a different lifestyle in comparison to that of their everyday lives outside of prison (Elsea, 1995:138). The purpose of incarceration is not only to deter individuals from reoffending but it needs to play a prominent role in the development of offenders.

Offenders are released after serving their sentences; unfortunately, they then return to society without employment or a warm welcome from their families, and live without any income. Will offenders be able to rehabilitate themselves under these circumstances? The answer is 'no'. Criminality, in every individual, is a sickness that needs to be cured properly lest it continues to grow and affect many innocent community members (Snyman, 2002:17). Although offenders can play a prominent role in their own rehabilitation, this does not mean that they can survive on their own. The main purpose of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of unit management on youth offenders. The rehabilitation of youth offenders must be a priority in every correctional system (Cullen and Applegate, 1997:4). Unlike that of adult sentenced offenders, the

rehabilitation of youth offenders should focus on certain aspects. These aspects include, amongst other things:

- Formal and informal educational training to improve the literacy levels of youth offenders;
- Psychological programmes that focus on the psychological well-being of every youth offender;
- Social work programmes that specifically focus on reintegration into the community;
- Religious programmes that encourage youth offenders to change their lives;
- Library programmes that will help offenders refresh their minds with new information;
- The proper assessment of offenders which will focus on individual offender behaviour and monitor their progress towards the set rehabilitation goals (Cullen and Applegate, 1997:4).

Poor execution of these aspects often leads to confusion amongst youth offenders. Furthermore, the failure of correctional systems to understand the main causes of particular types of criminality, amongst individual offenders, leads to misplaced and irrelevant rehabilitation programmes. The main aim of rehabilitation is nothing more than changing the criminal behaviour of offenders so that they can live a crime-free life (Neser, 1993:61; Sykes, 1992:493; Clear and Cole, 2000:77; Seiter (2002:86). To achieve this, the treatment of individual offenders must always be commensurate with the crime committed. Gaps identified should be closed. These gaps include the literacy level of an offender, substance abuse, family lifestyle, the influence of peers, participation in a gang and related activities, as well as other related factors. Incarceration should change the behaviour of youth offenders so as to discourage criminal behaviour amongst them. This will wipe away the conception that “prisons are universities of crime”. All youth offenders should be properly treated to ensure that they do not relapse into crime.

2.4 THE INTERNATIONAL ORIGIN OF YOUTH INCARCERATION

In former times, the youth held no special status within communities. In the case of a youth committing an offence, they received no special treatment in terms of the law. In other words, a youth in conflict with the law was treated similarly to adult offenders. In most cases, families were responsible for the discipline of a youth, especially in the case of petty offences. In 1555, in England, youths of 14 years and older were considered adults and their punishment was similar to that of adults (Empey, Stafford and Hay, 1999:21). This condition has lead to the establishment of the first institution to handle problematic youths in England. According to Whitehead and Lab (1999:33), the first institution in England for the detention of youth offenders was called Bridewell Institution. This institution was built in 1854 as an industrial school and was taken over in 1910 by the prison system. The primary task of this institution was to handle poor, destitute and problem youths, which include delinquents. The first institution of detention for youth offenders, near Rome, was built in 1704 by Pope Clement XI. This institution was known as the San Michelle Institute for Juvenile Offenders (Whitehead and Lab, 1999: 33-34).

In this institution, offenders were subjected to a strict routine while chained by one leg; attendance and silence was enforced while the warden read religious tracts aloud to the offenders (Barnes and Teeters, 1969:33). In addition to strict rules and regulations, idleness was prevented by constant labour during the day and each inmate was provided with a separate dormitory or night room. Continuous inspection and religious instructions were properly administered. In other words, all inmates were subjected to the attendance of religious gatherings. According to Siegel, Welsh and Senna (2003:54), the motive behind the erection of San Michelle was to provide a system in which youths can become accountable for their wrongs and, at the same time, receive official protection. In the United States of America, institutions for delinquent youths were established during the 18th century. The establishment of these institutions was warmly welcomed by the courts of law as they presented alternatives to placing youth in prisons

alongside adults. Social reformers began to initiate the erection of special facilities for troubled juveniles, in large cities.

The Society for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency established the New York House of Refuge on New Year's Day, 1825, to accommodate youth delinquents (Griffin and Griffin, 1978:13). Youth delinquents were defined as those youth convicted of criminal behaviour. The supporters of institutions such as these believed that youth offenders will be protected from possible victimization by adult offenders. They also saw these institutions as suitable places for the rehabilitation of youth offenders in order for them to be helped and thus avoid a future of crime. A year later, the Boston House of Reformation was started and, in Philadelphia, the House of Refuge began to accept youths convicted of crimes as well as and destitute youths (Macallair, 2003:4). Although the houses of refuge where seen as the solution to the challenge facing criminal justice in the United States at the time, racism posed a problem for black youths. According to Sykes (1992:29) the early houses of refuge excluded blacks or housed them separately in segregated facilities. Rothman (1971:45) adds that houses of refuge were seen as shelters that protect and nurture youths from the corrupting influences of the city and poor families.

In support of the houses of refuge, reform schools which are also known as training schools, or industrial schools, were established in the United States of America. In 1847 the first reform school was opened in Massachusetts. This first reform school was known as the Lyman School for Boys. The school was under state administration and was followed by the State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster, in 1856. These schools were followed by many other schools and, in 1890; approximately every state had established its own reform schools (Bartollas and Miller, 1998:312). These institutions earned a reputation for strict and harsh discipline, with the result that hardened youth cases were sent there. Furthermore, corporal punishment was the norm. Youth were whipped and placed in solitary confinement (Morries and Rothman, 1995:368).

In addition to youth detention centres, the cottage system was introduced in 1854. The reformers placed these schools outside the cities with the purpose of exposing the youths to the rural life style and the simple way of living. Youth were divided into groups of not more than 20 to 40 per cottage. These groups were called families or cottages. According to Bartollas and Miller (1998:313), the first cottages were log cabins and the later ones were made of brick or stone. This type of organisation was widely accepted and ultimately influenced the basic design of youth facilities today. However, there were some critics of the cottage plan. They argued that most of the agricultural programmes offered by cottage plan institutions did not reintegrate the youth and lead to a successful life upon their return to the community (Bartollas and Miller, 1998:314).

2.5 THE AFRICAN ORIGIN OF YOUTH DETENTION

The development of penal systems prior to colonisation, in many African countries, is not known. Africans had their own ways of dealing with deviant behaviour. Senegal documented the history of the first Penitentiary Schools in that country during the colonial period, from 1888 to 1927. Senegal was a colonial state under the control of France. According to Thioub (2003:80), various methods of dealing with delinquent individuals were imported from France. The establishment of penitentiary schools in Senegal was influenced by the metropolitan law of France. The law was the only tool to determine which minor would benefit from the penitentiary school. The administration (including medical, travel, wage and educational costs) of these penitentiary schools was the responsibility of the colony.

Youth detained in these facilities were raised together; they were subjected to severe discipline and assigned to perform agricultural and related industrial work (Thioub, 2003:83). Although the authorities expected that the first penitentiary school for youth would rapidly increase, the number of youth detained increased very slowly. In the beginning, youth detainees were detained in a wooden cabin, the structure of which was designed to accommodate eight youths. Later,

with financial support from France, the Senegalese government built a concrete structure. This structure was described as a healthy place. Furthermore, this structure also served the spiritual needs of the youth. As far as reintegration to the community is concern, youth were used to maintain the roads.

The predominance of rural activities was not the best means for reintegrating youth into the community, since most of them came from an urban background. After 1903, the contract between the penitentiary school and the government ended. The following were some factors which contributed to the closing of the school:

- The daily detention costs were expensive;
- The location of the school was close to the railway crossroad and seemed inappropriate for education; and
- The most important factor was the administrative decision especially on the separation of state and the church (Thioub, 2003:86).

The closure of the penitentiary school in Thies left the colony without a penitentiary for minors. However, Article 66 caters for youth delinquents under the age of eighteen. According to this Article, youth delinquents were detained for two years of incarceration in the public orphanage in the town of Richard Toll. During 1916 the penitentiary registered the largest number of detainees (eighteen) during its eleven years of operation. This number fluctuated, not due to the release of inmates but due to the escapees. The inmates were subjected to hard labour and they were also employed for various tasks at the agricultural station (Thioub, 2003:89). Each inmate was allowed to own a pair of pants (renewed every six months), a working blouse (renewed once per year) a beret (renewed once every two years) a pair of sandals (renewed every six months) and a blanket (renewed once per year). During inspections by the authorities, the majority of managers recommended for this penitentiary to be closed. They blamed the children for their misbehaviour and the escape record from the institution. After thirty-nine years of fruitless

experience, the colony finally decided to open an establishment that will specialize in the detention of minors, and appointed personnel who were in the exclusive service of the penitentiary (Thioub, 2003:89-90). Similarly to Senegal, and other African countries, the South African history of youth detention was not documented before the arrival of Europeans in Africa. The record of the history of youth detention in South Africa was documented after the establishment of a refreshment post by Jan van Riebeeck at the Cape, in 1652 (Du Preez, 2011: 6). In other words, the following discussions about the history of youth detention will concentrate on the period from that time onwards.

After settlement in 1652, Jan van Riebeeck was responsible for maintaining law and order in South Africa. He was not in favour of incarceration, especially not for delinquent youths. If youths committed a crime they were subjected to corporal punishment by means of whipping. The Union of South Africa was later established, on the 31st of May 1910, and this resulted in the introduction of the Prison and Reformatory Act 13 of 1911. According to Du Preez (2011:8), the policy of rehabilitation was raised and was further rejected as the 1911 Act retained most of the features of the earlier legislation. Punishment and hard labour constituted the everyday lives of male inmates. Male inmates were whipped in cases in which they violated the strict correctional centre rules. Other forms of punishment were solitary confinement, dietary punishment and additional labour. According to the Prison and Reformatory Act 13 of 1911, correctional centres were divided into four categories, namely:

- Convicts' prisons;
- Correctional centre farms;
- Miscellaneous institutions; and
- Institutions for youth (Du Preez, 2011: 7).

All government schools of industry, reform schools and certified institutions were categorized as institutions for youth. As stipulated by the Act, youth were also allowed to be detained on farming correctional centres or convict correctional centres. Those who were not detained in

these correctional centres were supposed to be detained either in government schools of industry or reform schools. Although Section 57 of the Prison and Reformatory Act 13 of 1911 stipulated that youth offenders be separated from adult offenders, it was difficult to separate youth from adult offenders during the working day. Therefore, it was decided that they could work together, but should be separated when they were not working (Coetzee, Loubser & Kruger, 1995:153). The first youth correctional centre in South Africa was established at Leeuwkop correctional centre on 1 April 1986. As the project was successful it was decided that each region in South Africa must have a youth correctional centre. There are currently 13 youth development centres in South Africa, namely: Emthonjeni and Boksburg (Gauteng), Rustenburg (North West), Ekuseni and Westville (Kwazulu Natal), Hawequa, Drakenstein, Brandvlei and Pollsmoor (Western Cape), Kroonstad, Groenpunt (Free State) and Barbaton Town (Mpumalanga).

2.6 THE CAUSES OF YOUTH OFFENCES

The causes of young people committing offences differ from one country to another. However, it must be made clear that several penological, criminological and sociological theories have been developed to determine the causes of youth offences globally. In this study, factors which contribute to youth offences in South Africa will be discussed. The family aspects related to youth offences, individual and personal causes, and community risk factors will be discussed in an attempt to identify specific circumstances that most young people experience on a daily basis. Each of these factors will be discussed in detail below.

2.6.1 FAMILY ASPECTS RELATED TO YOUTH OFFENCES

In this sub-section, certain aspects related to youth offending, such as the family as a socializing agent, family cohesiveness, family size and birth order, will be discussed in detail.

- **The family as a socializing agent**

The family is an organ from which every individual can learn various social skills. These social skills could lead to criminality amongst the youth and could worsen existing problems, or they can play a significant role in solving of social problems. Roberts (1989:220) adds to this by looking at the family as a major socializing agent which influences the child's attitude, value, behaviour, and personality. The Basotho, when explaining the role of a family as an influence on the social behaviour of the youth of a particular family, always say "motjha ke seipone sa lapa labo" (A youth is a mirror of the family that he/she comes from). It is easy, through social behaviour, to determine the kind of family a youth comes from.

A youth can develop a maladaptive coping behaviour system, such as delinquency, and other behavioural disturbances as a result of intense family conflict, tension, and disruption. Furthermore, the family, almost without question, is the most important group to offer a human experience. Lack of parental control and/or parental rejection has been found to be the largest contributing factors to delinquent behaviour (Roberts, 1989:22). In most cases, a youth who comes from an abusive family will tend to response aggressively to any challenging social setting. To reiterate, the dynamics and mechanics within each family tend to affect and influence every one of its members. This makes the family a very important socializing agent.

- **Family cohesiveness**

Family cohesiveness is also important in shaping the character and personality of every youth. Walker (1995: 23) emphasizes the influence of the family in shaping the youth's future and satisfactory adjustment. The majority of youth offenders come from unstable families where the relationship between family members is strained. In most cases, youths from these types of families do not feel any warmth from other family members. They are also not part of decision making processes, even if those decisions directly affect them. Numerous studies indicate that acceptance and a good relationship between parents and their children can prevent youth

delinquency (Thornton 1987:240; Yablonsky and Haskel, 1988:130). The following poor parent-child relationships could lead to youth rejection of their parents and values:

- Parents who are always under the influence of alcohol and irresponsible;
- Parents who do not care about the whereabouts of their children and their school progress;
- Parents who do not spend quality time with their children; and
- Parents who lack concern for their children's adolescent problems.

Not all parents respect their relationship with their children, as children often feel lonely and isolated. Another factor that jeopardizes the relationship between children and their parents is communication. According to Clark and Shields (1997:33), communication within the family is an important part of interpersonal relationships. It is also important in understanding family dynamics and relations. Proper communication always reduces the family's coercive interaction and family attachment. When communication channels between children and their parents improve, children develop strong attachments with their parents and are more willing to help at home. Improved family cohesiveness is an important factor in the family setting and can improve communication within the family.

- **Family size and birth order**

The majority of youth growing up within a large family tend to display problematic behaviours. In large families, youth do not receive proper attention (Bartollas, 2003:223). This is affirmed in the following statement: "As the number of children in a family increases the amount of parental attention decreases". According to Hawkins (1996:95), a large family size is likely to predict delinquency. In large families, it becomes more difficult for parents to discipline and monitor their children. Furthermore, older children are given the responsibility to take care of their brothers and sisters and they cannot do so effectively. Large families also lead to an increase in frustration, irritation and conflict. After completing exhaustive reviews of family factors, Farringsons (1997:387) draws a similar conclusion to Hawkins' by indicating that a large family indeed contributes to juvenile behavioural problems.

Birth order could also lead to role conflict within a family. Attention is always given to the newborn and younger children. This has an effect on the personality of older children and determines their future delinquent behaviour. If the father is absent, first born boys tend to occupy the father's position. The middle children suffer in large families as they share the home with other siblings and economic resources are often stretched (Siegel, 2002:30). Generally, within most families, the possibility that the youngest child becomes a delinquent is low. Family size and birth order seem to have substantial influence on the criminal behaviour of children.

- **Family violence and conflict**

Another factor that could increase criminal behaviour amongst youth is violence in the home. Children, especially boys, copy certain characteristics from their fathers and they always use violence and physical aggression to solve their problems with others, if they had such examples whilst growing up. The majority of youth who grow up in a violent family are directly affected by these conditions. Unaccepted conduct may manifest as problematic, violent behaviour and committing delinquent acts because of the unstable environment of the youth. The youth also needs to express his/her insecurity, unhappiness and possible aggression. Thornton (1987:240) indicates that child abuse is a serious factor in youth delinquency.

Child abuse can simply be defined as any physical, emotional or sexual trauma caused to a child; this includes neglecting to give proper care and attention, for which no reasonable explanation can be found, to the child. Sexual abuse, physical abuse and neglect will be discussed in detail below, so as to give the reader a clear understanding of the differences of child abuse. Sexual abuse is when a child is forced to have sex by his/her caretakers, family members, parents or any member of the community. Physical abuse is the intentional infliction of an injury on a child, while negligence is a passive neglect by a parent or guardian; neglect includes depriving children of food, shelter, healthcare, and love. The following table illustrates the difference between the behavioural indicators for physical abuse and negligence as outlined by Bartollas (2003:229).

TABLE 3: DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLIGENCE

Child abuse	Negligence
• Avoids physical contact with others. • Is apprehensive when other children cry. • Wears clothing to purposely conceal injuries, such as long sleeves. • Gives inconsistent versions about occurrences of injuries. • Seems frightened of parents and is often late or absent from school. • Has difficulties getting along with others and aggressively hurts others. • Complains of pains caused by movement and has a history of running away from home.	• Looking dirty without a proper shelter or sleeping arrangement. • A child is left all alone without supervision. • Looking ill and lacking medical care. • Denied normal experiences that produce the feeling of being loved, wanted and secure. • Exploited and abused. • Emotionally disturbed because of constant friction in the home. • Exposed to unwholesome food and demoralizing circumstances.

Source: Adapted from Bartollas (2003:229).

2.6.2 INDIVIDUAL AND PERSONAL CAUSES

In this sub-section, the individual and personal causes of youth offenders will be discussed in detail. These causes include, amongst other things, personal traits, prenatal or perinatal factors and peer groups.

- **Personal traits**

A number of personal traits possessed by youths can influence their daily behaviour and contribute to their delinquency. It has been found that the youth are hyperactive, impulsive, and have short attention spans (Denno, 1990:19). In most cases, youths find themselves facing the criminal justice system unnecessarily, due to depression and anxiety. The majority of youths who

suffer from depression and anxiety tend to be aggressive and use alcohol and drugs to overcome their problems. Furthermore, they tend to give up on their dreams early in life. Schooling and other positive social activities like sports and music are not a priority to them (Heal, 1978:23).

- **Prenatal and perinatal factors**

Prenatal and perinatal problems can also be linked to delinquent or criminal behaviour. According to McCord, Wisdom and Crowell (2001:34), prenatal and perinatal complications can lead to a variety of health problems that negatively influence development. Various studies on youth delinquency find that there is a connection between pregnancy, delivery complications and violence. Moreover, the studies also indicate that there is also a relationship between the violent behaviour of youths and the fact that their mothers were active smokers during their pregnancy (Hawkins, 1996: 47).

- **Peer group**

Peer pressure is a natural phenomenon that influences each youth person from every cultural background. Peer pressure can either be a positive or negative influence in a youth's life. This depends on whether the friendship between peers results in successes or failure. According to Mkhondo (2005:12), the nature of a youth's interactions with his/her peers may indicate later involvement in criminal activities. Simons, Whitbeck, Conger and Conger (1991:649) also indicate that criminal behaviour amongst the youth is a function of association with deviant peers. In most cases, peers encourage each other by giving them names that indicate their importance or roles within the group. Most popular names for the group leaders are Killer, Danger, Spider and Super. The peer group becomes the main focus of the child and it becomes more important than parents and the family. Bezuidenhout and Tshiwula (2004:94) confirm this by indicating that, during adolescence, the child becomes more independent from his/her parents. In most cases he/she turns to his/her peers for support and self-evaluation. The issue of self-evaluation can be attached to many aspects, both positive and negative. As the main focus in this study is the delinquent behaviour amongst the youth, the following negative factors are used as self-evaluation within peers with deviant behaviour:

- To be well recognized you need to set a clear record of wins by fighting others;
- To be well recognized you need to steal from others including surrounding businesses;
- To be well recognized you need to have more girlfriends or boyfriends as compared to others;
- To be well recognized you need to be stubborn and have an ill discipline towards your educators, elders and your parents;
- To be well recognized you need to drink and use more drugs than others;
- To be well recognized you need to kill (Denno, 1990: 42-43; Sonder, 1996: 45).

All of these factors are daily expectations for each group member to obtain positive evaluation from their deviant peers. Clark and Shields (1997: 6) explain how two youngsters (aged 18 and 20) were prepared to do anything in order to maintain their friendship and impress another young male (aged 18). These two youths went so far as to steal cars and electronic equipment in association with the friend that they were trying to impress. It is, therefore, clear that deviant peers can destroy the futures of others.

2.6.3 COMMUNITY RISK FACTORS

The development of every youth happens within the community. The life of a particular youth is shaped by their community; the character of the community and neighbourhood dictates the youth's behaviour in a definite way. Two factors have been identified, by Angenent and De Man (1996:180), in establishing the correlation between offending and residential area. The first factor can be attached to the contact that youth have with friends and peers in the neighbourhood. The second deals with the opportunity for delinquency and crime that are found in the neighbourhood. The life of Gayton McKenzie was also influenced by the neighbourhood he grew up in. He was arrested for crimes that he had committed. While he was serving a sentence for other crimes he had committed, an old case was reopened. He was found guilty, again. After the Judge found him guilty, he requested to address the court. The Judge allowed it and McKenzie said. "You judge coloured boys every day, but you don't know everything about them. Where I

come from, the only really positive thing you know as a kid is crime. I saw my first murder when I was five years. I still remember it clearly, even today". He further indicated that as a youth he did not have any role models except gangsters; "[i]n my neighbourhood, being a criminal is indeed a career of choice and I chose to be a criminal when I was eight years old" (Cilliers, 2006:102).

It is clear that committing crime, for some youths, is sometimes a necessity as they are exposed to criminal activities from their childhood onwards. In the ensuing sections of this discussion, several risk factors will be outlined so as to lend clarity to the discussion of selected community risk factors attached to delinquent behaviour amongst the youth.

- **The influence of the school**

The school is the first site of socialization for many youths. School, in comparison to other social structures like the church or sports organisations, plays a prominent role in moulding the social behaviour of youth. In addition to the rules set by parents, school administrators develop set rules and regulations that the youth must adhere to. These rules and regulations assist the youth in learning to make independent decisions. They also assist them in getting along with their educators and other children. The primary purpose of the school is to furnish the youth with the required cognitive, social, and emotional knowledge and aptitude (Angenent and de Man, 1996:120). Furthermore, the school must ensure that a positive atmosphere is in place in order to produce positive results. The majority of youth with little schooling tend to become involved in anti-social behaviour that leads to criminal activities. Similarly, a youth with no obligation towards her/his school career can easily fall prey to criminal behaviour. It must be made clear that schools do not only contribute to good morals, but can also shape the future of dedicated youth and they can become law-abiding citizens.

Although there is no empirical study that can support the researcher's point of view of the link between the incarceration rate and illiteracy in South African youth development centres, the

researcher from personal observation, is of the belief that there is a relationship between the two. The majority of youth offenders detained in South African youth development centres do not have a good academic footing and did not complete grade 12. An international study that supports the view on illiteracy versus incarceration is that conducted by Kelly and Pink (in Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:150). They considered the degree of commitment of 284 male high school seniors to their schooling, and linked it with their delinquency. The results showed that the youths with low levels of commitment to their schooling had a higher rate of rebellion and delinquency than those with high commitment levels. Additionally, the boys with low levels of commitment to their schoolwork were also more likely to be involved in drinking, fighting and school misconduct.

Academic achievements at school can also have an influence on a youth's commitment to and enjoyment of school. The better learners perform the more they become committed to and enjoy their schooling. This is also applicable to poor performing learners, in that their bad performance leads them to dislike school. According to Gottfredson (2001:16), delinquency is related to educational performance. Another factor that worsens the situation is that those learners who do not perform well are discriminated against by their fellow learners and teachers. This has led to isolation, lack of self esteem and delinquency. In conclusion, it is clear that special attention must be given to those learners who perform badly. Further intervention should take place in order to improve the relationship between the teachers and parents of those learners who do not perform well at school.

- **Substance abuse**

Substance abuse is common amongst the youth. Peer pressure can be linked to the high consumption of unauthorized substances amongst the youth. Many youths commit crimes under the influence of illegal substances. According to Siegel et al. (2003:310), many studies show that adolescent drug abuse is significantly correlated with the behaviour of best friends, especially when parental supervision is weak. Yablonsky (2000:246) further indicates that the youth tend to turn to drugs and alcohol as a result of the following four factors:

- Children can be influenced by their parents, especially if their parents also abuse illegal substances.
- Non-using but severely disciplinarian parents may cause their children to rebel against their harsh norms, and this rebellion may include substance abuse.
- Substance-abusing parents may genetically or psychologically transmit the problem to their children since there is clear evidence that the children of addicted mothers are often born addicted to the same drug their mother was abusing.
- In some cases, a parent clearly and directly influences the child's drug use by using drugs with them.

If the parents are role models in terms of their children's substance abuse, children are more likely to be involved in delinquent acts. Contrary to this, violent crimes often occur when rival gangs are in conflict due to establishing turf for selling drugs (Siegel et al, 2003:257). It is clear that the use of illegal substances contributes to delinquency amongst the youth. Furthermore, drug intake tends to precede first involvement in criminal activities as most young offenders use substances to gain strength and motivation. If, at first, they succeed with this behaviour, they will always rely on drugs to commit further offences.

- **Gang involvement**

Circumstances sometime force youths to become involved in gang related activities. Factors like physical and emotional abuse can also be attached to the involvement of youth in gangs and related activities. As an example, a 15 year old girl was a gang member because she was physically and sexually abused by her family, and was taken away from them for a while. The girl felt that the members of her gang were the only ones who taught her to love (Sonder, 1996:14).

2.7 PROTECTION OF CHILDREN'S RIGHTS

Every human being is entitled to fundamental human rights, including children. However, in the past, the rights of children were hardly considered or protected. To ensure that the rights of children are protected, various international instruments have recently been implemented, in particular those which protect children who are in conflict with the law.

In South Africa, specifically, after 1994 there have been numerous improvements in legislation which addresses the rights of children. The rights of children, in the criminal justice system, are stipulated in Chapter 2 of the Bill of Rights in the Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996:45). The following sections from the Bill of Rights clearly stipulate the rights of children:

- Freedom and security of the person (section 12)
  (1) Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right -
    (a) Not to be deprived of freedom arbitrarily or without just cause;
    (b) Not to be detained without trial;
    (c) To be free from all forms of violence from either public or private source;
    (d) Not to be tortured in any way; and
    (e) Not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman and degrading way.

  (2) Everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity, which includes the right-
    (a) To make decisions regarding reproduction;
    (b) To security in and control over their body; and
    (c) Not to be subjected to medical or scientific experiments without their informed consent.

The involvement of children in criminal activities in South Africa is growing. This growth often results in arrest and the introduction of these children to the criminal justice process. According to Sloth-Neeslen and Mezmur (2006:8), section 28 of the Constitution must always be applied

with regard to children in conflict with the law. Section 28 of the South African Constitution provides that:

(1) Every child has the right-
  (a) To a name and nationality from birth;
  (b) To family care or parental care, or to appropriate care when removed from the family environment;
  (c) To basic nutrition, shelter, basic health care services and social services;
  (d) To be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation;
  (e) To be protected from exploitative labour practices;
  (f) Not to be required or permitted to perform work or provide services that –
    (i) Are inappropriate for a person of that age; or
    (ii) Place at risk the child's well-being, education, physical or mental health or spiritual, moral or social development;
  (g) Not to be detained except as a measure of last resort, in which case, in addition to the rights a child enjoys under section 12 and 35, the child may only be detained for the shortest appropriate period of time, and has the right to be –
    (i) Kept separately from detained persons over the age of 18 years; and
    (ii) Treated in a manner, and kept in the conditions, that takes account of the child's age
  (h) To have a legal practitioner assigned to the child by the State, and at State expense, in civil proceedings affecting the child, if substantial injustice will otherwise result; and
  (i) Not to be used directly in armed conflict, and to be protected in times of armed conflict;
(2) A child's best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child;
(3) In this section, a child means a person under the age of 18.

- Arrested, detained and accused persons (section 35):

(1) Everyone who is arrested for allegedly committing an offence has the right –

(a) To remain silent;

(b) To be informed promptly –

(i) Of the right to remain silent

(ii) Of the consequences of not remaining silent

(c) Not to be compelled to make any confession or admission that could be used as evidence against the person;

(d) To be brought before a court as soon as reasonably possible, but not later than –

(i) 48 hours after the arrest;

(ii) the end of the first day after the expiry of the 48 hours, if the 48 hours expire outside ordinary Court hours or on the day which is not an ordinary Court day;

(e) At the first Court appearance after being arrested, to be charged or to be informed of the reason for the detention to continue, or to be released; and

(f) To be released from detention if the interest of justice permits, subject to reasonable conditions.

(2) Everyone who is detained, including every sentenced offender, has the right –

(a) To be informed promptly of the reason for being detained;

(b) To choose, and to consult with, a legal practitioner, and to be informed of this right promptly;

(c) To have a legal practitioner assigned to the detained person by the State and at State expense, if substantial injustice would otherwise result, and to be informed of this right promptly;

(d) To challenge the lawfulness of the detained person before the court and, if the detention is unlawful, to be released;

(e) The conditions of detention that are consistent with human dignity including, at least, exercise and the provision, at state expense, of adequate accommodation, nutrition, reading material, medical treatment; and

(f) To communicate with, and be visited by, that person's

(i) Spouse and partner

(ii) Next of kin

(iii) Chosen religious counsellor; and

(iii) Chosen medical practitioner.

(3) Every accused person has the right to a fair trial, which includes the right –

(a) To be informed of the charge with sufficient details to answer it;

(b) To have adequate time and facilities to prepare a defence;

(c) To a public trial before an ordinary court;

(d) To have their trial begin and conclude without unreasonable delay;

(e) To be present when being tried;

(f) To choose, and be presented by, a legal practitioner, and to be informed of this right promptly;

(g) To have a legal practitioner assigned to the accused person by the state and at state expense, if substantial injustice would otherwise result, and to be informed of this right promptly;

(h) To be presumed innocent, to remain silent, and not to testify during the proceedings;

(i) To adduce and challenge evidence;

(j) Not to be compelled to give self-incriminating evidence;

(k) To be tried in the language that the accused person understands or, if that is not practicable, to have the proceedings interpreted in that language;

(l) Not to be convicted for an act or omission that was not an offence under either national and international law at the time it was committed or omitted;

(m) Not to be tried for an offence in respect of an act or omission for which that person had previously been either acquitted and convicted;

(n) To the benefit of at least severe of the prescribed punishment if the prescribed punishment for the offence has been changed between the time that the office was committed and the time of sentencing; and

(o) Of appeal to, or review by, a higher court;

(4) Whenever this section requires information to be given to a person, that information must be given in a language that the person understands.

(5) Evidence obtained in a manner that violates any rights in the bill of rights must be excluded if the admission of that evidence would render the trial unfair or otherwise be detrimental to the administration of justice.

2.8 INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS RELEVANT TO YOUTH OFFENDERS

International instruments relevant to youth offenders are the soft "laws" designed specifically for the treatment of youths deprived of their liberty and the conditions of their confinement. The main aim of these instruments is to set the standard on universally acceptable principles when dealing with youth offenders. In the discussion of the protection of children's rights in South Africa, section 2.7, several sections of the Constitution where discussed with the aim of giving the reader a clear understanding of the South African legislation on youth offenders. In other words, international standards are not necessarily part of the South African law but they provide a clear understanding and can be utilized in case any gaps originate from the legislation and serve as guidelines in addition to the provisions contained in the legislation. South Africa signed the Convention on the Rights of the Child on 29 January 1993. The Convention on the Rights of the Child was ratified by Parliament on 13 June 1995. The fundamental principles, or the international standards, applicable to youth offenders that will be discussed in this chapter are:

- The United Nations Guidelines for the prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (The Riyadh Guidelines) (1990).
- The United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (Beijing Rules) (1985).
- The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (1990).
- The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990).
- The United Nations Rules for the Administration of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (1990).
- The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990).

The most important articles for each of the above mentioned standards, as applicable to this study, will be discussed in detail below.

2.8.1 UNITED NATIONS GUIDELINES FOR THE PREVENTION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY (THE RIYADH GUIDELINES)

The United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile delinquency were first discussed at the Arab Security Studies Training Centre in Riyadh and were adopted and proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 14 December 1990. These guidelines cover various aspects of youth in conflict with the law. They further include measures for the protection of youth who are abandoned, neglected and abused either by their parents, family members and/or the society in general. In order words, this guidance covers the social risk that might lead the child to break the law. These guidelines, in comparison to the other guidelines that will be discussed, focus mainly on early prevention and the necessary intervention to promote a positive role played by different social agencies including the family, the educational system, the media and the community (United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention: 1999:24). The most relevant fundamental principles of the Riyadh guidelines are discussed in detail below:

- **Principle 1** stipulates that the prevention of youth delinquency is an essential part of crime prevention in society. By engaging in lawful, socially useful activities and adopting a humanistic orientation towards society and outlook on life, youth can develop non-criminogenic attitudes.
- **Principle 2** covers the role of society in youth delinquency by stipulating that the successful prevention requires effort on the part of the entire society so as to ensure the harmonious development of adolescents, with respect for and the promotion of their personality from early childhood.
- **Principle 5** emphasizes the need for comprehensive prevention policies by stipulating that systematic studies and elaborative measures should also be recognized. The criminal justice system should avoid criminalizing and penalizing a youth for behaviour that does not cause

serious damage to the development of the youth or harm to others. Such policies should involve:

(a) The provision of opportunities to meet the different needs of youth and to serve as a supportive framework for safe guarding the personal development of all youth, particularly those who are demonstrably endangered or at social risk and are in need of special care and protection;
(b) Specialized philosophies and approaches for delinquency prevention, on the basis of laws, processes, institutions, facilities and service delivery networks aimed at reducing the motivation, need and opportunities for, or conditions giving rise to, the commission of infractions;
(c) Official intervention to be pursued primarily in the overall interest of the youth and guided by fairness and equality;
(d) Safe guarding the well-being, development, rights and interests of all youth;
(e) Consideration that youthful behaviour or conduct that does not conform to overall social norms and values is often part of the maturation and growth process and tends to disappear spontaneously, in most individuals, with the transition to adulthood;
(f) Awareness that, in the predominant opinion of experts, labelling a youth as "deviant", "delinquent" or "pre-delinquent" often contributes to the development of a consistent pattern of undesirable behaviour by said youth.

Finally, **principle 6** stipulates that community-based services and programmes should be developed for the prevention of youth delinquency, particularly where no agencies have yet been established. Furthermore, formal agencies of social control should only be utilized as a last resort.

2.8.2 UNITED NATIONS RULES FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUVENILE JUSTICE: THE BEIJING RULES

The United Nations Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules) were adopted on 29 November 1985, by the General Assembly. These Rules give clear guidelines on the protection of youth rights and their needs to criminal justice systems around the world. The Beijing Rules are the first international instrument with comprehensive detailed norms for the administration of youth justice, when dealing with youth rights and youth development approaches. These rules also represent the minimum conditions accepted internationally for the treatment of youth who come into conflict with the law. They place emphasis on the use of incarceration as a last resort and that a youth who is sentenced to imprisonment must only be sentenced for the minimum period of time. The fundamental principles of the Beijing Rules make provision for this in the following manner:

- **Principle 1** stipulates that member states shall seek, in conformity with their respective general interests, to further the well-being of the youth and her or his family.
- **Principle 2** stipulates that member states shall endeavour to develop conditions that will ensure for the youth a meaningful life in the community which, during that period in life when she or he is most susceptible to deviant behaviour, will foster a process of personal development and education that is as free from crime and delinquency as possible.
- **Principle 3** indicates that sufficient attention shall be given to positive measures that involve the full mobilization of all possible resources, including the family, volunteers and other community groups, as well as schools and other community institutions, for the purpose of promoting the well-being of the youth, with a view to reducing the needs for intervention under the law, and of effectively, fairly and humanely dealing with youth in conflict with the law.
- **Principle 4** indicates that youth justice shall be conceived as an integral part of the national development process of each country, within a comprehensive framework of social justice for all youth, thus, at the same time, contributing to the protection of the youth and the maintenance of the peaceful order in the society.

- **Principle 5** further indicates that these rules shall be implemented in the context of economic, social and cultural conditions prevailing in each member state.
- **Principle 6** indicates that youth justice shall be systematically developed and coordinated with a view to improving and sustaining the competence of personnel involved in the services, including their methods, approaches and attitude.

The abovementioned fundamental principles aim to promote comprehensive youth welfare and minimize any possible harm that youth offenders might experience in the process of criminal justice systems. Alternative sentences like probation, community service orders, and financial penalties, compensation and restitution are also encouraged in rule 18. The United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice further encourages a change in behaviour by helping youth offenders become accountable for their actions and understanding the impact these have on others (Cantwell, 1998:8). The purpose of every correctional system dealing with youth offenders is also stipulated in section 26.1 and 26.2 of the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice.

- Rule 26.1 indicates that the objectives of training and treatment of youth placed in institutions are to provide care, protection, education and vocational skills, with a view to assisting them to assume socially constructive and productive roles in society.
- Rule 26.2 explains that the youth in institutions shall receive care, protection and all that they may require because of their age, sex, and personality and in the interest of their wholesome development.

The separation between youth and adult offenders is covered by rule 26.3. Rule 27 focuses on the necessary requirements for youth in institutions (Rule 27.1) as well as the varying needs specific to their age, sex and personality (rule 27.2). Rule 28 provides that the conditional release of institutionalized youths should be used as much as possible. In summary, the United Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice focuses primarily on the development

and rehabilitation of youth offenders while serving their incarceration terms. Furthermore, the complete administration of youth justice is covered in the United Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice. A sentencing policy and condensed guide to its interpretation and application is provided by the United Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice.

2.8.3 UNITED NATIONS RULES FOR THE PROTECTION OF JUVENILES DEPRIVED OF THEIR LIBERTY

The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty are the most relevant international standards in the case of sentenced youth offenders because they set out a wide range of conditions for the execution of sentence of incarceration. According to Cantwell (1998:3), some important factors like economic, social and cultural rights are covered in the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty. He further adds that issues such as adequate food and clothing, access to medical care and education are also expressed in United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty. The fundamental principles of the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty will be discussed below:

- Deprivation of liberty must be avoided as far as possible. Where it is used, it must be for the shortest possible time.
- Sound management must be implemented in institutions in accordance with international and national standards and norms.
- Youth must have the right to humane, fair and individualized treatment.
- Youth must be detained in conditions and circumstances which are consistent with respect for their human rights and dignity. They should be guaranteed the benefit of meaningful activities and programmes which promote and sustain their health and self-respect, to foster their sense of responsibility and encourage those attitudes and skills that will assist them in developing their potential.

- Youth should be classified according to their gender, age, personality and type of offence, with a view to ensuring their protection from harmful influence and risk situations.
- Their individual rights should be safeguarded, their well-being should be promoted, and their special needs should be recognized. Youth deprived of their liberty shall not for any reason related to their status be denied of the civil, economic, political, social or cultural rights to which they are entitled under national law, and which are compatible with the deprivation of liberty.
- Youth should be helped to understand their rights and obligations during incarceration and be informed of the goals of the care provided.
- Personnel working with youth should receive appropriate training.
- The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty should be applied impartially without discrimination of any kind. The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty must be implemented in the context of the economic, social and cultural conditions prevailing in each member state.
- Youth should undergo medical check-ups by a physician on admission (Cantwell, 1998:3).

In addition to the said principles, the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty consists of rules that are grouped together. The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty are the most relevant standards to this study as they promote a healthy environment for youth offenders who are sentenced and incarcerated in youth correctional centres. The following rules, in various categories, are most relevant to this study and each of them will be discussed in detail. These rules include the following:

- Admission, registration, movement and transfer (Rules 21-26)
- Classification and placement (Rules 27-30)
- Physical environment and accommodation (Rules 31-37)
- Education, vocational training and work (Rules 38-46)
- Recreation (Rule 47) and religion (Rule 48)

- Contact with the wider community (Rules 59-52)
- Return to the community (Rules 79-80).

- **Admission, registration, movement and transfer (Rules 21-26)**

This section stipulates that the identity of each sentenced youth offender should be properly registered. This registration should include the crime that they have committed, the date, the hours of their admission, including the transfers to other correctional centres. Furthermore, the date of their release must also be provided in this register. After they have been properly examined by the medical practitioners, their physical details and mental health problems must also be provided in the register or other relevant documentation, such as a medical file (Rule 21). To protect their rights to privacy, all reports on youth offenders must be placed in confidential files which are accessible only to authorized persons (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:91).

The copy of the rules and regulations of the correctional centre must be provided to youth offenders on admission. These rules must be in a language that they properly understand. For those who are illiterate or who cannot understand this information in its written form, the information should be conveyed to them in a manner enabling full comprehension. They must also be given the opportunity to table their complaints and requests and be provided with legal assistance at government expense, in the case that they have private legal practitioners who must be allowed to consult with them (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:91).

- **Classification and placement (Rules 27-30)**

According to the United Nations Crime and Justice Network (Undated: 17), after admission, each youth should be interviewed and a psychological and social report should be prepared on them. This report is used to ensure that the youth is detained and placed in an appropriate institution. In the case of youths who need special rehabilitative treatment, trained personnel should prepare written, individualized treatment plans, specifying their objectives (Rule 27).

Rule 29 makes provision that youths should be separated from adult offenders. This will ensure that they are protected from possible victimization at the hands of adult offenders and to prevent harmful influences. The incarceration of youth should develop their sense of responsibility; in addition, facilities with minimal security measures should also be encouraged. Furthermore, the United Nations Crime and Justice Network (Undated: 17-18) also indicates that the number of youth detained in closed facilities should be sufficiently minimal to enable individual treatment. Finally, small-scaled facilities should be established and integrated into the social, economic and cultural environment of the community (Rule 30).

- **Physical environment and accommodation (Rule 31-37)**

All facilities and services should meet the requirements of physical well-being and human dignity (Rule 31). An observation of various youth development centres in South Africa indicates that the conditions are different from the statement above. Youth offenders are still incarcerated in overcrowded communal cells. These cells are dark and stuffy. They still share limited bathing facilities and toilets. In terms of Rule 33, sleeping accommodation should consist of small dormitories or individual bedrooms. However, as stated, the conditions in South Africa do not, to a large extent, comply with this standard.

Youth privacy, association with peers, physical exercise, sensory stimuli and leisure activities should also be encouraged. The design of detention facilities, and their physical environment, should be consistent with the aim of rehabilitation (Rule 32). The designs of various youth development centres in South Africa do not support the concept of rehabilitation (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:92). These facilities were designed primarily for security with no opportunity for any personal development. It is therefore difficult for personnel working in this environment to implement more effective rehabilitative methods for youth offenders.

During sleeping hours there should be proper supervision in all sleeping areas, including individual rooms and group dormitories, in order to protect each offender. Most sleeping areas in

South African correctional centre's cannot be monitored at night, although some exceptions exist, like Leeuwkop and Emthonjeni. Inmates should also have access to clean sanitary and washing facilities and clean water, in accordance with local and international standards. Inmates should be able to comply with their physical needs in privacy (Rule 34). Rule 35 states that youth have the right to possess personal effects and they also have the right to use their own clothing. In the case of youth wearing institutional clothes, it should be insured that those clothes are suitable for the climate and are adequate to ensure good health (Rule 36). Youths have the right to proper nutrition, suitably prepared food served at reasonable times, and of a sufficient quality and quantity to satisfy the standard of hygiene and health as far as possible, including religious and cultural standard requirements. Clean drinking water should be available at all times (Rule 37).

- **Education, vocational training and work (Rule 38-46)**

The main purpose of education is to ensure that the literacy level of each youth enables him/her to become a better person. In the case of those who are incarcerated, the purpose of education, vocational training and work should prepare them for release. Rule 38 makes provision that qualified and trained teachers should provide educational programmes which are integrated with the national curriculum so that, after their release, the youth may continue with their education without difficulties. Educational certificates that will be awarded to them should not indicate that they received them while serving their sentences (Rule 40) (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:93-94).

In addition to formal education, youths must receive vocational training to prepare them for future employment (Rule 42). As a complement to both their education and vocational training, youth should be encouraged to participate in remunerative work both within the institution and in the community (Rule 45). However, it must be the choice of the youth to participate in this work. The work must comply with relevant standards concerning safety and working hours. The purpose of any work experience should not be to exploit the labour of incarcerated youth, but should serve to help them in acquiring a positive attitude towards work and, to the extent possible, skills which will be useful upon their release (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:91).

- **Recreation (Rule 47) and religion (Rule 48)**

Youth must be given an opportunity for physical exercise and recreation. Sufficient time should be allocated for daily exercise. This exercise must always be done in the open air when the weather permits. Additional time should be allocated for daily leisure activities (Rule 47). They should also be allowed to visit the institutional library and read suitable instructional and/or recreational books and periodicals. Youth have the right to participate in or organize religious services; receive religious visits, education or counselling. They also have the right not to participate in religious services, education, counselling or indoctrination (Rule 48) (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:94).

- **Contact with the wider community (Rules 59-62)**

According to Rule 59, contact with the community during youth incarceration is the most important part of the right to fair and humane treatment, and it is essential in the preparation of youth for their release. Furthermore, youth should be allowed to communicate with their families, friends and other persons or representatives of an approved outside organisation (Rule 59). Rule 59 also makes provision that youth should be granted permission to leave the facility for home visits or educational or vocational training. In terms of visitation, Rule 60 stipulates that youth should have the rights to receive regular visits in circumstances that respect the need for unrestricted communication with family and defence counsel. In addition, the visitation rule (60) also indicates that youth should be allowed to communicate through letters, petitions and interviews with authorized persons (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:95).

- **Return to the community (Rules 79-80)**

In these two rules the main focus is on the pre-release arrangements that the institution should adhere to when the youth is released from incarceration. According to Rule 79, all youth should benefit from the arrangements designed to assist them in their reintegration to society, family life, education or employment after their release. Facilitating services and support mechanisms, such as accommodation, employment and maintenance should be provided. There should be close collaboration with community-based welfare agencies which provide the necessary

services. Pre-release planning and after-release assistance should be provided. There should be a link between community support agencies and the institution. Non-governmental organisations should be encouraged to play a significant part in the life of the institution (Kiessl and Jonker, 2011:97).

2.8.4 AFRICAN CHARTER ON THE RIGHTS AND WELFARE OF THE CHILD

It is important to discuss the involvement of Africa as a continent on the rights of the youth. Therefore, in conclusion to this chapter, the most relevant articles in the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child will be discussed. The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child was adopted by the Organisation of African Unity in 1999, which is now called the African Union. It was entered into force in 1991. The main purpose of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child is to promote and protect the rights of youth offenders and to practice and applying these rights.

Moreover, to interpret the disposition of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child as required party states, the African Union, or other institutions recognized by the African Union or by a member state. The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child covers a number of aspects that deal with African youth. However, only Article 17, under the heading "Administration of Juvenile Justice," of African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child will form part of this section as it is the one which is most relevant to this study.

Article 17 stipulates that:

1. Every youth accused or found guilty of having infringed penal law shall have the right to special treatment in a manner consistent with the youth's sense of dignity and worth and which reinforces the child's respect for human rights and the fundamental freedoms of others.

2. States parties shall in particular:

(a) ensure that no youth who is detained or incarcerated or otherwise deprived of his/her liberty is subjected to torture, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment;

(b) ensure that youth are separated from adults in their place of detention or incarceration;

(c) ensure that every youth accused of infringing the penal law:

(j) shall be presumed innocent until duly recognized guilty;

(ii) shall be informed promptly in a language that he understands and in detail of the charge against him, and shall be entitled to the assistance of an interpreter if he or she cannot understand the language used;

(iii) shall be afforded legal and other appropriate assistance in the preparation and presentation of his defence;

(iv) shall have the matter determined as speedily as possible by an impartial tribunal and, if found guilty, be entitled to an appeal by a higher tribunal;

(d) prohibit the press and the public from reporting on the trial.

3. The essential aim of treatment of every youth during the trial and also if found guilty of infringing the penal law shall be his or her reformation, re-integration into his or her family and social rehabilitation.

4. There shall be a minimum age below which youth shall be presumed not to have the capacity to infringe the penal law (Worthington: 2008:15).

2.9 SOUTH AFRICA AS A STATE PARTY TO THE CONVENTION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

As a member state, South Africa is required to harmonize its national laws and policies with the requirements of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Convention on the Rights of the Child was adopted in 1990. The Convention on the Rights of the Child can be described as an important guide, for the international community, on the basic human rights which should be implemented for children. In terms of Section 231 and 233 of the Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996:19), the Government must adhere to and take part in various international standards. It must also consider international laws when interpreting the Bill of Rights and other legislation. The implementation of The Convention on the Rights of the Child, in South Africa, is also supported by Section 28 of the Constitution. According to Eiselen (1997:231), section 28 of the Constitution offers a general scope of the fundamental parameters for the implementation of The Convention on the Rights of the Child. Those who drafted the following legislation considered various international standards when developing the legislation. These legislations include, amongst others:

- The Child Justice Act 75 of 2007.
- The Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998.
- The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996.

The abovementioned discussions make clear that South Africa, as an independent State, should consider and apply international standards in every criminal case and incarceration that involves a youth. Furthermore, international standards do not just assist state parties in drafting or introducing comprehensive legislation that supports the concept of humanity, they also contribute to the positive development of citizens in general.

2.10. SUMMARY

Youth offences are a problem that is not limited to criminal justice systems around the world. Community members also suffer in a variety of ways due to this. Criminality amongst the youth should not only be taken as a social problem, it should also be considered a disease that needs to be cured. Those who are infected by this disease should undergo extensive rehabilitative programmes in order to overcome this problem. A survey of the majority of adult sentenced offenders who were found to have committed previous criminal offences indicates that these offences were committed at an early age. If a youth who takes part in criminal activities is not properly treated, he/she is at risk of relapsing into crime after their release.

Therefore, the rehabilitation of youth offenders must be a cornerstone in every criminal justice system. In this chapter, the intention was to give the reader a better understanding of the historical development of youth incarceration centres in selected countries. The most important theories that contribute to the involvement of youth in criminal activities were also highlighted. Focus was placed on the international standards relevant to youth corrections, which standards should be achieved by states and how these standards contribute to legislation that deals with youth who are in conflict with the law.

The main aim of this study is to evaluate the application of the components of unit management, namely; architecture, case management, risk management and human rights. Therefore, the next chapter explores the concept of unit management.

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CHAPTER 3

UNIT MANAGEMENT IN CORRECTIONAL CENTRES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The management of correctional institutions is part of the last phase of criminal justice systems around the world. Correctional institutions have to perform various tasks, namely; to ensure that offenders understand the implications of their actions and are accountable for the harm they have caused, to rehabilitate offenders and promote their successful reintegration into the family and community, to ensure that offender rights are protected while serving their sentences, and to ensure that offenders become law abiding citizens after their release. Many approaches need to be adopted in order for individual offenders to be properly rehabilitated. To achieve the abovementioned goals, governments and correctional services around the world had to undergo various transformational processes.

The perception that correctional institutions are warehouses in which offenders are dumped should change to allow for an institution in which offenders are reformed and become better members of their communities after their release. The unit management approach may be the effective management approach to a proper and well organised management of correctional centres. Therefore, the main focus of this chapter will be on the concept of unit management in correctional centres and how unit management influences the development of youth offenders while serving their sentences.

3.2 THE BACKGROUND TO UNIT MANAGEMENT

Unit management, in correctional centres, was first practiced in American correctional systems. The implementation of unit management was influenced by many developers in corrections, especially within the Federal Bureau of Prisons (Levinson, 1999:3; Coyle, 1994: 23). The formal

establishment of unit management took place in 1966 at the National Training School for boys in Washington D.C (Corrections Corporation of America, Undated: 3; Seiter, 2002:196). Inmates incarcerated at the National Training School for boys were housed in single living units. Moreover, this institution implemented innovations such as case managers, case load and correctional councillors (Luyt, 1998:34; Carlson and Garrett, 1999:143). However, the first institution to fully implement unit management was the Robert F. Kennedy Youth Centre in Morgantown, West Virginia. This facility was architecturally designed according to a unit management concept. According to Levinson (1999:6), Roy Gerald was the first of warden of this institution.

After a comparative study of inmate and staff attitudes towards the facilities and correctional programmes at the Kennedy Youth Centre and the State Residential Treatment Centre for Delinquency, it was clear that unit management contributed to more a positive attitude amongst both staff and inmates. Therefore, the Bureau of Prisons took a decision, in 1970, to adopt unit management in their correctional centres (Houston, 1999:321). Houston (1999:321) further indicates that unit management was also seen as a vehicle to assist the Bureau of Prisons to overcome their challenges, namely:

- To reduce tension and reduce violence and to protect weaker inmates who were vulnerable to more violent inmates; and
- To deal actively with substance abusers (Houston, 1999:321).

Many states in the United States of America also expressed their interest in unit management and its approach to inmate management. Acceptance of, and significant growth in the practice of unit management, commenced from the establishment of the concept. Since then, other systems have followed suit. Today, the world's most successful prison systems- the US Federal Bureau, Canada, the Dutch and the Swedish utilize unit management in all their correctional centres (Levinson, 1999:7; Luyt, 1999:35).

3.3 THE DEFINITION OF UNIT MANAGEMENT

Unit management is used as a management tool by many correctional systems around the world to achieve the broadened philosophy of incarceration and to improve the management of correctional centres. The definition of unit management varies between the institutions that have implemented the concept (Houston, 1999:321). Unit management can be defined as a decentralized approach to institution and inmate management that divides a correctional centre population into small, manageable entities in order to:

- Improve control over inmates;
- Foster good relationships and inmate development; and
- Deliver an effective correctional service within ideal architectural structures (Luyt, 1999:32).

Unit management can also be defined as an approach to inmate and institutional administration designed to improve control and relationships by dividing a large institution population into smaller, more manageable groups, in order to improve the delivery of correctional services (Levinson 1999:3; Corrections Corporation of America, undated: 2). In his view, Levinson (1999:3) defines unit management not as a programme, but as a more effective way of managing programmes. He further indicates that decentralized management is at the heart of unit management. Unit management is further defined as a small, self-contained, inmate-living and staff office areas, which operates semi-autonomously within the confines of the larger institution, and constitutes:

- A smaller number of inmates (50-120) who are assigned together permanently,
- A multi-disciplinary staff unit manager, case manager (s), correctional officials, full or part time psychologist and clerks whose offices are located within the inmate housing unit and who are permanently assigned to work with the inmates of that unit,
- The unit manager has administrative authority over all unit aspects and supervisory responsibility for the unit staff,

- The assignment of an inmate to a unit may be based on age, prior crime record, specific behaviour, a need for specific type of correctional programme, such as drug abuse counselling or on a random basis.
- All unit staff is scheduled, by the unit manager, to work in a unit in the evenings and over weekends, on a rotating basis, in addition to the presence of the unit correctional officer (U.S Bureau of Prison, 1977:5-6; Smith and Fenton, 1978:45; Maghan, 1981:9).

According to Gerald (Levinson, 1999:3), "unit management is an approach to inmate and institutional administration designed to improve control and relationships by dividing a large institutional population into smaller, more manageable groups, in order to improve the delivery of correctional services". Finally, according to the White Paper on Corrections (2005:84), unit management is the approach of dividing inmates into smaller, manageable units with direct supervision and the desired method of correctional centre management.

3.4 THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNIT MANAGEMENT IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

According to Levinson (1999:7), the successful implementation of unit management in many states in the United States of America has drawn interest from other countries that wish to adopt unit management as their approach to inmate management. Therefore, this section offers a detailed discussion of the implementation of unit management in various countries.

- **The United States of America and other countries**

The United States of America is one of the leading dominating countries in the field of penology throughout the world. As discussed in section 3.2, the inheritance of unit management in correctional centres is linked to the United States of America. Before the 1950s, newly admitted inmates within the Federal Bureau of Prisons where supposed to appear before a committee of institution departmental heads. The committee was responsible for the classification of new

inmates. The committee consists of the chief of classification, the director of education, the correctional centre industries' superintendent, the medical doctor, the chief of psychological services and the chief of security (Levinson, 1999:3). The main purpose of this committee was to inform newly admitted inmates about the programmes and work which they will be involved in during their period of incarceration. Through the recommendations of this committee the traditional way, in which individual staff members were responsible for the classification of an entire inmate population, was discouraged. According to Levinson (1999:4), during the late 1950s, the Federal Reformatory at the Federal Youth Centre in Ashland, Kentucky (under Warden John Galvin) developed classification teams. Each team consisted of a departmental head and a case manager's case load of inmates who resided in living quarters that were scattered throughout the institution. The first institution to implement the concept of unit management was the Kennedy Youth Centre in Morgantown, West Virginia. Roy Gerald became the first warden of this institution and everything from the architecture was totally different to that of typical correctional centres (Luyt, 1999:34).

A study was conducted on the effectiveness of unit management, including staff and inmate attitudes, as well as their opinions about the facilities, management and correctional programmes. The data obtained from this study was compared to similar information from comparable federal youth centres and two non-federal centres; one which used the traditional management and treatment approach and the other an approach similar to Kennedy Youth Centre. The results from this study show more positive attitudes, on the part of both staff and inmates, and a more positive opinion about facilities management and correctional programmes. According to Levinson (1999:6), the positive results of this study led to the expansion of unit management, in 1970, to all youth facilities within the federal prison system. Houston (1999:85) supports the concept of unit management by stating that it was seen as "OK for the kiddies' joint". Unit management was officially introduced into federal penitentiaries in 1976 and many states across the United States began expressing interest in unit management as their approach to inmate management. Acceptance and growth continued from 1980 to 1990. At an international

level, the following countries indicated their interest and implemented unit management in their selected prisons:

- **United Kingdom**

In 1984, the Prison Services' Control Review Committee made a recommendation that a new system of special units designed to control violent inmates be established. Through this initiative, the United Kingdom prison services realized that the concept of unit management can bring about prison reform. According to Luyt (2010:6), unit management under Britain consists of fairly small groups of 50 to 100 inmates that are assigned to the care of multidisciplinary team members. This team has maximum decision-making authority that encourages permanent contact between inmates and staff. Due to this permanent relationship there are more interpersonal relationships and more knowledgeable relationships.

- **Canada**

After the Correctional Services of Canada indicated their intention to implement unit management, several documents were developed to indicate how unit management should be implemented. The development of these documents was influenced by a feasibility study conducted by the Correctional Services of Canada. According to the Correctional Services of Canada (1990:1), the main reason for implementing unit management was the opportunity of integrating security and inmate development.

- **Australia**

The unit management approach was introduced in Australia in 1982 at the Canning Vale Correctional Centre. The management of these correctional centres was conducted through a decentralized approach in four living units. According to Biles (1988: 56) inmates were assigned to these units for extended periods of time and correctional officials were also assigned to work with inmates in these units for a period of, approximately, three months. These arrangements have provided a more meaningful focal point for closer and more constructive interaction between inmates and correctional centre staff (Luyt, 2011:5).

- **South Africa**

The Correctional Services of South Africa reported that they have endorsed the concept of unit management in March 1995. The official announcement on the unit management approach was made by the former Minister of the Department of Correctional Services, Dr. Sipho Mzimela. After this announcement new developments began. In October 1997, the Goodwood Correctional Centre was opened and became the first structure that made provision for direct supervision; however, this facility was used to detain unsentenced inmates. The first structure that catered for sentenced inmates was opened at Malmesbury in the Western Cape in December 1997. At present, there about seven correctional centres in South Africa that operate entirely on the unit management approach. These correctional centres are: Malmesbury, Kimberley, Empangeni, Kokstad, Emthonjeni Youth Development Centres, Mangaung and Kituma Sinthomule Correctional Centres (both private correctional centres).

3.5 UNIT MANAGEMENT AND THE FOUR BASIC MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Unit management is a team approach to inmate management. Unit management also improves communication between correctional staff members and inmates (Levinson, 1999: 2). Moreover, unit management helps to provide balance in terms of the four basic management functions, namely; planning, organising, control and leadership. These basic management functions became more visible and more effective. The balance is affected by a decentralized management approach that encourages decision making in each unit within the correctional centre. Each of the abovementioned management functions, within the unit management approach, will be discussed below.

3.5.1 PLANNING

Planning can be defined as a the process that determines what should be done, why it should be done, where it should be done, by whom it should be done, when it should be done, and how it should be done (Phillips and McConnell, 1996:42). According to Houston (1999:197), planning can also be defined as the process of arranging future activities in order to accomplish a particular objective. Planning implies a conscious deliberation and visualization of what each organisation and its departments intend to achieve within a specific period of time, in order to be successful (Kroon, 1995:9). In addition to the definition provided by Kroon, Marx and Churr (1984:183) define planning as a management task that deals with the:

- Deliberate reflection on the objectives which the organisation or one of its divisions must achieve within a certain period;
- Resource and activities which involved in this process;
- Problems which may arise; and
- Drawing-up an action plan which shows which activities must be carried out.

Planning is an important factor in the correctional environment. However, the application of unit management can simplify the process of planning, in comparison to the traditional management of correctional centres. According to Houston (1999:264), unit management provides top management with the opportunity to engage in long-range planning. One must also recall that unit management breaks one correctional centre down into smaller units. In other words, a group of inmates is assigned to live together within a unit under the supervision of a unit manager and a multi-disciplinary team (Silverman, 2001: 251; Luyt, 1999:36). These multi-disciplinary staff teams are permanently assigned to their unit. They have been delegated authority to control their operations so as to lead to the attainment of departmental goals. Furthermore, the goals that need to be achieved in every unit will be easily evaluated as every team member will be obliged to participate in order for the set goals to be achieved.

In unit management, the correctional centre is broken down in various units. Moreover, a large portion of the inmate population is divided into small, well-defined and manageable groups whose members develop a common identity and close association with each other and their unit staff (Department of Correctional Services, 2005:85; Houston, 1999: 325). Therefore, each unit is responsible for planning its own objectives and goals. According to Luyt (2011:17), a unit plan contains procedures and information specifically applicable to that unit. Levinson (1999:66-71) further adds that all unit plans should have seven sections, namely; description of unit, unit staffing, unit routines and schedules, unit activities and programmes, unit services, unit emergency plans and unit records. Each section of the unit plan section will be outlined in detail below.

Section 1: Description of unit

- Location;
- Bed capacity;
- Type of unit (general or special);
- Inmate selection criteria (if any);
- Staffing.

Section 2: Unit staffing (Position and roles)

- Unit manager;
- Case manager(s);
- Correctional counsellor(s);
- Secretary/clerk;
- Other assigned staff.

Section 3: Unit routines and schedules

- Staff work-schedules;
- Wake up time and lights out;
- Counts;

- Quite and leisure time;
- Television and radio procedures.

Section 4: Unit activities and programmes

- Unit admission and orientation programmes;
- Classification and reclassification (procedures and schedules);
- Group and individual counselling or therapy (procedures and schedules);
- Recreation (procedures and schedules); and
- Phone call and grievance procedures.

Section 5: Unit services

- Medical and dental callout procedures;
- Educational or vocational training;
- Mental health services (availability);
- Religious programmes and social services; and
- Meal scheduling (how it is determined, when each unit goes to the mess hall).

Section 6: Unit emergency plans

- Escape procedure;
- Homicide and suicide;
- Disturbance control;
- Hostage situation; and
- Natural disaster.

Section 7: Unit records

- Unit files;
- Unit file management;
- Unit reports, and
- Daily, weekly, monthly or annual reports.

3.5.2 ORGANISING

In a similar fashion to planning, the organising of activities in the unit management approach is more flexible, compared to traditional correctional centre management. Organising is also viewed as the second general management function in the correctional environment (Neser, 1997:115) According to Kroon (1995:111), organising can be described as the basic management function that encompasses the purposeful consideration and visualization of what organisation should achieve within a particular period of time, as set out by the organisation. Organising can also be defined as a management task which deals with the arrangement of activities and resources, allocation of duties, responsibilities and authority as well as the determination of the relationships between people (Bruyns, 1997:103).Within the unit management approach, activities and resources can be arranged more appropriately. Furthermore, each inmate will be able to understand the kind of programmes he/she needs to undergo while serving his/her sentence.

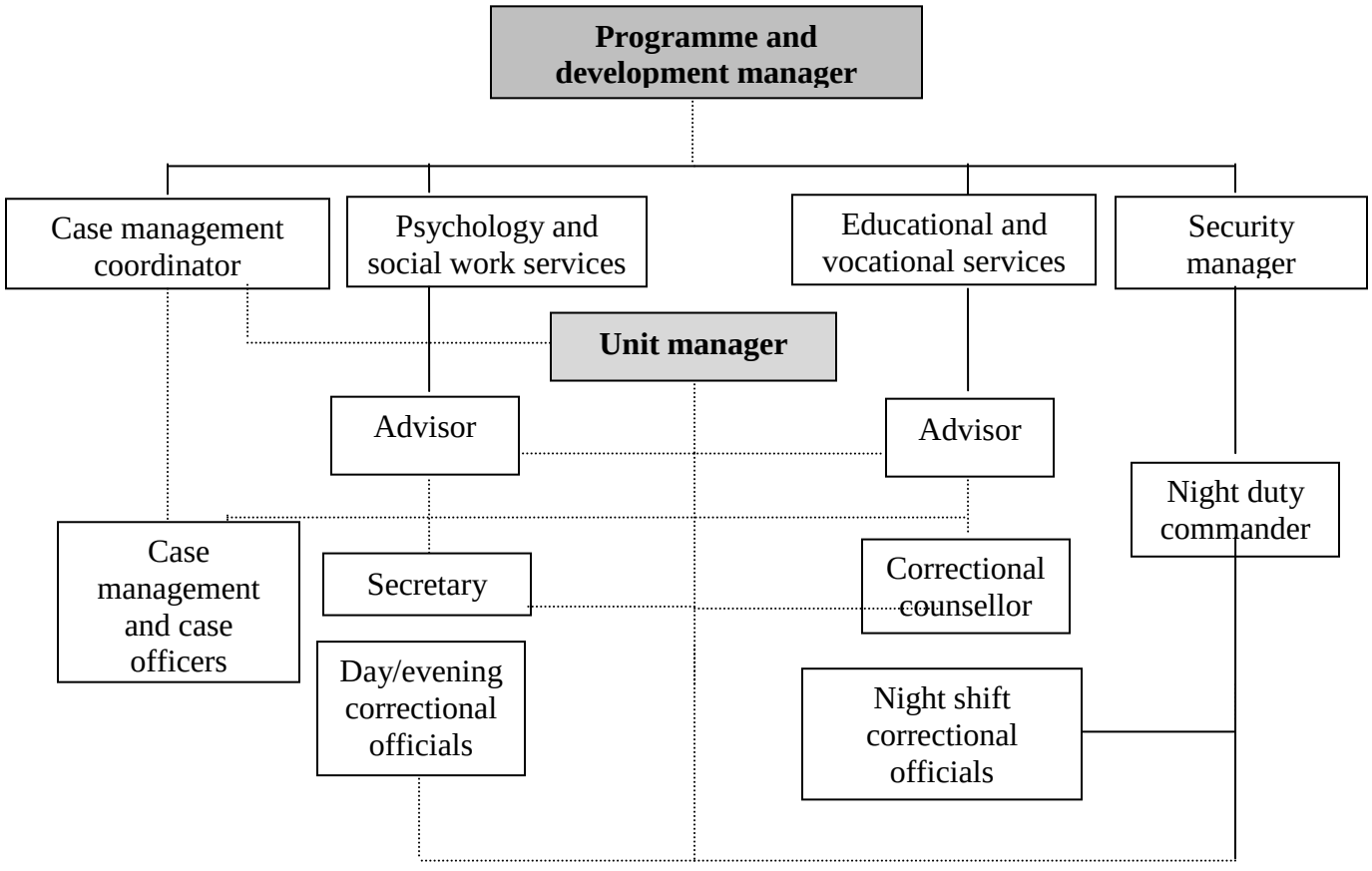
In other words, the sentence plan is drawn up for each inmate and different multidisciplinary members are responsible for assessing the progress of inmates for each task assigned to them. In addition, the mutual trust between staff members and inmates grows and inmates feel free to communicate the problems they experience, with staff members. Organising is not only important for staff members and inmates but it also leads to the analysis, systematization, arrangement and division of activities (Bruyns, 1997:104). Organising also takes place at different stages in unit management, from the admission to the release of inmates. During the organising or the preparation of an initial case plan (to be discussed in chapter 4) of every inmate, the activities of organisation as a whole are considered. In this phase, the case management committee (to be discussed in chapter 4) has to:

- Make sure that inmates are placed according to classification and their assessed needs,
- Identify the sort of changes expected from inmates and the time-frame within which such changes should take place,
- Ensure that inmates participate in case planning and agree to propose a case plan,

- Make sure that case plans are reviewed at least every three months, or in accordance with other directives regarding the intervals for reviews (Luyt, 2000:80).

In addition to the abovementioned roles of the case management committee, within the unit management approach, the organisational structure of each unit ensures that arrangements and resources are properly organised. According to Neser (1993:115), the organisational structure assists managers and the group in identifying the work that needs to be done. Moreover, the organisational structure in each unit helps to ensure that any problems which arise are resolved at the appropriate unit level. In other words, staff members in each unit have specific decision making authority. The following figure illustrates the organisational structure for unit management.

FIGURE 1: ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR UNIT MANAGEMENT



Source: Adapted from Luyt (2000:62).

3.5.3 CONTROL

Control is a primary function of correctional managers, correctional staff members, unit managers, departmental heads and commissioners of corrections (Houston, 1999:253). Control, in the correctional environment, can be defined as the evaluation of set objectives and making adjustments or new decisions as events proceed (Phillips and McConnell, 2005:54). The primary aim of control, in various organisations, is to ensure that activities are undertaken in a way that allows objectives to be easily achieved. According to Kroon (1995:443-444), control is essential because:

- It prevent crises;
- It leads to standardized actions to increase efficiency;
- It prevents malpractice, theft and waste;
- It results in delegation because subordinates to whom work is delegated to can be controlled effectively;
- It brings about a performance appraisal of all workers;
- Quality is standardized; and
- Environmental change results in activities not being carried out according to the plan.

In the unit management approach, unit managers monitor activities in a variety of ways. Unit managers often watch activities being performed and they make adjustments as soon as activities do not go as planned. Furthermore, unit management encourages the proper case management of inmates; various documents are used to control and monitor the progress of inmates. According to Luyt (1999:44), unit management is also based on a team approach, in other words, the staff members appointed in each unit perform a more complex managerial role. This complex managerial role results in professionalism and accountability which, in turn, promotes the control of every assigned task.

Finally, to ensure control, formal unit management audits are performed periodically (Levinson, 1999:14). These audits are performed by a knowledgeable audit team. The following aspects are assessed per unit:

- Unit size and staffing;
- Unit staff and responsibilities;
- Unit staff responsibilities – case manager;
- Unit staff responsibilities – correctional counsellor;
- Unit staff responsibilities – secretary/clerk;
- Unit staff responsibilities – correctional officer;
- Unit plan;
- Unit admission or orientation;
- Unit classification team; and
- Unit disciplinary process (Levinson, 1999: 239-260).

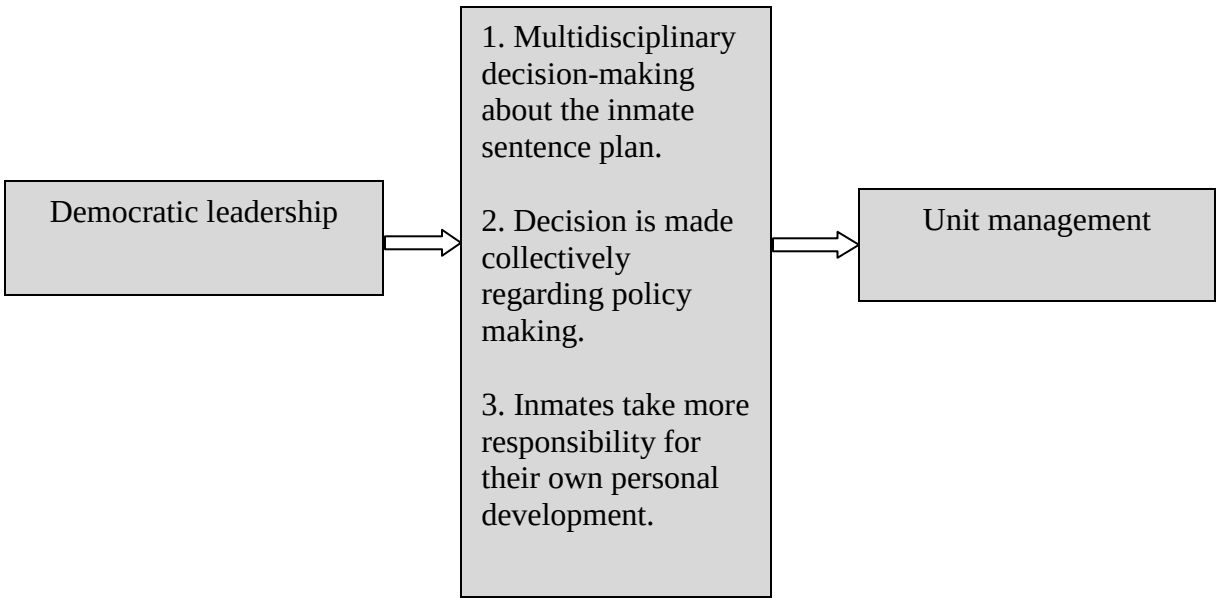
3.5.4 LEADERSHIP

Similar to other organisations or government institutions, correctional leaders play an important role in the development of inmates and staff members (Stojkovic and Farkas, 2003:5). According to Houston (1999:179), correctional centres need effective leadership today more than ever before. Due to the diversity of the correctional environment, the behaviour of contemporary inmates and the introduction of technological equipment in correctional centres, correctional leaders need a wide array of knowledge. Leadership is a difficult concept to define since many definitions exist (Kroon, 1995: 353; Houston, 1999:179; Seiter, 2002: 41). Leadership can be defined as a fundamental process through which organisational culture is engendered so that the task, objectives, and goals are achieved through the coordinated efforts of supervisors and subordinates (Stojkovic and Farkas, 2003:7-8). Houston (1999:179) defines leadership as the art or processes influencing people to strive, willingly and passionately, towards the achievement of established group goals.

The most relevant leadership style that the concept of unit management supports is the democratic leadership style. According to Malan (1997:130), democratic leaders allow subordinates to take part in decision-making. In unit management, decisions are made by unit staff that is closely associated with the inmates; this increases the quality and swiftness of decision making. There is also a better understanding between individuals and the unit team develops a common goal that encourages positive unit cohesiveness (Department of Correctional Services, 2005: 84; Houston, 1999: 325). Within the unit management context, the head of a correctional centre ensures that authority is delegated to unit managers in an appropriate manner. Unit managers have a supervisory responsibility for unit case managers, correctional counsellors and secretaries.

Moreover, unit managers serve as joint supervisors of the units' correctional officials (Levinson, 1999: 33; Luyt, 2011: 71). Finally, research has shown that the democratic leadership style usually brings about a more positive attitude towards the leader as well as a larger degree of acceptance of change (Fox, Schwella and Wissink, 1999:96). The following figure illustrates the relationship between the democratic style of leadership and unit management.

FIGURE 2: DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP AND UNIT MANAGEMENT



3.6 UNIT MANAGEMENT AS A DECENTRALISED MANAGEMENT APPROACH

Unit management lends a greater sense of responsibility to first unit managers and moves decision-making, as far as possible, to the bottom of hierarchy (Phillips and McCollen, 2005:255). The management of correctional centres, specifically those in South Africa, still relies on a pyramidal structure where most decisions and policies are made at the top. Most of the policies are implemented from the Department of Correctional Service's head office. They are then referred to the Provincial level. From the provincial level they are sent to the management areas, and from the management areas to the relevant correctional centres. This pyramidal structure also happens within most correctional centres. In other words, there is a chain of command in which decision-making has a top-down function, while information may flow up and down and only upper level staff take decisions. According to Levinson (1999:27), unit management flattens this decision-making hierarchy by subdividing facilities into smaller, semi-autonomous sections (units) whose staff has specific decision-making authorities at the lower level.

In the decentralized management approach, unit managers work hand in hand-with-the head of the correctional centre, in terms of decision-making, regarding their units. This interaction closes the gap between those who have the most contact with inmates (case and unit managers) and the decision-making, executive staff members. The decentralized management approach results in decisions about inmates being made more efficiently by people who know inmates (Levinson, 1999: 2; Department of Correctional Services, 2005:86). The adoption of a decentralized approach to correctional management has a number of benefits, namely:

- The legacy of the centralized structure is easier to shed;
- The atmosphere of the organisation, in general, is improved and, specifically, the correctional centre environment is improved;
- The development and implementation of community programmes is enhanced;

- The classification of inmates is made easier;
- Staff morale is improved;
- Constructive activities for inmates are fostered through staff creativity;
- Large institutions are broken into smaller, more manageable units;
- The supervision of inmates is enhanced (Levinson, 1999:27).

3.7 ADVANTAGES OF UNIT MANAGEMENT

Since the origin of unit management, a number of advantages arose from the concept (Luyt, 1999:35). Furthermore, the implementation within the institutions that adopt this concept has been successful. In the unit management approach, staff members become more active and play an important role in decision-making and planning. In addition, inmates begin to have closer interaction with staff and participate in unit management processes (Houston, 1999:328). As unit management relies heavily on a multidisciplinary approach, the communication between staff, inmates and management improves. Unit management also has advantages for correctional management, staff members, inmates and for correctional centre. The advantages of the unit management approach to correctional management are:

- It divides a large number of inmates into small, well defined and manageable groups whose members develop a common identity and close association with each other and their unit staff.
- The multidisciplinary unit staff members' varied backgrounds and different areas of expertise enhance communication and cooperation with other institutional structures.
- Staff involvement in the correctional process and decision making opportunities are increased, thus further developing the correctional and management skills of the staff.
- Decisions are made by the unit staff who are most closely associated with the inmates, thus increasing the quality and swiftness of decision-making.
- Programme flexibility is increased, since special areas of emphasis can be developed to meet the needs of the inmates in each unit and the programme for a unit can be changed without affecting the entire institution.

- It increases the frequency of contact and intensifies relationships between staff and inmates. resulting in:
    - Better communication and understanding between individuals;
    - More individualized classification and programme planning;
    - More valuable programme review and programme adjustment;
    - Better observation of inmates, thus enabling the early detection of problems before they reach critical proportions;
    - Development of common goals which encourage positive unit cohesiveness;
    - Generally, more positive goals which encourage positive unit cohesiveness; and
    - Provide more efficient accountability and control of inmates (Maghan, 1981:9; Houston, 1999:325; Silverman, 2001:251; Department of Correctional Services, 2005:85-86; Levinson, 1999:2; Department of Correctional Services, undated: 13).

The advantages of the unit management approach for staff members are:

- Staff are allowed to take more responsibility;
- Achievement becomes visible, which leads to recognition and more achievements;
- Staff morale and attitude improve;
- Staff tension decreases;
- Use of sick leave is reduced;
- Misconduct by staff is reduced; and
- The working environment becomes safer (Luyt, 2000:29).

The advantages of the unit management approach for inmates are:

- Inmates feel more important and take more responsibility for their own development.
- Treatment of inmates by staff improves.

The advantages of the unit management approach for the correctional centre are:

- Common association becomes less of a threat to authorities as inmates interact positively with staff rather than planning negative activities with a small number of inmates.
- Positive intervention between staff and inmates becomes more frequent and intense, leading to more understanding and better relationships.
- Classification and treatment efforts become more individualized, positive and effective.
- Programmes are flexible and are therefore adjusted regularly to better meet the needs of inmates.
- Observation improves and negative incidents decrease sharply because they are detected early on.
- The development of common goals leads to positive approaches and cohesiveness.
- Quality and promptness of decision making improves.
- Institutional cleanliness and orderliness improves (Luyt, 2000:29-30; Corrections Corporation of America, Undated: 4).

3.8 DISADVANTAGES OF UNIT MANAGEMENT

Every management approach, irrespective of how effective it is in terms of organisational development, tends to have its own disadvantages. Some management approaches tend to have a negative impact on the size of the organisation and they often lead to the downsizing or outsourcing of their product. In most cases, employees tend to be adversely affected by these changes. Similarly, the unit management approach has its own disadvantages. However, these disadvantages also play a very important role in the successful implementation of the unit management approach. According to Houston (1999:325), the three main disadvantages of unit management can be linked to the cost of unit management, the time and resources spent to implement unit management, and the threat that unit management could pose towards the establishment of the hierarchical order of correctional centre management.

- **The cost of unit management**

Unit management is costly. The budget of traditional management is far lower that of unit management. According to Houston (1999:325), in United States of America, a housing unit with two hundred inmates can be supervised by 5.2 correctional officials on three shifts, 24 hours per day for 365 days a year. The salary cost at $25, 000 per year, per officer, will be approximately $130, 000 per year; this does not include the employer's contribution to social security and other benefits. For the same number of inmates residing in various housing units the cost is much higher; for each unit, the amount of approximately $206.000 can be allocated to the unit manager, two case managers, four non-degree councillors and one secretary.

However, Houston (1999:326) also found that many jurisdictions in the United States of America that have adopted unit management, have found that the extra costs are made up in savings on overtime, repairs to damages from disturbances, vandalism and litigation. The personal development of inmates and staff members in unit management cannot be financially calculated, and can also contribute to the savings brought about by the unit management approach. Issues like recidivism need to be considered. Stress levels and fights amongst inmates, with possible deaths, as well as those who need medical attention are normally reduced; this contributes to a reduction of cost.

- **Time and resources to implement unit management**

The implementation of unit management takes time and resources. It needs extra planning for both staff development and new physical plants that need to be erected. According to Houston (1999:326), funds must be allocated, necessary positions identified and planned for, opponents won over, staff training and education conducted and, often, physical renovation completed.

- **Unit management threatens the establishment of the hierarchical order**

Unit management threatens the majority of correctional managers and supervisors as they view its establishment as a threat to their positions. Since traditional management in correctional

centres often results in autocratic management styles, most managers and supervisors feel that their authority and positions will be challenged or changed. In the unit management approach, power is distributed and information flows to the unit manager. Security and case management decisions are made by unit staff members (Houston, 1999:326). There is a more even spread of decision-making powers to lower levels of management. Many traditional correctional managers are opposed to this practice.

3.9 UNIT MANAGEMENT AS AN EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT APPROACH

The effectiveness of unit management can be evaluated by looking at the advantages of this approach. It is clear, from the said advantages, that in unit management the management, staff members, inmates and the correctional centre benefit. According to the Department of Correctional Services (2005:84-85), unit management is effective because lateral communication, team work and common understanding is maintained; in addition to which it improves the direct supervision of inmates. Moreover, through the unit management approach, inmates are assessed and needs-driven programmes as part of a structured day and correctional plan are maintained. Finally, staff becomes multi-skilled through the delegation of responsibility, whilst there are always clear lines of accountability.

The success of the unit management system can also be evaluated according to the following three aspects:

- *The existence of supportive relationships.* The elements of danger and authority require staff to support each other on the job, and working in proximity to one another brings mutual interests to light. The effective manager nurtures these relationships through staff meetings and other formal and informal meetings with his or her staff.

- *Group decision-making and the group method of supervision.* Decentralization and unit management, in correctional centres, are excellent vehicles for promoting shared decision making. Inmate classification decisions should be shared. All staff should have input regarding inmates and should be able to offer some insight to behaviour and attitude. Other decisions, such as programme and policy matters, can be shared with staff and involvement is promoted in order to improve staff morale and performance.
- *High performance goals for the organisation.* Organised work groups focus on problems and foster the process of improving the quality of services and programmes. The ability of staff to take responsibility for and accomplish tasks in a unit, or to work as a group under capable leadership, automatically promotes the establishment of high performance goals. The effective leader only guides staff when necessary, so as to monitor progress (Houston and Stefanoviae, 1996:2; Livingson, 1999:79; Smith and Fenton, 1978:53).

According to Houston (1999: 262), although improvements were evident in a variety of areas, conclusions were reached about the security, safety and administrative is efficiency. The following improvements, due to unit management, were also observed regarding security, safety and administrative efficiency:

- *On security.* Escapes dropped from 3.04 per 1000 inmates in 1981 to 0.25 per 1000 in 1991,
- Inmates are held more responsible for behaviour and problem involvement.
- Unit management has provided a means for early detection of problems, and
- All staff members became more knowledgeable of security policies and procedure.
- *On safety.* The number of reported inmate on inmate assaults decreases, and
- Inmate assault on personnel dropped from 396 to 139 in 1990.
- *On administrative efficiency.* Unit staff manages day-to-day operations, resulting in exclusives being more visible and accessible to personnel, while they were able to devote more time to strategic planning,
- The experience and knowledge of all personnel is broadened because of exposure to all facets of institutional operations which is a result of the team approach,
- Differences between custody and treatment have been reduced or rendered non-existent,

- Lines of communication are clear and line staff are more aware of the expectations of management,
- The needs and concerns of inmates are addressed swiftly, and
- The multidisciplinary team approach has improved the delivery of correctional services.

3.10 UNIT MANAGEMENT AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation of unit management can be linked to several negative issues identified in the traditional management of correctional centres. When community members and specialists within specific fields begin to question the effectiveness of their interest an organisation, it is evident that particular organisational strategies, management styles, aims and objectives become unclear or unreached. In the case of corrections, community members started to view the correctional centres as the "warehouses where offenders are dumped" while others viewed correctional centres as "universities of crime". The main reasons behind these views were the ineffective rehabilitation of inmates and high recidivism rates amongst ex-inmates. Various specialists in the field of corrections and penology also criticized the traditional management of correctional centres by claiming that correctional centre officials minimized the responsibilities of inmates by taking decisions on their behalf (Luyt, 1999:38).

Incarceration does not promote the concept of "responsibility" amongst inmates. Inmates do not have the right to express their views in terms of their personal development and their general detention conditions. Incarceration is meant for individuals who have committed crimes. However, their views regarding daily issues that will affect their social behaviour after their release must also be taken into consideration (Coutless, 1998:43). Through the strict routine of traditional correctional centres, inmates spent their time locked inside their cells; they are not allowed to make suggestions in terms of their food menu, recreational activities, community interaction and their daily routine (Phillips and Roberts, 2000:71). This results in boredom and psychological depression which kills their thought and decision-making processes. The majority of inmates who are released from correctional centres depend on other people to make decisions

on their behalf. In other words, the correctional centre stigma, which dictates that one has to listen to and obey the rules without asking questions or making suggestions, affected inmates after their release. Luyt (1999:38) indicates that the long term reduction of recidivism can only be achieved if inmates are managed in the way that pushes responsibility and self-discipline back on to them.

As indicated in section 3.4, the Department of Correctional Services reported that they have endorsed the concept of unit management in March 1995. The implementation of unit management requires great effort in terms of planning and management. The output of staff members is also important and it gives them the sense of belonging. An implementation team should be established to coordinate and monitor implementation efforts (Luyt, 1999:38). The following guidelines should be considered in the implementation of unit management in correctional centres:

- The concept must be understood by and have the support of top management;
- Three sets of written guidelines must be available, a policy statement issued by the central office, an institutional procedures manual and a plan for each unit;
- Unit managers must be in control of a unit, giving them responsibility for staff members and inmates assigned to their unit;
- The population size of a unit should be in line with the mission of the unit: general units - 150 to 250 inmates; special units - 75 to 150 inmates;
- Inmates and staff members should be assigned to a unit on a permanent basis, for at least nine months; and
- Staffing should at least consist of the following managerial staff members, as stipulated in table 4.

TABLE 4: STAFFING IN UNIT MANAGEMENT

Position	General unit	Special unit
Unit manager	1	1
Case manager	2	2
Correctional counsellor	2	2
Secretary	1	1
Mental health specialists	1	1

Source: Adapted from Luyt (1999:39)

- In addition to correctional officer coverage, unit staff should provide twelve-hour supervision (maximum) from Monday to Friday and eight-hour supervision on each day of the weekend;
- Other staff should be decided upon in terms of the purpose of each unit;
- Staff offices should be located in the unit or as near to it as possible;
- Unit staff members should receive initial and ongoing formal training concerning their roles and responsibilities;
- Unit management audits conducted by knowledgeable central or regional office staff should occur on a regular and scheduled basis, at least once a year;
- The successful implementation of unit management requires the maintenance of high staff efficiency, professionalism, ability, experience and training (Houston, 1999:365; Silverman, 2001:251; Luyt, 1999: 38-39).

3.11 A MODEL FOR UNIT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMMES

The success of unit management can be evaluated by the kind of programmes provided to inmates in each unit. The implementation of these programmes depends on the case plan of each inmate. In order words, inmates with specialized needs, such substance abuse rehabilitation, can attend the programmes similar to their needs. According to Houston (1999:332), a successful unit programme is based on the unit plan and the participation of staff members is important.

He further adds that the unit plan can be compared to a master plan as it defines unit missions and goals, describes responsibility, and prescribes how the unit will evaluate its operations. After taking the necessary inmate needs and executive approval of the programmes into consideration, the structured day programme can be developed. Although many adaptable options are available for the individual needs of inmates, the following prototype illustrates what a structured day could look like (Houston, 1999: 332):

TABLE 5: STRUCTURED DAY IN THE UNIT MANAGEMENT APPROACH

Time	Activities
07:00-8:00	Breakfast
08:00-10:00	Work (Industries)
10:00-12:00	Leisure time (Recreation programmes)
12:00-13:00	Lunch (cell time)
13-00-14:00	School
14:00-16:00	Correctional counselling
16:00-18:00	Indoor recreational activities
18:00-19:00	Count, cell time, supper
19:00-20:00	Individual and group counselling or peer counselling
20:00-21:00	Unit town hall meetings

Source: Adapted from Houston (1999:332)

It must be clear that the above mentioned structured day can be changed and can also be different in terms of programmes and time slots. The unit manager is responsible for monitoring and updating unit programmes so as to ensure that they are always relevant to inmates' needs. As the primary objective is to improve communication between staff members and inmates, a town hall meeting could be suitable for this. Each of the abovementioned programmes will be discussed in detail below.

- **Educational and vocational programmes**

Educational and vocational programmes help inmates acquire or improve their marketable skills through one or more training programmes (Phillips and Roberts, 2000: 174; Silverman, 2001:387). Furthermore, the purpose of educational and vocational programmes is to improve the educational level of the inmates and to equip them with life skills. According to Clear and Cole (2000:330), educational and vocational training is always focused on occupations that are in demand and already have significant employment opportunities. Vocational training implies training in which an inmate will obtain a diploma or certificate on successful completion of the training course. With regard to education, illiterate inmates and those who wish to further their education are provided with this opportunity while serving their sentences. The following educational services are made available: functional literacy programme, distance education, recreational education programmes including library education, and intra-disciplinary presentations, namely; the life skills programme and youth programme (Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser, 1995:129).

- **Leisure time and recreational programmes**

According to the National Institute of Corrections (1974:40), leisure time is important for unit inmates as it leads to smooth reintegration into the community, if the environment is suitable. Recreational programmes often require well trained professional staff and adequate funds for equipment and supplies (Silverman, 2001:407). The unit recreational team should plan recreational activities and act as a liaison with unit staff. However, the unit manager should be alert when planning activities via the recreational committee and the unit inmates' interests should be considered. The following activities are suitable for each unit (s):

- Monthly tournaments in indoor games;
- Seasonal contests at times such as Easter, Father's day, Women's day and New years;
- Inter-unit competitions in soccer, rugby, volleyball and table tennis etc;
- Hobby crafts;
- Correctional counselling.

The unit multidisciplinary team and inmates should determine the needs and establish the purpose of correctional counselling sessions. These sessions can concentrate on programmes that develop good working habits, learning to communicate and getting along with each other, being responsible, coping with stress, occupational development and self control. This programme is provided by counsellors and it must always be formalized. Furthermore, this programme may be facilitated either on a group or individual basis (National Institute of Corrections, 1974: 40- 41).

- **Group, individual and peer counselling**

Group counselling can assist motivating inmates in developing an increased understanding of themselves, resolve interpersonal conflicts, learn constructive problem solving techniques, increase their ability to understand and communicate with others, and identify short and long term goals to promote personal growth. According to Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser (1995:136), in group counselling more than one inmate is involved in psychological programmes at a given time. Group counselling also assists inmates in sharing their experiences with others and improving communication between staff and inmates, which is essential in developing and maintaining an effective programme in inmate management (National Institute of Corrections, 1974:35).

Furthermore, group counselling can also be an effective approach to resolving problems within a unit. When the unit team and inmates realize that some inmates need individual counselling such inmates will be subjected to individual counselling. Usually, this happens when a specific problem area is identified. Individual counselling should be conducted by staff members who have the necessary expertise in counselling. Individual counselling involves a situation where in the counsellor and inmates are in a one-to-one relationship. The following techniques are used to foster alternative patterns of the behaviour:

- The application of a relaxation technique, this technique assists the inmate in controlling his/her fears and tension; and

- Inmates with deviant sexual behaviour can develop other patterns of behaviour by means of a variety of behavioural therapeutic techniques (Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser, 1995:135-136).

Inmates can also be used for peer counselling if they qualify to do so. As inmates have insight into all the activities which take place within their unit, they can assist new inmates to adjust well. However, the unit team needs to be careful during the inmate selection process (National Institute of Corrections, 1974:35).

- **Inmate committee and unit town hall meetings**

Inmate committees provide inmates with the opportunity to be involved in unit programmes. These committees also provide two way communications between unit staff and inmates which is necessary for any healthy unit programme. Other advantages of an inmate committee is that they promote a feeling of increased self worth on the part of inmates and they are also a good means for unit staff to stay abreast of various activities within the unit. Inmate committees often consult the general unit population with regard to their committee discussions, during town hall meetings.

According to Levinson (1999:73), a town hall meeting is a large meeting in each unit, which takes place weekly. The purpose of a town hall meeting is to develop ways in which both inmates and staff can live together. The purpose of these meetings is not for inmates or staff to discuss issues that deal only with personal development. These meetings are regularly scheduled meetings involving all unit staff members and inmates. The structure of the meetings and participation requirements may be different in various units and institutions. A clear structure and well organised procedure is always encouraged (National Institute of Corrections, 1974: 37).

- **Drug and alcohol abuse programmes**

Some inmates enter correctional institutions for drug or alcohol related crimes. According to Seiter (2002:113), research has constantly shown a significant relationship between alcohol, drugs and criminal behaviour. Moreover, the United States Department of Justice found extensive evidence of a strong relationship between drug abuse, alcohol use and crime, as summarized in the following three points. Firstly, drug users report greater involvement in crime and are more likely, than non-users, to have criminal records. Secondly, persons with criminal records are much more likely than ones without criminal records to report being drug users (Seiter, 2002: 113-114).

It is clear, from this discussion that inmates with alcohol and drug problems have to attend rehabilitation programmes relevant to their needs. Most correctional systems recognized that many inmates abuse both alcohol and drugs and, as a result, they have combined their substance and alcohol abuse programmes. The following mechanisms play a crucial role in inmate substance abuse treatment programmes.

- Initial alcohol and drug abuse treatment: This programme occurs in phases, with a residential treatment phase lasting between six to twelve months;
- Advanced alcohol and drug abuse treatment: After advancement is made by inmates from initial alcohol and drug abuse treatment they gradually earn more privilege in a therapeutic treatment setting;
- Multiple treatment modalities are used, including individual psychotherapy, group therapy and vocational rehabilitation.
- Treatment continues after release in the form of therapy group augmented by alcohol and drug testing (Clear and Cole, 2000:331).

- **Unit release programmes**

Each unit can also design the pre-release programmes in the case of the institutions without a separate pre-release unit. The main purpose of pre-release programmes is to ensure that inmates are successfully reintegrated into the community. These programmes are always accurate and realistic in terms of inmate needs. The following programmes are provided to inmates during their stay in a pre-release unit: release preparations and planning, information about the family of the inmate and information about an aftercare agency in the case of young offenders. Unit pre-release programmes are compulsory for every inmate who will be released. To ensure the smooth running of pre-release unit, one unit staff member will be designated as the pre-release coordinator ((National Institute of Corrections, 1974: 38).

In addition, each unit should develop its own release programme and such a programme has the following major components: transportation and intelligence. Each of the said components will be discussed in detail below:

- Transportation deals with how inmates are released from the unit to the community. In other words, the transport that will take them home;
- Intelligence, unlike transportation, deals specifically with obtaining information about what is happening in a unit that the inmate was detained in. Usually, the case manager or case counsellor gather the information and learn who in the unit is doing what to whom or who needs more attention from staff (Levinson, 1999:74).

3.12 SUMMARY

The effectiveness of every organisation depends primarily on the interaction between staff members and the management approach utilized. Irrespective of how good the staff members are, if the management approach is ineffective the organisation will fail to produce quality products. In correctional settings, the management approaches utilized do not only influence the

staff members, but they also influence the inmates. In other words, the inmates' needs and personal development must always be considered in every management approach utilized. In this chapter, the concept of "unit management" was discussed. This discussion makes it clear that this management approach can have a significant degree of positive influence on staff members and inmates. Furthermore, the approach can improve communication at every institutional level and encourages a decentralized management approach.

For the unit management approach to be implemented properly, its components; architecture, case management, risk management and human rights, should be applied. The components of the unit management approach will be discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER 4

COMPONENTS OF UNIT MANAGEMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

To remain consistent, every management approach should have components that promote the smooth flow of that particular management approach. This should also be applicable to the management of correctional institutions. Correctional institutions should be managed properly and take into consideration that the purpose of incarceration is to protect the community. In other words, necessary measures should be put in place to prevent inmates from escaping from safe custody. Inmates should also be properly rehabilitated while serving their sentences. Security and rehabilitation are always key components of corrections and each of these components needs to receive the same degree of attention. Furthermore, proper management can also have positive outcomes for both staff members and inmates.

Unit management consists of various components, including: architecture, case management, risk management, security management and human rights. These components complement each other. In this chapter, the components of unit management will be discussed in-depth. Within these discussions, details will be provided on the origin, definitions, stages, advantages and disadvantages of each component. According to Luyt et al. (2010), security management also one of the components of unit management; however security will only be covered in this chapter only.

4.2 ARCHITECTURE

Correctional philosophies and programmes have undergone drastic changes over the years due to technological developments, economic issues and the rehabilitation of inmates, which has become one of the core businesses of corrections today. These developments affected the design

of correctional facilities. According to Randal (1991:1), the history of correctional centre reform informs us that the rehabilitation of inmates will not be effective until the physical environment has been improved and changed. However, Courtless (1998: 46) indicates that most people who are interested in the correctional centre reform do not differentiate between humanitarian reform and the rehabilitative idea. Humanitarian reform calls for minimum civilized living conditions, including the physical safety of inmates and staff members. The rehabilitative idea refers to the kind of treatment programmes that will facilitate the successful reintegration of inmates into the community (Randal, 1991: 2).

Therefore, what is the structural influence to these ideas? If the structure reflects the condition of the community, inmates can be easily integrated into the community. This will support the rehabilitative idea. If the structure has a negative psychological effect on inmates due to overcrowding and lack of privacy, the humanitarian approach will not be realized (Randal, 1991: 3-4). The philosophy of punishment for crimes, like the idea of raising children, has changed over the past century (Jacobs, Siegel and Quiram, 1997: 2). Correctional centres have changed from holding places for inmates waiting to be deported, whipped or executed. According to Mays and Winfree (2005: 74), the earliest correctional centres were distinguished by thick walls, round arches, large towers and symmetrical plans. To offer a deeper understanding of the first correctional centres, with proper supervision possibilities, the researcher will briefly discuss the historical development of, and changes in, the design of correctional centres.

The development of these designs can be categorized into three phases, namely:

- First generation facilities (Panopticon, radial and telephone-pole type design).
- Second generation facilities (Podular design with remote/Indirect supervision).
- Third generation facilities (Unit management concept/Direct supervision).

4.2.1 FIRST GENERATION FACILITIES (PANOPTICON, RADIAL AND TELEPHONE-POLE TYPE CORRECTIONAL DESIGN).

The discussion on each of the first generation correctional centres, with proper inmate supervision, is offered below.

- **Panopticon correctional centre design.**

The first type of correctional centre building with proper inmate supervision during the seventeenth century was designed by English philosopher and social theorist, Jeremy Bentham, around 18th century1790 (Carlson and Garrett, 1999). According to Clear and Cole (2000: 31), the arrangement of the panopticon correctional centre was coordinated in a way that allows staff members, in the centre of the building, to monitor the movement of inmates without the inmates being able to see the staff. Moreover, the cells of the inmates where planned and constructed in a circular fashion around a central guard tower; thus, each cell housed a single inmate who is effectively isolated from all other inmates (Carlson and Garett, 1999: 58). Although the panopticon was seen as success during its time, its unattractive features undermine its use, for instance, the panopticon had extremely high noise levels because of sound and echoes within its hard walls.

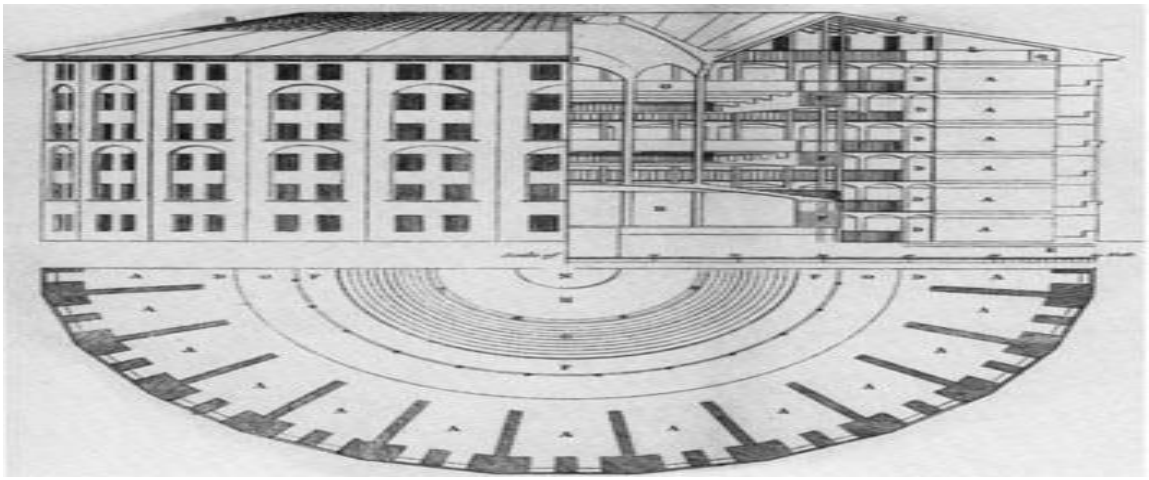
The following negative features of the panopticon correctional centre design were also identified:

- Correctional staff members were always surrounded by inmates. In other words, should the inmates manage to seize the entrances, all staff members were trapped;
- If all cells are to be seen from the inspection point, then the whole of the centre of the building must be empty, which resulted in a large amount of wasted space. Any other structures placed in the centre of the building will partially block the staff members' view of some of the cells;
- Correctional staff members cannot see the outside the walls of correctional centre or the yard, and;

- Unless special precautions are taken, the inmates were able to see into neighbouring cells and into the cells across the central space and, thus, communicate (Steadman, 2007: 9; Struckman- Johnson and Struckman-Johnson, 2000:65).

Although this design did not come to fruition during Bentham's time, it had an influence over the development of the second generation design.

FIGURE 4: PANOPTICON CORRECTIONAL CENTER DESIGN



Source: Adapted from Brignall (2008:17)

- **Radial correctional centre design**

Most correctional centre designs during the early nineteenth century followed the radial correctional centre design (Clear and Cole, 2000: 234). The cell design of radial correctional centres was large so that inmates could perform work in their cells. Moreover, the separation system, with no communication between inmates, was maintained in radial design correctional centres (Seiter, 2002: 273). Like panopticon correctional centre designs, the radial correctional centre design also had its own strengths and weaknesses. In the radial correctional centre design it was difficult for inmates to escape. However, in the arrangement of the outer cells, each cell had its own window and there was no barrier between inmates in order to prevent the breaking out of one cell block to enter another. For securing the correctional centre and facilitating inmates' physic searches, radial correctional centres design only had a few security control

measures. Inmates' idleness, sickness and suicide were other factors that indicated the failure of the radial correctional centre design. Finally, the radial design has never been popular in the United States of America and other countries around the world (Mays and Winfree, 2005: 123).

- **Telephone-pole correctional centre design**

Telephone-pole correctional centres were popular between 1920 and 1970 (Seiter, 2002: 274). The telephone-pole correctional centre design features the linear arrangements of cells along long surveillance corridors. According to Clear and Cole (2000: 334), surveillance corridors serve as the means for inmates to go from one part of the correctional centre to another. The telephone-pole correctional centre was popular because it was easy to build additional barred grids across the pole and close them in order to isolate a small number of inmates in the case of a riot or violence. Moreover, telephone-pole correctional centres were designed to control violence and were erected as fortress-like structures that appear quite secure from outside the correctional centre (Seiter, 2002: 275).

However, on the inside, there were numerous places that were difficult for correctional officials to monitor and these places were ideal for stabbing, beating and other types of violence (Mays and Winfree, 2005: 87). Furthermore, correctional officials were obliged to walk up and down to monitor inmates' behaviour. No matter how committed correctional officials were, it was difficult for them to watch every cell at once. The majority of correctional centres in South Africa are designed on this model.

4.2.2 SECOND GENERATION DESIGN (PODULAR DESIGN WITH REMOTE/INDIRECT SURVEILLANCE)

The beginning of 1970 brought hope to the architectural changes in correctional centre design. According to Randal (1991: 3), the National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning was appointed in the United States of America to create guidelines that incorporated podular housing

units and remote surveillance in a secure control room. This design was based on the following principles:

- To provide centralized services to inmates;
- To improve classification and technology utilization in the small sized housing units.

According to Randal (1991:3), podular housing areas were divided into manageable units of 12-24 inmates. This design was based on a restrictive management style, organised to respond to inmate problems rather than to prevent them. Furthermore, the control over inmates was achieved by surveillance and technological constrains (Randal, 1991:4). In comparison to first generation correctional structures, the second generation podular design was more effective. However, this design was costly due to security equipment and technological equipment. Operational costs were also higher due to the increased number of staff members.

4.2.3 THIRD GENERATION DESIGN (FUNCTIONAL UNIT MANAGEMENT)

The historical development of unit management in correctional centres was discussed in chapter three. Unit management was first introduced by the Federal Bureau of Prisons (Luyt, 1999: 34; Seiter, 2002: 196). The above discussed second generation design had a significant influence on the introduction of unit management. As discussed above, podular housing units were divided into manageable housing units of 12-24 inmates. This approach is also utilized in unit management, but the number of inmates increases to 50-120 in each housing unit (Levinson, 1999: 9; Houston, 1999: 322). In the third generation design, direct supervision is used and correctional officials are permanently assigned to perform a supervisory role in the housing unit. The reason for deploying correctional officials in each housing unit on a permanent basis is to prevent negative behaviour among inmates and improve the relationship between inmates and staff (Carlson and Garrett, 1999: 85).

In unit management, inmates are allowed to move freely from single or double rooms to a central day room, where they can watch television or exercise. In the evening, inmates attend various rehabilitative programmes until a specific lock-up time. Furthermore, inmates have free access to telephones but under the supervision of correctional staff members (Randal, 1991: 3). Instead of inmates getting their food directly from the prison kitchen; food is brought into the inmate living area of the housing unit. Laundry can also be washed at each housing unit, with inmates held responsible for their own laundry management. It also offers a positive contribution to the correctional programme by improving the facility's operational efficiency. The concept of unit management is also based on the belief that "if inmates are housed in a normal manner and treated humanely, they will respond in kind and maintain this atmosphere" (Randal, 1991: 4).

4.3 FUNDAMENTAL PHILOSOPHY INFLUENCING DESIGN

As indicated by Zupan (1991: 95), the new generation of correctional centre philosophy is situated in the belief that inmates are human beings who will cooperate if their needs are fulfilled. Correctional centre design is a separate, large industry today and institutional architectural programmes are highly functional. New generation facilities are designed to assist staff in supervising inmates (Carlson and Garrett, 1999:337). Luyt (1999:76) is of the belief that architecture can have a positive influence if it will shape the environment to meet inmate safety needs, inmates' privacy, inmates' family contact and activities as well as inmates' social relationships and recreation.

Zupan (1991:96) further indicates that architecture alone will fail to transform inmates into obedient individuals, but it will shape the environment to such a degree that attempts to manipulate the environment will be detected immediately. The classification of inmates also has tremendous influence on the design. Rule 67, of the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders, indicates that the purpose of classification shall be:

(a) To separate from those inmates who, by reason of their criminal records or bad character, are likely to exercise bad influence.
(b) To divide the inmates into classes in order to facilitate their treatment with a view to social rehabilitation.

Rule 68, of the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders, states that so far as possible, separate correctional centres or separate sections of correctional centres shall be used for the treatment of different classes of prisoners (United Nations 1955:7).

In addition to the abovementioned statements influencing management philosophy and facilities' planning design, the supervision of inmates can also have an influence. The supervision of inmates is based on the two concepts of inmates' supervision, namely: indirect and direct supervision. Each of these styles of supervision will be discussed in detail below.

4.3.1 FACILITY DESIGN AND INDIRECT SUPERVISION

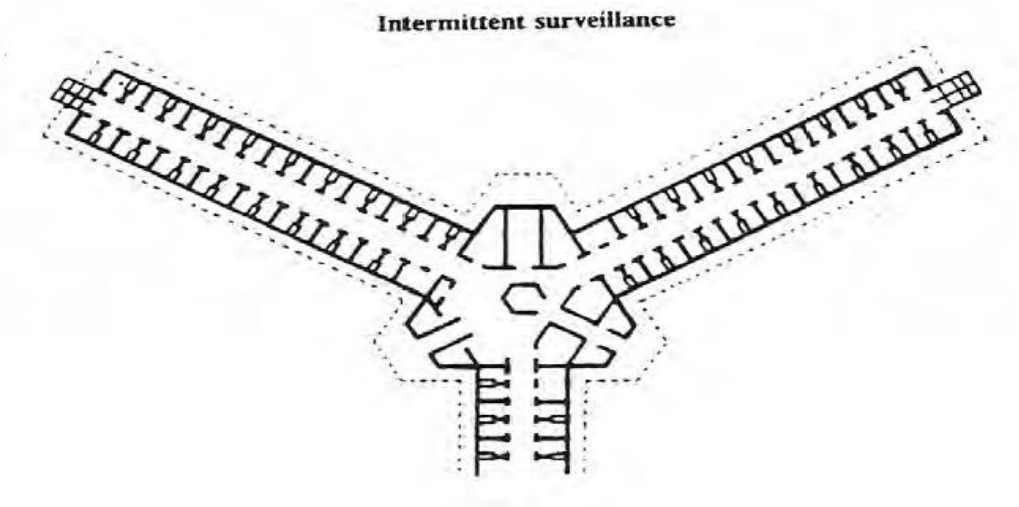
According to Krasnow (1998:14), officials in indirect supervision facilities usually use visual observation and electronic control devices to observe inmates. In most cases this observation happens in control rooms. The indirect supervision of inmates can be linked to the first generation design (Panopticon). In this design, the inmates were observed by correctional officials without their knowledge. However, the difference between the two is that "in the case of direct supervision the inmate might know that they are always observed as cameras might be place in their housing unit". Under indirect supervision the cells where inmates reside usually contain 50 to 70 beds. Wener, Frazier and Farbtein (1989:2) indicate that the main functions of correctional officials in indirect supervision include:

- Operation of the control systems;
- Observation of inmate behaviour;
- Provision of limited intervention in response to minor infractions; and

- Calling of backup staff members in the case of violence.

The most popular form of indirect supervision of inmates is linear intermittent surveillance and remote surveillance. According to Saunders (2008: 1), the intermittent surveillance design has a row of long security corridors. Staff members are unable to observe all inmate housing areas from one location and must patrol inmates' living areas to provide periodic observation. Most inmate behaviour problems occur during intervals between intermittent patrols. Moreover, all areas must be patrolled by staff members at all times without the assistance of electronic monitoring devices. Intermittent surveillance is staff intensive and therefore more expensive. The following diagram illustrates the structure of the linear intermittent surveillance design.

FIGURE 4: LINEAR INTERMITTENT SURVEILLANCE DESIGN



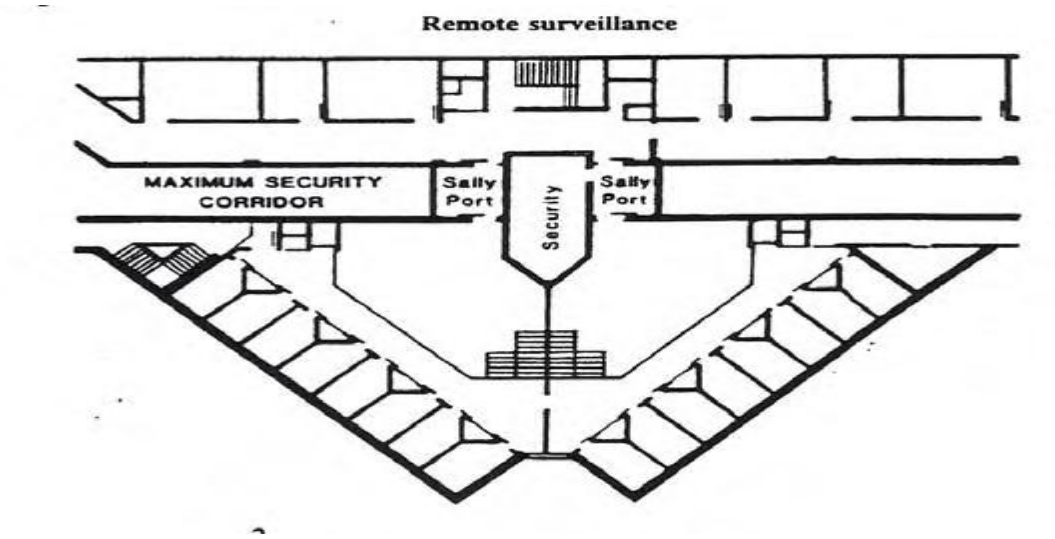
Source: Adapted from Luyt (2000:36)

With remote surveillance, the layout of each unit is designed in a manner that allows all inmates' activities to be observed from a central secure control room (Luyt, 2010: 37). Moreover, in remote surveillance, usually 48 to 64 cells are clustered around dayrooms that are under continuous observation by staff in a central control room. Since cells doors are electronically controlled from the control room, communication with inmates is done through an intercom. In other words, staff members and inmates do not have direct contact (Saunders, 2008: 2). The

control room in intermittent surveillance is secured by means of one or more sally ports. A sally port is a controlled area. It has one or more access points and one access point has to be closed before another can be opened.

According to Krasnow (1995: 359), interlocking devices prevent more than one door from being opened at time. In anticipation of destructive behaviour, both intermittent surveillance and remote surveillance includes high security fixtures, furnishing and finishers. Despite these costly items, vandalism is still prevalent in this correctional centres environment. The following diagram illustrates the structure of the remote surveillance design:

FIGURE 5: REMOTE LINEAR SURVEILLANCE



Source: Adapted from Luyt (2000:37)

4.3.2 FACILITY DESIGN AND DIRECT SUPERVISION

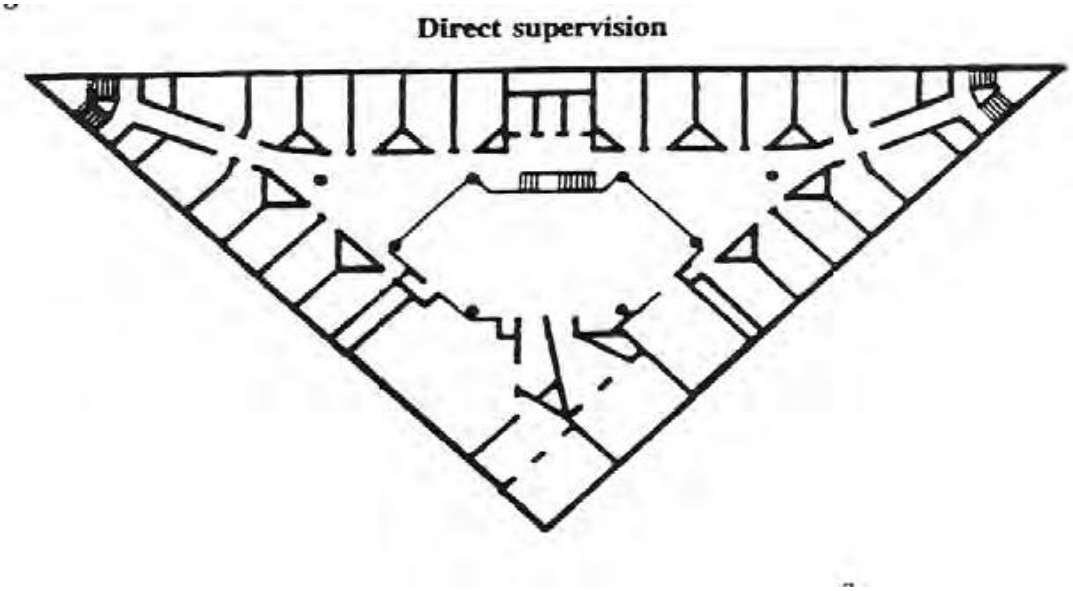
Direct supervision of inmates is totally different from indirect supervision. Direct supervision is a method of correctional supervision in which staff members have direct physical interaction with inmates throughout the day (Clear and Cole, 2000: 160). According to Krasnow (1998:35), in direct supervision, correctional staff members are responsible for managing the day-to-day operations of inmates. Moreover, correctional officials are able to observe inmate activities within the housing unit, while this is difficult in indirect supervision facilities. Direct supervision also tends to offer inmates more physical amenities, such as games tables, exercise equipment and control over the lights in their cells. Larger dayrooms are more common and interaction between officials and inmates are less hostile, and are initiated by inmates more often than in indirect supervision (Luyt, 1999: 78).

Luyt (2010: 38) further indicates that direct supervision also combines principles of human behaviour and facility design to create an environment conducive to interaction and effective intervention by correctional officials. Wener, Frazier and Farbstein (1987:6) find that the direct supervision philosophy can be best explained by contrasting it to earlier design/management styles. The direct supervision style is a combination of management and operational philosophy, design features, and staff training (Wener et al, 1987:1). In other words, the correctional centre management has several options on how to manage their facilities. Furthermore, the direct supervision design not only benefits the managing of correctional centres, it also leads to creativity and multi-tasking amongst correctional officials.

The two forms of surveillance (remote and direct supervision) could also be used in tandem. As indicated previously, the direct supervision design makes provision for the placement of correctional officials inside the living unit. The concept of unit management is based on direct supervision. This new generation correctional centre (unit management) was designed to value

human interaction as a security and rehabilitative idea (Levinson, 1999: 126). The following diagram illustrates the structure of direct supervision.

FIGURE 6: DIRECT SUPERVISION



Source: Adapted from Luyt (2000:39)

In direct supervision designs, there are no real security barriers between inmates and staff, and cells and other areas can easily be supervised and observed from most positions inside the unit (Mays and Winfree, 2005: 93-94). According to Krasnow (1998:354), the environment of continual direct contact and interaction between inmates and staff reduces tension and decreases assaults. Direct supervision has multiple benefits for the management of correctional centres, their staff members and inmates. The table below illustrates the main differences between the indirect and direct supervision of inmates.

TABLE 6: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INDIRECT AND DIRECT SUPERVISION.

Factor	Direct supervision	Indirect supervision
Architecture of cells	Cells surround a common day room	Cells arranged in linear style along access corridors
Furniture	Institutional grade	Security grade (indestructible)
Exercise area	Outdoor area extending from day room for each housing pod	Centralized with limited access and need for additional staff
Interaction	Encouraged, with no physical barriers	Discouraged by barriers
Supervision	Continuous observation	Intermittent observation
Discipline/Inmates management	Primarily a function of unit officer supervisors	Primarily a function of administrator
Vandalism	Rare	Rampant
Safety	Less danger of assault	Danger of assault
Privacy	More satisfied with privacy by inmates	Less satisfied with privacy by inmates

Source: Compiled from Stinchcomb (2005: 76)

4.4 BASIC MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES OF DIRECT SUPERVISION

According to Zupan (1991:87), a political scientist and specialist in the field of penology, the mere cohesive management philosophy helps to improve direct supervision facilities as compared to indirect supervision facilities. According to Levinson (1999: 126-127), the National Institute of Corrections in the United States of America identified the following principles as the basic management principles in direct supervision:

- Effective control: The management of direct supervision must always be the responsibility of the facility management. In other words, no area of the facility should be under the control of inmates.
- Effective supervision: Staff members must be in direct contact with inmates and rely heavily on personal interaction with inmates for supervision. A manageable staff-inmate ratio is critical for effective supervision.
- Competent staff: Recruitment of suitable staff members, as well as their continuous training and leadership by management are necessary for direct supervision to operate as intended.
- Safety of staff and inmates: The main purpose of incarceration is to ensure that inmates and staff members are not exposed to any risk that will cost their lives.
- Manageable and cost effective operations: Running a less dangerous institution allows for more architectural options, at a reduced cost, which provide an incentive for inmates to maintain acceptable standards of behaviour.
- Effective communication: The communication between staff members and inmates is a crucial factor for the smooth running of every facility.
- Classification and orientation: Inmates should be closely observed in the first 48 hours of their incarceration and oriented to the operation of the correctional centre. A key factor behind this observation is to provide expectations of positive behaviour and the identification of individuals who will not conform to the behavioural norms of the living unit.
- Justice and fairness: Conditions of incarceration must respect inmates' constitutional rights. Inmates must be treated equally and fairly. This will make the inmates believe that they are equally respected and they will be treated fairly, and that there are administrative remedies for disputes.

4.5 ARCHITECTURE AND OTHER RELATED FACTORS

The architecture of correctional facilities is not a popular issue in various discussions of inmate development. In most cases, architecture comes into the spotlight when inmates escape from correctional facilities. In the South African situation, 75–80 per cent of correctional centres are based on first generation developments. Although the concept of unit management was encouraged and became active in the South African correctional system, it is difficult to implement this approach in its totality. The following subjects will now be discussed in greater detail: architecture and the use of technology, architecture and negative expectations, architecture, the environment and stress, architecture and privacy, and architecture and overcrowding.

4.5.1 ARCHITECTURE AND THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY

In today's society, the use of technological devices plays a very important role in the correctional setting. These devices are utilized in various areas in correctional institutions. The most popular technological devices integrated into correctional institutions are security electronics and communication systems. According to Krasnow (1998:335), security and communication systems provide support functions for staff so as to enhance both the security of the institution and its operational effectiveness and efficiency. In his view on architecture and technology, Luyt (1999:78) further supports the above statement by indicating that a well designed facility enables correctional managers to operate with much lower staffing levels than those facilities that are poorly designed. Luyt (1999:78) further adds that electronic systems often replace static guards as well as high walls. However, for security and communication systems to be more effective, the following issues must be adhered to:

- Staff members should have a proper understanding of the institutional mission and security objectives;
- A detailed analysis of staffing plan and staff responsibility should also be conducted for proper planning around the use of these security devices;

- Identification of functional areas within the institution and the security issues related to each area;
- A proper understanding of movement patterns to include staff, inmates and visitors;
- Selection of security electronics and communications systems' components to support the operational and physical security requirements of the facility;
- Development of detailed documents to clearly describe individual subsystem requirements and the process for integrating system requirements as well as the process for integrating system elements into an integrated security system; and
- Training of staff members in regard to the operation and maintenance of such devices.

According to Clear and Cole (2000:19), staff members in correctional centres must work closely with inmates, using technological devices. Electronic devices, such as cameras, allow staff members in the control room to inspect inmates attempting to enter restricted areas. Furthermore, other devices like a panic button or body alarm allow staff members to immediately locate other staff members who are in trouble without speaking to them on the radio (Houston, 1999: 262). These devices make a quick response, in terms of any incident, possible. The movement of inmates is always monitored and all the institution doors are remotely controlled from the control room. Selected areas of the institution are installed with Closed Circuit Television systems and alarms. Intercom systems also enhance smooth communication amongst staff members. Generally, a better design with advanced technological installation enhances staff morale.

4.5.2 ARCHITECTURE AND NEGATIVE EXPECTATIONS

Due to the fact that the correctional centre community consists of individuals who commit various types of crimes, everyone including the correctional staff members believes that if inmates have an opportunity they will engage in disruptive behaviour. Irrespective of the kind of crime an inmate commits he/she is still labelled a danger to the community and other inmates. The majority of community members and correctional officials still believe that inmates will

escape as soon as they have an opportunity. That is why most correctional centres have stainless steel doors, bars, small windows, a regular head count and numerous security rules. In addition to the said prevention measures, electronic devices, towers, and long electronic fences also support the perception of escape. According to Luyt (1999:79), these features may be operationally effective in preventing violence, disruption and escapes, but their pure existence may foster negative expectations amongst inmates. This will result in misbehaviour and will give inmates the idea that they are different from other individuals in free society. Furthermore, in research conducted by Friedman (1967) and Klerck (1969), findings indicate that negative expectations communicated through the architectural and interior design of correctional centres will produce negative behaviour (Zupan, 1991:89).

The primary objectives of unit management are to decrease the likelihood of correctional centre disturbances and negative expectations. Moreover, it hopes to increase the prospects that released inmates will make a more successful return to the society and also to enhance public safety (Levinson, 1999:75). According to Zupan (1991:67-72), the unit management approach is planned for the rehabilitation and development of inmates rather than their punishment. Therefore, inmates are detained in an architectural design that insures their safety and security. The following are the benefits of the unit management architectural design:

- The living units are arranged to allow correctional officials to observe all areas within the unit;
- Functional living units allow for the observation of inmates' movements and this enables the early detection of problems before they reach critical proportions;
- Living units are designed to provide for the safe and humane treatment of inmates until their release;
- The housing unit also has an appropriate level of security based on the required inmate population;
- There is a greater level of personal safety for both staff and inmates; and
- Vandalism and damage to property and equipment rarely occurs in unit management designs (Krasnow, 1998:2; Zupan, 1991: 67-72).

4.5.3 ARCHITECTURE, THE ENVIRONMENT AND STRESS

Most inmates become stressed out by the crime that they had committed, coupled with their arrest, the judicial process and their admission into correctional facilities. It often takes time for them to adjust, while some failed to adjust altogether. Environmental conditions can be one of the main reasons why inmates fail to adjust while serving their sentences. According to Zupan (1991:89), there is an empirically proven interrelationship between environmental conditions and human behaviour in a number of settings. It was found that the following factors in correctional centres contribute to stress amongst inmates:

- Excessive heat often arouses the stress levels of inmates;
- Noise and crowding influences task performance; and
- Health and social behaviour have significant potential to increase aggression and destructive behaviour.

In this regard, Mueller (in Zupan, 1991:14) identifies five different psychological states of environmentally induced stress, from which aggression might eventuate:

- The stressor may produce arousal. Individuals who are predisposed to aggression arousal may express it in reaction to environmental stressors;
- Environmental stress factors may produce stimulus overload. The individual becomes overwhelmed and is not capable of processing the incoming information effectively. In an attempt to adapt, some persons may respond aggressively;
- Environmental stress may interfere with ongoing behaviour. This produces frustration and the perception of loss of control;
- Environmental stressors cause irritability, annoyance and discomfort can also increase aggression. The relationship between aggression and discomfort takes an inverted u-shape. To a certain level, discomfort increases aggression. Beyond that level, individuals become so uncomfortable that they respond in other ways (withdrawal) that reduce discomfort; and
- Inmates are deprived of many normal strategies for coping with stress. Some people reduce stress through exercise, the consumption of excessive amounts of drugs or alcohol or

withdrawal to a quiet and isolated place. None of these are readily available in correctional centres.

The architectural structure of unit management correctional centres allows the correctional system to divide inmates into a small number assigned to the same unit. According to Silverman (2001: 251), the delivery of counselling programmes by a custodial therapist within the unit assists inmates in the case of environmental stress. Unlike the traditional correctional centre design, in the unit management design, features such as bars, grey walls and long corridors are avoided. Furthermore, an open atmosphere and freedom within a restricted area is encouraged in correctional centres which use unit management architecture. Decorations and furnishings are attractive, reduce noise levels and create a more relaxed atmosphere (Luyt, 1999: 174).

4.5.4 ARCHITECTURE PRIVACY AND OVERCROWDING

Privacy protects and helps maintain individual personal autonomy, both in terms of individuality and control over the environment. Furthermore, privacy serves to facilitate emotional release caused by tension-creating social, environmental and biological factors (Zupan, 1991: 91). People do not always need to discuss all the important aspects of their life with other people; therefore, everyone needs a certain degree of personal space. According to Painter (in Luyt, 1999: 80), privacy is influenced by personal space. Personal space can be referred to as the amount of physical space people need around them in order to feel comfortable and not be subjected to invasion by others. Obviously, it is impossible for inmates to enjoy their personal privacy due to incarceration, and overcrowding makes things worse. Crowding in correctional centres can either stimulate stress or it can be a stress-reducing factor. Zupan (1991:92) indicates that most research in the area of overcrowding has focused on the effects of spatial and social density. High spatial and social density:

- Can be arousing;
- Can cause stimulus overload and reduce the quality of social interactions;

- Can enhance negative moods and anger amongst males;
- Leads to psychological stress and social withdrawal;
- Is positively related to the number of assaults; and
- Leads to a rise in illness complaints. In dormitories, space is limited and complaints of illness are reported to be higher than in single cells, which results in subsequent recidivism.

Unlike the traditional correctional centre structure, in which inmates are detained in communal cells, in unit management correctional centres the privacy of inmates is always maintained as they are detained in single cells. Moreover, it is impossible to increase the number of inmates in single cells. In other words, there is no way that cells can be overcrowded. Finally, inmate searches are also reduced which, in turn, enhances their privacy. Searches are conducted less frequently because correctional officials are in a position to be more observant (Jonker, 2010: 264).

4.6 CASE MANAGEMENT

In the introduction to this chapter it was indicated that unit management consists of various components, namely: architecture, case management, risk and security management and human rights. In this section, case management will be discussed. There are several assumptions about the introduction of case management to corrections. According to Healey (1999: 1), the roots of the case management approach became popular during 20th century social work. However, many researchers realize its impact as a service delivery method in the late 1960s.

Enos and Southern (1996:26), however, link case management to the "support network" or "helping network" that was part of Western society's cultural history. These networks consisted of formal and informal support systems, which emphasize the nature of private and charitable approaches to problem solving. Case management was then used to assist offenders who were

sentenced to community supervision and former inmates returning to their community. Through its effectiveness, case management was adopted in various correctional systems and became an integral model for inmate development. Case management can be defined as a way of organising the movement of inmates through the correctional system (Luyt, 1999: 127). Case management can further be defined as a systematic process by which individual correctional officials are responsible for encouraging assigned inmates to achieve the requirements of their sentence management plan, with the aim of successful reintegrating into the community.

Enos and Southern (1996: 1) define case management as a systematic process by which selected services and resources in corrections are matched with the identified needs and strengths of offenders. From these definitions, it is clear that case management focuses primarily on inmate development. Therefore, case management can be defined as a flexible method of inmate management through the well organised planning of rehabilitative programmes that involve multidisciplinary staff members within a correctional setting. In support of this definition, Healey (1999:1) finds case management to be an important rehabilitation tool as it reduces recidivism, encourages social reintegration and enhances public safety.

4.6.1 THE PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF CASE MANAGEMENT

Case management is the most important component of unit management; the reason for this is its diversity. Through case management, the relationship between the inmates and staff members can be consistent. Furthermore, each inmate's progress towards the aims of their rehabilitative programme is regularly monitored. In general, case management ensures that each inmate's needs are adhered to and that primary focus of the rehabilitation programmes provided to inmates is relevant to the crime committed. Therefore, the purpose of case management is to provide direction to and co-ordination of all activities related to the management of the sentence of an inmate (Correctional Services of Canada, 1996:3). The objectives of case management can be described as follows:

- Each inmate receives special attention;
- Correctional officials became multi-skilled and their role is also enhanced;
- Due to active custody, security measures become more active and visible;
- Sound working relationships are developed with inmates and this development is based on the clarity regarding roles and expectations;
- Inmates' needs and problems are identified;
- Realistic plans and programmes are developed, co-ordinated and implemented to meet their needs;
- All plans are monitored on a regular basis; and
- Sentences become productive for inmates and idleness is prevented (Luyt, 1999:128).

The main focus of case management is on inmates' development. The execution of case management is also structured in a way that will ensure the smooth re-entry of inmates into the community (Phillips and McCollen, 2005: 33). It must always be clear that inmates will return to the community after serving their sentence and it is vital that their development focuses on this factor. Essentially, inmates are actively participating in their personal development and this assists them in adapting while serving their sentences in a correctional institution.

4.6.2 CASE MANAGEMENT STAGES

Case management in correctional institutions requires co-operation amongst staff members. This co-operation will ensure that the sentence of each inmate becomes more effective. According to Enos and Southern (1996: 4), this effectiveness will be achieved if the following case management stages are incorporated: intake, assessment, classification, referral, intervention, monitoring, evaluation and advocacy. Each of these stages will be discussed in detail below.

- **Intake stage**

The intake stage takes place immediately after an inmate is admitted to the correctional centre. According to Enos and Southern (1996: 5), intake into the correctional system can be as important as the processing of patients at hospitals. Newly admitted patients in hospital receive attention before they can be referred to their relevant ward with relevant specialists. Furthermore, the case manager uses facilitative communication and establishes a rapport with the inmate. For inmate orientation, information about how to comply with a treatment programme is also provided. In general, the purpose of the intake stage is to ensure that every inmate is properly inducted before being referred to other stages. The correctional environment is unique in comparison to a normal community environment. Generally, most admitted inmates tend to experience difficulties upon their admission. It is important to explain the necessary information that inmates need to be aware of before being referred to the next stage. This information includes:

- Facilities' rules and regulations;
- Procedures regarding complaints and requests;
- The rights and privileges of inmates;
- The communication channels with the outside world;
- The role of case management and case workers;
- The importance of participation and co-operation;
- The implications of incarceration; and
- The correctional centre subculture.

During the intake stage, inmates are often referred to community mental health professionals for specialized services such as assessment (Enos and Southern, 1996:6). Enos and Southern add that the inmate family may also receive psychological counselling for crisis intervention and social development services. It is clear that this is a critical stage for the inmate and case manager. In most cases, it is in this stage that the case manager can evaluate whether an inmate

will be able to adapt or not. The shock of admission, feelings of disappointment and helplessness can also have a permanent influence on future inmate development.

- **Assessment stage**

This stage usually involves interviews and the recording of the inmate's history. It may also include a substance abuse and/or specialized evaluation, home visits, and contacting family members, employers and other agencies with which the inmate has been involved (Healey, 1999: 2). Furthermore, the questions raised during the intake stage are answered in this stage. The inmate is assessed based on the crime that he/she has committed and other socially related factors. According to Enos and Southern (1996:6), the case management process will be based on the available services and intervention will be allotted according to the identified needs of inmates. In addition, psychological assessment is conducted during this stage; this assessment takes into account the history of the inmate's disorder, delinquency and criminality. This psychological assessment focuses on the following inmate domains:

- Childhood background of the inmate;
- Inmate family life;
- Inmate schooling and education level;
- Inmate history of substance abuse;
- Inmate medical dependency;
- Inmate military service; and
- Inmate critical incident in relationships.

These factors give the case manager an opportunity to have a better understanding of inmate social background. Specialized assessment is also provided during this stage, for those inmates who have committed crime without any financial motives. Finally, alcohol and drug usage are taken into consideration when compiling impressions for classification (Duffee, 1989: 330).

- **Classification stage**

Classification of the inmate is the most important aspect of inmate rehabilitation and development. According to Levinson (1999: 76), the purpose of classification is to identify inmates who, based on their current institutional behaviour, have demonstrated the need for supervision and control. The preceding stages, i.e. intake and assessment, play a very prominent role in inmate classification. Classification can be defined as a process by which inmates are systematically divided into groups on the grounds of variables that justify difference in their handling (Neser, 1993: 253-254). Furthermore, Luyt (1996: 149-150) indicates that classification is aimed at allocating inmates to treatment programmes and to plan for future projects such as the erection of new correctional facilities and the utilization of staff members.

Risk assessment is considered a crucial factor for inmate classification. Through risk assessment, inmates can be classified to an appropriate unit in the correctional facility. The area of employment, alcohol and/or drug abuse, attitude, as well as past and present criminal behaviour is covered in risk assessment. However, the classification of inmates will be much more effective if the following guidelines are adhered to:

- The classification system should be clear and it should use clear categories without overlapping;
- The system should be reliable, in other words, the procedure which is utilized should achieve the same result;
- The system should be accurate, which means that forecasts made about future behavior must be precise;
- Classification must have implications for the treatment and management of inmates in reclassification, and;
- Classification should also be economically viable; this will ensure that inmates are classified at the minimum cost (Duffee, 1989: 332).

The classification of inmates is a vital stage in management and it must always be considered a key aspect that needs proper attention.

- **Referral**

After classification, inmates must be referred to the right unit by taking into consideration all the aspects identified during the previous stages. Inmates may also be referred to educational activities, job-training or mental health options within the facility. In the case of lack of professionals, inmates can be referred to external healthcare facilities. As previously indicated, the referral of an inmate is always based on the assessment of previous stages, but poor rehabilitation of inmates to proper services in this stage can have a negative impact and spoil all initial preparations (Enos and Southern, 1996: 8).

- **Intervention**

In correctional centres, intervention is the term used to describe the activities, programmes and supervision that the case manager and case management committee will use with inmates in order to meet their needs (Du Preez, 2003: 77). After identifying the needs of inmates, both within the facility and outside the facility, the inmates are referred to custodial therapists. This stage is similar to the referral stage; however, the difference is that in this stage the process of inmate healing and development commence. This process commences with a needs assessment. According to Du Preez (2003:76), the inmate's needs are identified and filed in his or her case file. Inmate needs are thereafter addressed during a case management committee meeting. The case management committee identifies programmes which will address the needs of the inmates.

- **Monitoring and evaluation**

Inmates are always monitored by the case manager in order to ascertain whether they respond to the set development programmes or treatment. This monitoring is performed apprehensively to ensure that alternative measures are implemented in the case of poor response from the inmate. Evaluation entails ensuring that all required development measures were implemented correctly. It is often through evaluation that stakeholders meet and discuss the shortcomings of each intervention that was used for inmate development (Enos and Southern, 1996: 26).

4.6.3 ADVANTAGES OF CASE MANAGEMENT

Case management has various advantages and disadvantages. One should always aim to implement something that will offer significant benefits with limited harm. In other words, choose a concept based on the output that will be produced with limited risk to the organisation. The correctional environment is a very unique environment. Case management can have multiple benefits not only to inmates, but to correctional staff members and the correctional system as well. The following table illustrates the advantages of case management for inmates, correctional officials and correctional system.

TABLE 7: THE ADVANTAGES OF CASE MANAGEMENT

Category	The advantage of case management
Inmates	• It encourages inmates to participate in their rehabilitation and ensures that the maximum benefit is obtained from their sentences. • A professional relationship is maintained between inmates and officials who know their background and with whom they can have discussions about their private matters. • Inmates maintain regular contact with a variety of correctional staff members. • A safer environment is maintained for inmates.
Correctional officials	• A challenging, interesting and more fulfilling career.

	• Correctional officials have more control over inmates and the environment than without case management. • Correctional officials become multi-skilled and more professional.
Correctional system	• Good relationships between correctional officials and inmates often result in discussions of problems which, in turn, result in fewer assaults and suicides. • Security risks are reduced because correctional officials have the opportunity to manage aspects that could develop into a high-risk situation. • The conduct of aggressive inmates can be rectified by providing appropriate anger management programmes. • Dynamic security is enhanced because correctional officials could intercept problems and prevent incidents before they escalate into uncontrollable situations (Luyt, 1999: 129).

Source: Adapted from Luyt (1999:129)

4.6.4 DISADVANTAGES OF CASE MANAGEMENT

As previously indicated, each management approach has its own disadvantages. Some of the disadvantages of case management, as indicated by Du Preez (2003: 95-96), are as follows:

- When case management is not applied properly the right to privacy of an inmate might be jeopardized. As one of the advantages of case management is to improve the relationship

between the correctional staff members and the inmates, the professional relationship is often not maintained. Inmates might feel that he or she is forced to share information of too personal a nature. The successful reintegration of inmates might be hampered due to this;

- The cost attached to its implementation is a disadvantage. As one case worker needs to be responsible for a group of inmates, more staff members are required and the appointment of such staff members increases the cost; and
- Staff members who are used to an autocratic leadership style may have difficulties in coping with this new approach as they are afraid that their authority and positions will be challenged.

4.6.5 THE USE OF DOCUMENTATION IN CASE MANAGEMENT

According to Du Preez (2003: 242), for case management to function properly, clearly defined roles and proper record-keeping is essential. For successful sentence planning, information about each inmate is documented in the relevant file commencing with the first stage to the final stage of case management. It is essential that inmate files be kept in a private place where they cannot be accessed by other people. Luyt (1999:152) further adds that certain documentation needs to be completed to monitor the advancement of an inmate through the system, from admission to release. Moreover, the reasons for record-keeping and documentation being so important for effective case management are:

- Case managers' memories are not always perfect and they have a large number of inmates on their case load. Therefore, the case file serves as a reminder about specific inmates;
- When the case manager or other relevant staff members have to substantiate decisions that they have made, they only have to refer to the case file;
- As in any other organisation, correctional staff members are transferred or resign; the easiest way for new staff members to acquaint themselves with inmates' information is through reviewing the case files;
- The inmates are also transferred from one correctional centre to another or from one unit to another. In this situation the inmates would take their case files with them so as to provide an overview of their progress during their sentence;

- The inmates who have longer sentences will therefore stay in a correctional centre for a longer period of time. During their stay, these inmates may be moved often and any changes will be reflected by the documentation in their individual case files; and
- Information on a specific inmate is sometimes required by, for instance, a welfare organisation, a non-governmental organisation or a parole board.

Therefore, various documents related to case management will be discussed by means of a table, below. An example of each document discussed is attached at the end of this thesis, under the heading "annexure".

TABLE 8: DOCUMENTATION AND CASE MANAGEMENT

Name of document	Purpose of document	Annexure
The case management file	To keep all documentation used in each inmate's case file. Basic information like names, registration number, date of birth, offence, sentence and classification particulars are indicated at the top of this file.	D
Inmate identification and a date form	To ensure that an inmate is lawfully admitted to a correctional facility. The form is attached to the case management file. However, before it is filed, it must be completed by social workers, medical service workers and the unit manager.	E
Inmate contact screening form	To determine different risk dimensions after an inmate has entered the correctional system. Inmates are interviewed upon admission and those who display high and medium risk factors should be considered for further assessment.	F
Inmate needs check list	To determine the social, health, and life skills	G

	needs of the inmate, as expressed by him or her.	
In-depth assessment	To scrutinize the aspect that influences the position of the inmate. Drug and alcohol use, the mental state of the inmate, suicidal history, social support system, intellectual abilities, housing and legal issues are also covered in the in-depth assessment.	H
Educational profile screening	To determine the educational and work history of the inmate. Short term educational goals are also addressed in this file.	I
Inmate history check in relation to allocation of employment	To ensure that the employment opportunity of an inmate is identified while serving his/her sentence.	J
Alcohol and other drug assessment	To ensure that previous inmate alcohol and drug abuse behavior is identified. This document will assist in referrals to social workers and medical workers in order to curb such behavior.	K
Case manager inmate referral form	To ensure that each inmate file is referred to the case manager. As part of good record keeping, the case management inmate referral form is used to record all referrals of inmates for specific treatment.	L
Individual case plan	To ensure the co-ordination and facilitation of effective rehabilitation of individual inmate.	M
Orientation information checklist	To ensure that the inmate went through an induction programme when she/he was admitted to the correctional facility.	N

4.7 RISK MANAGEMENT

The correctional environment is unique in comparison to the normal social environment. Inmates are detained in correctional facilities because they have committed various crimes. Therefore, the purpose of correctional systems is to curb such behaviour. Any risk that the inmate poses to himself or other inmates must be identified as soon as possible. According to Jones (1976: 4), a risk can be defined as "the capita frequency (rate) at which the occurrence of any kind of harm can be observed, estimated or predicted among a group of persons over a certain interval of time". Risk management refers to any action taken by the panel of correctional staff members to attempt to reduce the risk of the perpetration of an offence by a particular inmate (Singer, 2001: 26). In this study, risk management can be described as a process whereby correctional staff members can effectively deal with the most problematic correctional centre phenomena, such as substance abuse, sexual activities, escapees and violence.

According to Bernstein (1998: 2), risk management guides professionals in a vast range of decision-making processes, from intervention strategies to control mechanisms. In other words, through risk management, correctional staff members decide on the kind of treatment and security classification of each inmate. However, it is difficult to manage any risk without the assessment and identification of such risk. Furthermore, it is also difficult to differentiate between risk management and risk assessment. Assessments literally determine intervention and, as such, are integral to subsequent risk management strategies (Kemshall, 1998: 173). Therefore, risk assessment will be discussed in conjunction with risk management; this discussion will provide the reader with more clarity and a greater understanding of how to handle problematic prison phenomena.

The study of risk began during the Renaissance when mathematicians (namely de Mere von Liebniz and de Moivre) argued for the importance of accuracy of risk prediction. The development of risk management took place between 1654 and 1760 (Kemshall, 1998:168).

Inmate risk prediction has existed since the late 1920s in Canada. Currently, risk assessment is commonly used to classify inmates for placement in suitable levels of institutional security. Furthermore, risk assessment identifies the risk of any serious harm and danger and, as such, requires a holistic approach. According to Du Preez (2003: 263), risk assessment is the most vital instrument for good correctional management and it is an engine of case planning, decision making and rehabilitation measurement.

4.7.1 THE PURPOSE OF INMATE RISK MANAGEMENT

Correctional management is a process that involves many aspects. It is through proper management that each correctional goal can be achieved. The following diagram illustrates the most important aspects attached to the management of correctional institutions:

FIGURE 8: MANAGEMENT OF CORRECTIONAL CENTERS

One can derive, from the above diagram, that correctional managers have to pay attention to both officials and inmates. Poor management of one of these aspects can have a negative influence to the other one. In simple terms, the more satisfied correctional staff members are, the greater their chances of maintaining quality interaction with inmates. Similarly, the higher degree to which inmates have a faithful relationship with staff members, the more they will fully participate in rehabilitation programmes. According to Leschied (2001: 79), correctional staff members must

always make a meaningful assumption about the general level of risk in order to provide relevant input in case planning. Inmate risk management serves the following purposes:

- Determine the risk of reoffending;
- Assessing the risk posed by inmates (such as suicide, mutilation and escape);
- Understanding an inmate's previous criminal behaviour;
- Identifying the particular conditions under which inmates are likely to behave violently, aggressively or criminally;
- Assisting in inmate case planning;
- Safeguarding fellow inmates from risk and danger;
- Selecting appropriate targets for effective service delivery;
- Managing inmates in manner which decreases their criminal activity;
- Minimizing negative events and encouraging positive ones; and
- Assisting in the safe reintegration of offenders (Andrew and Bonta, 1998: 88).

4.7.2 RISK TAKING BEHAVIOUR IN CORRECTIONAL CENTERS

It is important to discuss the risks that inmates and correctional staff members are exposed to in correctional facilities. These discussions will help the reader understand the importance of risk management and interventions so as to prevent these risks. The risks that will be discussed include, amongst other things, sexual activities, drug use and gangsters in correctional facilities.

- **Sexual activities**

Sexual activities are common practice among inmates. Although sexual activities are prohibited in correctional institutions, it is difficult to control. In most cases they happen in private and during the night. As stated by the World Health Organisation (2007: 27), it is difficult to obtain reliable data on the prevalence of sexual activities in correctional facilities because of the many methodological, logistical, and ethical challenges of undertaking a study of sexual activities in correctional institutions.

In addition to the ethical issues attached to sexual activities in correctional facilities, Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (2000: 379) regard the prevalence of sexual activities amongst inmates as one of the most elusive statistics in correctional history. Since 1960, a small but increasing number of research studies have investigated sexual behaviour in correctional institutions around the world (Dumond, 2006: 38). It is well-known that unsafe sex can result in the contraction of sexually transmitted diseases, particularly HIV and AIDS. Most sexual activities in correctional institutions are said to be with multiple partners (Moshoeu, 2010: 140). Sexual activities in correctional institutions take place in variety of ways. Rape in correctional institutions can be almost unimaginably vicious and brutal (World Health Organisation, 2007: 27-28). According to Donaldson (1995:76), research has demonstrated that certain inmates appear to be at an increased risk of being raped, namely:

- Young and inexperienced inmates;
- First time inmates;
- Inmates with mental illness or developmental disabilities;
- Physically small or weak inmates;
- Inmates known to be homosexual;
- Transgendered inmates;
- Inmates who are not tough or streetwise;
- Inmates who are not gang affiliated; and
- Inmates who were previously sexually assaulted.

In addition to rape, consensual same-sex activity also occurs in correctional centres. In most cases, consensual same-sex activity takes place as an exchange for items such as food, drugs, money, protection or cigarettes. Most victims and men who have sex in correctional institutions do not identify themselves as homosexual and may not have experienced same sex relationships prior to their incarceration (Silverman, 2001: 240; Carlson and Garrett, 1999: 189).

- **Drug use**

The majority of sentenced inmates committed the offences for which they are charged under the influence of drugs and alcohol. This statement is supported by Feucht and Keyser (1999:11) who state that self reports from inmates indicate that they were addicted to drug before their incarceration. In the United States of America, in 1997, a survey on substance abuse and treatment found that 51 per cent of the inmate population detained in Federal and State Prisons uses drugs while committing their offences (Mumola, 1997: 1). According to Moshoeu (2010: 145) the use of drugs is a well-known problem within criminal justice systems, especially in correctional centres. From all these statements it is clear that special measures should be put in place to deal with inmates' substance abuse while serving their sentences as many inmates continue to use drugs while they are in correctional facilities, despite the preventative measures for the entrance of drugs in correctional facilities (Dolan, Khoie, Brentari and Stevens, 2007: 1). The use of drugs interferes with inmate rehabilitative progress and often results in further criminal activities in correctional facilities. Furthermore, drug abuse can also affect the health of other inmates.

Practices such as sharing needles and using a glass tube to inhale drugs can increase the risk of exposure to and the spread of infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS (Berman, 2004:37). According to Luyt (2008:150), in the South African Correctional System there are no clear statistics on drug usage in correctional centres. He further indicates that there is also no evidence for drug and alcohol testing. In South African correctional centres, the most common substances used by inmates are depressants (heroin and wellconal tablets) stimulants (cocaine) and hallucinogens (dagga) (Saah, 2005: 6). These substances affect the central nervous system and brain in different ways. The increased usage of these substances in correctional centres is a reflection of the situation in the general community.

- **Gangsterism and violence**

Gangsters and the formation of gangs in correctional facilities is a common phenomenon in most correctional systems around the world. According to Ndabandaba (1990: 335), a gang can be defined as a social group, distinguished from other social groups on the basis of three characteristics: antisocial behaviour, engagement and conflict. The characteristics of ordinary gangs operating from a social setting are similar to those of correctional centre gangs, i.e. antisocial (correctional centre gangs always operate against correctional centre rules), engagement (in most cases new inmates are recruited to join prison gang and they meet on a regular basis) and they are always engaged in conflict. Furthermore, Stinchcomb (2005:316) concurs with the above said statement by indicating that, like outside gangs, correctional centre gangs are united by using a common language and shared values. He further states that as the gang in free society tends to seek attention, recognition and a sense of belonging, this situation also takes place in the correctional centre setting. Correctional centre gangs can be defined as an organisation which operates within the correctional system, with their own code of conduct; gang members cause conflict, and take part in smuggling and other unauthorized activities in correctional centres.

Correctional centre gangs do not only offer protection to their members, they often pose a serious threat to the lives of other inmates and to the management of the correctional centre. In most cases, correctional centre gangs are responsible for all drug and alcohol handling inside correctional facilities. Gang activities are an integral part of life in South African correctional centres (Luyt, 2008: 150). Various strategies have been implemented in correctional systems around the world to deal with gangs, but it is difficult to combat gang activities in its totality. Generally, correctional centre gangs are responsible for robbery, assaults, theft, drugs, escapes and sexual activities in correctional facilities. As indicated, their activities tend to negatively affect the smooth management of correctional facilities. Finally, gang members can intimidate other inmates through threats and physical violence. Aside from their strong-arm tactics and corrupt activities, they can also threaten institutional security as they have the ability to unite the

inmate population into polarized groups that are prepared for collective violence (Stinchcomb, 2005: 319).

Violence is a common phenomenon in correctional centres. According to Seiter (2002: 235), correctional centre violence can be distinguished as either interpersonal violence or collective violence. Interpersonal violence is that which occurs between inmates and collective violence includes riots and disturbances initiated by one group of inmates against other. Correctional staff members are not often involved in correctional centre violence as this is manifest, in most cases, as violence is between inmates (Clear and Cole, 2000: 259). The reasons for inmates turning to violence in correctional centres include the following:

- Inmates believe that they will attain a greater social status in the subculture;
- Their self-esteem improves as they play the traditionally accepted role by acting aggressively in a correctional centre;
- If an inmate is known as an aggressor to other inmates the risk of being assaulted is prevented; and
- Inmates believe that they will benefit financially by turning to violence (Neser, 1993: 210).

4.8 SECURITY MANAGEMENT

As one of the primary responsibilities of correctional systems, the role of security is to ensure that inmates are detained in a fashion that assures their safety, as well as that of the staff and the public (Snarr, 1996:95; Department of Correctional Services, 2005: 149). For several decades, security was a key priority in correctional centres and the trend in correctional management and architecture has been to reduce contact between staff and inmates (Bruyns, 2010: 220). According to Luyt (1999: 114), people who see security in narrow terms criticize unit management for relegating security to second place, somewhere behind staff and inmates' relationships and human treatment. Unlike in unit management correctional centres, traditional correctional centres were designed to achieve safe custody. They have neither the staff nor the resources to provide for the physical, medical, psychological or social needs of inmates.

Unit management correctional centres are planned for detainment rather than punishment and, therefore, provide inmates with an environment that ensures safe and secure detention. According to Zupan (1991: 67-72), the following are the benefits of correctional centres using the unit management approach:

- The living units are arranged in such a way that staff members can observe all areas within the unit and blind spots or obstructions are minimized;
- Functional living units lead to an improved observation of inmates, enabling the early detection of problems before they reach critical proportions;
- There is a greater level of personal safety for both staff and inmates;
- Greater staff satisfaction, more orderly and relaxed inmate housing areas and a better maintained physical environment are additional benefits; and
- Vandalism or damage to property and equipment rarely occurs in the unit management design.

During the planning of the unit management correctional centre design, physical and interior security are considered for the safety of staff and inmates (Seiter, 2002: 211). The following exterior issues are considered, namely; exterior perimeters guard towers and external building walls as well as a facility patrol vehicle. Each of the said exterior issues will be discussed in detail below:

- **Exterior perimeters and building walls**

The fence of the correctional centre should be simple in form and allow staff members to observe large portions of the building. Moreover, the maximum view should be available from a minimum number of key points. Although other electronic devices can be utilized, visual supervision by direct personal observation also enhances security (Krasnow, 1998: 118). With regard to external building walls, the possibility of audible contact between inmates in the correctional centre as well as with persons on the outside must be prevented. In essence, cell windows located in a building's exterior wall should be placed at the highest possible position,

limiting observation in or outside, but permitting natural light to enter inmates' spaces (Krasnow, 1998: 119).

- **Guard tower and facility patrol vehicle**

According to Seiter (2002: 211), the exterior perimeters must be monitored and staff must address attempts to escape by breeching the outer fence. This is often achieved with the existence of towers along the perimeter. Guard towers also provide additional security for a large correctional centre in observing, controlling and preventing the penetration of the perimeter fence of the centre. Moreover, if towers are placed in line with the outer fence they can provide a view of the entire length of a fence. Placing the towers on the inner fence line will also allow for observation of the secure side of the correctional centre where inmates may potentially attempt to escape (Krasnow, 1998: 119).

In addition to towers, mobile patrol or staff members in vehicles that continuously drive around the perimeter can also respond to escape attempts (Seiter, 2002: 211). Furthermore, mobile patrol can be considered in addition to guard towers for improved control during incidents and when using a perimeter fence detection system (Krasnow, 1998:119). The second layer of security in many correctional centres is an internal perimeter, which may be either a physical area or an area which inmates are not allowed to enter (Seiter, 2002: 212). The following internal perimeters will be discussed below: internal classification, grouping of inmates programmes in one area, inmates housing units.

- **Internal classification**

An advantage of the unit management approach is the flexibility it provides in the internal classification of inmates and subsequent management of individual inmate cases. Identifying and assessing inmate needs and problem areas allow staff members to:

- Anticipate inmate reactions;
- Identify changes that could pose security risks; and
- Intercept problems before they escalate out of control (Bruyns, 2010: 228).

Internal classification is an additional component of classification, whereas external classification is the procedure for assigning inmates to a correctional centre which has the appropriate security features needed to control each inmate behaviour. Internal classification is an approach for systematically assigning inmates with similar behaviour characteristics to one housing unit within the correctional centre (Levinson, 1999: 77).

Internal classification houses inmates with similar interests and behaviour patterns together, thereby separating weak inmates from their possible perpetrators and reducing the number of acts of inmate-on-inmate violence and exploitation. Additionally, internal classification divides inmates into groups for different purposes and considerations, including:

- To assess and group inmates for the purpose of designating security and custody;
- To designate inmates for the appropriate housing placement within the correctional centre;
- To schedule reviews of security, custody and programme placement and to reassess needs progress for possible reclassification; and
- To assess inmates for placement in a community transition programme and for special needs (American Correctional Association, 1993: 5).

- **Grouping of inmates' programmes in one area**

One of the strengths of unit management is its flexibility. Unit managers and staff members have the opportunity to develop programmes that they feel are appropriate for their inmates (Levinson, 1999: 72). Therefore, to ensure security during programmes the interior architectural design of correctional centres provides maximum observation, supervision and control. The movement of inmates can be easily monitored and staff members can quickly respond to incidents which happen during these programmes (Krasnow, 1998: 120). The grouping of inmates' programmes in one area is generally preferred for inmate access and control. In other words, the programmes and other services take place in a single building which is accessible by unit management groups. Moreover, the space available for exercise and recreational activities is located within the

housing unit. According to Houston (1999: 329), closer interaction with inmates during internal programmes improves security.

Centralized outdoor playing fields for soccer, rugby and related activities are generally provided for the inmate population where they spend most of their time in an institution. Additionally, indoor recreation programmes for volley ball, table tennis and other related activities are located centrally to allow staff members to observe and supervise inmates from their control posts (Krasnow, 1999: 121-122).

4.9 HUMAN RIGHTS

Unit management has a tremendous influence on the basic human rights of inmates. This section offers a discussion of the influence of unit management in protecting human rights. Before the discussion it is important to understand the definition of human rights and the reasons why inmates are entitled to certain rights. The issue of inmates' rights is an international debate as some communities believe that, when incapacitated, inmates' rights should be taken away. However, it is important to understand that inmates are entitled to the same rights as any other citizen; the difference might be that some of their rights may be more limited than those of ordinary citizens.

Various scholars define human rights in different ways. According to Morodi (2004: 3), the term 'human rights' refers to those rights that all people are or should be entitled to regardless of race and gender. Furthermore, MacFarlane (1985: 3) defines human rights as the moral rights which are owed to each man or woman by every man or woman solely by reason of being human. As stated before, some inmates' rights may be more limited than those of ordinary citizens. What exactly are inmates' rights? Inmates' rights can be described as a "penal policy or regime which respects the inmates' inherent dignity as a person, recognizes that they do not surrender

protection of the law on being incarcerated, and accords procedures and facilities for ensuring that their treatment is at all times fair and human" (Kaguongo, 2003: 16). From Kaguongo's definition on inmate rights, it is clear that inmates must be respected, treated with dignity and the authorities must ensure that inmates are treated fairly as human beings.

Human rights are components of unit management, and if unit management is applied correctly it will protect and promote the human rights of inmates. As indicated in chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, these rights are meant for every citizen in the country and they strive to uplift the human dignity, equality and freedom of everyone (Republic of South Africa, 1996: 18). In this study, only those rights that are supported by unit management will be discussed. The following human rights can be highlighted as ones that are effectively supported by the application of unit management, namely:

- The right to equality;
- The right to life;
- The right to human dignity;
- The right to freedom and security of the person;
- The right to privacy;
- The right to freedom of religion, belief and opinion;
- The right to freedom of expression;
- The right to freedom of association;
- The environmental rights, and;
- The right to administrative action.

The effect of unit management on the rights indicated above is briefly discussed below. The most important aspect of unit management, its applicability, the advantage of architecture, the influence of staff members and their interaction with inmates, institutional security and

administration as well as the management of the institution will be discussed in conjunction with each human right stated above.

- **The right to equality**

The right to equality is contained in Section 9 of the Bill of Rights and the most relevant subsections to this study are subsection 3 and 4. Subsection 3 indicates that the state may not unfairly discriminate, either directly or indirectly, against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth. Furthermore, subsection 4 makes provision that no person shall be discriminated, either directly or indirectly, against by anyone on one or more grounds in terms of subsection 3. Unlike the traditional management of correctional centres in unit management, inmates are properly assessed by a multidisciplinary team. Through this assessment inmates are referred to the relevant units that will cater for their rehabilitative development.

No inmates will be discriminated against according to the crime that they have committed, their race and their health status. Furthermore, correctional managers will be able to justify why they had referred a particular inmate to a specific section. Correctional officials are also responsible for smaller groups of inmates under the supervision of a unit manager, and this has a positive impact on individual assessment; in addition, closer relationships are also possible between them. When a correctional official is responsible for a large group of inmates they often neglect certain inmates and this could cause inmates to claim that they are discriminated against or not treated equally (Jonker, 2010: 262).

- **The rights to life**

The life of every inmate can be under threat if risks that may endanger an inmate's life could not be prevented. In direct supervision, correctional officials observe inmate behaviour from every angle of the housing unit. This gives them an opportunity to provide inmates with more protection against life-threatening attacks by other inmates. Furthermore, through risk

assessment and management, hardened inmates are separated from the general population (Jonker, 2010: 263).

- **The right to human dignity**

Section 10 of the Constitution states that everyone has the inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity protected and respected (Republic of South Africa, 1996: 9). Irrespective of the fact that inmates have committed crimes, their dignity must be respected and protected. In unit management, the case management process encourages inmates to have input in every decision that affects them. Furthermore, a close relationship between themselves and correctional officials gives them a sense of trust. Human dignity is not only about respect, but also about how we give people opportunities to express themselves. If everyone is given this opportunity they will respect themselves and others. In the correctional environment, this will help inmates to make peace with their situation and promote a positive response towards their rehabilitation.

- **The rights to freedom and security of the person**

The right to freedom and security can be linked to the right to life; the more risky the environment, the more limited the freedom and the greater the need for security. Better inmate control, movement, classification, and security plans ensure improved freedom and security.

- **The right to privacy**

Section 14 of the Constitution stipulates that everyone has the right to privacy, which includes the right not to have:

(a) Their person or home searched;
(b) Their property searched;
(c) Their possessions seized; and
(d) The privacy of their communications infringed (Republic of South Africa, 1996: 11).

In correctional centre, inmates' accommodation must be properly searched all the time. In other words, their right to privacy is limited. However, due to the fact that inmates are detained in single cells in unit management, their right to privacy is more protected dormitory or communal cells. Furthermore, correctional officials are always in an ideal position to observe inmates and have a closer relationship with inmates.

- **The right to freedom of religion, belief and opinion**

Section 15 of the Constitution states that everyone has the right to freedom of conscience, religion, thought, belief and opinion. In correctional centres, inmates are protected by section 15 of the Constitution to practice their religion without interference from anyone or without being compelled by anyone (Republic of South Africa, 1996: 14). Because of the structured unit activities and programmes in unit management, inmates are provided with the opportunity practice their religion on a daily basis. According to Levinson (1999: 69), the unit manager develops a schedule of unit programmes, which specify the time, place and frequency of such programmes. Moreover, an inmates' advisory council is appointed in every unit. Through the inmates' advisory council inmates gain the opportunity to raise their beliefs and opinions with regard to the daily activities in their unit. The advisory council has a twofold role, namely; to advise the unit staff of the concerns, wishes, ideas and projects voiced by inmates in the unit (Levinson, 1999:73).

- **The rights to freedom of expression**

In unit management, inmates had an opportunity to have "town hall" meetings (town hall meetings are discussed in detail in chapter 2). According to Levinson (1999: 73), a town hall meeting is a large group meeting held in each unit weekly, and lasts sixty to ninety minutes. It is scheduled after the unit managers' staff meeting for a time when all the unit staff and inmates can attend. Town hall meetings give inmates the opportunity to express their complaints and requests as a collective, or through a spokesperson.

- **The right to freedom of association**

Due to a structured day programme, in unit management, inmates have the opportunity to interact with each order. This interaction happens during school, industrial, recreation and vocation training time. Furthermore, this interaction could also take place in the evenings when inmates are given the opportunity to move freely within the unit. Yet they can also isolate themselves in their cells should they prefer not to associate with others (Levinson, 1999: 71).

- **Environmental rights**

In most cases, the architecture of correctional facilities that practice the unit management approach reflects the social setting. The correctional centre is divided into different manageable units and each unit has a name, vision and mission. This implies that the accommodation in unit management complies with the health requirements for inmates, in particular the minimum floor space, cubic air capacity, lighting, heating and ventilation. Outdoor recreation activities within the unit allow natural light to enter the dayroom (Levinson, 1999: 123).

- **The right to administrative action**

According to subsection 1 of section 33 of the Constitution, everyone has the right to administrative action that is lawful, reasonable and procedurally fair. Subsection 2 makes provision that everyone whose rights have been adversely affected by administrative action has the right to be given written reasons. The main factor that has a positive influence on this right is the decentralized nature of unit management. As each unit is managed by a unit manager it is easy for inmates to confront the unit manager immediately in the case of any incident that violated their right to just administrative action. According to Jonker (2010: 266), the following table summarizes aspects of unit management that have beneficial effects on administrative action:

TABLE 9: UNIT MANAGEMENT AND JUST ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION

Aspect of unit management	Effect on administrative action
Direct supervision and more interaction between correctional officials and inmates	Compliance with the audi alteram pattern rule is enhanced, i.e. inmates have more opportunity to be heard (to state their side of a matter).
Individual case management	Better attention is given to the merits of particular cases.
Decentralized nature of unit management	Correctional officials in the units can make and justify decisions directly, with knowledge of the relevant context and personal implications.
"Town hall" meetings	These give inmates a further opportunity to be heard.

Source: Adapted from Jonker (210:266)

4.10 SUMMARY

Unit management consists of five components, namely: architecture, case management, risk management, security management and human rights. Unit management is not a programme; it is an effective approach to managing correctional centres (Houston, 1999: 83). In other words, it must be implemented to improve the ability of correctional staff members to manage the inmate population effectively. Therefore, unit management must be applied as a package so that its effectiveness can be easily noticed. In this chapter the components of unit management have been discussed. The last component, namely human rights, was discussed in the context of the South African Constitution. The role of multidisciplinary staff members within unit management approach will be discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER 5

INTEGRATED ROLES OF TEAM MEMBERS IN UNIT MANAGEMENT AND YOUTH CORRECTIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Unit management is an effective approach to managing correctional institutions. However, for unit management to fulfil its purpose, a team of dedicated staff members should be responsible for the daily operation of correctional institutions. In other words, unit management cannot be effective if correctional staff members are neither committed nor properly trained to work within this approach. This also applies to the commitment that needs to be shown by correctional staff members who work with youth offenders. Youth offenders are often classified as special needs offenders by many correctional systems (Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser, 1995: 155; Dlamalala; 2011: 121). Therefore, their treatment should always be different from that of adult offenders. As indicated in chapter 2, one of the purposes of correctional systems is to rehabilitate offenders. The rehabilitation of youth offenders lies not only in correctional centre architecture, offenders' commitment to change, external stakeholders and families, but staff members must also play an important role in the daily execution of their duties and in the treatment and rehabilitation of youth offenders.

Essentially, one of the core businesses of correctional staff members is to ensure that offenders are properly rehabilitated after their release. Unit management simplifies the duties of correctional staff members. Each member of staff is responsible for a specific task within the institution. Unlike the traditional management approach where decision making is centralized, unit management allows decision making to be decentralized (Levinson, 1999: 27). In other words, each unit has a set objective to be attained. Furthermore, staff members have a propensity to multi-task and the opportunity to deal with individual cases productively which, in turn, promotes cooperation and the successful rehabilitation of youth offenders. In this chapter the

functions and responsibility of each staff member in unit management and youth corrections will be discussed. Aspects such as their training and development will be at the centre of these discussions. Correctional officials are an integral part of correctional planning. A considerable amount of attention will also be given to their roles and functions. Finally, a discussion of the importance of the external role players in corrections will conclude this chapter.

5.2 THE ROLE OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

Correctional officials constitute a large number of employees within correctional systems around the world. The rest of the staff complement is made up of professionals like social workers, psychologists, healthcare workers, chaplains and medical practitioners. Often, most staff members in corrections begin their careers as correctional officials. According to Carlson and Garrett (2008: 243), correctional officials are commonly known as guards performing various shifts and responsibilities in the facilities. Unlike previous centuries in which the main purpose of incarceration was to ensure that offenders suffer while serving their sentences, the core business of contemporary corrections is the rehabilitation of offenders.

In other words, the correctional official's role is extended from ordinary "guard" to "rehabilitator". In his view of the correctional environment and officials, Cornelius (2001:159) indicates that correctional officials are temporarily locked in correctional centres, just as the inmates. He further adds that during their shift they must be able to:

- Communicate with inmates in two ways or a reciprocal fashion; and
- Give instructions in a way that allows inmates to willingly comply.

In general terms, there must always be a good relationship between correctional officials and inmates. Good relationships often smooth the process of inmates' personal development and support the concept of rehabilitation. In 1974, the shift from the punishment of inmates to their

rehabilitation was preached by many countries around the world. Brown and Sisson (in Wicks, 1980: 55) state the following in relation to this shift in corrections:

"*Change in correction, where it is sought at all, is always unidirectional- always from lesser to greater emphasis on rehabilitation. Consequently, institutional training initiated to felt need to change become very largely concerned with the roles of correctional officials. If the work of the institution is to become increasingly rehabilitative, then those correctional staff members traditionally associated with rehabilitation are mostly to be required to modify their roles. The correctional institution on the move now finds the role of guards less and less acceptable so it makes new demands on the people filling that roles".*

It is clear from the above quotation that the shift to the rehabilitative idea places significant emphasis on the role of correctional officials in correctional systems. In this chapter, the researcher intends to examine the role of correctional officials within correctional intuitions, specifically in the unit management approach. The role of correctional officials today is more active than simply providing safe custody to inmates. What makes matters worse in their daily activities is the type of inmate detained in correctional facilities. Today's inmate populations generally consist of various kinds of offenders, including high profile inmates and a large number of youth offenders.

Therefore, correctional officials are required to perform a variety of tasks and understand the philosophy and functions of the correctional institution in which they are employed. Moreover, they must also understand their limits of responsibility and the amount of authority which can be used to perform their duties, in addition to understanding their relationships with other employees (American Correctional Association, 1983: 8). Generally, the roles of correctional officials are influenced by the changes in inmate profiles as well as the mission and vision of a particular correctional system, including each facility's objectives. It is clear that the daily operations of any correctional facility are always influenced by the goal that it is willing to

achieve. For many correctional systems, correctional officials' roles are always divided into formal and informal roles. These roles are discussed in detail below.

5.2.1 FORMAL ROLES OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

According to Cornelius (2001: 25), the following aspects can be regarded as the most important formal roles of correctional officials. To ensure the safe and secure custody of inmates each correctional official must adhere to the following:

1. They must perform regular checks and count inmates on a continuous basis. Regular checks must also be done on inmates detained in solitary confinement and segregation;

2. They must also perform searches on inmates, including searches of their housing units, cells and working areas. The purpose of the said searches is to ensure that inmates do not smuggle unauthorized articles into the correctional facility;

3. The admission of new inmates is also performed by correctional officials. However, the necessary documentation must be in order before an inmate is admitted into a correctional centre. Moreover, inmates must be searched, placed in confinement and medically checked;

4. They must also observe inmate behaviour and activities. Correctional officials must observe inmates for any violation of rules, unauthorized behaviour and any sign of depression;

5. Supervise inmates on work assignments and provide directions and issue instruction;

6. Enforce rules and laws and investigate any inmates who commit unauthorized behaviour. Correctional officials must also enforce these rules. Inmates who violate any rules must be reported and disciplinary action must be taken against them;

7. Correctional officials must also inspect the correctional centre's security system and environment. In addition to regular searches, they must also inspect the cells, housing units, recreational facilities, administration offices, windows and cell bars, gates, cameras, intercom

and two way radios on a daily basis. Outgoing and incoming mail must also be inspected by correctional officials, for unauthorized articles;

8. Escort or transport inmates to court, hospitals, to and from housing unit, programmes, recreation and transfer inmates to other facilities. The admission of inmates' visitors is also performed by correctional officials; and

9. Finally, correctional officials participate in inmates' disciplinary hearings.

5.2.2 INFORMAL ROLES OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

Informally, the correctional official must be able to report everything within sight and hearing and, as often as possible, be able to interpret what he sees and hears. The correctional environment is totally different from that of the learning institution. Inmates are incarcerated because they have committed various criminal activities. Therefore, they will always try to take advantage of every opportunity which arises to further their criminal activities. Correctional officials must always be alert to every condition that affects incarceration and rehabilitation (American Correctional Association, 1962: 15). Correctional officials can also perform many functions informally. These informal roles that the official performs include the duty to:

1. Recognize any mental illness observed from inmates and refer them to qualified mental health staff within and outside the correctional centre;

2. Provide legal advice to inmates by informing them of their sentence and court dates or represent inmates in a disciplinary hearing (should policy allow for the latter).

3. Being role models and encouraging inmates to live a hygienic life.

4. When asked, providing answers to inmates about policies, programmes and rules. Some correctional officials conduct orientations for newly arrived inmates.

5. Giving advice to inmates on how to properly conduct them and how to handle their personal problems.

6. Lastly, to intervene in and defuse inmate disputes before verbal disagreement rises to full scale physical altercations (Cornelius, 2001: 28).

In addition to the abovementioned formal and informal roles of the correctional official, Wicks (1980: 51-52) further indicates that correctional officials are also required to fulfil the role of security officer, disciplinarian, a middle man between the inmates and treatment staff, treatment agent, case worker, practical psychologist, educator, administrative officer, transportation officer, shop supervisor and consultant. In brief, correctional officials ensure public safety by providing security and control of inmates, as well as reintegration programmes. Correctional officials are often responsible for the prevention of incidents like violence taking place in the correctional centre. In a study on the role of stress among correctional staff, Lambert, Hogan and Tucker (2009: 461) point out that correctional official are responsible for numerous tasks and duties necessary to run a safe, secure, and humane correctional centre. Therefore, the success, or failure of correctional organisations can often be traced back to the staff. In Frank's view (1996: 276), the closer that correctional officials move to the main theme of the correctional processes, namely; the rehabilitation and reintegration of inmates as well as the reduction of recidivism, the further they will away from the traditional function of correctional keeper.

It is evident, from the above discussion, that the roles of correctional officials are not clear. The uncertain roles of correctional officials often lead to high stress levels and a high turnover of correctional officials. Liebling and Price (2001: 57-58) provide evidence for this from a study on the source of stress and the role of conflict in correctional facilities. They established that correctional officials face difficulties in reconciling the two main aims of their work: custody and care. On the one hand, correctional officials are charged with the maintenance of security and control while, on the other, they are asked to help, befriend and support inmates in dealing with

their behaviour. Correctional officials are frequently unsure of which aspect/s of their role should take precedence in a given situation. According to Liebling and Price (2001: 58), the study on stress and the role of conflict among correctional officials was supported in the research findings of other studies. In these studies, the question: "When correctional officials are caught between the risk of inmate suicide on the one hand, and the risk of escape on the other, which takes precedence, and how do they decide?" was asked.

Chaka (1998: 41) also suggests that the demands placed on and stress evident in the lives of South African correctional officials are related to a high degree of responsibility for people, threats to personal safety, rotating shifts and unpleasant physical surroundings. Bergh (1997: 17) provides evidence that South African correctional centres are facing a crisis. Some professionals and correctional officials might leave their jobs due to the increasing demands and continuous stress. Irrespective of whether correctional officials are deployed at specific sections or areas they are obligated to respond or assist in any incident that occurs in the correctional centre.

Moreover, the correctional centre environment is surrounded by conflicts among inmates. Correctional officials sometimes had to deal with incidents of murder and suicide, which often lead to job dissatisfaction and stress. According to Auerbach, Quick and Pegg (2003: 25), the job of correctional officials, in particular, has been rated as the most stressful of all occupations. The seriousness of the physical and psychological effects of stress on the correctional officials has significant implications for mental health management in this type of organisation (Botha and Pienaar, 2006: 73). Although the purpose of this study is not to evaluate the stress levels of correctional officials but, due to their unclear multiple tasking roles, it becomes difficult to distinguish between the role of an official who is responsible for the administration and admission of inmates and one who does not work directly with inmates. If, for instance, an inmate escapes, then the official who works in admission will be expected to assist in the recapturing of the inmate.

Therefore, in the unit management approach, correctional officials are divided into two groups. The first group falls directly under the unit manager and the other group falls under security managers. According to Luyt (2000: 67), in unit management correctional officials perform duties in three shifts. Correctional officials who work the day and evening shift represent those who fall under the unit manager, while those who work the night shift perform their duties after all activities have stopped and inmates are locked in their cells. This group falls under the supervision of the security manager. Other correctional officials can be appointed as unit managers, case officers, case managers, case management co-ordinators, unit secretaries, and correctional counsellors.

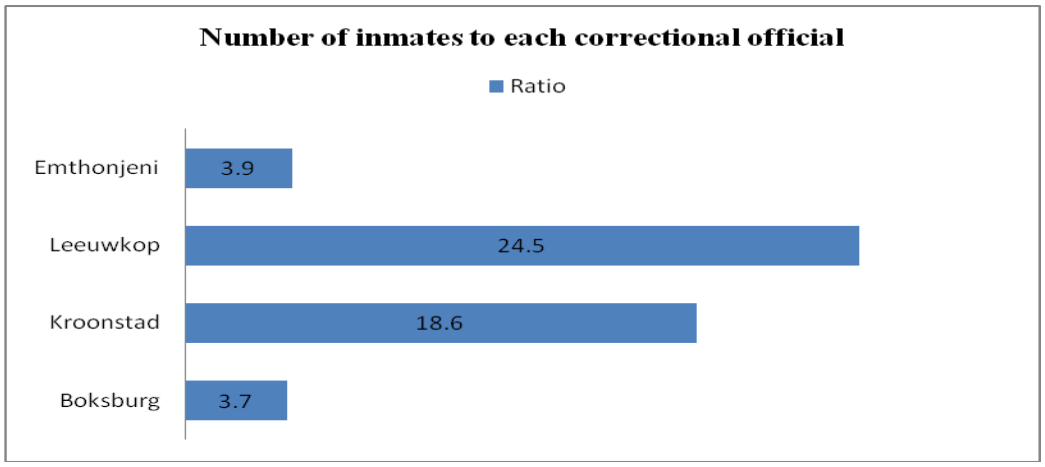
5.2.3 CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS: INMATE RATIO IN SELECTED YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTRES.

The correctional officials' population is often determined by the number of inmates detained in each correctional centre. Security is always at the forefront of staff establishment planning. Although the security and rehabilitation of inmates are their core functions, the training and responsibilities of correctional officials are security based. Afterwards they are required to perform additional tasks and play an important role in inmate development. Furthermore, in the South African situation, correctional officials are randomly trained and deployed in correctional centres regardless of whether the centre is a medium, maximum, youth or female centre. In other words, there is no specialized training for specific correctional centres and a specific category of inmate population.

The Department of Correctional Services in South Africa regards youth in corrections as a unique and vulnerable category of offenders whose needs have to be addressed in a specific manner. Therefore, there must be some degree of similarity between the training and selection of correctional officials deployed in youth development centres. The youth development centres selected for this study were very different in size, and they have different security levels and

purposes (as well as physical designs), each of which affects the required staffing levels. Bar chart 1, below, shows the inmate: correctional officials' ratio for all centres selected by the researcher for this study.

BAR CHART 1: CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS: INMATES RATIO



Bar Chart 1 shows the inmates: correctional officials' ratio for all inmates in the selected youth development centres. As is evident, there is a substantial difference between the centres with the highest correctional official: inmate ratio (Leeuwkop, 24.5 inmates per official) to that with the lowest (Boksburg, maximum centre with 3.7 inmates per correctional official). Bar chart 1 also shows that Emthonjeni has a lower official: inmate ratio. Unlike the other three centres, Emthonjeni's operations are unit management based. However, the daily conditions were similar to those of the other three traditional centres. Furthermore, two housing units were closed due to poor sanitation and a lack of maintenance. Similarly, Boksburg, because it is maximum security centre with higher security ratings, has a higher correctional official: inmate ratio. This means that, in addition to the higher level of physical security at this establishment, there is also higher number of correctional officials relative to inmates.

5.3 THE ROLE OF THE UNIT MANAGER

Unlike correctional managers or heads of correctional centres who are responsible for the general management of correctional facilities, unit managers are responsible for the daily operation of the housing unit or section. Moreover, unit managers are responsible for the planning, development, administration, co-ordination, supervision and evaluation of unit programmes for inmates (Du Preez, 2003: 171; Luyt, 2010: 61). In most cases, senior correctional officials are appointed as unit managers. The reason for this is their experience and general knowledge of the correctional centre environment. In addition to these characteristics, Luyt (2010: 62) points out that a unit manager should also have the following skills:

- They should have extensive knowledge of criminology and corrections sciences;
- They should display management skills in the administration of treatment programmes;
- They should have comprehensive knowledge of the dynamics of human behaviour; and
- They should have thorough knowledge of search procedures with regard to people and property.

In general, unit managers direct and manage the housing unit to which they are assigned. They are also responsible for the total administration of the unit as well as the overall planning, development and implementation of individual programmes tailored to meet the particular needs of inmates within the unit. Parole progress reports, transfer recommendations, correspondence of inmates with their attorneys, a judge and probation officials are monitored by unit managers. The following table illustrates the role of the unit manager in a unit, and in the supervision of staff members and supervision of inmates (Luyt, 2010: 63-64).

TABLE 10: THE ROLE OF UNIT MANAGER

Role of unit manager in a unit	Role of unit manager for staff members	Role of unit manager for inmates
• Plan and organize security emergency procedure within the housing unit. • Continuously arrange case management team meetings and act as a chairperson for such meetings. • In consultation with the unit secretary, prepare staff rosters. • Make decisions about unit searches. • Review staff members' job descriptions and ensure that the set unit goals are achieved. • Ensure that inmates and staff members' grievances are always solved and treated with confidentiality.	• Provide leadership and guidance for all staff members. • Supervise staff members and conduct performance evaluations, and ensure that staff members are properly placed. • Orient staff and scheduling staff training. • Monitor the progress of case plans and ensure that case files are up to date.	• Plan overall custody and supervision of inmates. • Ensure that the relationship between staff members and inmates is good and that staff members assist inmates in need. • Facilitate induction programmes for new inmates in the unit. • Allocate inmates to case managers. • Deal with the complaints and requests of inmates within the unit.

5.4 THE ROLE OF CASE MANAGERS AND CASE OFFICERS

Case mangers and case officers are directly responsible for the initial assessment, classification and sentence plan of each inmate. Both the case manager and case officer fall under the direct supervision of the unit manager. A set number of inmates (caseload) are assigned to the case manager. According to Luyt (1999: 65), the case manager is responsible for all aspects of case management for a particular case load. Du Preez (2003: 187) adds that case managers must interact with other stakeholders, for example other criminal justice departments, non-governmental organisations and the inmates' family. Furthermore, case managers must also organize individual and group counselling, attend formal case management meetings and ensure that all inmates on his/her caseload are actively involved in rehabilitation programmes.

Case managers should regularly interact with inmates; the recommendation is that this interaction should take place, at least, every six months. The case manager fulfils an important role in the reintegration of inmates into the community as he/she assesses inmate rehabilitative progress and prepares the required documents for parole review. In addition to these roles, case managers should also perform the following duties:

- Ensure the continuity and consistency of case management;
- Provide support for case officers and unit managers;
- Monitor progress, case plans and inmates through programme review;
- Ensure that case files are kept up to date;
- Evaluate the effectiveness of case management;
- Chair case management meetings in the absence of the unit manager;
- Ensure that an initial assessment is undertaken;
- Complete classification and assessment forms; and
- Oversee the proper storage and confidentiality of inmates' case files (Luyt, 2000: 65).

The role of the case officer is almost the same as that of the case manager; the only difference is in the execution of tasks. The case manager's role is more managerial and the case officer's role is more administrative. The main role of case officers is to be responsible for the case management of a specific number of inmates and support them in their personal development. The case officer also conducts the initial interviews of newly admitted inmates. Through these interviews, a rehabilitation plan is discussed with inmates. With regard to the rehabilitation path, the case officer monitors the inmate's progress by observing, interviewing and recording his/her observations in the case file. The case officer:

- Assesses the needs of inmates on the caseload, and this assessment is based on objective observation, interaction and factual data;
- Defines inmate problems accurately and refers cases;
- Reviews case files on a regular basis, with particular focus on the special attention section (s);
- Assists inmates in setting realistic goals;
- Acts as an advocate for inmates;
- Participates in case management team meetings; and
- Keeps files updated and makes accurate notes about individual cases (Luyt, 2010: 66).

Unlike the role of the correctional official, the roles of the case manager and case officer more specific and clear. Moreover, case managers and case officers' roles are more oriented towards the development and rehabilitation of inmates, rather than security. Although the process of case management is more psychological and involves numerous assessments and documentation it always leads to more active custody (Du Preez, 2003: 172). Inmates are similar to patients, although inmates committed criminal offences and patients are experiencing pains due to diseases, since both of them need a permanent cure that will help them live a more positive life after being institutionalized. Inmates have offended society and the government and, as a consequence, they are punished through incapacitation. Therefore, their treatment programme must help them become law abiding citizens. Although the roles of case managers and case officers focus specifically on inmate treatment, their goal is achieved through the intervention of

other professional staff members. In the ensuing sections of this chapter, a detailed discussion of the role of various professional staff members in corrections is offered.

5.5 THE ROLES OF CUSTODIAL THERAPISTS

In addition to the abovementioned staff members' roles, the success of the correctional system and inmate rehabilitation process are also influenced by custodial therapists. These include social workers, psychologists, criminologists, spiritual care workers, educationalists, medical practitioners and healthcare workers (Seiter, 2002: 378). Other external stakeholders like non-governmental organisations, external spiritual care workers and volunteers can also play an important role within correctional institutions. They can be utilized in various rehabilitative programmes, provide emotional and psychological support to both inmates and family members and execute community based programmes in conjunction with the correctional centre. Adding to the questionnaires distributed and collected from the inmates, the researcher requested that the Head of correctional centres provides him with information on the inmate population, the number of correctional officials, custodial therapists and external stakeholders responsible for the daily operation of their centres. The following table illustrates the number of staff members and external stakeholders, as well as the inmate population during the research visits.

TABLE 11: STAFF MEMBERS AND EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS AT YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTRES

Staff members and external stakeholders	Emthonjeni	Leeuwkop	Kroonstad	Boksburg
Correctional Officials	127	136	126	147
Unit Managers	3	4	3	4
Case Officers	3	3	3	4
Social Workers	2	3	2	2
Psychologists	0	0	0	0
Criminologists	0	1	0	0
Spiritual Care Workers	1	1	1	2
Medical Practitioners	1	1	1	1
Health Care Workers	3	3	3	4
Educationalists	6	4	4	3
NGOs	5	5	4	5
Volunteers	0	0	0	0
Inmate population	**374**	**789**	**749**	**365**

Table 11 indicates each centre's inmate population and the number of correctional staff members who are responsible for the daily operation of each facility. A review of these statistics makes it clear that the number of correctional officials is larger than that of other staff members. Moreover, it is clear that in each correctional centre there are only a few custodial therapists, including external role players. The importance of each role player will be discussed in detail in the next section.

5.5.1 THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS

Social work services are extremely important in correctional settings. Social work services enhance the social functioning and coping abilities of inmates and link them with the systems that provide them with resources, services and opportunities. It also promotes the effective, human operation of these systems. Furthermore, social work services aim to help inmates meet their daily basic needs whilst enabling them to develop capacities and strengths that will improve their social functioning after release. Social work services are offered to sentenced inmates by qualified social workers. According to Ambrosino, Heffernan, Shuttlesworth and Ambrosino (2005: 421), the role of social workers in the correctional system was not important in the past. They further add that social workers were only used when inmates entered and left the correctional centre.

In the South African Correctional system, the Directorate of Social Work Services is responsible for providing therapeutic, informative, supportive, crisis intervention, development, administrative, assessment and evaluation services (Dlamalala, 2011: 125). All these services are rendered by qualified social workers. Therefore, the role of social workers within correctional services is:

- To strengthen the relationship between inmates and their families;
- To provide a professional assessment and facilitate social work services and programmes with inmates;
- To link inmates with other stakeholders that will provide them with resources, services and opportunities that will help them re-settle within their communities after their release. Social workers often help disabled and old inmates receive social grants after their release;
- To identify inmate strengths that could influence behavioural change;
- To enhance the inmate's capacity to deal with the demands of their social environment;
- To formulate achievable goals for each inmate, within their rehabilitative programme;
- To ensure goal-oriented services to special categories of inmates in terms of their accommodation, custodial programmes, development and treatment programmes with a view

to the empowerment and enhancement of their total functioning within the family and the community;

- To organize in-house awareness and information sharing campaigns in order to expand the knowledge of inmates on child protection, domestic violence, crime prevention and human rights;
- To co-ordinate the development of distinctive and comprehensive policies for special category inmates regarding accommodation, custodial development and treatment in consultation with relevant directories and other parties; and
- To facilitate contact between inmates and their families in order to build and maintain healthy family relationships so that family stability is maintained (Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser, 1995: 140; Department of Correctional Services, undated: 1).

It is thus clear that social workers play a prominent role in inmate development. Social workers are qualified personnel and their training is based on human services and social intervention. Incarceration often creates a gap between inmates and their normal community setting. Family interaction is temporarily blocked, inmates fail to take on their family responsibilities and other social responsibilities are taken away from the inmates. Generally, incarceration negative consequences for inmates as they suffer psychologically and physically while incarcerated. It is therefore imperative that the services of social workers be utilized in every correctional facility to ensure that each inmate copes with his/her social challenges. Social work uses three methods of counselling, namely: case work, group work, and community services. In this section only two methods, case work and group work, will be discussed.

- **Social case work**

Social case work aims to perform charity work which encompasses solving problems rather than changing personalities. Inmates tend to participate in criminal activities as a consequence of the personal problems that they experience. Issues like poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, peer pressure and dysfunctional families often tend to drive inmates to commit criminal offences. From a social work perspective, Thomas Brennan and his colleagues (Abidinsky, 1991: 256)

indicate that case work can be defined as the development of a relationship between the social worker and the client, within a problem solving context. Moreover, Ambrosino et al. (2005: 33) is of the opinion that case work is a method of social work that is geared towards helping inmates identify solutions to personal or other problems related to the difficulties they experience in social functioning. This definition substantiates the notion that social case work seeks to "solve problems instead of changing personality". In correctional centres, the purpose of case work amongst inmates is embodied in this question from social workers: "could you please tell me what encouraged you to commit the offence that you are incarcerated for?" Understanding an inmate's social background is the core of social case work and, thus, allows for greater comprehension of inmate criminal behaviour.

In case work, the social worker needs to collect information about where inmates live, work and participate in leisure activities. Griffins, Quinsey and Hingsburg (1989: 35) imply that once the inmate provides his/her personal background, current difficulties should be discussed. As a result, identifying inmate needs will be based on all the information that is gathered, including the inmate's own perception of his/her needs. In other words, during assessment interviews and orientation, social workers should provide inmates with the opportunity to explain what they need to become law abiding citizens (Walsh, 1992: 162). According to Abadinsky (1991: 257), social case work can be divided into three basic operations: study, diagnosis and treatment. These operations also focus on inmate progress from the time of arrival to the time of release. The following table illustrates the role of social workers in social case work operations:

TABLE 12: BASIC OPERATIONS OF SOCIAL CASE WORK

Operation	Role of social worker in each operation
Study	• On admission the social worker must establish a good relationship with the inmate. • The social worker should also give the inmate an opportunity to explain his/her personal background and experiences. • The social worker should identify inmate social-role problems. • Finally, the social worker should decide on the type of interventions that should be placed on the inmate until his/her release.
Diagnosis	• The social worker should provide a realistic assessment for every individual assessment. • The social worker should refer the inmate to other internal or external therapists for further treatment. • The social worker should provide information that will help the inmate see which steps he or she should take in various situations.
Treatment	• The social worker should help the inmate take the responsibility for his/her actions. • The social worker should assess and review inmate progress in every rehabilitative programme. • The social worker should provide ego support by expressing interest, sympathy and confidence. • The social worker should work directly with the inmate's family; this often assists the social worker in broadening his/her delivery to help the inmate. • The social worker should help the inmate to reintegrate into society after his/her release.

- **Social group work**

Unlike social case work, social group work encourages inmates to participate in group discussions and exchange their experiences and opinions with other inmates. In the opinion of Ambrosino et al. (2005: 33), group work techniques seek to enrich inmates' lives through planned group exercises. Social group work can also be defined as a collection of inmates or a group of inmates who are independent from one another and who share the conception of being a unit distinguishable from another collection of inmates (Douglas, 1976: 7). Social group work is a positive programme that should be implemented and encouraged in a correctional centre environment. In most cases, social group work consists of inmates with similar social backgrounds who share common goals. Furthermore, a group may also be organised on the basis of age, or common problems such as drugs or alcohol abuse. According to Abadisky (1991: 264), a variety of approaches can be applied in correctional settings to promote social group work. These approaches include:

- Gestalt therapy: An experiential form of psychotherapy that emphasizes personal responsibility.
- Transitional analysis: An integrative approach to the theory of psychology and psychotherapy.
- Psychoanalytic group therapy: A form of psychotherapy in which one or more therapists treat a small group of inmates together.

Social workers must always take part in social group work. The reason for the involvement of social workers is to ensure that inmates make informed decisions and they cooperate with one another throughout the discussion process. The goal of social group work is to guide inmates towards change by exploring and assessing their values, attitudes, and behaviours. Social group work, in an institutional setting, also offers the following advantages as indicated by Walsh (1988: 198):

- The methods can be effectively applied even if the institution does not have enough personnel. Furthermore, in this method a large number of inmates can be counselled at the same time.
- A group with a pro-social purpose offers inmates a constructive alternative to antisocial inmate cliques that form in response to the need, of human beings in general, for social interaction.
- As a result of sharing in problem solving discussions within the group, inmates learn much about problem solving strategies.
- Inmates can also learn about alternative strategies which can, in turn, be tried out in the abstract by involved discussions with those inmates who have experienced them.
- Well-led and democratically run groups tend to develop a feeling of cohesion.
- This sense of belonging can enable group pressure to allow a change in the attitudes of inmates in the direction of the group's purpose and to change antisocial attitudes into pro-social attitudes.
- Finally, unlike one-on-one counselling sessions with a representative of the "system", group counselling lessens the possibility that the inmate will be intimidated by the perception of an authoritarian relationship.

The use of various social work techniques can be imperative for inmate development. It must be made clear that correctional systems aim to rehabilitate inmates, not punish them. This purpose will never be achieved if inmates spend time without doing anything or they are not exposed to any rehabilitative programme. Like social workers, psychologists also play an important role in the development of inmates. Therefore, in the next section, the role of psychologists will be discussed.

5.5.2 THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGISTS

The psychologist, in a correctional centre, is part of a treatment team and, as a result of this particular field of specialization, can make an important contribution to the treatment of inmates. According to Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser (1995: 134), psychological service is aimed at the following category of inmates:

- Inmates regarded as a suicide risk;
- Inmates referred to psychologists by psychiatrists and district hospitals;
- Inmates for whom the courts recommended treatment;
- Inmates who indicated, through the complaints and requests procedure or in any other way; that they would like to see a psychologist;
- Inmates who are guilty of an aggressive or sexual crime;
- Inmates referred by the case management committee or other functionaries for possible treatment by psychologists; and
- Inmates who have previously received psychological treatment.

Cooke, Baldwin and Howison (1990: 55) indicate that inmates do not just have to cope with the pressures of being institutionalized, but they may also have to cope with problems which occur outside the institution. They further indicate that family problems may originate from the death of loved ones. All these problems affect the coping ability of every inmate. Moreover, being institutionalized makes it even harder for them to cope. These psychological challenges make it clear that the rehabilitation of inmates not only focuses on employment opportunities, family ties and educational prospects. If their psychological well-being is not taken into consideration, their possibility of being rehabilitated is limited. In most cases, people who are psychologically disturbed tend to give up easily. They often blame themselves, are always worried for no apparent reason and lack self-esteem and self-confidence.

- **Loss of personal freedom**

Personal freedom is not only protected by the Constitution, it is attached to everyone since birth. Every person wants to do things at his/her own pace and in his/her own time, in an appropriate environment and with the individuals of their choice. In addition, most of us enjoy free life and we develop likes and dislikes regarding the sort of food we prefer. The ability to choose how we live our lives is very important to us (Cooke et al., 1990: 55). When inmates are admitted to correctional facilities their personal freedom is taken away. Cooke et al. (1990: 55-56) further state that inmates cannot even choose when to do the most human functions like washing, dressing, going to the toilet, going to sleep, or choosing when or what to eat. They have to follow the same routine over and over again, and always remember the rules and regulations regarding everything they do. Their sense of respect and responsibility is taken away. These often lead to various reactions: anger, frustration and feelings of hopelessness and depression.

- **Loss of family and family responsibility**

Through observation as an employee of the Judicial Inspectorate of correctional services, appointed at two Correctional Centres in the Free State, the researcher has learnt that incarceration completely changes the behavioural patterns of inmates. This environment destroys one's thinking and decision making abilities. For matured and married inmates the change can be just as upsetting, and these inmates often worry about what to tell their children. Moreover, separation from those whom we love is usually painfully. Although measures like visits, writing letters and telephonic conversations are in place to maintain family links, they are subjected to strict rules and regulations (Cooke et al., 1990: 56).

For example, during family visits, inmates are not allowed to have any physical contact with their loved ones (except in the case of special category of inmates), and beyond these visits their letters are censored; in other words, their communication with the family and outside world must be limited. Similarly, during telephone usage the communication is always listened to by the correctional official. Therefore, all the communication measures in place in correctional facilities

contribute to the failure to maintain a good family relationship. In the case of family responsibility, it is impossible for inmates to financially assist their families. Generally, incarceration (especially for a long term) damages the relationship between inmates and their families. In conclusion, Cooke et al. (1990: 58) indicate that by punishing an inmate, by sending him or her to a correctional centre, we are also punishing the family.

- **Loss of models**

Loss of models is often applicable to youth offenders. According to Cooke et al. (1990: 60), youths can copy their friends, parents, or siblings. Moreover, youths can also participate in various sports and recreational activities within the community. Through this participation, youths tend to identify their potential in sports and other activities. In addition, these activities also provide youths with opportunities to learn other social skills from their peers. In correctional centres there are limited opportunities in terms of developing youth potential in various sporting codes. Moreover, there are few models to copy. This means that the youth incarcerated in correctional centres are easily influenced by the more sophisticated inmates who often attempt to exploit the situation and spend time discussing future criminality. This routine affects the development of young inmates, in the long run.

The loss of models has a tremendous impact on inmate development. Youths are playful by nature; in other words, playing is an influential part in shaping the development and character of each youth. The personal ambitions of youth are attached to the personal achievement of their peers and elders, who are often used as their role models (Snarr, 1996: 145). Role modelling inside a correctional centre is attached to bravado and other unauthorized behaviour (Mays and Winfree, 2005: 157-158). In others words, "it is the survival of the fittest" and to be respected by other inmates one needs to fight to win, stab to kill, plan to escape, smuggle to make money and bring unauthorized articles into the institution and be rewarded by being promoted to a higher rank in the prison sub-culture. This promotion is often attached to personal privileges like protection, respect, choice of sexual partner, specially smuggled food and opportunities to live a better life than other inmates (Cooke et al., 1990: 55).

It is therefore clear that every young inmate will desire to live a life of luxury while serving his or her sentence. The only way to live this life is to commit other crimes, and be recognized and respected by other inmates. According to Muthaphuli (2008: 65), psychological programmes are applied within the correctional system in order to treat the underlying emotional or mental problems that lead to the inmate to commit the offence. The application of psychological programmes is to assist inmates in coping with the institutional environment and promote their emotional well-being before their release. In corrections, the main functions of psychologists are assessment, treatment and development (Blackburn, 1993: 339). Furthermore, the roles of psychologists are also to:

- Facilitate the treatment of inmates;
- Organize psychological therapy;
- Facilitate individual in-depth psychotherapy for vulnerable inmates; and
- Arrange group psychotherapy and human potential therapy.

The Directorate of Psychological Services in the Department of Correctional Services is responsible for ensuring the emotional well-being of inmates. Psychological services, within the Department of Correctional Services, targets the following groups:

- Suicide risks;
- Court referrals;
- Persons who have previously received psychiatric or psychological treatment and who are mentally ill;
- Aggressive and sexual offenders; and
- Persons who request to see a psychologist (Department of Correctional Services, undated: 5).

Psychological services can reduce further criminal activity amongst the inmate population and assist them in progressing from their present level of functioning to the required level of

functioning. In other words, the psychological treatment provided to inmates can help them obtain the necessary life skills in order to advance from where they are to where they need to be. The role of spiritual care workers will be discussed in the next section of this chapter.

5.5.3 THE ROLE OF SPIRITUAL CARE WORKERS

The researcher is of the opinion that most inmates are not actively involved in faith-based organisations, churches and other Christian-based organisations. One often finds that church members and community members who spend a significant amount of their time in Christian-based organisations are not actively involved in criminal activities. In the study conducted by Spalek and El-Hassan (2006: 1), on religion in correctional centres in the United States of America, it was found that a large proportion of inmates were engaged in hazardous activities, like drug-taking, prior to their incarceration. Sixty-three per cent of sentenced males have engaged in heavy drinking. Moreover, many inmates also indicate that they did not have a particular religious upbringing or education from childhood onwards.

In light of the above, it is clear that most people tend to follow the word of God and see his power after bad experiences. Moreover, after their detention, inmates realize that they victimized someone and that their actions are against the word of God. Religion plays an important role in the life of inmates, as it brings them a sense of inner peace and improves the relationship between themselves and God. According to Carlson and Garrett (1999: 117), religious programmes in correctional facilities must be developed based on the understanding that the security and safety of both inmates and staff members are considered. In other words, religious programmes must be beneficial to inmates' development, improve the relationship between them and correctional staff members and not be used to oppress others. The role of religion in correctional facilities is always realigned with the institutional mission, goals and the prevention of anti-social behaviour. In addition, correctional institutions continue to turn to religion as a way to reduce crime.

Similarly to recreational programmes, inmates attend religious programmes in greater numbers than they do social work services and psychological services. O'Connon and Pallone (2002: 37), support this statement by indicating that the use of religion as a correctional programme is commonplace, at present, in most jails and correctional centres throughout the United States of America. Therefore, the following aspects are identified by Dammer (in Silverman, 2001: 435) as the most important factors that encourage inmates to participate in religious activities:

- Inmates gain direction and in some cases, meaning, and hope to reform from a life of crime;
- Personal behaviour is often changed by taking part in religious programmes. The rules and regulations of religion also help inmates develop better self-control;
- To feel safe in a correctional centre, inmates tend to join a religious group for protection against individuals and other groups;
- Inmates who are incarcerated for certain sex offences (child molestation or the sexual assault of an older woman) know they will be stigmatized as deviant, which places them among those who are the least respected of all inmates. Involvement in a religious group while serving their sentence gives this inmates respite from fear of being attacked by other inmates and the opportunity to participate in religious services provides them with a safe haven;
- Religious services assist inmates who have been diagnosed with HIV and AIDS, and as a result are often subjected to cruelty by others. Religious programmes can also provide psychological assistance from fellow worshipers and spiritual care workers. This may also be the only place where these inmates can interact with another inmate in a positive manner;
- Religious services provide inmates with one of the few opportunities to meet other inmates for the purpose of enjoying regular social interaction with friends and groups of individuals with similar interests and to feel accepted by those in the group;
- For inmates, religion provides an opportunity to meet with civilian volunteers, some of whom are of the opposite sex; and
- Inmates who participate in religious activities often have access to resources, including goods such as food and coffee, spiritual books, holiday cards and musical instruments. Moreover, inmates may also gain opportunities for individual favours such as phone access and letters

of recommendation - for parole hearings or transfer to another correctional facility - from religious care workers.

Although most inmates experience religious conversions during their incarceration, some tend to use religious services as an opportunity to meet members from the community, especially woman. In addition, some use every chance they get to smuggle unauthorized articles into the correctional facility during religious services. Generally, religious services help inmates to establish a sense of control in their current lives, regardless of their past (Kerley and Copes, 2009: 228). In this regard, it is clear that religious services are an important aspect of inmate rehabilitation. However, to ensure the smooth execution of religious programmes, various correctional systems appoint spiritual care workers or chaplains to facilitate religious programmes within correctional institutions. Let us look at the roles of spiritual care workers in inmate development through spiritual interventions. The main duties of spiritual care workers are:

- To work with inmates of all faith groups by administering services and programmes in a consistent manner, and supervising all contract and volunteer religious services officials;
- To provide inmates with the opportunity to practice their religions through congregate services;
- To provide religious education, counselling, assist inmates with religious literature and coordinate the observance of religious holidays;
- To lead worship services for inmates who follow their faith and lead other denominations;
- To help inmates to deal with family related issues and also counsel inmates' families, meet with them during visits and assist them in re-establishing family ties (Carlson and Garrett, 1999: 411).

Religion in correctional centres helps inmates adjust to and make peace with their circumstances. Unlike in social settings, religious services must serve multiple purposes in corrections.

Therefore, the employment of qualified religious staff members to deal with religious activities could have a tremendous impact on the rehabilitation of inmates.

5.5.4 THE ROLE OF CRIMINOLOGISTS

Criminology, in the field of criminal justice and social sciences, focuses on explaining crime and its context. According to Siegel (2010: 4), criminology is the scientific approach to studying criminal behaviour. Criminology can also be defined as a science that incorporates a study of the causes and prevention of crime, as well as the rehabilitation and punishment of offenders (Schmalleger, 2009: 4). For the purpose of this study, criminology will be defined as a scientific approach to the circumstances of offenders, which resulted in their criminal behaviour and the possibilities for the prevention of future criminal behaviour by these offenders. It is therefore clear that the study of criminology commences once an individual attempts to commit a criminal offence. The main reason for inmates being incapacitated and isolated from the general population is because they commit criminal offences. Therefore, the purpose of their incapacitation is to protect the community against future victimization from them and to change the criminal behaviour of inmates by rehabilitating them. In other words, the purpose of incarceration is to change or correct inmate behaviour. Although various interventions will be put in place for individual inmates while serving their sentences, it is important that their criminal behaviour is also assessed.

According to Hesselink-Louw (2004: 335), the assessment of criminal behaviour is key to, and the first and most important step in, addressing and correcting inmate behaviour. She adds that assessment is the basis of any inmate's classification, intervention, risk management and pre-parole placement. The latter makes it clear that the assessment of an inmate's criminal behaviour is important in corrections. The assessment of criminal behaviour in corrections is often dependent on individual practitioners (social workers and psychologists). In other words, criminologists are not involved in the assessment of inmates in corrections. This makes things

difficult for other custodial therapists to understand the criminality of inmates within correctional institutions. One should understand that, unlike other custodial therapists (social workers, psychologists), criminologists have studied the phenomenon of crime and criminal behaviour, including their manifestations, causes, legal aspects and control.

Moreover, criminologists also cover the social control mechanism, crime prevention strategies, treatment strategies and possible solutions to the problem of crime (Schmalleger, 2011: 10). Currently, no structures or scientific assessment practices exist for inmates in many correctional systems including that of the South African Department of Correctional Services (Hesselink-Louw, 2004: 2). The appointment of criminologists is vital in the correctional environment as criminologists often place greater focus on the various behaviours associated with criminality, including the circumstances which facilitate and contribute, to crime and they are able to predict the probability of reoffending and danger. To sum up, the role of criminologists in correctional centres can include the following:

- To understand the reasons why inmates became involved in criminal activities;
- To explore how social, economic and political conditions generate criminal activities;
- To further understand the criminality of inmates while serving their sentences, their involvement in correctional centre subculture and the danger that they pose to the general inmate population;
- To predict the possibility of future offending behaviour amongst the inmates;
- To assess the risk posed by an inmate (such as risk of self-harm, escape and vulnerability); and
- To determine the probability that inmates will engage in either dangerous or maladjusted behaviours (Pieters, 2001: 1).

Moreover, Luyt (in Hesselink-Louw, 2004: 3) indicates that the utilization of criminologists in corrections, to address issues such as cause, motives, triggers and explanations of crime, can reduce the overwhelming workload of other custodial therapists (psychologists and social workers), and enhance a multi-disciplinary assessment and rehabilitation effort. Furthermore, the importance of criminologists in corrections was supported by the former National Commissioner of the South African Department of Correctional Services who states that "the Department of Correctional Services acknowledges the importance of the involvement of registered criminologists in individual offender assessment and profiling of criminal behaviour in the rehabilitation, offender development and treatment processes". Although criminologists are not considered part of correctional settings, they can provide helpful assistance to other custodial therapists. Moreover, criminologists can also be utilized to understand the influence of sub-cultures in the promotion of further criminal activity within an institution.

5.5.5 THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONALISTS

Both formal and non-formal education has a tremendous impact on individual personal development. Similarly to community members, inmates also have the right to education. According to Carlson and Garrett (2008: 83), inmates are among the most educationally disadvantaged groups in most communities. Therefore, education like other rehabilitative programmes can make a tremendous impact on an inmate's life. Moreover, inmates can use their educational skills after their release. Education, in correctional facilities, depends on inmate needs, community resources for education and the labour market. In other words, during the intake interview, inmate educational backgrounds and needs must be considered. In the South African Department of Correctional Services (2001: 16), inmates are assessed before they can be placed in different educational levels.

Therefore, inmates are placed in the required educational level with the aim of helping them to uplift their personal development and became active community members after their release.

Furthermore, correctional education should be aimed at individuals with a particular personality, temperament, emotional level, intellectual capacity, value system and general outlook of life. To fulfil its purpose, education in correctional facilities must be properly implemented in terms of planning, resources, trained staff members and flexibility in relation to the changing demands and problems presented by individual inmates (Hollen, Epps and Kendrick, 1995: 23). The proper implementation of education in correctional centres has content which provides valuable information that is relevant to the future of the inmate (Abadinsky, 1991: 13). Strategies for both formal and non-formal education must also be implemented. Formal education programmes aim specifically for the acquisition of a formal qualification, while non-formal education programmes are those parts of correctional programmes that are directed at the modification of attitudes. The following education programmes are provided for inmates while serving their sentences:

- **Adult Basic Education and Training** focuses on literacy, mathematical skills, science and social sciences as a foundation for further education and training.
- **Mainstream Education** is a correctional programme, offered by the Directorate of Formal Education, similar to the Grade 7 to 12 syllabi offered in conventional schools in cooperation with the Department of Education.
- **Basic Occupational Skills** equips inmates with basic technical skills that are not aimed at the acquisition of an artisan certificate. Moreover, the basic occupational skills programme is aimed at addressing the specific needs of inmates and enhancing their reintegration into the community after their release.
- **Vocational Training** is a programme which allows an inmate, upon completion of training, to be assessed and issued with a trade diploma.
- **Distance Education** is a programme that provides inmates with an opportunity to continue their studies with external institutions through correspondence (Department of Correctional Services, undated: 1).

In light of the above, the role of educationalists will be to raise inmates' level of education by educating them and encouraging them to enrol at external higher education institutions.

Educationalists thus facilitate and develop educational programmes according to the inmate population and the needs of inmates. Furthermore, the educationalist's role within the correctional environment includes the following:

- To identify inmates with no or low academic ability;
- To interact with the Department of Education regarding changes in the national curriculum;
- To be responsible for library services and other educational aspects of the institution;
- To promote educational activities amongst the inmate population;
- To recruit for and involve external stakeholders in the provision of academic programmes to inmates, and;
- To introduce needs-based and marketed related education and training to inmates (Gaes, 2008: 9).

5.5.6 THE ROLE OF MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS AND HEALTHCARE WORKERS

Unlike custodial therapists who concentrate primarily on the behavioural changes of inmates, medical practitioners and healthcare workers deal primarily with the health of inmates. According to Carlson and Garrett (2008: 99), medical practitioners and medical health workers are appointed at correctional facilities to provide care and diligence to inmates. They further indicate that medical practitioners and healthcare workers' are responsible for providing inmates with appropriate and competent care, to the best of their ability, in a fair and ethical manner (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 99). Healthcare programmes provide adequate primary healthcare in correctional facilities. In addition to the number of permanent healthcare workers appointed in the facility, healthcare services are also supported by visiting medical doctors, dentists, pharmacists and other medical specialists. Good medical care commences when the inmate arrives at the correctional facility. The following questions, with regard to inmate health prior to incarceration, are asked during the initial assessment:

- What is the inmate's health status?
- Does he or she have communicable disease risk factors, or diseases that might put other inmates or staff members at risk?
- Are there obvious signs of mental illness or is there a history of any severe psychiatric disorder?
- Has a physical examination been completed to assess any pre-existing injuries or deformities?
- Are there any other reasons that this inmate might need to be housed separately (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 100–101).

These questions enable the medical practitioner and healthcare workers to continue with the medical prescription that the inmate was using prior to incarceration. Furthermore, medical care workers can also recommend separate accommodation or external specialists in the case of inmates who are on special medication. Moreover, medical care workers also recommend the appropriate diet to inmates who need a special diet; provision is often made for any category of inmate whose physical condition requires a special diet. In South Africa, healthcare promotion is stipulated in sections 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 of the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998. These sections indicate that the Department must provide accommodation, nutrition, hygiene, clothing, bedding and exercise. To elaborate on the said requirement; good nutrition promotes better physical health, good hygiene prevents communicable diseases from occurring amongst the inmate population and regular exercise promotes both good health and the psychological well-being of inmates.

Healthcare is offered by the Directorate of Health Care Services with the aim of promoting the health of the inmate population in general. Inmates with health problems are identified so that they can be assessed in order to improve their conditions (Department of Correctional Services, undated: 1). Therefore, the role of medical practitioners and healthcare workers in correctional facilities is, amongst other things:

- To assess the health of inmates during their admission;
- To guide the institutional management on the matter of personal and environmental hygiene services within the institution;
- To design the minimum health care packages in correctional institutions, guided by the principles of primary health care and the district health model;
- Resource management and mobilization; and
- To liaise with the relevant internal and external stakeholders regarding healthcare provisions, nutrition, personal and environmental hygiene issues (Silverman, 2001: 413).

In the correctional institution, inmates are always described as a " special population with health risks". In other words, communicable diseases can easily be transferred from one inmate to another (Schneider, 2003: 2). Therefore, it is vital that medical practitioners and healthcare workers be appointed on a regular basis so as to evaluate the general conditions of correctional facilities. To conclude this chapter, the role of external role players in corrections will be discussed in detail in the next section.

5.6 THE ROLE OF EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS

Correctional systems around the world are public institutions. The responsibilities of these institutions do not only depend on the government and correctional staff members but, since inmates were community members before their incarceration, community members should also support them by assisting in various rehabilitative programmes and other issues related to their development. Correctional institutions are often last on the community development agenda and crime is at the top of challenges facing the community. In most cases, correctional systems come into contact with individual community members when they are incarcerated or when their loved ones are incarcerated. Therefore, in this section the role of non-governmental organisations, external spiritual care workers and volunteers such as community stakeholders are discussed here.

5.6.1 THE ROLE OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

Communities and civil society groups should, therefore, play an essential role in inmate rehabilitation. Non-governmental organisations are formed with the purpose of providing assistance to the community at large and they differ from each other in terms of their objectives and organisational goals. Many non-governmental organisations provide special programmes in correctional institutions, from social work to psychological and spiritual services. Non-governmental organisations can also assist the correctional system by mobilizing resources, from the private sector, for the welfare and rehabilitation of inmates and ex-inmates. By the same token, non-governmental organisations could also facilitate programmes like restorative justice and provide support for inmates while serving their sentence. It is always important to include "outsiders" to play an intermediary role in inmate development. The inclusion of community members motivates inmates and gives them hope.

5.6.2 THE ROLE OF EXTERNAL SPIRITUAL CARE WORKERS

Church organisations and other faith based communities could assist religious care workers by proving spiritual programmes in correctional institutions. Carlson and Garrett (2008: 134) indicate that the role of external spiritual care workers should always be clear from the beginning. This will assist in the smooth running of spiritual programmes amongst the inmate population. If possible, a specific church organisation or faith based group should provide programmes to inmates with the same beliefs. Moreover, pastors must be encouraged to lead these groups whilst executing their services to inmates. These groups should also be prohibited from recruiting inmates to their faith; in other words, inmates must decide which group they would like to follow. Therefore, the role of external spiritual care workers will be:

- To provide spiritual services to inmates;
- To give inmates faith based books and manuals;
- To furnish the institutional spiritual care worker with the necessary information regarding specific inmates' behavioural changes;

- In conjunction with institutional spiritual care workers, to organize spiritual events on special days; and
- To facilitate the process of inmate involvement in their respective churches or faith based community organisations after their release (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 134).

It is clear from the above that individual and group spiritual counselling is the responsibility of internal staff members. Therefore, if inmates need individual counselling they must be referred to internal spiritual care workers. Finally, churches and community faith groups should be given materials, including a handbook about the institution, its policy on religious practices and confidentiality, as well as information about inmate characteristics (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 135). This information will help these spiritual workers understand what is expected of them during their visits to correctional institutions.

5.6.3 THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERS

Volunteerism is not popular in correctional systems, particularly the South African Correctional System. In most cases, volunteerism is attached with help in need and individuals thus tend to assist where they think it is necessary. As indicated in the previous section, the community tends to neglect correctional institutions and no one sees the need to provide help to inmates. Furthermore, due to the risk environment and perceptions that inmates are dangerous, community members tend to be discouraged from participation by means of volunteerism in correctional matters. Moreover, departmental legislation does not make provision for volunteerism in corrections. Carlson and Garrett (2008: 291) indicate that, in future, volunteers will be the cornerstone of correctional programmes that fully meet the demands of the society and the needs of inmates. In simple terms, volunteers will be essential to fulfilling the mission of correctional institutions.

In this regard, it is clear that volunteerism could be fruitful to correctional systems. Volunteerism in correctional systems could be classified into two categories, namely: direct service and indirect service. According to Carlson and Garrett (2008: 291-292), direct service volunteers can provide onsite service to programmes, staff members and inmates. The responsibilities of direct service volunteers can be extended on a daily, weekly or on monthly basis. Volunteers can also be effective in contributing to the successful attainment of institutional goals. Direct service volunteers may be used in the institutional library, administration, legal services for staff and inmates as well as the healthcare services.

Indirect service volunteers are not involved on-site and they generally have no contact with staff members and inmates. Indirect volunteers can participate in different tasks like fundraising, policy development, the development of training manuals and the donation of relevant materials for internal projects (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 292). In most cases, indirect volunteers are community members and organisations with extensive knowledge in various fields of study. Various volunteer services can be provided in correctional institutions, namely: religious services, recreational activities, staff training, social services, substance abuse, HIV and AIDS awareness and pre- and post release programmes. Each service will now be discussed in detail.

- **Religious service**

Religious service is the most popular volunteer programme in correctional institutions. The primary purpose of religious service is to help the inmate repent. As discussed in sub-section 5.7.2, members of different faith-based organisations can provide continuous spiritual services to inmates and staff members.

- **Recreational services**

Recreation is one of the most popular programmes in correctional institutions. Recreation volunteerism can take place in a variety of ways. Various community sports clubs can participate in correctional institutions by competing with inmates in different sports activities (Clear and Cole, 2000: 339). Moreover, they can also serve as coaches or fans of particular inmate sports

codes. Unlike other programmes, and due to their diversity, sports activities accommodate a large number of participants, irrespective of their illiteracy, disabilities and other aspects. Furthermore, sports activities promote better physical and psychological health amongst inmates. Good relationships and sportsmanship also promote a sense of belonging amongst inmates who do not participate in sub-cultures. Therefore, community sports clubs should be recruited and encouraged to participate and share their expertise with inmates.

- **Staff training**

According to Carlson and Garrett (2008: 296), staff training as an area in which volunteers can make a contribution, is often overlooked. In most cases, volunteerism is interpreted as assistance where there is a need for help. This interpretation makes it difficult to provide professional services to other areas in the organisation. Formal academic based volunteer programmes can be provided to correctional staff members by professionals in the relevant areas. Many institutions do not have sufficient staff or the funds for outside contracts in order to provide training in areas such as cultural diversity, employment law, management and supervision practices as well as technical and mental health issues (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 296). Therefore, any individual, government organisation or community organisation can provide such training to staff members within correctional institutions, for free.

- **Substance Abuse**

As indicated in chapter 2, substance abuse is common amongst youths. Peer pressure can be linked to the high usage of unauthorized substances amongst the youth. In addition, most criminal offences are committed under the influence of substances (Berman, 2004: 20; Clear and Cole, 2000: 119). It is therefore clear that substance abuse programmes can be important for inmate behaviour. Community organisations which specialize in the prevention and rehabilitation of substance abusers can also play an important role in extending their services to inmates.

- **Pre and Post release**

Finally, volunteers can contribute to the smooth running of pre and post-release programmes. Due to overcrowding, it is often difficult for correctional staff members to concentrate on individual inmates who will soon be released. Reintegration officials must ensure that every inmate who is due to be released is interviewed in order to understand his/her social needs or the challenges that he/she will face after his/her release. Moreover, various departments and private sector companies must be approached in order to organize possible employment for inmates (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 295). By the same token, the relationship between inmates and their families must be improved prior to release. Due to incarceration, the relationships between inmates and their family members generally collapse. Moreover, the stigma attached to incarceration tends to have a negative impact on the inmate and community at large. Forgiveness and the acceptance of inmates, by community members, also contribute to the isolation felt by inmates upon their release.

The involvement of volunteers can close the gaps in the abovementioned areas of corrections. Since volunteers are members of the community, and they have a good understanding of community perceptions about inmates, they able to successfully facilitate pre and post-release programmes Furthermore, volunteers can also facilitate inmate and family peacemaking programmes and organize interviews with potential employees prior to the release of an inmate (Carlson and Garrett, 2008: 298).

5.7 SUMMARY

Any system, organisation and formula for a specific scientific solution that will bring a change in a particular field is first designed and implemented by an individual. In other words, God gave a man an intelligence and strength to take care of the earth and its resources. It is through his power and wisdom that man could be able to be creative and implement the system that will help others. Scientists and researchers evaluate old systems daily, with the intention of assessing their

effectiveness and bringing about new innovations. To put it simply, every system is developed by man and it is also assessed by man. Incarceration as a form of punishment was also developed by a man. According to Coyle (1994: 2), incarceration as form of punishment, has developed over the last two hundred years. As a punitive measure, incarceration gained popularity in the 20th century. Currently, the use of imprisonment as punishment is the most popular way to protect the community against criminals and to correct the behaviour of offenders, by rehabilitating them. In the past decade offenders were punished by being given harsh sentences and they were further punished within correctional institutions. Today, the role of the correctional institution has moved from an emphasis on punishment to a focus on rehabilitation.

In other words, the most flexible way to bring about a change in criminal behaviour must be implemented as soon as possible. This is the reason why unit management was seen as a vehicle for inmate development and rehabilitation. However, unit management is just an approach to managing inmates and correctional institutions. Its effectiveness lies in the actions and contributions of multi-disciplinary staff members and external role-players. Therefore, this chapter focused on the roles of correctional officials, custodial therapists and external role players. It is clear that unit management is just a vehicle that needs the cooperation of multi-disciplinary staff members to reach its objective, which is the "rehabilitation of inmates". Similarly to unit management, youths detained at correctional institutions also need a team of various specialists (custodial therapists) to change their criminal behaviour so that they live a crime-free life after their release.

For the researcher to avoid being lost in the research process, special attention was given to the research methods to be used in this study; these will be discussed in the next chapter.

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SECTION B: EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the research design and methodology used in the study. Moreover, the aim of the research will be provided in this chapter in order to give the reader a clear understanding of why the specific research design, instruments, and methodologies were adopted. In addition to the detailed discussion of the research approach, offered in chapter 1 (1.6), this chapter will important aspects of the research tools used in this study, namely: the research approach, demarcations of the study, population and sampling criteria, pilot study, ethical considerations, data collection, and data analysis.

6.2. AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of this study is to evaluate the implementation of the following components of unit management: architecture, case management, risk management, security management and human rights, for sentenced youth offenders in South African Youth Development Centres.

The objectives are:

- To evaluate the application of unit management in the South African Correctional system;
- To determine the architectural influence, as one of the unit management component in the development of sentenced youth offenders;
- To assess the effectiveness of the case management process at South African Youth Development Centres;
- To assess the basic application of human rights in a unit management system in South Africa;

- To establish the role of multi-disciplinary staff members in unit management and youth corrections; and
- To make recommendations based on the findings, with regard to the improvement of the implementation of unit management in youth development centres.

6.3 THE RESEARCH APPROACH AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a very important aspect of every research project. Research design can be seen as the blue print, or outline, for conducting the research project. It also ensures that maximum control is exercised. Proper control ensures that no unnecessary aspects will interfere with the validity of the research results. Babbie (2001: 91) indicates that the research design assists the researcher in clearly stipulating what he/she wishes to investigate and ascertains the best way to reach a reliable conclusion. According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005: 73), there are two popular research approaches, namely; the qualitative and the quantitative approach. In this study, the quantitative research approach was used. This research approach creates numbers which can be statistically analyzed.

Quantitative research design is a vigorous, systematic process for generating information about the world and making plans to gain more information about the phenomenon under study (Burns and Grove, 2003: 56). O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995: 487) define quantitative research as "a type of research in which values of variables are characterized by numbers or symbols that scientifically test the theory of the research objectives". The advantages of quantitative research are that:

- The design is more effective and economical;
- Only the researcher and the statistician administer the questionnaires;
- The design is more impersonal and offers anonymity which often results a greater level of honesty from respondents.

- Respondents who are difficult to contact personally or by phone can answer the questionnaires; and
- Lower costs and savings in labour (more respondents can be surveyed than with personal interviews) (Van Lill and Visser, 1998: 12).

Leedy (1993: 144) points out that "the quantitative researcher attempts to arrive at an understanding of facts from the outside perspective by maintaining a detached, objective view that, hypothetically, is free from all bias". Therefore, for the researcher to understand the implementation of the components of unit management in South African Youth Development Centres the following steps were taken in this study:

- A discussion of the rationale of the study, which included details of the purpose and objectives for the study as well as an indication of the value of the study (see Chapter 1);
- Provision of a theoretical basis of the study and the value of the study (see Chapter 2);
- Data collection by means of questionnaires (see Annexure C) (Chapter 7);
- Analysis of the data (see Chapter 7)
- Application of the knowledge, by means of findings and recommendations (see Chapter 8).

6.3.1 DESCRIPTIVE AND EXPLANATORY RESEARCH

The research design was descriptive in the sense that the researcher attempted to gain an understanding of, and formulate extensive and exhaustive descriptions and explanations of, the "implementation of the components of unit management at Youth Development Centres". Descriptive research is the common research design objective in criminology and criminal justice studies (Champion, 1993: 59). Descriptive research aims to gain information about a phenomenon in a particular field of study. Furthermore, the descriptive design focuses primarily on the specific details of a situation and asks how and why in relation to the said subject.

According to De Vos (2003: 110), descriptive research commences with a well defined objective and is conducted in order to describe accurately.

Silverman (2000: 78) suggested that descriptive research is based on the present state of affairs and is designed to answer questions about the ongoing events of the present situation. In descriptive research, the goal of the investigation is the careful mapping out of situations or a set of events, that is, describing what happens in terms of behaviour (Rosnow and Rosental, 1999: 15).

According to Newman (1997: 20), descriptive research aims at:

- Proving an accurate profile of a group;
- Describing a process, mechanism or relationship;
- Giving a verbal or numerical picture (e.g. percentage);
- Generating information that will stimulate new possible explanations;
- Providing basic background information or context; and
- Explaining specific sequences, phases or steps.

Based on these explanations, descriptive research should answer the questions of the study: How is unit management applied in South Africa? How does unit management contribute to the development of youth offenders? In which way are the components of unit management implemented in youth development centres? In addition to descriptive research, the researcher finds it important to further utilize explanatory research in order to reach reliable conclusions. In explanatory research, the aim is to explore a new topic or issue of which little is known. Explanatory research addresses the question of "what" and, as a result, exploratory researchers find their study's difficult to conduct, because there are no or few guidelines to follow. In the opinion of Bachman and Schutt (2007: 11), explanatory research seeks to find out how people get along in the setting under question, what meaning they give to their actions, and which issues concern them.

They further emphasise their statement by indicating that the goal of explanatory research is to answer the question "what is going on here?" and to investigate social phenomena without expectations. In the South African context, little is known about the large number of aspects that can be linked to unit management. These aspects include case management, architectural influence on inmate development, risk management, security and human rights (while another is the management of different units). Since its implementation on 16 February 1996, no empirical studies were conducted on its effectiveness in inmate development. Therefore, this study attempts to determine priorities for further research, and could lead to the development of a new set of hypotheses for future practical implementation of unit management.

6.4 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

According to Silverman (2000: 88), demarcation is the reduction of a group or phenomenon that is going to be studied to a more manageable unit. The demarcation of this study was primarily applied to the theory and the population included in the study. It is therefore imperative to discuss each separately.

- **Theoretical part and literature review:** Due to the fact that unit management is fairly new to the South African correctional system, the researcher was required to consult international sources, specifically in relation to the development of unit management internationally. Moreover, international standards or fundamental principles applicable to youth offenders were also used in this study. These include the United Nations Guidelines of Juvenile Delinquency (The Riyadh Guidelines), the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules), the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles deprived of their Liberty, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Nationally, the Constitution of South Africa 108 of 1996, the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998, the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa, the Department of Correctional Services' policies and regulations, the Child Justice Act, the South African Schools Act 84 of

1996 and the National Youth Commission Act 19 of 1996. Finally, all the relevant national and international literature was also used in this study.

- **Population or unit of analysis:** The researcher limited the empirical part of the study to sentenced youth offenders. In other words, unsentenced or awaiting trial offenders, youths sentenced to any form of correctional supervision and parolees did not form part of this study. In addition, no correctional services staff members participated in this study. Their contribution was only required when they organised inmates who participated in the study and provided the necessary security for the researcher during the research project. The research was limited to specific youth development centres, namely; the Drakenstein, Kroonstad, Boksburg, Leeuwkop and Emthonjeni Youth Development Centres.

6.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING CRITERIA

According to Brink (1996: 45), population is a group of people who share a common denominator that is of interest to the researcher. Furthermore, population can also be defined as the theoretical, specified group of study elements (Maxfield and Babbie, 2005: 208). In any research study, the participants must be people who had experienced and are able to relate to the phenomenon that the researcher wishes to explore. However, it is impossible for researchers to select everyone who is interested in being part of the study. Welmar and Kruger (2001: 41) also state that the population that interests human behavioural scientists is so large that, from a practical point of view, it is impossible to conduct research on all of them. Therefore, in this study all sentenced inmates detained in youth development centres represent the population of interest. However, the reader must note that time and cost often only permit researchers to collect data from a limited number of participants within the available population.

A sample can be defined as "a model of the population or a subset of the population that is used to gain information about the entire population" (Bickman and Rog, 1998: 101). Polit and Beck (2006: 278) support the definition offered by Bickman and Rog as they indicate that sampling is

"the process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population". In this study purposive sampling was used. According to Babbie (2008: 179), purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgment about which one will be the most useful representative. Therefore, purposive sampling is non-probability sampling by nature. In non-probability sampling, there are no convenient sampling frames of the population available. Moreover, cost restrictions make the surveying of a widely dispersed population impractical (David & Sutton, 2004: 151).

In purposive sampling, the researcher uses his knowledge, experience and opinion regarding which group of the population will be relevant to the study. As purposive sampling requires that researchers use their skills, judgment and needs, several issues were considered before the respondents were selected. The researcher considered issues like age, privilege group, sentence of youth offenders, and literacy level of offenders. To provide the reader with a clear picture of the above mentioned issues, the following procedures were applied in both the pilot and the main study:

- **Age of the offenders:** Sentenced youth offenders between the ages of 14 and 30;
- **Privilege groups:** Sentenced youth offenders with A, B, C privilege groups;
- **Sentencing of offenders:** Only sentenced youth offenders who are incarcerated at Drakenstein, Kroonstad, Boksburg, Leeuwkop and Emthonjeni Youth Development Centres.
- **Literacy level of offenders:** Only youth offenders who were able to read and write.

6.6 DATA COLLECTION

Data for this study was collected by two means: the perusal of documents (literature review) and the distribution of questionnaires (empirical). Each of the data collection methods will be discussed in detail below.

6.6.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of relevant literature is important in social science research projects. It provides the researcher with adequate background information on the research question. Furthermore, conducting a literature review enables the researcher to identify gaps in similar research studies. To ensure that the relevant theory and literature are covered in the study, the researcher consulted literature as a point of departure. Relevant literature reviews within the subject often enable the researcher to determine what information or studies are available on the topic or related topics. Moreover, the preliminary literature review resulted in the selection of the research topic and, ultimately, in the formulation of the rationale of the study and its research objectives. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 23) argue that one of the main purposes of the literature review is to familiarize the researcher with the latest developments in the area of research, to identify gaps in knowledge or weaknesses of previous studies and to sharpen the theoretical framework of the research. According to De Vos, Strydom, Fourche and Delport (2007: 263), the literature review serves broad functions in research:

- It demonstrates the underlying assumptions of the chosen research questions. It also displays the paradigm that underpins the study. Furthermore, it describes the assumptions and values that the researcher brings to the research field;
- It also demonstrates that the researcher properly understands related research and the intellectual traditions that surround and support the study;
- It shows that the researcher has identified some gaps in previous research and that the proposed study will fill a demonstrated need; and
- Finally, the literature review refines and redefines the research questions by embedding those questions in a larger empirical tradition.

In this study, the literature review included extensive internet searches. The use of the internet in any study assists the researcher in searching for recent publications. In addition to the internet, books, scientific articles, relevant government policies, publications and reports as well as published and unpublished dissertations and theses contributed to the literature review.

6.6.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

A questionnaire is a document that contains statements as a means of questions. This is one of the popular data collection methods of the quantitative research approach. According to Babbie and Mouton (2002: 233), the term "questionnaire" suggests a collection of questions. In other words, the researcher compiles a set of questions to measure the attitudes of the respondents about specific issues. Denscombe (1998: 89) also points out that "questionnaires rely on written information supplied directly by people in response to questions asked by the researcher". For this study, fifty structured questions were set to measure the opinions of sentenced youth offenders about their conditions of detention as these relate to unit management.

- **Construction of the questionnaires**

The construction of the questionnaires derived from the extensive literature review, specifically on components of unit management, such as architecture, case management, risk management, security management and human rights. Since the study did not rely on a previous study, the researcher was responsible for constructing the questionnaire from scratch. It took the researcher approximately two months to construct the questionnaire. Furthermore, the questionnaires were submitted to the supervisor, senior academics at both the University of Fort Hare and the University of South Africa, including the statistician for improvement and proofreading. The aim of the questionnaires was to cover the abovementioned components of unit management. Moreover, proper care was taken to address the problems and flaws noted by the researcher in the field of penology.

As the study was conducted at youth development centres, the design of the questions was made easy and understandable. This was done to avoid a case in which respondents omitted answers to certain questions and/or misinterpreted them. Moreover, the principles on the guidelines identified by Hannabus (1995: 3) were also considered when the questionnaires were developed; these principles are concerned with the following matters:

- Questions that were asked in these questionnaires attempted to obtain answers concerning the research objectives identified in Chapter 1, and
- The advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire will be dealt with in this chapter. The main reason for this discussion is to outline why the questionnaire was chosen for this research.

The final questionnaire was given to the respondents with a covering letter explaining the purpose of the research. During the field work, respondents were also instructed on how to answer the Likert scale questions. In addition, the covering letter also covered the matter of confidentiality and the voluntary nature of the project. The questionnaire was divided into four main sections: biographical information, architecture, case management risk management and human rights. Closed questions, with a Likert scale rating of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree, were used due to the pre-empted high illiteracy level of the inmates.

- **Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaires**

Like all data collection instruments, the questionnaire has its own advantages and disadvantages. The following issues could be considered advantages of the questionnaire:

- Questionnaires are less expensive to administer than conducting interviews, since they do not require the use of trained interviewers;
- A large group of respondents could be consulted for the completion of the questionnaires;
- The format is standardized for all participants to ensure uniformity of questions and responses;
- Researcher bias is obviated by the absence of the researcher while the participants complete the questionnaires;
- Participants are free to provide honest answers when they realize that the information they provide cannot be linked to specific participants since an atmosphere of anonymity is provided (Babbie & Mouton, 2002: 523).

The following issues could be considered the disadvantages of the questionnaires:

- The respondents might not reflect their true opinions of items, but they might answer what they think will please the researcher.
- The respondents might choose not to participate or omit some of the questions and no explanations might be given for these omissions.
- Valuable information might be lost as the answers are usually brief, especially in closed questions, where the scope for fuller explanation by respondents is limited (Babbie & Mouton, 2002: 523-524).

The exposure and experience of the researcher, regarding the correctional environment, enabled the researcher to compile the questionnaire that covers the general conditions of the correctional centre. Fortunately, all the selected respondents participated in the study and completed their questionnaires without experiencing problems regarding the questions.

- **Administration of the questionnaires**

The researcher set an appointment to visit selected youth development centres to distribute the questionnaires to inmates. In other words, the researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires personally. According to Seaman (1987: 284), the hand delivery and collection of questionnaires is good in stimulating the participants' timely response and cooperation. It must be made clear that the correctional environment is unique in comparison to normal social environments; i.e. it expects that everything must be done on time, taking into consideration the daily routines, operations and security aspects of the correctional facility.

As indicated, the necessary arrangements for the visitation of correctional centres were made with the head of correctional centres well in advance (see Annexure C). These arrangements granted the head of correctional centres a sufficient period of time in which to organize the venue and a requested number of inmates to participate in this research project. Furthermore, the

questionnaires for each correctional centre were identified by a strict numbering system. The purpose of the said identification provided the researcher with the opportunity to assess each centre's analysis individually and it would prove helpful in the case of any dispute or clarification that the Department of Correctional Services or any individual might need in term of data analysis.

6.7 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study can be defined as a small scale trial of the research design. The pilot study also assisted the researcher in orientating himself to the envisaged investigation. According to Mason and Bramble (1997: 35), a pilot study can also be defined as a small scale version of the proposed study which uses a small sample that is similar to the final sample. For this study, the pilot study was conducted by means of pre-testing the questionnaires. The pre-testing of the questionnaires was conducted at the Drakenstein Youth Development Centre. The youth offenders chosen to pre-test the questionnaires did not form part of the main study. Approximately forty offenders were selected to participate in the pilot study. The pilot study contributed to the following changes in the final structure of the questionnaires used in the main study:

Section B: Category: Architecture.

Statement 10 : "The communal cell that I am accommodated is overcrowded" was changed to "The communal cell that I am accommodated in is overcrowded". The difference required that "accommodated is overcrowded" was changed to "accommodated in is overcrowded".

Statement 11 : "I have sufficient personal space in my cell" was rephrased to "The cell design ensures that I have sufficient personal space in my cell".

Statement 13 : "My personal property is safe and cannot be stolen" was rephrased to "We have personal lockers, so my personal property is safe from theft".

Statement 16 : “My health is at risk because the cells are designed in such as way that too many of us have to share toilets and showers” was rephrased to “My health is at risk as I share a toilet and shower with other inmates”.

Statement 17 : “The correctional centre design is such that the response time of correctional officials are slow when inmates fight” was rephrased to “It takes time for correctional officials to respond when inmates fight”.

Statement 19 : “Because cells cannot be continually monitored gang members force other inmates to participate in gang activities in the cells” was rephrased to “Gang members force other inmates to participate in gang activities in the cells.

Section C: Category: Human rights of offenders

Statement 41 :“Inmates are always treated as human beings with dignity” was rephrased to “Inmates, as human beings, are always treated with dignity”.

Statement 42 : “I always feel safe and my life is never at risk” was rephrased to “I always feel safe without risk to my life.

Statement 44 : “I always have a personal privacy” was rephrased to “I do have personal private space in the correctional centre”.

Statement 45 : “I do have enough opportunity to express my belief and opinions” was rephrased to “In correctional centre; I have enough opportunity to express my belief and opinions.”

Statement 47 : “The correctional centre environment causes a stress and depression” was rephrased to “The correctional centre environment causes stress which results in depression”.

It is clear from these changes that the pilot study and pre-testing of questionnaires contributed to the final questionnaire utilized in the main study. The Drakenstein Youth Development Centre is one of the Centres of Excellence in South Africa. The academic level of inmates detained in this

centre was far better than that of inmates who participated in the main study. Factors that contributed to these high literacy levels include a large number of inmates participating in academic programmes, including school. Some inmates not only participated in the study as required, but they became emotionally attached to the researcher's academic achievement by stating that they would also love to get involved in doctoral research one day. This emotional relationship between the offenders and the researcher opened room for discussions about the statements in the questionnaires. The offenders felt free to openly communicate with the researcher about the statements on the questionnaire.

Another important contribution to the changes on the questionnaire was the availability of the supervisor during the pilot study. Every aspect of the pilot study was under the supervision of the supervisor. The distribution of the questionnaires, the explanation of the instructions, the discussions between the researcher and the inmates about some of the statements and the collection of the questionnaires involved the supervisor. Therefore, the researcher was forced to adjust the questionnaires, as proposed, without compromising anything. It is clear that the pilot study contributed positively towards the final product of the questionnaires. Moreover, through observation and discussions with inmates, the researcher realized that a comparative study of correctional centres, unit management centres and centres of excellence needed to be conducted (this will be discussed in detail in the findings of the study).

6.8 GAINING ACCESS

When you intend to conduct research in correctional centres, or would like to use sentenced offenders as a unit of analysis, it is very important to obtain the appropriate permission. Before attempting to visit the youth development centres selected for the study, an application to conduct research within the selected youth development centres was forwarded to the Department of Correctional Services: Research Directorate for approval. After the evaluation of

the Department of Correctional Services' Research Ethics Committee the application was approved (Appendix C).

6.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is often associated with morality and guides the researcher in dealing with matters of right or wrong. In other words, consideration of the ethical aspects related to the research study is important. According to Polit and Hungler (1995: 701), ethics can be defined as "principle or moral values which regulate or govern research processes to comply with professional, legal and social obligation" in an attempt to safeguard participants under study. Therefore, in this study the researcher complied with the ethical considerations for research involving inmates. The following ethical aspects were considered in this study: privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, freedom of choice and protection from harm. Each of these aspects will be discussed in detail below.

6.9.1 PRIVACY, CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY

In conducting research, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity focus on the protection of respondents against any harm that they might experience during or after the study. Unlike biomedical research that often presents potential harm to its respondents, social research may produce psychological harm or embarrassment to its respondents. In the correctional setting, inmates might experience unfair treatment and victimization by other inmates if their information cannot be kept private. Therefore, in this study individual inmate responses were kept secret from correctional officials and other inmates. Confidentiality in social research means that even if the researcher can figure out which of the respondents' specific data sheets belong to, the researcher will never share that data with anyone (Hoyle, Harries and Judd, 2002: 59).

Maxfield and Babbie (1998: 180) support the statement of Hoyle et al. by indicating that confidentiality takes place in a study when a researcher is able to link information to a given person's identity but essentially promises not to make it publicly known. Although the data analysis makes the results of the research known, an individual's views, names, age, gender, or perceptions on a specific issue is not disclosed. Like privacy and confidentiality, anonymity protects respondents since researchers cannot associate a given piece of information with a specific person (Maxfield and Babbie, 1998:180). Anonymity also entails that no respondent is obliged to provide any information that may cause them to be expose their positive identification.

6.9.2 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

During the visits to youth development centres, prior to the commencement of the study, the researcher informed inmates that their participation is completely voluntary. He told them that no special reward will be given to them for their participation in the study; despite this, inmates were still eager to participate.

6.10 DATA ANALYSIS

In the first phase of this study the researcher performed a literature review. The process of a literature review allows the researcher to decide on the relevant theoretical approaches, develop researchable objectives and design proper methods of collecting data. Before the execution of the field work, the statistician makes sure that the questionnaire is properly coded and contracts the data analysis plan. As indicated by David and Sutton (2004: 257), the following key stages of the data analysis process were followed:

- Data entry;
- Univariate analysis and the examination of individual analysis;
- Bivariate analysis, the describing and exploring of the relationship between two variables;

- Multivariate analysis, the expansion of analysis to three or more variables; and
- Statistical testing to enable judgments as to generalizability and significant testing.

In this study, descriptive statistics were employed. Descriptive research is the numerical index that describes or summarizes some of the characteristics of a frequency distribution (Frank and Althoen, 1994: 10). According to Bachman and Schutt (2007: 402), descriptive statistics is used in a quantitative research design to describe the distribution of and relationship among variables. Frequency tables and bar charts were utilized to describe the distribution (see chapter 7). All the analysis was conducted on the computer using Microsoft EXCEL and the SAS statistical software package. The data was then presented, numerically, in either frequency tables or bar charts, or both. The nature and results of all the analysis that was conducted are described in the next chapter (chapter 7).

6.11 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

In all research, reliability and validity are central issues in terms on how the research is executed. According to Neuman (1997: 138), both reliability and validity are concerned with how concrete measures and indicators are developed for constructs. Reliability deals with the dependability of indicators while validity is used to measure whether the results are “true” or “correct”. Babbie (2011: 129) defines reliability as the quality of measurement methods that suggest that the same data will have been collected each time the research is repeated. Reliability simply means that, when a phenomenon is measured under different conditions, it should yield the same score.

Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie, 2011: 131). In order for the researcher to achieve the principles of reliability and validity he ensures that the research methods that are used are fully discussed. In addition, the standard procedures in administering questionnaires were adhered to.

To adhere to the principle of validity, the questionnaire was submitted to senior academics, the supervisor and the statistician for items evaluation. Finally, as discussed in section 6.7 (under the heading pilot study), a pilot study was conducted in which the questionnaires were tested on offenders who were not part of the main study. The questionnaires for the pilot study were administered by the researcher who ensured that all problems related to some of the statements in the questionnaires were rectified.

6.12 SUMMARY

The main purpose of this chapter was to explain the research methods that the researcher used in the study; this chapter supplemented the discussion of the methods, as offered in chapter 1. In other words, the methods discussed in this chapter do not substitute what has been discussed in chapter 1 but explains it in greater detail.

The next chapter will focus on the statistical analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires.

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CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers and interpretation of the data collected during the course of the study together with an analysis thereof. As indicated in Chapter 6, descriptive research was employed to analyze the data of this study. According to Frank and Althoen (1994: 10), descriptive research is the numerical index that describes or summarizes some characteristics of a frequency distribution. Therefore, in this study, the analysis and interpretation will be discussed in two parts (Part A and B). In part A, the analysis will concentrate on the biographical data of the respondents. In part B, the analysis will concentrate on the components of unit management, namely: architecture, case management, risk management and human rights. Frequency Tables and Bar Charts will be used in the analysis of data in this study.

In addition to the data analysis to follow from section 7.3 below, further analysis was conducted on youth development centre constructs of architecture, case management, risk management and human rights (see Annexure C). Scale reliability testing was done to establish internal consistency, reliability of youth detention with regard to the four sections of the questionnaire and the subsequent calculation of perception scores was also performed. Finally, three tables were also used to provide a summary of the results of scale reliability (see Annexure C, table 1, 2 and 3). In table 2, an analysis of variance (anova) indicating significance was identified in terms of biographical attributes. In table 3, the score means are arranged according to the categories of biographical effects identified as significantly influencing the perceptions of the respondents.

7.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA: PART A

Sample size and descriptions of the research participants are overlooked in the analysis of the results in many research studies. In most cases, the readers are only interested in the analysis that reflects the research objectives and the problem statement. As part of the descriptive analysis, biographical data is valuable for ascertaining aspects like the maturity level, experiences and background of the respondents, as these factors tend to influence their opinions of specific issues. Therefore, biographical data is valuable in its own right. Various areas of biographical data, as relevant to this study, will now be discussed in detail.

7.2.1 GENDER

In terms of gender, male criminality is more popular than female criminality in all the criminal justice systems around the world. In the South African correctional system, more than 96 per cent of sentenced offenders are male. Female youth offenders constitute only two per cent of the general population of youth offenders. Due to this difference, there is no single independent Youth Development Centre for female offenders in South Africa. It was therefore, more viable for the researcher to include only male youth offenders in this study. The table outlines the statistics relevant to the gender of the respondents to this study.

FREQUENCY TABLE 1: GENDER OF THE RESPONDENTS

Gender distribution				
Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Male	379	100.00	379	100.00

As mentioned above, all the respondents were male. This is true to the assertion that the correctional environment is a male dominated environment. This is also consistent with the general offender population which is about (n=109804) female to (n=2663) males.

7.2.2 AGE

Frequency table 2 indicates that 52.24 per cent of the respondents were between 20 and 24 years old, while 44.85 per cent of the respondents were between 25 and 30 years old. Strictly speaking, the latter sets of respondents are legally described as adults, but they still fall under the definition of youth in South Africa. Finally, 2.90 per cent of the respondents were between 14 and 19 years old. The age groups of young offenders listed here concur with the Department of Correctional Services' statement of 2003. They indicated that the category of youth offenders, aged between 18 to 25 years, has been increasing rapidly since 1994.

FREQUENCY TABLE 2: AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Age distribution				
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
14 - 19 yrs	11	2.90	11	2.90
20 – 24	198	52.24	209	55.15
25 – 30	170	44.85	379	100.00

7.2.3 HOME LANGUAGE

Home language was included in this section with the purpose of determining the backgrounds and origins of the respondents. Through this information the reader can easily understand the ethnic and population groups of the respondents. Frequency table 3 indicates that the majority of respondents (27.97%) use Sesotho as their home language, 26.12 per cent of the respondents use IsiZulu as their home language, while 11.87% use Setswana. This is followed by those who speak isiXhosa (7.92%), Afrikaans (5.01%), Xitsonga (4.75%) and English (3.96%). The remaining respondents speak SiSwati (1.06%) and Tshivenda (1.06%) as their home language.

FREQUENCY TABLE 3: HOME LANGUAGE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Home languages distribution				
Language	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Afrikaans	19	5.01	19	5.01
English	15	3.96	34	8.97
Sepedi	30	7.92	64	16.89
Sesotho	106	27.97	170	44.85
Setswana	45	11.87	215	56.73
SiSwati	4	1.06	219	57.78
Tshivenda	4	1.06	223	58.84
Xitsonga	18	4.75	241	63.59
IsiNdebele	9	2.37	250	65.93
IsiXhosa	30	7.92	280	73.88
IsiZulu	99	26.12	379	100.00

7.2.4 EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Studies in the field of human and behavioural sciences indicate that there is a mutual relationship between illiteracy levels and the academic achievements of offenders (Alberta, 1997: 9). As indicated in chapter 2, the researcher emphasizes the importance of school in every young person's life; this discussion indicated that the school is the first site of socialization for youth. In other words, in addition to the rules set by parents, school administrators develop rules and regulations that the learners must adhere to. Generally, the purpose of these rules and regulations are to encourage responsibility and good behaviour amongst the learners.

In addition, Moolman and Kgosimore (1998: 46) indicate that low education levels have an influence on one's partiality to act unconsciously. Through this statement it is clear that low academic achievement can contribute to ignorance of the law. Frequency table 4 shows that a large number respondents of (79.95%) indicated that they attended high school. 12.93% of the respondents attended primary school, followed by 1.58% who did not indicate their educational background. Finally, 1.06% of the respondents did not attend school at all.

FREQUENCY TABLE 4: EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE RESPONDENTS

Distribution of Educational qualifications				
Qualification	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
No schooling	4	1.06	4	1.06
Primary school	49	12.93	53	13.98
High school	303	79.95	356	93.93
College/University	17	4.49	373	98.42
Other	6	1.58	379	100.00

7.2.5 LENGTH OF SENTENCES

Unlike previous decades, the youth of today do not only commit petty offences like pick-pocketing, stealing a few rands to buy sweets, stealing the toys of their peers or other related crime that, to a large extent, do not require the intervention of the criminal justice system. The types of crimes that they commit are violent and aggressive. Meyer (2000: 3) indicates that, unlike previous years where murder was not a popular crime committed by youth offenders, today the number of youths convicted for murder is almost double that of older offenders (42 out of every hundred males between the ages of 18 and 20 years are convicted of murder). The figure for robbery is higher than it is for other offences. The crime committed often influences the length of the sentence. In other words, offenders who committed violent crimes spend a longer period of time in correctional centres.

The sentence length imposed on youth offenders is depicted in Frequency table 5 below. The statistics regarding inmates' sentence lengths indicate that 30.08 per cent were serving sentences between 4-10 years, 26.18% were serving sentences between 1-3 years, while 21.90% were serving sentences between 11-20 years. Only 10.82% of the inmates who took part in this study were serving sentences of 6-12 months; this group is followed by inmates who serve sentences of less than six months, 3.96%. Finally, a small number of inmates (2.37%) were sentenced to serve life incarceration.

FREQUENCY TABLE 5: LENGTH OF RESPONDENTS' SENTENCES

Length of sentences				
Sentence	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
< 6 months	15	3.96	15	3.96
6 – 12 months	41	10.82	56	14.78
1 – 3 years	103	27.18	159	41.95
4 – 10 years	114	30.08	273	72.03
11 – 20 years	83	21.90	356	93.93
>20 years	14	3.69	370	97.63
Life	9	2.37	379	100.00

7.2.6 PLACE OF RESIDENCE PRIOR TO SENTENCING

Deviant behaviour amongst youth offenders is often influenced by the social environment surrounding them. Moreover, place of residence also provides additional clarification as to the causes of youth offending, specifically family aspects related to youth offending (see chapter 2). Frequency Table 6 indicates that a large number of inmates (76.72%) were staying with their families before incarceration, 8.73% were staying with their friends, while 6.35% were staying at their own houses and 5.03% mentioned that they were staying in rental accommodation. 2.12% of the respondents were residing on the street and a small number of inmates (0.79%) were residing at hostels, while 1% did not indicate their place of residence prior to incarceration.

FREQUENCY TABLE 6: PLACE OF RESIDENCE PRIOR TO SENTENCING

Place of residence prior to sentencing (1 missing)				
Place	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Family	290	76.72	290	76.72
Friends	33	8.73	323	85.45
Hostel	3	0.79	326	86.24
Rented home	19	5.03	345	91.27
Own home	24	6.35	369	97.62
On street	8	2.12	377	99.74
Other	1	0.26	378	100.00

7.2.7 YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTRE WHERE SENTENCE IS SERVED

Frequency Table 7 provides an overview of the youth development centres where inmates are incarcerated. The table indicates that 30.80% were serving their sentence at Leeuwkop Youth Development Centre while 24.54% of inmates were incarcerated at the Boksburg Youth Development Centre and another 24.54% at the Kroonstad Youth Development Centre. Finally, 19.53% of inmates were incarcerated at the Emthonjeni Youth Development Centre.

FREQUENCY TABLE 7: YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTRE WHERE SENTENCE IS SERVED

Youth Development Centre where sentence is served (2 missing)				
Centre	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Boksburg YDC	93	24.54	95	25.07
Leeuwkop YDC	117	30.87	212	55.94
Kroonstad YDC	93	24.54	305	80.47
Emthonjeni YDC	74	19.53	397	100.00

7.2.8 TYPES OF CRIMES COMMITTED

Youth involvement in serious crimes in South Africa has received substantial scholarly and public attention (Mathiba, 2011: 34; Palmary and Moat, 2002: 9). In fact, the scale of youth involvement in crime, specifically serious crime, amounts to a national public health crisis, and warrants urgent preventative and rehabilitative intervention. As indicated by the Department of Correctional Services (undated: 2), currently 17 565 sentenced youth offenders are incarcerated for aggressive crimes. On top of these aggressive crimes, 9 849 are serving sentences for economic crimes. Moreover, another 4 359 are sentenced for sexual crimes, while 648 offenders are sentenced for narcotics crimes. Finally, 1 712 offenders are sentenced under the crime category "other". It is therefore clear that the population of sentenced youth offenders consists primarily of inmates who are sentenced for aggressive, economic and sexual crimes.

The percentage of inmates incarcerated for various crimes is included in Frequency table 8 below. The primary crimes committed by the inmates who took part in this study were robbery (26.27%), house breaking (18.43%), rape (14.19%), violence (9.53%), theft/stolen goods, (9.32%) and murder (8.26%). In addition to these crimes, some of the inmates were sentenced for vehicle theft and car hijacking (2.54%), fraud (1.69%), attempted rape (1.27%) and drug dealing (1.06%). Finally, the following crimes were also part of the crimes committed by inmates: contempt of court (0.85%), culpable homicide (0.64) and substance abuse (0.64%), bribery and illegal immigration (0.42%). When perusing these statistics one must note that one person may be sentenced for more than one offence. In other words, the sentence length as indicated above is also influenced by multiple crimes committed by youth offenders. It is therefore clear that a large number of sentenced youth offenders are sentenced for serious offences.

FREQUENCY TABLE 8: TYPES OF CRIMES COMMITTED

Crimes committed (Cumulative frequency adds to more than 379 because one person may be sentenced for more than one offence)				
Crimes	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Violence	45	9.53	45	9.53
Culpable homicide	3	0.64	48	10.17
Murder	39	8.26	87	18.43
Rape	67	14.19	154	32.63
Attempted rape	6	1.27	160	33.90
Theft/Stolen goods	44	9.32	204	43.22
House breaking	87	18.43	291	61.65
Robbery	124	26.27	415	87.92
Vehicle theft	12	2.54	427	90.47
Hijacking	12	2.54	439	93.01
Fraud	8	1.69	447	94.70
Bribery	2	0.42	449	95.13
Substance abuse	3	0.64	452	95.76
Drug dealing	5	1.06	457	96.82
Illegal immigration	2	0.42	459	97.25
Contempt of court	4	0.85	463	98.09
Other	9	1.91	472	100.00

7.3 DATA ANALYSIS: PART B

The data analysis chapter of this study has been structured to reflect the measuring scale provided in the questionnaires. In other words, responses are a reflection of the questionnaires provided to respondents. The main aim of this study was to evaluate the implementation of components of unit management, namely; architecture, case management, risk management and human rights for sentenced youth offenders in South African Youth Development Centres. The researcher designed the questionnaire to reflect these components. The questionnaires were structured in two parts: Part A and B. Part A required biographical information from inmates, while Part B was divided into questions regarding the following categories:

- Architecture.
- Case management.
- Risk management, and
- Basic human rights of offenders.

7.3.1 ARCHITECTURE

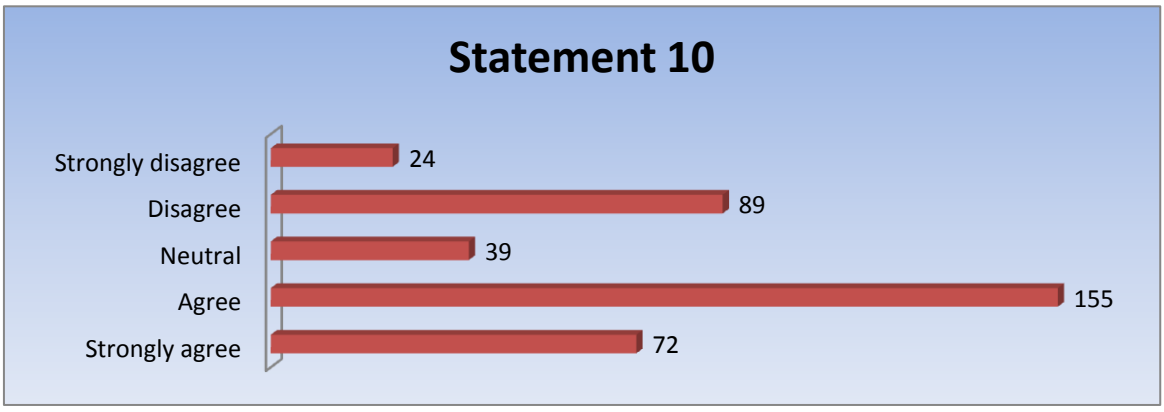
Correctional centre architectures were discussed in chapter 4 of this study. The historical developments of correctional centre architecture were also discussed. These discussions were linked to the idea of rehabilitation, in other words, how rehabilitation as a theory of crime influenced the design of correctional centre structures nationally and internationally. Specific attention was given to design and indirect supervision, design and direct supervision, architecture and the use of technology, architecture and negative expectations, architecture and stress levels of inmates, architecture, privacy and overcrowding. According to Muntingh (2006: 14), the majority of correctional centres (including the large urban ones) in South Africa were designed and built during previous era. By the same token, during the previous correctional era, rehabilitation of inmates was not a core business because punishment was at the forefront of South African correctional centres. Therefore, the correctional centre design was relevant to the concept of punishment and a popular phrase in corrections was "lock them up and throw the key away".

In South Africa, inmates are still incarcerated in large communes or dormitories which are easy to overcrowd. The inheritance of the apartheid design of correctional centres coupled with the current situation of crime in South Africa has caused inmates to be packed into these communal cells. Opportunities for them to develop are influenced primarily by the design of the centres in which they are incarcerated. Therefore, when considering the following analysis of correctional centre architecture, the reader must take these discussions in account. Correctional centre overcrowding is one of the main challenges facing the South African Correctional system. The overcrowding in most of our correctional centres also has a negative impact on efforts to

rehabilitate inmates. According to the Judicial Inspectorate of Correctional Services (2009: 16), the approved capacity of correctional centres was exceeded by 50 408 on the 31st of March 2009. However, the level of overcrowding varies in all correctional centres, according to geographical location, security classification and other related factors. In response to overcrowding, Frequency table 9 and Bar chart 2 indicate that the majority of inmates strongly agreed (n=72) and agreed (n=155) with the statement. (n=24) strongly disagreed and (n=89) disagree with the statement. (n=39) inmates were neutral about the level of overcrowding inside the communal cells in which they are detained. Overcrowding in cells has a negative impact on rehabilitation. The inmates thus cannot study properly or work on their projects during working hours.

FREQUENCY TABLE 9 AND BAR CHART 2: Statement 10 – The communal cell that I am accommodated is in overcrowded.

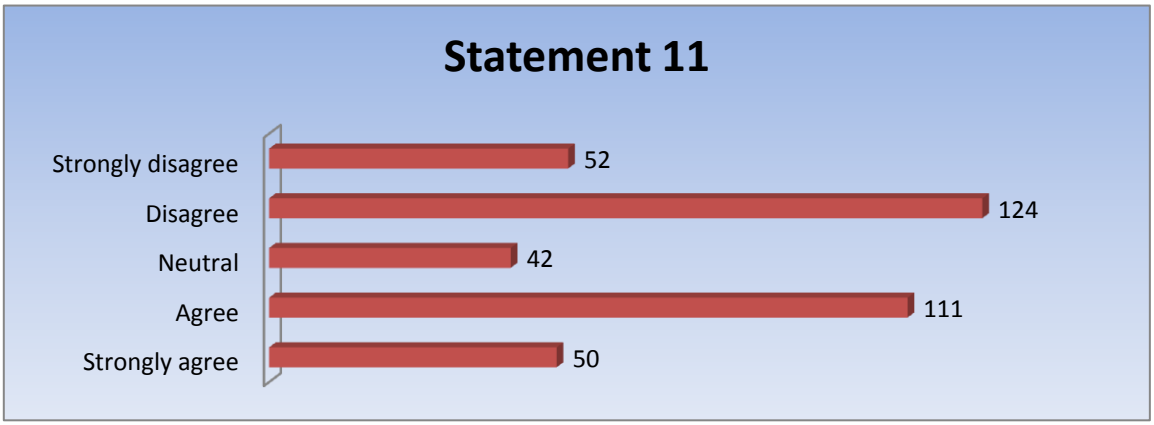
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
72	155	39	89	24	379



As indicated in Frequency table 10 and Bar chart 3 respondents were asked about their personal space in their cell. (n=124) disagree and (n=52) strongly disagree with the statement that they have sufficient personal space, (n=111) agree and (n=50) strongly agree. Only a few respondents were neutral about their personal space in the cell. With adequate personal space, inmates are able to cope well in the correctional environment; this can reflect positively on their rehabilitation. Unlike traditional correctional centres, in unit management inmates are accommodated in a small individual cell or in cells that accommodate only two inmates. Therefore, inmates always have their personal space.

FREQUENCY TABLE 10 AND BAR CHART 3: Statement 11 - The cell design ensures that I have sufficient personal space in my cell.

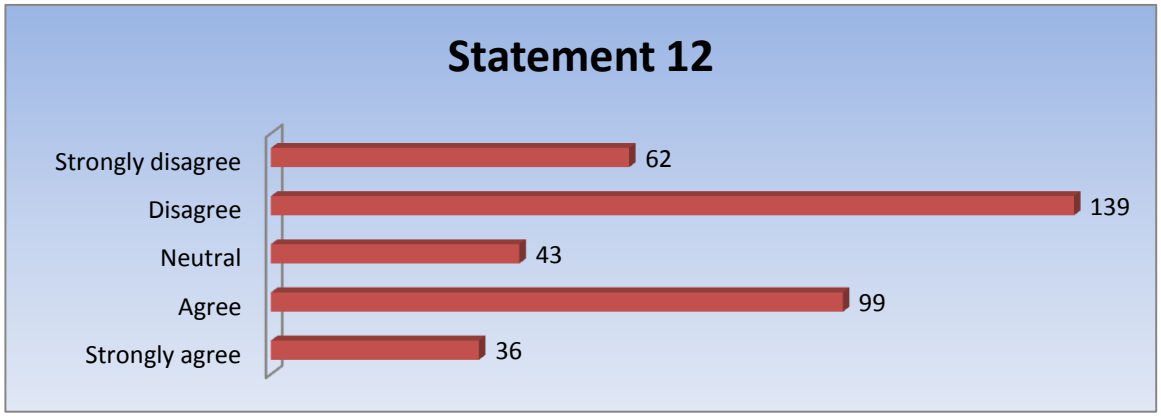
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
50	111	42	124	52	379



The security of inmates is an important factor that needs to be taken into consideration every day, together with strategic planning. Inmates must always be protected against possible victimization during their stay in correctional facilities. According to the South African Department of Correctional Services (2005: 131), security refers to the services rendered by their department with the aim of ensuring the provision of safe and healthy conditions consistent with human dignity for all people under their care, while providing security for their personnel and the public, as well as ensuring the safety of persons under its care. As Frequency Table 11 and Bar chart 4 indicate, the majority of inmates (n=139) disagree and strongly disagree (n=62) with this statement about their safety, while (n=99) agree and (n=36) strongly agree. A low number of inmates (n=43) were neutral about their personal safety amongst other inmates. In unit management, inmates are always safe as correctional staff members are able to observe inmates easily. Moreover, inmates are housed with a stable group of other inmates and this encourages a good relationship amongst them.

FREQUENCY TABLE 11 AND BAR CHART 4: Statement 12 - I feel safe among other inmates.

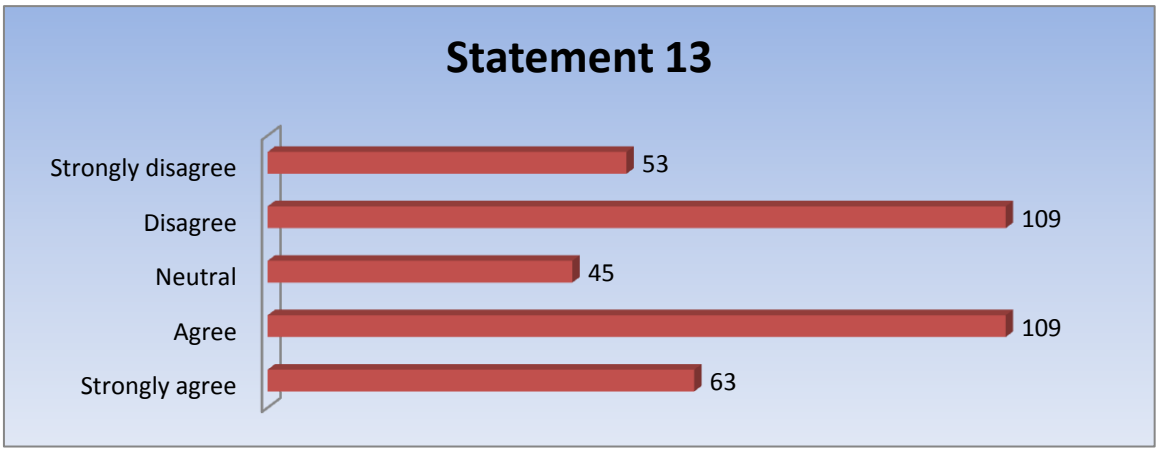
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
36	99	43	139	62	379



Although Frequency Table 11 and Bar Chart 4 make it possible for the reader to understand inmates' views about their safety in youth development centres, Frequency Table 12 and Bar Chart 5 shows that (n=109) inmates agree and (n=63) strongly agree with the statement about the safety of their personal property. In similar fashion, (n=109) disagree and (n=53) strongly disagree with the said statement. In other words, there were only a few inmates (n=10) who differ in terms of their opinions on the said statement. Finally, (n=45) inmates were neutral about the safety of their personal property. If inmates' personal property is kept safely, they will be able to pay greater attention to their personal development during rehabilitation programmes without thinking that their personal belongings will be stolen.

FREQUENCY TABLE 12 AND BAR CHART 5: Statement 13 - We have personal lockers, so my personal property is safe from theft.

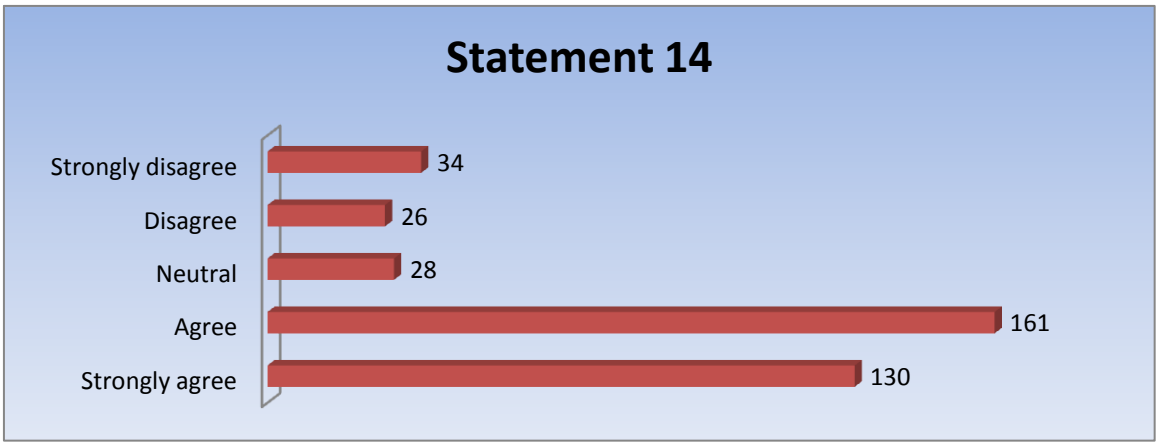
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
63	109	45	109	53	379



Weather conditions, due to different seasonal changes, also play a significant role in the daily activities of inmates in correctional centres. Much like ordinary citizens, inmates feel the effects of cold and warm weather. The cold weather conditions during winter often force many people to spend their time indoors. Moreover, additional resources like electric heaters are used to warm houses during winter. Most of the communal cells are erected in such a way that little sunlight penetrates the inside. In response to seasonal changes, particularly during winter, Frequency Table 13 and Bar Chart 6 below indicates that a large number of inmates (n=161) agree and (n=130) strongly agree that their communal cells are very cold, while (n=34) strongly disagree and (n=26) disagree with the statement. (n=28) inmates were neutral about the coldness of communal cells during winter.

FREQUENCY TABLE 13 AND BAR CHART 6: Statement 14 - During winter the communal cells are massively cold.

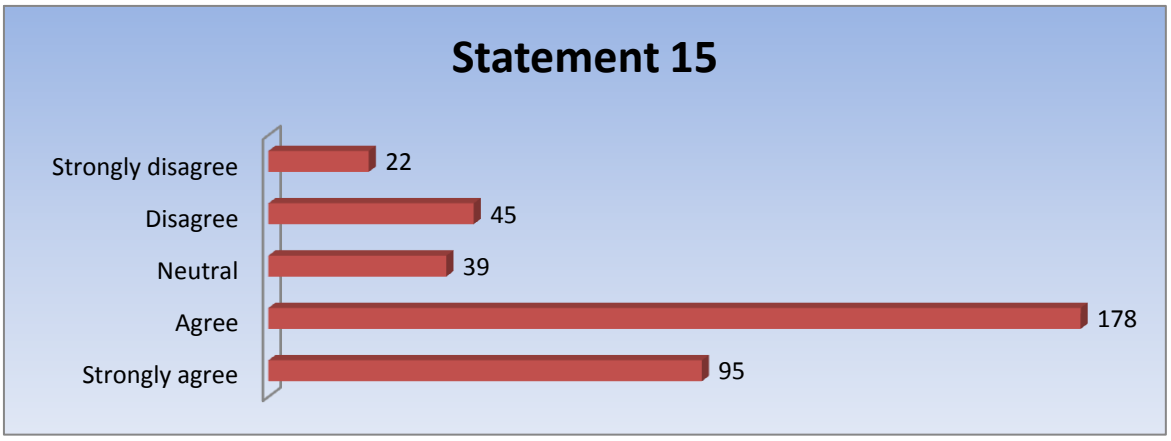
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
130	161	28	26	34	379



Although the effect of summer on inmates is better than that of winter, the correctional centre architecture also has a significant effect on the warmth of inmates. The only difference between summer and winter is that, the inmates can only wear light clothes thus mitigating the discomfort felt during summer. However, due to the high correctional centre walls which disallow the penetration of cool air, inside the cells or sections, the conditions during summer are also uncomfortable. In addition, because of the overcrowding of communal cells, the situation is even worse at night. Frequency Table 14 and Bar Chart 7 show that a significant number of inmates (n=178) agree and strongly agree (n=95) with the statement that during summer the communal cells are very hot. (n=45) disagree and (22) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=39) inmates were neutral about the statement.

FREQUENCY TABLE 14 AND BAR CHART 7: Statement 15 - During summer the communal cells are very hot.

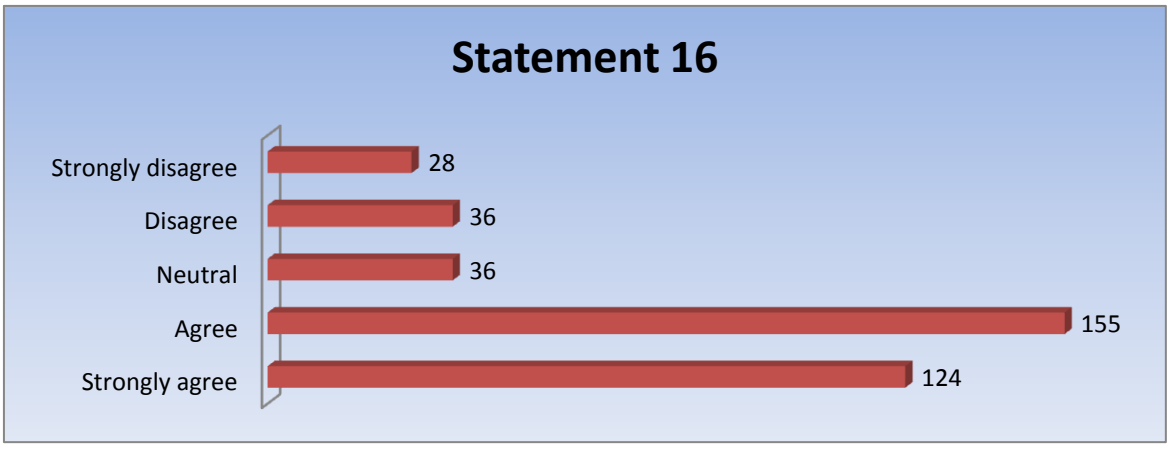
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
95	178	39	45	22	379



According to Coyle, Shelupanov and Walcher (2008: 206), inmates are not only deprived of their freedom in correctional centres, they are often exposed to special health risks. At the same time, their own capacity to manage these risks is severely constrained. In the case of health risks, inmates were asked about their perceptions of the sharing of toilets and showers. Frequency Table 15 and Bar Chart 8 show that the majority of inmates (n=155) agree and (n=124) strongly agree with the statement. (n=36) disagree and (n=28) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=36) inmates were neutral about the statement. Inmates with poor health spend most of their time at a correctional centre hospital or with healthcare workers. This means that they do not have quality time in which to attend rehabilitation programmes. In unit management, inmates are accommodated in single cells with a toilet located within the cell, which mitigates a number of these problems.

FREQUENCY TABLE 15 AND BAR CHART 8: Statement 16 - My health is at risk because the cells are designed in such a way that too many of us have to share toilets and showers.

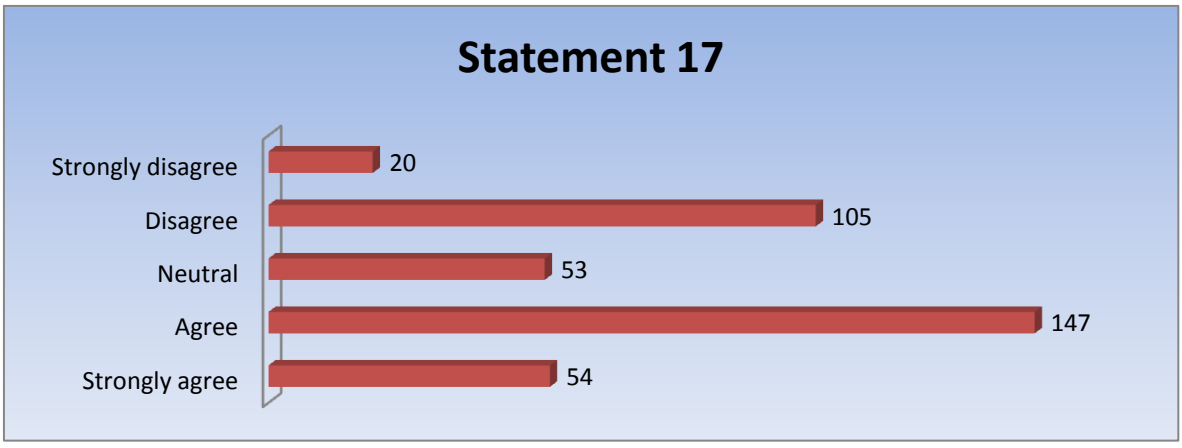
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
124	155	36	36	28	379



The safety of inmates during their incarceration is the responsibility of the Department of Correctional Services. In most cases, to survive victimization inmates use unauthorized articles or affiliate with correctional centre sub-cultures for their survival. Therefore, with regard to their protection by correctional officials, inmates were asked to indicate their perceptions about the response of correctional officials when inmates fight inside the sections or the cells. Frequency Table 16 and Bar Chart 9 show the responses in this question: (n=147) inmates agree, (n=54) strongly agree with the statement, (n=105) disagree, (n=20) strongly disagree, while (n=53) inmates were neutral about the statement. The continuous and active observation of inmates in their cells is a critical component of unit management. Correctional officials can easily respond to inmates' fights as they are able to observe their activities while remaining outside the cells.

FREQUENCY TABLE 16 AND BAR CHART 9: Statement 17 - The correctional centre design is such that the response time of correctional officials is slow when inmates fight.

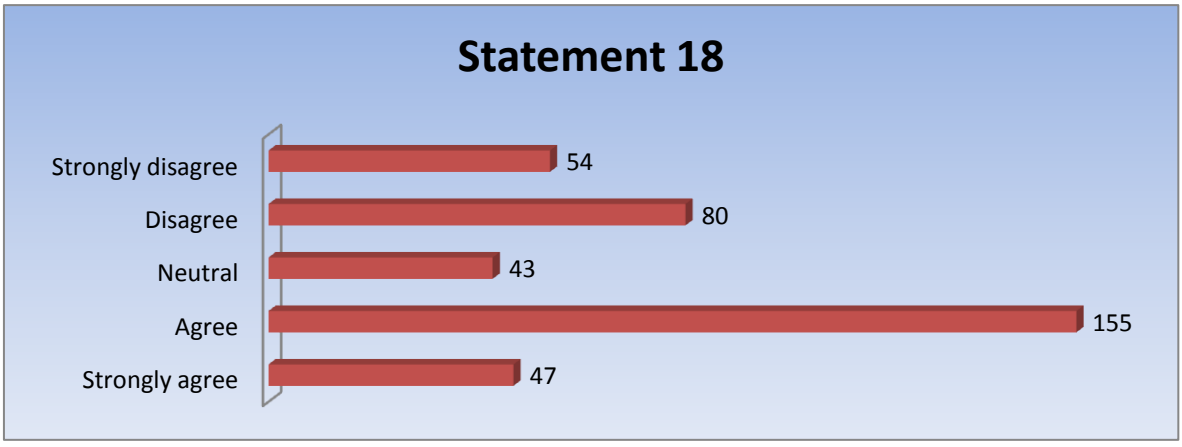
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
54	147	53	105	20	379



The different types of inmate supervision where discussed in chapter 4. These types of supervision are indirect and direct supervision. Indirect supervision is applied when correctional officials use visual electronic control to observe inmates, while direct supervision requires that correctional officials are responsible for managing day-to-day operations. Moreover, direct supervision allows correctional officials to observe inmates' activities within the housing unit. As discussed, the majority of South African correctional centre structures do not cater either for visual electronic control rooms or direct supervision where correctional officials can observe inmate behaviour. In this regard, Frequency Table 17 and Bar Chart 10 indicate that the majority of inmates (n=155) agree and (n=47) strongly agree with the statement, (n=80) disagree and (n=54) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=43) inmates were neutral about the statement.

FREQUENCY TABLE 17 AND BAR CHART 10: Statement 18 - Correctional officials are able to observe us from outside our cells.

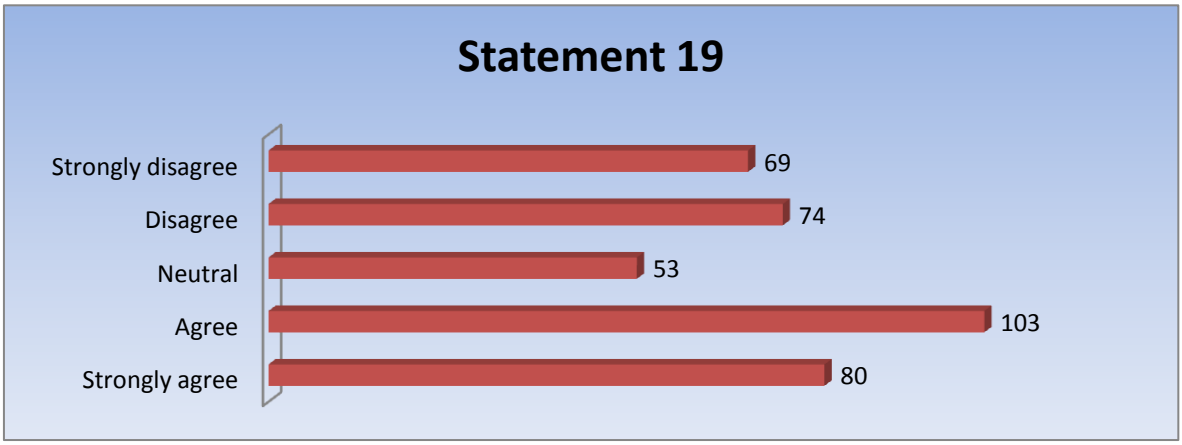
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
47	155	43	80	54	379



Frequency Table 18 and Bar Chart 11, below, show that the majority of inmates (n=103) agree and (n=80) strongly agree with the statement that, because cells cannot be continually monitored, gang members force other inmates to participate in gang activities. (n=74) disagree and (n=69) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=53) inmates remained neutral on the matter. Gang activities and rules prevent inmates from fully participating in rehabilitation programmes. Instead of encouraging inmates to strive for a crime free life, gangs are actively involved in violent activities. In unit management, correctional centre inmates are accommodated in single cells and they spend time in their cells at night studying or doing positive things.

FREQUENCY TABLE 18 AND BAR CHART 11: Statement 19 - Because cells cannot be continually monitored gang members force other inmates to participate in gang activities in the cells.

Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
80	103	53	74	69	379



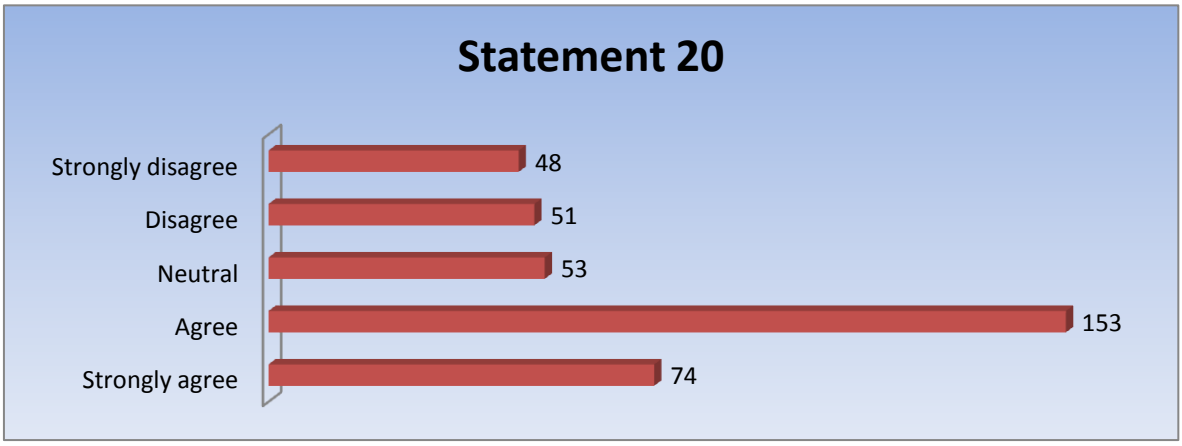
7.3.2 CASE MANAGEMENT

In chapter 3, case management was defined as a way of organising the movements of inmates through the correctional system (Luyt, 1999:127). For the purpose of this study, case management was defined as a flexible method of inmate management through the well organised planning of rehabilitative programmes that involve multi-disciplinary staff members within the correctional setting. In the preliminary literature review, specifically for the design of questionnaire statements for "case management", it was difficult for the researcher to develop statements that the inmates can easily understand and relate to. Case management is logical by nature and is easily understandable for people who deal directly with it. In other words, in correctional centres, the application of case management can be done through observation and textual analysis. The researcher should visit correctional centres and observe the handling of individual cases and the general management of inmates. For inmates, who normally do not have theoretical background of the topic, it is more difficult to understand. It was sometimes necessary to explain concepts like sentence plans and rehabilitation programmes to respondents.

On the matter of sentence plans, Frequency Table 19 and Chart 12 show that the majority of inmates (n=153) agree and (n=74) strongly agree with the statement that during admission their sentence plan was discussed with them. (n=51) disagree (n=48) strongly disagree with the statement while (n=53) inmates were neutral about the statement. In unit management every inmate's sentence plan is compiled within their first three months of sentence. The main purpose of information collected during sentence planning is to make critical decisions regarding inmates' institutional placement and needs.

FREQUENCY TABLE 19 AND BAR CHART 12: Statement 20 - During admission my sentence plan was discussed with me.

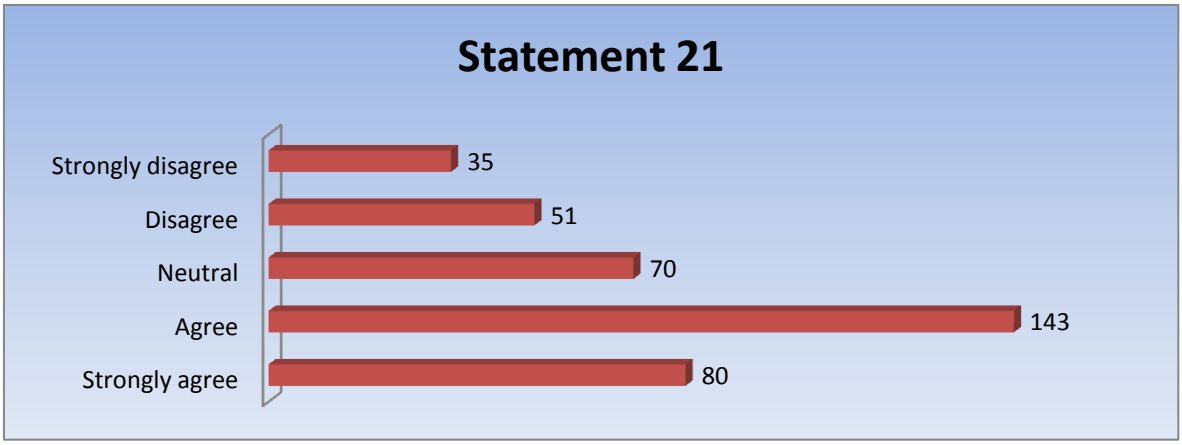
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
74	153	53	51	48	379



Rehabilitation, much like case management, is technical terminology. Unlike inmates, the rehabilitation, specifically its relevancy to the crime, can be effortlessly understood by the rehabilitator (correctional staff members) but not the receiver (inmates). In Frequently Table 20 and Bar Chart 13 the overwhelming number of inmates (n=143) agree and (n=80) strongly agree that the rehabilitation that they are currently undergoing is beneficial in terms of the crime they have committed. (n=51) disagree (n=35) strongly disagree with the statement while (n=70) inmates remained neutral about the statement.

FREQUENCY TABLE 20 AND BAR CHART 13: Statement 21 - Rehabilitation programmes that I am currently undergoing is beneficial to the crime/s that I have committed.

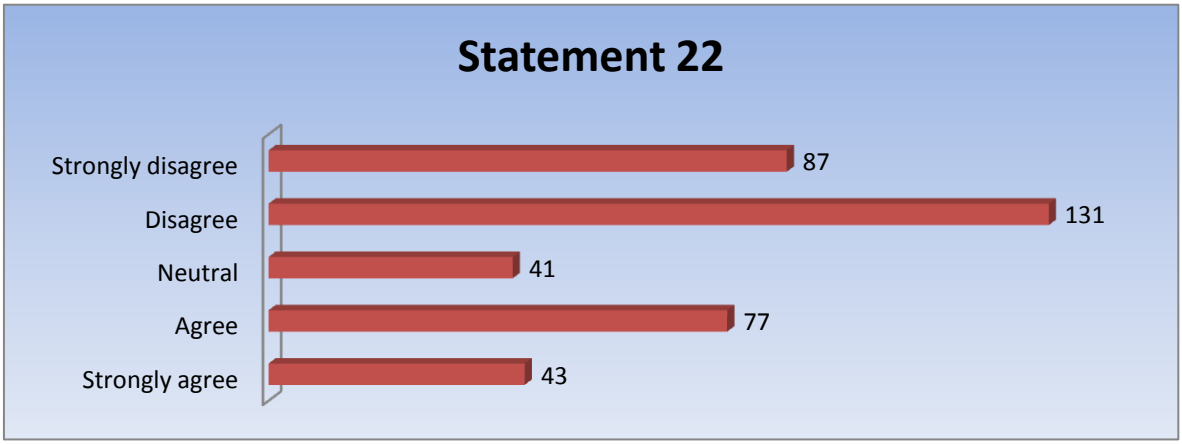
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
80	143	70	51	35	379



Correctional officials play an important role in the rehabilitation of inmates. Unlike other custodial staff members, correctional officials relate more closely to inmates. Inmates communicate with them on a regular basis, with regard to their daily challenges. Respondents were asked about inmate relationships with correctional officials. Frequency Table 21 and Bar Chart 14 clearly indicate that the majority of the inmates (n=131) disagree while (n=87) strongly disagree with the statement that they had good relationships with correctional officials. (n=77) agree and (n=43) strongly agree with the statement, while (n=41) were neutral about the statement. The unit management approach improves the interaction between correctional officials and inmates. Moreover, correctional officials are also involved in inmate development and this improves efficiency in the rehabilitation of inmates.

FREQUENCY TABLE 21 AND BAR CHART 14: Statement 22 - The relationship between inmates and correctional officials is good.

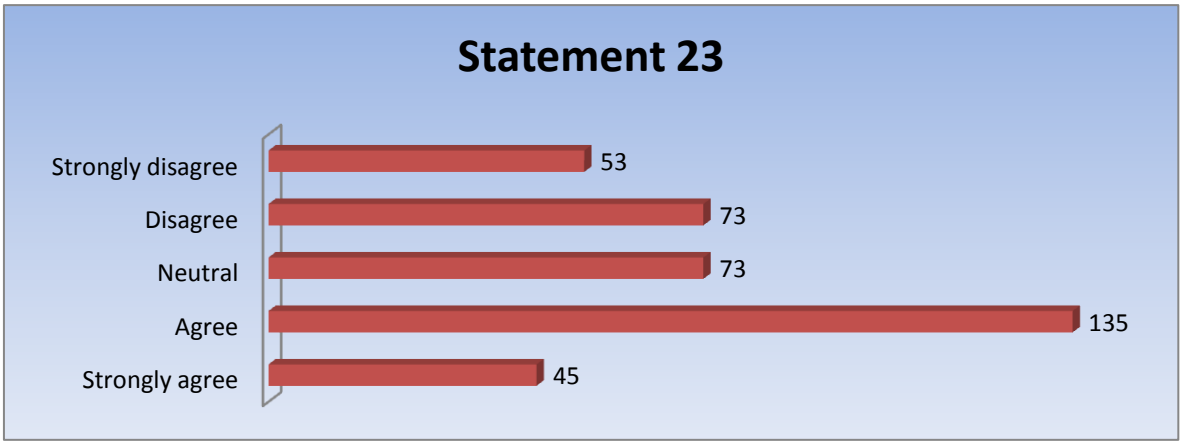
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
43	77	41	131	87	379



In correctional centres, a case officer is responsible for the case management of a specific number of inmates; the case officer supports them in their personal development. Case officers also define inmates' problems accurately and refer cases to other custodial therapists. Moreover, they act as an advocate for inmates. Inmates were asked about the role of case officers in the monitoring of their personal development. Frequency Table 22 and Chart 15 clearly indicate that the majority of inmates (n=135) agree and (n=45) strongly agree with the statement. (n=73) disagree while (n=53) strongly disagree with the statement. Lastly (n=73) were neutral when responding to the statement that a case officer is assigned to monitor their progress and personal development. In the unit management approach a case officer meets inmates on a regular basis in order to facilitate their development and rehabilitation. In other words, the rehabilitation of inmates is the central responsibility of a case officer.

FREQUENCY TABLE 22 AND BAR CHART 15: Statement 23 - A case officer is assigned to monitor my progress and personal development.

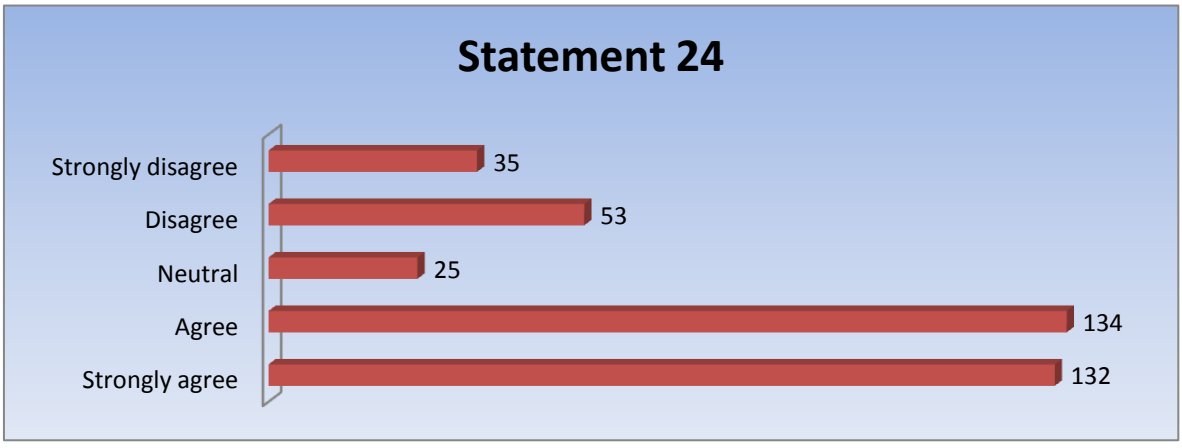
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
45	135	73	53	53	379



In Frequency Table 23 and Bar Chart 16, an overwhelming inmate number (n=134) agree and (n=132) strongly agree with the statement that they spend a lot of time alone, doing little or nothing (sitting or sleeping). A very low number of inmates (n=53) disagree while (n=35) strongly disagree with the statement. Only (n=25) remained neutral on the matter. Within the unit management approach, inmates' needs are addressed during structured day programmes. A day is structured to give inmates an opportunity to participate in rehabilitation programmes. Moreover, in terms of unit management principles, all inmates have their own schedule that has been determined in consultation with them about their particular needs.

FREQUENCY TABLE 23 AND BAR CHART 16: Statement 24 - I spend a lot of time alone doing little or nothing (sitting or sleeping).

Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
132	134	25	53	35	379



7.3.3 RISK MANAGEMENT

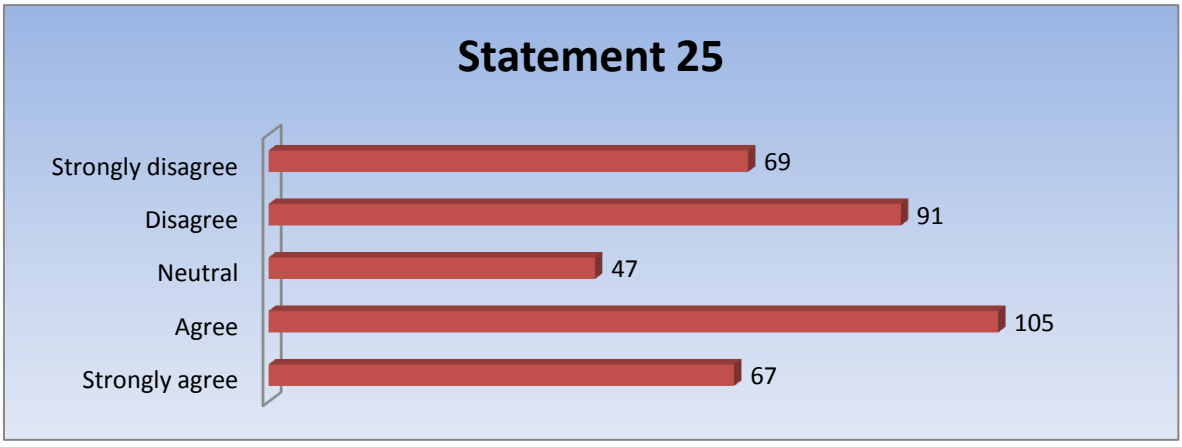
Inmates are serving their sentences because they have committed criminal offences. The majority of these offences are drug, violence, robbery and sex related crimes (Silverman, 2001: 239). In correctional centres, risk management implies that the correctional system must implement effective measures to prevent any possible harm that inmates can cause to themselves or other inmates. For the purpose of this study, the researcher designed this section (risk management) on the questionnaire with a specific focus on the most popular risk behaviours that inmates are exposed to while serving their incarceration terms. These risks include sexual activities, drug use and gangsters in correctional centres (for further discussions on the said risk taking behaviour in correctional centre see chapter 3).

The researcher is therefore of the opinion that as soon as inmates identify the risks that they are exposed to it will be easier to determine the implementation of risk management as a component of unit management. In correctional centres, drugs are smuggled in a variety of ways. According to Moshoeu (2010: 150), the use of intravenous drugs is becoming popular in Africa. She further indicates that (2010: 150) heroin is a commonly used intravenous drug around the world. As far as drug use in correctional centres is concerned, the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa does not disclose any figures in their official reports (Luyt, 2010: 150). Luyt (2010: 150) further indicates that social workers conducted 5 194 interviews with youth offenders on the subject of alcohol and drug dependency in 2006. Approximately 1 025 young offenders were drug dependent.

With regard to the use of drugs in youth development centres, Frequency Table 24 and Bar Chart 17 below indicate that (n=105) inmates agree and (n=67) strongly agree with the statement, (n=91) disagree and (n=69) strongly disagree, while the minority (n=47) of inmates were neutral about the use of drugs by their fellow inmates. Therefore, these results confirm what we already know about substance use in correctional centres. Various substances are indeed available to and consumed by inmates. The use of drugs amongst inmates delays and prevents them from participating in rehabilitation programmes. Moreover, inmates with drug problems tend to suffer psychologically. Because of the structured day programme in the unit management approach, inmates are always busy with educational and development programmes. Moreover, through direct supervision, correctional officials are able to supervise inmates properly and identify those who have a drug abuse problem.

FREQUENCY TABLE 24 AND BAR CHART 17: Statement 25 - Inmates use drugs in this correctional centre.

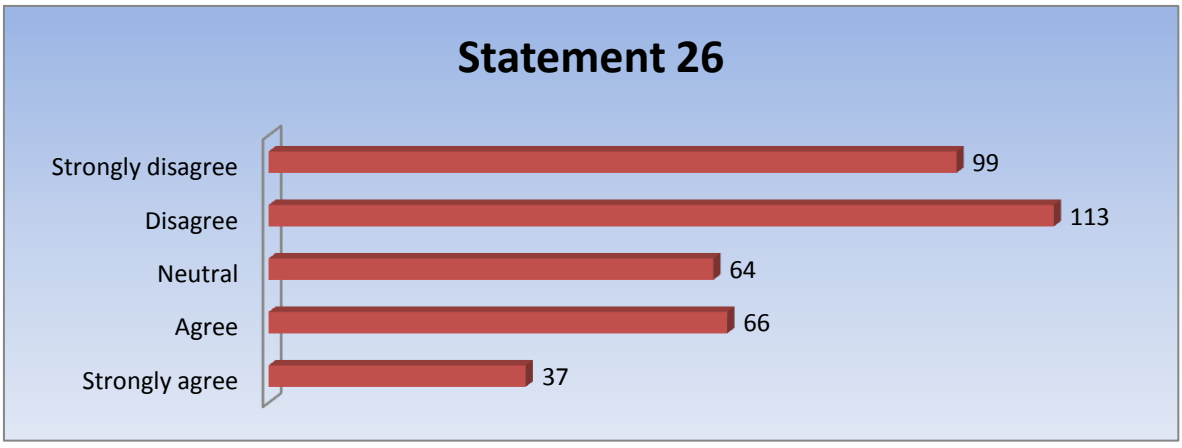
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
67	105	47	91	69	379



The sharing of non-sterilized drug injection equipment is not popular among the South African inmate population. However, in the study conducted by Moshoeu at Leeuwkop Correctional centre, 52.27% of inmates agreed that hypodermic needles were shared amongst inmates in the centre (Moshoeu, 2010:151). Frequency Table 25 and Bar Chart 18, below, show that the majority (n=113) disagree, while (n=99) strongly disagree with the statement that some inmates inject themselves with drugs in their correctional centres. (n=66) agree while (n=37) strongly agree with the statement. Finally, (n=64) inmates were neutral about the statement. The sharing of needles poses a serious risk to the health of inmates. Additionally, in the unit management approach, inmates who share needles can be housed at a treatment and development unit with the specific purpose of developing and treating inmates with drug problems.

FREQUENCY TABLE 25 AND BAR CHART 18: Statement 26 - Some inmates inject themselves with drugs in this correctional centre.

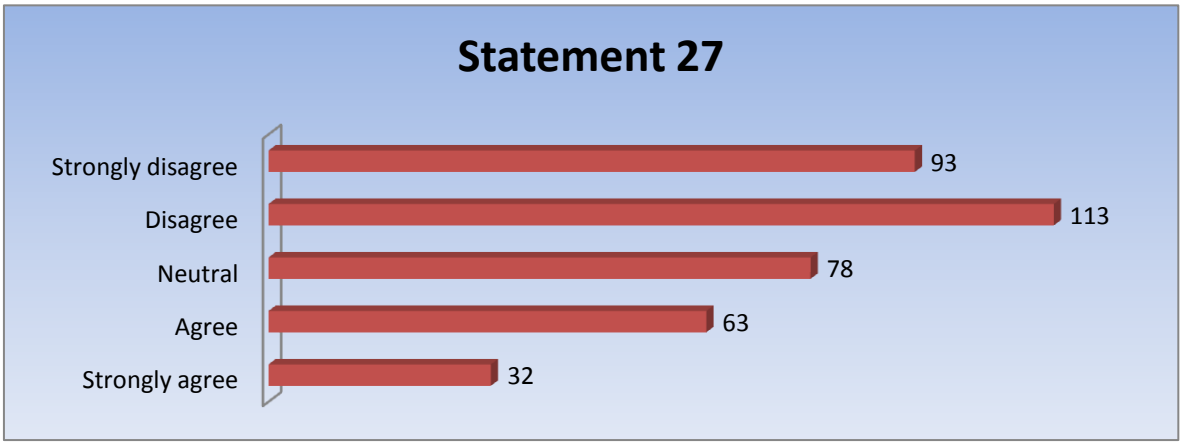
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
37	66	64	113	99	379



In Frequency Table 25 and Bar Chart 18, above, the majority of respondents disagreed with the statement that inmates inject themselves with drugs. As a supplement to these above findings, Frequency Table 26 and Bar 19 show that the majority of inmates (n=113) disagree or (n=93) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=63) agree and only (n=32) strongly agree; (n=78) were neutral on the topic of whether those inmates who take intravenous drugs share needles with one another. The sharing of needles endangers the lives of inmates and prevents them from participating in rehabilitation programmes.

FREQUENCY TABLE 26 AND BAR CHART 19: Statement 27 - Those who inject drugs in this correctional centre share needles with other inmates.

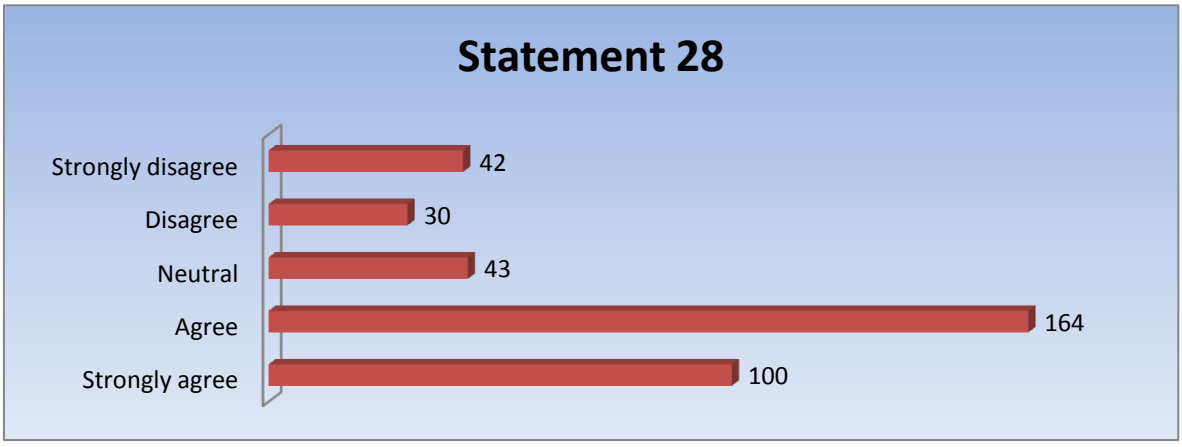
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
32	63	78	113	93	379



Sexual activity in correctional centres is a widespread practice across the globe (Phillips and Roberts, 2000: 233). However, in the South African correctional system, the prevalence of sexual behaviour among inmates was denied for a long time (Luyt, 2008: 149). Luyt further (2008: 150) indicates that this denial was, to a large extent, based on the argument that departmental policies prohibit sexual behaviour amongst inmates. To substantiate these statements, as evident in Frequency Table 27 and Bar Chart 20 below, the data reveals that the majority of inmates (n=164) agree and (n=100) strongly agree with the statement that inmates prefer to have anal sex with one another. A few (n=30) disagree and (n=42) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=43) inmates were neutral about the statement. Homosexual relationships amongst inmates have an effect on their rehabilitation and development. Moreover, inmates contract various sexual related diseases that need special attention and cure by healthcare workers.

FREQUENCY TABLE 27 AND BAR CHART 20: Statement 28 - Inmates prefer to have anal sex with one another.

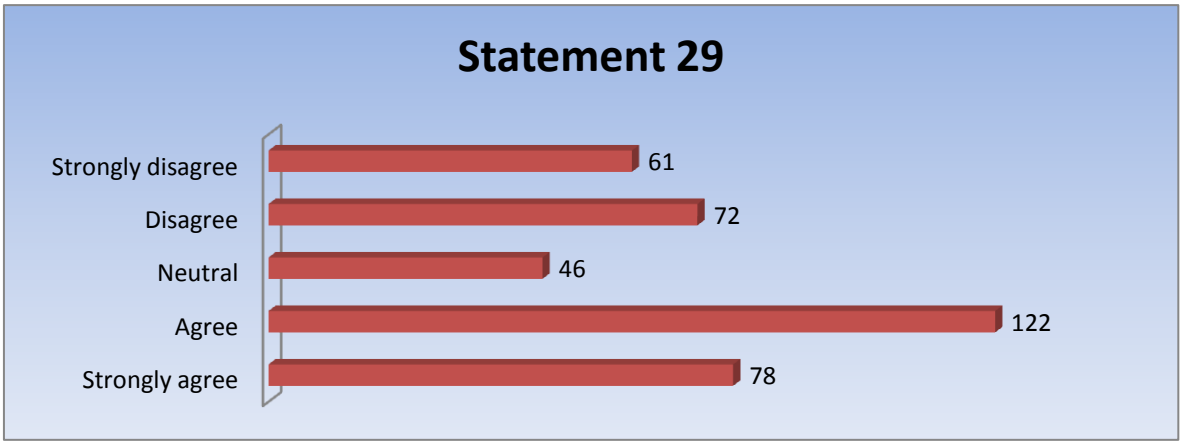
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
100	164	43	30	42	379



Inmates are exposed to various types of victimization, including forced sexual interaction; this kind of behaviour is called deception. Younger, newcomers are often forced by older inmates to participate in sexual intercourse (Jali Commission of Inquiry, 2006: 34). From the findings, as reflected in Frequency Table 28 and Bar Chart 21, the majority of inmates (n=122) agree and (n=78) strongly agree with the statement that some inmates force them to have sex. (n=72) disagree while (n=61) strongly disagree with the statement, whiles (n=46) inmates were neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, correctional officials are able to observe inmate behaviour inside their cells at any time. Additionally, because inmates are accommodated in single cells or they share a cell which accommodates two or three inmates it is difficult for others to force them to have sex, this is less difficult than in a communal cell where many inmates are housed together without the direct supervision of correctional officials.

FREQUENCY TABLE 28 AND BAR CHART 21: Statement 29 - Some inmates force you to have sex with them.

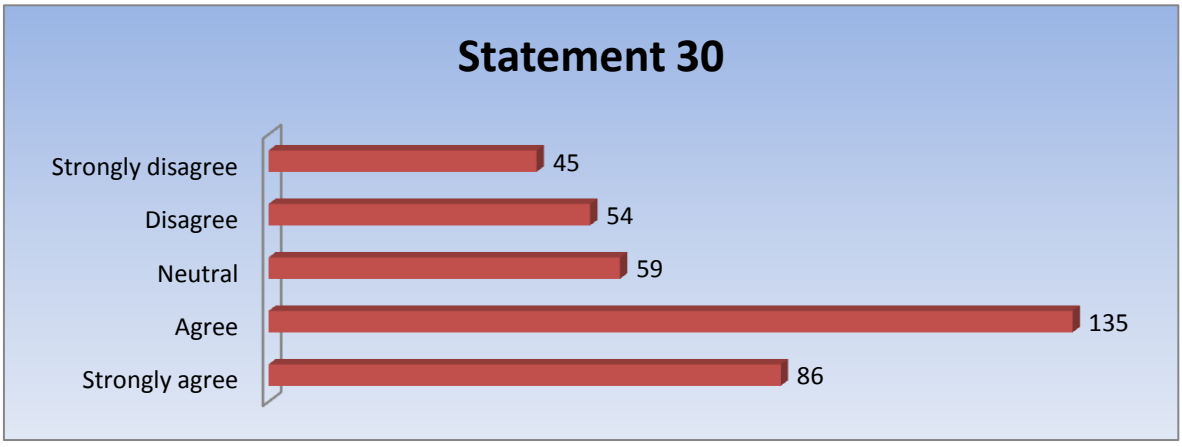
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
78	122	46	72	61	379



Rape in correctional centres takes on different forms. The most brutal is gang rape in which one man is raped by more than two perpetrators. In 2006, the Jali Commission of Inquiry (2006:34) indicated that "the horrific scourge of sexual violence that plagues South African correctional centres were appalling abuses and acts of sexual perversions are perpetrated on helpless and unprotected inmates". The commission further indicated that youths are especially vulnerable to being viewed as commodities to be sold or traded by more powerful inmates. In this study, inmates were asked about the frequencies of rape in their cell at night. In Frequency Table 29 and Chart 22, below, the majority of inmates (n=135) agree and (n=86) strongly agree with the statement, (n=54) disagree while (n=45) strongly disagree; (n=59) inmates remained neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, better observation of inmates enables the early detection of problems before they reach critical proportions. In other words, within their cells, inmates are always observed by correctional officials for unauthorized behaviour.

FREQUENCY TABLE 29 AND BAR CHART 22: Statement 30 - Inmates get raped in their cells at night.

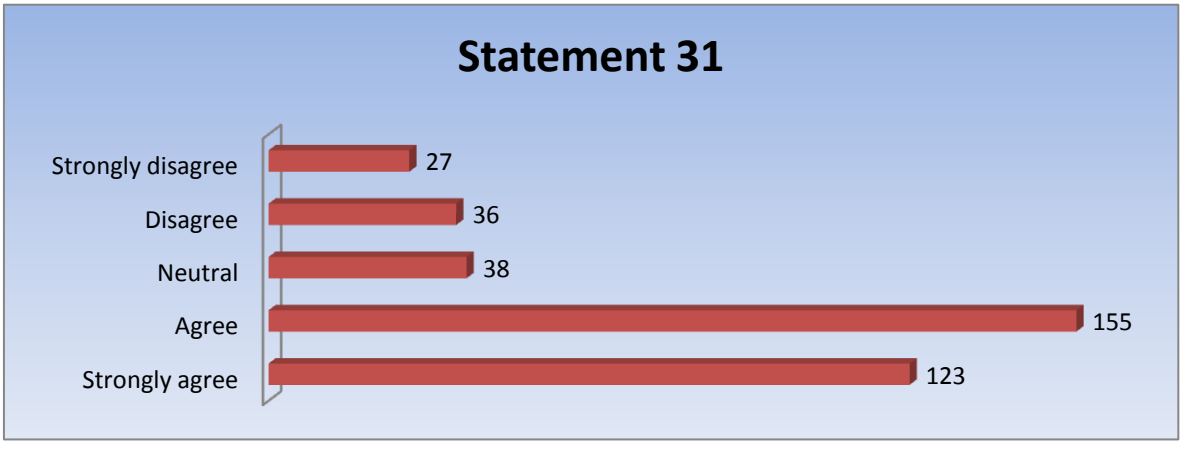
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
86	135	59	54	45	379



As indicated earlier, in order to survive in a correctional centre an inmate needs protection and resources. Resources involve money to buy smuggled food from the correctional centre kitchen, as well as tobacco, alcohol, marijuana and other drugs. Money is unauthorized in correctional centres; however, inmates manage to carry cash on them. Therefore, to access cash, inmates sell themselves to other inmates by means of sex. In Frequency Table 30 and Bar Chart 23, below, one finds that the majority of inmates (n=155) agree and (n=123) strongly agree with the statement that some inmates pay to have sex with others. A very low number (n=36) disagree and strongly disagree (n=27) with the statement, while (n=38) inmates were neutral about the statement.

FREQUENCY TABLE 30 AND BAR CHART 23: Statement 31 - Some inmates pay to have sex with others.

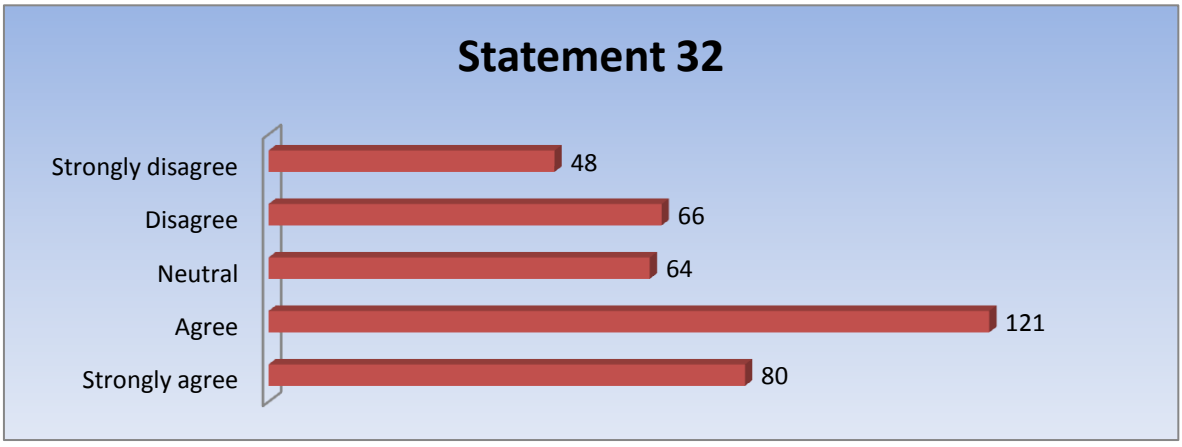
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
123	155	38	36	27	379



Correctional centre gangs are powerful organised crime structures within the correctional system; they have been with us for the past 120 years. High-risk behaviours in correctional centres are directly related to gang activities. One of the most popular number gangs' (the 28s) activities revolves around sex and prostitution (Coetzee, Kruger and Loubser, 1995: 186). Recently, it has been found that inmates who do not comply with certain rules of a particular prison gang are punished by being forced to have sex with inmates who are infected with HIV. Frequency Table 31 and Bar Chart 24 show that the majority of inmates (n=121) agree and strongly agree (n=80) with the statement, while (n=66) disagree and (n=48) strongly disagree with statement that gang members will rape to punish you. (n=64) inmates were neutral about the statement. The punishment of inmates by means of rape in correctional centres has detrimental psychological effects, which may result in a poor response in terms of their personal development and rehabilitation efforts.

FREQUENCY TABLE 31 AND BAR CHART 24: Statement 32 – Some gangs will rape you to punish you.

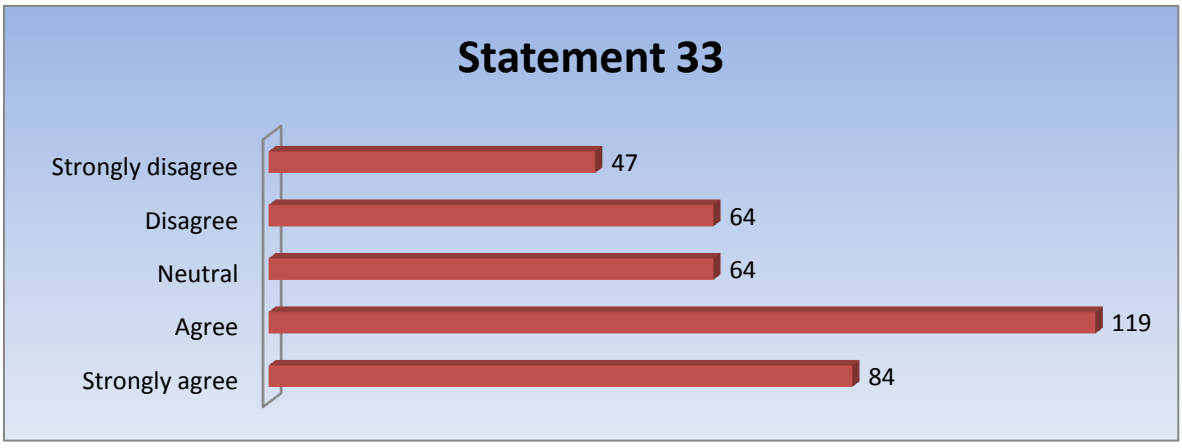
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
80	121	64	66	48	379



Gang leaders hold powerful positions within correctional centre gangs. They often use their position to access resources and live a life of luxury inside the correctional centre. Because of their status, gang leaders are able to get what they want and have sex with any inmate they please. To justify these statements, in this study, inmates were asked about the influence of gang leaders' position in relation to sexual their sexual contact with other inmates. The results in Frequency Table 32 and Bar Chart 25 indicate that the majority of inmates (n=119) agree and strongly agree (n=84) with the statement, (n=64) disagree and strongly disagree (n=47) with the statement, while (n=64) inmates remained neutral. In the unit management approach, violent inmates and gangsters are accommodated in a special unit, which provides specialized rehabilitation programmes for gang leaders and violent inmates.

FREQUENCY TABLE 32 AND BAR CHART 25: Statement 33 - Gang leaders choose who they want to have sex with.

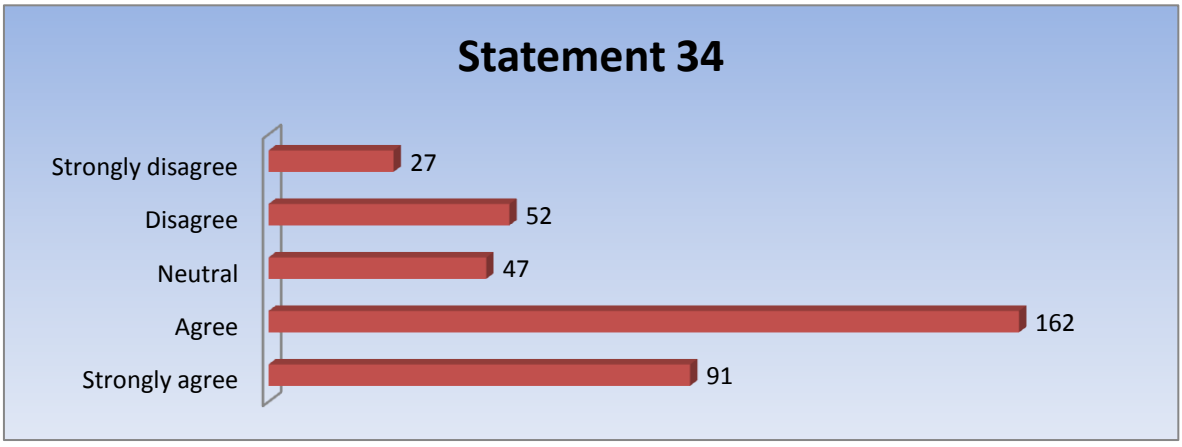
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
84	119	64	64	47	379



A correctional centre gang is an organisation which operates within the correctional system itself, as a self perpetuating crime oriented entity. It consists of a selected group of inmates who have their own particular code of conduct. In the South African Correctional system gangs can be linked to high-risk behaviour. Moreover, most inmates affiliate with various gangs to protect themselves against possible victimization from other gang members. In the case of gang affiliation, Frequency Table 33 and Bar Chart 26 show that a large number (n=162) agree and strongly agree (n=91) with the statement that most of the inmates are gang members. A very low number of inmates (n=52) disagree and (n=27) strongly disagree with the statement. (n=47) were neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, inmates attend rehabilitation programmes until late in the evening, and this structured day allows correctional officials an opportunity to watch over the activities of inmates. Therefore, because of the structured day programme, inmates do not have sufficient time to engage in gang related activities.

FREQUENCY TABLE 33 AND BAR CHART 26: Statement 34 - Most inmates are gang members.

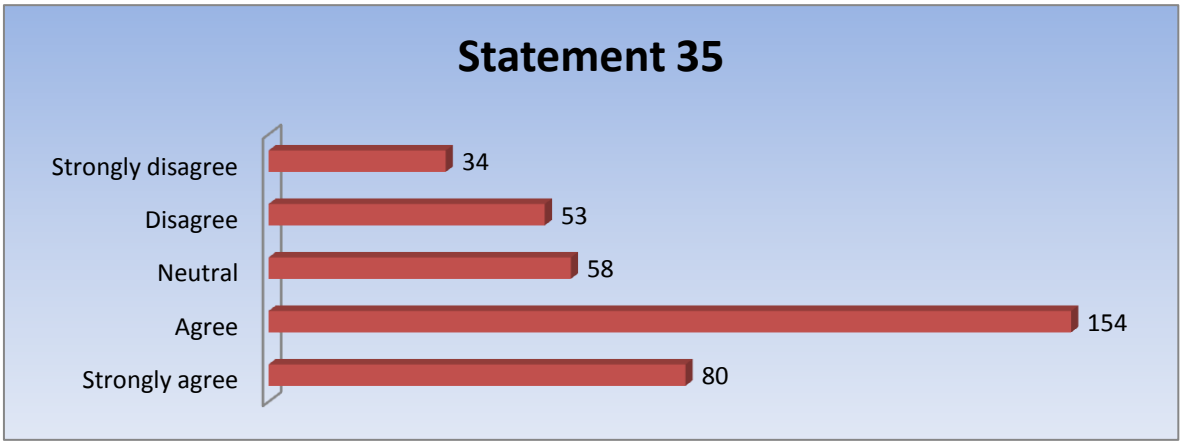
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
91	162	47	52	27	379



Inmates were also asked whether gang members intimidate other inmates. Frequency Table 34 and Bar Chart 27 clearly indicate that the majority of inmates (n=154) agree and (n=80) strongly agree with the statement. A small group of inmates (n=53) disagree, while (n=34) strongly disagree with the statement. Finally, (n=58) inmates were neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, inmates are always under the direct supervision of correctional staff members. Therefore, it is difficult for gang members to intimidate others.

FREQUENCY TABLE 34 AND BAR CHART 27: Statement 35 - Gang members often intimidate other inmates.

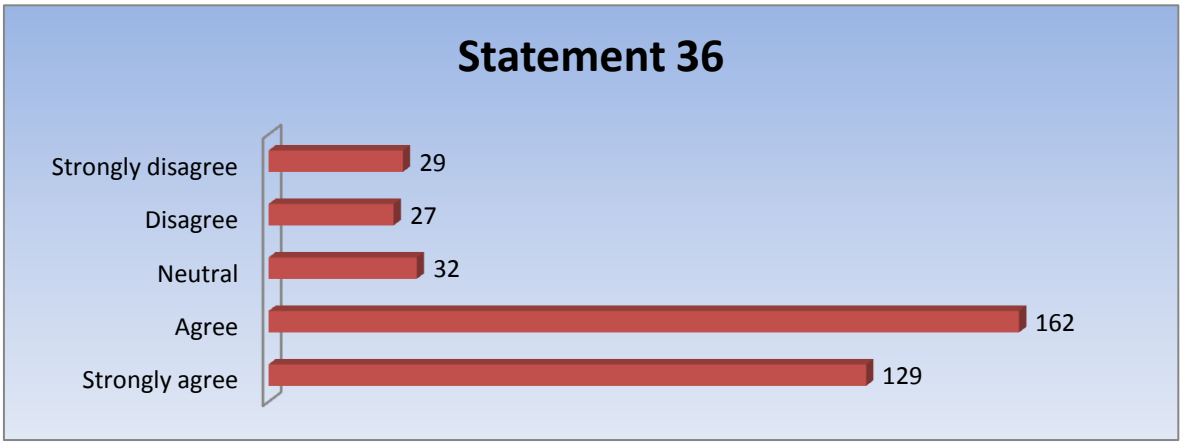
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
80	154	58	53	34	379



Correctional centre gangs cause violence in correctional centres. Gangs are responsible for most of the violence in correctional centres (Mays and Winfree, 2005: 180). Although violence in correctional centres is primarily caused by gang members, in some cases it happens without any gang influence. Frequency Table 35 and Bar Chart 28 indicate that the majority of inmates (n=162) agree and strongly agree (n=129) with the statement that gang members causes violence in their correctional centres. A very low number (n=27) disagree and strongly disagree (n=29) with the statement. (n=32) remained neutral. Gang activities jeopardize efforts, on the part of correctional systems, to rehabilitate inmates. Therefore, unit management helps to bring order and control the violence in correctional centres. This approach divides a correctional centre into small, self contained units. In each unit, a team of multi-disciplinary staff members is responsible for inmate development. Therefore, because of direct supervision from staff members, it is difficult for gang members to organize violence related activities.

FREQUENCY TABLE 35 AND BAR CHART 28: Statement 36 - Gang members cause violence in this correctional centre.

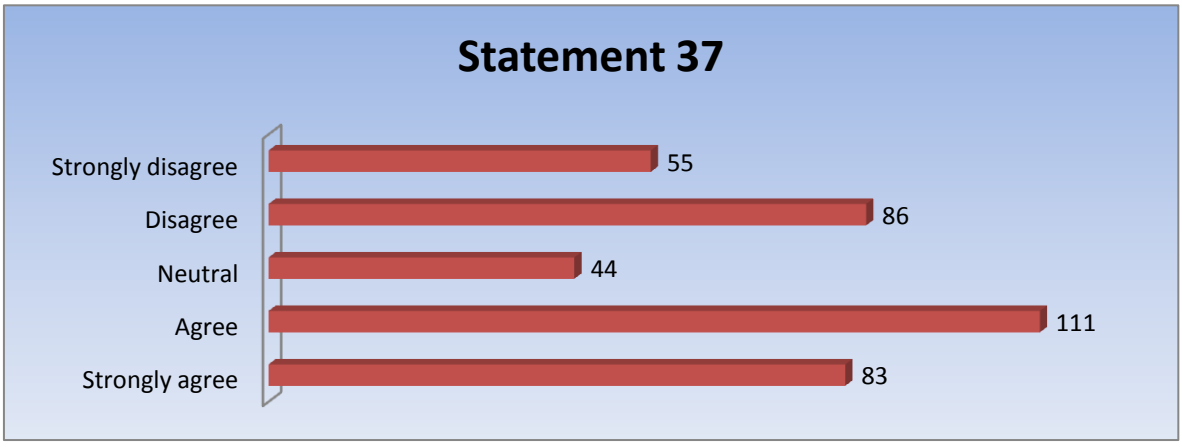
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
129	162	32	27	29	379



Because of the violent environment, the majority of inmates are forced to join gangs for personal protection. Moreover, gangs provide access to luxuries in the correctional centre. The operation of correctional centre gangs is not authorized, therefore, the system itself does not benefit from gang operation. It is also impossible for the inmates to be protected from victimization by gang members because of the challenges, such as overcrowding and lack of continuous supervision, as indicated earlier. Frequency Table 36 and Bar Chart 29 shows that majority of inmates (n=111) agree and strongly agree (n=83) with the statement, (n=86) disagree and strongly disagree (n=55), while (n=44) inmates were neutral on the topic of whether gang affiliation would protect inmates. The instability of inmates, because of intimidation by other inmates, has a negative impact on inmates' personal development and their rehabilitation. The greater the inmates' involvement in gang activities, for personal protection, the more likely they are of becoming involved in unauthorized behaviour in correctional centres.

FREQUENCY TABLE 36 AND BAR CHART 29: Statement 37 - If you are not a gang member no one will protect you.

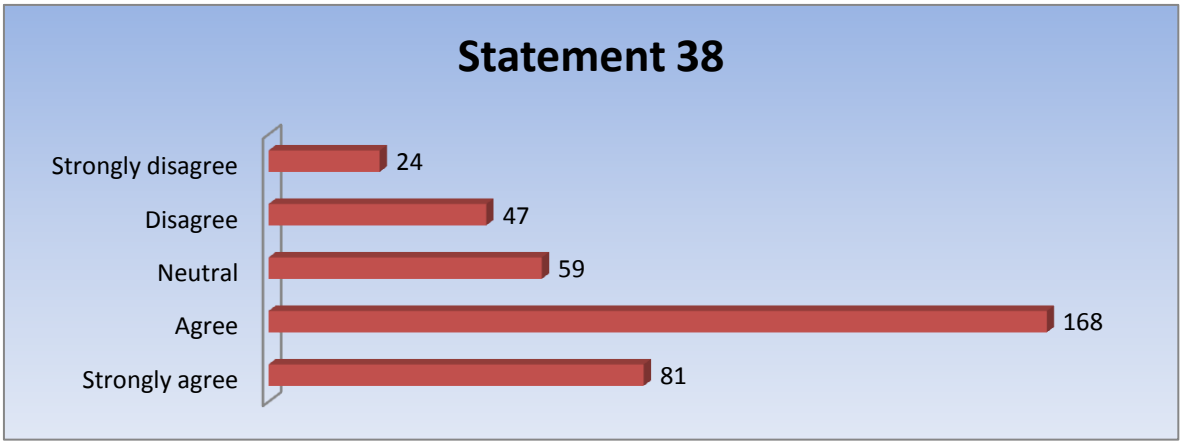
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
83	111	44	86	55	379



Contraband or unauthorized articles are items that inmates are not allowed to possess (Seiter, 2002: 224). Unauthorized articles can assist inmates to escape, subvert the physical security of inmates and undermine the maintenance of a safe and secure correctional centre environment. Frequency Table 37 and Bar Chart 30 below indicate that the majority of inmates (n=168) agree and strongly agree (n=81) with the statement. A very low number (n=47) disagree and strongly disagree (n=24), while (n=59) inmates were neutral about the smuggling of unauthorized articles into their correctional centres by gang members. In unit management, unit staff members share the responsibility of helping to maintain the integrity of the centre's security system. These shared responsibilities include an active programme for searching inmates and their housing areas, as well as the property of inmates' cells.

FREQUENCY TABLE 37 AND BAR CHART 30: Statement 38 - Gang members smuggle unauthorized articles into this correctional centre.

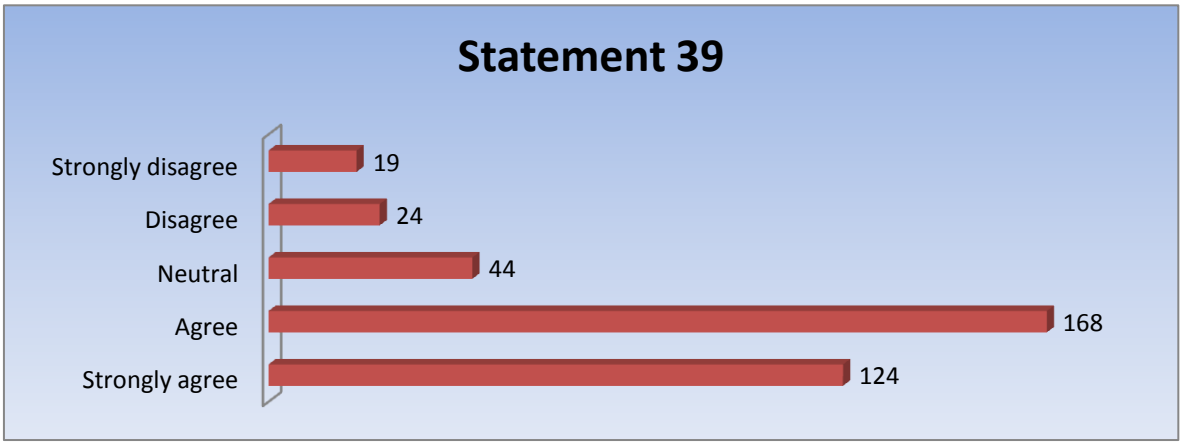
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
81	168	59	47	24	379



The fights between inmates can be linked to insufficient supervision by correctional staff members. Moreover, a high level of tension, as a result of continuous conflict, leads to fights amongst inmates (Neser, 1993:209). Frequency Table 38 and Bar Chart 31 show that an overwhelming number of inmates (n=168) agree and strongly agree (n=124) with the statement that inmates frequently fight their centres. A very low number of inmates (n=24) disagree and strongly disagree (n=19) with the statement, while (n=44) inmates were neutral about the statement. Instead of multiple-occupancy cells or dormitory cells, unit management provides for single or dual-occupancy cells. These cells provide better security for inmates and reduce inmate fights. Additionally, unit management divides the large number of inmates into small, well defined and manageable groups whose members develop a common identity and close association with each other. This close association contributes to unity amongst inmates and prevents unnecessary fights.

FREQUENCY TABLE 38 AND BAR CHART 31: Statement 39 – Inmates fight a lot with each other.

Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
124	168	44	24	19	379



7.3.4 HUMAN RIGHTS OF OFFENDERS

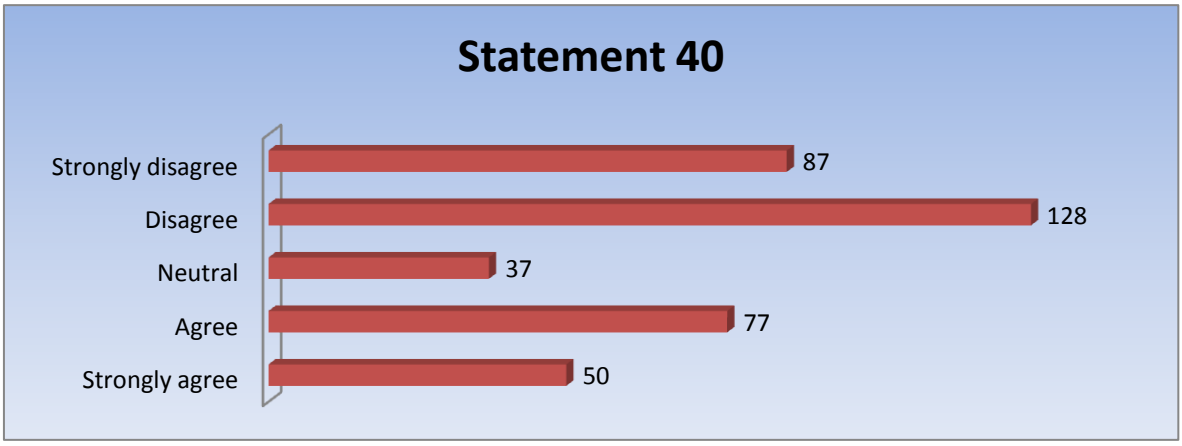
The Bill of Rights, as contained in the Constitution of South Africa 108 of 1996, is regarded as the cornerstone of South Africa's democracy. Section 7 (1) of the Constitution indicates that the Bill of Rights enshrines the rights of all people of South Africa and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom (Republic of South Africa, 1996:15). Inmates, like ordinary citizens, are also entitled to their basic human rights. However, due to their incarceration, some of their rights will be limited until they are released. The rights of inmates are protected by section 35 (1) of the Constitution.

In this study, the most important section of the Constitution will be section 35 (2). Section 35 (2) states that everyone who is detained has the right to conditions of detention that are consistent with human dignity, including exercise and the provision, at state expense, of adequate accommodation, nutrition, reading material and medical treatment. Section 35 (2) (f) further states that the detainee has the right to communication and be to visited by their spouse or partner, next of kin, chosen religious counsellor and medical practitioner. The right to the human dignity of detainees is also protected by the Bill of Rights. The data analysis of the basic human rights of inmates will be discussed in this section of the study.

In relation to the equal treatment of inmates, by correctional officials, during their incarceration, Frequency Table 39 and Bar Chart 32 below show that the majority of inmates (n=128) disagree and strongly disagree (n=87) with the statement that correctional officials treat all inmates equally. (n=77) agree and (n=50) strongly agree with the statement, while (n=37) remained neutral. In the unit management approach, correctional officials are responsible for smaller groups of inmates. Therefore, correctional officials can more easily give inmates equal attention.

FREQUENCY TABLE 39 AND BAR CHART 32: Statement 40 - I feel that the officials treat all inmates equally.

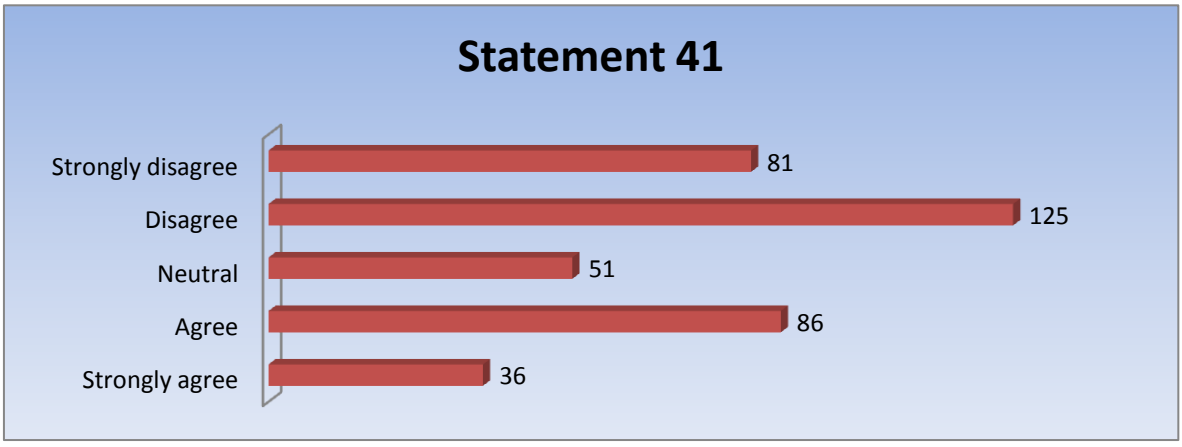
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
50	77	37	128	87	379



One of the main objectives of correctional systems is to correct the offending behaviour of inmates. Although they had committed crimes, inmates are still entitled to their dignity as human beings. Section 10 of the Bill of Rights states the following regarding human dignity: "Everyone has inherited dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected" (Republic of South Africa, 1996: 19). Frequency Table 40 and Bar Chart 33 indicates that an overwhelming number of inmates (n=125) disagree and strongly disagree (n=81) with the statement. (n=86) agree and (n=36) strongly agree with the statement that inmates, as human beings, are always treated with dignity, while (n=51) were neutral. In the unit management approach, the principle of normalization reduces the stigma of being an inmate. In addition, grouping inmates into smaller groups creates a stronger sense of identity. This results in improved self esteem which leads to better prospects for rehabilitation. Finally, a closer relationship with correctional officials, and open communication, promotes mutual trust and a sense of being trustworthy.

FREQUENCY TABLE 40 AND BAR CHART 33: Statement 41 - Inmates, as human beings, are always treated with dignity.

Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
36	86	51	125	81	379



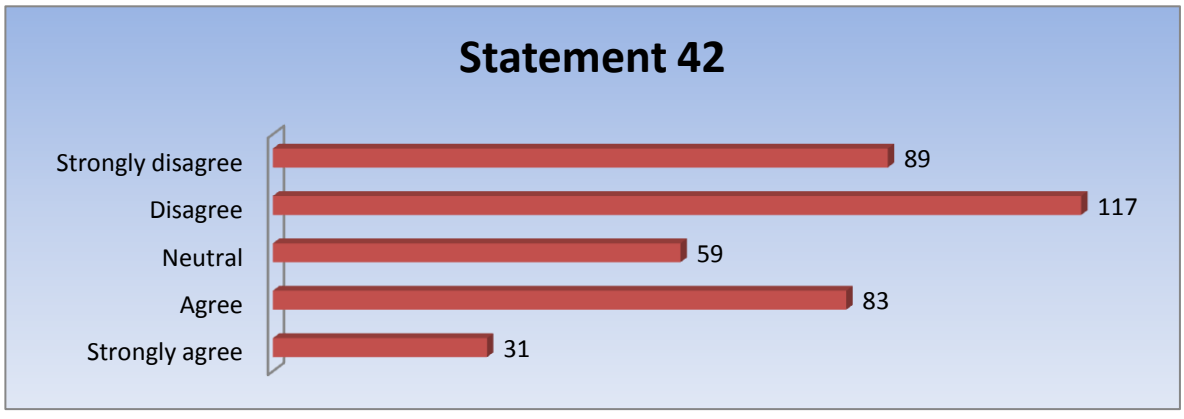
With regard to inmate security, Section 12 of the Bill of Rights indicates that "(1) everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person", which includes the following subsections relevant to this study:

(c) The right to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources;
(d) The right not to be tortured in any way; and
(e) The right not to be treated and punished in a cruel, inhumane or degrading way.

Frequency Table 41 and Bar Chart 34 indicate that most inmates (n=117) disagree and strongly disagree (n=89) with the statement that they feel safe or without risk to their life. (n=83) agree and strongly agree (n=31) with the statement while (n=59) were neutral. In the unit management approach, inmates are safe as they are accommodated in dual and single cells. Furthermore, a well organised system of movement control promotes both security and the presence of correctional officials, and this provides a secure environment.

FREQUENCY TABLE 41 AND BAR CHART 34: Statement 42 - I always feel safe without risk to my life.

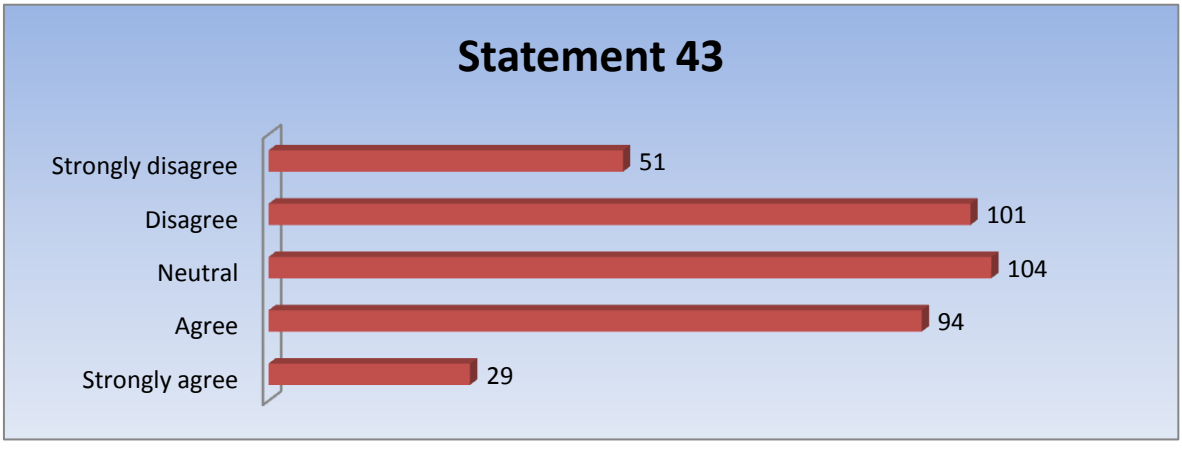
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
31	83	59	117	89	379



Section 13 of the Bill of Rights makes provision that "No one may be subjected to slavery, servitude or force labour". Labour or vocational training increases inmates' employment opportunities after release. In Frequency Table 42 and Bar Chart 35 below (n=101) disagree and strongly disagree (n=51) with the statement that they sometimes perform manual labour without their consent. (n=94) agree while (n=29) strongly agree with the statement and a large number of (n=109) inmates were neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, a case management committee develops a sentence plan based on inmates' development and rehabilitation needs. Therefore, developing a sentence plan for inmates makes them more willing to do specific forms of labour.

FREQUENCY TABLE 42 AND BAR CHART 35: Statement 43 - We sometimes perform manual labour without our consent.

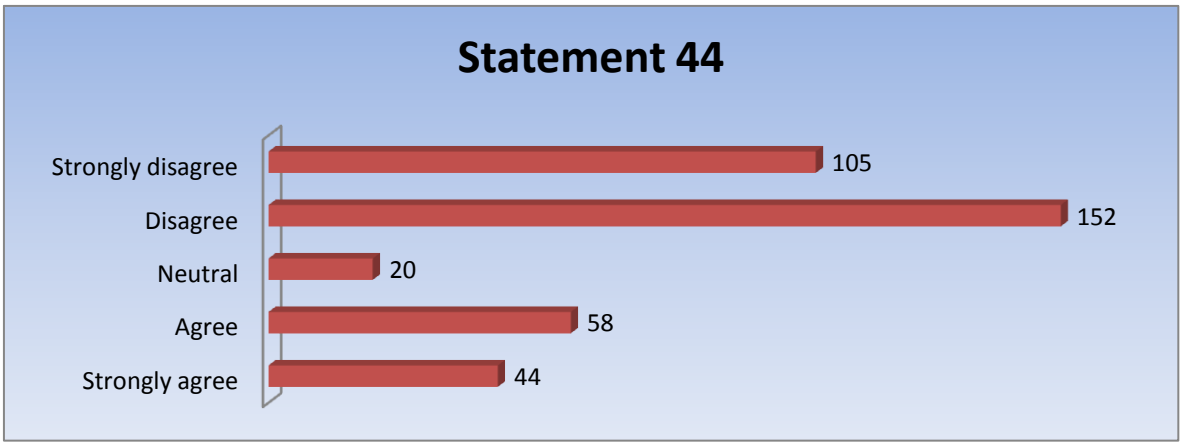
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
29	94	104	101	51	379



Just like any other citizen, inmates also need privacy. Personal privacy allows individuals to reflect upon their surroundings, challenges and solutions for their problems. Inmates also need privacy when embarking on activities like washing or bathing themselves, dressing themselves, using toilet facilities, and practicing their traditional and/or religious customs. Frequency Table 43 and Bar Chart 36 indicate that an overwhelming majority of inmates (n=152) disagree and strongly disagree (n=105) with the statement that they have personal privacy in their correctional centres. (n=58) agree and strongly agree (n=44) with the statement while (n=20) were neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, inmates are accommodated in single or dual cells; the respect for their privacy in these venues is better than it is in a dormitory or communal cell.

FREQUENCY TABLE 43 AND BAR CHART 36: Statement 44 - I do have personal private space in correctional centre.

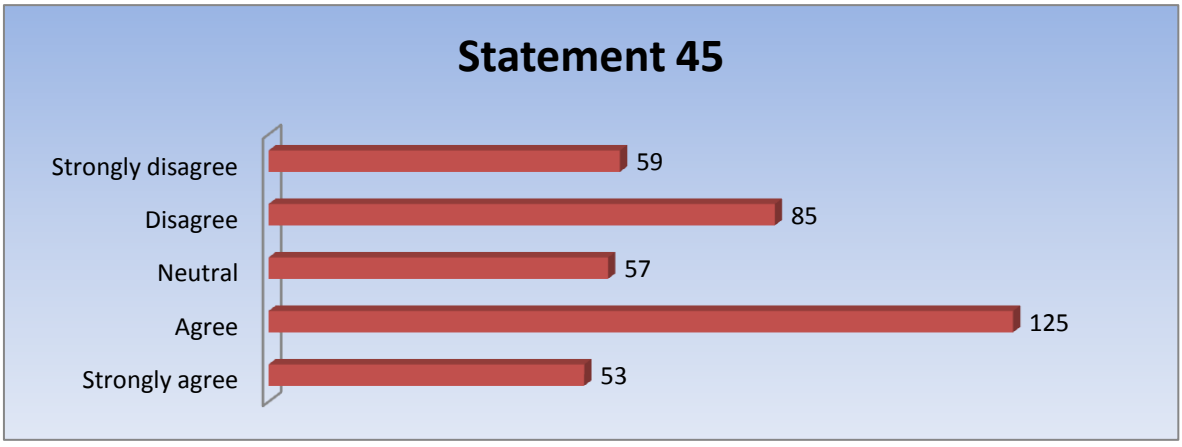
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
44	58	20	152	105	379



The opportunity for inmates to express their opinions, especially with regard to their sentence plans and daily activities could assist in the smooth operation of correctional centres. It must be noted that inmates are human beings who can think properly and take the right decisions in life. Therefore, they must be provided with the opportunity to express their beliefs and opinions. In Frequency Table 44 and Bar Chart 37, below, it is evident that a large number of inmates (n=125) agree and strongly agree (n=53) with the statement, (n=85) disagree, while (n=59) strongly disagree with the statement. Finally, (n=57) were neutral about the statement that in the correctional centre, they have enough opportunity to express their beliefs and opinions. In unit management, inmates are provided with the opportunity to express their beliefs and opinions at town hall meetings. The purpose of a town hall meeting is to provide answers regarding rules and those aspects of correctional centre life which affect the inmate population.

FREQUENCY TABLE 44 AND BAR CHART 37: Statement 45 – In the correctional centre, I have enough opportunity to express my beliefs and opinions.

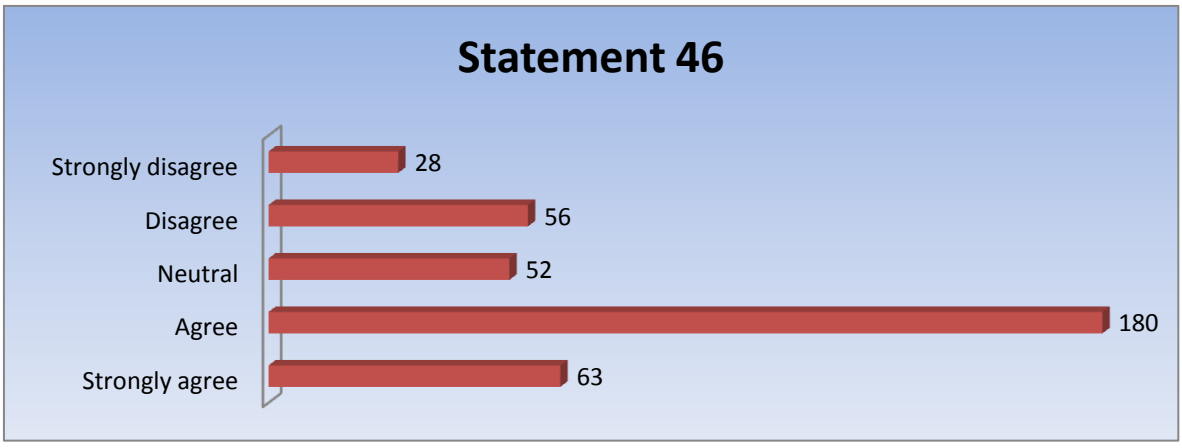
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
53	125	57	85	59	379



Personal interaction between individuals in the same circumstances helps them to share their feelings and encourage each other to be strong. The correctional centre environment is far from a normal social environment. Inmates are deprived of association with their families and friends. Therefore, they are required to make new friendships and have someone to talk with regarding their experiences. Frequency Table 45 and Bar Chart 38 provide the inmate responses to being asked about their opportunities to meet with other inmates. A large number (n=180) agree and strongly agree (n=63) with the statement, a few (n=56) disagree and strongly disagree (n=28), while (n=52) were neutral about the statement that, in prison, they are allowed to meet with other inmates. Because of various rehabilitation programmes and town hall meetings in the unit management approach, inmates are always in positive contact with others.

FREQUENCY TABLE 45 AND BAR CHART 38: Statement 46 - In correctional centre, I am allowed to meet with other inmates.

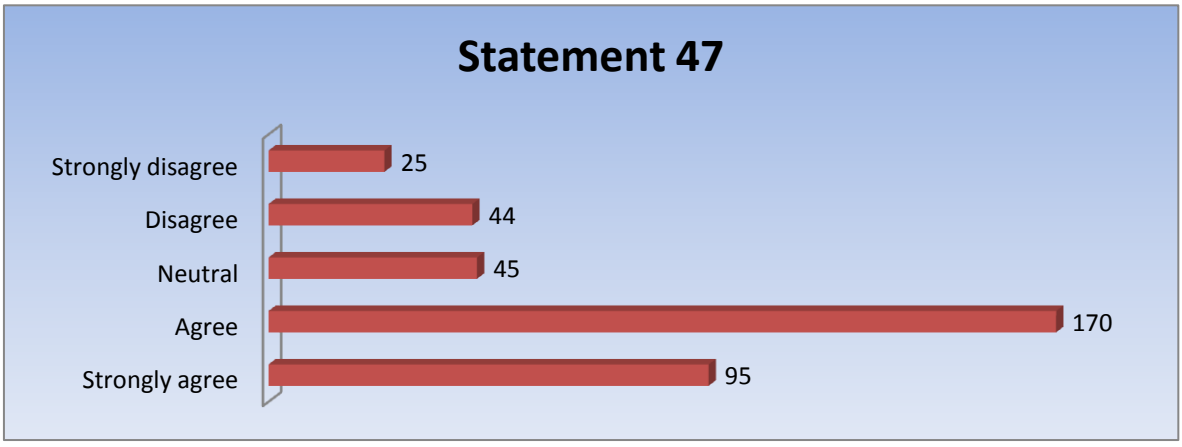
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
63	180	52	56	28	379



Stress and depression is a daily challenge in correctional centres. Although there is a perception amongst members of the community that correctional centres are "five star hotels", that is not the case. How could a man live without contact with his children, or how could a woman live without the support of her husband or family members? Generally, incarceration has a tremendous psychological impact on inmates, on a daily basis. What makes the situation worse is overcrowding and violence. Frequency Table 46 and Bar Chart 39 show that a large number of inmates (n=170) agree and strongly agree (n=95) with the statement that the correctional centre environment causes stress which results in depression. Only (n=44) disagree, while (n=25) strongly disagree with the statement, and (n=45) were neutral. The unit management approach embraces structured daily programmes. In other words, stress levels are reduced because inmates are always busy. Moreover, unit management strives for normalization and this promotes an environment that is not damaging to the health or well-being of inmates.

FREQUENCY TABLE 46 AND BAR CHART 39: Statement 47 - The correctional centre environment causes stress which results in depression.

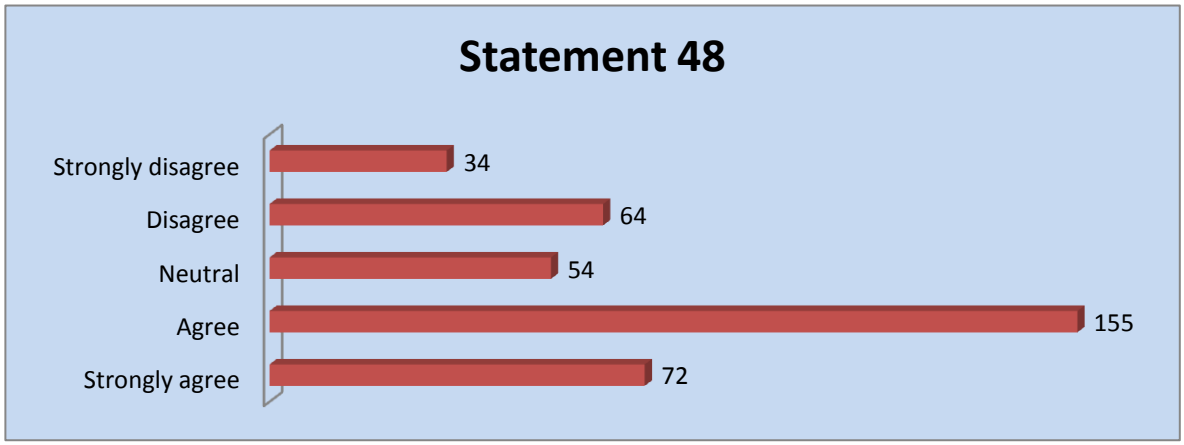
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
95	170	45	44	25	379



Inmates must always be informed about correctional centre rules and regulations on their arrival. Moreover, the complaint and request procedures must also be explained to them. In Frequency Table 47 and Bar Chart 40 below, most of the inmates (n=155) agree and strongly agree (n=72) with the statement that inmates are always informed about changes in correctional centre regulations, their sentence and parole conditions. (n=64) disagree and (n=34) strongly disagree with the statement, while (n=54) remained neutral. In the unit management approach, inmates are informed about the correctional centre regulations upon admission. In addition, a case officer is appointed to monitor inmates and discuss their personal development, sentence and parole conditions with them.

FREQUENCY TABLE 47 AND BAR CHART 40: Statement 48 - Inmates are always informed about changes in correctional centre regulations/their sentence/parole conditions.

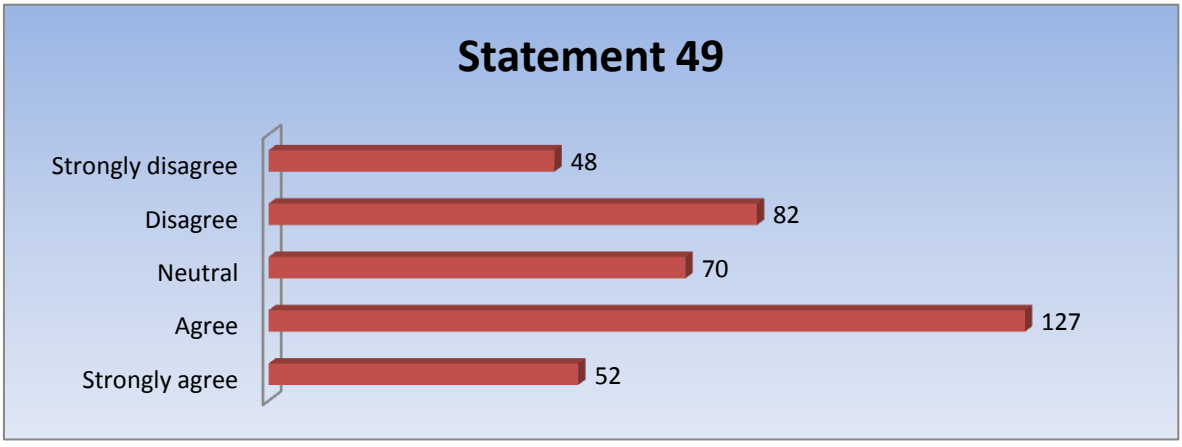
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
72	155	54	64	34	379



Inmates are surrounded by challenges on a daily basis. These challenges revolve around factors like the behaviour of other inmates, shortage of toiletries and other related aspects. Therefore, most correctional officials are able to solve the daily challenges facing inmates. Frequency Table 48 and Bar Chart 41 indicate that the majority of inmates (n=127) agree and strongly agree (n=52) with the statement, while (n=82) disagree and (n=48) strongly disagree with the statement that inmates have the opportunity to discuss their daily challenges with correctional staff members. (n=70) were neutral about the statement. In the unit management approach, a good relationship between inmates and correctional officials is maintained; this, in turn, promotes better communication.

FREQUENCY TABLE 48 AND BAR CHART 41: Statement 49 - Inmates have the opportunity to discuss their daily challenges with correctional officials.

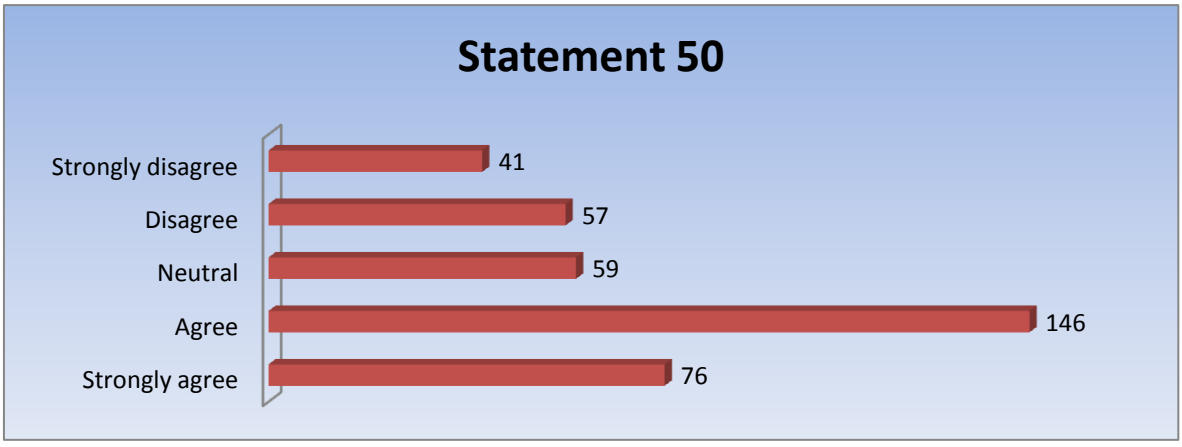
Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
52	127	70	82	48	379



The importance of continuous communication between correctional staff members and inmates, regarding their sentence and parole opportunities, is important for the adjustment of inmates in correctional centres. Irrespective of how long their sentences are, inmates always think about their release. It is therefore important that upon admission to a correctional centre inmates are informed about their sentences and how good behaviour and participation in rehabilitation programmes will impact upon their stay. Inmates who qualify for parole and who may be released before serving their full sentence should be informed in advance. Frequency Table 49 and Chart 42 indicate that the majority of inmates (n=146) agree and strongly agree (n=76) with the statement that sentences and parole opportunities are always discussed with them in advance. (n=57) disagree, while (n=41) strongly disagree (n=41). (n=59) inmates were neutral about the statement.

FREQUENCY TABLE 49 AND BAR CHART 42: Statement 50 - Sentences and parole opportunities are always discussed with inmates in advance.

Agreement rating					
Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
76	146	59	57	41	379



7.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the implementation of the four components of unit management, namely; architecture, case management, risk management and human rights in Youth Development Centres were measured by providing structured questionnaires with statements regarding every component of unit management. For ease of comprehension and presentation of the analysis per category, Frequency Tables and Bar Charts were used. This chapter, in addition to the literature review chapters (chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5) and methodology chapter (chapter 6) should enable the researcher to reach reliable conclusions regarding this study. In the final chapter, chapter 8, the findings and recommendations of this study will be discussed.

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SECTION C: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER 8

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the findings and recommendations of this study will be furnished. These findings and recommendations will be influenced by the literature review (Section A, Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) and the empirical study (Section B, Chapters 6 and 7). In other words, the aims and objectives of this study will be measured against the literature and the empirical study that was conducted. The recommendations made in this chapter are based on the findings of the study. Through the findings and recommendations, an attempt will be made to contribute to the successful implementation of the components of unit management, (architecture, case management, risk management and human rights) in South African Youth Development Centres. Moreover, the research will also pave the way towards possible future research under the topic "unit management in correctional centre and youth corrections".

8.2 FINDINGS

This section provides a summary of the discussions of both the literature review and the empirical study. Moreover, findings indicate whether the set aims and objectives of the study have been achieved. Therefore, the positivistic approach will be used to discuss the findings of this study. According to Vold (in Luyt, 1999: 168), the positivistic approach can be described as the meaningful relation between a given phenomenon and the complete existing knowledge system.

8.2.1 FINDING 1: THE APPLICATION OF UNIT MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The concept of unit management, in correctional centres, was adopted by the South African correctional system in March 1995. However, the formal introduction of the concept was announced by the former Minister of Correctional Services, Dr. Sipho Mzimela, on the 16th of February 1996. The implementation of unit management was viewed as a vehicle for service delivery in South African correctional centres. To date, only a few correctional centres in South Africa operate entirely in line with the unit management approach. These correctional centres are: Tswelopele, Ebongweni, Malmesbury, Empangeni, Emthonjeni (under the Department of Correctional Service). Kutuma Sinthumule and Mangaung (under public-private partnership) are used to detain inmates classified under the category of maximum security. Of the centres listed here, it is only Emthonjeni that accommodates youth offenders. From this finding it is clear that most inmates are still incarcerated in old traditional correctional centres that do not entirely support the concept of unit management. Also, the findings indicate that only youth offenders incarcerated at Emthonjeni enjoy the benefits of departmental objectives regarding the development of youth offenders.

8.2.2 FINDING 2: ARCHITECTURE

In section 4.5 it was explained that the design of 75-80 per cent of correctional centres, in South Africa, is based on the first developments. Inhuman large warehouses, as most of the correctional centres in South Africa are, result in the weakening of authority, lack of control, less recognition of human rights, promotion of violence and an atmosphere in which normality is absent (Luyt, 1999: 172). Therefore, the following aspects of correctional centre architecture will be discussed here: architecture and overcrowding, architecture and negative expectations, as well as architecture, the environment and stress.

- **Architecture and overcrowding**

Overcrowding was one of the aspects that were included in the problem statement of this study. As discussed in chapter 1 (subsection 1.2.3), overcrowding is an international phenomenon faced by the majority of penal systems. Currently, South Africa is ranked fourth (4) in the world with regard to crowded correctional centres. Therefore, the findings demonstrate that there is a high level of overcrowding in youth development centres. A significant number of inmates agree and strongly agree that the communal cells that they are accommodated in are overcrowded (see Frequency Table 9 and Bar Chart 2, in Chapter 7). By the same token, inmates disagree and strongly disagree with the statement that the cell design ensures that they have sufficient personal space (see Frequency Table 10 and Bar Chart 3). From the above findings, it is clear that overcrowding is a problem, while the unit management approach largely prevents overcrowding.

- **Architecture and negative expectations**

Communal cells increase the risk of violence amongst inmates. In addition, due to the architecture that does not allow direct supervision, communal cells create opportunities for inmate-on-inmate violence. Moreover, it is difficult to identify inmates who are responsible for violence and unauthorized behaviour, in communal cells. The findings of research conducted by Freidman (1967) and Klerck (1969) also support the findings of this study. These findings indicate that negative expectations communicated through architectural and interior design will produce negative behaviour. In addition to the discussed findings on architecture and negative expectations, the following are some of the findings of the study:

- When asked about their safety amongst other inmates, a large number of inmates disagree and strongly disagree with the statement that they feel safe amongst other inmates (see Frequency Table 11 and Bar Chart 4).

- In the case of risk of contracting communicable diseases, the majority of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that their health is at risk because the cells are designed in such a way that too many of them have to share toilets and showers (see Frequency Table 15 and Bar Chart 8).

- Regarding the response of correctional officials during inmate fights inside cells, the majority of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that the correctional centre design is such that the response time of correctional officials is delayed or slow when inmates fight (see Frequency Table 16 and Bar Chart 9).

- Finally, a large number of inmates strongly agree that, because cells cannot be continually monitored, gang members force other inmates to participate in gang activities (see Frequency Table 18 and Bar Chart 11).

- **Architecture, the environment and stress**

The discussions on architecture, the environment and stress were covered in chapter 4 (section 4.5.3). Through this discussion it was found that the following factors in the correctional environment contribute to increased stress levels amongst inmates: excessive heat heightened the stress level of inmates, noise and crowding influences task performance and health and social behaviour had a huge potential to influence the formation of aggression and disruptive behaviour. A high proportion of the inmates agreed and strongly agreed with the statement that the correctional centre environment causes stress which results in depression (see Frequency Table 46 and Bar Chart 39).

Weather conditions, due to different seasonal changes, also play a significant role in the daily activities of inmates in correctional centres. Much like ordinary citizens, inmates feel the effects of cold and warm weather. As discussed in subsection 7.8.1, most South African correctional centres were erected without the consideration of seasonal changes. Most of the communal cells are erected in a manner which allows only a little sunlight to penetrate the walls. Furthermore, sections are normally surrounded by high walls which also make it difficult for natural light to enter the building. In addition to the findings, on the influence of seasonal changes on inmates, discussed here, the following are findings from the empirical study conducted:

- When asked about the severity of the cold during winter, the majority of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that communal cells are massively cold during winter (see Frequency Table 13 and Bar Chart 6).

- A large number agreed and strongly agreed that the communal cells are very hot during summer (see Frequency Table 14 and Bar Chart 7).

8.2.3 FINDING 3: CASE MANAGEMENT

As demonstrated in chapter 4 of this study, the concept case management can be linked to various institutions (medical, psychological and training institutions). In the correctional setting, case management can simply be defined as "a way of organising the movement of inmates through the correctional system" (Luyt, 1999: 127). Generally, case management is a more scientific concept within the various components of unit management. As explained in 4.6.1, case management focuses on the individual inmate in a manner that ensures the provision of rehabilitation programmes that are relevant to each inmate's offences. It was also demonstrated that, for the successful implementation of case management, correctional officials with extensive experience and qualifications in human behaviour must be appointed as case officers.

In addition to the literature review on case management, a category which covered several features of case management was included in the questionnaire. Unlike other categories, it was difficult for the researcher to design the statements as a measuring tool for the application of case management in youth development centres. Case management in a correctional setting is similar to a syllabus in schools or universities. If you want to know how the syllabus is carried out and how successful it is, it will be near impossible to receive appropriate answers from the learners as they are the receivers, not the providers (teachers or lecturers) of that syllabus. Thus, in the correctional setting, when asking inmates about their sentence plan and whether it is applied correctly or not, one will receive very few relevant responses as the inmates do not know how this process is conducted. However, the researcher managed to develop five (5) statements to

evaluate the application of case management for inmates during their stay in youth development centres. The following are the findings of the study:

- With regard to their rehabilitation while serving their sentence, an overwhelming number of inmates indicated that the rehabilitation programmes that they are currently attending are beneficial to them (see Frequency Table 20 and Bar Chart 13).

- Since correctional officials play an important role in the process of case management, inmates were asked about their relationship with correctional officials. The majority disagreed and strongly disagreed that the relationship between inmates and correctional officials is good (see Frequency Table 21 and Bar Chart 14).

- To evaluate the appointment of case officers in youth development centres, inmates were asked whether case officers are assigned to monitor their progress and personal development. The majority of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that a case officer is assigned to monitor their progress and personal development (see Table 22 and Bar Chart 15).

- In unit management, case management entails that inmates must undergo various rehabilitation programmes on a daily basis. Case officers and case managers must monitor the involvement of inmates in rehabilitation programmes. The success of unit management depends on the unit plan and the execution of structured day programmes (see chapter 3, section 3.10 on the model structured day programmes). When asked about the time spent inside youth development centres, an overwhelming number of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that they spend a lot of time alone, doing little or nothing (sitting and sleeping) (see Frequency Table 23 and Bar chart 16). This means that rehabilitation is not driven to its fullest extent in our correctional system.

8.2.4 FINDING 4: RISK MANAGEMENT

Unlike other components of unit management, risk management was not included in the research objectives. The reason for this exclusion was because of the recommendation made by the

Department of Correctional Services' Research Ethics Committee. Although the Research Ethics Committee did not explain, in detail, the reason for the request of exclusion of risk management they did allow the researcher to discuss it as part of the interpretation of the results (see annexure A). Therefore, risk management was discussed in the literature review section (chapter 4) and the empirical study (chapter 6). For the purpose of this study, risk management was defined as the "capita frequency (rate) at which occurrence of any kind of harm can be observed, estimated or predicted among a group of persons over a certain interval of time" (Jones, 1976: 4). The literature consulted provided evidence that risks cannot be managed without risk assessment. As a result, the researcher was forced to discuss risk assessment in conjunction with risk management. Moreover, the most popular risk-taking behaviours in the correctional environment were discussed in detail. These risk behaviour include sexual activities, drug use and gangsters. Therefore, these risk taking behaviours will be discussed in this section.

- **Sexual activities**

Sexual activities are common practice among the correctional centre population. Sex is prohibited in most correctional systems. However, the extent of sexual activities is difficult to determine because studies must rely on self-reporting, which is distorted by humiliation or fear of retaliation. In chapter 4 (subsection 4.7.1), several ways in which sexual activities are performed in correctional centres were discussed. Rape and consensual sex were identified as the most popular forms of sexual relations in correctional centres. In addition to the findings of sexual activities from the literature review, the following findings from the empirical study will indicate the frequency of sexual activities at youth development centres:

- A high proportion of the inmates strongly agreed that inmates prefer to have anal sex with one another (see Frequency Table 27 and Bar Chart 20).

- With regard to forced sex, a significant number of inmates strongly agreed that some inmates force them to have sex (see Frequency Table 28 and Bar Chart 21).

- Furthermore, the findings demonstrate that there is a high incidence of inmate rape in the cells at night, as the majority strongly agreed with the statement that inmates get raped in their cells at night (see Frequency Table 29 and Bar Chart 22).

- An overwhelming number of inmates strongly agreed that some inmates pay to have sex with one another (see Frequency Table 30 and Bar Chart 23).

- A high proportion of inmates strongly agreed that some gangs use rape as a form of punishment (see Frequency Table 31 and Bar Chart 24).

- Finally, a large number of inmates agreed and strongly agreed with the statement that gang leaders choose who they want to have sex with (see Frequency Table 32 and Bar Chart 25).

- **Drug use**

Findings demonstrate that, in correctional centres, drugs are a smuggled in a variety of ways. According to Moshoeu (2010: 150), the use of intravenous drugs is becoming popular in Africa. She further indicates that heroin is a commonly used intravenous drug around the world. As far as drug use in correctional centres is concerned, the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa does not disclose any figure in their official reports (Luyt, 2008: 150). Most sentenced inmates committed the offences for which they were convicted under the influence of drugs. Because of their drug dependency and addiction, inmates continue to use drugs while serving their incarceration terms. To determine the variety and use of drugs in youth development centres inmates where asked several questions about drug usage:

- With regard to the use of drugs in their centres, many agreed and strongly agreed that inmates use drugs in their centres (see Frequency Table 24 and Bar Chart 17).

- A high proportion of inmates strongly disagreed that some inmates inject themselves with drugs in their correctional centres (see Frequency Table 25 and Bar Chart 18). Therefore, intravenous drug use appears not to be a significant problem in youth development centres.

- Similarly to the injection of drugs amongst inmates, a large number disagreed and strongly disagreed that inmate who injects drugs in their correctional centre share needles with others (see Frequency Table 26 and Bar Chart 19).

- **Gangsterism**

Correctional centre gangs are one of the main causes of violence in South African correctional centres. As indicated in chapter 4 (subsection 4.7.2), correctional centre gangs do not only offer protection to their members, they often pose a serious threat to the life of other inmates and correctional staff members. In South African correctional centres, gangs are unique in that they have been in existence for over 100 years and are established nationwide. Generally, the abovementioned risk taking behaviours (sexual activities and drug use) are influenced by these gangs. Moreover, the majority of unnatural deaths, especially death caused by the violence, in correctional institutions are the result of correctional centre gang activity.

- In this study, a high proportion of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that most inmates are gang members (see Frequency Table 33 and Bar Chart 26).

- An overwhelming number of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that gang members often intimidate other inmates (see Frequency Table 34 and Bar Chart 27).

- With regard to the involvement of gangs in violence, a large number agreed and strongly agreed that gang members cause violence in their correctional centres (see Frequency Table 35 and Bar Chart 28).

- In terms of personal protection, a large number of inmates agreed and strongly agreed that if one is not a gang member no one will protect you (see Frequency Table 36 and Bar Chart 29).

- The majority of inmates strongly agreed that gang members smuggle unauthorized articles into their correctional centres (see Frequency Table 37 and Bar Chart 30).

8.2.5 FINDING 5: BASIC HUMAN RIGHTS OF OFFENDERS

In section 7.4, it was explained that human rights are moral rights which each man and woman owns because they are human beings. According to section 2 of the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998:16), the purpose of the South African correctional system is to contribute to maintaining and protecting a just, peaceful and safe society by:

(a) enforcing sentences of the courts in the manner prescribed by this Act;

(b) detaining all inmates in safe custody while ensuring their human dignity; and

(c) promoting the social responsibility and human development of all inmates and persons subjected to community supervision.

From section 2 of the Act it is clear that inmates must be detained in safe custody that will have a positive influence on their human dignity and have an impact onto their personal development. In chapter 4 (section 4.8), several rights protected by the unit management approach were highlighted. In this study, inmates were asked about their rights by means of statements which covered all the relevant rights, in the questionnaire (see Annexure C):

- In the case of equality **(right to equality, section 9 of the Constitution)**, inmates were asked whether correctional officials treat them equally. A large number disagreed and strongly disagreed that the officials treat them equally (see Frequency Table 39 and Bar Chart 32).

- A high percentage of the inmates disagreed and strongly disagreed that inmates, as human beings, are always treated with dignity **(right to human dignity, section 10 of the Constitution)** (see Frequency Table 40 and Bar Chart 33).

- In regard to their personal safety, a large number of inmates disagreed and strongly disagreed that they always feel safe and without risk to their lives **(right to life, section 11 of the Constitution)** (see Frequency Table 41 and Bar Chart 34).

- With regard to their privacy **(right to privacy, section 14 of the Constitution),** an overwhelming number of inmates disagreed and strongly disagreed that they have personal space in their respective correctional centres (see Frequency Table 43 and Bar Chart 36).

8.2.6 FINDING 6: THE ROLE OF MULTI-DISCIPLINARY STAFF MEMBERS IN UNIT MANAGEMENT AND YOUTH CORRECTIONS.

As explained in section 5.1, the researcher indicated that unit management is an effective approach to the management of correctional institutions. In order for unit management to fulfil its purpose, a dedicated team of staff members should be responsible for the daily operations of correctional institutions. In unit management, a team of staff members should be assigned to each housing unit. In other words, the housing unit should comprise of correctional staff members, a unit manager, a case manager and a case officer. Additionally, custodial staff members (social workers, psychologists, spiritual care workers, criminologists and educationalists) should also be assigned to each housing unit. Therefore, in this section the roles of the abovementioned staff members will be discussed in detail.

- **The role of correctional officials**

Correctional officials constitute a large percentage of the employees within all correctional systems around the world. Although correctional officials make up large employee numbers in youth development centres, the findings of this study indicate that they are required to fulfil various, unclear roles when performing their duties. Lack of clarity on their duties often results in high stress levels. Findings from the study conducted by Auerbach, Quick and Pegg (2003: 25) also support the findings of this study by indicating that the job of correctional officials has been rated as the most stressful occupation. Correctional officials face the difficulties in reconciling the two main aim of their work, i.e. custody and care. They further add that, in addition to their daily duties, they are charged with the maintenance of security control, whilst being asked to help inmates by befriending and supporting them when dealing with their offending behaviour (Liebling and Price, 2001: 58-57). Chaka (1998: 41) also insinuates that the

demands and stressors in the case of South African correctional officials are related to a high degree of responsibility for people, threats to personal safety, rotating shifts and unpleasant physical surroundings.

- **The role of unit managers and custodial therapists**

The role of the unit manager was discussed in detail in section 5.3 of this study. As previously explained, unit managers are responsible for the management of housing units within the correctional centre. As indicated by Luyt (2000: 62), the various skills that unit managers must have include: extensive knowledge of criminology and corrections sciences, management skills and the administration of treatment programmes. According to the findings in table 11, three unit managers were appointed at Emthonjeni, four at Leeuwkop, three at Kroonstad and four at the Boksburg youth development centres. In comparison to the inmate populations of these centres, these staffing figures are insufficient.

Custodial therapists, commonly known as professional staff members in the correctional environment, provide an important role in the treatment of inmates. In correctional settings, custodial therapists include social workers, psychologists, spiritual care workers, criminologists, educationalists, medical practitioners and healthcare workers. As discussed in chapter 5, table 11 indicates that there is a serious shortage of social workers, psychologists, spiritual care workers, educationalists, criminologists and medical health workers. The lack of custodial therapists affects the rehabilitation and development of youth offenders.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations presented in this section are based on the findings of this study. These recommendations will be applied in connection with the implementation of the components of unit management and the perspectives that unit management can contribute to the rehabilitation of youth offenders in South African youth development centres. None of these recommendations

will be prescriptive, but they will be relevant to the South African correctional system, in terms of potential implementation.

8.3.1 RECOMMENDATION 1: THE APPLICATION OF UNIT MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The application of unit management, as a vehicle to inmate rehabilitation in the South African correctional system, was viewed as a strategic move that will ensure that corrections and the rehabilitation of inmates, as the core business of the Department, are achieved. However, the operation of unit management failed dismally because of the current conditions in our correctional centres. Therefore, based on this assertion, it is recommended that:

- The strategies to fully implement unit management in old traditional correctional centres be formulated. For example, focus should be placed on redesigning what we have (structures of old correctional centres) to easily suit the application of unit management.

- In addition to the redesign of correctional centre architecture, advanced training on the concept of unit management should be provided to correctional officials and correctional managers. This advanced training in unit management must be facilitated by external stakeholders like international institutions on corrections, as well as researchers and academics who specialize in unit management.

- Current correctional centre structures that support the unit management concept in full, including two (2) private correctional centres, must be utilized to accommodate youth offenders and short-term inmates. Maximum security inmates and those who are serving long sentences should be incarcerated in other correctional centres designed to detain these category of inmates. The researcher believes that these changes will assist the Department of Correctional Services in reaching its goals for unit management. Moreover, rehabilitation programmes will be provided without any influences like overcrowding, poor facilities, lack of custodial staff members and violence.

The recommendations that follow will also provide a guideline for the application of the unit management approach in the South African Correctional System.

8.3.2 RECOMMENDATION 2: ARCHITECTURE

As discussed in this study, several aspects were indentified in regard to architecture. Moreover, the aspects outlined below were also discussed in the findings. Therefore, these recommendations will be based on architecture and overcrowding, architecture and negative expectation as well as architecture, the environment and stress.

- **Architecture and overcrowding**

To overcome overcrowding specifically for sentenced inmates, the Department of Correctional Services should stick to the design capacity for each communal cell. In other words, if the communal cell was designed to accommodate forty inmates, they must not allow more than forty inmates to be accommodated in the cell. This approach will force the criminal justice system, specifically the courts of law, to provide alternative sentences to inmates with petty offences. Moreover, the Department of Correctional Services will be forced to extend the existing or to erect more correctional centres for more accommodation. However, as long as inmates are packed together in one communal cell (because of the impossibility of adding more beds), overcrowding will remain a challenge facing the correctional system for the next few decades. For this study it is further recommended that:

- Youth who are sentenced to serve short-sentences, due to petty crime, be released under correctional supervision.

- Places of safety be introduced for youth under the age of eighteen (18), alternatively they could be placed under the care of parents and guardians.

- Encourage early conditional release and semi institutional arrangements to release the youth through the extensive monitoring strategies, through the positive advancement shown during rehabilitation programmes.

- Youth development centres should be redesigned and extended to accommodate youths without causing harm to their emotional well-being. Furthermore, more recreational, vocational and industrial areas must be erected at every youth development centre.

- **Architecture and negative expectations**

It is clear from the findings that it is not possible for correctional staff members to deal with negative activities inside communal cells. It is therefore recommended that electronic devices like circuit television cameras be installed in every communal cell. These cameras must always be under the direct supervision of correctional officials. Moreover, correctional officials must continuously monitor the inmates' behaviour inside their communal cells. Finally, a few inmates must be delegated to take responsibility with regard to unauthorized behaviour inside their communal cells. These can only be achieved if they forfeit some of their privileges (like playing soccer, downgrading their privileges) because of their violent behaviour.

- **Architecture, the environment and stress**

In order to curb high stress levels among inmates, it is recommended that the walls inside communal cells be decorated with encouraging words and pictures with bright colours. Various indoor sports activities must be introduced to keep inmates busy during their exercise time. The findings also indicate that during winter communal cells are massively cold and during summer they are extremely hot. In this regard, the researcher recommends that air conditioners be installed in every communal cell. Moreover, the norm must become the use of single cells in South Africa due to the implementation of unit management principle. This will assist in improving the conditions caused by seasonal changes.

8.3.3 RECOMMENDATION 3: CASE MANAGEMENT

The researcher makes the following recommendations regarding the application of case management in youth development centres:

- Implement rehabilitation plans (not on paper but in practice) for each inmate and ensure that the programmes incorporated in these plans are relevant to the inmate's offending behaviour.

- Identify correctional officials with extensive experience and qualifications in human behaviour and appoint them as case officers. Moreover, provide training for correctional officials and other custodial therapists on the functioning of case management.

- Finally, ensure that a comprehensive model for unit management programmes, including a unit plan and structured day programme, are developed so that inmates can spend their day proactively.

8.3.4 RECOMMENDATION 4: RISK MANAGEMENT

The researcher finds it important to discuss the most popular risk taking behaviours amongst inmates in correctional institutions, in order to deepen one's understanding of risk management. It is clear from the findings provided that inmates are always surrounded by various risks at youth development centres. Therefore, in this subsection, recommendations on risk management will be based on sexual activities, drug use and gangsters.

- **Sexual activities**

As sexual activities are a common occurrence in correctional centres, they provide a risk to the health of inmates, specifically concerning communicable diseases like HIV. Therefore, the researcher recommends that risk management strategies be implemented in relation to sexual behaviour in youth development centres:

- The Department of Correctional Services should continuously organize information sessions on risky sexual practices among inmates. Moreover, a comprehensive document on how sexual activities should be monitored by correctional officials, specifically in the case of rape cases, must be developed.

- During the admission and orientation process, inmates must be educated about the correctional institution environment and its unique culture. Information regarding procedures for avoiding and reporting sexual abuse, institutional victim services and disciplinary or legal consequences should routinely be discussed with inmates.

- Rape cases must be forwarded to the South African Police Service for investigations.

- Workshops and programmes on the risk of unprotected sexual behaviour amongst inmates must be organised on a monthly basis. Peer educators must also be trained on this issue so that they can share the information with other inmates. HIV and AIDS awareness must also form part of these programmes.

- **Drug use**

Despite the reported low level of intravenous drug use in youth development centres, it should not be left to become endemic before implementing risk management strategies. Firstly, inmates with previous drug use problems must be identified and further preventive programmes must provide for such inmates. Secondly, inmates must be informed about the dangers of sharing contaminated needles. Finally, the Department of Correctional Services must refer inmates to external organisations that deal with the rehabilitation of substance abusers.

- **Gangsterism**

The majority of all the risk taking behaviours mentioned above are caused by correctional centre gangs. Correctional centre gangs not only contribute to violence but they also make it difficult for the Department of Correctional Services to manage correctional centres actively. As long as the Department of Correctional Services does not have comprehensive gang combating strategies, it will be difficult to control gangs in correctional institutions. In order to deal with

gangs proactively, the researcher recommends that intelligence and a special task force be deployed in every correctional centre. The team must undergo extensive training in self-defence, investigation and searching for contraband. Therefore, in addition to the above, the researcher recommends the following:

- Gang leaders be identified and be separated from the general inmate population.
- Factors that encourage newly admitted inmates to become easily involved in gang activities be identified and addressed.

The Department of Correctional Services must introduce a tattooing policy that will provide correctional officials with more power to prevent tattooing amongst the inmate population. Gang language should be discouraged and inmates found communicating in such a language must be charged. Only eleven (11) languages are authorized in South Africa, therefore the use of gang language was primarily designed to prevent the officials and other inmates from hearing and understanding what the gangs were planning to do. Finally, the researcher recommends that more recreational activities be introduced in youth development centres. Youths enjoy playing and showcasing their talents, therefore the introduction of sports activities will keep them busy and tired and, as a result, they are less likely to think about gang activities.

8.3.5 RECOMMENDATION 5: HUMAN RIGHTS OF OFFENDERS

The human rights of inmates cannot be easily protected as long as youth development centres are not reducing overcrowding and violence. However, those rights of inmates that can be easily protected should be protected. For example, the rights to equality are not mainly affected by the conditions in correctional centres. In other words, for youth to develop a sense of respect and recognition, correctional officials must always treat inmates equally. Inmates must also be treated with dignity. This will bring a sense of belonging to youth. In addition, the researcher recommends that correctional officials be **extensively** trained on the matter of the basic human

rights of inmates. The researcher further recommends that the Department of Correctional Services ensures that all inmates are protected during their stay in youth development centres. Finally, the Human Rights Commission should be invited on a regular basis to inform the inmates about the rights that they are entitled to while serving their sentences.

8.3.6 RECOMMENDATION 6: THE ROLE OF MULTI-DISCIPLINARY STAFF MEMBERS IN UNIT MANAGEMENT AND YOUTH CORRECTION

Correctional systems are like cars, the car manufactures can build the safest cars but the safety of the passengers will depend on the skills of the drivers. In other words, correctional systems can develop comprehensive policies on the rehabilitation of inmates but the desired results will never be reached if the execution of these policies fails at the correctional centre level. The rehabilitation of inmates is determined by the kind of programmes they undergo while serving their sentences. Therefore, the recommendation made in this section will be based on the role of correctional officials, custodial therapists and external stakeholders.

- **The role of correctional officials**

With regard to correctional officials, the researcher recommends that their roles must be specific. Should they be appointed to perform security duties they must be responsible for security and security-related aspects of correctional centres. As indicated in the findings regarding the correctional environment and stress levels amongst correctional officials, the poor explanation of the roles of correctional officials increases stress levels. In addition, it is further recommended that newly recruited correctional officials are trained based on the security classification of the correctional centre at which they will be appointed. Finally, the researcher recommends that the roles of correctional officials be divided according to the following table:

TABLE 13: SPECIFIC ROLES OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICIALS

Key requirements	Correctional Official Security role	Correctional Official Rehabilitation role	Correctional Official Administrative role
Training	Undergone basic training on the following: 1 Escape prevention 2 Handling of violence 3 Hostage situation 4 Dog handling 5 Outside demonstration 6 Bomb threats 7 Controlling contraband 8 External/internal security	Undergone basic training on the following: 1 Inmate assessment and classification. 2 Case management 3 Unit management 4 Communication skills 5 Special needs inmates 6 Reintegration approaches 7 Human rights of inmates	Undergone basic training on the following: 1 Inmates admission 2 Inmates identity/ registration 3 Inmates clothes/food 4 Inmates mail/documentations 5 Inmates transfers 6 Inmates releases 7 Inmates transportation 8 General administrative duties
Qualification	Grade 12/ Security risk management qualifications	Grade 12/ Human behaviour and penology qualifications	Grade 12/Administration qualifications
Responsibility	Maintain safety and security	Facilitate the process of inmates' rehabilitation.	Deal with administrative inmates related matters

- **The role of unit managers and custodial therapists**

The researcher recommends that correctional officials with extensive experience be appointed as unit managers and more unit managers be appointed at youth development centres. Moreover, officials appointed for these positions should attend further training regarding youth behaviour and unit management. In the case of custodial therapists, it is recommended that more social workers, psychologists, educationalists, spiritual care workers, criminologists and medical care workers be appointed at youth development centres based on the following ratio:

- Social workers : One (1) to Forty (40) inmate's population.
- Psychologists : One (1) to (30) inmate's population.
- Educationalists : One (1) to (45) inmate's population.
- Spiritual care workers: One (1) to 150 inmate's population.
- Criminologists : One (1) to 80 inmate's population.

- Medical health workers: One (1) to 70 inmate's population.

Finally, the researcher recommends that volunteerism be encouraged in the Department of Correctional Services, specifically at the correctional centre level. Moreover, the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998 must be amended to make provision for the appointment of volunteers and their roles in the department. This section must cover aspects like the functions and category of volunteers and their safety while performing their duties.

8.4 RECOMMENDATION 7: FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher recommends that further research be conducted on the tendencies towards and the main causes of violence in South African youth development centres. Moreover, empirical studies should be conducted on the community risk factors that influence criminal behaviour amongst youth in South Africa. As assessment is a crucial tool of inmate development, the researcher further recommends that studies be conducted on the classification system of youth offenders. The main concentration must be based on inmate needs, inmate assessment of criminal behaviour, intervention programmes and pre-release assessment. Finally, the researcher recommends that feasibility studies be conducted on the effectiveness and application of unit management in the South African correctional system.

8.5 SUMMARY

As a final thought the researcher would like to conclude with the following expression by Challeen (1996).

****

****

We want them to be responsible, So we take away all responsibility.

We want them to be non-violent, So we put them where there is violence all around them.

We want them to be kind and loving people, So we subject them to hatred and cruelty.

We want them to quit being tough guys, So we put them where the tough guy is respected.

We want them to be positive and constructive, So we degrade them and make them useless.

We want them to quit hanging around losers, So we put the entire losers under one roof.

We want them to quit exploiting us, So we put them where they exploit each other.

We want them to take control of their life, So we make them totally dependent

****

****

8.5 LIST OF REFERENCES

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ANNEXURE A

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

correctional services

Department:
Correctional Services
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X136, PRETORIA, 0001 Poyntons Building, C/O Church and Schubart Street, PRETORIA
Tel (012) 307 2000, Fax (012) 328-5111

Mr. TD Matshaba
4 Rico Cresent
Noortdhuiwel
Krugersdorp
1739

Dear Mr. Matshaba

RE: FEEDBACK ON THE APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES ON "A PENOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON UNIT MANAGEMENT AS A REHABILITATION TOOL FOR YOUTH OFFENDERS"

It is with pleasure to inform you that your request to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services on the above topic has been approved.

Your attention is drawn to the following:

- REC recommends that you exclude objective number 6 (on Risk Management) as an objective it should rather be discussed as a part of interpretation of the result.
- The relevant Regional and Area Commissioners where the research will be conducted will be informed of your proposed research project.
- Your internal guide will be **Director: Corrections Administration – Mr. L. Mthethwa.** You are requested to contact him at telephone number. (012) 305 – 8798/8782, before the commencement of your research.
- It is your responsibility to make arrangements for your interviewing times.
- Your identity document and this approval letter should be in your possession when visiting.
- You are required to use the terminology used in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (February 2005).
- You are not allowed to use photographic or video equipment during your visits, however the audio recorder is allowed.
- You are required to submit your final report to the Department for approval by the Commissioner of Correctional Services before publication (including presentation at workshops, conferences, seminars, etc) of the report.
- Should you have any enquiries regarding this process, please contact the Directorate Research for assistance at telephone number 012-307-2770/2359.

Thank you for your application and interest to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services.

Yours faithfully

MS. T.M. MAGORO
DC: POLICY CO- ORDINATION & RESEARCH
DATE: 2012.11.02

ANNEXURE B

INMATES QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

A survey conducted by
Matshaba Thabiso Donald
For
Doctor of Literature and Philosophy in Penology

This questionnaire is about your personal experience while serving your sentence in one of the Youth Development Centres. This questionnaire is confidential and will not be seen by anyone but the interviewer. To ensure confidentiality please do not write your name on this questionnaire. Participation in the research is voluntary.

Please answer this questionnaire by selecting the options that best reflect you experience/ or perception regarding any specific question asked or statement made in the questionnaire.

Please answer all questions. In so doing the reliability of the study and integrity of the research data is enhanced.

If you have any questions about the research, please call Mr. T.D Matshaba (078 547 0775)

Thank you for your participation.

PART A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

For official use only

Serial no [ ] 3

Please tick the appropriate box pertaining to each question/ statement.

1. Gender:

Male	Female
1	2

[ ] 4

2. Age group:

14-19	20-24	25-30
1	2	3

[ ] 5

3. Marital status:

Married	Single	Divorce	Widow/er	Other
1	2	3	4	5

[ ] 6

4. Acquired educational level:

No schooling	Primary School	High School	College/ University	Other
1	2	3	4	5

[ ] 7

5. I am currently serving incarceration sentence of:

Less than six month	6-12 Month	1-3 Three years	4-10 years	11-20 years	More than 20 years	Life imprisonment
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[ ] 8

6. Home language:

Afrikaans	English	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	SiSwati
1	2	3	4	5	6
Tshivenda	Xitsonga	isiNdebele	isiXhosa	IsiZulu	
7	8	9	10	11	

[ ] 10

7. I am currently sentenced for *(You may select more than one option if sentenced for more than one offence)*

Violence against person (assault, robbery, wounding)	1	
Culpable homicide	2	
Murder	3	
Rape	4	
Attempted rape	5	
Theft or handling of stolen goods	6	
House breaking	7	
Robbery	8	
Vehicle theft	9	
Vehicle hijacking	10	
Fraud	11	
Bribery	12	
Substance abuse (Drugs or Alcohol)	13	
Dealing with drugs	14	
Default of payment of a fine	15	
Traffic offence	16	
Illegal immigration	17	
Contempt of court/defeat of course of justice	18	
Other *(specify)*	19	

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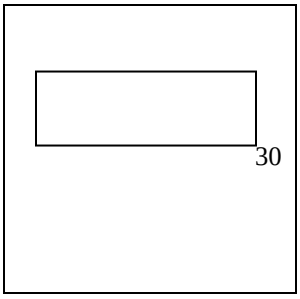
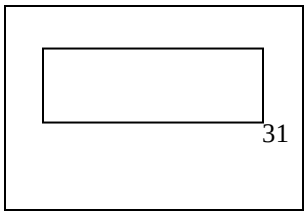
8. Before incarceration I stayed: *(Choose only one)*

With family	1
At a friend's house	2
In a hostel	3
In a rental house	4
In my own home	5
On the street	6
Other *(please specify):*	7



9. Name of Youth Development Centre where you are incarcerated:

Drakenstein Youth Development Centre	1
Boksburg Youth Development Centre	2
Leeuwkop Youth Development Centre	3
Kroonstad Youth Development Centre	4
Emthonjeni Youth Development Centre	5



PART B
STATEMENTS
ARCHITECTURE

For each of the statement below, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by placing a tick in the appropriate box.
The response scale is as follows:

1 Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided or Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

10. The communal cell that I am accommodated in is overcrowded.

1	2	3	4	5	

11. The cell design ensures that I have sufficient personal space in my cell.

1	2	3	4	5	

12. I feel safe among the other inmates.

1	2	3	4	5	

13. We have personal lockers, so my personal property is safe form theft.

1	2	3	4	5	

14. During winter the communal cells are massively cold.

1	2	3	4	5	

15. During summer the communal cells are very hot.

1	2	3	4	5	

16. My health is at risk because the cells are designed in such as way that too many of us have to share toilets and showers.

1	2	3	4	5	

17. The correctional centre design is such that the response time of correctio officials are slow when inmates fight.

1	2	3	4	5	

18. Correctional officials are able to observe us from outside our cells.

1	2	3	4	5	

19. Because cells cannot be continually monitored gang members force other inmates to participate in gang activities in the cells.

1	2	3	4	5	

STATEMENTS
CASE MANAGEMENT

20. During admission my sentence plan was discussed with me.

1	2	3	4	5

21. Rehabilitation programmes that I am currently undergoing is beneficial to the crime/s that I have committed.

1	2	3	4	5

22. The relationship between inmates and correctional officials is good.

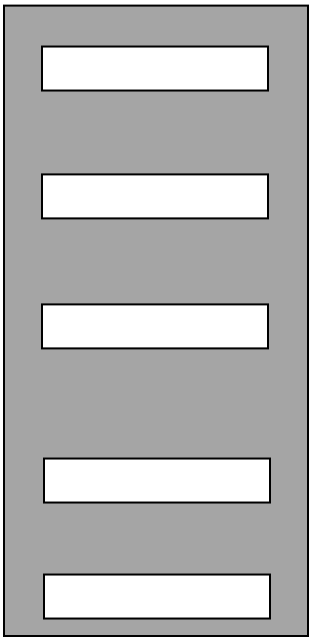
1	2	3	4	5

23. A case officer is assigned to monitor my progress and personal development.

1	2	3	4	5

24. I spend a lot of time alone doing little or nothing (sitting or sleeping).

1	2	3	4	5



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STATEMENTS
RISK MANAGEMENT

25. Inmates use drugs in this correctional centre.

1	2	3	4	5

26. Some inmates inject themselves with drugs in this correctional centre.

1	2	3	4	5

27. Those who inject drugs in this correctional centre share needles with other inmates.

1	2	3	4	5

28. Inmates prefer to have anal sex with one another.

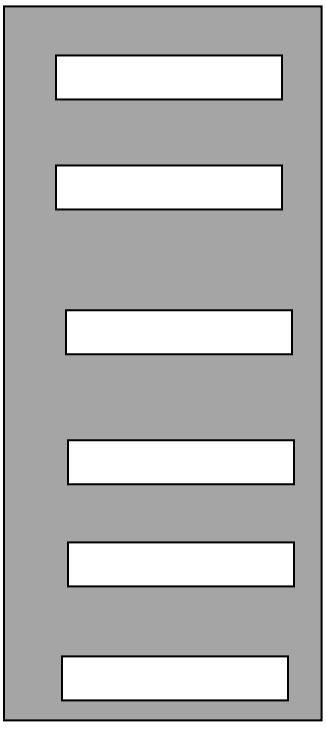
1	2	3	4	5

29. Some inmates force you to have sex with them.

1	2	3	4	5

30. Inmates get raped in the cells at night.

1	2	3	4	5



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31. Some inmates pay to have sex with other.

1	2	3	4	5

32. Some gangs will rape you to punish you.

1	2	3	4	5

33. Gang leaders choose who they want to have sex with.

1	2	3	4	5

34. Most inmates are gang members.

1	2	3	4	5

35. Gang members often intimidate other inmates.

1	2	3	4	5

36. Gang members cause violence in this correctional centre.

1	2	3	4	5

37. If you are not a gang member no one will protect you.

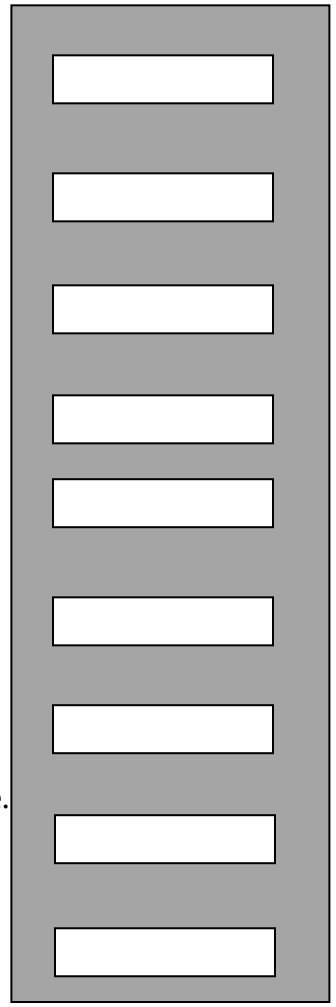
1	2	3	4	5

38. Gang members smuggle unauthorized articles into this correctional centre.

1	2	3	4	5

39. Inmates fight a lot with each other.

1	2	3	4	5



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STATEMENTS
BASIC HUMAN RIGHTS OF OFFENDERS

40. I feel that the officials treat all inmates equally.

1	2	3	4	5

41. Inmates, as human beings are always treated with dignity.

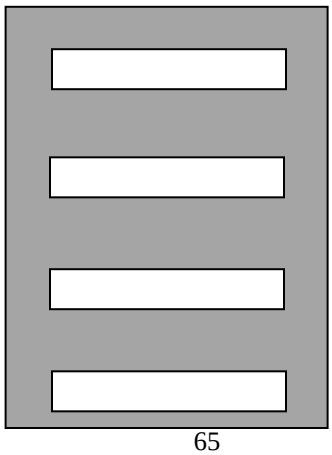
1	2	3	4	5

42. I always feel safe without risk to my life.

1	2	3	4	5

43. We sometimes perform manual labour without our consent.

1	2	3	4	5



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44. I do have personal private space in correctional centre.

1	2	3	4	5

45. In correctional centre, I have enough opportunity to express my belief and opinions.

1	2	3	4	5

46. In correctional centre, I am allowed to meet with other inmates.

1	2	3	4	5

47. The correctional centre environment causes stress which results in depression.

1	2	3	4	5

48. Inmates are always informed about changes in correctional centre regulations/their sentence/ parole conditions.

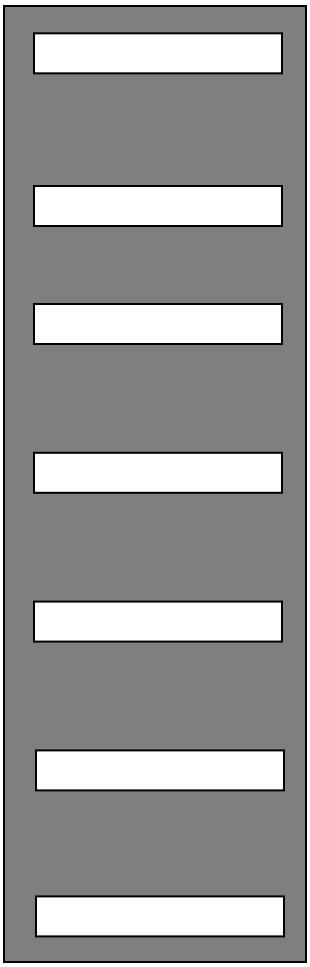
1	2	3	4	5

49. Inmates have the opportunity to discuss their daily challenges with correctional officials.

1	2	3	4	5

50. Sentences and parole opportunities are always discussed with inmates in advance.

1	2	3	4	5



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Thank you for your participation.

MR. T.D Matshaba
Researcher

ANNEXURE C

REPORT ON STATS ANALYSES ON THE FOUR SUBSETS OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS GROUPED TOGETHER TO DESCRIBE THE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTRE CONSTRUCTS OF CORRECTIONAL CENTRE ARCHITECTURE, CASE MANAGEMENT, RISK MANAGEMENT AND BASIC HUMAN RIGHTS

From Mrs. Helen Muller (Statistician) to Mr. T.D Matshaba (Researcher)

Following on the initial exploratory analyses forwarded by e-mail (and discussions), further analyses were conducted on the data to establish the viability (and validity) of representing four youth incarceration issues of correctional centre architecture, case management and risk management by subsets of questionnaire items. The rationale for the approach was that if feasible, a single score for each respondent for each aspect could then be calculated to represent each respondent's perception of the four aspects – thus reducing the multi-dimensionality of the data into more manageable and more easily interpretable results. To this end internal consistency reliability testing, perception score calculations, analysis of variance and Bonferroni multiple comparisons of means tests were conducted. These analysis and deductions derived from the results are discussed below

Scale reliability testing to establish internal consistency reliability of youth incarceration perception constructs probed in the four sections of the questionnaire and subsequent calculation of perception scores.

The composite tables presented in the initial exploratory analyses presented the frequency distributions of questionnaire items associated with the various youth incarceration perception constructs of perception re correctional centre architecture, case management, risk management and human rights issues. Although each of these tables provided an initial exploratory overview of respondents' perceptions regarding particular aspects of youth incarceration, the tables did however, not reflect **summative perception-measures** of the particular youth incarceration aspects. In a sense the sheer amount of information presented in the composite tables seems to obscure the evaluation of the various aspects of youth incarceration which it purports to evaluate. An important step in the analysis strategy therefore centres on the development of a rule (or summative perception measure or scale) that measures how each respondent perceived each youth incarceration aspect probed in the four sections of the questionnaire. To this effect, the calculation of a 'rule' or perception-measure is usually based on the responses of the subset of questionnaire-items associated with a particular youth incarceration aspect (for example the subset of questionnaire responses evaluating perceptions on correctional centre architecture).

It stands to reason that the applicability of these proposed rules/ or scales, or perception measures - as indicators of respondents' perceptions on the various aspects - has to be evaluated. A form of reliability testing, referred to as **internal consistency reliability**, is therefore conducted on each of the four subsets of response ratings that represent the various youth incarceration constructs. If internal consistency reliability is established for each youth detention perception-construct, it implies that all questionnaire-items within a youth incarceration construct contribute towards explaining the particular aspect; and therefore, that the rule/, or measure calculated from these agreement-responses, measures what it purports to measure. Internal consistency reliability therefore contributes towards the integrity of the research and ensures that valid and reliable analysis results and deductions are reached. [Scale reliability testing can also be described as follows: it is a valuable statistical technique that is often applied to determine whether responses to subsets of questionnaire items, which have been grouped together to describe a construct/ or aspect of the topic under investigation, truly contribute towards explaining that aspect]. The analysis technique of internal consistency reliability (also referred to as item-analysis) calculates a coefficient, Cronbach alpha, as part of the analysis output.

The value of the Cronbach alpha-coefficient acts as indicator of internal consistency reliability. A value in the region of, or greater than 0.7, is regarded as a very good indicator of internal consistency reliability. (In exploratory research Cronbach alpha values in the region of 0.6 is frequently regarded as sufficient evidence of internal consistency reliability) Summary results of scale reliability testing conducted on the youth incarceration constructs are presented in Table 1. Once internal consistency reliability is established for the subset of questionnaire-items explaining a particular youth detention construct, a measure, or **scale of perception** as mentioned in the introductory paragraph of this section **can be calculated**. The measure is usually calculated for each respondent as the mean value (average) of agreement-ratings for the subset of questionnaire items that describe a particular aspect. The calculated means of respondents are referred to as **scores**. The advantage of using the average value of agreement ratings for each respondent as perception-measure is that the agreement rating scale used in the questionnaire applies equally to the score values well. Analyses conducted on the score values and commented on in subsequent sections are then easy to interpret according to the Likert

agreement protocol. Item analyses were duly performed on each of the four subsets of agreement ratings for the questionnaire-items to evaluate perceptions. (Table 1)

Table 1

Scale reliability testing.

Summary results of scale reliability testing conducted on the perception constructs defined. Cronbach alpha coefficients, questionnaire items describing each perception construct, construct mean scores and standard deviations are reported in the body of the table

Perception dimension/ construct	Questionnaire items		Cronbach alpha coefficient	Grand mean perception score	N	Standard dev. mean score
	included	reversed/ omitted				
Architecture	q14-17	q10-q13 q18-20	0.56	2.23	379	0.77
Case management	q20-q23 q48-q50	q24	0.60	2.74	379	0.67
Risk management	q25-q39		0.83	2.62	378	0.67
Basic human rights	q40—q46 q49	q47 q48 q50	0.66	3.10	379	0.66

A question-item with a ‘n’ pre-fix indicates that the rating scale for that particular item has been inverted to comply with assumptions of scale reliability testing. (To align with other subset questionnaire items which had all been stated either positively or negatively)

Conclusions:

Cronbach alpha coefficient all proved to be in the region of 0.6 or greater. Scale reliability was thus indicated for all constructs (The value of 0.56 for the correctional centre architecture construct was approximated as 0.6. The architecture construct was included in further analyses, but deductions re architecture perceptions should be treated with somewhat more caution). This implies that all questionnaire items within a particular construct contributed towards explaining the particular aspect of youth incarceration probed in the questionnaire. This result further implies that perception scores (which are calculated for each respondent as the mean response of all responses within a particular subset of questionnaire-items) for each respondent can act as reliable indicators/ evaluators of the perception of respondents re the four aspects of youth

incarceration. (The complete set of item analyses is not included in the report, but can be forwarded/ included in an Appendix if required). The mean scores indicated in the third to last column serve the purpose of reflecting the general perception trend expressed by respondents regarding each construct. For example the general score mean for the aspect of case management was calculated as 2.73 and for architecture as 2.23. These values indicate that respondents expressed an 'neutral' feeling when their perception re case management was requested, but, they expressed a negative perception (mean score of 2.23) of correctional centre architecture. Once the reliability of the summative measures (scores) of the perception construct had been verified, further analysis could be performed to investigate and describe the nature of youth detention perceptions more completely.

3.4 Analysis of variance (anova) to describe the nature of perceptions in more detail and to identify biographical effects that affect youth incarceration perceptions significantly

Once the internal consistency reliability of the various youth incarceration constructs had been established - as described in the preceding section - separate analyses of variance were performed on each of the sets of perception construct scores to identify biographical effects that significantly influence respondents' perceptions on the four issues. Table 2 presents the results of the analyses of variance. The biographical attributes of age, length of the correctional centre sentence and youth development centre were entered in the anova models to investigate the statistical significance of their effects on respondent perceptions. Table 2 below indicates that general statistical significance was established for each of the four anova models (column 1) on at least the 1% level of significance. Attention could subsequently turn to the statistical significance of individual biographical effects and the nature of their effect on perceptions. Significance of these effects as established in the individual analyses are indicated in columns 2 to 4 of Table 2.

Table 2

Analysis of variance (anova) summary results table indicating significance level of identified biographical attributes.

Each row of the table represents a separate analysis of variance performed on the youth incarceration construct scores. The four constructs are listed in the first column of the table. The general anova F statistic and associated probability is listed in the second column of the table. F-probabilities associated with the individual biographical attributes and F statistics are reported in columns 4-9 of the table.

Construct	General F statistic (F- prob.)	Biographical attributes. F statistic and associated probability		
		Age	Length of sentence	YDC
Correctional centre architecture	4.38 (0.0007)***	3.45 (0.06)?	0.47 (0.51)	6.95 (0.0001)***
Case management	3.59 (0.0035)**	0.38 (0.54)	6.11 (0.01)**	1.31 (0.27)
Risk management	4.44 (0.0006)***	0.38 (0.54)	1.85 (0.18)	5.21 (0.001)***
Basic Human Rights	8.84 (0.0001)***	1.44 (0.23)	6.35 (0.01)**	8.94 (<0.0001)***

Significance legend:

? : 10% level of significance

* : 5% level of significance

** : 1% level of significance

*** : 0.1% level of significance

Deduction

The table indicates that;

- Perceptions re correctional centre architecture were statistically significantly affected by the centre where respondents were incarcerated.
- Perceptions re case management was statistically significantly affected by the length of correctional centre sentences
- Perceptions re risk management was statistically significantly affected by the centre that the respondent were assigned to
- Perceptions re basic human rights were statistically significantly influenced by the length of sentences and the centre where respondents were incarcerated.

Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons of means

The analyses of variance only identified biographical attributes that significantly influence perceptions of the four youth incarceration constructs but do not describe the nature of the influence of these attributes (How does length of sentence, for instance affect perceptions – shorter sentenced inmates more/ less negative than inmates with longer sentences?). Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons of means tests (pair wise) were conducted on perception mean scores calculated according to the categories of significant biographical attributes to determine how the category construct mean scores differ from one another (In other words establish the nature of the effect of the biographical attributes on perceptions). In Table 3 the results of the Bonferroni multiple comparisons of means tests are reported.

Table 3 lists the perception construct means of the four youth incarceration constructs according to the categories of the biographical attributes identified as significant. For example, in Table 3, mean perception scores on respondents' 'perception of case management*' are reported according to the categories of '< 4 year sentences', and '> than 4 year sentences '.* (Since 'length of correctional centre sentence' proved to be a statistically significant influence of perceptions regarding 'case management). IN Multiple comparisons of means tests, each pair wise set of category mean perception scores are compared against a measure referred to as an 'lsd' – which is an abbreviation for the term 'least significant difference' - to establish which category perception mean/s differ significantly from other category means. Category mean perception scores that differ significantly from one another are suffixed with different small letters. (For example, Table 3, the second row indicates that the *perceptions on case management* score means for '*< 4 years sentences* 'and *'> 4 year sentences'* respondents differ significantly from one another group (Mean values of values of 2.84 and 2.59 suffixed with different small letters). On the agreement rating scale for the present questionnaire a rating of '1' implies '*strongly agree'* up to an agreement rating of '5' which signifies 'Strong disagreement'. For the 'case management construct, this implies that the '*i<$ year sentences' group h*ad a significantly more ambivalent stance towards case management than the respondents with a longer correctional centre sentence.

Table 3

Table of perception score means arranged according to the categories of biographical effects identified as effects that significant influence perceptions

Bonferroni least significant differences are indicated for each biographical effect. Category mean scores of a biographical attribute suffixed with different small letters indicate means that differ significantly from one another.

Construct	General F statistic (F-prob.)	Category-mean perception scores for the biographical attributes indicated as statistically significant influential affects on the perceptions of the various youth detention aspects/ constructs.		
		Age	Length of sentence	
Correctional centre architecture		<20 yrs:2.25 a >20 yrs:2.19 a	<3 yrs: 2.26 a 4+ yrs: 2.20 a	Emthonjeni: 2.46a Boksburg : 2.35 a Kroonstad: 2.16 ab Leeuwkop : 2.02 b
Case management		<20 yrs:2.79 a >20 yrs:2.70 a	<3 yrs: 2.84 a 4+ yrs: 2.59 b	Emthonjeni: 2.58 b Boksburg :2.92 a Kroonstad :2.68 ab Leeuwkop : 2.74 ab
Risk management		<20 yrs:2.62 a >20 yrs:2.61 a	<3 yrs: 2.72 a 4+ yrs: 2.54 b	Emthonjeni: 2.92 a Boksburg : 2.56 b Kroonstad : 2.59 b Leeuwkop : 2.50 b
Basic Human Rights		<20 yrs:3.10 a >20 yrs:3.09 a	<3 yrs: 3.21 a 4+ yrs: 2.92 b	Emthonjeni: 2.83 c Boksburg : 3.11 b Kroonstad : 3.41 a Leeuwkop : 2.99 bc

Significance legend:

? : 10% level of significance

* : 5% level of significance

** : 1% level of significance

*** : 0.1% level of significance

Deductions

The '*case management'* example used in the preceding paragraph serves to illustrate that deductions regarding the nature of perceptions on the different youth incarceration constructs can likewise be made by studying the results of the multiple comparisons of means tests presented in Table 3:

- For the perceptions on *'correctional centre architecture***'** construct markedly/ significantly more **positive dispositions** were reflected by respondents who were either incarcerated in the Kroonstad (2.16) or Leeuwkop YDC 2.02), than those at the Emthonjeni (2.46) or Boksburg (2.35) YDCs.
- Apart from the sentence-length perception differences on case management (discussed in the example), respondents' perceptions on case management were also influenced by the specific YDC: perceptions of respondents at Boksburg (mean score of 2.93) , Kroonstad (mean score of 2.59) and Leeuwkop (mean score of 2.74) were statistically significantly more apathetic than respondents at the Emthonjeni YDC.
- The nature of the influence of sentence length and specific YDC on risk management perceptions revealed similar patterns as that exhibited by case management perceptions: the perceptions of respondents with shorter sentences were significantly more apathetic than those with longer sentences, and Emthonjeni respondents perceptions varied significantly from the other YDC respondents – but in this case the Emthonjeni participants were statistically significantly more apathetic than the other YDC groups.

- Perception on basic human rights were negatively affected by length of correctional centre sentence: the respondents with shorter sentences experienced respect for basic human rights significantly more negative (mean score of 3.21) than inmates with longer correctional centre sentences, and significant YDC dependency re human rights perceptions also transpired: with Kroonstad, being experienced as the least agreeable, followed by Boksburg and then jointly Leeuwkop and Emthonjeni

For the '***youth incarceration school policy'*** construct perceptions in general were positive, but again significantly more so for

- ***'youth incarceration informed' & 'relatively informed'*** response groups (as opposed to the '***youth incarceration not-informed'*** response group with perception mean scores of respectively 4.30, 4.21 & 3.73)

The same perception trend reported in the previous paragraph on school-policy was established for the ***'perceived-confidence-to-build-youth detention-classroom-rapport'*** construct with significantly more positive perceptions expressed by

- ***youth detention informed' & 'relatively informed'*** response groups (as opposed to the '***youth detention not-informed'*** response group with perception mean scores of respectively 4.17, 4.18 & 3.49)

Conclusions

Table 3 in general indicated that respondent perceptions on correctional centre architecture, case management and risk management were positive t9o apathetic, but that respondents in general perceived the upholding of basic human rights in all YDCs more negatively. Length of correctional centre sentence and the specific YDC furthermore affected perceptions statistically significantly.

ANNEXURE D

CASE MANAGEMENT FILE

Inmate registration number : ……..

Surname : ……..

First names : ……

Aliases : ……

: ……

: ……

: ……

Date of birth : ……

Offence(s) : ……

: ……

: ……

: ……

Sentence(s) : ……

: ……

: ……

: ……

Classification and placement : ……

: ……

: ……

General information

This form must be used by unit manager when receiving the inmate from orientation and assessment unit. The unit manager must heed the information noted on this form. The form must be hold in the unit office while accommodated in the reception area and the attached to the inmate‘s case file

Inmate identification

Surname : ……..
First names : ……..
Date of birth : …….
Unit name : …….
Cell number : …….

Part 1

Social work contact screening clearance

I have completed contact screening Yes No
I have made a referral Yes No

REFERAL INFORMATION : ……
……
……
……

ACTION REQUIRED : ……
……
……
……

Any special supervision requirements Yes No

Name of screening officer
……

Signature
……..

Part 2

Correctional Centre medical services health clearance

I have completed a health assessment	Yes	No
I have made a referral for psychiatric assessment	Yes	No

REMARKS

……
……
……
……

Position	Date	Time	Signature
.....	…….	…….	…….

Part 3

Unit manager's clearance.

Name of unit manager	Date	Time	Signature
…….	…….	…….	…….

ANNEXURE E

INMATE IDENTIFICATION AND DATE FORM

CONFIDENTIAL
INMATE CONTACT SCREENING FORM

INSTRUCTION TO INTERVIEWERS

This is a semi structure interviews. The interviewer should use a recognized interview procedure, but it is not necessary to ask questions verbatim. It is also important that the information requested on this form be obtained in full. Checklists have been included at the end of each question to provide the interviewer with a reminder of the types and areas of information that should be gathered.

The interviewer should introduce him/herself to the inmate, then say something like,

The purpose of this meeting is to find out what needs to be done in order to help you through the processes of you admission into correctional centre. I will take notes so that I can put together a plan with you to deal with those things that need to attend to quickest. If there is anything that you want to know during the interviews, just ask me, OK? Do you have any questions before we begin.

INMATE IDENTIFICATION

Name : ……
Alias/es : ……
Reg. no : ……
Date of birth : ……Age: ……Years:……Month:……..
Language spoken at home: ……...Requires interpreter: ……..
Date of reception: ……..Time of interviews: ……...
Name of interviewer: ……

DATA FORM

Registration number: …….Date: ……
Name: …….Date of birth: …….
Country of birth: ……Date arrived in S.A: ……
Citizenship: ……
First language: ……..Interpreter required: Yes: ……No: …….
Language: ……
Marital status: ……Partner's name: ……
Do you have children: ……
Next of kin name: ……
Next of kin address: ……
Do you receive any visits: Yes: ……No: ……..
With whom: ……How often: ……..
Comments: ……...
……..
……..

EDUCATION

Age at leaving school: ……Highest level achieved: ……..
Do you have problem with reading or writing: Yes: ……..No: ……
Do you have problems with numeracy: Yes: ……..No: ……
Comments: ……..
……
……

EMPLOYMENT

Do you have any trade or other job qualifications: Yes: ……..No: ……
If so, state which ones: ……
……
……
What was your last job: ……..
Longest period of employment: ……..When was this: ……..
Main type of work: ……
Comments: ……..
……

HEALTH

Do you have any illness requiring prescribed medication: Yes: ……No: ……
If so, state the conditions and medication: ……
……
……

DRUG AND ALCOHOL HISTORY

Have you ever used drug or alcohol: Yes: ……No: …….
If so, which ones and to what extent: ……....
……
……
Do you think you have a problem or have had a problem in the past with substances?
Yes: ……No: …….
Do you wish to see a social worker in this regard: Yes: ……No: …….
Comments: ……
……
……

CENTRE EXPERIENCE

Have you been to a centre before: Yes: ……No: ……
If so, state where, when and length of sentence: ……
……
……
Have you experience any problems in a centre either in the past or during the sentence:
……
……

PROGRAMME PLANNING

What programmes, courses, groups or work have you been doing so far in this sentence?
……
What programmes, courses, groups or work etc, would you like to be involved in?
……
Do you have any post-release plans at present: ……..
Signature: …… Date: ……

ANNEXURE F

INMATE CONTACT SCREENING

INMATE CONTACT SCREENING FORM

INSTRUCTION

This suicide risk assessment guide from section A is to be completed by the interviewer. Score one cell on each risk dimension.

RISK DIMENSION	LOW RISK		MEDIUM RISK		HIGH RISK	
1.Imprisonment	Adjusted to imprisonment		Escape from poor adjustment		First time in prison	
2.Coping with prison life	Able to cope		Can cope but has problem		Very poor coping skills	
3.Mental state	Stable no psychiatric history		Stable with recurring psychiatric problems		Psychiatric illness or rehabilitating from recent psychiatric illness	
4.Drug and alcohol factors	Informed recreational user or non user		Ongoing drug and alcohol problem		Required medical or observation following arrest	
5.Sleep pattern	Satisfactory		Restless or nervous		Waking early (disturbing thoughts)	
6.Self control	Able to control self		Episodic loss of control in the past		Feels like she/he could lose control now	
7.Evidence of hopelessness	Reasonably future oriented		Ambivalent but future orientated		Exhibit profound hopelessness	
8.Maturation	Appropriate for subgroup, no problem other than being an offender		Any age, with chronic emotional mental or physical problems		40 years of age with chronic mental/physical problem or 24 years of age with evidence of emotional volatility	
9.Social support	Appropriately satisfied with level of support		Low level of support and dissatisfied		No active or emotional support by family or friends	
10.Number of previous suicide attempt	None		1 or 2 non serious attempts		3 or more non serious attempts or 1 or more serious attempts	
11.Period since first attempt	5 years or more		Between 3 months and 5 years		Less than 3 month	
12.Period since last attempt	More than 1 year		Between 1 year and 3 moths		Less than 3 month	
13.Current suicidal thoughts	Normal passing thoughts and fears		Imaginative thoughts of suicide and self harm with no plan		Suicidal or self harm thoughts with a well thoughts out plan	
NUMBER OF RISK FACTORS	**TOTAL NO OF RISK FACTORS**		**TOTAL NUMBER OF MEDIUM RISK FACTOR**		**TOTAL NUMBER OF HIGH RISK FACTORS**	

ANNEXURE G

INMATE NEEDS CHECKLIST

NEEDS CHECKLIST

INMATE NAME: …….. **DATE: ……...**

Please circle any of the following areas which relate to you:

1 I need help in setting specific goals.

2. I want to change my life style.

3. I want to learn better ways of coping with my problems.

4. I want to talk more easily with others.

5. I need help in organising a more effective job search.

6. I want to learn to manage my financial affairs.

7. I need to upgrade my skill, so I can improve my employment situation.

8. I want to find a better job.

9. I need to stop using drugs.

10. I want to stop drinking completely.

11. I want a counsellor/therapist to help me to understand my needs

12. I want to learn how to say no to friends putting pressure on me.

13. I need to learn to deal with anger.

14. I would like: ……

…….. **……..**

SIGNATURE OF INMATE **DATE**

ANNEXURE H

IN-DEPTH ASSESSMENT

INTERVIEWERS QUESTIONS	INMATE RESPONSE
SECTION A: INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS	**SECTION A: INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS**
1. First of all, tell me if you have ever been in custody before and if so when and where that was.	1. Prior history of imprisonment. Note if inmate is first timer or an escapee.
DRUG AND ALCOHOL ABUSE	**DRUG AND ALCOHOL ABUSE**
2. Were you under the influence of alcohol or other drug at the time of your arrest?	2. Influence of alcohol or other drugs at the time of arrest.
SECTION B: INTERLLECTUAL DISABILITY	**SECTION B: INTERLLECTUAL DISABILITY**
1.Consider whether the inmate display any behavioral factors that could be associated with intellectual disability e.g. childlike/treatment or medication	Age left school ……. Last school grade ……..... List attainments certificates …….
SECTION C: SOCIAL WELLBEING	**SECTION C: SOCIAL WELLBEING**
1 Can you give me the names of two of your next of kin, or persons whom you wish to be contacted in the case of emergency	1 Next of kin or nominated person
2. Do your next of kin need to be told that you are here?	2. Contact person informed. (if yes)
SECTION D: FEMALE INMATES	**SECTION D: FEMALE INMATES**
Does the inmate have a suspected or confirmed pregnancy? (Give details and any problems)	Does the inmate have a suspected or confirmed pregnancy? (Give details and any problems)
SECTION E: CORRECTIONS HEALTH SERVICE NOTIFICATION	**SECTION E: CORRECTIONS HEALTH SERVICE NOTIFICATION**
Note any information obtained from the Corrections Health Service about the inmate. (Transfer any relevant information to the "Attention Details" section inside case file. ……..	Note any information obtained from the Corrections Health Service about the inmate. (Transfer any relevant information to the "Attention Details" section inside case file. ……..
Social worker for Reason ……	Social worker for Reason ……

ANNEXURE I

EDUCATION PROFILE SCREENING

EDUCATION PROFILE SCREENING

(CONFIDENTIAL)

INTERVIEWER: …….. DATE: …….

YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTRE: ……

NAME: …….. REG NO: …….

DATE OF BIRTH: ……

Health Factors that may affect education/work programme: ……

SECTION A

Educational History:

……
……
……
……
…….. Level reached: ……

Current Course Enrolments Details: ……..

SECTION B WORK SKILLS AUDIT

Work History:

……
……
……
……
……
……

Vocational Training or Trade Courses Completed (Include Courses attended during imprisonment)

……
……
……
……
……
……
General Interests:

……
.....
.....

SECTION C

Short term Educational Goals/Educational Needs:

……
……

Comments:
……
……
……

ANNEXURE J

INMATES HISTORY CHECKING IN RELATION TO ALLOCATION OF EMPLOYMENT

INMATE HISTORY CHECK IN RELATION TO ALLOCATION OF EMPLOYMENT

INMATE DETAILS

Surname: …… Give names: …….

Alias: …….. Date of Birth: ……

Reg no: ……..

Security classification: ……..

Sentence: ……...

Arrived at unit on: …… From: …….

Details of previous employment at this centre: see attached history.

Has the inmate any history in respect of the following? (If any – please supply full details)

Escape: ……..

Recapture: …….

Other serious matters: ……...

Official responsible for allocation of the position:

……

Not/ recommended: Signature: ……. Date: ……..

Approved/not approved Signature: ……. Date: ……..

Position available for allocation: …….. Date: ……..

ANNEXURE K

ALCHOL AND OTHER DRUG ASSESSMENT

ALCOHOL AND OTHER DRUG ASSESSMENT

Date of interview: ……..... Day …….. Month …… Year ……...

Inmate name: …… Reg no: ……..

Received from: ……..

Recommendations for social workers/medical practitioner and case managers

Further drug & alcohol assessment to be undertaken by the social worker.

1. Yes/priority (within 2 weeks)
2. Yes (within three month)
3. No

Further drug & alcohol assessment/treatment requested by inmate: Yes/No

Date D & A assessment completed by case officer/social worker/ medical practitioners

Day …… Month …….. Year ……

Referal to other services recommended:

Service (s): ……

Comments:

……

……

……

Interviewer name: …….

ANNEXURE L

CASE MANAGEMENT INMATE REFERRAL FORM

CASE MANAGEMENT INMATE REFERRAL FORM

TO: ……

FROM: ……..

Inmate: ……. was seen by myself

Date: …… At: ……...

Summary of Discussions:

……
……
……
……

Action recommended:

……
……
……
……

Signature: ……..

Action taken:

……
……

Name and Signature: …….

Date: ……..

ANNEXURE M

INDIVIDUAL CASE PLAN

INDIVIDUAL CASE PLAN

Name: …….Date of Birth: …… Unit ……..

Date of Plan: ……. Date of Review: ……

Plan prepared by: ……..

Persons attendance: ……...

Priority number	Objective/Goals	Activity/Method How will the objective be achieved)	Person/s responsible

INDIVIDUAL CASE PLAN

DATE COMMENCED: ……

Goals:

Work:

……

……

Action plan:

……

……

Timeframe:

……

Personal/Social:

……

……

Action plan: ……...

Timeframe: ……

Health/Physical fitness: ……

Action plan: ……...

Timeframe: ……

Activities interested in: ……

Action plan: ……...

Timeframe: ……

ANNEXURE N

ORIENTATION INFORMATION CHECKLIST

ORIENTATION INFORMATION CHECKLIST

1 Description of the centre	Yes	No
2. Brief explanation of case management and the role of case officer	Yes	No
3 The purpose of CMP and confidentiality of information	Yes	No
4 Expectation regarding interaction and participation in all programmes	Yes	No
5 Rules/regulation pertaining to the correctional centre accommodation and visits	Yes	No
6 The disciplinary process-brief on offender misconduct	Yes	No
7 The roles, identities, locations and availability of all relevant staff	Yes	No
8 An outline of the centre's daily routine	Yes	No
9 Rules of the centre and sections	Yes	No
10 Lines and method of communication	Yes	No
11 Telephone and main procedure	Yes	No
12 Inmates property, dress code and purchases	Yes	No
13 Clothing – laundry, replacement etc	Yes	No
14 Grievance procedure	Yes	No
15 Fire and safety rules	Yes	No
16 Access to medical services	Yes	No
17 Programmes, activities	Yes	No
18 Religious services	Yes	No
19 Release preparation and reintegration processes	Yes	No
20 Finding and overview of support system to facility transfers	Yes	No
21 Support by community corrections staff members	Yes	No
22 Opportunity to prepare maximally for reintegration	Yes	No
23 Additional information considered by case officer as relevant	Yes	No

Signature of inmate: …….. Date: ……

Signature of case officer: …… Date: ……