INTRODUCTION

The South African Qualifications Act (58 of 1995) heralded many changes in the field of education and filled many academics with fear and trepidation while others regarded it as a wonderful challenge to enhance the development of learners and to improve the social and economic development of the country. This discussion will give an overview of the aims and objectives of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and its various bodies as set out in a number of SAQA publications, followed by a focus on national and international trends in criminology and criminal justice with a view to indicating some challenges for the future development of criminology in South Africa.

BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The origins of the new education system can be traced back to black trade union demands for a living wage in the early 1970s which were repeatedly rejected by employers who claimed that workers were unskilled and that their demands were unjustified. This eventually led to the National Union of Metalworkers of SA (NUMSA) establishing a research group comprising workers and union officials to make recommendations on basic education, training and skills development which should be nationally recognised while also making provision for mobility. This proposal was formally adopted by the Congress of SA Trade Unions (COSATU) in 1991 (The National Qualifications Framework: An overview 2000:4). Simultaneously there was a demand for change in education initiated by the non-governmental education sector, especially after the 1976 Soweto student uprising and by 1980 the ‘entire education system had been discredited and rejected’ (The National Qualifications Framework: An overview 2000:4). The Department of Education also launched a policy discussion resulting in the Education Renewal Strategy which advocated three streams: academic, vocational, and vocationally-oriented, which the democratic alliance found unacceptable. A seamless framework similar to that adopted by Scotland and New Zealand was suggested as more acceptable (The National Qualifications Framework: An overview 2000:5).

In 1992 a meeting between the Department of Manpower and the trade union federations resulted in the formation of a representative task team which established eight working groups with representatives from trade unions, employers, the State, providers of education and training, the ANC Education Department and the democratic alliance, with the task of developing a new national training strategy. The reports emanating from these working groups resulted in the establishment of an Inter-Ministerial Working Group charged with drafting the National Qualifications Framework Bill which was passed into law as the South African Qualifications Authority Act 58 of 1995 on 4 October 1995 (The National Qualifications Framework: An overview 2000:5).

The Minister of Education, in consultation with the Minister of Labour, appoints the 29 SAQA members for a period of three years. These members represent the major education and training stakeholders as well as representatives from government, business and labour (Isaacs 2000:3). The first SAQA meeting took place in May 1996 and was chaired by Mr S B A Isaacs.

SAQA FUNCTIONS

In terms of section 5(1) of the South African...
Qualifications Authority Act, SAQA must (Isaacs 2000:4):

- Oversee the development of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)
- Formulate and publish policies and criteria for:
  - registering bodies responsible for establishing education and training qualifications and standards (National Standards Bodies)
  - accrediting bodies responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of such qualifications and standards (Standards Generating Bodies)
- Oversee the implementation of the NQF, including:
  - registering or accrediting the above mentioned bodies and assigning their functions
  - registering national qualifications and standards
  - ensuring compliance with provisions for accreditation
  - benchmarking standards and registered qualifications internationally
- Advise the Minister on the registration of qualifications and standards
- Be responsible for the control of the finances of SAQA.

THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK (NQF)

The objectives of the NQF are as follows (Isaacs 2000:4):

- Create an integrated national framework for learning achievements
- Facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths
- Enhance the quality of education and training
- Accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities, and thereby
- Contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

SAQA has adopted an eight-level framework grouped into three bands with Level 1 the least complex (compulsory schooling or the General Certificate of Education), Levels 2-4 (Higher National Certificates) and Levels 5-8 (Tertiary and Research). The NQF has further divided all education and training into 12 organising fields with various sub-fields with a National Standards Body (NSB) for each field:

01 Agriculture and Nature Conservation
02 Culture and Arts
03 Business, Commerce and Management
04 Communication Studies and Language
05 Education, Training and Development
06 Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology
07 Human and Social Studies
08 Law, Military Science and Security
09 Health Sciences and Social Services
10 Mathematical, Physical, Computer and Life Sciences
11 Services (hospitality, tourism, etc)
12 Physical Planning and Construction

After some uncertainty SAQA classified criminology in NSB field 08: Law, Military Sciences and Security, in the sub-field Safety in Society.

Countries in Europe, the Pacific rim, Australia, New Zealand and North America have already adopted or are in the process of adopting a national qualifications framework based on outcomes-based education and South Africa cannot ignore these developments (Isaacs 2000:7).
QUALIFICATIONS

A qualification is obtained when the learner achieves the required number of credits at a specific NQF level. The NSB Regulations (452 of March 1998) describe qualifications as representing a planned combination of learning outcomes with a defined purpose or purposes, including applied competence and a basis for further learning. Enriching the qualifying learner by providing status, recognition, credentials and licensing; it improves marketability and employability, and opens up routes to additional education and training. Benefitting society and the economy by enhancing citizenship, increasing social and economic productivity, providing specifically skilled and/or professional people, and transforming and redressing past inequities. Complying with the objectives of the NQF contained in section 2 of the Act. Having both specific and critical cross-field outcomes that promote life-long learning. Where applicable, being internationally comparable. Incorporating integrated assessment to ensure that the purpose of the qualification is achieved; a range of formative and summative assessment methods appropriate to the competence being assessed are used. Providing for the recognition of prior learning, including learning outcomes achieved through formal, informal and non-formal learning and work experience.

According to SAQA’s credit system one credit equals ten notional hours of learning, motivated in context in each case. Notional hours of learning is defined as the time it would take an average learner to meet the outcomes defined and it includes concepts such as contact time, time spent in structured learning in the workplace, individual learning and assessment (Isaacs 2000:9).

Qualifications have both specific (training outcomes) and critical cross-field outcomes which promote lifelong learning and should be internationally comparable, where applicable (Bellis sd:109). Critical cross-field outcomes are generic, cross-curricular and cross-cultural outcomes, also known as competencies, for example critical thinking, conceptualising, communication and computer skills (Bellis sd: 46). It refers to those generic outcomes that forms the basis of all teaching and learning. SAQA has adopted the following critical outcomes (Isaacs 2000:8):

Identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decisions using critical and creative thinking have been made; work effectively with others as a member of a team, group, organisation, community; organise and manage oneself and one’s activities responsibly and effectively; collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information; communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation; use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others; demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem-solving does not exist in isolation.

In order to enhance personal development and the social and economic development of society at large, learners must also be made aware of the importance of: Reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively; participating as responsible citizens in the life of
A distinction is made between fundamental (cognate), core and elective learning. Fundamental means that learning which forms the grounding or basis needed to undertake the education, training or further learning required in obtaining a qualification (communication skills, critical thinking, etc). Core means compulsory learning required in a situation that is contextually relevant to the particular qualification. Elective means a selection of additional credits at the level specified by the NQF from which a choice may be made to ensure that the purpose of the qualification is achieved (Bellis sd:110).
NSB can initiate the formation of the SGB or the initiative can come from the sub-field. A SGB should not have more than 25 representatives and the nominated persons should (Isaacs 2000:12):

C look after issues of productivity, fairness, public interest and international comparability for education and training in the sub-field
C enjoy credibility and respect in the sub-field
C have the necessary expertise and experience in the sub-field, and the support or backing of the nominating body
C be able to advocate and mediate the needs and interests of all levels within the sub-field covered by the SGB
C be able to exercise critical judgement at a high level
C be committed to a communication process between the SGB and the NSB and the constituency.

Representatives are nominated to serve on SGBs and the NSB appoints members after consultation and in cooperation with the bodies concerned (Regulation 22(1)). While expertise is most important, representation, equity and redress are also important considerations. ‘An organisation or group of organisations wishing to be recognised as an SGB shall establish a discrete group who would function as the SGB’ (Isaacs 2000:12). The functions of SGBs are as follows (Isaacs 2000:12):

C generate qualifications and standards
C update and review standards
C recommend qualifications and standards to NSBs
C recommend criteria for the registration of assessors and moderators or moderating bodies
C perform such other functions as may from time to time be delegated by its NSB.

SGBs are recognised as sources of expertise in sub-fields and they need not necessarily be representative of the six stakeholder groupings (Isaacs 2000:21).

Registered SGBs will be given the opportunity to use the SAQA database to assist in the generation of standards and qualifications (SAQA 2000:22).

DEFINITION OF STANDARDS

SAQA (Isaacs 2000:16) defines national standards as specific descriptions of learning achievements agreed on by all major stakeholders in the particular area of learning and which have gone through the SAQA registration process. It includes competence which can be defined as the application of knowledge, skills and values in a specific context to a defined standard of performance. Practitioners require standards against which they can write their curricula. Unit standards means ‘registered statements of desired education and training outcomes and their associated assessment criteria together with administrative and other information as specified’. The primary use of qualifications and unit standards are to serve as:

C a guide to learners
C a guide to educators for the preparation of learning material
C descriptions of end points for the preparation of learning (towards which learning should aim)
C descriptions of what must be assessed, in what context, and the standard of performance required
C a means of recognising achievements (records of learning and/or competence portfolios will indicate what qualifications and unit standards have been achieved by learners).

According to SAQA (2000:17) standards are not:

C A statement or syllabus topic to be addressed
C A course or module
C A process, e.g. reading an instrument or preparing equipment for a specific task
C An input, e.g. teaching someone
C An activity, e.g. demonstrating something
C A learning process, e.g. understanding or applying knowledge
C The mastering of a learning objective
C A score, grade or percentage; or
C A specific entity of knowledge or a unit of knowledge as classified in traditional subject matter syllabi.

They further specify the following guiding principles for the setting of standards (Isaacs 2000:23):

**Consultation:** NSBs, and their SGBs, must consult widely with those who have an interest in their area.

**Relevance:** Qualifications and standards must be relevant to the requirements and needs of all their users.

**Transferability:** NSBs and their SGBs must promote the recognition of transferable skills to assist learners who may need to change their learning or career direction.

**Efficiency and accessibility:** NSBs and their SGBs must set and maintain standards, and wherever possible keep costs down.

**Innovativeness:** Standards generating is a dynamic process. NSBs and their SGBs must accommodate innovation that derives from changing technology, new products, services, markets, skills and knowledge in their specialist areas.

**Broad focus:** NSBs and their SGBs must consider the impact of their planned outputs on all levels of the NQF. Although the focus of an SGB’s standards generation may be at a particular level, the implications for all levels must be considered.

**Minimal duplication:** It is a fundamental principle of the NQF that every qualification and standard will be unique. If a standard is to be used in several qualifications, the NSBs and users concerned must agree on its form, and not create their own versions.

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**THE CRIMSA PROPOSAL FOR A GENERIC BA PROGRAMME IN CRIMINOLOGY**

In the light of the new educational requirements set out in the South African Qualifications Act and the Regulations, CRIMSA (The Criminological Society of South Africa) organised two workshops in 1999 inviting all criminology and criminal justice departments to participate and debate curriculum guidelines as to what should constitute a generic BA criminology programme in South Africa. It was felt that the expertise of all academics in the field of criminology and criminal justice could make an important contribution to determine core issues in the field of criminology and that this could form the basis of academic input for the envisaged SGB. CRIMSA fully subscribes to the guidelines set for SGBs in the generating of qualifications and standards, namely that it should be made up of experts in education and training in the field of criminology and criminal justice and key stakeholders and that it should be representative and equitable. It was felt, however, that it would be a good starting point to be as representative and inclusive as possible with regard the views of all academics in the field of criminology and criminal justice. It is fully appreciated that other experts and stakeholders also have important contributions to make and that academics may have developed different viewpoints in the meantime. The representatives of eight criminology and criminal justice departments who attended the first workshop widely researched and consulted with all their colleagues and at the second workshop two months later consensus was reached that the following should form the core of a generic BA criminology programme:

**C FUNDAMENTAL CRIMINOLOGY** (the development of criminology as a science, crime theories with the main focus on the causes of crime in South Africa, crime prevention, the measurement of crime, the administration of justice, victimology and research methodology);
CONTEMPORARY CRIME ISSUES

A selection of the following: youth and crime, gender and crime, organised crime, corruption, white collar crimes, crimes of violence, substance abuse and crime, mass media and crime, technology and crime, crimes against the environment (green criminology) and human rights issues;

THE REACTION TO CRIME

(Policing crime, the criminal justice system, crime and punishment, restorative justice, alternative forms of justice, security management, the handling of youth and victims in the criminal justice system).

There was also consensus that criminology should be made more relevant to the social and economic needs of South Africa and that there should be a greater focus on a more Africa-oriented criminology. It was felt that there was too much reliance on American theories and research findings, many of which are not applicable in the South African social context, while a need was expressed for a South African textbook on criminology dealing with theories and crime problems specific to South Africa yet also reflecting international perspectives. It was pointed out that previous CRIMSA consultations with members of the business and criminal justice sector had also reflected this need.

NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL TRENDS IN CRIMINOLOGY

In November 2000 the CRIMSA SGB initiating committee undertook academic audits to obtain information on the stand of criminology nationally and internationally in order to determine current trends in criminology and criminal justice modules and programmes, and international guidelines for standards. These aspects cannot be ignored in terms of SAQA’s requirement that national programmes and standards must be internationally comparable where applicable.

In South Africa only generic BA criminology programmes are currently offered while the generic programme of the University of South Africa (Unisa) also offers the following majors: Offender Profiling; Crime Vulnerability; Crime Investigation; Asset and Crime Risk Protection; Administration of Criminal Justice.

The international audit elicited nineteen responses from the following countries: Australia, Belgium, England, New Zealand, Scotland, Croatia, Japan and the USA. Obviously these responses cannot be regarded as fully representative but it does provide a broad overview of programme and course trends in a number of countries. Not all countries have a national qualifications framework or standards. The responses covered a wide variety of generic criminology and criminal justice programmes at graduate, postgraduate and diploma level and only one Australian university offered specialised programmes with majors in corrections; crime prevention; criminal justice; police studies; and crime research. Most use the term Criminology or Criminology and Criminal Justice or just Criminal Justice for their degree programmes.

Most Western criminology programmes have modules on the causes of crime, especially as it pertains to their country, crime prevention, research methods, victimology, youth criminology (e.g. youth and crime), drugs, alcohol and crime, the criminal justice system in their country (e.g. the Australian criminal justice system), a specific focus on the nature and extent of crime in their country (e.g. crime and deviance in Australia; crime in New Zealand; aboriginal issues in policing crime). The Catholic University in Belgium specifically states that the focus is on the causes of crime from a European perspective (e.g. crime trends in Europe and theoretical trends in European criminology) and mention is also made of the domination of American sociological theories which are not really applicable in the European social context. There is also a focus on social and crime problems specific to a country, e.g. a focus on minorities or vulnerable people (immigrants, refugees, homosexuals). Other aspects which
receive attention are comparative or global criminology (eg. comparative criminology and criminal justice), organised crime and corruption, and corporate and white collar crime. Many universities also offer modules on ethics with regard to the collection of data, interviewing, handling of evidence, giving evidence in court, e.g. professional ethics and liability; ethics and professional practice. It seems as if South African programmes are lacking in this regard.

Other modules of note are forensic psychology, criminal profiling, forensic victimology (the handling of the victim in the criminal justice system), forensic criminology (prediction of dangerousness, behavioural and crime scene profiling), miscarriage of justice, critical issues in policing, crime and the media, crimes against the environment, private security, violence and the nation state, crime ethnicity and race, crime and culture, criminal justice decision-making, what works in criminal justice, state crime, evaluation and treatment of the offender.

In the New European Criminology, 1998, edited by Ruggiero and Taylor, the focus is on social distress, alcoholism and drug dependence as a means of explaining crime. Economic liberalism, as well as the role of social and political destabilisation and war in the Balkan countries to explain crimes such as corruption, illicit trafficking in arms, drugs and migrants and other forms of organised crime are also receiving attention. The social alienation and marginalisation of minorities, especially the youth, from countries such as North Africa, the Mediterranean and Eastern Europe and their treatment in the criminal justice system also receive high priority. Corporate and state crimes against the environment are discussed as well as the influence of neo-conservatism on crime in countries such as Germany and Austria. In the book, Critical Criminology, Visions from Europe, 1997, René van Swaaningen, observes that critical criminology never enjoyed the same following in Europe as in England and America where societies differ considerably from that of Europe. She further regards the widespread social and crime problems related to drugs and the related growth in organised crime with regard to drug smuggling as a direct result of the prohibition policy. Since the 1980s increasing affluence rather than relative deprivation has been seen as the main reason for an increase in common crime in Europe. She discusses actuarial criminal justice and the move away from rehabilitation, treatment and reform to risk management, the profiling of dangerousness or risk, etc, where crime is regarded as a normal phenomenon that must be adequately managed.

Not much criminological literature has originated in Africa as reliable crime statistics were hard to find on account of the political instability and violence arising from the artificial division of Africa by the old colonial powers (Mushanga 1992:78). In 1989 the United Nations’ Africa Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) was established in Kampala, Uganda, with the specific aim of promoting and coordinating criminological research in Africa. Since the 1990s UNAFRI, in collaboration with the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in Italy, has conducted the international victims of crime surveys in southern African countries. To date twelve African countries have participated in these surveys, of which seven are in Southern Africa. Victim crime surveys have become an important independent measure of crime trends worldwide to complement crime statistics recorded by the police, to serve as a basis for explaining crime and for the development of more effective criminal justice and crime prevention policies. It is also an important and reliable source for cross country comparisons of crime experiences and it is currently regarded as the most credible source of information concerning conventional crimes such as burglary, assault, robbery and car theft which daily impact on the lives of citizens (Van Dijk 2000:1). Globally more than 62 countries have participated in these surveys using the same questionnaire and research methodology.

In Africa crime is mainly attributed to the fact that the
colonial powers forced capitalism on a precapitalist continent and they also suppressed indigenous law which negatively affected the development of Africa in many ways (Shaidi 1992:13). In many African countries the focus is on American theories as an explanation of crime, for example in Uganda, Kenya and Zimbabwe while poverty is also regarded as an important factor contributing to crime (Kibuka 1980:14). Rapid urbanisation, and the squatting that accompanies it, is also regarded as an important cause of crime (Asuni 1992:117).

South African criminologists should take note of the trend to develop regional and national criminological explanations for crimes specific to the region and especially the move away from American criminological trends as we are still far too inclined to only focus on American criminology and criminal justice based on the misconception that it can also explain and prevent crime in South Africa. This does not detract from the fact that certain theories have universal application such as the link between opportunity and crime, and a number of other universal factors contributing to crime (Naudé 2000:1ff).

Many universities require postgraduate students to do an internship of approximately three months at a criminal justice institution (juvenile justice centre, detention centre, treatment centre) coupled to a mini thesis.

A wide variety of specialisation is offered at master’s level, e.g. Clinical Criminology, Applied Criminology, Criminology and Criminal Justice, European Criminology, Forensic Psychology (for qualified professionals who are not psychologists), while one university offers a Master of Forensic Criminology for qualified psychologists who wish to specialise in forensic psychology which presumably is recognised by their professional society.

From the above it is clear that the generic BA criminology and criminal justice programme proposed by CRIMSA is broadly similar to international programmes in terms of course content although ethics seem to be lacking in the South African programme while there is less emphasis on crimes of violence internationally which can be ascribed to regional differences in crime experiences. It is well known that crimes of violence are problematic in South Africa, other developing countries and countries experiencing.

It is also of interest to note that some universities stated that the title of criminologist can be used by any person who has obtained a postgraduate qualification (normally a master’s degree).

INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS FOR CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMMES

Four manuals on standards for programmes were received and they are broadly similar in terms of the standards they set. The following is a brief overview of the standards laid down in the relevant manuals. All handbooks stated that the university concerned must pay for the review process. Review applications should provide the following information (Vogel 2000:1; Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (1989:3ff):

- A programme mission statement that indicates how it relates to the mission of the institution and its reporting bodies (e.g. department, college and/or division).
- A historical discussion that highlights the evolution of the programme from its inception to the current form.
- A description of the faculty, including qualifications (e.g. degrees, experience and expertise) and activities (seminars attended, research conducted, professional activities, and community service) which should be related to the mission statement.
- A description of the various types of academic programmes, including information on how they
relate to one another. The following should receive attention:

- a statement of each programme’s objectives;
- a demographic and academic profile of students in each academic programme;
- programme admission requirements;
- past, present and estimated future enrolments for each academic programme;
- a detailed discussion of the development of each programme’s curriculum;
- an evaluation of each programme’s curriculum;
- information regarding alumni satisfaction and placement.

A discussion of past (3 to 5 years), present and future (3 to 5 years) programme workloads and resources in comparison to similar programmes at the institution in which the following should be described, forecast and assessed:

- workload (e.g. student to teacher ratios, full-time equivalents, advising loads, and graduate assistantships);
- opportunities for faculty research where it is part of the programme mission;
- the adequacy of the classrooms, libraries, offices, and computer laboratories;
- the adequacy of library materials (e.g. number of criminal justice journals, books and the annual library budget devoted to criminal justice material);
- the adequacy of budgetary resources which should include all monetary resources such as general fund, grants, and contracts.

The Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education (1995:3ff) and the Handbook for Program Review and Academic Standards (1989:11ff) specify the following standards:

**Purpose**

There should be ‘consensus regarding common elements that should be present in all programs of higher education in criminology and criminal justice’ (The Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education 1995:2). Minimum standards for criminology and criminal justice programmes will serve as guidelines for programme review and as a hallmark for new and developing programmes.

The purpose of a higher education programme is ‘to educate students to be critical thinkers who can communicate their thoughts effectively in oral and written form, as well as to instill a comprehensive knowledge of the field. Programmes should strive not only to familiarise students with facts and concepts but teach students how to apply this knowledge to related problems and changing fact situations’ (The Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education 1995:3).

**Curriculum**

The broad scope of criminology and criminal justice should be reflected in the curriculum including a balanced presentation of the common elements of the field. All programmes should have core learning areas that focus specifically on the following:

- **Criminal justice and juvenile processes** (law, crime, and administration of justice)
- **Criminology** (the causes of crime and typologies, offenders and victims)
- **Law Enforcement** (police organisation, discretion, subculture, and legal constraints)
- **Law Adjudication** (criminal law, criminal procedure, prosecution, defense, and court
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C Corrections (incarceration, community-based corrections, and treatment of offenders).

It is of interest to note that juvenile crime and criminal justice processes are accorded a separate core learning area in a degree programme.

It is expected that most programmes will have multiple modules to represent these core learning areas and other crime issues. Some programmes may provide greater focus on some areas depending on faculty expertise and student composition but overspecialisation or exclusion of any of the above areas are not allowed. Students should take at least one course in each of the above core learning areas. Graduate levels should be more specialised in focus and emphasis.

All programmes should require cognate (fundamental) courses that develop the ability of students to process and apply information. Examples of cognate courses are writing courses, public speaking, statistics, computer courses, government and politics, race and ethnic relations, social problems, public management, ethics and surprisingly, research methodology (The Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education 1995:5). Criminology and criminal justice programmes, like all higher education, should be a broadly-based degree programme and no more than one-third of the graduate programme should consist of criminology and criminal justice courses (The Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education 1995:5).

Internships at the upper-level are encouraged to allow students to assess their interest and apply their classroom knowledge in an area of criminal justice. Internships should be meaningful, relevant, and related to educational objectives. Programmes in criminology and criminal justice ‘should not offer courses, nor award credit, for vocational training courses designed for specific job preparation or advanced job training’ (The Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education 1995:6).

Faculty

The minimum educational qualifications for faculty positions for those teaching in bachelor’s and graduate programmes should be a doctorate in criminology and criminal justice, or closely related disciplines. The ability to conduct research and knowledge of research literature should be a requirement. All programmes should have full-time staff to teach courses to ensure commitment, supervision and availability to students. Part-time staff (including graduate assistants) should be responsible for no more than 20 percent of a department’s credit hours and they should primarily be used to provide expertise not otherwise available from the full-time staff.

No more than one-third of the total credits required should be taught by the same instructor. The evaluation of faculty performance should be based on the quality of teaching lectures, research and writing, and service to the institution and/or community at large. Teaching performance should be evaluated by faculty peers and students. Research should be evaluated by how it is applied in the courses and its dissemination to the scholarly community.

Students

Entrance requirements for students in this field should be similar to the admission requirements for all university students. Students should make an input in the faculty evaluation process. Provision should be made to meet the needs of the students admitted to the programme. Alumni should be tracked to assess the extent to which students are placed in desired positions as such surveys are a useful way to assess the achievement of programme goals.

Administration
The lecturer-student ratio should be 30 student majors for each full-time faculty member. Class sizes should average no more than 30 students to provide maximum student-lecturer interaction and where this is not possible provision should be made for regular, smaller group meetings to facilitate close interaction. A programme should have a minimum of three full-time faculty members and hold independent status as an academic department.

Library budgets and collections for criminology and criminal justice books and periodicals should provide for at least the minimum coverage of the field and be tied to curriculum needs and programme size. Distance learning through electronic means or correspondence should be conducted in a fashion that maximizes student-lecturer interaction. Both full- and part-time staff should have adequate physical space, and follow class-time schedules in order to maintain office hours and to meet with students. The institution should have specific programmes to support faculty research and should provide financial incentives and support, facilities and equipment, sabbatical leave and release time.

It is important to note that standards are not only set for core learning areas and specific education and training requirements but also for a wide variety of other related aspects such as standards for staff, students and administration to enhance education and training.

**CHALLENGES FOR CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMMES**

The South African Qualifications Act has brought about new challenges and opportunities for criminologists and other stakeholders to critically review existing learning programmes and to be innovative in making changes and creating new programmes to meet the needs of South African learners, society and the economy. Courses and programmes must also provide an international or global perspective where relevant, but the main emphasis should be on South Africa’s social and economic needs and crime problems. For too long academics have been inclined to rely too much on a selection of American theories and research findings with no indication of their practical relevance to the South African crime situation while criminology in countries such as Europe, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Africa has been ignored. In this respect it behoves us to take note of Mary Bosworth’s (1999:452ff) criticism in which she berates academics for their propensity to teach a plethora of theories selected in terms of their personal preferences. All theories are made equal and students are merely required to learn the characteristics of the selected theories. Bosworth further points out that there is no uniform definition of crime which varies in terms of ideological and intellectual axes yet students are seldom exposed to these. There is also no discussion on intellectual conflict within criminology. An example here is the criminalisation of drugs which created lucrative markets for organised crime syndicates. Bosworth further points out that draft legislation is currently being prepared in the European Union to decriminalise so-called soft drugs for personal use such as marijuana (dagga). In fact, Portugal, Switzerland and Belgium have in the meantime moved to decriminalise the use of marijuana and to rather treat serious abuse as a medical problem (The Pretoria News, 7 July 2000, 3 October 2000 and 20 January 2001) while The Netherlands have always had a liberal policy in this regard. In South Africa the case of Rastafarian lawyer Gareth Prince is currently under consideration by the Constitutional Court after the Cape Law Society refused to accept him as an attorney because he uses dagga for religious purposes which resulted in two previous convictions for the possession of dagga. It should also be remembered that dagga was used by the indigenous people for medicinal purposes till it was criminalised by white settlers. The question can be asked whether the use of marijuana is more detrimental than alcohol use from a social or crime point of view. It is of importance to note that international and South African research found that there is a high correlation between alcohol abuse and violent crime and that as
many as 50-70 percent of offenders and victims had abused alcohol at the time of the offence (Naudé 2000:8; Louw & Parry 1999:7). Yet criminologists never critically reflect on these issues and rather prefer to maintain the status quo. Bosworth maintains that such a narrow and biased outlook impoverishes and disempowers practitioners and students. We appear to serve the status quo yet our discipline provides fundamentally disturbing information about our society. Criminology is a unique discipline which focuses on a very specific social problem.

Another case in point is psychological explanations of crime. It should be noted that not all psychological explanations have universal application (e.g., interpretations and measuring of personality, intelligence and mental disorders) which were mostly developed in terms of research in Western countries. There is, in fact, growing criticism against the teaching of psychological explanations of crime as universally applicable when they may only be applicable to Western cultures. There is also global criticism of textbook theories which are not testable and which have no practical relevance to prevent or control crime and they are regarded as detrimental to the further development of criminology. South Africa will have to focus more on specific factors contributing to crime in Africa and South Africa as was, for example, cited in the South African National Crime Prevention Strategy as well as crime explanations which are universally applicable such as the postmodern approaches (See Naudé (1998:19ff) and Naudé (2000:7)).

In addition, there should be a greater focus on the teaching of ethics not only for research purposes, but also professional ethics with regard to interviewing, liability, the handling of evidence and giving evidence in court. In this regard the guidelines set recently by the American and British Societies of Criminology can serve as a point of departure. If there was a higher regard for ethics in South Africa there would perhaps not have been so many cases of police brutality serving before the Truth and Reconciliation Committee.

Crimes committed by the youth and young people, as victims of crime, should also receive high priority as a large percentage of the South African population, namely 43.7 percent, is under the age of 19 while 62.5 percent is under the age of 29 (Central Statistical Services - now Statistics SA 1998:22). South African youth were severely traumatised and brutalised by apartheid and discrimination and they were increasingly drawn into political violence after the 1976 Soweto uprisings. They challenged repressive laws and actively participated in the armed struggle and according to Gibson (The Star 25 February 1991) ‘children have been socialized to find violence completely acceptable, and human life cheap’.

At the other end of the spectrum all white young males were compelled to do military service where they were equally brutalised. These and other experiences such as gang violence should be focussed on when explaining crime by young people in South Africa. There should also be a greater focus on the handling of young people by the criminal justice system.

Restorative Justice, which is currently a focal point in Western countries and now also in South Africa, is an adjusted model largely based on the customs of the indigenous people of New Zealand, Australia and Canada. In precolonial time, African tradition and customs mostly focussed on the rights and needs of victims of crime and reconciliation and restitution was regarded as important to restore the harm caused by crime. It is hoped that South Africans will rise to the challenge and develop victim-offender mediation and family conference programmes based on African tradition instead of merely relying on the customs of indigenous people in other countries.

The lack of credibility of an unfair and discredited criminal justice system which often transgressed laws and largely went unaccountable, as well as the many unjust laws which affected the daily lives of the majority of
South Africa’s people, should also receive attention as factors contributing to the current high crime rates.

There should be a greater focus on crime rates in Africa and the causes for it. The international crime victim surveys which have been undertaken since the 1990s in twelve African countries by UNICRI and UNAFRI is a good starting point. In fact, these surveys indicate that the crime rate in South Africa is very similar to that of other African countries who participated in the survey (Prinsloo & Naudé 1999:71).

Linked to the above is the challenge to ensure that the necessary library material is available in the form of textbooks and journal articles to enable the teaching of such courses. As was indicated standards in other countries demand that the necessary library material be in place when modules/programmes are developed, which means that textbooks and programmes will have to be developed simultaneously. It is also obvious that standards will first have to be developed before programmes can be reviewed or new programmes developed.

These are only a few of the challenges facing the development of criminology and criminal justice as a relevant and vibrant discipline, as required by the South African Qualifications Act, in order to make a meaningful contribution to the social and economic development of the country and to prevent and control crime. It is hoped that all criminologists will seize this opportunity to become actively involved in the Standards Generating Body.

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