

PRISON WORK MODELS CRITICAL REVIEW

Prison Work Comparison Framework



This publication has been produced during the project "Ecological Economics in Prison Work Administration" - 2014-1-PT01-KA204-001070 (ECOPRIS) implemented with financial support of the European Commission by the Erasmus + programme. This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the ANPCDFP and Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained herein.

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ECOPRIS – Ecological Economics in Prison Work Administration

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PUBLICATION DATE

November 2015

CONTENTS

I. INTRODUCTION	5
II. PRISON WORK REVIEW.....	8
1. DEFINITION	8
2. OBJECTIVES OF PRISON WORK.....	9
3. EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE	11
4. INTERNATIONAL LEGAL INSTRUMENTS.....	11
III. WORK METHODOLOGY	15
1. PRISON WORK FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT (O1-A1).....	15
2. PRISON WORK FRAMEWORK COMPILATION (O2-A2).....	15
3. TRAINING COMPARISON FRAMEWORK CATALOGUE (O1-A3).....	16
IV. PRISON WORK FRAMEWORK.....	18
V. COUNTRY PROFILES.....	20
VI. PRISON WORK FRAMEWORK RESULTS.....	22
1. PRISON WORK CONCEPT, SCOPE AND MODALITIES.....	22
2. MANAGEMENT AND STRUCTURE.....	24
3. MARKET	29
4. MARKETING AND COMMUNICATION.....	30
5. LABOUR REINTEGRATION	31
VII. CONCLUSIONS	33
BIBLIOGRAPHY	40

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 – ECOPRIS Project Sheet.....	5
Table 2 - Summary of case studies (successful and needing improvement), challenges and best practices identified.....	16
Table 3 - List of dimensions, sub-dimensions and indicators assessed in the prison work comparative framework.....	18
Table 4 – Prison profiles of participating countries	20
Table 5 – Prison work conceptualization (what, whom, where, how, and what for), by country.....	22
Table 6 – Main prison business sectors and activities.....	24
Table 7 – Labour reintegration.....	31

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 – Prison work framework development (tasks and delivery dates).....	15
Figure 2 – Rate of prisoners working in participating countries.....	21
Figure 3 - Types of prison work management	25
Figure 4 – The selection process of prison workers.....	26
Figure 5 - Percentage of the prison population who is working (*The Belgian figure includes vocational training since it is equivalent to prison labour)	26
Figure 6 - Prison working hours per week – average number, legal number, and overtime number.....	27
Figure 7 – Distribution of detainees’ income.....	28
Figure 8 – Type of prison work clients.....	30

I. Introduction

In September 2014 the European Commission approved the project *Ecological Economics in Prison Work Administration* (ECOPRIS) under Erasmus + Programme' *Key Action 2 - Cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices: Strategic Partnerships for adult education*. The Erasmus+ programme aims to boost skills and employability, as well as modernising Education, Training, and Youth work. Regarding Adult Education, Erasmus+ aims to improve the quality of adult learning across Europe. With a final score of 96 points, ECOPRIS project was ranked 1st in the selection list for presenting a very strong link with the priorities established in the scope of adult education policies.

Project Title	Ecological Economics in Prison Work Administration		
Project No.	2014-1-PT01-KA204-001070	Acronym	ECOPRIS
Promotor	BSAFE LAB - University of Beira Interior (UBI), Portugal		
Partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ IPS_Innovative Prison Systems (Qualify Just IT solutions and Consulting), Portugal ▪ Center for Promoting Lifelong Learning (CPIP), Romania ▪ Penitentiary of Timisoara (PTM), Romania ▪ West University of Timisioara (UVT), Romania ▪ General Directorate of Prisons and Detention Houses (CTEGM), Turkey ▪ European Organisation of Prison and Correctional Services (EuroPris), Netherlands 		
Start date	01-09-2014	End date	31-08-2017 (36 months)
Action	KA2 - Cooperation for Innovation and the Exchange of Good Practices: <i>Strategic Partnerships for Adult Education</i>		

Table 1 – ECOPRIS Project Sheet

In this publication the ECOPRIS partnership presents a summary of the outcomes of one-year work with the development of the first Output.

Ecological Economics in Prison Work Administration (ECOPRIS) is a 3-year transnational European project, coordinated by the University of Beira Interior in Covilhã, Portugal.

Gathering in its consortia Romanian, Portuguese, Turkish partners and EuroPris (representing Prison Services across Europe), ECOPRIS project intends to prepare prison staff to develop and manage “prison work”; to provide opportunities for inmates’ skills development; and also to increase the generation of own funds to be allocated to the fulfilment of prison’s mission.

ECOPRIS emphasizes **transversal targeted skills**: management, entrepreneurship, prison work and industries awareness, ecology, marketing, communication, ICT, teamwork and

integrated reintegration, as core enablers to staff engagement in prison work sustainable development.

The project's **specific objectives** are to:

- 1) Create 1 conjoint course on prison work plans development to promote inmates reintegration throughout prison work initiatives, by developing staff management skills;
- 2) Train 36 prison staff, in 3 countries, in multidisciplinary teams of 6 members (2 per country), with 3 short-term transnational training events, to develop and implement innovative prison work actions engaging at least 20 inmates per country;
- 3) Improve community and businesses participation in staff and inmates labour reintegration actions by engaging key stakeholders and experts in national seminars, validation workshops, transnational events and involvement in trainings' pilot actions.

ECOPRIS partnership is expected to develop eight **Intellectual Outputs** / tangible deliverables:



The project team started their work in December 2014 with the initial development of the first output - Prison work models critical review. One of its major outcomes is presented in this report: The **Prison Work Comparison Framework** – a frame structured to support the

comparison and analysis of existent prison work models in prison systems (national and international), contributing therefore to practices and knowledge exchange.

For further information about the project, please visit ECOPRIS website: ecopris.europris.org

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II. Prison Work Review

Productive paid work is an important component of prison life providing an active day for prisoners and generating financial resources for them.

Penal Reform International, 2015

In many countries, prison systems aim to provide rehabilitation and social reintegration so that when prisoners are released they do not reoffend and are able to play a productive role in society. The type, extent and concept of work, education, and training as forms of treatment vary considerable around the world. In this chapter we will attempt to provide a common approach to prison work based on a literature review.

1. Definition

For the purpose of this review, **prison work** can be defined as

(...) the employment activity undertaken by people subject to freedom-restricting measures. This work is usually remunerated and takes place in the context of a labour organisation managed by the actual prison service or by some other kind of private or public-sector business organisation, with the ultimate goal of facilitating the working inmates' reintegration into society (Roca & Aliaga, White Paper on the Management of Prison Workshops, 2007, p. 17).

This employment activity can be undertaken in so-called **prison workshops**, spaces equipped for this purpose within prisons themselves or in external units run by them. These areas, particularly in the more modern prisons, are laid out as industrial units or real production units that are physically separate from the rest of the prison facilities. They are properly equipped (in terms of machinery, tools, furniture, safety equipment, lighting and ventilation) and are efficiently distributed into zones that aim to emulate a standard production or industrial facility outside prison.

Alongside the material resources, it is the human resources that are a key success factor for these units. The production processes and infrastructure are as similar as possible to industries in the outside world but they differ from other production units or factories in the sense that they provide employment and practical vocational training to people serving prison sentences under what we might call an "ordinary" regime, i.e. inmates who are fully

imprisoned except for when they are allowed certain leaves on parole as provided for by custodial regulations, and until they are put under a regime of partial imprisonment.

By definition, prison employment activities must involve the **production of goods and services**, either manually or using specialist machinery in areas resembling a normal factory (manufacturing, furniture, processing of components on a production line, recycling, industrial cleaning, garment production, car mechanics and welding, among others) in order for these subsequently to be sold or supplied outside the prison, or alternatively for their use inside the institution, in all cases having an economic value (*Ibid.*, 2007).

Prison work also refers to auxiliary jobs that are essential to the daily running of the prison (for example, cooking, cleaning, laundry, the prison store that supplies food and personal-hygiene products, minor electrical and building maintenance work). However, some authors make the distinction between 'prison work' (domestic work that keeps the prisons running, such as preparing meals in the kitchen or cleaning the prison) and 'work training', i.e. the industrial work that takes place in prison workshops (Hawley, 2011).

2. Objectives of prison work

Prison work can be seen as a way of reducing potentially dangerous behaviours but mostly as an opportunity to gain employment skills and to regain or learn the value of work. As Coyle (2009) argues:

Finding a way of earning a living is the most important part of a prisoner's ability to reintegrate into society on release from prison. For many prisoners their time in prison may be the first opportunity that they have had to develop vocational skills and to do regular work. **The main purpose of requiring prisoners to work is to prepare them for a normal working life on their release from prison**, not to make money for the prison administration or to run factories for the benefit of other parts of the Government (p. 89).

It is often the case that working habits are alien to those inmates who have never worked as an employee in a regular employment structure (of their own volition or because they lack the basic skills), or they have lost them because it is many years since they have had any work experience, or they have simply detached themselves completely from working life because of long (or intermittent but frequent) stays in prison. Regaining the habits of work discipline and productivity (vital for successfully holding gainful employment in the outside world) is a necessary challenge that must be taken on by the prison administration. It is just as important to give prison work the significance it deserves as an ideal medium for learning work skills and competencies, a vital add-on to any prior theoretical training (Roca & Aliaga, 2007).

Unlike other programmes such as counselling, prison work programmes can be justified for reasons other than rehabilitation of the individual offender. From the perspective of the policy maker in the criminal justice system, they can help create of what is known as social peace - based on reduced tensions that are part and parcel of forced, regimental and permanently controlled cohabitation imposed by the custodial institution. This “peace” is born out of covering the basic needs and interests of inmates, such as (Bushway, 2003; Esteban *et al.*, 2014; Roca & Aliaga, 2007):

- Having a decent means of survival that allows inmates to cover daily expenses (purchase of additional food, leisure and hygiene goods from the prison shop);
- Contributing to the expenses generated by a stay in prison;
- Building up a savings fund which he or she can use on release from prison;
- Being able to contribute to family finances;
- Being able to contribute to the payment of specific civil liabilities included in the sentence (victim compensation, damages, fines);
- Demonstrating positive developments in conduct and fulfilment of the sentence, thereby giving the prison administration or the relevant judicial authorities’ confidence to put him or her under a half-open or open regime under the terms provided for by the relevant legislation.

As a result, virtually every prison has some type of work programme for at least some of the inmates in the prison.

Prison work is also often used – even if unstructured – as a resource generator for the prison system. Regardless of this important function, it is crucial that prison work and industries are structured in order to obtain the following objectives (Roca & Aliaga, 2007):

1. Provide basic working habits and useful skills allowing prisoners to compete on an equal footing in the employment market outside once they have been transferred to an open prison or have been finally released.
2. Provide financial self-sufficiency during incarceration for those inmates who have no other legal means of subsistence, thereby covering secondary needs (primary needs being already covered by the prison administration) of food, clothing and hygiene.
3. Encourage the inmate to face up to his or her financial obligations, such as paying the civil liabilities deriving from their crimes, the obligations imposed as part of the sentence or penalties, contributing to family finances or fostering an understanding of the importance of saving.

3. Empirical Evidence

The effectiveness of prison work to both encourages prisoners to look for work after their release and to improve their employability is contested within the literature (Hawley, 2011). Adding to this, much of the literature on education and training in prison refers to the lack of rigorous evaluations of such programmes (McEvoy, 2008).

On the one hand, research shows that work undertaken in prisons is often low skilled and is mostly restricted to simple, manual activities; therefore, it is suggested that it not contribute significantly to the successful (re-) integration of prisoners (McEvoy, 2008; Sims, 2008; Simon and Corbett, 1996). In a review of prison work undertaken in six prisons in the UK, although 33% of those interviewed said that they benefited from the work that they participated in, the analysis suggested that work in prisons had no impact on the participants' chances of securing employment after release (Simon & Corbett, 1996). Furthermore, a report on the conditions of reinsertion of inmates in France highlighted that although work and education and training should be linked to having a positive impact on the reinsertion of inmates, in practice, the articulation between training and work in prison is problematic. Generally, where the offer of prison work is well developed, training is relatively less available. Often both activities cannot be combined during the same day/week (Decisier, 2006).

On the other hand, studies show that work in prison goes far beyond an opportunity to receive an income for inmates. Work is a main instance of socialisation for prisoners and offers a context in which they can develop a sense of ownership, fulfilling an important therapeutic and educational role in the resocialisation of inmates, as remarked by Esteban *et al.* (2014), Guilbaud (2008) and Miguelez *et al.* (2006).

Evidence also suggests that the relative levels of remuneration of prison work on the one hand and the allowances payable to prisoners who engage in learning on the other, have an important impact on inmates' decisions to participation in education / training (Hawley, 2011).

4. International legal instruments

Reflecting the findings of the above studies, prison work is recognised by international law as an important aspect of prisoners' personal wellbeing and also as a tool for social rehabilitation as outlined in a number of international standards (conventions and recommendations).

Among them are the UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners (1955), the UN Basic Principles for the Treatment of Prisoners (1990), and the European Prison Rules (2006). Though not legally binding, these documents represent the international consensus

regarding minimal conditions on the treatment of prisoners – including the conditions of prison work.

What the international instruments say about prison work

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), Article 8.3:

- (a) No one shall be required to perform forced or compulsory labour.
- (b) Paragraph 3 (a) shall not be held to preclude, in countries where imprisonment with hard labour may be imposed as a punishment for a crime, the performance of hard labour in pursuance of a sentence to such punishment by a competent court.
- (c) For the purpose of this paragraph the term “forced or compulsory labour” shall not include:
 - (i) Any work or service not referred to in subparagraph (b), normally required of a person who is under detention in consequence of a lawful order of a court, or of a person during conditional release from such detentions.

Basic Principles for the Treatment of Prisoners (BPTP), Principle 8:

Conditions shall be created enabling prisoners to undertake meaningful remunerated employment which will facilitate their integration into the country's labour market and permit them to contribute to their own financial support and to that of their families.

Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners (SMRTP), Rule 71:

- (1) Prison labour shall not be of an afflictive nature.
- (2) All prisoners under sentence shall be required to work, subject to their physical and mental fitness as determined by the medical officer.
- (3) Sufficient work of a useful nature shall be provided to keep prisoners actively employed for a normal working day.
- (4) So far as possible the work provided shall be such as will maintain or increase the prisoners' ability to earn an honest living after release.
- (5) Vocational training in useful trades shall be provided for prisoners able to profit thereby and especially for young prisoners.
- (6) Within the limits compatible with proper vocational selection and with the requirements of institutional administration and discipline, the prisoners shall be able to choose the type of work they wish to perform.

Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, Rule 72:

- (1) The organisation and methods of work in the institutions shall resemble as closely as possible those of similar work outside institutions, so as to prepare prisoners for the conditions of normal occupational life.
- (2) The interests of the prisoners and their vocational training, however, must not be subordinated to the purpose of making a financial profit from an industry in the

institution.

Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, Rule 73:

- (1) Preferably institutional industries and farms should be operated directly by the administration and not by private contractors.
- (2) Where prisoners are employed in work not controlled by the administration, they shall always be under the supervision of the institution's personnel. Unless the work is for other departments of the government the full normal wages for such work shall be paid to the administration by the persons to whom labour is supplied, account being taken of the output of the prisoners.

Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, Rule 74:

- (1) The precautions laid down to protect the safety and health of free workmen shall be equally observed in institutions.
- (2) Provision shall be made to indemnify prisoners against industrial injury, including occupational disease, on terms not less favourable than those extended by law to free workmen.

Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, Rule 75:

- (1) The maximum daily and weekly working hours of the prisoners shall be fixed by law or by administrative regulation, taking into account local rules or custom in regard to the employment of free workmen.
- (2) The hours so fixed shall leave one rest day a week and sufficient time for education and other activities required as part of the treatment and rehabilitation of the prisoners.

Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, Rule 76:

- (1) There shall be a system of equitable remuneration of the work of prisoners.
- (2) Under the system prisoners shall be allowed to spend at least a part of their earnings on approved articles for their own use and to send a part of their earnings to their family.
- (3) The system should also provide that a part of the earnings should be set aside by the administration so as to constitute a savings fund to be handed over to the prisoner on his release.

European Prison Rules (EPR), Rule 26:

- (1) Prison work shall be approached as a positive element of the prison regime and shall never be used as a punishment.
- (2) Prison authorities shall strive to provide sufficient work of a useful nature.
- (3) As far as possible, the work provided shall be such as will maintain or increase prisoners' ability to earn a living after release.
- (4) In conformity with Rule 13 there shall be no discrimination on the basis of gender in the type of work provided.
- (5) Work that encompasses vocational training shall be provided for prisoners able to benefit from it and especially for young prisoners.
- (6) Prisoners may choose the type of employment in which they wish to participate,

within the limits of what is available, proper vocational selection and the requirements of good order and discipline.

- (7) The organisation and methods of work in the institutions shall resemble as closely as possible those of similar work in the community in order to prepare prisoners for the conditions of normal occupational life.
- (8) Although the pursuit of financial profit from industries in the institutions can be valuable in raising standards and improving the quality and relevance of training, the interests of the prisoners should not be subordinated to that purpose.
- (9) Work for prisoners shall be provided by the prison authorities, either on their own or in co-operation with private contractors, inside or outside prison.
- (10) In all instances there shall be equitable remuneration of the work of prisoners.
- (11) Prisoners shall be allowed to spend at least a part of their earnings on approved articles for their own use and to allocate a part of their earnings to their families.
- (12) Prisoners may be encouraged to save part of their earnings, which shall be handed over to them on release or be used for other approved purposes.
- (13) Health and safety precautions for prisoners shall protect them adequately and shall not be less rigorous than those that apply to workers outside.
- (14) Provision shall be made to indemnify prisoners against industrial injury, including occupational disease, on terms not less favourable than those extended by national law to workers outside.
- (15) The maximum daily and weekly working hours of the prisoners shall be fixed in conformity with local rules or custom regulating the employment of free workers.
- (16) Prisoners shall have at least one rest day a week and sufficient time for education and other activities.
- (17) As far as possible, prisoners who work shall be included in national social security systems.

III. Work Methodology

1. Prison Work Framework Development (O1-A1)

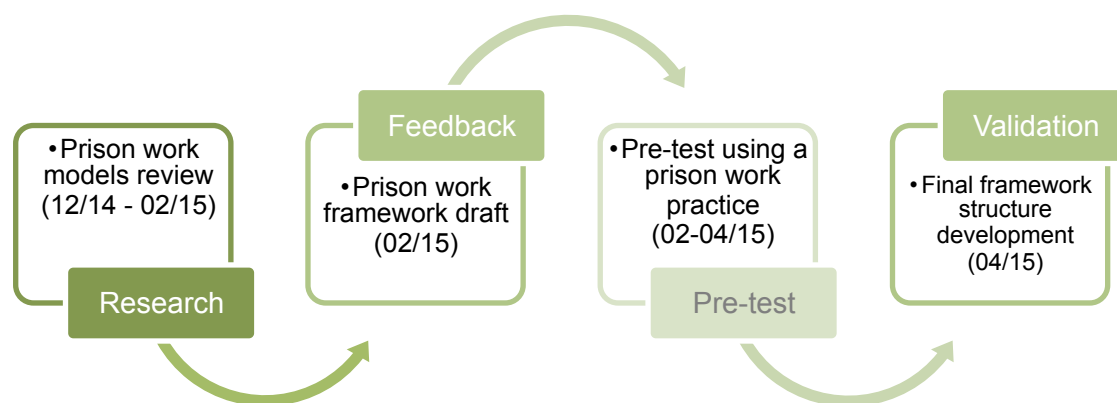
The opening activity of ECOPRIS project was to design a research tool for the purpose of gathering comparable and systematic information on prison work models, practices and methodologies, from respondents.

As shown in the figure below (figure 1), IPS - the leading partner of this activity - started in December 2014 by gathering and reviewing EU prison models and programs, which resulted in a prison work comparison framework proposal. Next, CPIP provided its feedback, and a working version of the framework was presented.

The framework was then pre-tested by core partners: Turkish, Romanian, and Portuguese prison services by identifying one prison work practice. At this stage – and through the intermediary work of EuroPris – the Belgian Prison services contributed to ECOPRIS project, completing the Framework and providing feedback to improve it.

After reviewing the feedback from the pre-test, a final prison work framework structure was delivered on April 2015.

Figure 1 – Prison work framework development (tasks and delivery dates)



2. Prison Work Framework Compilation (O2-A2)

The next step consisted in gathering the information from the prison services participating in the project, capturing a more comprehensive picture of their prison work models and practices. Hence, the Romanian, Turkish and Portuguese prison services were invited to engage their Department with responsibilities on prison work in filling out the Framework.

Some prison administrations took more time to respond to this task and therefore, IPS and BSAFE Lab assisted in collecting the missing information. The framework was also adapted to an online questionnaire to facilitate the collection of data from other countries, and passed on to EuroPris for dissemination.

As part of this activity, prison services were also asked to collect 4 successful prison work models (best practices) and 4 unsuccessful models using the validated framework to be inserted in the “Training Comparison Framework Catalogue” and used to train prison staff.

Afterwards IPS and UBI checked the collected information, analysed it and provided feedback to partners in a synthetic form. The final version of the Prison Work Framework is presented in the next chapter of this report (IV), whereas the results of the comparative analysis are conveyed in chapters V and VI.

3. Training Comparison Framework Catalogue (O1-A3)

Using the national and transnational information, partners will assess and rank prison work models (practices), select the most promising 5 to be inserted in a catalogue latter in the project. In a first stage the collected information will be used to feed the case studies that will be applied in the training course.

The comparison process will be implemented to extract key insights for future training curriculum and manual development. The document will have a first comparison and critical review chapter, highlighting promising practices, trends and components. A second chapter will expose comparison results synthesis and a third chapter with the best-identified prison work models and programs.

In the table below (table 2) you can find the synthesis for the work delivered so far, covering the number of case studies, and the challenges and best practices identified.

Table 2 - Summary of case studies (successful and needing improvement), challenges and best practices identified

	Case Studies		Challenges	Best Practices
	Success	In progress		
Portugal	4	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increase monitoring by specialized technicians; - Modernize industry technologies; - Improve production management; - Reinforce equipment and lodging conditions in outside workshops; - Develop a product brand and improve marketing techniques. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Manufacturing procedure endows the inmate with hard skills and rigorous techniques; - Inmates motivation throughout the participation in all production stages; - The transmission of traditional activities and the preservation of Portuguese heritage.
Romania	4	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organize business opportunities and working points identification; - Lack of product promotion; - Deliver of professional training courses prior to employment; - Lack of personal development processes at the workplace. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Occupational health & safety training; - Employment opportunities throughout partnerships; - Pull and push strategy in inmate's transition to workplace (inside job fairs but also participation in outside job fairs); - High inmates' workforce productivity; - Product quality standards.
Turkey	3	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Take into account the risk of certain activities to human health; - Control the conditions that enhance production (e.g., no soil conditions for mushroom production); - Experienced staff to deliver working skills to inmates; - Improve operations: time-consuming working processes that don't allow inmates to complete their work. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Marketing techniques to promote products; - Product quality control; - Development of prisoners' vocational skills; - Training in occupational safety, work discipline and work ethics; - High production capacity and variety of product types.

IV. Prison Work Framework

The **Prison Work Framework** tool was designed to provide a standard allowing to collect and compare qualitative information on prison work models, practices and programs in prison systems (national and international), with a special emphasis on transversal targeted skills: management, entrepreneurship, prison work and industries awareness, ecology, marketing, communication, ICT, teamwork and integrated reintegration.

In practice, the tool is almost exclusively composed by open-ended questions, on an exploratory research approach, whose primary objective is to establish a comparison in terms of five major dimensions:

- Concepts, scope and modalities
- Management & structure
- Market
- Marketing & communication
- Labour Reintegration

The data collected was analysed through content analysis techniques, by which the data was categorised and quantified, whenever possible and appropriate. The resulting categories are presented as follows (table 2) and will or can be used to create new tools using closed or semi-closed questionnaires.

Table 3 - List of dimensions, sub-dimensions and indicators assessed in the Prison Work Comparative Framework

Dimensions	Sub-dimensions	Indicators
Concepts, scope & modalities	Prison work concept	What, whom, where, how and what for
	Legal enforceability	Enforceability of prison work; Possibility of volunteering
	Specific legal provisions	Specific laws and regulations that regulate prison work
	Prison work or special categories of inmates	Existing law or rules for special categories like minors, woman, inmates with disabilities
	Competent authority	Structure that is responsible to establish and manage prison work, partnerships and other forms of collaboration included in prison work delivery process
Management & structure	Prison work structure	Existence of prison work promotion team; Identification of main business sectors; Existing sustainable business concepts; Existing internal training projects; Setting up production facilities; Identification of potential business partners; communication with chambers of commerce; connection of prison work with VET; Existing training for promotion team
	Organization of prison work	Place of workshops (inside/outside); security restrictions

	Occupational health and safety measures	Training in health and safety issues; specific regulations
	Type of management	Public, private or mixed
	Governing body	Responsible body for governing prison work
	Selection of workers	Selection process; responsible body for selection
	Criteria for selection	Criteria for selecting inmates for prison work (age, skills, etc.)
	Limits on access to workplace opportunities	Regulations, processes, legislation and procedures
	Type of employment relationship	Contract; protocol; no contractual relationship
	Employment rate	Annual percentage of inmates working in prison workshops or in the framework of contracts with external organisations
	Working hours	Legal length of prison work; rights to holidays and days off
	Average number of hours worked per week	Total hours worked per prisoners and divided by number of working weeks
	Basis for pay	Enforceability of payment; calculation process; application of bonuses
	Payment process	Process of pay availability for the inmates; Distribution of income; deductions for other costs
	Minimum and average salary	Compared with national standards
	Social and other benefits	Existing social, health, judicial or other benefits for prison workers
Market	Supply/demand orientation	Working activities are supply [you produce and push the market to buy] or demand [you answer a market request] oriented or both
	Type of production	Developed business, sectors and economic areas
	Means of production	Responsible body for providing materials and equipment
	Quality of the product	Quality standards applied
	Type of clients	Public, private or mixed
	Type of partnerships	Existing partnerships and type of agreement
	Production capacity	Maximum output; annual income from prison work
Marketing & Communication	Customer relations	Suitability of products to customer needs
	Promotion techniques	Promotion channels, means, targets
	Market research	Existing market research strategies or practices
	Social responsibility strategy	Number of external contractors engaged, number of promoting actions, channels used, measures and programs
	External partnerships	Partnerships with external contractors
	Commercialization of prison products	Legislation; Management process; Responsible person/body
Labour Reintegration	Prior training	Prior assessment of workers; prior training to prison work; on-the-job training
	Supervision of work	On-going monitoring of prison workers' development; existing parameters to assess the competence levels of inmates pre- and post-employment in prison workshops
	Inmate's transition to labour market	Services in place that prepare inmates' transition to labour market

Ex-inmates employed after release	Average for minimum of 3 years
Job fairs	Existing job fairs for inmates' transition to labour market
Communication with business	Strategies or plans for communication with business within the prison system

V. Country Profiles

This section presents the quantitative data of participating countries (Portugal, Romania, Turkey and Belgium), highlighting each country's prison services in terms of considered framework parameters. The information on prison population rates and number of prison establishments was compiled using the *World Prison Brief*, while the remaining data was collected through the tool here developed, the *Prison Work Comparison Framework*.

Table 4 – Prison Profiles of participating countries

		Portugal	Romania	Turkey	Belgium
Nº of prison establishments		49	45	355	33
Prison population¹	Total	14 269²	28 487³	165 033⁴	11 769⁵
	Rate	138	144	212	105
Prisoners working	Total	≈ 4994	≈ 7691	≈ 35 000	≈ 5296
	Rate	35%	27%	21%	45%
Prison work revenue (annual)		Not available	8.929.050,00€	266.237.970,00€	11.400.000,00€

From the above table it is possible to notice the major European trends regarding prison population rates. While in Western European countries (e.g., Belgium) the median rate is 98, for the countries spanning Europe and Asia (e.g., Turkey) it is 225 (Walmsley, 2013). Portugal and Romania come close together in their prison population rates.

¹ Source: **World Prison Brief**, available at <http://www.prisonstudies.org/>

² At 15.09.2015

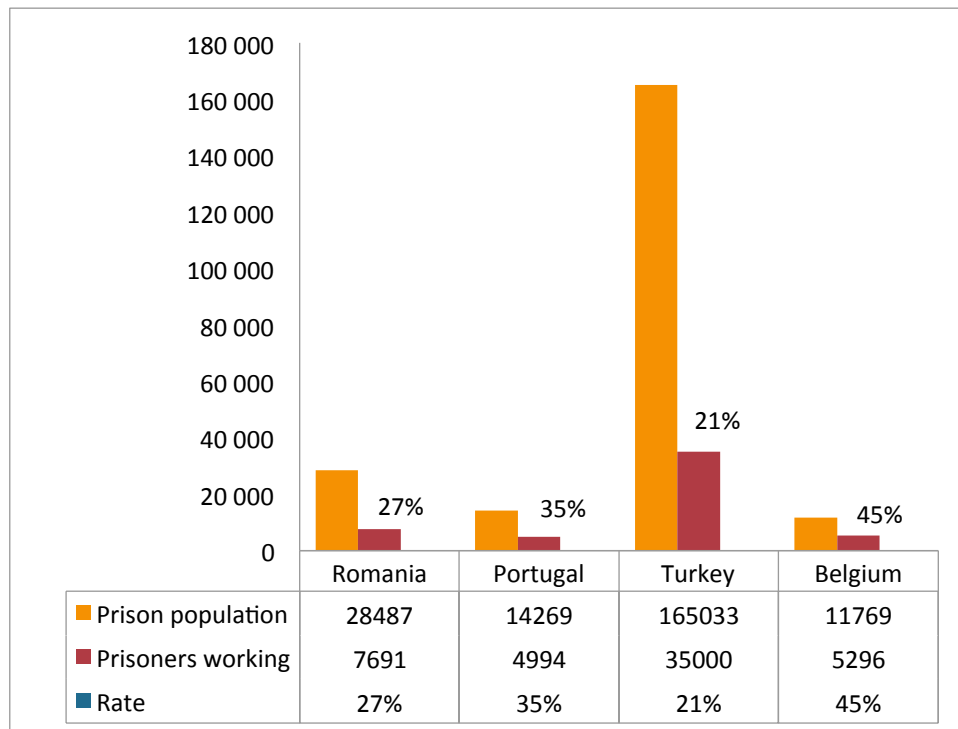
³ At 22.9.2015

⁴ At 02.03.2015

⁵ At 01.03.2014

The table also suggests that although Belgium and Portugal have a smaller prison population, they present **higher rates of prison work** (working inmates' percentage of the total population) than Romania and Turkey. The following figure illustrates these findings:

Figure 2 – Rate of prisoners working in participating countries



In the same fashion, the annual income from prison work activities varies considerably. However, it is important to note that prison administrations rarely quantify the expenditure with operating costs of prison work (including the purchase of raw materials and equipment, staff salaries and benefits). We can say that there is much to improve in terms of cost accounting in prison works. This lack of information is also related to the system complexity whereas costs come from different budget headlines and are hard to cross or measure. The gross profit is, therefore, unknown, except for the Turkish prison services that provided this data. According to this, the gross profits of prison work in Turkey for 2012 was **1.144.0916,00€**. Nonetheless, even in this case is hard to confirm that all costs, overheads or prison staff for instants, are allocated when calculating the gross profit.

The production capacity - or the maximum output that it can produce in a given period with the available resources, is also not measured in participating countries.

VI. Prison Work Framework Results

The current chapter presents the qualitative results of the Prison Work Framework in a comparative view, connecting the data collected from the Romanian, Portuguese, Turkish and Belgian prison services.

From such a perspective, it's clear where countries can learn from one another, and that the exchange of knowledge and practice can be a valuable asset within the EU, in parallel with the safeguarding of each country's cultural and historical approach to prison work models and practices.

1. Prison work concept, scope and modalities

In all countries prisoners can choose to work or not to work, this decision is voluntary. Of course all systems have a recruitment process with specific limitations and also an incentive system for those working.

Table 5 – Prison work conceptualization (what, whom, where, how, and what for), by country

<i>What is prison work?</i>	Romania	Portugal	Turkey	Belgium
(1) Household work	✓	✓	✓	✓
(2) Workshops for own production	✓	✓	✓	✓
(3) Workshops for external production	✓	✓	✓	✓
(4) Work in case of disaster	✓	✗	✗	✗
(5) Work in case of voluntary service	✓	✗	✗	✗
(6) Self-employment	✗	✓	✗	✗
<i>Whom?</i>				
All inmates	✓	✓	✓ ⁶	✓
<i>Where?</i>				
Inside prison	✓	✓	✓	✓
Outside prison	✓	✓	✓	✗
<i>How?</i>				
Paid	✓ ⁷	✓	✓	✓
Voluntary basis ⁸	✓	✗	✗	✗

⁶ Except for terror offenders.

⁷ Except for (1) Household work, (4) Work in case of disaster, and (5) Work in case of voluntary service.

⁸ Regarding volunteering work *per se*, while Romania foresees this as a type of prison work, most countries does not regard it as a prison working activity, although Portugal and Turkey allow for it to happen.

What for?				
Social Reintegration potential	✓	✓	✓	✓
Reducing conflicts / opportunities for other serious occurrences	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 5 summarizes the findings regarding the **‘prison work’ concept** in each partner country, a dimension which was evaluated bearing in mind 4 questions: **(i)** What is prison work?; **(ii)** to whom is it available?; **(iii)** where is it performed?; **(iv)** how is it conducted?; and **(v)** for what purposes?

As shown above, all prison services consider three types of activities as ‘prison work’: (1) household work; (2) workshops for own production; and (3) workshops for external production. In Romania, work in case of disaster (4) and work in case of voluntary service (5) are also considered prison work activities. In Portugal, inmates may also work on their own as part of their prison treatment.

In all countries every inmate has access to prison work, with the exception of terror offenders in Turkey. However, differences occur regarding *where* prison work takes place: in Belgium prison work is always conducted within prison walls, while in Romania, Turkey and Portugal labour activities are possible inside and outside prison facilities.

The table also demonstrates that prison work is of **voluntary basis** and **payment is obligatory** in most cases (household work, work in case of calamity or volunteering work are not paid in Romania). Differences also exist in how the payment is calculated and how it is made available for inmates – the complexity requires a more detailed analysis (see below, paragraph b – Management & Structure).

All prison services refer as primary objective of prison work the improvement of reintegration chances of inmates. Nonetheless, prison services don’t have information about the reintegration effectiveness level of their programs.

Another dimension under analysis concerned the existence of **specific prison work conditions for special categories of inmates** (like minors, women, and inmates with disabilities). In Romania women (especially pregnant women and those caring for small children) and juveniles may not perform work at night or in places at risk for their health or personal integrity, whereas in Belgium no special regulations apply. The Turkish prison service does not allow youngsters under 18 years old to engage in working activities in prison. In Portugal the special needs of juveniles (from 16 to 21 years old), women and the elderly are assessed and taken into consideration within the individual treatment plan, which may impact their working conditions.

2. Management and Structure

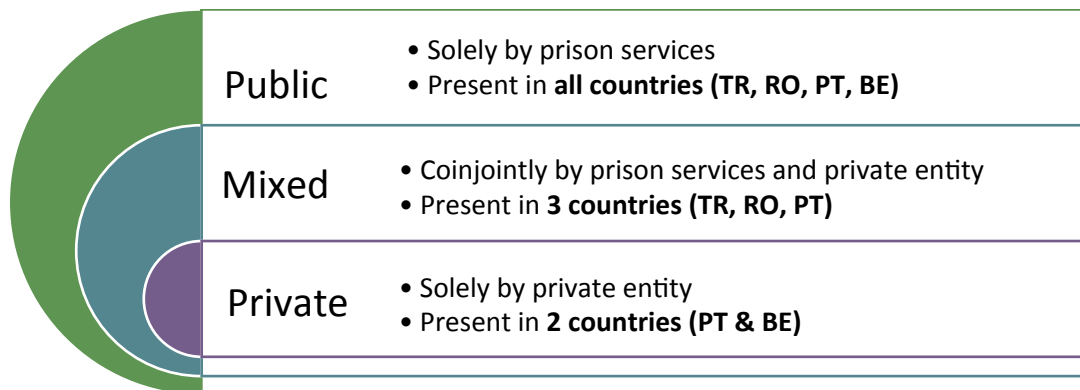
Under this dimension, prison services were invited to pinpoint the **main business sectors or production type** associated with prison work.

Table 6 – Main prison business sectors and activities

Primary Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agriculture • Animal husbandry
Secondary Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assembly and disassembly • Industrial applications • Construction • Textiles • Shoe making • Joinery • Metalwork • Surfboard construction • Handcraft
Tertiary Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Landscaping • Sanitation (cleaning) • Repair shops (coffee machines, vehicles, etc.) • Call centre services

As shown in table 6, most of prison work activities are included in the secondary sector, are labour-intensive and manual (except for call centre services). The most common businesses are agriculture and assembly and disassembly work, and the ones out-of-the-box are call-centre services in Belgium and surfboard production in Portugal.

Figure 3 - Types of prison work management

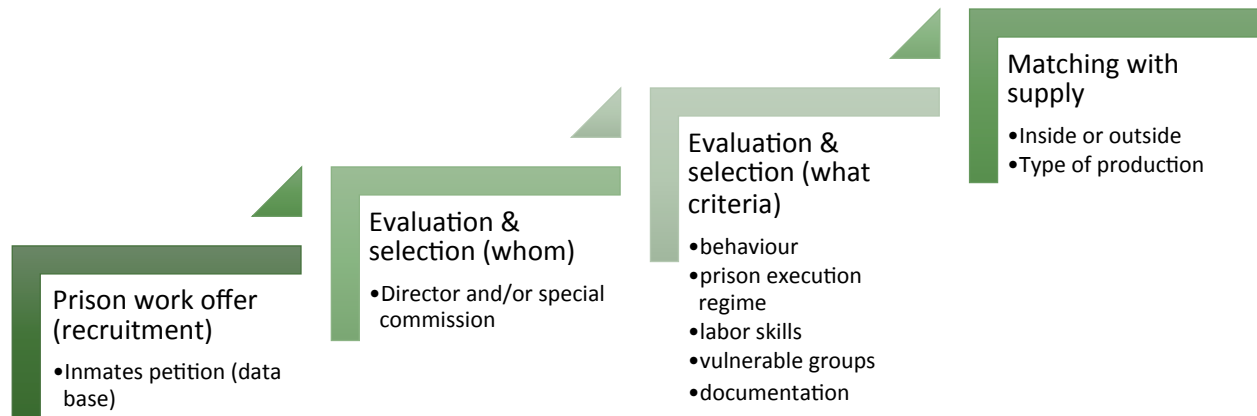


Regarding the **type of management of prison work** (see figure 3 above), all countries have public managed prison work, and the Portuguese and Belgian prison systems allow for the 3 types and management. Romania also presents mixed management models in this industry. Prison work in Turkey is exclusively managed by the prison administration.

An important aspect to consider at this point is that the Turkish prison administration carefully avoids rivalry with the private sector to prevent the diffusion of a negative image to the public, especially to medium-scale manufacturers (“especially a governmental organization working with offenders whom the society already has prejudice about”). Of course introducing unbalanced competition is a concern in all prison systems when promoting prison work.

Another sub-dimension under analysis was the **selection process of prison workers** (see figure 4). In all countries, the selection of prisoners for work generally starts with a petition by the inmate. The evaluation and selection is done by the Director and, in some countries, conjointly with a special Commission. The criteria for selection are usually based upon the **prison execution regime** (if more flexible, more work opportunities). In Romania and Portugal labour skills are also considered in the process, while in Belgium only for certain highly skilled jobs extra selection criteria are used. In Turkey, **vulnerable groups** – women (especially with children), juveniles and disabled inmates – **have priority** to be selected for prison work.

Figure 4 – The selection process of prison workers



In what concerns the **type of employment relationship**, most countries don't allow for the establishment of contracts between the inmates and employers (either public or private entities). In Romania, different types of agreement between the prison service and the “client” organisation are foreseen for the diverse forms of prison work. In Portugal it is always signed a protocol between the prison administration and the employer which needs to be validated by the Minister of Justice.

Prison services were also inquired about their country's **prison work rate**, that is, the percentage of the prison population who is currently engaged in prison labour activities.

Figure 5 - Percentage of the prison population who is working (*The Belgian figure includes vocational training since it is equivalent to prison labour)

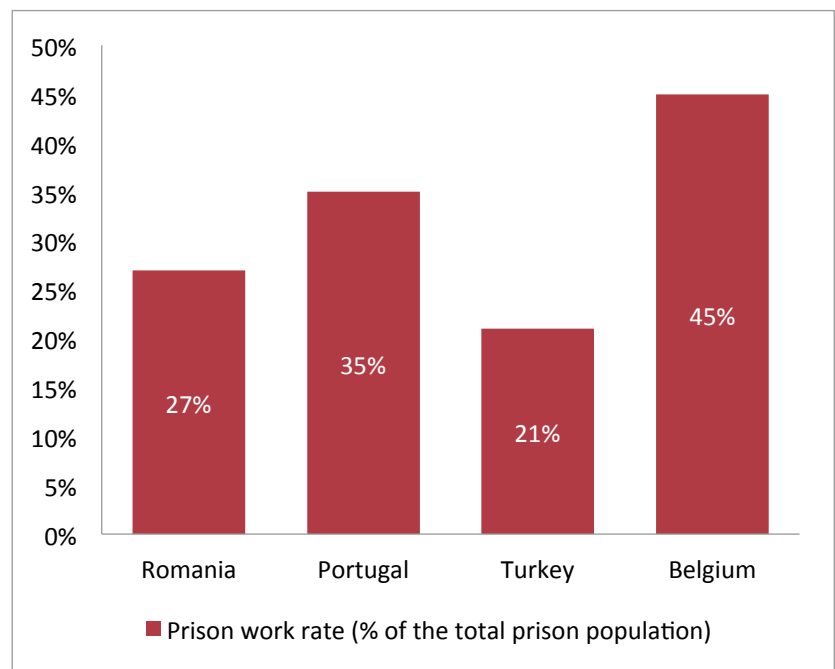
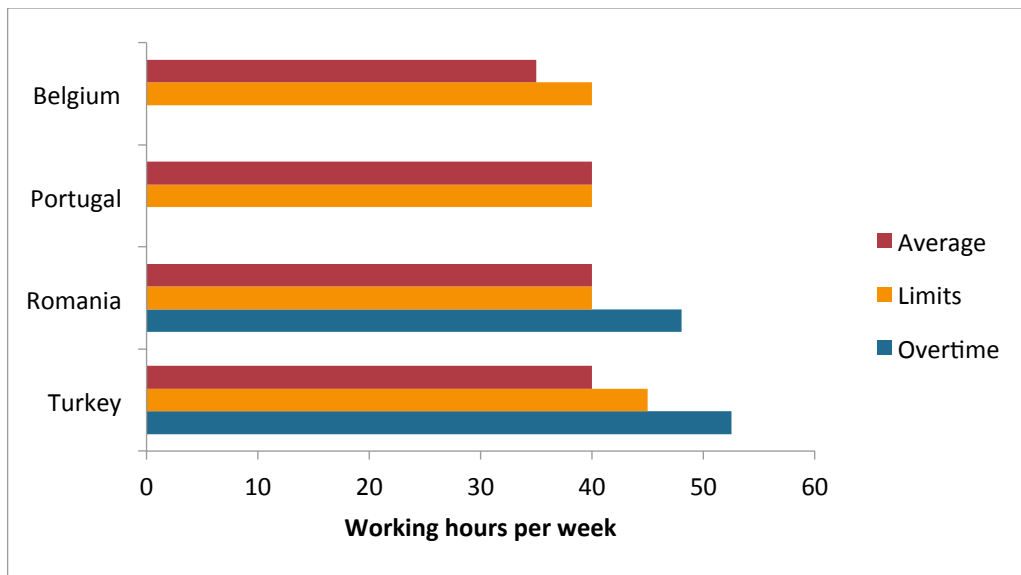


Figure 5 above shows that the prison work rate varies between 20 to 45% of the prison population, although the Belgian figure includes inmates engaged in Vocational Educational Training (VET) since it is equivalent to labour.

On the topic of **prison working hours**, prison administrations were asked about the average number of working hours per week, the legal length of prison work and workers' right to holidays and days off.

Figure 6 - Prison working hours per week – average number, legal number, and overtime number



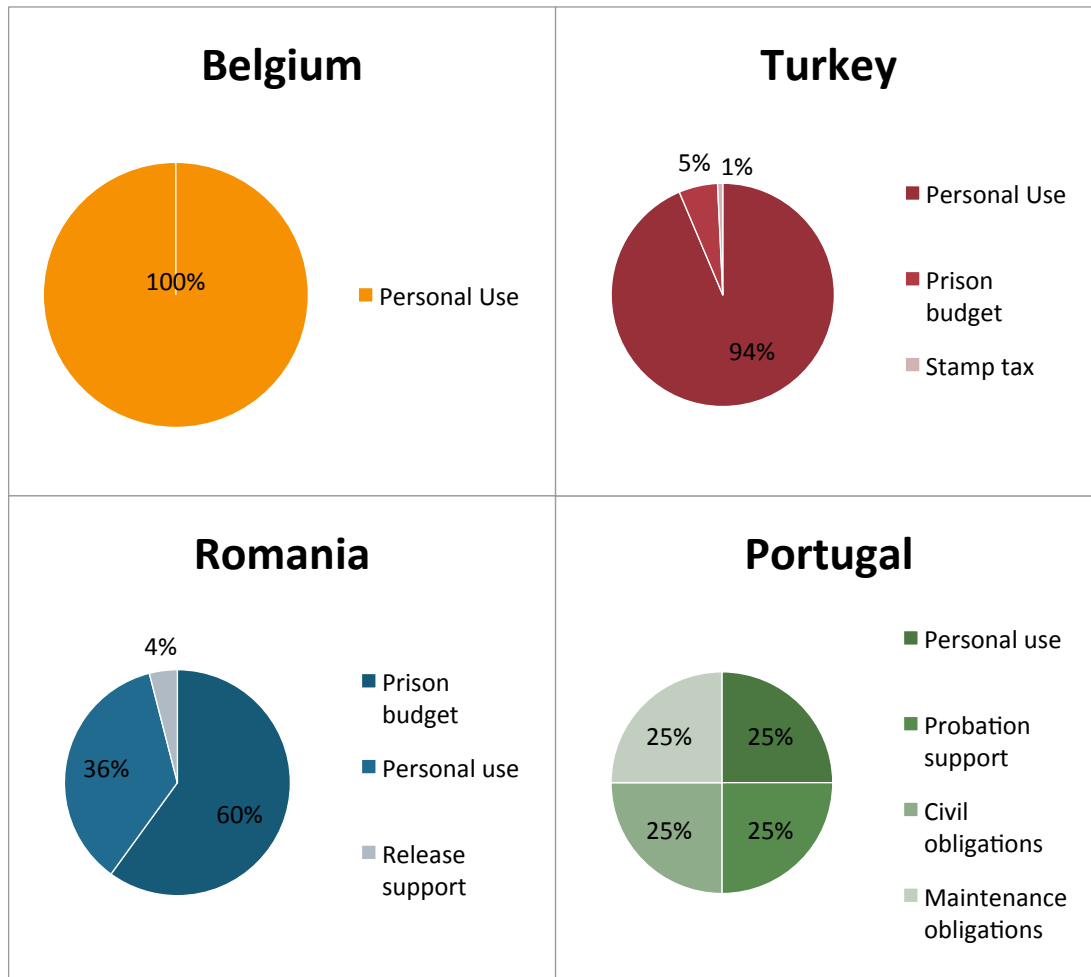
As illustrated in figure 6, in most countries, prison-working time cannot exceed 40 hours a week, aside from Turkey where the limit is 45h/week. If detainees wish to work overtime, in Romania they can work up to 48h a week, and in Turkey up to 52,5h/week [Fact: TR is the country where more employees work longer than 50h/week on average]. Also, like regular workers, detainees are entitled to official holidays and weekends.

Prison services were also questioned about the payment details for prison work activities, namely the basis for pay, payment process and minimum and average salary.

Regarding **basis for pay** (how the payment is calculated and if bonuses are applied), different rules apply for the various types of prison work. Hence, in prison workshops for internal production, income is **calculated hourly** in Belgium, Romania and Portugal based on minimum salary scale, while in Turkey it is **calculated daily** and based on a three-level scale (apprentices, experienced workers and masters). In the case of workshops for external

production, payment is based on a unit price in Belgium and Portugal, whereas in Romania it is established in the contract.

Figure 7 – Distribution of detainees’ income



Regarding extra benefits for detainees who work, in Romania for each 4 working days, the sentence is reduced by 1 day. In Turkey, inmates receive an annually calculated profit share besides the daily payment. Moreover, bonuses can be applied for detainees who work for external firms in Portugal.

Generally speaking, the **salary of detainees** cannot be lower than the national gross minimum wage, which varies considerably between countries. The average salary in Turkey is 88€ per month, while in Belgium is around 250€/month.

As for the **payment processing**, all countries report that the salary is paid on each detainee’s internal account, yet the way it is distributed varies from country to country (see figure 4).

On the one hand, in Belgium and Turkey the inmate has access to these funds and is free to choose how to spend it, with some exceptions – in Turkey, a part of the income is allocated for the prison administration’s own budget (specifically, rehabilitation and education activities) and a stamp tax is deducted (7.59 Turkish lira per thousand; around 0.8%) while in Belgium only in case of charges of deliberate destruction of Prison Property, a maximum of 40% of the salary may be deducted by the prison service until the debt is repaid.

On the other hand, in Portugal and Romania only a part of the income returns to the inmate for personal use (36% in Romania and 25% in Portugal), the rest is divided for release support given upon release (4% in Romania, 25% in Portugal), and for other costs. Specifically, in Portugal 25% of the income is allocated for the payment of civil obligations (such as fines, damages) and 25% for maintenance obligations (alimony, child support, etc.), whereas in Romania 60% of the income returns to the prison administration, being considered own income, which is collected, accounted and used according to the legal provisions regarding public finances. In Romania, the court can decide to use the prisoner’s personal or release support to pay his/her debts (the court can take 1/3 of their revenue).

Lastly, in what concerns **social and other benefits**, all inmates have access to health and other social benefits, as all citizens, and they have access to a social reintegration allowance. Additionally, in Turkey and Romania they have access to an insurance against occupational diseases / work accidents. In Romania inmates may choose to pay for a retirement fund (public or private).

3. Market

Under the “market” dimension, prisons were asked about their orientation towards the market, type and means of production, quality standards, type of client, partnerships in place, and production capacity.

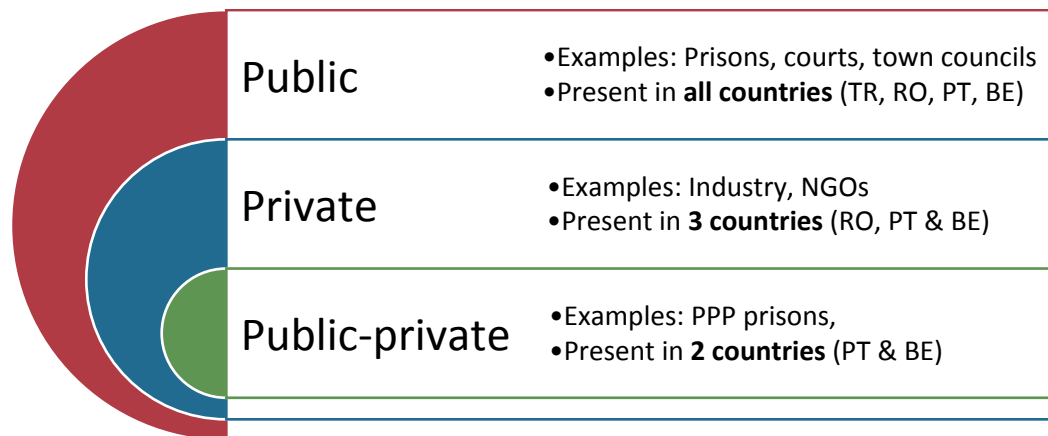
Regarding **market orientation**, in Romania and Turkey working activities are demand-orientated since they answer a market request, while in Portugal and Belgium prison work activities can also be supply-oriented, pushing the market to buy.

The analysis also shows that countries present parity points in what concerns **type of production**: all refer agriculture, metal works and other labour-intensive type of production. Furthermore, all countries indicate that a **partnership** between prisons and clients are not applied and, in most cases, no official **quality standard** is applied to prison work products – which the exception of Portugal where some products are certified (wines and other agricultural products).

The **means of production** differ according to the type of agreement with the client:

1. Prison administration has the materials and machinery necessary for the production;
2. Private company pays and installs the machinery and materials necessary for its production;
3. A combination of both.

Figure 8 – Type of prison work clients



According to the picture above (figure 8), the most common **type of client** are public entities (including prisons, courts, town councils, hospitals, etc.). In Romania, Portugal and Belgium there is also private clients, and in Portugal and Belgium there are some public-private clients.

Regarding **production capacity**, that is, the maximum output that it can produce in a given period with the available resources, statistical information was not available in participating countries. On the other hand, the following information was disclosed about **prison work revenue**:

- Romania: 8.929.050€ (2014)
- Belgium: 11.400.000€ (2014)
- Turkey: 266.237.970€ (2012)

4. Marketing and communication

Under this dimension, prison's customer relations, promotion techniques, social responsibility strategy, and commercialization of prison products were analysed.

The findings suggest points of difference at the **customer relations'** level, where Belgium is the only country that presents a commercial staff with sales-oriented training that is dedicated to the promotion of prison work products and for customer relations.

Regarding **promotion techniques**, most countries resort to product exhibitions, direct sales, brochures, and participation at fairs. The Portuguese and Belgian prison services also use websites for product promotion.

Notably, all prison services refer the absence of **market research** or market prospecting.

Furthermore, prison systems constantly promote the **social responsibility framework** as an argument for employing inmates during detention – it is stated in the prison mission statement.

5. Labour Reintegration

Lastly, in what concerns “Labour Reintegration”, the analysis focused on the existence of prior training/ knowledge relevant for that specific industry, the monitoring of prison work, the process of inmates’ transition to labour market, the participation/organization of job fairs and the communication with business (see table below).

Table 7 – Labour Reintegration

<i>Prison services offer:</i>	Romania	Portugal	Turkey	Belgium
• Specific training (to prison work) prior to prison work placement	x	✓	✓	x
• On-the-job training	✓	✓	✓	✓
• Monitoring of development	x	x	x	✓ ⁹
• Counselling towards employment	x	✓	✓	✓
• Evaluation of labour reintegration	x	x	x	x
• Organization of job fair	✓ ¹⁰	x	x	x
• Participation at external job fairs	✓	x	x	x
• Marketing plan to promote communication with business	x	x	x	✓

⁹ Belgian prison services have a pilot running

¹⁰ Romanian prison service organizes a job fair since 2011 and 3 editions per year.

Regarding **prior training**, in Romania no training courses are provided prior or during prison work activities, whereas in Portugal, Turkey and Belgium on-the-job training is provided. In Turkey, inmates are first placed in the training band and then transferred to the production band/chain. The Portuguese prison system provides specialized and certified training for some prison work activities.

As for the **supervision of prison work development**, no specific monitoring processes for individual development are implemented at the workplace; the Turkish and Portuguese prison services have workshop supervisors that monitor the development of inmates; and in Belgium two pilot-projects are currently in place.

Moreover, the findings suggest that while in Romania there are some training sessions specifically addressing **inmates' transition into labour market** (integrated in two pre-release programs), in Portugal, Turkey and Belgium inmates are provided educational and psychological support alongside counselling toward employment. In specific, the Belgian prison services provide inmates the opportunity to consult with agents of the employment agency prior to their release. Aptitudes, skills and competencies are measured and employment advice is given at this level.

Importantly, all prison services lack the information about the **average number of inmates who get employed after release**. The evaluation of labour reintegration is, therefore, inexistent.

Moreover, no **job-fairs** are organized within the Prison Services. The only special job fair organized in prisons takes place in Romania, since 2011.

Lastly, most countries don't have a marketing plan or strategy to promote the **communication with business**, apart from the Belgian prison work management services that have a marketing plan to promote prison work to the outside world.

VII. Conclusions

This report has described findings across a wide range of topics related to prison work and industries based on the development and piloting of the *Prison Work Framework*, a research tool of data collection and comparison. The analysis has allowed us to provide an overall picture of the models of prison work currently in implementation in the countries represented in the project (Romania, Portugal, Turkey and Belgium).

Here we discuss some of the overarching **themes** that have emerged, crossing them with the literature review and the relevant international and regional European human rights standards (presented in Chapter II).

1- Prison work conditions

<i>International standards</i>	<p>The ICCPR prohibits compulsory or forced labour [art. 8.3., (a)]. However, work done by prisoners does not automatically fall into that category [art. 8.3., (b) & (c)].</p> <p>According to the international recommendations, sentenced prisoners can be obliged to work (as in many prison regulations across the EU) provided certain conditions are created, such as that the work should be meaningful and remunerated (BPTP, principle 8).</p>
<i>Findings</i>	<p>In all countries under analysis, inmates are not required to perform compulsory labour activities, which is in line with subparagraph (a) of article 8.3 of the ICCPR.</p> <p>Prison work is also seen as a meaningful activity that has different positive purposes besides keeping inmates occupied. Furthermore, payment is obligatory for most types of prison work. Other incentives for work participation are also available: in Romania, for each 4 working days, the sentence is reduced by 1 day. In Turkey, inmates receive an annually calculated profit share besides the daily payment. Moreover, bonuses can be applied for detainees who work for external firms in Portugal.</p>
<i>Discussion</i>	<p>Research shows that work in prison goes far beyond an opportunity to receive income: it is a main instance of socialisation for inmates, helping them develop a sense of ownership (Guilbaud, 2008). This issue should be further analysed to better capture the meaning of prison work.</p>

Evidence also shows that remuneration for participation in work can act as an incentive to participation and falls within the principle of normalisation, preparing inmates for a normal life in the community (DG for Education and Culture, 2011).

2- Distribution of income

<i>International standards</i>	Regarding distribution of income, international standards endorse the right of prisoners to spend at least a part of their earnings on approved articles for their own use and to send a part of their earnings to their family (SMRTP: 76.2 & EPR: 26.11). Moreover, prison systems are advised to create a saving fund to be handed over to the inmate upon release (SMRTP: 76.3 & EPR: 26.12).
<i>Findings</i>	Countries under analysis are in compliance with these recommendations, although differences exist in the income distribution process. Belgium is the only country where 100% of the income returns directly to the prisoner. In Turkey, 5% of the income is allocated for the prison administration's own budget, while in Romania this portion rise to 60%. Only Portugal and Romania consider the saving fund for release support.
<i>Discussion</i>	Further research should be conducted on this topic to assess if the income distribution process is linked with the prisoners' reintegration potential. Especially important is the development of an inmate's saving fund for after release, since only half of the countries are following this recommendation.

3- Working rights and safeguards

<i>International standards</i>	<p>The international standards highlight that the conditions in which prisoners work should be subject to the same laws on health, safety, industrial injury and occupational disease as is work among the general public (EPR: 26.13; EPR: 26:14; SMRTP: 74).</p> <p>Another important safeguard addressed by the international instruments is the length of time, which prisoners have to spend in working activities. The hours should be fixed by law taking into account local rules and should leave time for prisoners to be involved in other activities (SMRTP: 75; EPR: 26.15; EPR: 26.16)</p>
<i>Findings</i>	In all countries under analysis, inmates have access to health benefits as the

general public. In specific, in Turkey and Romania they have access to an insurance against occupational diseases / work accidents. Regarding social benefits, prisoners have the same rights as the general public and have access to a social reintegration allowance. In Romania inmates may choose to pay for a retirement fund (public or private).

Specific safeguards apply for special categories of inmates. For example, in Romania women (especially pregnant women and those caring for small children) and juveniles may not perform work at night or in places at risk for their health or personal integrity. The Turkish prison service does not allow youngsters under 18 years old to engage in working activities in prison. As for the Portuguese prison service, the special needs of juveniles (from 16 to 21 years old), women and the elderly are assessed and taken into consideration within the individual treatment plan, which may impact their working conditions.

Moreover, prison-working time has legal defined boundaries, and also detainees are entitled to official holidays and weekends. Romanian and Turkish prison services allow prisoners to work overtime – although this is also carefully regulated.

Discussion

The research shows a need to study deeper working rights and safeguards reality and understand if there are relevant gaps between in these matters. Some collected data suggests difficult trade-offs posed to prison management, especially those with less resources to invest. A very common trade-off is linked to the fact that work keeps inmates active and reduces aggressiveness, so Prison Management is “pressure” to have the highest number of inmates working as possible. Of course this can be a challenge if you have out-dated workshops and no resources to invest.

Another issue would be to understand how public agencies, responsible to audit working rights and safeguards, understand prison work. This was not studied but could a led to future confirmation on this international standards critical review.

Although the enormous challenge to meet “general public” standards, prison services ensure prisoners get the same training in workplace hygiene and safety rules and to reach the minimum working conditions. And beyond that all countries showed a huge concern on ensuring “public standards” are meet pointing out public-private partnership as a opportunity to explore further.

4 - The usefulness of prison work or the “employability” issue...

<i>International standards</i>	<p>All international recommendations highlight the importance of prison work for helping inmates to acquire skills, which will be useful to them after they are released. As the EPR state, “as far as possible, the work provided shall be such as will maintain or increase prisoners’ ability to earn a living after release” (26.3).</p> <p>According to the international instruments, prisoners’ working activities shall facilitate their integration into the country’s labour market and permit them to contribute to their own financial support (BPTP, principle 8). This means prison work should be linked to training aimed at providing prisoners with work skills which will enable them to gain qualifications to find employment once they are release. As such, the international standards recommend the coupling of work with vocational training, especially for young inmates (EPR: 26.5).</p>
<i>Findings</i>	<p>Compliance with international standards is difficult to measure. Although every prison service refers as primary purpose of prison work the improvement of inmates’ reintegration chances, no information is available on the average number of inmates who find employment after release.</p> <p>Furthermore, based on the Prison Work Framework results it is clear that not all prison services provide prior or on-the-job training. In Romania no training courses are provided prior or during prison work activities, whereas in Portugal, Turkey and Belgium on-the-job training is provided. The Portuguese prison system provides specialized and certified training for some prison work activities.</p>
<i>Discussion</i>	<p>Questions can be raised about whether prison work provides useful skills to inmates. To begin with, there is no evaluation of the training provided and no specific monitoring processes for individual development at the workplace, except for Belgian prison services that have two pilot-projects currently in place. Secondly, our analysis shows that most of prison work activities are included in the secondary sector, and are labour-intensive and manual. According to the literature, work undertaken in prisons is generally low skilled and is mostly restricted to simple, manual activities, therefore does not contribute significantly to the successful reintegration of prisoners (McEvoy,</p>

2008; DG for Education and Culture, 2011). Additionally, to enhance employability it is crucial to be aware of the type of employment opportunities, which are available in the local community when designing training programmes (Coyle, 2009). Besides Belgium with a specific department prepared to engage with employers association no other country is very development on this “intermediation” pointing the need to further develop this topic under prison work projects.

Regarding other incentives to promote employability of prisoners, the analysis highlights that no job-fairs are organized within the prison services. The only special job fair organized in prisons takes place in Romania, since 2011. Moreover, the findings suggest that in Romania there are some training sessions specially addressing inmates’ transition into labour market, while in Portugal, Turkey and Belgium inmates are provided educational and psychological support alongside counselling toward employment. An important plus is that the Belgian prison services provide inmates the opportunity to consult with agents of the employment agency prior to their release.

5 - Prison industries (under)development or prison work shortage

<i>International standards</i>	European Prison Rules assert that: “Prison authorities shall strive to provide sufficient work of a useful nature.” (26.2)
<i>Findings</i>	An important issue regarding our findings is the shortage of vacancies to cover the demand of inmates who are ready and able to work. Due to the growth of the prison population and the economic crisis prison work opportunities have significantly decreased (Roca & Aliaga, 2007). As a consequence, most prison services have a system of prioritisation for job allocation based on specific criteria, which is also the case in our research. For example, in Turkey vulnerable groups – women (especially with children), juveniles and disabled inmates – have priority to be selected for prison work.
<i>Discussion</i>	There are a variety of models for dealing with the problem of prison work shortage. In recent years there has been a growing tendency to involve private and industrial companies in providing work for prisoners (Coyle, 2009). Based on our results, the most common type of client are still public entities, although in Romania, Portugal and Belgium there are also private clients and in Belgium

and Portugal some public-private clients.

It's important to note the prison work rate ranging from 21% to 45%, meaning at least 1 in 5 inmates are engaged in prison labour activities. Of course a more careful analysis must be undertaken since these figures doesn't consider difference in prison work concepts, the amount of inmates in different regimes, prison facilities, human resources, inmates engagement in other activities, such as training and education and differences in prison population only to name some. Nonetheless these figures show the importance given by prison systems to prison work and inmates integration in labour activities.

However, most countries don't have a marketing plan or strategy to promote the communication with business, apart from the Belgian prison work management services that have a marketing plan to promote prison work to the outside world. Our findings also suggest that introducing unbalanced competition is a concern in all prison systems when promoting prison work.

Self-employment is one-person business or small cooperatives can also be considered a viable option for some prisoners. Prisoners can use and develop the skills they already have to make objects, which can be sold on the open market (Coyle, 2009). In this study, Portugal is the only country where inmates may also work on their own as part of their prison treatment.

Moreover, the analysis shows different prison approaches to the trade market: while in Romania and Turkey working activities are pulled by demand, in Portugal and Belgium prison work can also push the market to buy. Importantly, the prison services here represented do not perform market research, market prospecting or event approach marketing in a systemic way.

Another relevant issue to note is that prison administrations rarely quantify expenditure with operation costs of prison labour, making it an impossible task to calculate the profit rate of those activities. The exception is the Turkish prison service that provided the gross profit of prison work.

The use of the developed prison work comparison framework allowed to:

- Easily compare key prison dimensions, components and indicators
- Easily review against national and international standards the level of compliance and implementation with key recommendations
- Identify the strengths of prison work in the analysed countries
- Identify key underdeveloped prison work areas.

With a high degree of certain we can conclude that all analysed countries perceived prison work as an opportunity both to system, inmates and society, presenting already some sophistication in areas such: **operations** (inmate placement), **production** (aware of internal opportunities) and **working rights and safeguards** (approach to outside standards).

With the same level of certain we can also conclude that analysed prison systems have different **development levels**, even though lower than those mentioned in previous paragraph, in terms of **prison work conditions** (facilities and investment capacity), internal **marketing competencies** (scouting, planning, business orientation, management, networking, branding, etc...) and **employment strategies** (link between prison work and labour market needs).

Finally we must emphasise that no prison service showed capacity to measure prison work usefulness in terms of its impact in employability after release and contribution to recidivism reduction.

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