The prevalence and impact of secondary victimisation on the victims of Domestic Violence perpetrated by the South African Police Services in Durban, South Africa.

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Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the
Master of Social Science (Criminology)

By
Bukiwe Nqopiso.

Supervisor: Prof Shanta Balgobind Singh.
December 2017.
Preface and Declaration

I, Miss Bukiwe Nqopiso, declare as follows:

1. That the work described in this thesis has not been submitted to UKZN or other tertiary institution for purposes of obtaining an academic qualification, whether by myself or any other party.

2. That my contribution to the project was as follows:

All the work contained in this thesis titled “The prevalence and impact of secondary victimisation on the victims of Domestic Violence perpetrated by the South African Police Services. A quantitative research study in Durban, South Africa.” is my original work. All sources used or quoted in the study have been indicated and acknowledged by way of complete references.

3. That the contributions of others to the project were as follows:

The project was supervised by Prof Shanta Singh. Mr Prasidh Ramson, a friend and mentor, offered guidance on the structure scientific writing of the thesis.

4. Signed ______________________ Date________________
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to all the victims of domestic violence who did not get justice because the system failed them. To all the women who’d rather endure domestic violence in silence rather than to be further victimized when seeking help. Hopefully studies such as this one will give you back your right to access justice without fear of being further victimized. I am also dedicating the completion of this work, and subsequently obtaining the Masters’ degree to my two nieces Linomtha Nqopiso and Sive Dwenga, as well as my nephew Shaun Nqopiso; I hope you’re inspired my darling babies, to know that you can achieve whatsoever you set your minds to do. I love you so much!
Abstract.

In the present day South Africa, one of the country’s challenges is that of rising crime levels. Domestic violence is among the predominant crimes facing the country, however, many incidences of domestic violence go unreported to the police, or withdrawn before trial and are therefore uncorrected. Although substantial research conducted attributes non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence and/or withdrawal of charges of domestic violence to factors such as the victim’s dependency on the perpetrator for financial support, insurance and shelter and avoidance of shame and judgement by the society, there is some research that indicates that victims of domestic violence experience secondary victimization when seeking help from the police. The current research aimed to determine prevalence of secondary victimization by the police when victims of domestic violence seek help in Durban, South Africa. The study also aimed to quantify the impact of the treatment victims of domestic violence receive from the Police system to the withdrawal of charges and to non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence in the future. In the quantitative study, the researcher used a questionnaire with a combination of closed and open ended questions to investigate the experiences that victims of domestic violence at Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre had when they reported domestic violence to the police. The study found that secondary victimization of domestic violence on victims of domestic violence which is perpetrated by the police when victims seek help exist. The study further found that experiences with the police influence the victims of domestic violence’s attitudes towards future help seeking.

Although the police are not the cause and/or perpetrators of domestic violence, their demeanors when dealing with, and treatment of victims of domestic violence play a very important role in encouraging confidence in the country’s justice system, which will subsequently see more victims of domestic violence coming forward to seek help, thereby working towards eradicating the problem of domestic violence. When victims have positive experiences with the police, and the entire justice system, it increases the likelihood of seeking help from the system the next time they need it. Monitoring of the measures that ensure that victims of domestic violence are treated fairly by the police need to be strengthened in South Africa to eradicate secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the justice system.
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CHAPTER ONE
1. Research Orientation

1.1. Introduction

Violence against women has been described as the most reprehensible and prevalent human rights violation (Moreno & Watts, 2011). In South Africa, the rate of homicide of women by intimate partners is six times the global average (Seedat, Van Niekerk, Jewkes, Suffla & Ratele 2009:1011). Forty four percent of men admit to physical violence against their partners, and five women die each week because of intimate-partner violence (16 days of activism against gender violence campaign, 2006). In 2003, thirty two percent of the women surveyed reported that they had experienced physical abuse in their lives (Jewkes, Levin, & Penn- Kekana 2003:129). Of the women who were in violent relationships, 45.9 percent of them reported injury. In the same study it was found that typically the women who do witness and feel the violence come from a rural childhood compared to those raised in an urban area. Human rights organizations worldwide have called for governments to prioritize the fight against domestic violence as a human rights issue.

The problem of domestic violence still remains an under researched issue in South Africa, despite the seriousness of this crime. Incidences of intimate partner violence, and/ or domestic violence continue to be on the rise, yet little research is done on to understand the continuing rise of this heinous crime; especially from a criminal justice perspective. According to Statistics South Africa (2016), one in five women experiences physical violence from a person known to the victim. These alarming, and continually increasing statistics, put South Africa at the top spot for women experiences of domestic violence and it appears that this problem is snowballing. In 2017 alone, the South African community saw terrifying incidences of violence against women perpetrated by men they are in a relationships with. Most of these incidences, publicized by and mostly on social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter, resulted in deaths of the women at the hands of their partners (Ngwako 2017; Manda 2017 and Mapumulo 2017). Reports emerged after the deaths of these women that they were constantly being victimized by their partners but had not reported incidences of victimization to the police but spoke to friends and relatives instead.
Despite the rise in the incidence of domestic violence and intimate partner violence, very few cases reach the sentencing stage of justice. As the crime rate has risen over the past twenty years; the conviction rate has increasingly declined (SAPS Annual reports, 1996-2015). This implies that in all those incidences that do not go through to the sentencing stage, justice in those matters is not served. According to Mistry (1997) the implications of a lack of justice may include the following:

- The victim is not vindicated
- The perpetrator does not receive legal or therapeutic intervention.
- The victim and community continue to be at risk of violation from the uncorrected/unrehabilitated offender.

Several researchers have attributed the main cause of the decline in the conviction rates to the withdrawal of charges by the victim (Aldridge 2013; Patterson 2011; Calton & Cattaneo, 2014). While some studies have found the reasons for withdrawal of charges by victims to be associated with their financial dependency on the perpetrator (Sleath & Smith 2017; Aizer 2010; Gupta, Falb, Lehmann, Kpebo, Xuan, Hossain, Zimmerman, Watts, & Annan 2013), some research has found that legal authorities and the criminal justice system are often responsible for secondary victimization. This refers to the re-traumatization of the victim by society in response to their primary victimization (Laxminarayan 2012) which could be another reason for the withdrawal of charges by victims of domestic violence and not reporting incidences. A growing number of victims of intimate partner violence who post on Facebook and twitter about the incidences of abuse show that these women’s first point of help seeking is not the police, but rather the community. In 2017, many of the cases of intimate partner violence posted on social media in South Africa were repeat offences and had not been reported to the police before resulting into deaths of the victims (Ngwako 2017; Manda 2017 and Mapumulo 2017). This indicates a perception about the negative regard the victims may have towards the police as a protective structure to seek help. This study aims to determine the link between the secondary victimization on domestic violence victims when they seek help from the police and withdrawing of charges and their future help-seeking behaviors.

1.2. Importance of the study

Despite advances in knowledge and understanding about the impacts of domestic violence on women's lives, global research on violence against women shows there is a need for research
that not only places women centre stage in research praxis, but also that involves them more collaboratively in genuine dialogue about their experiences, including their agentic stances. Intimate partner violence has far reaching consequences for the victims this crime Aldridge 2013; Jewkes, Levin & Penn- Kekana 2003; Garcia- Moreno & Watts 2011). Domestic violence, particularly in the form of intimate partner violence, in South Africa is a matter of social, health and economic concern. Violence against women is an explicit manifestation of gender inequality, and is increasingly being recognized as an important risk factor for a range of poor health and economic development outcomes (Kim, Watts, Hargreaves, Ndlovu, Phetla, Morisson, Buzsa, Porter, & Pronyk 2007: 1794). For the purposes of this study, the following subsections will look at the economic, health and social impact imposed by domestic violence.

1.2.1. Economic Importance

Beyond the pain and loss suffered by crime victims, crime also has less direct costs. The social costs of domestic violence are intense but difficult to measure. Violence against women is likely to limit poverty reduction efforts by reducing women's participation in productive employment (Garcia- Moreno & Watts 2011). Domestic violence imposes a financial liability not only for the victim, but to the state as well. The threat of crime diverts resources to protection efforts, exacts health costs through increased stress, and generally creates an environment of fear. According to Garcia- Moreno and Watts (2011) general analysis of crime patterns depicts a discernible correlation between crime and challenging socio-economic conditions. These researchers note that of more serious concern in the policing environment is the observed violent social behavior which continues to prevail in the majority of serious crime categories. This behavior persists even after treatment is administered by law enforcement agencies and requires a collective effort from all affected stakeholders, including communities to eradicate.

1.2.2. Health Impact

Various studies have shown that there is a correlation between domestic violence and an array of mental health problems, including depression, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), suicidal ideation, substance misuse, functional symptoms, and the exacerbation of psychotic symptoms (Aldridge 2013; Jewkes, Levin & Penn- Kekana 2003; Trevillion, Oram, & Howard, 2013). Victims of domestic violence experience mental and emotional stress which
inhibits them from their normal functioning. When untreated, these conditions have negative lifelong impact on the victims, and possibly, their families. Considering that the majority of victims of domestic violence come from a low socio-economic background, victims are often unable to seek professional help at their own financial expense (Jewkes, Levin, & Penn-Kekana 2002). It then becomes the responsibility of South African cash-strapped government to provide assistance to the victims of domestic violence (KPMG Human and Social Services, 2014). This finding makes it important to continually study factors that perpetrate incidences of domestic violence, with the aim to manage and ultimately alleviate this crime from the society.

1.2.3. Social Impact

Violence against women undermines efforts to improve women’s access to education, with violence and the fear of violence contributing to lower school enrolment for girls. Domestic violence has also been shown to affect the welfare and education of children in the family, where victims of domestic violence have had to withdraw themselves, and in some cases their children as well, from interacting with society because of shame, humiliation and judgement (Aldridge 2013: 4). The impact of domestic violence against women reveals itself in different social aspects. Among these is the stigma associated with being humiliated and violated by person they trusted and chose to share their lives with. Victims feel a sense of embarrassment, emanating from self-blame for victimization, which in many circumstances results in withdrawal from social activities and withdrawal from social participation (Carvalho, Lewis, Derlega, Winstead, & Viggiano 2011: 508).

Civic attitudes that place the responsibility of violence on the victims’ shoulders often cover a lack of sympathy or coldness towards victims which creates a psychological distance between victims and the persons and institutions tasked to assist the victim; a phenomenon known as victim blaming (Hayes, Lorenz & Bell 2013: 205). When the cause of the violence is attributed to the victims, incidents are more likely to be trivialized and viewed as understandable or deserved, and hence as less unjust and more admissible. Such attitudes serve to excuse and partly pardon the offenders of violence, adding to the notion in the public’s mind that sometimes women are justifiably the victims of domestic violence (Gracia 2014: 380).
Given these factors, it is thus important to continue studying factors that contribute and perpetrate domestic violence, with the intention to absolve the society of the problem of domestic violence. The more information available on the factors that contribute to, and create an environment for continuing domestic violence, the better it can be tackled and eliminated. This study will contribute to the knowledge of the factors that contribute and perpetrate domestic violence.

Studies into domestic violence can never be overvalued. Public perceptions and attitudes form the social climate in which domestic violence takes place and either perpetuate or prevent its occurrence (Gracia 2014: 380). A substantial reduction of the problem cannot be accomplished without addressing societal attitudes that lead to tolerance or justification of violence against women at the hands of an intimate partner. Currently there is very little research done on the prevalence and extent of secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police in South Africa. This is against a backdrop of an increase of incidences on domestic violence towards women by their intimate partner and significantly low statistics on the prosecution of these cases (SAPS, 2014/2015).

This study will look to contribute to the knowledge on prevalence, and subsequent impact on future help seeking, of secondary victimization experienced by victims of domestic violence when interacting with police officials. The study will further make the general public aware about the nature and extent of secondary victimization on victims of domestic violence perpetrated by the police in the South African context. The findings from this study may be of help in dealing with victims of domestic violence and understanding effective ways of serving justice to victims of intimate partner violence.

1.3. Rationale of the study

South Africa is a country faced with high levels of crime, and among the leading crime statistics in the country is domestic violence. According to Mistry (1997), as the crime rate has gone up, the conviction rate has steadily declined. Statistics for the last few years indicate that the number of convictions have reached their lowest point in over forty years (SAPS Annual Report, 2013/ 2014). Recent annual reports of the South African Police services (2011-2015) show that large number of cases of domestic violence that get reported to the police do not reach prosecution either due to withdrawal of charges or lack of evidence. This
scenario presents a gap in the country’s corrections and justice for victims of domestic violence. According to Mistry (1997), victims of past or current criminal activity if untreated, frequently become perpetrators of either retributive violence or of violence displaced within the social or domestic arena. This scenario is one of the consequences that the society face when incidences of victimization are left uncorrected. It is the responsibility of the state to ensure that crimes are corrected in order to prevent more crimes being committed through retributive violence.

One of the reasons found to be a contributing factor for withdrawal of charges by victims of violence can be attributed in part to insensitive treatment of victims by the criminal justice system, specifically the Police (Vetten 2005: 7). This research study aims to quantify the prevalence and impact of secondary victimization experienced by the victims of domestic violence when reporting incidences of violation to the Police.

1.4. **Research aims and objectives**

In South Africa, there is an appalling number of incidences of domestic violence that are not reported to the police and/ or get withdrawn before trial (SAPS Annual Report 2013/ 14). This study aims to determine the existence of the link between withdrawal of charges by victims of domestic violence and experiences of secondary victimization in the criminal justice system. This study has the following objectives:

The primary objective of this study is to provide a statistical description of victims of domestic violence that have experience secondary victimization by the police in Durban, and detail victims of domestic violence’s attitudes towards future help seeking. Accordingly, the study seeks to offer an analysis of victims of domestic violence’s experiences when they seek help from the police. The study therefore has the following objectives:

1.4.1. To determine the prevalence of secondary victimization by the police when victims of domestic violence seek help.

1.4.2. To assess the impact of the treatment victims of domestic violence receive from the Police system.

1.4.3. To determine the link between the treatment by police to non-reporting of domestic violence.

1.4.4. **Research Questions**
• What is the prevalence of secondary victimization by the police when victims of domestic violence seek help?
• What is the impact of the treatment of victims of domestic violence receive from the Police system?
• Is there a link between the treatment by police to non-reporting of domestic violence incidences in the future?

1.5. Definition of terms
This section of the study defines and explains specific terms that are core to the study. The defined terms are Domestic Violence; Intimate Partner Violence; Victim Risk; Victim Vulnerability; and Secondary Victimization.

1.5.1. Domestic Violence
According to Walby and Allen (2004), domestic violence is defined as any violence between current or former partners in an intimate relationship, wherever and whenever the violence occurs. The violence may include physical, sexual, emotional or financial abuse. Section 1(viii) of the new Domestic Violence Act (DVA) of 1998 gives a broader definition of domestic violence. According to the Domestic Violence Act of 1998, domestic violence means physical, sexual, emotional, verbal and psychological abuse, economic abuse, intimidation, harassment, stalking, damage to property, entry into complainant’s residence without consent where parties do not share same residence, or any other controlling or abusive behavior towards a complainant where such conduct harms, or may cause imminent harm to the safety, health or well-being of the complainant.

1.5.2. Intimate Partner violence
Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), is the most common form of domestic violence, and in addition to causing direct injury or loss of life, it increases vulnerability to a range of negative health outcomes, including HIV/ AIDS, (Kim et al., 2007: 1974). Intimate Partner Violence is the violence perpetrated by a person with whom the victim has a domestic relationship. According to the Domestic Violence Act of 1998 section 1(vii), domestic relationship is defined as the relationship between a complainant and a respondent in any of the following ways;
a) they are or were married to each other, including marriage according to any law, custom or religion;
b) they (whether they are of the same or opposite sex) live or lived together in a relationship in the nature of marriage, although they are not, or were not, married to each other, or are not able to be married to each other;
c) they are parents of a child, or are persons who have or had parental responsibility for that child (whether or not at the same time);
d) they are family members related by congruity, affinity or adoption;
e) they are or were in an engagement, dating or customary relationship including an actual or perceived romantic, intimate or sexual relationship of any duration; or
f) they share or recently shared the same residence.

1.5.3. Victim Risk

Victim risk is the amount of exposure to the possibility of suffering harm or loss perceived for a given individual. In view of the fact that victim risk is relative, a distinction can be made between different degrees of victim risk. According to Turvey (1999) the term “low-risk victims” refers to individuals whose personal, professional and social lives do not normally expose them to the possibility of suffering harm or loss. The term “medium-risk victims” refers to individuals whose personal, professional and social lives can expose to the possibility of suffering harm or loss, while the term “high-risk victims” refers to individuals whose personal, professional and social lives continuously expose them to the danger of suffering harm or loss.

1.5.4. Victim Vulnerability

According to Sparks (1981) vulnerability to victimization describes the likelihood of a person becoming a victim. This is determined by his or her personal characteristics and behavior, lifestyle and interaction with the offender. There is always some kind of relationship between the victim and offender. Vulnerability to victimization can be regarded as a function of six concepts, namely precipitation, facilitation, susceptibility, opportunity, attractiveness of the target and impunity.
1.5.5. Secondary Victimization

Secondary victimization has been described and defined in various ways; however, Williams (1984) define secondary victimization as a prolonged and compounded consequence of certain crimes; it results from negative, judgmental attitudes and behaviors, directed towards the victim, which result in a lack of support, perhaps even condemnation and/or alienation of the victim. In the study of Secondary victimization of Rape Victims, Campbell and Raja (1999) alluded that secondary victimization is the unresponsive treatment victims receive from social and legal system personnel. They further emphasize that secondary victimization is the victim-blaming behaviors and practices engaged in by community service providers, resulting in additional stress and trauma for victims.

Several studies conducted by various researchers on secondary victimization prove positive results on the question of secondary victimization inflicted upon victims by community personnel who are custodians of the protective and remedial responsibility over victims of personal crime (Campbell & Raja 1999; Campbell & Raja 2005; Martin & Powell 1994).

To help identify, measure and understand the conditions that create and perpetuate secondary victimization by society, Campbell and Raja (1999) have determined three sources from which the risk of secondary victimization may stem from:

- System personnel may be treating victims in an insensitive manner
- Secondary victimization may occur only because of what service providers do, but also because of what they do not do
- For the victims who are able to obtain desired service, it is not known if the assistance is really helpful.

1.6. Research Methodology

Research methodology is the operational framework within which facts are placed so that their meaning may be orderly understood. It refers to techniques and procedures for carrying out an inquiry and in particular, the study of particular methods used by the researcher (Vito, Latessa & Wilson: 1983).

As research methods are of paramount importance in any scientific inquiry, for the purposes of this research, the researcher warranted the following phases:

Scientific sampling procedure;
(i) Collection of data
(ii) Systematizing and processing which allows the researcher to round off, logically and scientifically classify so that the explanation will clearly come through.
(iii) Explanation of data.
The method of research that the researcher chooses to use should not lead to bias and his/her research should not be forced into such a method for the sake of methodological design (Van der Westhuizen, 1982).

1.6.1. Research Design
In order to establish trends, the quantitative approach is most appropriate. This study has therefore adopted a quantitative rather than a qualitative approach. The researcher applied the quantitative approach by recognizing and isolating specific variables contained within the study framework in order to seek correlation, relationship, causality, and also attempted to control the environment in which the data was collected to avoid the risk of variables, other than the one being studied, accounting for the relationship identified.

1.6.2. Sampling
A non-probability sampling method by means of convenience sampling was employed in this study. Data was collected at the Umngeni Community Empowerment’ Safe House. All victims of domestic violence from the age of eighteen (18) years and older, who were residing at the Safe House at the time of data collection were included in the study. Participation was voluntary. Permission to conduct the study was sought and received from Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre Manager (See Annexure A) and consent was sought from each participant before participating in the study (see annexure B). A total of 24 women participated in the study. One woman at the Safe House was excluded from continuing with the study due to emotional stress.

1.6.3. Research Tool
Questionnaires were used as an instrument for data collection. The term questionnaire refers to a list of questions to be answered by a research respondent. The term is restricted to a self-administered instrument as opposed to an interview. Questionnaire are thus forms containing questions to be answered by the respondent himself (Bailey 1987). For the purpose of this study, a questionnaire was developed and utilized to resonate with the objectives of this study (see Annexure C). According to Sekeran (1992), a questionnaire is an efficient data collection
mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variable of interest. O’Sullivan and Rassel (1999) allude that questionnaire writing involves deciding what variable to measure and how to accurately and adequately measure the variables. The researcher used closed and fixed alternative questions which are usually quite easy to convert to the numeric format required for the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program.

1.6.4. Research Procedures

The following processes were followed during the research process:

- All the potential role players were informed of the planned study.
- Permission and ethical approval for this study were obtained from the following stakeholders:
  - The Humanities and Social Sciences research Ethics Committee of the University of KwaZulu Natal- Howard College Campus (See annexure D)
  - Manager of the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre.
  - All participants who participated in the study.

a. Data was analyzed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program.

1.6.5. Ethical consideration

Owing to the fact that the study was conducted on a vulnerable group of society, permission and approval to conduct the study was obtained from the targeted Centre’s manager. The following ethical issues, according to Strydom (2005), were followed during the research process: avoidance of harm, informed consent, privacy/anonymity, confidentiality, release or publication of the findings, and debriefing of respondents. Ethical clearance was obtained from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of KwaZulu- Natal, Howard College Campus. The study was approved and allocated the ethical number HSS/ 0167/ 016M. Verbal and written consent to collect data was obtained from the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre. All study participants gave consent to participate in the study (see annexures A and B).
1.6.6. Data analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. While inferential statistics allow for data gathered from a sample to be generalized to a broader population, descriptive statistics allow for the description of the sample itself (Dietz and Kalof 2009). Since the study does not seek to generalize the findings to the general population of Durban, it was relevant to make use of descriptive statistics. The research data was analyzed using SPSS (version 25). To reinforce the quantitative aspect of the research, descriptive statistics which depicts the frequencies and percentages supports by bar diagrams were derived using Microsoft excel programme.

1.7. Limitations of the study

It is important to point out the limitations and challenges encountered by the researcher during the course of the study. This provides successive researchers with possible difficulties to take consideration of, equipping them with the ideas of avoiding similar difficulties. The most striking limitations for this study were:

a. There is little literature in South Africa on the on secondary victimization experienced by the victims of domestic violence from the police officials. Extensive work in the South African context, however, has been done to determine the prevalence of secondary victimization by police officials on members of the Lesbian Gay Bisexual Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) community. The consequence of this limitation was that the researcher had to rely mostly on foreign studies for literature on secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police.

b. The sample size of the study was difficult to achieve due to the mobility and availability of the victims of domestic violence at the Centre at which data was collected. The women at the Centre stay for as long as they feel they need to and they leave when they feel that it is safe to do so. This meant that, at the time of data collection, we could only be able to include 24 women for the study.

c. Although domestic violence can be interpreted in much broader terms, for the purpose of this study, domestic violence investigated is domestic violence against women.

1.8. Structure of dissertation

Chapter one introduces the topic and gives definitions of significant terms in the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions as well as a brief discussion of methodology and research design.
Chapter two presents critical debates and research findings accessed through scanning of the literature landscape. Some of the specific sections include reviews of relevant national legislation on and for domestic violence, the nature and extent of domestic violence in South Africa.

Chapter three presents an analysis of the theoretical framework on domestic violence and secondary victimization.

Chapter four explains the research methodology and design, discussing elements such as units of analysis, sampling size and selection, research instruments, data collection procedure and analysis and ethical considerations for the research.

Chapter five focuses on data analysis and interpretation.

Chapter six reports the most important findings, conclusions, and recommendations emanating from the present study, followed by the bibliography and annexures.

1.9. Conclusion

The purpose behind this chapter was to detail the contextual basis towards the issue of domestic violence in South Africa. This chapter provided an overview of the statement of the research problem in order to give background information to the problem of domestic violence and why it is important to conduct the current study. A section of this study focused on defining important concepts to clarify the terminology used to explain the subject matter of the research which included the explanation of domestic violence, intimate partner violence and secondary victimization. The term secondary victimization is defined as a prolonged and compounded consequence of certain crimes; it results from negative, judgmental attitudes and behaviors, directed towards the victim, which result in a lack of support, perhaps even condemnation and/or alienation of the victim; secondary victimization the unresponsive treatment victims receive from social and legal system personnel. The chapter also presented the fundamental objectives of the study and main research questions to assess victims of domestic violence’s perceptions towards the treatment they receive from the police when they seek help. This chapter also provided an outline of the research methodology which has guided the development of the study tools, data collection and data analysis. The study limitations and structure of the dissertation were also included in this chapter.
CHAPTER TWO

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

According to Walby and Allen (2004), domestic violence is defined as any violence between current or former partners in an intimate relationship. The violence may include physical, sexual, emotional or financial abuse. Section 1(viii) of the new Domestic Violence Act gives a broader definition of domestic violence (Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998). Domestic violence includes physical, sexual, emotional, verbal, psychological, economic abuse, intimidation, harassment, stalking, damage to property, entry into complainant’s residence without consent where parties do not share same residence, or any other controlling or abusive behavior towards a complainant where such conduct harms, or may cause imminent harm to the safety, health or well-being of the complainant.

2.1. Nature and extent of domestic violence in South Africa


South Africa is one of the countries in the world that has high incidences of domestic violence and is on the increase (Hoven 2001:13). While the statistics of how many women die at the hands of their intimate partners is not clear, in 2015 the SAPS’ annual report reflected an increase in murders of women in the general murder statistics of the country. The SAPS annual report for the 2015/16 shows that police have failed to reach their target of detecting one in three crimes against women, including murder, sexual offences and assault (Merten 2017; May 30). While individual cases of violence against women do not necessarily fall into a general outlook, physical and sexual violence occurs to woman regardless of differences in independent resources, education and strong social support structure. A strong correlation of race, class and wealth with violence also emerged in the Statistics SA 2016 Demographic and Health Survey (Statistics SA, 2017).
The report also revealed that one in five women in a relationship experiences physical violence by an intimate partner, with women between the ages of 18 to 24 being more likely to report incidences of physical violence than older women. These statistics indicate a problem that needs the attention of all sectors of society to be successfully addressed.

2.1. **Impact of domestic violence**

According to Moreno and Watts (2011) intimate partner violence affects the victims far beyond the incidences of victimization. For victims of domestic violence, consequences of the incidence may include physical, emotional and financial distress (Moreno & Watts, 2011). Domestic violence, particularly in the form of intimate partner violence, in South Africa is a matter of social, health and economic concern. Violence against women is an explicit manifestation of gender inequality, and is increasingly being recognized as an important risk factor for a range of poor health and economic development outcomes (Kim *et al.*, 2007: 1974). For the purposes of this study, the following subsections will look at the economic, health and social impact imposed by domestic violence.

2.1.1. **Economic Importance**

Beyond the pain and loss suffered by crime victims, crime also has less direct costs. The social costs of domestic violence are intense but difficult to measure (Moreno and Watts; 2011). Violence against women is likely to limit poverty reduction efforts by reducing women’s participation in productive employment (Moreno and Watts, 2011). Domestic violence imposes a financial liability not only for the victim, but to the state as well. The threat of crime diverts resources to protection efforts, exacts health costs through increased stress, and generally creates an environment of fear. General analysis of crime patterns depicts a discernible correlation between crimes and challenging socio-economic conditions (Demombynesa and O’zlerb 2005). Of serious concern in the policing environment is the observed violent social behavior which continues to prevail in the majority of serious crime categories. This behavior persists even after treatment is administered by law enforcement agencies and requires a collective effort from all affected stakeholders, including communities to eradicate. (An analysis of the National Crime Statistics 2012/13).

2.1.2. **Health Impact**

Various studies have shown that there is a correlation between domestic violence and an array of mental health problems, including depression, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD),
suicidal ideation, substance misuse, functional symptoms, and the exacerbation of psychotic symptoms (Aldridge, 2013; Jewkes, Levin & Penn- Kekana 2003; Trevillion et al., 2013). Victims of domestic violence experience mental and emotional stress which inhibits them from their normal functioning. When untreated, these conditions have negative lifelong impact on the victims, and possibly, their families. Considering that the majority of victims of domestic violence come from a low socio-economic background, victims are often unable to seek professional help at their own expense (Jewkes, Levin, and Penn- Kekana, 2002). It then becomes the responsibility of South African cash-strapped government to provide assistance to the victims of domestic violence (KPMG Human and Social Services, 2014).

2.1.3. Social Impact

Violence also undermines efforts to improve women’s access to education, with violence and the fear of violence contributing to lower school enrolment for girls. Domestic violence has also been shown to affect the welfare and education of children in the family (Aldridge 2013). Among the negative effect on welfare and education as a consequence of domestic violence, there is the stigma associated with being humiliated and violated by person they trusted and chose to share their lives with. Victims feel a sense of embarrassment, emanating from self-blame for victimization, which in many circumstances results in withdrawal from social activities and withdrawal from social participation (Carvalho et al., 2011: 508). Civic attitudes that place the responsibility of violence on the victims’ shoulders often cover a lack of sympathy or coldness towards victims which creates a psychological distance between victims and the persons and institutions tasked to assist the victim; a phenomenon known as victim blaming. When the cause of the violence is attributed to the victims, incidents are more likely to be trivialized and viewed as understandable or deserved, and hence as less unjust and more admissible. Such attitudes serve to excuse and partly pardon the offenders of violence, adding to the notion in the public’s mind that sometimes women are justifiably the victims of domestic violence (Gracia 2014: 380).

Domestic violence has been shown to have serious economic, social and health consequences not only for the victims of domestic violence but, as discussed above, the consequences affect also those that are related to the victims as well as the State. Given these factors, it is thus important to continue studying factors that contribute to and perpetrate domestic violence, with the intention to eliminate the problem of domestic violence in society.
2.2. The South African legislation on domestic violence

The democratic dispensation in South Africa brought about new changes which provided an intensive focus on advancing women and children’s rights, as well as the rights of victims of crime. South African government departments, as well as government agencies have made some significant commitments on the protection of victims of violence. This initiative has been seen through the ratification of international instruments and the development of policies and the following legislations (Davis & Snyman 2005).

2.2.1. Domestic Violence Act (Act 116 of 1998)

In literature, the South Africa criminal justice system has been attacked by ineffectively dealing with issues related to domestic violence, particularly through the marginalization and dismissal of the severity of gender-based violence. As a result, domestic violence was treated as something that should remain behind closed doors and be remedied by the partners themselves (Davis & Snyman 2005).

The Domestic Violence Act was formulated with the aim of providing women and children with the maximum legal protection against domestic abuse. It recognizes that victims of domestic violence are amongst the most vulnerable members of society and the remedies available to date had proven to be ineffective. With this in mind, it makes a number of substantive shifts in the state’s response to this form of victimization. The Act recognizes that domestic violence takes many forms and may be committed in a wide range of “domestic relationships”, broadening the range of complainants entitled to apply for legal remedy to include people who:

a. are or were married to each other (whether they live together or not)
b. same sex partners (whether they live together or not)
c. any person who is or was in an engagement, dating or customary relationship, including an actual or perceived romantic relationship
d. intimate or sexual relationships of any duration
e. parents of a child
f. and people who share or recently shared the same residence.

This broader definition of a domestic relationship reflects a far more realistic picture of the types of relationships that may result in intimate violence and may therefore be subject to
peculiar barriers in obtaining relief (Davis & Snyman 2005). The Act deals with a wide range of behavior of a controlling or abusive nature that can be defined as “domestic violence”. The exhaustive list of abuses in Section 1 of the Act includes physical, sexual, emotional, verbal, psychological and economic abuse, intimidation, harassment, stalking, damage to property, entrance to the victim’s property without her consent where she is not living with the respondent, and any other controlling behavior which may cause imminent harm to the safety, health or well-being of the complainant.

The Act, which has been in place for a number of years, has not had the desired outcome of reducing the levels of domestic violence through its anticipated deterrent effects (Davis & Snyman 2005). On an individual level, however, victims are finding some relief from violence from their intimate and other domestic parties. There have been the anticipated “growing pains” with the implementation of the Act. Parenzee, Artz and Moult (2001) have uncovered a number of critical problems in the implantation of the Domestic Violence Act. The role of the Justice System in addressing the issue of domestic violence is pivotal. The justice system is most likely the primary source of help from which victims of domestic violence are likely to turn to when experiencing violation. The justice system primarily intervenes by arresting and adjudicating abusive partners and granting of civil protection orders to victims of domestic violence (Calton & Cattaneo 2014: 329). The justice system, particularly the police’s interaction with the victims of domestic violence is discussed below to evaluate a possible link to withdrawal of charges by victims and likelihood of future help seeking behavior.

2.3. Police responsibilities towards victims of domestic violence.

One of the key innovations of the Domestic Violence Act of South Africa is its attempt to introduce statutory monitoring and oversight of police enforcement of the law (Vetten 2005: 5). Lawmakers placed specific requirements in the DVA upon the police in an effort to challenge their long history of neglect of domestic violence. Briefly, the police are required to explain to complainants that they are there to provide whatever assistance the circumstances require, which may include helping the complainant to find suitable shelter or obtain medical treatment. In addition, police services should inform the complainant of his/her right to both apply for a protection order as well as lay criminal charges. Where practically possible, this information should be provided to the complainant in the form of a notice. The notice also
sets out the steps required to apply for a protection order, explains what the complainant should do in the event of a breach and sets out the type of relief or protection the complainant may request from the court. Where complainants cannot read the notice, police officers should read it to them in the language of their choice. They are also obliged to arrest the abuser if he does not obey the protection order (Domestic Violence Act of 1998).

Apart from the Domestic Violence Act, other legislations, including the Victim Empowerment Service of the South African Police Services, provide guidelines on how victims of crime should be assisted. According to the Victim Empowerment Service manual, the police have a responsibility to ensure that victims of crime, especially sexual offences and other serious and violent crimes, are provided with victim-friendly service. As stipulated in the manual, a victim friendly service entails a service where the dignity and rights of victims are protected, and the victim is empowered and not subjected to secondary victimization by the inefficiency of the members of the criminal justice system. The basic elements of victim empowerment include emotional support; practical support, providing information and referral information. These are some of the measures that have been put in place as guidelines to ensure that victims of crime do not experience secondary victimization when they seek help from the police.

2.3.1. Victim-Police interactions

The interaction between domestic violence victims and police when reporting incidences is important in a study that looks at the impact of secondary victimization that occurs when victims report crime. Coulter Kuehnle, and Alfonso (1999) suggest that women who are victims of domestic violence are highly likely not to report crime due to fear of retaliation. This implies that victims of domestic violence, when reporting crime to the police, feel vulnerable and should be handled with considerate care. Police response and resultant protection of victims play a significant role in the reporting of domestic violence (Coulter, et al; 1999). When victims have positive experiences with the police, and the entire justice system, it increases the likelihood of seeking help from the system the next time they need it (Calton & Cattaneo 2014: 330). This suggests that when the victims’ experience with the police is negative, likelihood of future help seeking decreases. Likewise, the experience that victims have with the police has an impact on the victim’s mental health. Secondary
victimization by legal proceedings could negatively influence the victim’s self-esteem, faith in the future, trust in the legal system, and faith in the just world (Orth 2002: 314).

2.3.2. Police attitudes towards victims of domestic violence

Police officers are among the main source of help available to victims of domestic violence, including family members and neighbors of the victim. Police, being the first contact of legal authority, their attitudes and responses to intimate partner violence send a clear message to the victims, offenders, and wider community concerning the level of social disproval and reprobation, or conversely social tolerance towards domestic violence (Gracia, Gracia, & Lila 2011:190). Studies conducted on barriers to reporting domestic violence reveal that police attitudes play a role when making the decision on whether to report the crime or not (Vetten, 2005; Fugate, Landis, Knoth, Riodan, Naureckas, and Engel; 2005; Wolf, Ly, Horbart, and Kernic; 2003; Felson, Messner, Hoskin, and Deane; 2002). Victims sometimes do not report domestic violence because they are concerned that police will not listen to them or will trivialize their feelings or situation (Wolf, et al.; 2003).

2.4. Reporting domestic violence

Reporting domestic violence is important in addressing the challenge of domestic violence in society (Felson et al., 2005). When crimes are reported there opportunity for legal and therapeutic intervention is increased, and subsequently a just and lawful society (Knoth & Ruback 2016). Reporting domestic violence is not only beneficial to the safety of the victim but also provides opportunity for rehabilitation of the offender’s behavior. It is therefore important that incidences of domestic violence be reported to the police.

There are many factors that influence a victim’s decision of whether or not to report domestic violence. According to Vetten (2005) the following are some of the obstacles that women must overcome in trying to seek help with domestic violence:

a. limited or no taxi or bus services, with what does exist being expensive;

b. slow response times by the police and ambulance services;

c. poor and expensive telecommunication services;

d. large distances to public services means child care is a bigger problem if travel is necessary;
e. few support services for abused women and no safe accommodation for women if they need to leave their homes;
f. high rates of unemployment and underemployment, resulting in women struggling to pay for basic necessities, travel, accommodation or the costs of separation or relocation.

When members of a society protect victims from domestic violence, victims may be more inclined to seek help (Coulter et al.; 1999). The reverse of the finding by Coulter et al. (1999) implies that, when victims do not feel protected by the police, likelihood of reporting incidences of domestic violence decreases. Unfortunately, increasingly victims feel unprotected by the police. Available data suggests that some women do not report incidences of domestic violence to the police because they feel that ‘it is not worth the effort’ (Fugate et al. 2005).

2.5. Withdrawal of charges by victims of Domestic Violence.

Various studies have alluded to responses that propel victims of domestic violence to not report the incidences of victimization to the police (Spohn and Tellis 2012; Seabi & Naidoo 2009; and Vetten 2005). With the concerning number of incidences of domestic violence going unreported, there is a growing concern of reported cases of domestic violence that get withdrawn by victims of domestic violence. According to Felson et al. (2002) Victims of domestic violence are more likely than victims of types of violence to withdraw charges because of their privacy concerns, their fear of reprisal, and their desire to protect offenders, but they are more likely to call for self-protection and because they perceive domestic assaults as more serious. Other reasons found as barriers for women continuing with the prosecution of their offenders include financial dependency on the offender, insurance offered by their continuing relationship with the offender, or time for the trial (Fugate et al. (2005). These factors have been found to contribute to non-reporting and/or the withdrawal of charges of domestic violence.

However, according to Vetten (2005) police also play a role in the withdrawal of charges of domestic violence. The role played by the police in withdrawal of charges of domestic violence is also stated in Parenzee et al (2001), wherein these researchers suggest that unwillingness to intervene in "household disputes" remained pervasive in the SAPS and that
domestic violence was rife among police officers. They concluded that progressive legislation, combined with unprogressive attitudes among law enforcement agents, created negative attitudes towards complainants, resulting in secondary victimization of abused women and/or a failure to act according to the legal obligations set out in the legislation. Negative attitudes towards complainants were found to be related to complainants’ withdrawal of charges. Another factor that influences a victim’s decision to report the crime is their perception of the helpfulness of the police. Fugate et al. (2005) revealed that experiences that victims receive when reporting incidences of domestic violence with the police play a major role when deciding to seek help in the future. In their study conducted on the barriers to domestic violence help seeking, 62% of the respondents who did not contact the police believed that the police were not helpful, among other reasons for not reporting the crime. Other factors included: too few personnel in combination with a lack of police vehicles, fax machines and photo-copiers compromise victims of domestic violence’s safety when seeking legal help (Vetten 2005: 6). These factors contribute to the perpetual environment that is conducive for continued domestic victimization.

The current research study aims to explore the prevalence of secondary victimization by the police on victims of domestic violence in Durban, South Africa. The current study targets to also discover the correlation between secondary victimization by the police and the attitudes of victims of domestic violence towards future help seeking.

2.6. **General response to victims of crime**

Various efforts and initiatives have been created in South Africa, endorsed by the government, to support victims of crime, including victims of domestic violence. The following are some of the initiatives created:

2.6.1. **Victim support**

Victim support is a relatively new but rapidly expanding field which seeks to assist victims/survivors of crime and violence with practical and emotional support, information and advocacy. The objectives of victim support are to:

a. Reduce the psychological shock and trauma victims may suffer by providing emotional support and practical assistance immediately or shortly after the incident.
b. Identify symptoms of post-traumatic stress and to refer victims to counseling and other professional services where necessary.

c. Prevent or reduce secondary victimization by the criminal justice system by providing information on matters such as the status of the investigation, the functioning of the court system and the rights of victims within it.

d. Prevent repeat victimization by advising and guiding the individual towards a preventative lifestyle and creating awareness among the public of the risks of crime. (Kotze 2002).

In South Africa, victim support services were rendered primarily by non-governmental organizations working in the field of child and women abuse. Research by Nel & Kruger (1999) indicates that services to victims have been limited, fragmented uncoordinated and reactive in nature. These services were often not community-driven, were mostly Eurocentric in nature and did not cater adequately for diversity in language and culture. Service providers tended to specialize in sexual offences, domestic violence or child abuse, while little or no services were available for victims of other crimes (Davis 2005).

Within the criminal justice system, victims were often revictimized by the ignorant and insensitive attitude of service providers. Although South Africa was a signatory to the United Nations Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power, community participation in the criminal justice was virtually non-existent, reparation was inadequate and limited services were being provided to victims (Steenkamp, Nortje, & Gouws 2010). Prior to 1996, a number of reforms were initiated to improve the plight of, especially, women and children who became victims of crime (Snyman 2005). The reforms included the establishment of the Sexual Offences and Children’s Courts; victim support services such as rape crisis centres, family and child abuse counselling services; and a few shelters for the victims of domestic violence (Steenkamp et al., 2010). However, these reforms did not form part of an integrated strategy and were managed on an ad hoc basis. Non-governmental organizations which provided the majority of services, relied on international donor assistance and, due to a lack of resources; the survival of these services was continually threatened (Nel & Kruger 1999).
2.6.2. A South African model for victim empowerment

Empowerment reflects the idea that people can actually manage and control their own lives (Steenkamp et al.; 2010). Implicit in this belief is the recognition that many social arrangements are inherently disempowering. Victim empowerment can thus be seen as a philosophy or approach to facilitating access to and delivering a range of services to people who have individually or collectively suffered harm and trauma through violence and crime (Davis 2005). Within this model, services are provided within a restorative justice framework, which aims to be accessible, integrated and culturally sensitive, targeting people who experience difficulty in accessing appropriate services. Victim empowerment works at individual, family, community and society levels and includes a focus on crime and violence prevention.

Victim empowerment implies a greater role for victims in the criminal justice process and increasing resistance to repeat victimization (Steenkamp et al.; 2010). It also refers to the manner in which victims are empowered by having their needs that arose from an incident of victimization satisfactorily met; i.e. the process of helping a victim to become a survivor and to leave the crime behind with as little lasting effects as possible.

At local level, victim empowerment ideally entails the following:

a. Firstly, any victim of crime and/or violence who approaches the South African Police Service, health workers and/or welfare officials should receive a more empathetic, victim-friendly service within a more private setting. This service should incorporate the four basic elements of victim empowerment and support: emotional and practical support, information, and referral to support services.

b. In addition to the normal procedures when dealing with people who have been victims of criminal violence, the official will have to inform the person of other services available to victims within that particular community. If possible, the victim will be handed an information brochure and, as standard procedure, will be asked whether she would like to be referred to these services.

c. The police should keep the victim informed of the progress of the investigation and will forward relevant information to the Department of Justice, who in turn will also be required to provide a more victim-friendly service and adapt court proceedings to make victims more central to the criminal justice process.
d. If the offender is imprisoned, the victim and her family should be informed by the Department of Correctional Services of parole hearing dates, conditions of parole and/or the possible death or escape of the prisoner. In cases of gender violence or social fabric crimes, such as rape, domestic violence, child and/or sexual abuse, victims will be encouraged through media campaigns to first approach a multidisciplinary one-stop crisis centre facility. These are usually located at local hospitals, primary health care clinics or private facilities in the community, and victims can receive medico-legal victim support and/or trauma counselling, legal advice and police investigative services on site. This will reduce secondary victimization and minimize inconvenience for the victim. (Davis & Snyman 2005).

After the necessary steps have been taken to deal with the immediate priorities (i.e. the medico-legal examination), with the victim’s permission, the case information will be made available to the police for purposes of investigation. In cases where victims of social fabric crimes first report to the police, they will be referred to one of these centres, but if they prefer, they can give a statement immediately (Nel & Kruger, 1999). Victim-friendly facilities for the sensitive reception of the victim and statement taking have been set up at the police stations. The South African government has, in principle, accepted the victim empowerment model, with variations of the model being implemented at police stations, local hospitals and non-governmental premises in the community. However, services catering for women and children are being prioritized, with one-stop crisis centres being established by the departments of Health and Social Development, the National Prosecuting Authority and the Department of Community Safety in Gauteng.

One-stop crisis centres are multidisciplinary and are usually located at the hospitals, clinic or a house in the community. Here, victims of sexual offences, domestic violence and child sexual abuse receive medico-legal assistance, emotional support and trauma counselling, as well as legal and police investigative services. They are also known as one-stop trauma centres, violence referral centres or Thuthuzela rape care centres.

South Africa, with its high prevalence of domestic violence, has relatively lower reported cases of domestic violence (Vetten 2005). Furthermore, of the cases of domestic violence reported to the police, a notable number of these cases are withdrawn by victims (SAPS
Annual report 2014/ 2015). Many studies into domestic violence have alluded to the secondary victimization by service providers, including the police, when victims of domestic violence seek help (Campbell & Raja 1999; Campebell & Raja 2005; Martin 2005; Martin & Powell 1994; and Orth 2002). However, the impact on the withdrawal of charges and future help seeking behaviors is not documented in the South African context. This study aims to determine the prevalence of a link between secondary victimization by police and the likelihood of future help- seeking by victims of domestic violence.

2.7. Conclusion
The purpose of this chapter was to outline the South African legislature that pertains to domestic violence. An overview of the Domestic Violence Act was given with respect to how its provision on what constitutes domestic violence, and the legal rights of victims of domestic violence. The list of abuses in the Act include physical, sexual, emotional, verbal, psychological and economic abuse, intimidation, harassment, stalking, damage to property, entrance to the victim’s property without her consent where she is not living with the respondent, and any other controlling behavior which may cause imminent harm to the safety, health or well-being of the complainant. This chapter also provided an overview of the legal police responsibilities towards victims of domestic violence. Part of the responsibilities of the police, as shown in this chapter, includes ensuring that victims of crime, especially sexual offences and other serious and violent crimes, are provided with victim- friendly service. A victim friendly service entails a service where the dignity and rights of victims are protected, and the victim is empowered and not subjected to secondary victimization by the inefficiency of the members of the criminal justice system. This chapter also highlighted the provisions of the Sexual Offences Bill, Victim support, Victim empowerment and the South African model for victim empowerment in relation to victims of domestic violence. This chapter also discussed work done in other research studies conducted on domestic violence and secondary victimization in order to describe the situation of secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police.
CHAPTER THREE

3. Theoretical framework

3.1. Introduction.

This chapter will look on theories that explain the behavior of violence as well as perpetuate and maintain incidences of violence. Theories discussed in this chapter include the differential risk model of victimization; the deviant place theory; routine activities theory; victim precipitation theory; general theory of crime; Belief in a just world theory; social structural theory of victimization as well as the importance of a holistic understanding of the justice system in response to domestic violence.

3.2. Differential Risk Model of Victimization (Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garofalo)

According to the differential risk model of victimization, individuals are targeted based on their lifestyle choices which expose them to criminal offenders and situations in which crimes may be committed. Such lifestyle choices, which include going out at night alone, living in “bad” parts of town, associating with unknown felons, being promiscuous, doing drugs, etc., expose individuals to a high likelihood of victimization (Siegel 2006: 77). In literature it is postulated that the possibility of victimization depends on the lifestyle and routine activities of a person. Therefore, people with a high risk lifestyle, such as drinking, taking drugs and interacting with criminals increase risk chances of victimization (Davis & Synman 2005: 36; Siegel 2006: 77).

There are theorists that opine that victimization is not random, but it is a part of the lifestyle that the victims pursue. The lifestyle theory postulates that victims share personality traits which are commonly found in law violators, namely impulsivity and low self-control. These behaviours may contribute to their victimization since they cause the individual to put themselves at risk more so than more conservative counterparts (Siegel 2006).

The four prerequisites have been identified before victimization can occur (Siegel 2006:77; Davis 2005:35):

a. The offender and victim have to meet at a certain location. A dispute develops between the two parties and the victim is identified as a suitable target.
b. The offender approaches the potential victim and attempts to make an agreement of sex in exchange for a commodity. In most cases the potential victim refuses this request.

c. The offender uses the threat of violence or actual violence to achieve a result. After the potential victim refuses to have sex with the offender, the offender may resort to intimidation or actual violence to force the victim to have sex with him/her.

d. The offender regards the circumstances as advantageous to achieve the desired result. Within a correctional centre, for example, the occurrence of forced sex is a “secret” and therefore the offender knows that it is unlikely for the incident to be reported or other fellow inmates to report the victim.

In the evaluation of the model, Walklate’s (2003:38 cited in Davis & Syman, 2005:39) is of the opinion that proponents of this model did not take into account that some activities are so routine that individuals are not even aware that they are doing it. It is further suggested that certain types of victimization such as domestic violence, as well as intra-familial victimization are not adequately explained by this theory.

3.3. The deviant place theory

The deviant place theory states that greater exposure to dangerous places makes one more likely to become the victim of crime (Siegel 2006: 78). The victims do not influence the crime by actively or passively encouraging, but rather are victimized as a result of being in “bad” areas. In order to lower the chance that one will become the victim of a crime, the individual should avoid “bad” areas of town in which crime rate is high. Moreover, the deviant place theory suggests that taking safety precautions in these areas may be of little use since it is the neighbourhood and not the lifestyle choices that affect victimization (Seigel 2006). In a nutshell, if a neighbourhood is “deviant”, the only way to lower your risk of victimization is to leave the neighbourhood for a less deviant, low crime rate area. This theory implies that there are places in which the only way potential victims may avoid victimization by is to avoid them altogether. The deviant place theory can be used to explain withdrawal of charges and non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence where victims perceive that they will be secondarily victimised by the police.
3.4. **The routine activity theory (Cohen and Felson)**

According to the two champions of the Routine Activities Theory, Cohen and Felson, changes in a person’s lifestyle routine can increase the risk of victimization. Felson (2002) believes that at least four types of crime exist, namely:

- The explorative (predatory) crime entails at least one person exploiting another person or obtaining and/ or damaging the property of another.
- The mutuality crime, where two parties voluntarily take part in an offence.
- Competitive crimes, which involve two parties participating in physical activities, i.e. fights.
- The individualistic crime, when one person engages in criminal behaviour, such as drug abuse.

The routine activity theory explains the rate of victimization through a set of situations that reflect the routines of a typical individual (Davis 2005:40; Siegel 2006: 80):

1) Availability of suitable targets

Four elements determine whether a person can be regarded as a suitable target. The elements include the value of the target (financial or symbolic), physical visibility (the risk to be observed by potential offenders), accessibility (approaching the potential victim without the risk of attracting attention) and effortlessness (the ease with which the target is selected and acquired).

2) The absence of capable guardians

A guardian can be described as “any person who is able to prevent a crime as a result of his or her presence or direct actions”. According to this theory, a crime will occur when motivated offenders come into contact with suitable targets in the absence of capable guardianship. Within the context of this theory, one way of preventing crime will be to reduce the attractiveness and/ or accessibility of the target.

3) The presence of motivated offenders

According to this theory offenders are rational human beings and will commit a crime whenever opportunity presents itself. By implication, offenders rationally knowingly choose to offend their victims.
3.5. The victim precipitation theory

Victim precipitation theory postulates that some people initiate or cause crime through certain behaviours which may encourage or trigger an attack. This happens as a passive act (Ward 1995:30). Examples of causative factors are the victim seducing the attacker, alcohol, risqué language, revealing clothing and behaving badly. An attack occurs when the victim uses threatening or fighting words or is the one to first attack.

During passive precipitation the victim unconsciously exhibits behaviours or characteristics that instigate or encourage the attack. Siegel (2006:73) lists job promotions, job status, successes, love interests, and the like as examples of these unconscious behaviours. Additionally, political activists, minority groups, those of different sexual orientations, and other individuals pursuing alternate lifestyles may also find themselves as targets of violence due to the inadvertent threat they pose certain individuals of power.

Essentially, the victim precipitation theory focuses on the idea that passive precipitation of violence is a result of a power struggle. A politician may feel threaten by an activist group leader because his action draw attention to negative aspects of his personality and actions that will or may cause loss power in society. This sort of precipitation may also present when victim is not even aware of the existence of the attacker. In this instance a new worker may push up the ranks quickly, “threatening” the beliefs or ideas of another individual or group of individuals. The latter is a good example of hate crime in which victims are often unaware of the individuals that perpetrate the crime, yet their actions and/or characteristics trigger the crime, (Siegel 2006:73).

Active precipitation is the opposite of the above-mentioned. Victimization occurs under this theory through the threatening of provocative actions of the victim. One of the most controversial points of this theory is the idea that women who are victims of sexual assault actively contributed in some way, either through provocative dress, a relationship, or suggested consent of intercourse (Siegel 2006:73) Because of this viewpoint it is hard to convict an accused offender who has some form of relationship with the victim, or one that was behaving provocatively or suggestively. According to Siegel (2006), when dealing with this theory we must ask ourselves whether or not it is really okay to blame the occurrence of a crime on a victim.
3.6. **General theory of Crime (Gottfredson and Hirschi)**

This theory can be used to explain most types of crimes, ranging from property crime to violent crime to economic crime. Gottfredson and Hirschi define crime as “acts of force or fraud undertaken in pursuit of self-interest” (Moyer 2001:151). This definition is applicable to domestic violence since most instances of victimization occur with the use of force. In such instances the offender strives towards self-interest, which is to maximize his own pleasure and avoid pain. In theory it has further been proposed that crime is the result of individuals with low self-control encountering situations or opportunities in which crime will produce immediate gratification with relatively low levels of risk (Siegel 2006:310).

The concept self-control refers to the degree to which a person is vulnerable to temptations (Schmalleger 2004: 189). People with low self-control tend to display the following characteristics (Siegel 2006:310):

a. Impulsiveness: inability to delay gratification.

b. Simple tasks: preference for activities that do not require planning.

c. Risk seeking: risky behavior is sought out because of the excitement attached to it. 
   Physicality: physical activities are preferred to intellectual activities.

d. Self-centeredness: insensitivity to other people’s feelings and excessive focus on own desires.

e. Temper: easily lose control because of their short temper.

The evaluation of the general theory of crime focuses on both empirical and theoretical matters. Regarding the empirical limitations, it is suggested that the link between self-control and deviance is weak. Although the link between self-control and deviance is statistically significant, it is of no substantive importance (Siegel 2006:313).

Gottfredson and Hirschi in this theory refer to opportunity, however, they do not elaborate on the importance of this variable. The opportunity to commit crime may be more important in crime causation than a person’s self-concept. It has also been questioned whether the general theory can explain all types of crime. Domestic violence crimes do not clearly fall within the framework of this theory. Gottfredson and Hirschi state that crime provides only short-term gain. However, in cases of domestic violence the continuous battering of a victim result in
long-term benefits for the abuser, which include power, authority and control over victim (Moyer 2001:155).

3.7. **Belief in a Just World Theory**

According to this theory, people go through intense loses and prejudices in the areas such as health, work and affection (Correia & Vala 2003). Those losses lead us almost to always seek explanation, so that we can understand their cause and guide our future behavior. Evidence from several research studies conducted shows that innocent victims are made responsible for situations that they objectively could not have been able to prevent (Brickman, Rabinowitz, Karuza, Coates, Cohen, & Kidder, L; 1982). Models of helping and coping. Am. Psychol. 37: 368-384. 1982). This means that besides having to deal with the negative consequences of the event that victimized them (primary victimization) - they are victimized once again (secondary victimization), which also implies an absence of the social support which research has shown to be crucial for the physical and psychological wellbeing of the victim (Correia & Vala 2003).

According to the Belief in a Just World (BJW) theory, all people have the need to believe that the world they live in is just place, where each person gets what he/she deserves so that they can live in confidence of the future and carry-out long term projects (Correia & Vala 2003). In the analysis of the Belief in a Just World theory, Furnham (2003) stresses a different and positive view of the BJW theory. According to Furnham (2003) the BJW can be highly functional for four reasons: First, BJW influences the reconstruction and perception of one’s life course: i.e. there is in-group favouritism denying more injustice and discrimination in one’s own group. Second, BJW motives guide social interactions: i.e. where substantial help is possible BJW believers are more likely to help and further to expect a “good fate” as reward for one’s own helping actions. Third, BJW is a stabilizing force that helps one deal with daily hassles: it can reduce the possibility of depression and other stress induced illnesses. Finally, BJW helps victims of unjust fate: they show more well-being after traumatic events than those who do not believe in the just world. In this analysis, BJW theory is viewed to have a positive transitional benefit for the victims of crime.

According to Furnham (2003) there is a continuing interest in the BJW both as a theory and as an individual difference measure. Some of the studies in the area have continued exploring
the processes associated with victim derogation particularly that of AIDs and rape victims. Fewer studies have been concerned with the effects of traumatic events on the BJW of victims themselves. A major development has been to view the BJW as a healthy coping mechanism rather than being the manifestation of anti-social beliefs and prejudice. There has been movement from focusing on victim derogation to positive coping (Furnham 2003).

3.8. **Social Structural theory of victimization**

According to this theory, victimization reflects the economic and the power structures of a society (Cohen, Kluegel & Land 1981). Marginalized, powerless minorities that have been pushed towards the edge of society are often forced into becoming victims. Structural violence, social discrimination, turns into personal violence. The social pressure imposed on marginalized minorities leads to social disorganization and the decay of relationships and communities, causing a susceptibility on individuals to become victims (Schneider, 2001).

3.9. **Importance of a holistic understanding of the justice system in response to domestic violence**

Recognition of the scope and impact of domestic violence has led to a range of interventions, the largest of which is the justice system, which help-seekers are likely to turn (Goodman, Dutton, Weinfurt & Cook 2003). As the justice system has the power to intervene and is so commonly used, it is important to explore how its intervention works.

The intervention of justice system for domestic violence can be examined in three ways. Firstly, researchers and evaluators can measure the outputs of system interventions - number of arrests, criminal convictions, and civil protection orders distrusted in a year, for example. Secondly, researchers can measure victims’ safety before and after their justice system involvement, to determine whether court interventions are associated with decreased domestic violence. Thirdly, researchers can ask perpetrators and victims of domestic violence how interventions have affected them, in order to understand their subjective experiences (Calton & Catanneo 2014: 329). These guiding principles have been provided to assist the researchers in effectively examining the justice system of domestic violence.

The theories above highlight the interconnectedness of the people’s primary need for safety and security with the importance of having an effectively functioning justice system.
Available literature has successfully shown that there is a link between susceptibility to repeat victimization and the level of confidence the society has on its justice system; however, there is not enough data documented on the impact of secondary victimization perpetrated by the members of the justice system on South Africa’s low conviction rate, despite the alarming high crime rates. This study aims to document the impact of secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence, by the justice system on crime corrections.

3.10. Conclusion

In this chapter a brief discussion of the theories was included as a means of explaining domestic violence and secondary victimization. Theories were chosen based on the ability to adequately enlighten the reader with regards to domestic violence and the susceptibility of its victims to secondary victimization when seeking help for the police. The differential risk model of victimization has been criticized by some researchers on domestic violence who are of the opinion that proponents of this model did not take into account that some activities are so routine that individuals are not even aware that they are doing it. It is further suggested that certain types of victimization such as domestic violence, as well as intra-familial victimization are not adequately explained by this theory. This chapter also gave a brief outline of the deviant place theory. This theory implies that there are places in which the only way potential victims may avoid victimization by is to avoid them altogether. The deviant place theory can be used to explain withdrawal of charges and non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence where victims perceive that they will be secondarily victimized by the police. Another theory that was discussed in this chapter is the victim precipitation theory which implies that victimization occurs through the threatening of provocative actions of the victim. One of the most controversial points of this theory is the idea that women who are victims of sexual assault actively contributed in some way, either through provocative dress, a relationship, or suggested consent of intercourse. The general theory of crime was found to not be adequate in explaining domestic violence. This chapter also looked at the social structural theory of victimization to explain secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police. The social structural theory of victimization reflects the economic and the power structures of a society. Marginalized, powerless minorities that have been pushed towards the edge of society are often forced into becoming victims. Structural violence, social discrimination, turns into personal violence. The social pressure imposed on marginalized minorities leads to social disorganization and the decay of relationships and communities,
causing a susceptibility on individuals to become victims. This chapter also highlighted the importance of a holistic understanding of the justice system in response to domestic violence. Recognition of the scope and impact of domestic violence has led to a range of interventions, the largest of which is the justice system, which help-seekers are likely to turn. As the justice system has the power to intervene and is so commonly used, it is important to explore how its intervention works. This chapter discussed theories to explain both domestic violence and secondary victimization. It also laid ground for the discussion of the finding of this study, which will be discussed in chapter five.
CHAPTER FOUR
4. Research methodology and design

4.1. Introduction
Research methodology is concerned with the researchers’ definitive goals and general plan the researcher formulates for achieving these goals. Research methodology includes conceptualization; construction of variables, purposes and structures, as well as disadvantages of different types of the research design, the logic of causal inferences and sampling theory (Fitzegerald and Cox, 1987). This chapter discusses the research methodology and the design of the study, including research methods, methods used to analyze the data, and procedures used to ensure reliability and ethical consideration. The study adopted a quantitative research approach which consists of assigning numerical value to concepts measured. This is maintained by Crow and Semmens (2008) that quantitative research methodology is characterized by a positivistic approach and formulating structured methods to collect numeric data. Using the quantitative research methodology, descriptive statistics was used for measuring and reporting of the participants’ responses. This chapter give detail about the research methods used to collect and analyze data.

4.2. Location of the Study
The study was conducted in Durban, KwaZulu- Natal, South Africa. For practical reasons, the study was limited to one empowerment centre for victims of domestic violence. According to Wikipedia, Durban is the largest city in the South African province of KwaZulu Natal. Durban’s metropolitan municipality ranks third among the most populous urban areas in South Africa, after Johannesburg and Cape Town. Durban is ethnically diverse, with a cultural richness of mixed beliefs and traditions. Zulu people form the largest single ethnic group. It has a large number of people of British descent and has the most Indians of any city outside India. The influence of Indians in Durban has been significant, bringing with them a variety of cuisine, culture and religion. Durban has an estimated population of 3,672,696 people in 2017. The number of Black Africans residing in Durban has increased drastically post the Apartheid era, while the number of people in all the other racial groups decreased. Black Africans increased from 34.9% to 51.1%. Indian or Asians decreased from 27.3% to 24.0%. Whites decreased from 25.5% to 15.3%. Coloureds decreased from 10.26% to 8.59%. A new racial group, Other, was included in the 2011 census at 0.93%. The city demographics
indicate that 68% of the population are of working age and 38% of the people in Durban are under the age of 19 years.

There were 1,237 homicides in the Durban metropolitan area in 2015. The murder rate in 2015 was 35.9 per 100,000 people; while the murder rate for the whole of South Africa was 33 per 100,00. The South African crime statistics reveal that in 2016, Durban had a total of 5,798 reported cases of contact crime [crime against persons] including murder, sexual offences, attempted murder, assault with the intent to do grievous bodily harm, common assault, and robbery with aggravating circumstances.

4.3. Study Procedure

The following processes were followed during the research process:

- All the potential role players were informed of the planned study.
- Permission and ethical approval for this study were obtained from the following stakeholders:
  1. The Humanities and Social Sciences research Ethics Committee of the University of KwaZulu Natal- Howard College Campus.
  2. Manager of the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre.
  3. All participants who participated in the study.

4.4. Sampling Design

For the purpose of this study, the non-probability technique was employed. Non probability sampling techniques are used for situations in which sampling would be prohibitively expensive and when precise representativeness is not necessary (Babbie, 1990). Research design is a specification of the most adequate operations to be performed in order to test a specific hypothesis. This study can be considered a descriptive research. According to De Vos et al. (2002), this kind of study present a picture with respect to the details of the situation or social setting. This research is descriptive as it provides statistical description regarding the experiences of victims of domestic violence when they seek help from the police. In line with the quantitative methods which were used, the study adopted a positivism ontological and epistemological assumption of the researcher being an observer in making use of questionnaires and in understanding the information.
4.4.1. Characteristics of non-probability sampling technique

According to Bailey (1987) the following are characteristics of non-probability sampling:

- Every person who meets the criteria is asked to participate. In the current study, all victims of domestic violence residing at the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre’s safe house were asked to participate in the study.
- It is a less complicated and more economical procedure.
- The researcher’s judgement is used to select individual subjects who meet the eligibility criteria.

4.4.2. Research Instrument

The study adopted a quantitative research approach by assigning numerical value to concepts that were measured. Accordingly, it became important to develop a questionnaire that allowed for raw data to be coded and transferred in a statistical software for analysis. Questionnaires are thus forms containing questions to be answered by the respondent himself (Bailey, 1987:469-470). Sekeran (1992) regards it as an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variable of interest. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999:207), questionnaire writing involves deciding what variables to measure and how to accurately and adequately measure the variables. Researcher used closed or fixed alternative questions. The closed or fixed-alternative questions were considered to be a suitable since according to Schultz (1982:44), the fixed alternative question limits a person's answer to a fixed number of alternatives. Haralambos (1985:511) defines closed or fixed choice questions as those questions that require a choice between a number of given answers. O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999:210) also define closed-ended questions as those questions that ask the respondents to choose from a list of responses.

Below is the breakdown of the sections of the questionnaire:

- The first section of the questionnaire focused on the demographics of the participants. This section requested information concerning the gender, age group, race, ethnicity, occupation and the work experience of the participants.
- The second section of the questionnaire dealt with the participants’ details of victimization.
- The third section of the questionnaire looked at the experiences the participants had when interacting with the police when they went to seek help. This was done to
determine the existence and extent of secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police.

- The last section of the questionnaire was designed to measure the victims’ satisfaction with the services they received from the police when they sought help from incidences of domestic violence.

The questionnaire closed with two open ended questions which sought to ask the participants to give recommendations on how they would have preferred to be treated by the police. This was done to give insight on what the criminal justice can do to improve services rendered to victims of domestic violence.

4.4.3. Sample

A sample is a process of selecting some of the elements of the population with the aim of finding out something about the population from which they are taken (Kidder and Jude, 1986). Sekeran (1992) elaborates on the definition of sampling, he states that sampling is used as a process of selecting sufficient number of elements from the population so that by studying the properties or the characteristics of the sample of subjects, the researchers would be able to generalize the properties or characteristics to the population elements.

A non-probability sampling method by means of convenience sampling was employed in this study. Data was collected from the Umgeni Community Empowerment Centre members in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal. Umgeni Community Empowerment Centre is a not for profit public benefit organization that has as its primary focus on the care, counseling and rehabilitation of orphaned, abused or neglected children; marginalized communities; underprivileged families and individuals; victims of human trafficking; abused women; unemployed individuals; the destitute; commercial sex workers; persons afflicted with HIV/AIDS and indigent persons over the age of 60 years. All victims of domestic violence from the age of eighteen (18) years and older, who were residing at the Safe House at the time of data collection were included in the study. Participation was voluntary. Permission to conduct the study was sought and received from Umgeni Community Empowerment Centre Manager (See Annexure A) and consent was sought from each participant before participating in the study (see annexure B). A total of 24 women participated in the study. One woman at the Safe House was excluded from continuing with the study due to emotional stress.
4.4.4. Data Collection

For practical reasons, the study was limited to Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre in Durban. Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre is a not for profit public benefit organization that has as its primary focus on the care, counseling and rehabilitation of orphaned, abused or neglected children; marginalized communities; under-privileged families and individuals; victims of human trafficking; abused women; unemployed individuals; the destitute; commercial sex workers; persons afflicted with HIV/AIDS and indigent persons over the age of 60 years.

Data collection involved the administration of questionnaires to victims of domestic violence at the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre’s Safe House for victims of domestic violence concerning their experiences of secondary victimization by the police. Consent to direct the study was conceded effectively by different gatekeepers. Approval to conduct the study was granted by the manager at the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre. Permission and approval to conduct the study was approved by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

Research participants were given a consent document and the researcher explained the purpose of the study as mentioned in the informed consent document (Annexure B). The researcher administered the questionnaire with each of the study participants individually. The counselor at the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre was nearby to help participants should they experience emotional discomfort, yet not in the same room where the questionnaire was being administered. Data collection took about 30 minutes per participant.

4.4.5. Ethical Considerations

Research ethics is defined as moral principles that serve as rules of conduct and behavioral expectations about the right conduct towards research participants (Bayens and Roberson, 2011, Strydom, 2002a). As with any research, this study had ethical considerations to ensure the safeguarding of participants and warrant the integrity of the research. For the purpose of this study, the subsequent standards of conduct were adhered to in dealing with respondents: insuring there was no intended harm to participants, informed consent and protecting the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents.
The informed consent entails making the subject completely aware of the purpose of the study, its conceivable risks, and the credentials of the researchers (Bailey, 1982, p. 431). An informed consent document given to the research participants explained the nature and aim of the study. The informed consent document specified the identity, the institutional association of the researcher and the contact details of the supervisor. The consent form also specified that the study is voluntary and that participants may participate, refuse to take part in the study or simply leave at any stage of research if they choose. The study also guaranteed participants’ anonymity as well as participants’ confidentiality.

Maxfield and Babbie (2012) describe that anonymity is when the researcher cannot relate a given information with the individual. To ensure anonymity, the questionnaire did not require participants’ personal details; also, the questionnaires were not linked to the respondents’ consent forms. Confidentiality is the point at which the researcher is capable of connecting given information with person’s identity but guarantees to protect the person’s identity (Maxfield and Babbie, 2012). Information gathered from the educators remains held in a password protected file accessible only to the researcher.

4.4.6. Data Analysis and interpretation

This study made use of non-parametric statistical techniques. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. While inferential statistics allow for data gathered from a sample to be generalized to a broader population, descriptive statistics allow for the description of the sample itself (Dietz and Kalof, 2009). Since the study does not seek to generalize the findings to the general population of Umlazi, it was relevant to make use of descriptive statistics. The research data was analyzed using SPSS (version 25). To reinforce the quantitative aspect of the research, descriptive statistics which depicts the frequencies and percentages supports by bar diagrams were derived using Microsoft excel programme.

Collected data will be checked by the researcher for errors and inconsistencies in order to improve its quality before it is captured on a computer for analysis. Data will be analyzed with the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) system.
4.5. **Data Storage.**  
The collected data has been entered into a password protected computer for data analysis. On completion of thesis, hard copies of the questionnaire will be stored in a locked cupboard in the office of the Supervisor. Only the researcher and supervisor will have access to the data.

4.6. **Information Dissemination.**  
The results found in this study will be reported back to the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre by means of a formal presentation of the findings. Findings of this study may also be presented at research conferences and published in research journals. The Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre will also be made aware of all publications that may result from this research.

4.7. **Conclusion.**  
This chapter provided an explanation of the process employed while conducting the current research study. It described the research methodology used and the setting on which the data was collected. This chapter lays the foundation for chapter five, where the results are presented and analyzed in detail. The chapter gave a brief description of the location of study, Durban, including its demographics and crime, specifically contact crime, statistics. The current study procedure was included. This chapter also included the sampling design which was employed when conducting the study, the non-probability technique. Non probability sampling techniques are used for situations in which sampling would be prohibitively expensive and when precise representativeness is not necessary. In line with the quantitative methods which were used, the study adopted a positivism ontological and epistemological assumption of the researcher being an observer in making use of questionnaires and in understanding the information. This chapter also gave a description of the research instrument that was employed when collecting data. The study adopted a quantitative research approach by assigning numerical value to concepts that were measured. Accordingly, it became important to develop a questionnaire that allowed for raw data to be coded and transferred in a statistical software for analysis. Questionnaires are thus forms containing questions to be answered by the respondent himself. Also included in this study was a description of the data collection process, the ethical considerations, a brief overview of the data analysis and interpretation procedures, data storage and the dissemination of the findings of the study. This chapter paved the way for the subsequent chapters, especially Chapter Five, the Data presentation and Analysis chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE

5. Data presentation and Analysis

5.1. Introduction

This chapter details the findings of the study conducted among the 24 victims of domestic violence residing at the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre’s Safe House in Durban at the time of data collection. The results of the data generated through a rigorous and extensive administered questionnaire (discussed in chapter 4) is presented in detail in this Chapter. During the discussions in these findings, the researcher refers to the literature review in Chapter two to substantiate the findings.

The data was analyzed using SPSS (Version 25). Pearson correlation statistical technique was employed to establish correlations/relationships between the various independent variables (in this instance demographic detail) with the items on the questionnaire. The computed correlation coefficients (r) were interpreted either at 0.01 or 0.05 significant levels, as indicated in the respective tables. To reinforce the quantitative aspect of the research, descriptive statistics which depicts frequencies and percentages supported by bar diagrams were derived using Microsoft Excel programme.

The process of selecting the participants was discussed in detail in Chapter four (paragraph 4.3.3). All 24 (N) (100%) participants in this study were residents of a Safe House under the Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre in Durban, KwaZulu- Natal.

5.2. Demographic Data

This section of the data deals with the demographic information of the study respondents. The measured demographic characteristics of the respondents were age, ethnicity of the respondents, level of education, income and marital status. The study was conducted to measure secondary victimization of female victims of domestic violence and all the study respondents were females, therefore the gender of respondents was not included in the questionnaire. 24 participants answered the questionnaire.
The graph in figure 1. indicates the age of the respondents that participated in the current research study. Ten (N) (41.7%) of the participants were between the age group of 18-24 years, eight (N) (33.3%) respondents were between the age of 25-35 years, five (N) (20.8%) were between the age of 35-45 years and one (N) (4.2%) participant was in the age category of 46 years and older. This data is consistent the findings from other studies which found that the women who are most likely to be victims of domestic violence those in the age group of 18-24 years of age (Statistics South Africa, 2017; Hoque, Hoque & Kader 2009) which found that the highest prevalence of women that report incidences of victimization is between the ages of 18 and 24 years old.

Various factors contribute to the reflection of the statistics of the age of women that experience domestic violence. Some studies contribute the high statistics among the younger women, as compared to older ones, to non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence in older women, lack of knowledge of what constitutes domestic violence, culture and stigma associated with domestic violence, (Liang et al., 2005). According to the differential risk model of victimization, individuals are targeted based on their lifestyle choices which expose them to criminal offenders and situations in which crimes may be committed. Such lifestyle choices, which include going out at night alone, living in “bad” parts of town, associating with unknown felons, being promiscuous, doing drugs, etc., expose individuals to a high
likelihood of victimization (Siegel 2006). This pattern of lifestyle, as described by the differential risk model, is more prevalent in the younger members of the society, as opposed to the older people. People with a high risk lifestyle, such as drinking, taking drugs and interacting with criminals increase risk chances of victimization (Davis & Synman 2005:35; Siegel 2006:77).

Figure 2. Ethnicity of Respondents
Fig 2. illustrates the proportions of the ethnic groups which were represented in the current study population. The chosen ethnic groups were a representation of the ethnic demography of the general population of Durban. Respondents were not asked about their nationality, and therefore nationality was not measured. The highest ethnic representation among the respondents was the Coloured group with 15 (N) (62.5%) respondents. Black African participants counted for six (N) (25%), Caucasian participants were 2 (N) (8.3%) and the least ethnic group were Indians, with one (N) (4.2%) participant. Liang et al. (2005) argue that the low prevalence of reported incidences of domestic violence in the Caucasian and Indian groups may not be the actual representative of occurrences of incidences of domestic violence in those groups but can be attributed to cultural influences. Interpersonal and social cultural influences play a role in deciding to seek help for victims of domestic violence. Asian cultural traditions that emphasize family privacy, fear of divorce, and gender roles that place men in superior social standing may prevent many women from seeking help outside the family. Black women on the other hand, when deciding to seek help at shelters for victims of violence, they continue to ask themselves “If I go outside my community, will I be the only Black person there”.

**Level of Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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**Table 1. Level of Education of Respondents**

Table 1. above details the highest level of education participants of the current study have. 45% (11 N) of the participants reported to have completed primary school as their highest
level of education. Eight (N) respondents (33.3%) of the respondents had completed high school and five (N) (20.8%) of the respondents reported that they did not complete primary schooling.

**Level of employment**

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<td>8.3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</table>

Table 2. Types of employment

![Figure 3. Types of employment](image-url)
The majority (50%) of the current study population was unemployed, as shown in Table 2 and Fig.3. 33.3% of the respondents reported that they were employed on a fulltime basis. These respondents, when questioned further by the researcher, reported that the type of employment they were involved in was in the form of general and domestic work. 8.3% were employed on a part-time basis while another 8.3% was self-employed. The 8.3% of respondents that was employed part time reported that the part time work they were involved in included part time domestic work. The 8.3% of respondents that was self-employed reported that they generated income by sewing and by selling women’s accessories in their community. On follow up questions, almost all the participants who were employed reported that their employment and ability to earn an income was negatively affected when they took residency at the Safe House. The reported employed in the current study refers to their employment status prior the incidence of domestic violence.

![Monthly Income Chart](image)

**Figure 4. Monthly Income.**

Figure 4. illustrates that 91.7%, 22(N), of the respondents reported an income of below R2000 per month. These respondents included those that reported to be unemployed and thus, without an income. The main source of income on this group of respondents was the government’s social grants for children in their care. 8.3%, a number of two respondents
responded a monthly income of between R2000- R5000. This finding supports various studies which suggests lack of financial income, or financial dependency as a factor associated with women who are victims of domestic violence (Sphon & Tellis 2012; Seabi & Naidoo 2009; Vetten 2005; Fugate et al., 2005). Seabi and Naidoo (2009) state that poverty seems to impact on women’s response to abuse. In the study conducted Seabi and Naidoo (2009) found that poorer people were exposed and socialized to accept violence, whilst other groups might be more resistant. The findings of the current study support assumptions that poverty plays a role in women’s likelihood to become victims of domestic violence.

When inquired further by the researcher about the financial dependency on the perpetrator of the incidence of domestic violence, about 70% of the respondents reported that their offender had been their main provider for their financial and insurance needs. These findings can be explained by the Social Structural Theory, which states that victimization reflects the economic and the power structures of a society (Cohen, Kluegel & Land, 1981). Marginalized, powerless minorities that have been pushed towards the edge of society are often forced into becoming victims. Structural violence, social discrimination, turns into personal violence. Schneider (2001) explains that the social pressure imposed on marginalized minorities leads to social disorganization and the decay of relationships and communities, causing a susceptibility on individuals to become victims.

### Marital status

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<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3. Marital Status*
Table 3. above describes the marital status of the participants in the current research study. Marital status was measured to explore the link between domestic violence and the marital status of the respondents. A number of studies on victims of domestic violence state that unmarried women are more at risk of domestic violence as compared to women who are married (Seabi & Naidoo 2009; Abramsky et al., 2011). These studies also provide that these statistics are based on reported incidences of domestic violence.

In the current study seventeen (17N) (70.8%) of the respondents were single women, one respondent (4.2%) was married, two respondents (8.3%) was divorced, 8.3% of the study respondents was separated, one respondent (4.2%) was widowed and one other respondent (4.2%) reported that she had recently found out that someone had married her without her knowledge. She is registered as married with the Home Affairs however, she does not know and has never met the person she is married to. Findings of the current study support the findings in previous studies (Seabi & Naidoo 2009; Abramsky et al., 2011) when measuring marital status and the link to domestic violence; whereby single (unmarried) women are more likely to experience domestic violence. When applying the routine activities theory to explain the link between high incidences of victimisation on single women: it could be believed that in the absence of a protective guardian, in this instance a marital spouse/ the institution of marriage, one is exposed to victimisation by their casual dating partner.

5.3. Details of victimization

This section of the data deals with the information describing the condition or setting in which domestic violence took place. The measured variables include the respondent’s relationship to the abuser; the nature of the domestic abuse; the frequency of incidences of victimization; number of children in the care of the respondent at the time of victimization; whether or not the incidents of victimization were reported to the police and the status and/or outcome of the case should the incidence have been reported.

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1 Casual dating or a casual relationship is a physical and emotional relationship between two people who may have casual sex or a near-sexual relationship without necessarily demanding or expecting the extra commitments of a more formal romantic relationship. [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Casual_dating](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Casual_dating)
Figure 5. Relationship with the abuser

Figure 5. depicts the relationship of the participants of the study to their abusers. Five (N) (20.8%) of the respondents were abused by their husbands, the highest group (14N) (58.3%) of the respondents were abused by their partners/boyfriends; these are people that the respondents were currently in a romantic relationship with but were not married to. Two (N) (8.3%) respondents were victimised by ex-husband/ex-boyfriend; these are people whom the respondents had had a romantic relationship with, however at the time of victimization the romantic relationship was not active. 12.5% (3N) respondents of the current study reported that they were victimised by people they did not have a romantic but a domestic relationship with. These include family members, acquaintances and friends.

The routine activities theory provides for a familiar relationship between the victim and the offender. According to this theory, the routine activity theory explains the rate of victimization through a set of situations that reflect the routines of a typical individual (Davis 2005; Siegel 2006). This reveals that there should be some repeated exposure, a relationship, between the victim and the offender for the likelihood of crime to take place. The theory stresses, among other elements that create an opportunity for violation; the importance of the availability of suitable targets (victim of crime), include the value of the target (financial or symbolic), physical visibility (the risk to be observed by potential offenders), accessibility.
(approaching the potential victim without the risk of attracting attention) and effortlessness (the ease with which the target is selected and acquired). This theory provides that victims are at risk of victimisation from those they are familiar with rather than strangers, as is evident in cases of domestic violence.

**Figure 6. Nature of the abuse**

The respondents were asked about the nature of the abuse and given three options to choose from which included physical abuse, emotional abuse and a combination of physical and emotional abuse. Figure 6. shows the results of the respondents on the question of the nature of abuse. 62.5% (15N) of the respondents reported to have experienced physical violence. These include rape, assault, and assault with grievous bodily harm. 37.5% (9N) respondents reported that they had experienced a combination of physical and emotional abuse. The definition of emotional abuse for the purposes include any act including confinement, isolation, verbal assault, humiliation, intimidation, infantilization, or any other treatment which may diminish the sense of identity, dignity, and self-worth\(^2\). None of the respondents reported to have experienced emotional abuse as the only form of abuse experienced.

\(^2\) [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychological_abuse](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychological_abuse)
The respondents were asked to indicate the number of incidences of victimization that they had experienced, whether or not these were reported. This was done to ascertain whether or not respondents had endured multiple incidences of victimisation before seeking help. This variable was important to further investigate the reasons why women decide on whether or not seek help and to ascertain whether help was sought immediately or victims endured victimisation until the acts of victimisation became severe. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency of their victimization by choosing one among four options which closely describes their situation in the past twelve months. The options given to choose from were of the incidence of victimisation occurring once, once every month, once every week and every day.

The majority of the respondents, 62.5% (15N) reported to have experienced incidences of victimisation once every week. This group of respondents mentioned that the acts of victimisation were more likely to take place over weekends and alcoholic intoxication was mostly a contributing factor to victimisation. 20.8% (5N) of the respondents reported to have experienced victimization on a daily basis. This was in the form of both physical and psychological abuse. 12.5% (3N) respondents revealed that they experienced victimisation once every month. When inquired further about the characteristics of the events that
surrounded the time in which the incidence of victimisation, respondents provided that victimisation would take place on or after payday, and usually under the environment of intoxication. One (N) (4.2%) participant reported to have experienced the domestic violence once.

Figure 8. Number of children in your care

Figure 8. demonstrates the frequency of the number of children in the care of the respondents. This variable was measured to ascertain whether the presence of children has a deterring effect from incidences of abuse, and the possible exposure of children to domestic violence. Children and adolescents living with domestic violence are at increased risk of experiencing emotional, physical and sexual abuse, of developing emotional and behavioural problems and of increased exposure to the presence of other adversities in their lives (Holt et al., 2006). Nineteen (N) (79.2%) of the respondents did not have children in their care at the time of victimization. 16.7% (4N) respondents had between and 2 children in their care and one (N) (4.2%) respondent had more than three children in her care.
Figure 9. Was the incidence of victimization reported?

Figure 9. illustrates the frequency of reporting the acts of victimization to the police. Reporting domestic violence is important in addressing the challenge of domestic violence in society (Felson et al., 2005). When crimes are reported there opportunity for legal and therapeutic intervention is increased, and subsequently a just and lawful society (Knoth & Ruback 2016). However, available data suggests that some women do not report incidences of domestic violence to the police because they feel that ‘it is not worth the effort’ (Fugate et al.; 2005).

In the present study (79.2%) (19N) respondents had reported occurrences of domestic violence that they experienced to the police. Some respondents had experienced other incidences of domestic violence, however, for the purposes of the study, the incidences refered to are the ones that were reported to the police. The researcher asked if they had, at any time in their life, experienced and reported an occurrence of domestic violence to the police. 20.8% (5%N) of the respondents had not reported the incidences of domestic violence to the police. This applies to all acts of domestic violence experienced, with those who experienced multiple incidences of domestic violence. This group of women had never reported domestic violence to the police. According to Felson et al. (2002) victims of family members are more likely than victims of strangers to call the police to protect themselves from further attacks. The reasons why the respondents did not report violation to the police
are given in the illustration below.

Figure 10. Reasons for not reporting victimization

Figure 10. provides for reasons why the respondents did not report domestic violence to the police. Three (3N) women mentioned that they did not report domestic violence to the police because they did not believe that the police were going to be helpful. One (1N) woman said that the reason she did not report victimization to the police was because she was embarrassed and ashamed. One (1N) other respondent said that the reason she did report victimization to the police was because she did not want the abuser to be arrested.
Police attitudes and their responses to crime are very important when making the decision on whether to report the crime or not (Vetten 2005). The manner in which the police respond to reports of domestic violence determines whether or not victims of domestic will report incidences of victimization in the future (Wolf, et al.; 2003). In their analysis of police attitudes towards policing intimate partner violence, Gracia et al. (2011) explain how the police attitudes towards domestic violence influence their reactions when incidences of domestic violence are brought to the police. First, police attitudes may shape victims’ opinions of police responses and helpfulness, influencing their future willingness to report incidents and call the police for help. Second, police attitudes are likely to determine the assessment and responses to the reported incident of domestic violence. Different police attitudes may also directly affect, by facilitating or inhibiting, the entry of cases of partner violence against women into the legal system. Third, gaining a better understanding of police attitudes and its psychosocial correlates may be of particular importance for police recruiting and training, as it may reveal important areas that should be targeted during these processes (Gracia et al.; 2011).

Figure 11. depicts the frequency of actions taken by police when domestic violence incidences are reported. 63.3% (12N) of the women who had reported the incidences of
domestic violence mentioned that the police did arrest the offender. The participants reported that they were given a range of advice by the police instead. The advice given ranged from leaving their partner (abuser); discuss the matter with family to find a harmonious solution; to go “sleep on the decision” of wanting to have their partner arrested. 15.7% (3N) participants reported that the police arrested the perpetrator of the incidence of domestic violence. 10.5% (2N) participants reported that they were advised by the police to go sort things out with their abuser. Lastly, 10.5% (2N) women reported that the case against the abuser had gone dormant and nothing had been happening with the case. These findings reflect that the police’s attitudes towards domestic violence to be in favour of psychosocial methods rather than the legal route for solving matters of domestic violence.

Vetten (2005) cites that In S v Baloyi the Constitutional Court held that the Constitution imposes a direct obligation on the state to protect the right of all persons to be free from domestic violence. In Carmichele v Minister of Safety and Security the High Court held that the common law of delict required development in order to reflect the constitutional duty on the state and, in particular the police and the prosecution, to protect the public in general, and women in particular, against the invasion of their fundamental rights by the perpetrators of violent crime. The court accordingly held that the test for unlawfulness (the legal convictions of the community) must be redefined in the light of the Constitution, and that the police and prosecution thus owed the plaintiff a legal duty to protect her against the risk of sexual violence. In the circumstances of the case in Van Eeden v Minister of Safety and Security the Supreme Court of Appeal held that the respondent owed a legal duty to the appellant to take reasonable steps to prevent an escaped serial rapist from causing her harm (Vetten 2005).

These cases show that the justice system, especially the police, has a tendency to act negligently towards the victims of domestic violence. Unfortunately, when police have acted negligently towards victims of domestic violence, it is only those that have financial resources to seek appeal from higher courts that actually get the justice.

5.4. Experiences with the Police

This section of the data deals with the information describing the experience that the respondents had when interacting with the police. The measured variables include the respondents’ perception of the police psychosocial profiles, compliance with the provisions of the Domestic Violence Act (116 of 1998) when dealing with victims of domestic violence
and measuring the respondents satisfaction with the service they received when interacting with the police. These variables were measured using ordinal scales of very often, often, neutral, sometimes and not at all scales were used mostly for those respondents to whom the questions of experiences with the police were not applicable.

Figure 12 shows the frequency at which the study respondents views the police to be showing understanding towards the victim when they reported an incidence of domestic violence. Understanding, for the purposes of the current study, refers to a person’s ability to be sympathetically aware of other people's feelings; tolerant and forgiving\textsuperscript{3}. 33.3\% of the respondents reported that the police did not at all show understanding towards them during their interactions with the police. 8.3\% of the respondents felt that the police were sometimes understanding towards them. 25\% of the respondents were neutral of their perceptions of the police’s understanding towards them. This group (6N) (20.8\%) includes five respondents who had not reported their victimization to the police. 20.8\% of the respondents alleged that they often perceived the police to be understanding with them and 12.5\% alleged that the police were very often understanding towards them.
Figure 13. Did police appear concerned?

Figure 13. illustrates the respondents’ perception of the police apprehensiveness towards the reported incident of domestic violence. This variable was measured to ascertain the level at which the victims of domestic violence perceived care from the police when they reported incidences of domestic violence. Police demeanours are important because it reflects the police beliefs and assumptions about the victim, the perpetrator, the nature of their relationship and the type of relationship the police officer should establish with the victim reporting the incident of domestic violence. A hostile police officer who makes it clear by his conduct that domestic violence are not his idea of real police work confirms a victim’s feelings of worthlessness and fears that nothing will be done to change the situation; whereas the presence of a police officer whose manner expresses concern and seriousness of purpose assures the victims that she deserves a nonviolent life and will be safe (Stephens and Sinden; 2000).

As shown in figure 13. Above, the majority of the respondents (29.2%) (7N) reported that the police did not at all show concern. 8.3% of the respondents reported that the police sometimes did appear concerned, 25% of the respondents who reported incidences of domestic violence
domestic violence to the police reported that the police often appeared to be concerned and 16.7% of the respondents reported that the police appeared concerned often during their interactions with them.

Figure 14. Police attentiveness to the victim.

In a study of victims of domestic violence demeanor, (Stephens & Sinden 2000) it was found that victims perceived police’s unwillingness to spend enough time listening to the complainant as a clear reflection of disinterest in their condition. Figure 14. illustrates the frequency at which the respondents perceived the police to have been paying attention to them when reporting the incident of victimization. This variable was also important to measure the level at which the victims felt believed and protected when reporting domestic violence to the police. 33.3% (8N) participants of the current study reported that the police did not pay attention at all to them when they reported domestic victimization. 4.2% (1N) of the respondents reported that the police sometimes did pay attention to them. 29.2% (7N) of the respondents recounted that the police often took time to listen, that they paid attention to them when reporting domestic victimization. Lastly, 12.5% (3N) of the respondents reported
that very often the police took time to listen to them when reporting the incidences of domestic violence.

![Chart showing the percentage of respondents who reported different levels of police interaction with them and the perpetrator separately.]

**Figure 15. Did the police speak to you and the perpetrator separately?**

It is important for victims of personal crimes to feel safe after the incidence of victimization. One of the ways the police can protect them is to shield them from the perpetrator. This variable was included to measure the level of safety created by the police for the victims of domestic violence. 45% of the respondents (11N) reported that the police did not at all speak to them and the perpetrator separately. All these respondents also reported that the police did not, at all, question or speak to the perpetrator, neither in their presence or separately. 16.5% of the respondents also reported that the police sometimes did speak to them and the perpetrator separately. 20.8% of the respondents who reported to be neutral on whether or not the police questioned them and the perpetrator separately are the participants who had reported that they did not report their victimization to the police. 8.3% of the participants reported that the police often spoke to and questioned them and their offenders separately. 8.3% (2N) of the respondents reported that the police very often spoke to them and their offenders separately.
Figure 16. Did the police question any witnesses?

Figure 16. illustrates the percentage at which the police had questioned witnesses on the reported cases of domestic violence. This variable was measure to ascertain the level of importance the police placed domestic violence incidences on. According to Orth (2002) it was found that interactions of crime victims with the criminal justice system increases the psychological difficulties caused by the primary victimization. In a study of rape victims legal secondary victimization (e.g., the police told the victim the case was not serious enough to pursue) was positively associated with post-traumatic stress reactions. Victims of crime are exposed to and experience secondary victimization when the police feel that the case is not serious enough to pursue. The majority of the study participants, 54.2% (13N), reported that the police did not at all question witnesses about the crime reported to them by the respondents. The unwillingness by the police to spend enough time to legally resolve the case brought before them was perceived to indicate police’s lack of interest in the case. 16.7% (4N) of the respondents reported that the police sometimes did question witnesses about the crime of domestic violence reported. 29.2% (7N) of the respondents gave a neutral response to the question of whether or not police did question witnesses of the reported incidence of domestic violence. 20.8% (5N) of these respondents had not reported the incidence of domestic violence to the police.
Police demeanors and attitudes play a very important role in the perceived sense of safety that victims of domestic violence experience when reporting incidences of victimization (Stephens & Sinden 2000). Police attitudes and responses to intimate partner violence send a clear message to the victims, offenders, and wider community concerning the level of social disapproval and reprobation, or conversely social tolerance towards domestic violence (Gracia et al., 2011). Figure 17. demonstrates the occurrence on which the police gathered evidence for the reported incidence of domestic violence. This variable was also measured to determine the amount of time and resources the police invested to resolve reported cases of domestic violence. 37.5% (9N) of the respondents responded that the police did not at all look or ask for evidence for the reported case of domestic violence. 12.5% (3N) of the respondents reported that the police sometimes did look or ask for evidence. 8.3% of the respondents (3N) reported that the police often looked or asked for evidence while 41.7% (10N) of the study population reported a neutral response to the question.

Figure 17. Did police look or ask for evidence?
Figure 18. Did the police make an arrest?

Figure 18. illustrates the number of times that the police made an arrest on reported cases of domestic violence. 58.3% (14N) of the study population reported that the police did not make an arrest after the incidence of domestic violence was reported to them. The respondents were instead given different advice by the police which included that the victim should go home to try and solve the problem with the perpetrator; the victim should rather break up and/or move away from the offender or the victim should come back the next day after they have given it a thought and have decided that they really do want the perpetrator to be arrested. 4.2% of the respondents reported that the police sometimes did make an arrest. 12.5% of the respondents reported that the police often made an arrest when incidences of domestic violence were reported. 4.2% of the respondents reported that the police very often made an arrest for domestic violence.

5.5. Victims’ satisfaction with the service received from the police

This section of the data deals with the information describing the level of satisfaction with the service that the respondents received when interacting with the police. The measured variables include the respondents’ perception of the police psychosocial profiles, compliance with the provisions of the Domestic Violence Act (116 of 1998) when dealing with victims of
domestic violence and measuring the respondents satisfaction with the service they received when interacting with the police. These variables were measured using ordinal scales of very good, good, moderate, bad and very bad. Moderate scales were used mostly for those respondents to whom the questions of experiences with the police were not applicable. This section also includes analysed data of the study participants’ recommendations of how they would have preferred the police to have done, as well as their future help seeking attitudes.

Figure 19. Overall satisfaction with service received from the police.

Figure 19. represents the participants’ opinion of the service received from the police. When members of a society protect victims from domestic violence, victims may be more inclined to seek help (Coulter et al.; 1999). Unfortunately, increasingly victims feel unprotected by the police. Available data suggests that some women do not report incidences of domestic violence to the police because they feel that ‘it is not worth the effort’ (Fugate et al.; 2005). As depicted on figure 19, 37.5% (9N) of the participants in the current study found the service received from the police to be very bad. 12.5% (3N) of the participants reported that they received bad service from the police. Another 12.5% (3N) of the participants reported that the service they received from the police was good. 37.5% (9N) of the participants’ opinion of the service rendered by the police towards victims of domestic violence was moderate. None of the respondents selected the option of very good to describe their level of satisfaction with the service they received from the police.
It is important that police officers working victims of contact crime be sympathetic because the nature of contact crimes makes victims feel vulnerable. According to Stephens and Sinden (2000), the presence of an empathetic police officer whose manner expresses concern and seriousness of purpose assures the victims that she deserves a nonviolent life and will be safe (Stephens & Sinden 2000). Figure 20. illustrates the level of satisfaction of the victims of domestic violence, who participated in the current study, with the level of empathy shown by the police. 8.3% (2N) of the participants reported that the level of empathy shown by the police who assisted them was very good. Majority of the study participants were satisfied with the level of empathy shown by the police. 33.3% (8N) of the respondents reported that the level of empathy or courtesy shown by the police was good. 8.3% of the respondents were unhappy with the level of empathy shown by the police. These respondents rated the level of police empathy as bad. Another group of participants who were not satisfied with the level of empathy shown by the police was the 29.2% (7N) of the participants who rated their police empathy as very bad. 20.8% (5N) of the respondents rated police empathy as moderate. These were the study participants who had not reported the incidence of victimization to the police.
Figure 21. Satisfaction with presentation of Referral Information.

The South African Domestic Violence Act (116 of 1998) provides that the police are mandated to present the victims of domestic violence with referral information relevant to them. The Domestic Violence Act states that police officers must, at the scene of an incident of domestic violence or as soon thereafter as is reasonably possible, or whether the incident of domestic violence is reported; render such assistance to the complainant as may be required in the circumstances, including assisting or making arrangements for the complainant to find a suitable shelter and to obtain medical treatment; if it reasonably possible to do so, hand the notice containing information as prescribed to the complainant in the official language of the complainant’s choice. Omitting to do so, the police would be liable of secondary victimizing the complaints by omission. Figure 21. describes the complainants’ satisfaction of the police’ presentation of referral information. 8.3% of the respondents were satisfied with the police’ presentation of referral information to them, they rated the presentation of referral information by the police as very good. 29.2% of the respondents rated the police’s presentation of referral information to them as good. 2 participants, 8.3% rated the presentation of the referral information by the police as bad. Another group that was unhappy about police’s presentation of referral information was the 29.2% (7N) of the respondents who rated presentation of referral information by the police as very bad. 25% (6N) of the respondents rated police’s presentation of referral information as moderate.
Figure 22. Overall satisfaction with the police.

Figure 22. represents the participants’ overall satisfaction with the police. Research conducted on non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence attributes non-reporting behavior to various factors, including the victims’ perceptions of the police. In the study, Fugate et al. (2005) suggests that some women do not report incidences of domestic violence to the police because they feel that ‘it is not worth the effort’. The variable of overall satisfaction with the police was measured to determine the respondents’ perception of the police after their interaction post reporting incidences of domestic violence. Figure 22. shows that 33.3% (8N) of the participants in the current study rated their overall satisfaction with the police as very bad. 16.7% (4N) of the participants rated their satisfaction with the police as bad. 8.3% (2N) of the participants reported that their overall satisfaction with the police was good. 41.7% (10N) of the participants rated their overall satisfaction with the police as moderate. None of the respondents selected the option of very good to describe their overall satisfaction with the police.
Figure 23. Satisfaction with police response time.

Figure 23. reflects the participants’ overall satisfaction with the police response time. Police response time for the purpose of this study refers to the promptness at which the police responded when they were called for help and/or attended to the complainant when they sought help. 4.2% of the study sample rated the promptness at which police responded as very good. 37.5% of the respondents rated the police response time as good. 20.8% of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the police response time as moderate. 4.2% of the respondents rated their overall satisfaction with the police response time as bad while 33.3% (8N) of the respondents were unhappy with the police response time. These respondents rated their satisfaction as very bad.
Figure 24. Overall satisfaction with the criminal court proceedings.

Figure 24. describes the study respondent’s overall satisfaction with the court proceedings. Many research studies have attributed the withdrawal of charges by victims of domestic violence to factors such as fear to relive the experience of victimization during trial but also to fear of secondary victimization (Wemmers 1996). This variable was measured to determine the impact of interactions during criminal proceedings in court had on the victims of domestic violence. One respondent (4.2%) reported that she was satisfied with the overall criminal proceedings. Their rating for this variable was “good”. 29.2% (7N) of the respondents were not satisfied with the overall criminal proceedings. This group of respondents rated their overall satisfaction with court criminal proceedings as “very bad”. 66.7% of the respondents rated the overall satisfaction with criminal court proceedings as moderate. This group of respondents’ cases had not reached the trial stage.
Figure 25. Overall satisfaction with the outcomes of the case.

Figure 25. describes the respondents’ overall satisfaction with the outcomes of the case. 4.2% of the respondents reported satisfaction with the overall outcomes of the case. Their rating of their satisfaction with the outcomes of the case was “good”. Another 4.2% of the respondents reported dissatisfaction with the case outcome. Their rating for the overall satisfaction with the case outcomes was “bad”. 29.2% (7N) of the respondents’ satisfaction was neutral. This group of respondents rated their overall satisfaction with the case outcomes as “moderate”. The largest group of respondents were not happy with the outcomes of the case. 62.5% of the respondents rated their overall satisfaction with the outcomes of the case as “very bad”.
Figure 26. Future help seeking.

Figure 26. describes the study participants’ attitudes towards help seeking in the future. Various studies conducted on victims of domestic violence’ choice of reporting on non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence to the police is influenced by the victims experience and perceptions of police helpfulness (Fugate et al., 2005; Stephens & Sinden, 2000; Coulter et al., 1999 and Felson et al., 2005). The participants’ future help seeking attitudes was measured to determine whether their interactions and experiences had an impact on their perceptions of reporting incidences of victimization to the police. This variable was also important in explaining the non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence by the victims of domestic violence who repeatedly experience victimization. Three quarters of the study population 75% (18N) reported that they would not report incidences of domestic violence to the police in the future. 25% (6N) of the respondents reported that they would report incidences of domestic violence to the police in the future. Figure 27 below provides the motivation for the respondents’ attitudes towards future help seeking.
Figure 27. Motivation for attitude on future help seeking.

Figure 27. details the motivations for the attitudes of the study participants regarding future help seeking, as states on figure 26 above. The respondents were given four options and instructed to select the one that closely describe their reason for their attitude towards seeking help from the police in the future. The options given to choose from were as follows: Yes, I would report incidences of victimization in the future because the police are helpful; yes I would report incidences of victimization in the future because reporting is the right thing to do and I will continue doing it; No, I will not report to the police in the future because it is pointless, the police are not helpful; and no, I will not report incidences of victimization in the future because reporting makes the perpetrator even more angry. 16.7% (4N) of the respondents mentioned that they will report incidences of victimization in the future because the police are helpful. 62.5% (15N) of the participants explained that they would not report incidences of victimization to the police in the future because it is pointless, the police are not helpful. This group of respondents’ attitudes can be explained using the Social Structural Theory, which states that victimization reflects the economic and the power structures of a society (Cohen, Kluegel & Land, 1981). Marginalized, powerless minorities that have been pushed towards the edge of society are often forced into becoming victims. Structural violence, social discrimination, turns into personal violence. The social pressure imposed on marginalized minorities leads to social disorganization and the decay of relationships and
communities, causing a susceptibility on individuals to become victims (Schneider 2001). This theory explains how marginalized powerless groups of society, in the case of this study women, are victimized. 16.7% (4N) of the respondents explained that they would report incidences of domestic victimization to the police in the future because reporting is the right thing to do. 4.2% (1N) of the respondents explained that they would not report incidences of victimization in the future because reporting makes the perpetrator even angrier which leads to more victimization. This attitude whereby the victim takes responsibility for the perpetrator is explained by the Belief in the Just World Theory. According to the Belief in the Just World Theory, innocent victims are made responsible for situations that they objectively could not have been able to prevent (Brickman, 1982). This means that besides having to deal with the negative consequences of the event that victimized them (primary victimization) - they are victimized once again (secondary victimization), which also implies an absence of the social support which research has shown to be crucial for the physical and psychological wellbeing of the victim (Correia & Vala 2003). According to the Belief in a Just World (BJW) theory, all people have the need to believe that the world they live in is just place, where each person gets what he/she deserves so that they can live in confidence of the future and carry-out long term projects.

Figure 28. Recommendations.
The last question of the current research tool asked the participants to recommend what they would have expected the police to do in order to improve their interactions with victims when reporting incidences of domestic violence. Figure 28. details the responses given by the participants. The question was an open ended question and the researcher has grouped the responses given by the respondents into five responses which include: “I would have liked for the police to not look at my situation as a joke”; “I would have liked for the police to act and arrest my abuser”; “I would have liked the police to not fear my abuser”; “I would have liked for the police to treat me with respect” and “I would advise more women to report incidences of domestic violence to the police”. 12.5% (3N) of the respondents mentioned that they would have liked for the police to not treat their situation as a joke. This group of participants reported that they did not feel that the police took their matter seriously or that it needed legal attention. 58.3% of the respondents (15N) mentioned that they would have liked for the police to take action and arrest their abuser. This group of respondents reported that the police did not care about their safety and were not interested in the reported case of domestic violence. Some of the women in this group reported that they were told by the police to go and resolve the matter with their families, including the abuser. 4.2% (1N) respondents mentioned that they would have liked the police to not fear the abuser. The respondents reported that the abuser was a well-known criminal in their area and the police were afraid to arrest him, even she had offered them evidence of his other crimes, including drug dealing and robberies. The respondents mentioned that the police informed her that they cannot help her, and advised her to run away from the perpetrator to save her life. The respondents reflected that her interaction with the police left her hopeless and skeptical of possible safety that could be provided by the police. 16.7% (4N) of the respondents stated that they would have like the police to treat them with respect. This group of respondents mentioned the police expressed demeanors that did showed disrespect and mistrust. One of the respondents mentioned that the police said: “Where are we going to find the person who assaulted you? Go and find them and him here with you”. The respondent stated that she felt that they police did not take her seriously and disrespected her. 8.3% (2N) of the respondents stated that they had positive experiences with the police and would advise other victims of domestic violence to report incidences of domestic violence.
The results on figure 28. above show that there is a prevalence of secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence experienced in their interactions with the police when they seek help.

5.6. Conclusion.

This chapter has detailed the data analysis of the current study. The researcher analyzed the data to try to determine and explain the prevalence of secondary victimization by the police when victims of domestic violence seek help and to determine the link between the treatments by police to non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence in the future. The analysis covered and explained, using theories and previous research studies on domestic violence, the respondents’ data pertaining to their demographic information, details of victimization, experiences with police, and victim’s satisfaction with the service received from the police. The data was segmented into four sections; the demographic data, details of victimization, experiences with the police and the victims’ satisfaction with the service received when they sought help from the police. The demographic data results showed that the participants of the study were a similar representation of the previous national studies conducted on victims of domestic violence. Majority of the participants, were in the age group of 18-24 years; of the Coloured ethnic group; were unmarried; with a level of education of completed primary school; were unemployed. On the section of details of victimization, the data revealed that the majority of the participants were victimized by their boyfriends or partners; they mostly experienced the physical form of domestic violence; experienced victimization at the frequency of every week; they had reported the incidences of domestic victimization to the police and the majority of reported cases did not result in an arrest of the perpetrator.

The chapter also looked at the experiences that the study participants had when interacting with the police. Majority of the responded reported negative experiences with the police, reporting that the police did not at all show understanding and concern of their predicament and that the police did not give much attention to their case. The effect of these experiences, as shown by the study findings, resulted in the victims’ dissatisfaction the service they received when seeking help from the police.
CHAPTER SIX

6. Discussion and Recommendations

6.1. Introduction

This chapter will describe the findings of the study, the discussion and also recommendations for future for policy and future research on secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police. Some of the themes that were discussed in Chapter five will firstly be presented in relation to the overall aim and the objectives of the study. The current study sought to answer three questions: What is the prevalence of secondary victimization by the police when victims of domestic violence seek help? What is the impact of the treatment of victims of domestic violence receive from the Police system? Is there a link between the treatment by police to non-reporting of domestic violence incidences in the future? This chapter will discuss the study findings with the purpose of answering the three questions of the study.

The study investigated the prevalence and impact of secondary victimisation on the victims of Domestic Violence perpetrated by the South African Police Services in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. This chapter summarises the study processes and provides appropriate conclusions based on the findings. The recommendations section concludes the discussion in the chapter.

The study aimed to determine the prevalence and impact of secondary victimization on victims of domestic violence perpetrated by the South African Police Services. The study objectives included: (1) to determine prevalence of secondary victimization by the police when victims of domestic violence seek help; (2) to quantify the impact of the treatment victims of domestic violence receive from the Police system to the withdrawal of charges; (3) to determine the link between the treatment by police to non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence in the future.

Theories of victimisation as well as findings from various research studies on domestic violence and secondary victimization were used to describe and explain the conditions that predispose people to victimization. Attention was placed on the South African legislation and
responses to domestic violence, together with victim’s experiences with the South African Police Service.

The study was conducted using a quantitative approach. Quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire, administered by the researcher. The questionnaire included both closed and open-ended questionnaires. The study population were 24 female victims of domestic violence, aged from 18 years to 46+, residing at Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre’s Safe House.

6.2. Findings

The following themes were highlighted in the Chapter Five and will be discussed further below, in relation to the study aims and objectives. The themes to be discussed are the demographics of victims of domestic violence in Durban, details of victimization as experienced by the victims of domestic violence, prevalence of secondary victimization on victims of domestic violence when seeking help, perpetrated by police and the future help-seeking attitudes of victims of domestic violence in Durban.

6.2.1. Demographics of victims of domestic violence in Durban

In the current study, domestic violence was highly prevalent at 41% in women aged between 18-25 years in Durban, KwaZulu Natal. The data supports findings in National research studies, which found that prevalence of domestic violence is highly prevalent between the age group of 18 to 24 years (Statistics South Africa, 2017; Hoque, Hoque and Kader, 2009). Prevalence between the age groups 26-35 years, 36-45 years and 46 years and above was found to be 33.3%, 20.8% and 4.2% respectively. These findings show that the likelihood of being victim of domestic violence decreasing with an increase in age. 62.5% of the study population were Coloured women, 25% were Black Africans, 8.3% were Caucasians and 4.2% were Indian women.

Education was found to be a significant factor in determining the likelihood of being victim to domestic violence. Less educated women in the study reported high prevalence of domestic violence than the more educated study participants. 45.8% of the respondents had completed primary school education, 20, 8% had not completed primary school education, and only
33.3% had completed high school education. None of the respondents had proceeded to institutions of higher education. The socio-economic status of the individuals was found to be a significant factor to characterize likelihood to victimization. All the participants of the study were from a poor socio-economic background. The majority of the participants, 50% were unemployed and dependent on social grants for income; 33.3% were employed fulltime, doing general and domestic work; 8.3% were employed on a part time basis for domestic work and another 8.3% of the respondents were self-employed. 91.7% had an income of less than R2000 per month, while 8.3% had an income between R2000 to R5000 per month.

6.2.2. Details of victimization

In the current study, details of victimization were analyzed to describe the conditions or settings in which domestic violence took place. Interesting findings that stood out from this research on the details of victimization include finding that likelihood of victimization was high on unmarried women. 58.3% of the participants were abused by their boyfriends/partners as compared to the 20.3% of victims abused by their husbands. 8.3% of the women that participated in the study were victimized by someone they no longer had a romantic relationship with, an ex-husband or ex-boyfriend. 12.5% of the respondents were victimized by someone they did not have a romantic relationship with but instead had a domestic relationship in the form of a family member, friend or an acquaintance.

Physical abuse was found to be the highest prevalence form of abuse reported by victims of domestic violence. These include rape, assault, and assault with grievous bodily harm. 62.5% of the study population were victims of domestic violence in the form of physical abuse while 37.5% of the respondents reported to have suffered domestic violence in the form of both psychological and physical abuse. Other forms of abuse included in the questionnaire such as stalking, controlling and economic deprivation were not considered to be serious and worth of reporting by the victims of domestic violence. Incidences of domestic violence were considered serious when they included physical abuse.

Women in romantic relationships are found to endure victimization until it is perceived to be worse before they seek help. 62.5% of the study participants had suffered incidences of domestic on a weekly basis, 20.8% of the respondents were victimized daily, 12.5% were victimized once every month while 4.2% of the respondents experienced victimization once
before seeking help. These findings are consistent with recent research data which found that women endure incidences of domestic violence in romantic relationship until the situation becomes worse, in leading to death in some instances (Ngwako 2017; Manda 2017 and Mapumulo 2017).

6.2.3. Prevalence of secondary victimization on victims of domestic violence when seeking help, perpetrated by police

The current study was concerned with the high prevalence of domestic violence in South Africa in relation with the low levels reported and prosecuted cases of domestic violence. One of the study aims was to determine the prevalence of secondary victimization on victims of domestic violence when seeking help from the police. To clearly understand the duties and responsibilities of the police provisions of the Domestic Violence Act of South Africa (116 of 1998) and the Victim Empowerment Service (South African Police Services) were employed in the current study in relation with the victims of domestic violence. According to the Domestic Violence Act, the police are required to explain to complainants that they are there to provide whatever assistance the circumstances require, which may include helping the complainant to find suitable shelter or obtain medical treatment. In addition, police services should inform the complainant of his/her right to both apply for a protection order as well as lay criminal charges.

The Victim Empowerment Service guide of the South African Police Services provides that it is the responsibility of the police to ensure that the victims of crime, especially sexual offenses and other serious and violent crimes are provided with a victim-friendly service. According to the guide, victim-friendly service has four basic elements which include emotional support; practical support; providing information and referral to professional support service.

For the purposes of this study, to secondary victimization was measured and described using Campbell and Raja (1999)’s sources from which from which the risk of secondary victimization may stem from: system personnel may be treating victims in an insensitive manner; Secondary victimization may occur not only because of what service providers do, but also because of what they do not do; for the victims who are able to obtain desired service, it is not known if the assistance is really helpful. Based on Campbell and Raja’s
(1999) definition of domestic violence, and using the four basic elements for a victim-friendly service by police offered to victims of domestic violence, the following themes were developed to determine the existence of secondary victimization on victims of domestic violence, perpetrated by the police:

i. Providing emotional support
According to the Victim Empowerment Service Guide (South African Police Services) the police have the responsibility to provide victims of domestic violence with emotional support. Failure to do this, according to Campbell and Rajah (1999), constitutes secondary victimization. Variables measured in the study in relation to emotional support include display of understanding by the police, expression of concern for the victims’ circumstances and wellbeing as well as empathy. 33.3% of the participants reported that the police were not at all understanding towards them, while 12% found the police to be very understanding. Other groups of participants, 8.3% and 20.8% found the police to sometimes and often, respectively, show understanding towards them.

There were varying perceptions of the level of concern showed by the police in the findings of the study. 29% of the respondents perceived the police to be indifferent towards them in that the police did not all show concern towards them, while only 16.7% of the respondents found police to be showing compassion towards them. The latter group of respondents reported that police very often showed concern. The majority of the respondents were satisfied with the level of empathy shown by the police. 41.3% of the respondents reported that the police were good and very good in expressing empathy, while 29.1% of the respondents reported that the level of empathy shown by the police was bad and very bad.

ii. Providing practical support
With regards to measuring the level at which police provided practical support to the victims of domestic violence in the study, actions taken by the police in response to the reported crime. Such measured actions include police efforts in investigating the case, collecting evidence and making an arrest, as perceived by the study participants. 54.2% of the study participants reported that the police did no question witnesses to investigate the reported case of domestic violence, while 16.7% of the respondents mentioned that the police sometimes did question witnesses. 37.5% of the respondents said the police did not at all look or ask for
evidence concerning the case of domestic violence, 12.5% reported that the police sometimes did look or ask for evidence whole only 8.3% of the respondents said that the police often did look or ask for evidence.

On the question of whether or not an arrest was made when victims of domestic violence reported incidences of victimization to the police 58.3% of the respondents reported that the police did not at all make arrests, 4.2% reported that sometimes an arrest would be made, 12.5% reported that the police often did make arrests on reported incidences of domestic violence while 4.2% reported that the police very often did make an arrest.

iii. Providing information
Variable measured in the study in relation to ascertain the level at which police provide information to victims of domestic violence was the victims of domestic violence’s level of satisfaction with police’ presentation of referral information. Findings of the current study show that presentation of referral information by the police is not consistent. 37% of the respondents were satisfied with the presented referral information by the police (8.3% of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the presented information as very good while 29.2% rated their satisfaction as good). On the other hand, another 37% group of respondents were not satisfied with the level of presentation of referral information by the police. In the second group of respondents, 29.2% rated police’s presentation of referral information as very bad while 8.3% rated it as bad.

iv. Referral to professional support
In relation to referral to professional support, there was no question in the questionnaire to measure this variable. However, information provided by the participants in response to the question of the disposition of the case provides different advice that the police gave the victims of domestic violence, which can be categorized as referral for support. 10.5% participants reported that they were advised by the police to go sort things out with their abuser. This advice is contrary to that of referral to professional for support which is the responsibility of the police, and exposes the victims to further victimization from their perpetrator of domestic violence.
As depicted on the findings of the four themes discussed above, the research has found that victims of domestic violence experience secondary victimization perpetrated by the police when they seek help.

6.2.4. Future Help Seeking Attitudes

One of the study objectives was to measure the impact of the experiences of interaction with the police on the victims’ attitudes towards future help-seeking. Previous studies conducted on factors that influence victims of domestic violence’s decision of whether or not to report incidences or victimization and/or withdrawing charges of domestic violence or following through with the trial found that the experience victims had with the police have a significant in such decisions of the victim. (Fugate et al., 2005; Stephens and Sinden, 2000; Coulter et al., 1999 and Felson et al., 2005). However, majority of studies conducted of the impact of interactions with the police on victims of domestic violence’s decision to seek help are foreign studies. Very little information is available in the South African context linking experiences during interactions with the police to the victims’ future help seeking behaviors. The current study was concerned to determine the impact of experiences during interactions with the police on the victims’ attitudes towards future help seeking in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal. To quantify the impact on future help seeking, the measured variables were the likelihood to report incidences of domestic violence in the future and the motivations for the decision of whether or not to report domestic violence to the police in the future.

Three quarters of the study population 75% reported that they would not report incidences of domestic violence to the police in the future, while 25% of the respondents reported that they would report incidences of domestic violence to the police in the future. Reasons for reporting or non-reporting of incidences of domestic violence to the police in the future were grouped into four options; Yes, I would report incidences of victimization in the future because the police are helpful; yes I would report incidences of victimization in the future because reporting is the right thing to do and I will continue doing it; No, I will not report to the police in the future because it is pointless, the police are not helpful; and no, I will not report incidences of victimization in the future because reporting makes the perpetrator even more angry. 16.7% of the respondents mentioned that they would report incidences of victimization in the future because the police are helpful. The majority, 62.5% of the participants explained that they would not report incidences of victimization to the police in
the future because it is pointless, the police are not helpful. 16.7% of the respondents explained that they would report incidences of domestic victimization to the police in the future because reporting is the right thing to do. 4.2% of the respondents explained that they would not report incidences of victimization in the future because reporting makes the perpetrator even more angry.

6.3. **Significance of the study**

In South Africa there little literature available on secondary victimization experienced by the victims of domestic violence and its impact on future help seeking. This research brings forth new knowledge on the prevalence of secondary victimization experienced by victims of domestic violence when they seek help from the police and its impact on future help-seeking. The current research also provides for base information from which further studies into monitoring the efficiency of the police in policing domestic violence.

6.4. **Limitations of the study**

The current study had the following four limitations: Omission of the male victims of domestic violence; insufficient South African research on secondary victimization by the police; sample size; and the limited scope of the study.

6.4.1. **Omission of the male victims of domestic violence**

Legally, domestic violence can be perpetrated against both women and women, however, for the purposes of the current study, domestic violence was only limited to women. Male victims of domestic violence were not included in the study.

6.4.2. **Insufficient South African research on secondary victimization by police**

There is little literature in South Africa on the on secondary victimization experienced by the victims of domestic violence from the police officials. Extensive work in the South African context, however, has been done to determine the prevalence of secondary victimization by police officials on members of the Lesbian Gay Bisexual Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) community. The consequence of this limitation was that the researcher had to rely mostly on foreign studies for literature on secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence by the police.
6.4.3. Sample Size
Due to the sensitivity of the subject of domestic violence, the researcher struggled to get participants for the study from more than one victim empowerment centre. The intended sample size for the study was difficult to achieve due to the mobility and availability of the victims of domestic violence at the centre at which data was collected. The women at the centre stay for as long as they feel they need to and they leave when they feel that it is safe to do so. This meant that, at the time of data collection, we could only be able to include 24 women for the study.

6.4.4. Limited scope of the study
Because the study was conducted in only one victim empowerment centre and among a small sample size, the results cannot be generalized to the larger South African population.

6.5. Recommendations.
Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following, in order to improve services rendered to victims of domestic violence by the police and to reduce, and subsequently prevent, the secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence when they seek help. The recommendations to be discussed are concerning preventative measures for secondary victimization, as well as recommendations by the researcher.

6.5.1. Preventative strategies
In response to objective the three objectives of the study, which sought to investigate suggested the prevalence of secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence perpetrated by the police, measure the impact of such secondary victimization and to determine the link it has on victims future help seeking attitudes, the victims of domestic violence who participated in the study strongly suggested that the crime of domestic violence should be taken seriously and victims of domestic violence should be treated with respect by the police.

6.5.2. Recommendations by the researcher
   a. Social role
The study established the following recommendations in addressing the secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence: (1) Driving more awareness campaigns that
teach the community about domestic violence; what constitutes it, where victims can find help and how kind of service should be expected to be given to the victims of domestic violence by the police. (2) Implementation and proper monitoring of the South African Victim Empowerment Service. (3) The establishment of workshops to educate people and redress social norms that tolerate the domestic violence and exploitation of women.

b. Knowledge transference
The researcher suggests that awareness campaigns and workshops be introduced by police and community leaders to educate the community about the types of domestic violence and on how to address such acts. The campaigns must also focus on how to detect domestic violence, means of dealing with victims of abuse without making the victim feel guilty and blamed, and on the community can support victims of domestic violence.

c. Further studies
Because the study determined that secondary victimization of victims of domestic violence perpetrated by the police exists, and that it has a negative impact on the victims attitudes towards future help seeking, it is strongly recommended that further studies be conducted on the implementation and monitoring of the South African Victim Empowerment model which was adopted by the police. It is also suggested that training of the police with regards to handling and assisting victims of domestic violence is investigated and analyzed. Public awareness should be created about the role of government structures in addressing domestic violence.

Finally, the researcher recommends that further research be conducted on public perceptions regarding domestic violence. Such studies should particularly be conducted in rural and semi-urban areas where ignorance seems to be a driver of domestic violence and ill treatment of victims of domestic violence.

6.6. Conclusion.

Domestic violence in South Africa has not received the much attention it deserves partly because it is not easily talked about by victims due to the hurt and shame felt by the women affected and those close to them. In South Africa, we see a disturbing trend of increasing
domestic violence cases, sometimes resulting in the demise of entire families. We read about unfortunate cases that end up in suicide, divorce and separation when this pressure is too much to bear. It may seem inconceivable to others that some women stay in abusive relationships. However, it has emerged in this study that some women stay in abusive relationship for fear of secondary victimization when they seek help from the police.

Although the police are not the cause and/or perpetrators of domestic violence, their demeanors when dealing with, and treatment of victims of domestic violence play a very important role in encouraging confidence in the country’s justice system, which will subsequently see more victims of domestic violence coming forward to seek help, thereby working towards eradicating the problem of domestic violence. When victims have positive experiences with the police, and the entire justice system, it increases the likelihood of seeking help from the system the next time they need it (Calton & Cattaneo 2014: 330).
6. Bibliography


Sleath, E., & Smith, L. L. 2017. Understanding the factors that predict victim retraction in police reported allegations of intimate partner violence. *Psychology of Violence*; 7(1), 140-149.


Victim Empowerment Service in the South African Police Service.


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**Annexure A**

University of Kwa Zulu-Natal
Howard College Campus
Tel: +27 31 202 3811 / 0730062110
Fax: +27 31 202 3858
bukiwen@gmail.com

The Centre Manager
Durban
15 April 2015

Sir/Madam,

**SUBJ: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AMONGST THE MEMBERS OF THE UMNGENI COMMUNITY EMPOWERMENT CENTRE VICTIM SUPPORT GROUP**
It is believed that victims of domestic violence experience secondary victimization in the justice system during help-seeking and trial, and this secondary victimization could have a negative impact in the future help-seeking by the victims. This has a potential of infringing on the rights of the victims to access the justice system and to live in a safe society. It also could have a negative impact on the country’s crime corrections and statistics.

As part of the partial fulfilment of a Master’s degree, I Bukiwe Nqopiso have chosen to investigate the effect that secondary victimization by the justice system has on the victims of domestic violence in Durban, Kwa Zulu- Natal. I would like to conduct the study in victim support centres that will help me know how many people in Durban, Kwa Zulu- Natal have experience secondary victimization by the justice system and how has this affected them in receiving justice for the incidences of domestic violence. This will help us to inform the services that are offered to the victims of domestic violence by the justice system.

Umngeni Community Empowerment Centre has been chosen for this study. The study will begin from May-June 2016.

The researcher hopes to distribute questionnaires to interested participants and request them to complete it. Participants will not incur any costs and their privacy and confidentiality will be protected throughout the study.

The study has received provisional approval from the Human Social Sciences Ethics Committee of University KwaZulu Natal.

I hereby request your permission to conduct this very important research that will benefit the people in your centre and community.

I have attached a full protocol for your perusal; however should you require further information, please feel free to contact me.

Thanking you in advance.

Kind regards

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Masters Candidate: Criminology

University of Kwa Zulu- Natal
Annexure B

INFORMATION DOCUMENT

The effect of secondary victimization by the justice system on the victims of domestic violence

Good day. My name is Bukiwe Nqopiso. I am a Criminology Masters candidate in the school of Applied Human Science at the University of Kwa Zulu-Natal doing a research study on the effect of secondary victimization by the justice system on the victims of domestic violence.

In my study, I would like to determine the prevalence, frequency and impact of secondary victimization by the justice system on the victims of domestic violence and to determine possible ways that could be employed to prevent secondary victimization during help-seeking.

Domestic violence against women is a global public health and human rights concern and is correlated to an array of mental health problems, including depression, post-traumatic stress
disorder (PTSD), suicidal ideation, substance misuse, functional symptoms, and the exacerbation of psychotic symptoms. By determining the prevalence, frequency and impact of secondary victimization by the justice system on the victims of domestic violence, a management program to eliminate secondary victimization can be developed and this can have a major impact on the lives of many people.

The study will be conducted in the eThekwini district of KwaZulu-Natal. I would appreciate it if you could spare a few minutes of your time to complete the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is entirely anonymous. Participation in the study is totally voluntary and refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits.

Responses to the questionnaire will be treated with strict confidentiality. Only the researcher will have access to the information collected. This information will be captured and stored at a in a password protected computer and disposed of when it is no longer required. The information collected will be used solely for the purposes of completing my research thesis and in future papers, journal articles and books that will be written by the researcher.

If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact the Human Social Sciences Research ethics Office at Howard Collage, University of KwaZulu-Natal on 031 260 3587.

If there are any questions relating to this study, you may contact me (073 0062 110) or my supervisor: Prof Shanta Singh: 083 692 5817.

My contact details are: 073 0062 110; bukiwen@gmail.com
Human Social Science Research Committee (HSSREC) : 031 260 3587/ 8350/ 4557

Yours sincerely,

Bukiwe Nqopiso
Annexure C

PARTICIPANT’S CONSENT DOCUMENT

I, Bukiwe Nqopiso, am a Masters of Criminology student registered at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am currently conducting research on the effect of secondary victimization by the justice system on the victims of domestic violence as part of my Masters’ thesis. Our plan is to determine the prevalence, frequency and impact of secondary victimization by the justice system on the victims of domestic violence and to determine possible ways that could be employed to prevent secondary victimization during help-seeking.

I would like you to assist me in my study by agreeing to answer a set of questions. The information collected will be used solely for the purposes of completing my research thesis and in future papers, journal articles and books that will be written by the researcher.

Your anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved at all times. Your personal details are not required for this study and in/ under no circumstances will your personal details be disclosed or referenced. Furthermore, your participation is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw your permission to participate in this study without explanation at any time.
If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact the Human Social Sciences Research ethics Office at Howard Collage, University of KwaZulu-Natal on 031 260 3587.

Consent Statement(s)

I, ________________ agree to participate in this project. I have been fully informed about the study by Bukiwe Nqopiso. I am also aware that I can stop/ withdraw from the study at any time if I am uncomfortable or do not wish to participate in the study any further.

__________________________        _____________
Signature of participant                                                      Date

I thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire. If there are any questions relating to this study, you may contact me or my supervisors (Prof Shanta Singh).

My contact details are: 073 0062 110 (Cell)
My supervisor’s contact details are: 083 692 5817

Yours sincerely

__________________________
Bukiwe Nqopiso
Annex D: Questionnaire and survey tool
Patient demographic information

1. Age (in years):

2. Ethnicity
   ① Black
   ② White
   ③ Coloured
   ④ Indian/Asian

3. Level of education:
   ① No schooling
   ② Primary School incomplete
   ③ Primary School Complete
   ④ Secondary School Incomplete
   ⑤ Secondary School/ Higher Complete
   ⑥ Tertiary Graduate

4. Current employment:
   ① Full time
   ② Part-time
   ③ Self-employed
   ④ Unemployed

5. Annual household income
   ① ≤ R2000 pm
   ② R2001-R5000 pm
   ③ R5001-R10 000 pm
   ④ R10 001-R15 000 pm
   ⑤ > R15 001

6. Relationship with abuser:
   ① Married
   ② Boyfriend
   ③ Ex-boyfriend/husband
   ④ Other

7. Nature of the abuse:
   ① Physical
   ② Psychological
   ③ Stalking
   ④ Other

8. How often has incidence/s of victimization took place:
   ① Once
   ② Once every month
   ③ 2-3 times a month
   ④ Everyday

9. Number of children in your care:
   ① None
   ② 1-2
   ③ 3 or more

10. Was the incidence of domestic violence reported to the police?
    ① Yes
    ② No
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>How would you rate the following:</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Very often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Did the police show understanding of the situation?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Did the police appear concerned?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Did the police take time to listen?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Did the police show concern?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Did the police speak to you and the perpetrator separately?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Did the police question any eye witnesses?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Did the police search or ask for evidence?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Did the police make an arrest?</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>②</td>
<td>③</td>
<td>④</td>
<td>⑤</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Very bad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

115
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Overall, how would you rate the service you received when you from the police when you went to report the case</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Did the police that took down your statement show empathy/ courtesy?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Presentation of referral information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Overall satisfaction with the police</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Overall satisfaction with police response time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Overall satisfaction with criminal proceeding in court</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Overall satisfaction with the outcome of the case</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Future help-seeking

1. Would you report an incidence of victimization to the police again?

   ① Yes  ② No

1.1. Please explain your answer to the question above:

2. In the box below, please state what you would have like to be done differently in the handling of your case:

THANK YOU.