



**AN OVERLOOKED MINORITY: INTIMATE PARTNER
VIOLENCE (IPV) ON MEN IN PRETORIA, SOUTH AFRICA**

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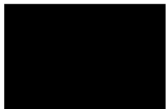
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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late grandparents (both maternal and paternal), my late parents (Mandlakhe and Bongiwe), my late aunt (Zandile Shezi) late siblings (Thuthukile, Sifiso and Simanga), my late cousins (Themba, Mduduzi and Nhlanhla), aunts and cousins. You have contributed so much to be who I am today.

My late parents taught me the value of hard work; you did not preach it; you lived it. If it was not for you, I would not be celebrating this achievement. You believed in me when I found it difficult to believe in myself, my rock, my prayer warrior, my teacher. I love you, family.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank almighty God, my Saviour, for the wisdom and favour He bestowed upon my life. His grace carried me through until today. I am still blessed and highly favoured. If it was not for the Lord my saviour, I would not be where I am today and because of Him I am here and have achieved so much. Lord, God is able to bless you abundantly, so that in all things at all times, having all that you need, you will abound in every good work. 2 Corinthians 9:8

To my supervisor and mentor, Professor Pranitha Maharaj: you were God sent; not only did you supervise my study, but you mentored me to be a good researcher and a writer. Thank you for the knowledge, time and support you provided to me from my Master's degree until now. Thank you, for your significant contribution to my career as well. You were always there to listen to my ideas. You helped me in my writing skills and process. I knew that I could count on you for support during this journey. Thank you for awarding me the National Research Foundation (NRF), Economic Scholarships.

I would also like to thank Health and Welfare SETA (HWSETA) for the scholarship. This enabled me to conduct and complete my study without financial challenges.

I would like to thank my colleagues at National Population Unit (NPU) within the National Department of Social Development, especially Dikeledi Poppy Nkai and Vusumuzi Maduna for your encouragement to continue with my doctoral studies till completion. I am grateful to have you in my life; Poppy, you have become more of a sister than a colleague. Vusumuzi Maduna, thank you for your data analytical skills and the help you provided throughout my study. Thabo Letsoalo, thank you my brother for being there when I needed your help. May God bless you, all.

Mr Sechaba and South African Men's Action Group (SAMAG) for allowing me to present my study needs to you and your organisation, I thank you so much. Thank you, for assisting in locating men for the study who were willing to share their challenges with me. I am profoundly grateful for our partnership and professionalism and above all, your passion for men treated unfairly by their partners, communities, and the system.

The qualitative research participants willingly gave their time to participate in this study, I thank you so much and we shall overcome the struggles of male victims of IPV. To my partner, thank you so

much for your support, time and encouragement to complete my dissertation. You are my great supporter and you are my rock.

To my life partner, may God help you always. I will always love and cherish you.

My friends, I am thankful for the encouragement and support you gave me, especially in 2020 and 2021, I appreciate you all and love you so much.

Dr Ngobile Zulu was my critical reader, I appreciate your time in editing and reviewing my work. I, thank you.

ABSTRACT

Intimate partner violence against women is well documented, while for decades very little research has been done on intimate partner violence against men in Africa and particularly in South Africa. This study sought to study men's experiences of this phenomenon and to develop policy guidelines to support male victims of intimate partner violence perpetrated by their female partners. In order to better intimate partner violence against men the study draws on both qualitative and quantitative data. The study used a mix of methods to shed insights on this phenomenon. The qualitative data was gathered through in-depth interviews with men who once experienced abuse by their intimate partners while the quantitative data was gathered through a survey. The quantitative study came from a sample of 350 men, aged between 18 to 60 years, using a survey probability sampling method. The study also sampled 10 men between the ages of 18-50 years who were the victims of IPV and four key informants who are working for SAMAG. Ten men who were victims of IPV were identified using purposive sampling through SAMAG organisation because the researcher did not know the victims. In addition, the study conducted an in-depth literature review and document analysis which formed part of the qualitative content analysis. The specific objectives of this study are to ascertain the types and extent of intimate partner violence against men as well as factors facilitating and inhibiting violence against men in intimate relationships.

To understand intimate partner violence the theoretical framework that underpinned the study was the social construction theory, the theory of planned behaviour, the social learning theory and the feminist theory. According to these theories, human reality is greatly influenced, understood, and experienced through cultural, behaviours and social norms. These constructed realities generally set parameters on notions of biology, gender, sexuality and behaviours.

The study revealed that men could not differentiate between gender-based violence and intimate partner violence. Men did not associate themselves with these concepts let alone being the victim of abuse. It was also revealed that women are as abusive as men and they used all types of abuse to control their partners. The findings also revealed that females were likely to inflict physical injuries on their male partners. The study revealed that the few men who reported cases of abuse by their intimate partners ended up being not believed by those they trusted with their secret, inevitably becoming a joke in the community. It was revealed that society was not empathetic to men victims of IPV, but always supported women, believing that men cannot be the victims of IPV. Intimate partner violence towards men is a problem that society can be able to solve, only if society's perception

towards male victims of IPV can change. For society to solve the issue of intimate partner violence towards men, men require attention and help with recognising abuse earlier so they can cope with the consequences of abuse more effectively. To address the issues that are faced by men, South Africa must have intervention programmes special designed for male victims of IPV. This will ensure that male victims of IPV will be able to talk about their abuse openly and appropriate intervention are designed for men. There must be training programmes for frontline professionals (e.g. police officers, health care workers and non-governmental organisations working on IPV/ GBV issues) and communities at large. There must also be national public awareness campaigns about men abuse and these campaigns must be led by men. Media campaigns should be held to increase awareness of IPV against men and educate society of female-to-male IPV which is equally important. South African government policy on gender-based violence should also include men as they are also the victims of IPV. The patriarchal society in which this nation is founded and socialisation and gender roles in the society make it difficult for men to report abuse hence the culprits are never punished. The study revealed that all GBV institutions managed by the government, services and support were tailor-made for women only while men were on their own. Men felt that they do not have rights in the country. In other words, men felt that there were no government institutions that protect abused men from their abusive intimate partners and nothing that protects men from their women intimate partners. The most crucial avoidance coping strategies spelled out were training of a range of stakeholders for raising awareness of this problem. Society needs education on men abuse; and also, a programme for female perpetrators educating women on men abuse. The study revealed that the reporting of IPV incidents was biased against men and all the government initiative to address the issues on abuse were designed for women only while male victims of abuse were left behind. There is a need for more attention to be focused on the effects of IPV on men. This study will contribute to the limited body of knowledge on IPV against men in South Africa and it will also contribute to the new insights that men are not comfortable to be associated with being the victims of IPV. The study findings will also contribute to the new discourse that men are also victims of IPV and women are also perpetrators of IPV. The study findings will contribute to the discourse that men should also be recognised and acknowledged as victims of intimate partner violence and men should also be provided with IPV services like women and these services should be designed to meet the needs of men.

Keywords:

Intimate partner violence: gender-based violence; men abuse, male victims; female perpetrators; Physical abuse; emotional abuse; sexual abuse, financial abuse; awareness campaigns, media reporting and government initiatives.

ACRONYMS

ACE	Adverse Childhood Experiences
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
CBD	Central Business District
CSVR	Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation
DSD	Department of Social Development
DV	Domestic Violence
EU	European Union
FT	Feminist Theory
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDC	Higher Degrees Committee
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
HWSETA	Health and Welfare Sector Education and Training Authority
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LGBTI	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
NISVS	National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
NPU	National Population Unit
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
SA	South Africa
SAMAG	South African Men's Action Group
SAMRC	South African Medical Research Council
SCT	Social Construction Theory
SLT	Social Learning Theory
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
UKZN	University of KwaZulu Natal
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

USA
WHO

United States of America
World Health Organisation

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Globally, intimate partner violence (IPV) has been recognised as a gendered issue, that disproportionately affects women. While the dominant view is that intimate partner violence is a gendered crime that is perpetrated by men against women, and there is a gender imbalance in its reporting, regarding the experiences of male victims of IPV in Africa, particularly in South Africa (Kigaya, 2021; Obegi, Mwangi and Applos, 2017). Barkhuizen (2015) notes that in South Africa male victims of emotional and physical abuse are often ignored, rejected, and minimised due to a lack of research on this “darker side”. Female-perpetrated intimate partner violence against men is a catastrophe that has always existed but has never been given the attention it deserves, like intimate partner violence perpetrated against women. Although most victims are female and many perpetrators are males, there is a recognition that men are also victims of IPV and sexual violence occurs, both within same-sex and heterosexual relationships (Scott-Storey et al., 2023). Scott-Storey et al. (2023) further mention that despite increased academic interest in male abuse by women less research has been published as compared to that of women and child abuse and there is a lack of knowledge among the public and professionals about male abuse. Comparatively, there are few studies that have explored IPV against men, although there is a consensus that men are also the victims of IPV (World Health Organisation, 2010; Hines and Dougla, 2015; Perryman and Appleton, 2016).

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is domestic violence by a current or former spouse or partner in an intimate relationship against the other spouse or partner (Larsen, 2016). There is scarce literature on the experiences of men regarding IPV and the reasons behind the men’s perpetration of violence against men and most studies concentrated on GBV against females (Perrin, et al. 2019). Intimate partner violence is a widespread and a devastating social issue that affects millions of people around the world (Bates and Taylor, 2021; Park, Bang and Jeon, 2021; World Health Organization (WHO), 2022). Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a global crisis and occurs in all settings affecting individuals and societies regardless of race, socio-economic, religious, and cultural backgrounds (World Health Organisation, 2021). Intimate partner violence (IPV) across all ages is a global public health concern, affecting negatively on

well-being and mental health of older women and older men as well (Cations et al., 2021; Bates and Carthy, 2020). Intimate partner violence is an action or behaviour that caused physical, sexual coercion, psychological harm, controlling behaviour, and financial abuse by a previous or current partner (Scott-Storey et al. 2023). Intimate partner violence (IPV) is the harmful behaviour of a partner or the ex-partner toward the individual. It can be physical when it involves physical aggression; psychological, controlling behaviours, and sexual coercion (WHO, 2021).

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2009) also defines intimate partner violence as a behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm, including acts of physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours. This definition covers violence by both current and former spouses and partners. Intimate partner violence may take various forms including battering, intimate partner violence including marital rape and sexual violence. There is female infanticide, femicide, sexual abuse of female children in the household, early marriage, forced marriage, female genital cutting and other traditional practices harmful to women. In addition, there is sexual harassment in the workplace and educational institutions, commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking of girls and women and violence perpetrated against domestic workers (USAID, 2009).

Regarding the definition of intimate partner violence, researchers like Donovan and Hester (2010); Randle and Graham (2011) argue that a lack of a comprehensive and encompassing definition has resulted in discrepancies surrounding the way in which this violence is defined, categorised and reported. Donovan and Hester (2010) further argue that public discourse interprets violence within intimate relationships as a gendered, heterosexual phenomenon that is typically physical in nature. The assumption is that men are the perpetrators of IPV and women are victims. Thomas et al. (2010) also argue that perpetrators of all genders and sexualities purposely adapt their abuse to the vulnerabilities of their victim. Andrade et al. (2015) and Buller et al. (2014) point out that IPV is a global phenomenon that crosses geographical, social, and cultural frontiers presenting serious problem for public health. McHugh et al. (2013) argue that men's definition and conceptualisation of intimate partner violence or gender-based violence is not well understood because of the limited focus on intimate partner violence against them. Wallace (2015) argues that IPV as a concept gained ground from 2000 which described violence among intimate partners. This word is more

inclusive and it moves away from the idea that women in heterosexual relationships are exclusively the victims of IPV. According to Walker et al. (2018) researchers have even questioned the use of the concept of “intimate partner violence” when referring to men, claiming that the concept's significant gendered implication may impact perceived masculinity. When most people hear the term “intimate partner violence” they assume that a woman is a victim and a man is a perpetrator. This may be true in many of the IPV cases. However, IPV against men is more common than initially thought and can pose a serious threat to its victim. Wallace (2015) also points out that IPV acknowledges that abuse can happen in any type of personal relationship, irrespective of marital status, gender and sexual orientation. In support of this, Morin (2014) argues that IPV occurs in current or previous relationships regardless of the gender of the people in the relationship. A number of researchers point out that the terms IPV and domestic violence have the same health problem effects for victims of domestic violence, which consists of physical, emotional, sexual, and psychological abuse (Douglas et al. 2012; Drijber et al. 2013; Tsui, 2014). Individuals inflicting the violence are referred to as perpetrators while those experiencing the violence are referred to as victims. Men are subjected to severe physical violence, psychological violence, controlling behaviour accompanied by economic violence and sexual harassment from their female partners (Lien and Lorentzen, 2019).

What is currently known about IPV comes mostly from sampled female victims because it is generally recognised as a gender issue affecting heterosexual women in relationships with men. It has been recognised globally that women are the most affected by IPV (Hines, 2015; Perry and Appleton, 2016). Agbulos (2017) also argues that because men take the abuse in silence due to societal and cultural expectations, their abuse is not recognised. Although there is a view that men are also victims of IPV, comparatively few studies have explored IPV against men. The insufficient understating of how IPV is experienced by men across the globe from diverse communities makes it difficult for men to define or conceptualise IPV. In support of this, Hlavka (2017) mentions that there is a lack of understanding of the extent of abuse men experience in their intimate relationships and a lack of understanding of GBV as it relates to male victims. This also worsens the lack of understanding of the lived experiences of abused men (Thobejane et al. 2018). When most people hear the term “intimate partner violence” they assume that a woman is a victim and a man is the perpetrator and highlighted that men’s definition and conceptualisation of IPV is poorly understood because of a limited focus on men’s experiences, therefore such views may not be clearly reflected in measures of IPV.

Andrade et al. (2015) and Buller et al. (2014) point out that IPV is a global phenomenon that crosses geographical, social, and cultural frontiers and presents an important problem for public health.

This may be true in many of the IPV cases whereby IPV against men is more common than initially thought and can pose a serious threat to its victims. It cannot be assumed that violence is viewed and experienced by men and women in the same way since gender as a universal structure affects both expression and experiences of IPV (Nybergh, Enander, Krantz, 2016; Allen-Collinson, 2009; Cook, 2009). Views about men and social expectations are associated to gender influence not in the construction and expression of IPV and how men are labelled and defined. Social expectations also have consequences for what men perceive as violent and abusive acts. Scott-Storey et al. (2023) mention that men do not consider IPV inflicted by women as abuse and they do not consider themselves as IPV victims. The study that was conducted in Italy by Entilli and Cipolletta (2017) found that male victims of domestic violence did not react to physical attacks they experienced because they believed in maintaining what society construed as the attitude of “an ideal man”.

It also has an impact on how men characterise meaning and response to these experiences. In the context of IPV, pressure to fit with and adhere to dominant gender ideals not only influences men’s sense of self but also their own and others’ appraisal and identification of the violence they experience. Pressure for men to fit with and follow gender ideals influences men’s assessment and identification of the violence they experience (Morgan and Well, 2016). Some scholars questioned the use of the concept IPV because it has gender implications that may impact perceived masculinity (Walker et al., 2020). This study attempts to address the gap as there is limited focus on the experiences of male victims of IPV.

1.2 Men as focus of the study

In South Africa and in Africa, little is known or has been researched about male victims of intimate partner violence and their experiences of abuse. Only a few studies have been conducted on the prevalence of female perpetrated IPV against men. Thusi and Mlambo (2022) mention that in South Africa gender-based violence has been long associated with women as victims and only men as perpetrators, then it is important to evaluate the possibilities of men being the victims of intimate partner violence. Intimate partner violence is a global crisis,

affecting individuals and societies irrespective of race, socio-economic, status, ethnicity and gender. Approximately one-third of women have ever experienced IPV while the knowledge of IPV prevalence against men is scarce (Koble and Butter, 2020; WHO, 2017). Thobejane et al. (2018) allude that female violence perpetrated against men is a tragedy that has always existed but has never been given the attention it deserves, like domestic violence committed against women.

According to Robinson and Segal (2022) in South Africa, GBV against men has not been broadly researched as in America. In support of this, Kalimaposo et al. (2022) mention that in Zambia since the problem of GBV is serious little research has been done to research the experiences of men abuse in the face of GBV. The sample size in these studies has been relatively small, while most of these studies have been qualitative in nature. There are very few doctoral studies, and few published research papers on the subject from various institutions in the country and non-profit organisations (NPOs). Most of these studies have been conducted in the urban settings, mostly in Gauteng province. Obeji et al. (2017) mention that in Africa and Kenya, most male perpetrated studies are conducted in urban population and very few studies have been conducted in rural populations. The body of knowledge also revealed that there is a growing number of same-sex couples experiencing IPV at the hands of their partners as well. The research shows that there seem to be similarities between heterosexual men and homosexual couples when it comes to issues of IPV, which is even higher in homosexual couples IPV than in heterosexual couples (Kelley et al. 2012; Barrett and St. Pierre, 2013). Messinger (2011) supports this statement and highlights that all forms of abuse were more likely to occur in homosexual and bisexual couples than in heterosexual ones. Therefore, it is important to conduct research on men who experience intimate partner violence because they are described as “greatly overlooked and vulnerable” and they are frequently framed as aggressive male perpetrators who victimise their female partners (Zverina et al., 2011; White and Dutton, 2013; Verma and Raina, 2014). Oyediran et al. (2023) argue that studies on IPV against men are necessary, as it can guide policymakers and implementers to respond to the needs of male victims.

According to Ansara and Hindin (2010) research on male victims is essential to understand men’s experiences of IPV victimisation and disclosure. The development of support systems and policies to address men’s needs are dependent on having a clear understanding of abused men and their experiences. Ovens and Barkhuizen (2012) argue that violence perpetrated

against men by their female abusers should be considered a global social problem of domestic violence as it has an influence on policies and social perceptions. In support of this, Christensen (2019) argues that some policies have an impact on GBV among men and increases the risk because their services cater exclusively to female victims of violence. often men are excluded from helplines , shelters because these services only target female victims of IPV.

Ansara and Hindin (2010) point out that various organisations are negatively impacted by limited resources to conduct research on IPV against men. It is clear that there is a need for research on male victimisation in South Africa to increase awareness and understanding of the experiences of male victims of intimate partner violence. On the other hand, research shows that most studies conducted on male victimisation have been conducted in the United States, Europe, and other countries and a few studies have been done in Southern Africa. Most studies on male victimisation are from North America (e.g. Mitra et al. 2016) and Europe (Thureau et al. 2015) and the studies looking at male victims of IPV are very rare in Sub-Saharan Africa.

According to Hlongwa et al. (2020), most literature in Sub-Saharan Africa on gender-based violence focuses on females, both homosexual and heterosexual, and children with very little focus on male victims' experiences. The challenge is that most of these studies focus on small-scale studies such as provinces and districts that could overestimate the occurrence of GBV. These studies cannot be generalised to a wider population and country-specific data is scarce (Muluneh et al. 2020; Gumede et al. 2023). In South Africa particularly there is a growing body of research on gender-based violence against men but it has not been as widely or broadly researched (Mahlori, Byrne, and Mabude., 2018; Medie, 2019). According to Tshoane et al. (2024) many IPV studies were done in Western societies, it may be challenging for their findings to be generalised to a non-Western cultural situation, such as South Africa.

The socio-cultural context of IPV in South Africa differs from that of the West on the grounds of beliefs, dynamism, and experience. Studies focusing on violence against men are limited in Sub-Saharan Africa and most studies focus on violence against women and children and little attention has been given to men (Huntley et al. 2019; Walker et al., 2020; Mphatheni and Mlamlala, 2022). Ganou (2021) alludes that these studies have examined the perceptions and experiences of GBV in unreliable forms among males in Sub-Saharan African countries and they have portrayed men as the perpetrators of GBV. Vyas and Jansen (2018) mention that there is scanty literature that reports about women as perpetrators of intimate partner violence

in Tanzania. Mligo (2021) notes that the lack of reporting of women perpetrating IPV against husbands does not mean that such violence is not committed. In Zambia, a similar global pattern of the insufficiency of literature on female-perpetrated domestic violence against men exists (Kalimaposo et al. 2022). Kalage (2020) alludes that most studies that have been conducted in this field address abuse against women and stresses the need for research on abuse against men.

Intimate partner violence against men is an old phenomenon from the 1970s yet people still widely regard IPV against men as a myth. Douglas and Hines (2011) point out that IPV accounts against women have been documented since the study of family violence commenced in the early 1970's. However, IPV towards men by women is highly stigmatised and shamed. Despite over 40 years of research documenting that males are victims of IPV and experience physical abuse, sexual abuse, and psychological abuse from female-perpetrators, these findings remain controversial till today. According to Douglas and Hines (2011). Baker et al. (2013), IPV has been branded as a gendered problem. However, male victims have not been included in the core conceptualisation of research resulting in marginalisation and disempowerment of male victims. Carmo, Grams and Magalhães (2011) point out that up until now, the experience of male victims of IPV has not been explained, especially in developing countries. Only in Brazil are few studies which have analysed this problem using forensic evidence.

Another reason to choose the subject was that men are often reluctant to report victimisation and are more concerned about socio-cultural stereotypes of masculinity and patriarchy. Thobejane et al. (2018) argue that men did not report the abuse to preserve their male egos and protect themselves from such embarrassment in society. This will also shed a light in the communities that there are male victims around them but due to societal pressure and other social norms, it is not easy for male victims to come out and speak about the abuse openly. Social and cultural definitions of men and masculinity hinder male victims of IPV to speak out about abuse. Hlavka (2017) notes that men do not report violence due to masculine narratives and practices that socialise men to be strong, powerful, and not vulnerable. Thusi and Mlaba (2022) mention that male victims are hesitant to talk about their abuse because they believe their machismo would be questioned by their communities. If they try or want to talk about their ordeals, they often do not know whom to tell and trust with their secret. Until a few years ago, IPV against men was discussed by a few scholars and physicians (Ansara and Hindin,

2010) However, due to lack of plans and declaration in support of this pandemic they ended up not conducting any studies on abuse against men. Male victims of IPV are left alone and are limited in what they can achieve to fight the scourge of abuse. Cultural stigma and cultural expectations portray male gender roles as strong and dominant, while women are viewed as weak and victims of abuse, compared to men (Gueta and Shlichove, 2022; Tsang et al. 2021).

The other reason for this study, is the fact that IPV against men is not recognised and society in general does not endorse the idea that men can be victims of female perpetrated violence and it not regarded as a societal problem or a serious social issue that needs to be addressed (Morgan and Wells, 2016). There is a lack of acceptance or willingness to accept that men too are silent victims of IPV and suffer at the hands of their abusive partners (Tenkorang et al. 2023). According to Tenkorang et al. (2023) IPV male survivors in Kenya are not accepted by the larger society and also by service providers who acknowledge women as victims of IPV. Male victims of IPV often hide their suffering due to the fear of being judged negatively by their families, friends, colleagues and society at large or having their manhood or masculinity questioned (Thusi and Mlambo, 2022). Often male victims of IPV suffer in silence hence there is something that needs to be done to address this societal issue (Agbulos, 2017). This study will also encourage male victims to stand up and report the abuse they experience. The body of evidence shows that men are reluctant to report abuse for several reasons, some of which are a stigma based on cultural beliefs that men are not supposed to waver under female pressure, men are afraid that their masculinity will be questioned and will not be regarded as men enough. Men are afraid of being viewed as weak for being abused by their partners because of the stigma associated with IPV, they are reluctant to acknowledge themselves as victims of abuse. This has led to under reporting of cases of IPV against men in male-dominated societies (Ayodele, 2017). Because of dominant notion of masculinity, society expects men to be strong and adhere to societal gender norms which then makes it difficult for society to recognise men as victims of IPV (Obeji et al. 2017; Thobejane et al. 2018; Hines, Bates and Wallace, 2022).

Male victims of IPV must confront a number of negative perceptions and stereotypes before accessing assistance when they do finally seek help. Bates (2019) points out that male victims of IPV are unable to raise their issues due to society's lack of interest in men perpetrated abuse because society views men as abusers rather than victims. Hines and Douglas (2019) mention that cultural expectations often discourage male victims of IPV from reporting abuse, as they may fear being perceived as weak or vulnerable. In many Sub-Saharan African countries, the

patriarchal culture still maintains that men should not express their feelings particularly those who find themselves in abusive relationships (Feyisetan and Oyediran, 2019; Oyediran. Spencer and Stith, 2023). In support of this statement, Wykes and Welsh (2009) point out that the controversy might be due to stereotypes attributed to men, culture as well as masculinity beliefs. It is also mentioned that men have more strength and high levels of aggression as compared to women. Thus, hearing about men as victims of IPV becomes astonishing. In light of these stereotypes and people's ignorance of the reality of male victims of IPV, victims end up suffering in silence encompassed by feelings of shame, humiliation and embarrassment. According to Hogan et al. (2012) understanding of male victims of IPV as a topic is necessary to explain socially constructed myths surrounding masculinity and men victimisation, including the development of gender-specific interventions to address IPV issues. The research shows that there is a low rate of reporting amongst male victims of IPV because they think that no one will believe them. In support of this statement, Oyediran. Spencer and Stith (2023) mention that male victims of IPV may feel discouraged to talk about what is going on in their relationships or feel like no one will believe them. Thusi and Mlambo (2022) mention that male victims are reluctant to discuss their victimisation because they believe it is contradictory to their masculinity in communities and men are not encouraged to discuss their feelings.

There are no relevant government institutions that address the issues of male victims of IPV. Government and NPOs spend their money on campaigns against IPV perpetrated against women (Centre for African Justice, Peace and Human Rights, 2018). Male victims of IPV also suffer from physical, emotional abuse, sexual, and economic forms of IPV. Emotional abuse can be more devastating than physical abuse, because it is difficult to prove that they are in abusive relationships, although physical abuse is considered the most obvious form of IPV (Walker et al., 2020). Researchers, such as Hines and Douglas (2009) Johnson (2012) and Shuler (2010), argue that data shows that males are victims of IPV and the incidents are likely to be underreported while the focus continues to be on female victims of IPV. Society still seems to ignore the fact that males can be victims of IPV at the hands of women. In support of this, communities also deny that IPV against men existence, with fear that the admission could be an attack on the integrity of the affected men (Kigaya, 2021).

This study will assist into setting up discussion platforms on the subject with government, different scholars, communities, religious and traditional leaders since it touches the lives of

families and communities. It has been difficult for male victims of IPV to find a voice and to get appropriate support in their respective areas, hopefully this will go same way into alleviating that. It is hoped that the study will help to get more insights into IPV against men with male victims being encouraged to talk about the abuse they suffer behind closed doors. This study will also be helpful to male victims of IPV to see that they are not alone in this journey, but there are other male victims of IPV too beside them. In South Africa, despite there being an observation of 16 days of activism against women and children, male victims of IPV are left behind. Since, the launch of this programme and IPV awareness campaigns against women and children abuse, there is no doubt that great strides have been made in highlighting the plight of abuse against women and children, yet nothing has been done to raise awareness about men abuse. No one is voicing the frustration of the minority of male victims of IPV.

There are even government institutions that are available to provide service to women victims only like the Thuthuzela Care Centres (TCC) as an example. The Thuthuzela Care Centres are one-stop facilities that have been introduced as a critical part of South Africa's anti-GBV strategy, aiming to reduce secondary victimisation, improve conviction rates and reduce the cycle time for finalisation of cases. These centres are managed by the government departments (National Prosecution Authority (NPA), Department of Social Development and other government departments). The importance of this study will increase understanding of male IPV victim's experiences and service needs.

This study will also help IPV service providers to understand the experiences of male victims of IPV and provide necessary services without being judgemental. In support of this view, Barkhuizen (2015) points out that many people in general, including government officials and some academics are so unwilling to accept the unilateral abuse of men by women. It is a testimony to the deep-rooted stereotype which is accepted by society. Chaudhuri (2012) and Randle and Graham (2011) argue that academics and media reports on male IPV victimisation remains reluctant to acknowledge and comprehend victimisation beyond the traditional focus on women and children, thus understanding of male victimisation remains limited. Ansara and Hindin (2010) points out that in the academic space, research on male victims of IPV is steadily increasing, however this topic has not reached the same level as IPV against women.

1.3 Prevalence of men abuse

It is a sad truth that in South Africa, NPOs and government do not seem willing to deal or to address intimate partner violence against men because of the society we are living in. Statistics on men abuse in South Africa is very minimal because men do not report the incidents for various reasons. Durham (2020) argue that recent South Africa reports focus mainly on women and children as victims of GBV. Gender based violence against men is understudied, which is an issue considering how serious the consequences may be for the victim. Often the true extent of IPV against men is under-estimated. Akarika (2019) mentions that in Nigeria, there is a lack of accurate estimates of the scale of physical and sexual violence against men due to unreported violence against men. However, those reported are not recorded because male victims are not given a voice. A study that was conducted in one of the informal settlements indicates a high prevalence of IPV amongst men and it was reported approximately 6.8%, 3.6%, and 20.1% of Kenyan men had experienced physical, sexual, and emotional/psychological violence, respectively (Tenkorang, 2021; Ringwald et al. 2020).

Globally, the prevalence of intimate partner violence against men has been estimated at 17% in 2022 (Gubi and Wandera, 2022). According to Anyuor (2012) statistics on male abuse are under documented due to massive underreporting of such cases, which is largely due to cultural norms, the practice of patriarchy and the expression that says, “men do not cry”. In support of this statement, Mphatheni and Mlama (2022) mention that in a few studies in Africa that have explored IPV against men and boys, the statistics do not accurately reflect the prevalence of IPV against males because law enforcement considers male victims of IPV to be second class victims of domestic violence (Foubert and Bridges, 2017). Mphatheni and Mlamlala (2022) further indicate that it is troublesome to find the statistics on IPV against men has increased in parts of the African continent such as Uganda, South Africa, Kenya, Swaziland, and Nigeria. Men find it difficult to disclose their abuse and seek help, they only minimise their abusive experience. They avoid requesting help due to the fear of gender biased ridicule, shame, or being labelled the initiators of violence (Barrett et al., 2020; Morgan et al. 2016; Walker et al., 2019). Intimate partner violence has become a global health problem and is perceived as a female issue, whereas IPV against men is a reality and men are suffering in silence (Walker et al. 2019). According to Simon and Wallace (2018) and Zanchetta et al. (2017) media is biased in reporting of men’s health issues and less focused on IPV except in

extreme cases. The voices of men in the media regarding violence perpetrated against them seems not to be enough.

Kgatle (2021) alludes that in South Africa, there is a lack of statistical data of abuse men. This could mean IPV violence against men is less recognised or is not regarded as a social problem and not recognised by the public. Machisa et al. (2011) point out that South Africa reports an extremely high incidence of IPV against women while no data exists on men as victims of IPV. Carthy et al. (2023) mention that statistics on male victims that are available are in developed countries. Medzani (2019) mentions that in Zimbabwe statistics on men abuse is non-existent which is the reason for the lack of coverage on the subject. Medzani (2019) further argues that state agencies such as police lack the system to collect such data because that is where abused men report their cases, The failure to report men abuse fails the victims of IPV. Hereafter, South African based IPV non-government organisations focus on vulnerable women and girls, providing support to them and almost no services are provided for male victims of IPV, apart from trauma counselling offered by certain Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transexual and Intersex (LGBTI) community organisations. Kalimaposo et al. (2022) mention that the government of the Republic of Zambia and other relevant stakeholders protect all victims of gender-based violence and that police have made some reforms in responding to GBV. However, all processes taken to fight GBV are only focused on women as victims, and men are left behind. Yet, literature and data has shown that men are in fact victims of IPV and that male victimisation is likely to be underreported. However, the focus has continued to be about women. Society still seems to ignore the fact that men can be victims of intimate partner violence at the hands of women (Kgatle et al. 2021; Perryman and Appleton, 2016; Thobejane, Luthada and Mogorosi, 2018). Shuler (2010) and Johnson (2012) point out that due to the fact that females report the violence while male victims underreport or fail to report incidents of IPV to the police due to embarrassment, fear of disbelief. Society's view then is that males cannot (or possibly, should not) be victims of IPV and the statistics on male victims may not be representative. According to South African Police Services (SAPS) (2020) data indicated that of the 47 men murdered in April and June 2020, 31 of those men were murdered by their girlfriends, out of 951 cases of grievous bodily harm, 131 were reported to be committed by wives and girlfriends and 211 common assault cases reported were committed by wives and girlfriends.

The more, I engage myself in this topic, the more I learn and hear about abused men and it is dating back years ago and still there is no recognition. There has been little or no awareness about men abuse on the radio stations on national television channels. Some incidences of men abuse were not widely publicised as against women, where men were poured with boiled oil, stabbed by their female intimate partners, and even killed by their female intimate partners. Few examples of these incidents are, James Mazibuko who was badly burnt with oil by the mother of his two children during his visit to the children in Zondi, Soweto. He suffered severe burn wounds to his face, neck and chest following the attack in front of his two children aged five and eight. This happened after he rejected his ex-partner's demands that they get back together (Mafokwane, 2019). In another case that was reported, a woman was sentenced to three life sentences for killing her two lovers and then burying them in a single shallow grave at her house in Olievenhoutbosch, Pretoria. In 2016, she killed her boyfriend, Michael Tshangisa after she alleged that he had infected her with HIV and beat him to death with a hammer. A year later, she killed Gift Phiri who was her other boyfriend at the time, whom she accused of assaulting her and she fed him poison and drowned him in a dustbin filled with water. The last victim was her son, Avile Jongwa, and she killed him in 2018 by assaulting him with a hammer in front of his siblings, aged 5 and 14 at the time (Moloi, 2024).

Another case was reported of Nkosiyethu Joe Fumba who was an abused man, but like many other men who suffer abuse from their wives or girlfriends, he remained silent about it. His wife allegedly poured hot oil on him while he was sleeping and a few days before he was poured with hot oil, he was hit in his forehead with iron and had a wound. He sadly died from his wound injuries at Chris Hani Baragwanath Academic Hospital in Diepkloof, Soweto. (Gender Sonke Justice website, 2016). One of the South African rappers Nkululeko 'Flabba' Habedi who was stabbed to death by his girlfriend at his home in Alexandra township, Gauteng in 2015. She claimed, she was forced to push and stab Habedi in an effort to flee from him. She later admitted that she had intentionally stabbed the rap star. She was sentenced to 12 years imprisonment for murder and was released on parole after serving half her sentence (Shange, 2015). A woman was accused and charged with attempted murder after she allegedly poured boiling water on his genitals and the men suffered third degree burns. The men were accused of cheating by his abusive wife (Marupeng, 2018). This further calls for a study to explore and describe the lived experiences of male victims of IPV perpetrated by their female partners to develop support guidelines.

1.5 Rationale for the study

Most studies that have been done in South Africa on IPV or GBV are conducted on women victims. Research organisations like the South African Medical Research Council (SAMRC), have conducted several studies on gender-based violence particularly on women. In addition, the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVr) have conducted several studies highlighting their research on gender-based violence against women. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) has also conducted several studies focusing on gender-based violence against women.

According to Tshilongo (2022), GBV against men in South Africa has not been as widely or broadly researched as in America or other European countries. Of the few studies they have conducted in South Africa on men abuse, these studies show that men are also victims of IPV (Hogan et al., 2022). In Africa, studies on male victims of IPV are very few. However, this is not surprising because it is in this part of the world where discourse of patriarchy and male domination are most common. According to Andemuson et al. (2022) Nigeria is patriarchal, and men are expected to be physically stronger than women and also considered to hold the dominant power at home. Andemuson et al. (2022) further reveal that men in a patriarchal society find it difficult to tell anyone with confidence that their partners are abusing them. Thus, violence against men is theoretically seen as farfetched. Nahunja (2012) argues that in an African tradition, it is unheard of for women to batter their husbands physically whether they are stronger than them or not. Most communities deem this as a taboo for women to raise their hands to their husbands. In Botswana, however, a study that was conducted by Raditloane (2010) acknowledged that both men and women were victims of GBV. A study that was conducted in Nigeria by Ngomuo, Nzali and Msomba (2023) found that there were forms of domestic violence experienced by both men and women, such as hitting, slapping, intimidation, marital rape, and fighting. Nahunja (2012) points out that IPV against men and its effect receives little attention while male victims who report the incidents to the authorities often face social stigma as well as possibilities of retaliation and other dilemmas. If the male victims of IPV report the violence to social agencies and authorities, the victims are often disbelieved or ridiculed.

African societies have difficulty accepting the idea of men as victims of IPV and nothing much is being done to assist victims who seek help. Studies suggest that men are not able to admit

that they are abused by their female partners because of the belief that men are not supposed to show emotional pain publicly (Thobejane and Luthada, 2019; Victor and Olive, 2019). In Kenya, there are no shelters for male victims of IPV and supportive resources for male victims are generally lacking (Ayodele, 2017; Kalekye, 2018). The study that was conducted in Zimbabwe on male victims of IPV found that despite having shelters for abused women no such shelters exist to serve male victims of IPV (Medzani, 2019). Meanwhile, IPV institutions there provide services only to women and this is an indicative of lack of support for male victims. Scott-Storey et al. (2023) highlight that most existing resources are designed primarily for female victims, leaving male victims of IPV without adequate options for help. This study sought to explore the effects and aims of intimate partner violence against men. Intimate partner violence against men is still a taboo subject in South Africa because of patriarchy, gender roles and society's perception of men. Therefore, Ademuson et al. (2022) mention that in Nigeria and most African countries, domestic violence against men is a topic people barely talked about. In support of this, Kazaura et al. (2016) mention that due to the taboo surrounding male victims of IPV in Kenya, there is a possibility that IPV against men is high because society is concerned about female IPV victims. Athuman and Mushin (2022) mention that in most African countries it is taboo for male victims of IPV to talk about their abuse or report the abuse. Men just like women are also victims of IPV and they are largely invisible, unrecognised and belittled. If an abused man seeks help as a victim of IPV or domestic violence, the majority in society will see it as a laughable situation. Society chooses to ignore male victims of IPV. Society can hardly recognise female perpetrated violence towards men because much attention is placed on men's physical strength and men being the IPV perpetrators (McCarrick et al. 2016). The way in which society constructs the gender roles of men and women as passed down from generation to generation has a severe negative effect on the existence of male victims of IPV in our society. Heilman and Barker (2018) argue that society expects men and women to adhere to certain norms and roles and men are socialised to uphold the cultural notion of masculinity. Female victims of IPV are increasingly treated with sympathy and support by society, whereas male victims are treated with disbelief and there is little help available for them. Donne et al. (2018) mention that there are many interventions available for female victims of IPV, but the same options are not accessible for male victims of IPV.

This subject has not yet been fully explored or exhausted in Southern Africa and in South Africa particularly. This is a topic of interest to explore because of practices such as patriarchy, culture, religion and masculinity notion in our societies that oppressed minorities including the

male victims of IPV. Baker et al. (2022) argues that GBV against men in Africa is fuelled by the patriarchal culture that is dominant and men are pushed into GBV situations because customs and traditions deter them from doing so due to societal norms and perceptions that men are superior to their partners. However, extensive research has been done in South Africa on intimate partner violence against women. There are services and legislation taking care of this issue, while male victims of IPV are not part of the puzzle. To support this, Thusi and Mlambo (2023) mention that the South African Constitution seems to place less emphasis on gender-based violence concerns that concentrates more on males as victims. In support of this, Medzani (2019) observes that the Zimbabwean Constitution provides for the rights of specific groups particularly women and children, but it does not in the same way provide for specific rights of men. This study is therefore important as it focuses on one of the under researched subjects in Southern Africa and South Africa particularly. The outcome of the study will help to identify barriers preventing men from reporting abuse, forms of abuse experienced by men and what men do when they are abused by their partners. The findings of this study will draw public attention to the silent issue of men abuse, help shape IPV/GBV policies, programmes and work of NPOs that handle domestic violence issues. The outcome of this work will also help bring some changes to how domestic violence awareness campaigns are being planned by putting emphasis on inclusion of male victims of abuse.

This study draws on a number of theories including the social construction theoretical (SCT) frameworks, the social learning theory (SLT), the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and feminist theory (FT). The gap in the subject matter is that there are very few qualitative and quantitative studies that have been done (or explored) on the subject matter in Africa and South Africa which made it difficult for the researcher to mostly use the literature from Africa. According to Obeji et al. (2017) and Thobejane et al. (2018) in Africa and Kenya, only a few studies have been conducted exposing intimate partner violence against men, and the published statistics may be misleading. In support of this, Kigaya (2021) mentions that statistics from law enforcement and medical institutions where male victims of IPV may seek help, are lacking.

O'Connor (2020) alludes that most male victims of IPV assume that services are tailored made to meet the needs of female victims instead. However, intimate violence against women has been extensively covered by South African scholars and researchers. It is hoped that this study will spark or start a debate among the academics, researchers, demographers, policy makers

and influence future policy planning in social development of the population. This will also provide a platform for men who are victims of intimate partner violence to be able to take a stand and fight the abuse. It will also inform donors on the need to allocate funding for future research on the subject.

1.6 Statement of the problem

Intimate partner violence has become a major health and social challenge and it has been for years been seen as a female issue, though violence against men is a shocking reality and men suffer in silence (Ongundipe et al. 2018; Walker et al. 2019). In the 1960s and 1970s, the women's movement sparked a dramatic change in the intimate partner violence space, which contributed to the development of public resources and awareness of the issue (Holiday, 2019). It is argued that intimate partner violence against males is an old phenomenon that can be traced from as early as the 1970s and in 1977 the term "husband battered syndrome" was coined by Suzanne Steinmetz (Pleck et al.1977). Confirming this, Vivian et al. (2019) mention that the recognition that intimate female partners are assaulting their husbands emerged in the early 1970s when the study of domestic violence first began. Yet, to this day people still widely regard IPV against men as a fairytale it is still highly stigmatised and shamed (Douglas and Hines, 2011). The current study seeks to investigate intimate partner violence against men in the Pretoria Central Business Centre. Despite its universality, Kigaya (2021) alludes that intimate partner violence against men is still one of the least talked about human rights, public health, and criminological issue in many African societies, including South Africa (Gateri, Ondicho and Karimi, 2021). Mphatheni and Mlamba (2022) argue that intimate partner violence where men are the victims has often been marginalised, yet society focuses on the outcomes when men retaliate. Kgatle (2021) argues that male victimisation in IPV situations has long been a neglected phenomenon in academic research and is hardly ever mentioned in social service provision. Intimate partner violence against men remains an unseen phenomenon.

Therefore, it is essential to address domestic violence holistically without assigning a gender to the abusers. Tshoane et al. (2024) mention that the focus on intimate partner violence has been for some time been more on women while reports of domestic violence perpetrated by women against men exist. However, the rates and impact of domestic violence perpetration by women against men are significantly smaller in comparison to those perpetrated by men against women. Walker et al. (2019) mention that male victims of intimate partner violence find it

difficult to identify themselves as victims of IPV since the attitude is that women are the only victims and male victims of IPV are labelled as weak and non-masculine (Walker et al. 2019). Majola et al. (2022) mention that in South Africa, men still hold on to their beliefs and cultural status as the patriarchs in the family and society. They are now struggling to redefine themselves and their role in the 21st century. Intimate partner violence perpetrated by women against men is a tragedy that has always existed but has never been given the attention it deserves, like domestic violence perpetrated against women (Thobejane et al. 2018).

Research shows that men indeed are victims of intimate partner violence at the hands of their female partners. Walker et al. (2019) reveal that men experienced severe physical, sexual and verbal abuse coupled with manipulative and controlling behaviours, economic violence and sexual harassment from their females (Lien and Lorentzen, 2019). Tshoane et al. (2024) mention that women tend to also use their financial or economic power as a weapon of suppression of their financial disadvantage to men. Bates and Taylor (2021) mention that physical abuse on male victims has been found to include serious physical attacks from their female partners including hitting, stabbing with an object, kicking, biting, and choking. In South Africa, several severe cases have been reported of violence against men which became a major media story. However, the daily abuse of men is not reported by the media. Another example of female brutality against men is the story of a husband killed in South Africa. The Pretoria High Court has sentenced a mother to three life sentences for killing her son and two lovers, one of whom allegedly infected her with HIV (Sowetan Live, 24 June 2024). Another documented a story of a Limpopo a 33-year-old woman who was arrested and charged with murder for shooting her husband during an argument over his alleged infidelity. For example, there is a case of a stalwart Ntobeko Patrick Maqubela whose body was found in June 2009 decomposing in his bed. His wife, Thandi Maqubela was convicted of murder and sentenced to an effective 18 years in prison (Times Live, 29 September 2017).

Lien and Lorentzen (2019) mention that most male victims of IPV hide their abuse with the hope that it will protect them from a low self-esteem since society does not believe men can be abused and be weak. They also prefer to prioritize the care, support and protection of their children (Thobejane et al. 2018; Lysova et al. 2020). Most South African studies have focused on males as perpetrators of IPV against women and women as the only victims (for example renowned research organisations in South Africa, like the South African Medical Research Council, Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation and the Human Sciences Research Council); their research focus is on all sorts of violence where men are perpetrators

and women are victims. The current study therefore seeks to investigate the prevalence, causes, effects and consequences of abuse against men in intimate relationships where the problem is gradually becoming rampant.

The study also focuses on society's perception of male victims of IPV. McCarrick et al. (2016) highlight that it is vital to realise that gender stigmatisation is found to influence the societal perception regarding the harshness of IPV against men. Bates (2020) argues that society does not perceive male abuse to be as severe and as harmful as female victimisation. Society always minimises the female perpetrated intimate partner violence and men are always blamed for being the victims (Walker et al. 2020). Due to the cultural barriers, men are perceived to be strong and masculine, so society is reluctant to support male victims. Thus, culture poses a risk for male victims of IPV to lose respect in the communities in which they live (Thobejane et al. 2018).

The study also focuses on the issue of silence. Walker et al. (2020) mention that male victims of IPV appear reluctant to report their abuse, due to the strong societal perception of IPV that females are the only victims and men are not victims. Intimate partner violence is underreported and overlooked by society; thus, this promotes silence as men are prevented from disclosing their victimisation to anyone deepened by fear of being spurned by community members (Park et al. 2020; Lysova and Dim, 2020). A study conducted in Vuwani, South Africa, is also consistent with other studies that abused men are hesitant to report the abuse out of fear of being ridiculed (Thobejane et al. 2018). Underreporting of male victimisation contributes to the lack of support, education and shelter and contributes to this problem not being addressed appropriately (Thobejane and Luthada, 2019).

There is still a lack of knowledge of the impact that IPV has on men regarding accessing GBV services. According to Mshweshwe (2020) in South Africa, there is a shortage of research on the IPV services available for male victims of IPV and the impact it has on the male victims and their empowerment needs (Scott-Storey et al. 2023). Bates (2020) argues that male victims of IPV encounter challenges that are connected to their experience of seeking help and navigating through gendered services that are only assisting female victims. Walker et al. (2020) mention that society's perception that men are abusers prevents male victims of intimate partner violence from seeking help and aggravates the social stigmas that are held by society about male victims. Lysova and Dim (2022) argue that when compared to women victims, men are less likely to disclose abuse to anyone or use formal services (e.g. shelters or GBV hotlines)

due to fear of stigma and not to being believed. The researcher of the current study suggests that these incidents clearly show that there is a problem that is left unattended and needs serious attention. The researcher of the current suggests that a solution to this pandemic is required to help the abused men and society to understand that anyone can be the victim of intimate partner violence; this therefore led to this study. Literature cited so far indicates the prevalence of abuse against men but a lot of work that broadly underscores the effects of such abuse on men and society are very scarce. Therefore, this research is designed to investigate the effects of abuse against men in Pretoria CBD.

1.7 Aim of the study

The overall aim of the study is to shed insight into intimate partner violence against men. The focus is on the social construction of gender and the role it plays in intimate partner violence against men. The social construction of gender places expectations and ascribes particular roles and responsibilities to men and women. Men feel they have to live up to these expectations which put them under pressure to perform in society.

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To ascertain the types of intimate partner violence against men.
- To examine the extent of intimate partner violence against men.
- To investigate factors facilitating and inhibiting violence against men in intimate relationships.

In order to address these objectives, the study asks the following research questions:

- How do men understand the extent of intimate partner violence against men?
- What form does IPV against men take?
- How does the social construction of gender facilitate or inhibiting IPV against men?

1.8. Theoretical frameworks

This study was based on four theoretical frameworks including the Social Construction Theory, Theory of Planned Behaviour, Social Learning Theory and Feminist Theory .

Social Construction Theory

This study draws on the social construction theory (SCT) to investigate society's perception about IPV against men, perception of the institutions that provide services to women victims of IPV and their response to IPV against men. Figure 1.1 diagram below presents the conceptual framework of the study, social construction theory. In order to successfully realise this objective, the social construction theory was adopted as a theoretical framework in the proposed study. This section discusses theoretical conceptualization of intimate partner violence. According to Murphy et al. (1998) the social construction theory was developed thirty years ago, having and its origin from sociology, while also being associated with the post-modern era in qualitative research. Social construction theory draws from different disciplines some of which include social history, social interactionism, gender studies and women 'history. Social construction theory was developed as an attempt to come to terms with the nature of reality. Social construction theory with regards to gender argues that masculinity depends on intersecting social conditions. This theory shows that girls and boys are actively involved in constructing their own gender identities. The social construction theory explains that there is no essential, universally distinct character that is masculine or feminine. This theory also mentions that behaviours are influenced by a range of factors in society including class, culture, ability, religion, age, body shape and sexual preference.

According to Allard et al. (1995) social construction theory identifies gender identities as dynamic, ongoing, changing and changeable, rather than static or fixed. Emma (2009) mentions that gender depends on institutions, different positions, apparatus and language. There are many influences in society that are involved in constructing gender roles. Mboya and Mwakalinde (2019) in their study in Tanzania found that traditional gender roles and power dynamics could contribute factors, to the perpetrators of domestic violence against men. Allan et al. (1995) mention that people are not passively shaped by the larger societal forces such as schools or the media, but are active in selecting, adapting, and rejecting the dimensions they choose to incorporate, or not into their version of gender. According to Frandsen and Johansen (2017), social construction theory is a process in which people's experience of reality is determined by the meanings they attach to that reality. Social construct theory is a product of collective meaning making and ongoing negotiation through complex interactions among multiple social actors in a particular social setting. Social construction theory emphasises that

multiple realities are produced from interactions among multiple social actors, while multiple realities compete for truth and legitimacy (Fairhurst and Grant, 2010).

Social construct theory emphasises the complexities and contradictions in social relationships that shape understandings of what it means to be male and female. Greco (2013) argues that social construction of gender is clear from birth and the child begins socialisation into a female or a male. Construction of masculinity and femininity serves as a feature in child's life and has a substantial influence on how the child's life is led. Social construction of gender is a process by which expectations related with being a man or a woman are passed on through society (Anderson and Hysock, 2009). Fenstermaker and West (2002) mention that gender construction of distinctions between males and females, and there is a growth of social expectations onto these categories. However, these are then declared natural, which in turn legitimatise their ongoing existence. Boss (2008) argues that gender is a structure of society and it is a devise by which society controls its members. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO) (2015) social construction is a trait that a given society considers appropriate for men and women roles, behaviours and activities. Women present themselves according to society's expectations and attitudes that are placed on women from the time they are born. Men are classed as strong, vigorous, manly/powerful courageous, self-confident and have the ability to face the outside world. Societies have different gender expectations and social and cultural norms that are entrenched in patriarchal gender relations that repeatedly perpetuate discrimination against males as the perpetrators of GBV and contribute to systemic GBV in most Sub-Saharan African countries (Mshweshwe, 2020).

Different types of violence are supported by different cultures and social norms. Some traditional beliefs imply that men have a right to control and discipline their wives through physical means (Mitra and Singh, 2007; Abrahams et al., 2009; Ilika, 2005). The role of culture and masculinity does ignore, intimate partner violence against men, the impact of gender roles and socialization of the victims of intimate partner violence. Ngomuo et al. (2023) mention that male victims of IPV remain silent not reporting the abuse to relevant authorities due to cultural beliefs that men are stronger in the community. Christensen (2019) mentions that norms and cultural practices at the community level exist that label men as perpetrators of gender-based violence and hold uncertainty that males could be victims as well. Construction of gender roles and responsibilities in society has created a challenge to those people who do not conform to the "norms" or standards set by society. According to Flores (2012), it is how the society groups

people and how the society treats certain people over others. It is a social process that differentiates between what is 'not normal' and what is 'normal'. Lusca (2014) mentions that gender is a social construct which has effects and concerns that it is real in society and that shapes the way society sees others and themselves. West and Zimmerman (1991) mention that gender may involve 'power', where women are subordinate and men are dominant. Antrosio (2014) mentions that social construction has several effects on the lives of individuals who live in a particular society. Social constructions are deeply entrenched structures and change takes work and time.

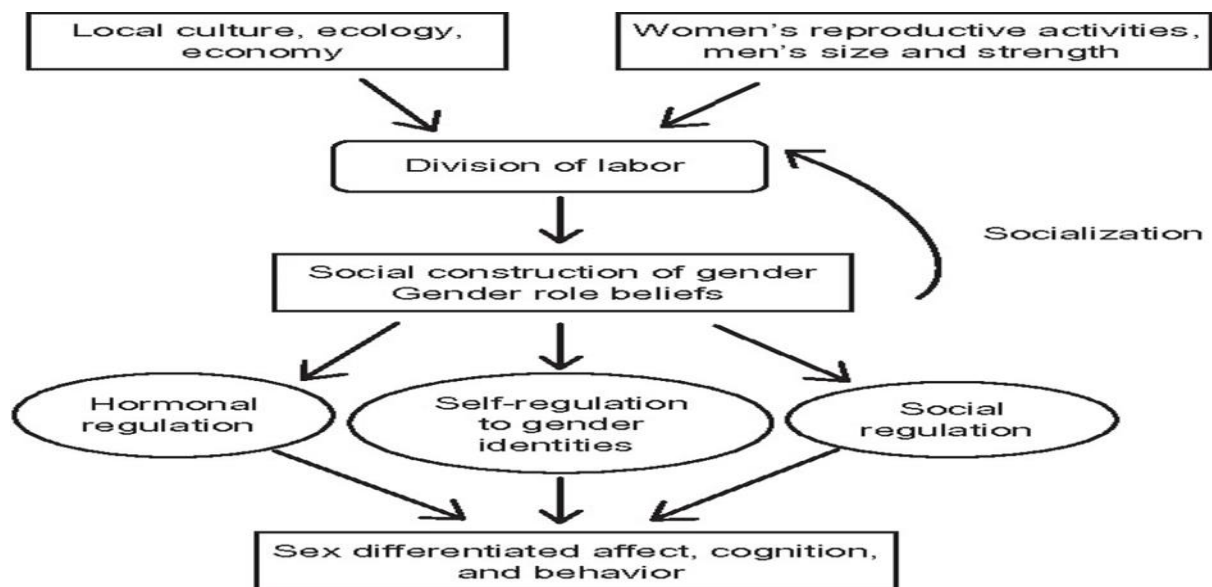
According to Schneider et al. (2005) social culture influences gender construction through individual's development. Gender identities vary from one society to another depending on the way the members of society evaluate the role of females and males. Gender identity can also be influenced by culture, historical background, religion and family background. Culture and religion also perpetuate discrimination against women because sexism views of women are centred on beliefs that women are inferior to men due to superficial views that one can hold against women. Gender, according to the sociological perspective is a systematically structured in social institutions and also embedded in the social structure of the society. Gender is created within the structures of foremost social institutions such as churches, schools, state and these institutions shape the experiences of the people (Anderson and Hysock, 2009).

Aronson et al. (2011) mention that religion, attitudes and culture have huge impact on gender identity and promote stereotypes, beliefs and gender discrimination against women. In contrast, a study that was conducted in Tanzania by Ngomuo et al. (2023) found that some women were spending more time in religious activities which caused misunderstandings with their husbands and led to violence against men. Ngomuo et al. (2023) further highlight that women devote most of their time to the church and neglect their home responsibilities, and when men express their concern, the women react by being violent towards them.

Social construction theory also emphasises how power is historically shaped, contextually regulated, linked to the benefits and costs of "emphasised femininity". This theory is also based on obedience and accommodating the desires and interests of men and "hegemonic masculinity" characterised by power, authority, aggression, technical competence, and heterosexuality (Connell, 2005). Social constructionism may believe that a great deal of human life exists as it does due to socialisation and interpersonal influences (Gergen, 1985). Owen

(2000) argues that social construction theory concentrates on investigating the social influence on society and individual life but does not deny the influence of genetic inheritance. Owen (2000) further argues that social construction theory defines what is inappropriate behaviour in a society, what is abnormal, taboo, what is not legitimate and deviant to the society. Culture defines what is normal, appropriate, conforming, desirable and permitted in a society. Social construction theory regards individuals as integral with cultural, political, and historical development, in specific times and places, and resituates psychological processes cross-culturally, in social and temporal contexts (Owen, 2000).

Figure 1.1: Social construct diagram



Source: Lorber and Farrell (1991)

When critiquing the social construction theory, Danzinger (1997) and Parker (1997) mentioned that the theory motivation has given rise to two separate aspects of social constructionism. One aspect promotes a belief which does not give rise to any clear political activity but is however opposed to the positivist tradition which still informs most of mainstream thinking. The other aspect holds that whilst social constructions are comparative, they are not uninformed but emerge through social processes that are already shaped by influences such as power relationships and material resources. Social construction theory explains that gender roles and behaviours are constructed by the society which makes it difficult for male victims of IPV to express their feelings, fears, and emotions because society does not subscribe to men who are

not strong. In the context of IPV, this theory puts pressure on men to conform and adhere to the norms and standards that are set by society as a dominant gender.

Social construction theory shows that masculinity, culture, and gender roles are assigned by society and can lead to violence in an intimate relationship. Masculinity and culture play an important role in IPV against men because male victims of IPV do not report the incidents and do not even talk about it. Masculinity and culture allow men to be dominant to their partners. The gender roles and responsibilities in gay men, mention that men who abuse their male partners subscribe to strict male sex roles whereby men should be respected and admired (Jennings and Murphy, 2000). Eirik (1998) argues that male victims of IPV are reluctant to report or to get help because their self-esteem and confidence has been harmed due to violence, but they still want to remain “manly” to their societies. Adopting the social construction theory, which were originally developed in the context of the developed countries the study will contribute to knowledge at the theoretical level in South Africa with regards to intimate partner violence against men.

Cultural and social norms are highly influential in the use of violence and shaping individual behaviour. Social norms can support and encourage the use of violence or can protect against violence. Social norms and culture are rules or expectations on how people should behave in a social group (Durlauf and Blume, 2008). These social norms govern what is acceptable and not acceptable with others, offering social standards of appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in a society. Durlauf and Blume (2008) further argue that because individuals in a society prefer to conform to these norms, therefore they persist. According to Durlauf and Blume (2008) internal and external pressure is supposed to maintain social norms and culture, therefore individuals are discouraged from violating them because of the guilt and shame that come from the internalisation of social norms. Individual’s attitudes and beliefs do not relate with social norms and culture; however, they may influence culture and beliefs if they are internalised.

Theory of Planned Behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s by Ajzen Icek as an overall theory to predict and explain behaviour for various types of behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). Given the background of the challenges and issues faced by male victims of intimate partner violence, one of the study's theoretical arguments is informed by a critical

reflection of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) The theory of planned behaviour regards behaviour intention as the proximal determinant of human social behaviour that has effectively predicted and explained a host of behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). The theory of planned behaviour has been broadly used in social psychology-related research (Chang et al. 2015; Eggers et al. 2013; Ajzen, 1991). In support of this, other researchers mention that TPB is also used as a framework for designing and evaluating the effects of behaviour change interventions (Sheeran et al., 2016; Steinmetz et al., 2016; Tyson et al. 2014).

The theory of planned behaviour is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA), which was developed by Martin Fishbein and Ajzen Icek in 1967 and the theory suggested that a person's behaviour is determined by a person's intention to perform the behaviour (see Figure 1.2). The theory of reasoned action maintains that decision and intention predict behaviour and behaviour is determined by a person's intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). The theory of reasoned action has been the dominant theoretical approach to guide research on health-related behaviour for the past three decades (Ajzen, 1991). The theory is well recognised among researchers and is familiar to many students, practitioners and policymakers (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). The theory of reasoned action suggests that if a person evaluates behaviour as positive and think that people want him or her to perform that behaviour, this results in high motivation and the person is more likely to perform that behaviour.

The theory of planned behaviour discusses behavioural characteristics, such as social attitude and personality traits. According to Ajzen (2020), the background factors of TPB are personality traits, attitudes, intelligence, demographic characteristics, and life values. According to Ajzen and Schmidt (2020) demographic characteristics (like age, race, education, income etc.), emotions, mood and life value may lead to certain intentions and behaviour. According to Ajzen (1991), people have different beliefs that events are influenced by personality traits, abilities, motivation and external behaviours such as other people's behaviours. The theory was used to predict and explain an individual's abuse of their intimate partners and to investigate the factors associated with attitudes, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms (Betts 2011; Thompson et al. 2011).

The theory of planned behaviour states that the performance of social behaviour is a result of intentions and is not performed without conscious awareness. It is also suggested that when

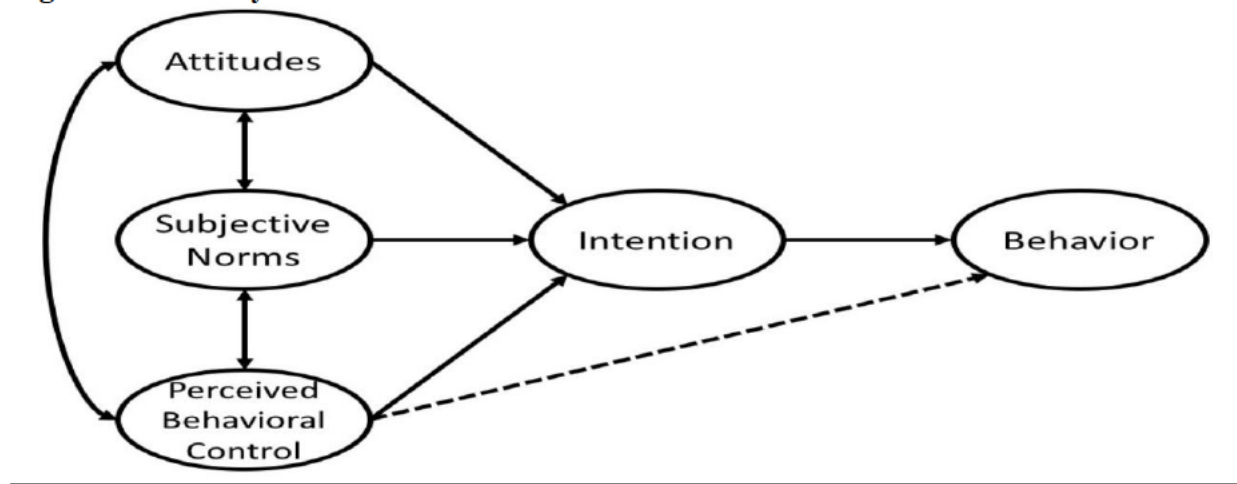
behaviour becomes routine because of repeated performance, the intention may be activated automatically and remain implicit unless actively retrieved (Ajzen and Dasgupta, 2015). Ajzen (1991) mentions that intentions reflect a person's level of motivation to endorse the behaviour and intentions are formed by attitudes towards behaviour and subjective norms (the person's perceptions of social pressure to perform the behaviour). The theory of planned behaviour emphasises the individual's intention to perform a given behaviour and there is a high correlation between behavioural intention and actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The behavioural intention is influenced by three main analytical constructs, namely attitude towards the behaviour, perceived behavioural control and subjective norm (Ajzen, 2005; Montañó et al. 2008).

Ajzen (1991) mentions that in the TPB, beliefs are the building blocks for the formation of subjective norms, perceptions of behavioural control and attitudes towards behaviour, and eventually behavioural intentions. People are more likely to plan and endorse certain behaviours when they feel that they can perform those behaviours successfully (Ahmed et al. 2020). Bamberg (2013) mentions that changing behaviour is in stages, from pre-contemplation through contemplation, preparation, action and maintenance of the behaviour. According to Rhodes et al. (2002), perceptions of individuals would endorse a given behaviour and their ability to accomplish a particular task. Perceptions of one's ability to control one's actions could play a large role in predicting abusers' intentions and behaviours (Cantos et al. 1993).

Ajzen (2002) suggests that the intention of an intimate partner to perpetrate violence is influenced by behavioural beliefs regarding violent behaviours. The theory has also been used in romantic partner abuse as a useful predictor of behaviour intentions and the predictions of intentions to engage in romantic partner abuse (Kernsmith, 2005; Flisher et al. 2007). The TPB suggests that people's behaviours and intentions are consistent with their beliefs and their beliefs reflect reality (Jussim, 2012; Ajzen and Dasgupta, 2015). The theory of planned behaviour has been used in various studies of female victims of domestic violence to investigate the normative beliefs that impacted attitudes and intentions toward the uptake of counselling that had been offered to them. The theory was also used to understand the reasons why women stay or leave their abusive relationships (Edwards, Gidycz, and Murphy, 2015; O'Doherty et al. 2016). Underwood (2004) mentions that TPB is predictive of the initiator's abusive behaviour and conclude that the theory is not appropriate for females only. The theory also served to predict physical violence amongst domestic violence perpetrators while little is known about its ability to predict sexual and verbal abuse (Tolman et al. 1996). In contrast to

the view, Betts et al. 2011) mention that the theory was successful in predicting that males and females engage in physical, verbal and sexual romantic violence. Individual's behaviour intentions can be affected by external socio-cultural factors such as the history of family violence and gender stereotypes that emerge as a as important predictor of domestic violence (Rothman et al., 2015; Paat and Markham, 2019). Family violence experiences were closely related to the development of domestic violence (Rothman et al. 2015).

Figure 1.2: Theory of Planned Behaviour



Source: Ajzen (1991).

Social Learning Theory

Figure 1.3 below presents one of the conceptual frameworks of the study, social learning theory. The social learning theory (SLT) was proposed by Albert Bandura in the 1960s and 1970s, suggesting that people learn their behaviour by observation, imitation, and modelling other people's behaviour. Over the years, various theories have been proposed to understand human behaviour. For a long time, the prevailing perspective influenced by various personality theories suggested that people's actions are driven by internal forces such as needs, drives, and impulses, often functioning beneath our conscious awareness (Bandura and Walters, 1977). The social learning theory highlights the importance of where people acquire their knowledge, the importance of observational learning, attitudes, skills, and observing the behaviour of others. The theory believes that humans think about the relationship between their behaviour and its impact, and humans are active in processing information (Bandura, 1977). Muro and Jeffrey (2008) mention that social learning theory is referred to as the promotion of desirable behaviour change and as an important component of sustainable resources management.

The theory explains that childhood experiences of family dynamics, structure, and relational patterns account for some of the contributing factors from which women who violate or abuse their spouse learn their behaviour (Gateri, Ondicho and Karimi, 2021). Since these internal forces were seen as the main drivers of behaviour, explanations for human actions were primarily sought within the individual. While this viewpoint gained significant acceptance among both professionals and the general public, it faced its share of criticism. Bandura and Walter (1977) state that theories like these faced criticism on both theoretical and practical levels. Regularly, the internal factors were assumed based on the behaviours they were believed to influence, leading to superficial explanations. For example, a person's quick temper might be interpreted as stemming from a hostile impulse, which is then linked back to that impulse itself (Bandura and Walters, 1977). Various personality theories offered different sets of motivators, with some suggesting a handful of universal drives while others included a wide range of specific ones.

According to the social learning theory, individuals can develop new behavioural patterns either through personal experiences or by observing the actions of others (Bandura and Walters, 1977). The most basic form of learning which is based on direct experience, is primarily influenced by the rewards and punishments that result from specific actions. Individuals frequently encounter various situations that require their response. Bandura and Walters (1977) state that some of the strategies they employ may not yield positive results, while others may lead to more advantageous outcomes. This process of differential reinforcement ultimately allows for the selection of effective behaviours from a range of exploratory actions, while ineffective responses are eliminated (Bandura and Walters, 1977). It is widely accepted that responses are often unconsciously and automatically reinforced by their immediate outcomes. Bandura and Walters (1977) suggest that basic behaviours can be modified to a certain extent through reinforcement, even when individuals are unaware of the connection between their actions and the resulting consequences. Nevertheless, human cognitive abilities allow for a more profound utilisation of experiences compared to that of a non-thinking entity. In the context of social learning theory, reinforcement plays a crucial role in providing information and motivation, while also possessing the ability to enhance responses (Bandura and Walters, 1977).

While it is possible to modify behaviour through the application of rewards and punishments, relying exclusively on this learning method would be incredibly challenging and risky.

Environments are fraught with potentially fatal outcomes for individuals who make hazardous mistakes. Consequently, it would be imprudent to depend solely on differential reinforcement of trial-and-error methods when instructing children in swimming, adolescents in driving vehicles, and adults in acquiring intricate occupational and social skills (Bandura and Walters, 1977). Beyond the fundamental concerns of survival, envisioning a socialisation process that relies solely on the selective reinforcement of random behaviours to impart the language, customs, vocational practices, familial traditions, and the educational, religious, and political norms of culture to each new member is challenging (Bandura and Walters, 1977). This process would lack the essential presence of role models who embody these cultural patterns through their actions. Bandura and Walters (1977) state that many behaviours demonstrated by individuals are acquired, whether intentionally or unintentionally through the influence of others' examples.

Numerous factors contribute to the significant role that modelling plays in human learning within daily contexts. When errors are expensive or pose risks, new response strategies can be cultivated without unnecessary mistakes by offering proficient models who illustrate the proper execution of required tasks (Bandura and Walters, 1977). Certain complicated behaviours can only be acquired through the guidance of models. For instance, if children are not exposed to spoken language, it would be nearly impossible to develop the linguistic abilities that form the foundation of any language (Bandura and Walters, 1977). It is unlikely that one could effectively develop complex individual words, much less grammatical speech, through the selective reinforcement of arbitrary vocal sounds (Bandura and Walters, 1977). In general, a positive example serves as a far more effective educator than the repercussions of unmonitored behaviour.

Bandura and Walters (1977) state that identical actions can lead to very different outcomes based on the timing, location and the individuals involved. For instance, running a red light at a busy intersection can have drastically different results compared to crossing when the light is green. As a result, people tend to pay close attention to signals that suggest potential rewards while disregarding those that do not. They rely on cues that indicate possible outcomes to guide their actions. Stimuli that suggest certain behaviours will be punished or not rewarded usually discourage those behaviours, while cues that imply actions are allowed or will be rewarded encourage them (Bandura and Walters, 1977). This ability to adjust responses based on information from preceding stimuli about likely consequences is what enables thoughtful and anticipatory behaviour (Bandura and Walters, 1977).

Stimuli gain their influence by being linked to different outcomes of responses. Conventional views on how stimulus control is formed mainly emphasize direct training, where responses are rewarded only when specific cues are present, and not in other contexts (Bandura and Walters, 1977). While it is true that stimulus control is often created and sustained through the association with the consequences of responses, humans have a unique ability to understand this information symbolically (Bandura and Walters, 1977). This means they can learn about these outcomes without needing to perform the responses and face various rewards, neglect, or punishments.

Figure 1.3: Social Learning Theory



Source: Nabavi (2012)

Feminist theory

Historically, those who endorsed a strict feminist perspective believed IPV was perpetrated by men to fulfil their need to control and affirm their power over female partners. Feminist theorists argue that the need for control over women stems from a largely patriarchal society that perpetuates and celebrates male dominance over women (Ali and Naylor, 2013). Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) argue that violent women who engage in IPV are reacting to violence from their male partners. The John Howard Society (2010) points out that abusive men are motivated by jealousy to assault their partners and the position of women in society influenced the situation of intimate partner violence. In support of this, Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) argue that in society women still assume the passive roles and they are unlikely to control their partners in any way. Intimate partner violence is principally an outcome of patriarchy and mechanisms in maintaining gender inequality between men and women. Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) further

argue that in abusive relationships men use violence to control, gain and enforce power on their partners, while abusive women seek control to gain independence in a relationship.

In the 1970s, violence against women was an acceptable act within marriages. A proportion of feminist literature portrays IPV as a social phenomenon stemming from a patriarchal framework where women are stereotyped as the powerless victims and men portrayed as the powerful perpetrators (Dobash and Dobash, 1979). In the same view as other researchers, Dobash and Dobash (2011) point out that violence against women is used for social construction purposes and IPV should not be studied in different perspective because it forms the extension of control and dominance by males to their women. Dutton (2006) supports feminist researchers such as Dobash and Dobash (1979) affirming that the cause of IPV is gender related and it should be always studied in the same context of gender. In support of this statement Babcock (2003) early research suggested that violence and abuse against male victims was not comparable to females' victims of IPV and women perpetrated violence was to protect women and children . Feminists believe that male victims of IPV cannot be compared to female victims and thus, they cannot have the same treatment and prevention programmes as women victims of IPV (Dobash and Dobash, 2011). Dobash and Dobash (2011) further argue that men are the perpetrators of IPV against while women's and women's violence against men cannot be compared in terms of harshness and impact.

Dobash and Dobash (2011) similarly point out that in relationships men treat their partners as children (parent and child relationship) because they are not equal in authority, power and status. In this instance, women who question authority are beaten into submission. Simmons et al. (2009) mention that female-to-male partner violence is more likely to be in self-defence and most male-to-female partner violence is driven by a need to exert power and control as well as fear of abandonment. Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) argue that women use violence in their relationships because they feel powerless and sometimes are responding to their abusive partners. Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) further argue that women use violence in relationships in reaction to behaviour of their partners amidst attempts that have failed to gain their partners attention. Corvo and deLara (2010) argue that violence against men provides evidence that their abuse is not part of maintaining the patriarchy and the purpose of violence is more likely to be about upholding power over another person regardless of their gender.

Several researchers have criticised feminist theory in relation to IPV against men, Carthy et al. (2023) note that feminist discourse for a long has dominated how violence in heterosexual relationships influences service planning, provision, and policy and how this violence is understood. Stith, McCollum, and Rosen (2011) point out that the feminist argument on IPV is based on a third wave intersectional position that stresses social justice and traditionalist practices and patriarchy as the primary cause of IPV. In support of this view, De Keseredy (2011) points out that feminists are holding back innovation in IPV treatment and research because of an outdated view of “feminism” that IPV is because of patriarchy. George and Stith (2011) argue that modern feminist theorists acknowledge that patriarchy functions also socialise men to feel obligated to uphold prearranged standards of masculinity which influence the way conflict is handled within relationships. The same view is shared by Stith et al. (2011) who mention that the feminist argument indicates patriarchy as a direct cause of wife assault rather than an inducement that interacts with other causes. They argue that the feminist distrust of psychological causes of male violence as potentially ‘exonerative’ and the lack of empirical studies of possible interactive causes conducted within a feminist perspective reflect this. Tsui et al. (2010) mention that naturally men are aggressive and capable of violence, where women only express violent behaviour if it is perpetuated by disorderly thinking.

Stith et al. (2011) emphasise the need to consider the use of violence by both partners and the co-occurrence of psychiatric disorders, substance use and attachment issues in the management of intimate partner violence. Johnson (2011) mentions that modern feminists recognises that the most common form of IPV is bi-directional and perpetrated at similar rates, by both genders. Feminists refer to this type of violence as situational or common couple’s violence. Ferraro (2013) argues that the feminist’s perspectives informed gender and IPV research providing conclusive evidence that IPV against women is related to gender. Harries (1990) also criticised feminist theory reflecting that it neglects to focus on individual experience from sexual orientation and ignores experience of individuals as the margin. Adeboya (2014) argues that various female advocacy groups are more in support of female victims, while less in support of male victims and then male victims suffer in silence. Dempsey (2013) argues that the feminist model views men as violent and women as victims of IPV, emphasising gender stereotypes, minimising the seriousness of female perpetrated abuse and increasing the invisibility of male victims of IPV. Yllo and Bograd (1988) point out that limits in research on male victims of IPV is due to feminist theory that dominated IPV research for the past years. However, male and women partners are equally violent, and this informs that partner violence

against women is unrelated to gender. This approach is questionable because feminist theory is limited to providing insight into experience of female victims of IPV only (Ball, 2011).

1.9 Organisation of the Study

This dissertation consists of six chapters.

Chapter one provides an introduction to intimate partner violence, the rationale of the study and objectives of the study. It contains the background information on the study, including the reasons behind its conceptualisation and theoretical framework.

Chapter two comprised the literature review. It looks at various issues regarding intimate partner violence against men and the previous studies done on intimate partner violence against men. This chapter also evaluated how the concept of IPV and GBV are socially constructed through literature and the subject positions identities and practices warranted by these constructions.

Chapter three comprises the research methodology that has been used in the study. It basically, describes the process of conducting this study. It also gave a justification for choosing the type of sampling methods used. While the focus of the third chapter was the methodology which includes information on the source of the data, the profile of the study area, and the methods of analysis the study used.

Chapter four discusses the qualitative results of the study. This chapter gives an account of the research findings which were derived from the analysis of the in-depth interview transcripts of men who were abused by their intimate female partners. I used a thematic framework analysis to derive codes and themes.

Chapter five summarised the findings of the quantitative results, the implication of the results reports and analysed the findings from the study. Chapter five explores the prevalence of physical, emotional, sexual and financial abuse. This chapter also presents men's coping mechanism. It details the reporting of men affected by IPV and reasons for non-reporting. This also included men's perception about government initiatives on IPV and the media reporting on IPV against men. These findings were presented in the form of tables of frequency,

percentage distributions and summaries.

Finally, chapter six presented a summary of the research findings, policy recommendations and recommendations drawn from the study's findings.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

"At first, she discouraged me from seeing old friends, especially female friends. She threatened to use violence against them. For example, "If so and so visits here, I will be putting a knife in her guts." She would flirt with my friends, but then tell me that they were trying to seduce her behind my back. This left me feeling distrustful of my friends. Later on, I found out that she had been telling them that they should not come round because I was insanely jealous. All this had the effect of damaging my social network." (Cook, 2009).

IPV for a while now has been projected by some researchers (Bowman, 2010; World Health Organisation (WHO), 2012) as the battle of men against women in which men always harm women. However, this is not always the case as many men are victims of various forms of intimate partner violence in both developing and developed countries. Literature shows that IPV against women is a norm, while intimate partner violence against men is not only regarded as an exception but is almost non-existent. According to Gateri et al. (2021), traditional African culture denies the existence of GBV against men due to the fear of losing male integrity, thus considering GBV as a woman's problem. Kigaya (2021) mentions that society denies IPV against men and they are afraid that admission could be an assault on the integrity of the affected family. Internationally and locally, a lack of recognition for male victims of IPV and a lack of laws that hold women IPV perpetrators accountable in the same way as men may increase the duration of abuse (Morgan and Wells, 2016; Obeji et al. 2017). Kigaya (2021) highlights that in developing countries male victimisation has only recently received attention and research on male victims of IPV is limited. Kigaya (2021) further highlights that in Kenya IPV against men has not been explored at the level which it helps to justify the issue.

For too long, incidents of intimate partner violence have been framed exclusively as female issues while male victims are often overlooked (West, 2008). When male victims are overlooked, their children are ignored. These children continue to be damaged by witnessing

the violence irrespective of how severe the violence is (Barber, 2008). In Zimbabwe, due to the country's being a patriarchal society, there is a widely held belief that only women and young girls are the victims of gender-based violence (McMahon, 2018). Lövestad and Krantz (2012) Randle and Graham (2011) RASI (2017) argue that regarding the relative extent of violence suffered and perpetrated by men and also by women, there is still a controversy because when studies bring out crime statistics, women are mainly the victims. Bates et al. (2014); Bates and Graham-Kevan (2016) mention that across the European Union (EU), male victims of IPV are overlooked and policies seem to still be shaped by a gendered approach to IPV which is associated with feminist analyses.

International studies with community samples have found that men experience significant levels of IPV at the hands of their female partners (Lövestad and Krantz, 2012); Randle and Graham, 2011); Machado and Matos (2014); West (2008). A study that was conducted in India by Deshpande (2019) found that Indian women were most dominating and abusive and male victimisation was previously hidden but is currently becoming more open. Allen-Collinson (2009) mention that IPV was seen as a family or personal affair than a social problem. However, today IPV is seen as a crime and also as a social problem. In support of this, Tsui (2014) mentions that for decades, IPV was considered as a private issue and discussions about this issue were not acceptable or not regarded as a social issue. Men's IPV experiences has not been a source of much attention in general, while the focus has been mainly on women experiences of IPV (Douglas et al., 2012; Hines and Douglas, 2009; Tsui, 2014). According to Straus (2010) IPV against men has not been given much attention at the national and international levels either by policy makers, social and health care planners and providers, official and non-government organisations working with violence, funding providers, the media, or the public.

2.2 History of intimate partner violence against men

During 16th and 17th century, England recorded what was called "Skimmington" procession which shows male victims of IPV paraded riding backwards on a horse or donkey, suffering from public mockery. However, women perpetrators of IPV were also punished because they threatened the social order in the society, they were made to ride around on a donkey drinking wine and wipe their mouth with the animal's tail. This process had the public approval from

the senior figures in the society as they felt that it was against natural law for women to have stronger character in a marriage than man (George, 2003). George (2003) further argues that in English history, evidence shows that society was not concerned about wife battering syndrome. Yet, society was more concerned about husband battering because it violated patriarchal norms in society. In France male victims of IPV were also ridiculed and humiliated by society whereby these husbands perceived inability to live up to the male orientated patriarchal ethos in society (Steinmetz, 1977, Plek, 1987) led to the ridicule. George (2003) also mentions that male victims of IPV violate the stereotypical understanding of gender roles, femininity, masculinity, and historic theories of IPV. Sanders (1988; 1986) highlights that the scale and consequence of abuse of men by their female intimate partners is one of the controversial issues in the study of family violence. The evidence of men abuse came from the self-reported surveys and homicide data that men were the victims of abuse. The national survey that was done in 1975 and 1985 indicated that 12% of men and 12% of women were victims of spousal abuse.

Domestic violence against men dates back as far as the 1970s and in the 1980s before focus was on women as exclusive victims (Douglas, Hines and McCarthy, 2012; Hines and Douglas, 2009; Tsui, 2014). Douglas, Hines and McCarthy (2012) argue that evidence of women abusing their partners date back to the early to mid-1970s with IPV incidence reports of women physically and verbally abusing their male partners. Researchers like Markowitz (2000) and Douglas and Hines (2011) argue that violence against men dates back to the 1970's, but it has only gained any significant attention in the 1990's. Research has shown that over the past 30 years, men suffered and still do sustain injuries at the hands of their female partners. The studies that were done in Europe and the United States of America (USA) in the 1970s also show that there was a high incidence of violence against men in their relationship. This was brought to the attention of the public and the criminal justice system by various feminist groups through protests to register their discontent and to seek protection from the law. However, while a majority of those who reported the IPV incidents were women, men have also been found to be victims of intimate partner violence (Langley and Levy 1977; Gelles, 1974; Dobash and Dobash, 1979; Carney, Buttell and Dutton, 2007).

In the 1970s, Erin Pizzey, a sociologist, exposed the "hidden" secret of domestic violence for both men and women. George (2003) mentions that the first researcher to publicise male victims of domestic violence was Suzanne Steinmetz in her paper published in 1978 entitled

“The Battered Husband Syndrome”, detailing abuse of men by their wives in Europe. Pagelow (1985) also mentions that in the late 1970s, Steinmetz (1977) discussed the ‘Battered Husband Syndrome, however, still a taboo even today male abuse is a taboo subject in patriarchal societies. According to Douglas and Hines (2011) a study that was done in the 1970s by Stark and McEvoy (1973) found that there was not enough shelters and psychological support for husband battering. However, wife battering was accepted and had shelters and psychological support. George (2003) mentions that Suzanne Steinmetz’s work caused a paradigm shift from research focused only on males as perpetrators and female as victims. Kelly (2003) argues that feminist lobby groups were critical of Steinmetz’s work and their criticisms ranged from personal attacks of researchers in the field of IPV and of the validity of their research reports minimising its significance. Kelly (2003) further argues that Steinmetz received verbal abuse from feminist lobby groups, bomb threats while efforts were made to remove her from her academic posts because feminist lobby groups and other researchers believed that males are perpetrators of IPV and women were the only victims. Other researchers in the same field of abuse against men backed away from this area because of the radical feminist lobby groups.

According to George (2002) there was a shift in people's attitudes towards what was acceptable behaviour in marital relationships during the last half of the twentieth century. In support of this view, Carney et al., (2007) point out that IPV against males has always been the most controversial subject in the field of domestic violence. George (2003) highlights that women perpetrators of violence broke stereotypical notions that women were victims and men were perpetrators. He appraised the historical evidence of what he termed “The Great Taboo” and found that male victims of IPV were a disgrace and non-normative reality that women can only be the victims of violence and cannot be aggressive. George (2003) further highlights that the taboo was a combination of two society’s ideologies that deny that men can be victimised by women, and the uncomfortable reality that women can be as abusive and controlling as men. According to Carney et al. (2007) from medieval times violence against men was considered as a "great taboo".

2.3 Intimate partner violence against men

Research evidence shows that men perpetrate abuse more frequently than women and women face higher rates of repeated severe abuse, such as assault, or rape and murder. The prevalence

of IPV against men has been increasingly recognised in contemporary literature. According to the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey, approximately 1 in 9 men have experienced severe physical violence by an intimate partner (Scott-Storey et al. 2023). The victimisation of men by their female partners is a serious social problem; however, it is largely ignored by society and it is underreported (Wright, 2016; Park, Bang and Jeon, 2020). Simon and Wallace (2018) note that men's voices regarding violence perpetrated against them seems to be insufficient and not enough. Few studies have concentrated on issues of men's disclosure of their victimisation. However, men also experience violence and abuse at the hands of women (Fleming et al., 2015; 2019; Myhill, 2015; 2017). Thusi and Mlambo (2023) argue that in South Africa, both men and women are victims of intimate partner violence, then only women and children receive appropriate treatment. Mphatheni and Mlamla (2022) highlight that domestic violence where men are the victims has often been marginalised in society, however society focuses on the outcomes when men react. There is therefore a need to address domestic violence against men holistically without assigning a gender to the perpetrator/s and victim/s. Ademuson et al. (2022) argue that domestic violence against men is a human rights problem and is one of the major social and economic problems in the world, it cuts across all boundaries of culture or class which affects most men in the world. According to Athuman and Munishi (2022) in Tanzania, the increasing rate of gender-based violence is fuelled by factors such as education, civil wars, an increase in the income of women, and gender equality campaigns supported by the private and public sectors. Carmo, Grams and Magalhães (2011), Hines and Douglas (2010), and Hogan et al. (2012) argue that men experience violence from their female partners and there was a lack of recognition within society that men can also experience domestic abuse. Mligo (2021) mentions that despite so many cries about domestic violence against women across the world, domestic violence perpetrated by women is a reality and it occurs in every society.

According to Mligo (2021) and Ayo (2017), there has been evidence of the existence of domestic violence against men in the world and in East Africa, Tanzania in particular. Mligo (2021) further mentions that the Iringa region in Tanzania was the leading region for domestic violence against husbands. Hines and Douglas (2011) state that since the study of family violence commenced in the early 1970s, the accounts of women abusing men have been documented. However, the violence against men is highly stigmatised and there is a historic shame that is attached to male victimisation. The incidents of IPV have been framed exclusively as female issues for too long and male victims are often overlooked. In the past,

IPV was seen as personal and family affair more than a social problem that could be resolved, prompting police departments to treat these disturbances with little seriousness (West, 2008; Menard et al. 2009). Previous research suggests that male victims of IPV experienced physical, emotional, sexual, and verbal forms of IPV from their female partners. Mligo (2021) argues that men are also victims of mental harassment and physical abuse by their partners and their in-laws. Therefore, violence against men should also be recognised as a public health and social issue, with appropriate interventions applied. Men also experienced coercive control and manipulative behaviours through gendered stereotypes of abuse, use of children and isolation by their female partners (Morgan and Wells, 2016; Walker et al. 2020). Joseph-Edwards and Wallace (2021) highlight that the prevalence of domestic abuse perpetrated by women is difficult to ignore. They related how to escape dangerous situations, control, power and getting help for men was difficult (Walby and Towers, 2018).

2.4 Why women use violence on men

Carrington (2013) argues that feminist criminologists ignore women's use of violence, both in terms of domestic abuse and more widely, and the lack of feminist theories on female violence has been a major oversight and challenge. Carrington (2013) further argues that the lack of attention from feminists left an opportunity for anti-feminist ideas to take hold in explaining violence committed by women and girls. Achem and Ani (2020) argue that family background and psychological factors are the motivators of IPV and women are generally violent as a result of experiences they inherited from their families before getting married. These women believe that there is nothing wrong with fighting men. Myhill (2015) argues that abusive wives exhibit common characteristics like childhood trauma, emotional abuse and neglect, sexual abuse, physical neglect, depression, anxiety, substance abuse, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Previous studies found that women who use violence experienced childhood trauma, witnessed violence in their childhood, adolescence and adulthood, experienced emotional abuse, sexual abuse, neglect and depression, and substance abuse (Swan et al., 2008; Fulu et al. 2017; Stewart et al. 2014). Maneta et al. (2012) mentioned that studies that focus on the impact of childhood physical and sexual abuse appear to be a strong independent predictor of negative life outcomes after other forms of abuse and neglect. In contrast to this view, Ademuson et al. (2022) argue that women's exposure to violence cannot make them carry out the abuse against men and it is not an acceptable explanation that they were initially victims during their childhood and men were the primary aggressors.

McKinney et al. (2009) argue that women with a history of childhood abuse are more likely to engage in intimate partner violence as well as men with childhood physical abuse history. The long-term impacts of IPV on mental and physical health are well-documented, with a meta-analysis (Zhu, et al. 2024) finding a significant relationship between adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) and IPV. The analysis, which included 22 studies, found that women who experienced ACEs were more likely to experience IPV, and subsequently, developmental mental health conditions such as depression and PTSD. The study highlights the importance of addressing the root causes of IPV, including ACEs, to prevent the intergenerational transmission of trauma and promote healthier relationships (Zhu, et al. 2024).

This leads to excessive fear, anxiety, anger, or sadness. Many women that have been physically abused at a younger age felt justified in trying to take control by insisting on power through abuse (Munjal, 2012). Bates (2014) argues that female abuse may not be motivated by patriarchy needs and values. It should be considered within the context of other forms of aggression, which has potential implications for interventions. Intimate partner violence by women against men is a controversial topic in research, practice, and policy fields. Most research studies indicate that the majority of women's intimate partner violence against men is in context of men as perpetrators and women as victims (Swan et al. 2008). Ademuson et al. (2022) mention that women who perpetuate violence have a history of experiencing violence in their relationships and therefore tend to have a tendency to abuse their partners.

The systemic review by Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) shows that anger, self-defence, and retaliation were common motivations for women to use violence, but that distinguishing between self-defence and retaliation was difficult. In contrast to this, a study that was conducted in Nigeria by Ademuson et al. (2022) found that many of the respondents in their study disagree that women carry out domestic violence against men due to self-defence. Hines and Douglas (2011) found that women are motivated differently than men to commit acts of violence and women have claimed to engage in IPV against men for self-defence, retaliation, expression of anger, coercion, control, and power, and to prevent men from abusing them again in the future. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2012) argue that for both women and men, the common cause of violence seems to be coercion, anger, jealousy, and punishing misbehaviour by their partner. With a different view, Straus (2011) states that most women use violence to control their partners and the violence is not motivated by self-defence. Sharing the same view, Byrne (2010) mentions that the underlying motive for the abuser's behaviour is power and control

over their partners. Ackerman and Field (2011) and Straus (2011) mention that several studies suggest that a power struggle within the relationship often becomes the main cause of IPV. A study that was conducted at the University of Cumbria by Bates et al. (2014) with 1,104 male and female students found that women are more likely than men to be controlling and aggressive towards their partners, more likely to demonstrate a desire to control their partners and more likely to use physical abuse to ensure control. Mligo (2020) argues that all domestic perpetrators are plagued by the aspect of power and control. The study that was conducted in Tanzania revealed that physical abuse that men experienced included being denied food and being beaten by their female partners, and some women would collude with their children to beat up their husbands (Athuman and Mushin, 2022). According to Ademuson et al. (2022) women show aggressive behaviour and hostility to their partners due to non-involvement of their partners when it comes to household chores.

A study that was conducted in Tanzania by Mligo (2021) found that most women become hostile to their husbands as they become educated and they become arrogant. They start to see their husbands as inferior even though in some cases their husbands paid for their education. Ngomuo, Nzali and Msomba (2023) in their study found that education factors and religion played a role in influencing domestic abuse against men, due to their lack of education or lower educational attainment compared to their partners. Ngomuo et al. (2023) further highlight that the power dynamics caused by education result in female dominance with them issuing orders, and exercising control in the household in immoral ways. In contrast, Ngomuo et al. (2023) and Gibson and Gurmu (2021) argue that low levels of education among men have been linked with an increase in men perpetrating violence against their female partners as individuals may lack the knowledge and skills needed to challenge harmful gender norms and promote healthy relationship dynamics.

For intimate partner violence the perpetrator factors include previous experience of abuse, educational status, substance use, gender biased attitude, and having experienced abuse from one's mother (Akamike et al., 2019). The study that was conducted by Ngomuo et al. (2023) in Tanzania found that political practices also influence violence against men because women were found to have more power as compared to men. According to McGinn et al. (2016) political practices have an impact on abuse against men, and also conflict and political instability have a link to the abuse against men. McGinn et al. (2016) further mention political violence and displacement can increase anxiety and stress in women which can lead to

domestic violence. Oyedele (2017) mentions that women abuse their partners to balance power still controlled by their partners.

The findings suggested that women with wealth had many reasons for perpetrating violence against men. For these reasons, men feel inferior and inflict violence to demonstrate that he was still superior and the dominant member in the family as per culture (Ngomuo et al. 2023). A study that was conducted by Mligo (2021) in Tanzania on small-scale women business owners found that these women disregard their husbands as useless and some women even insult and physically abuse their husbands. Mazikana (2024) further mentions that this empowers women to exercise dominance over men, as they perceive themselves as the ones responsible for all aspects of their husbands' lives (Ngomuo et al. 2023). A study that was conducted in Nigeria found that unemployed men, who earn less than their wives and are retrenched at work are more frustrated and abused in their homes (Akarika et al. 2023). The growth of GBV against men in Tanzania is triggered by financial constraints from poverty and unemployment among men (Athuman and Munishi, 2022).

2.5 Types of abuse men experience

Male victims of IPV suffer the same types of abuse as women victims. Men experience IPV and suffer from physical, mental and sexual abuse in intimate relationships. However, they continue to suffer in silence (Myhill, 2017; Reuter et al. 2016). Graham-Kevan, (2021) argues that an ever-increasing body of knowledge published over the last 30 years indicates that domestic violence is not exclusively a male-to-female crime and women are also as physically aggressive as men. Men are severely injured more frequently at the hands of their female intimate partners and that should not be ignored (Tsui 2014, Hines and Douglas, 2011). Research suggests that abused men (heterosexuals, homosexuals and bisexuals) are being abused physically, emotionally, financially and mentally by their partners in their intimate relationships (Whitaker et al. 2007). Hines and Douglas (2011) argue that intimate partner violence have been categorised into four types, as intimate terrorism, situational couple violence, violent resistance, and mutual violence control. Benson (2010) points out that male victims who were subjected to violence endure similar emotions as female victims. Hines and Douglas (2010) in their study also found that male victims of IPV sustained serious injuries and psychological aggression (e.g. threats to physically harm the man), control behaviours (e.g. monitoring his time and whereabouts; not allowing him access to household income; isolating

him from family/friends), minor violence (e.g. pushing, shoving), severe violence (e.g. punching, kicking) and very severe violence (e.g. beating up, using a knife/gun). Barkhuizen (2015) states that male victims of IPV sustain the same types of injuries as women such as threats, physical violence, emotional, intimidation, isolation, economic, and controlling behaviours.

2.5.1 Physical violence

Smith et al. (2017) point out that physical partner violence is defined as the intentional actions that could cause bodily harm or injury, disability, or death of an intimate partner. Lien and Lorentzen (2019) mention that men experience frequent physical attacks that lead to both minor and more serious physical injuries. Women may launch physical attacks when the men are unable to hit back when the men are sleeping, hit from behind or when children are present (Bates, 2020; Walker et al. 2019). According to Kigaya (2021), women perpetrators may use weapons, objects, weapons, or restraints to carry out violent act and these acts include hitting, choking, pulling hair, burning, shooting, cutting with a sharp object, or restraining using one's body. The most predominant form of physical abuse was slapping the most intimate partner violence and beating with a weapon was identified as the least common (Malik and Nadda, 2019). A study that was conducted in Limpopo by Kgate (2021) found that male victims suffer life-threatening physical injuries that require extensive treatment and other men suffer injuries, blisters, minor cuts, bruised eyes, bites, scratched hands and backs are the most common physical injuries reported. Hine et al. (2022) argue that although physical abuse is reported less frequently, is often severe and can result in serious injuries, mirroring the patterns observed in female victims.

A study that was conducted in Australia by Walker et al. (2019) found that men reported that their partners threatened to kill them and their families. In support of this, Bates (2020) and Walker et al. (2019) mention that men reported fear related to threats of physical violence sometimes directed at their families by their female partners. Male victims are also threatened by women perpetrators and the threats consist of "threatening to kill themselves or their husbands if their husbands' leaves, threatening to call the police and have the husband falsely arrested, or threatening to leave the husband" (Barkhuizen, 2015). Drijber et al. (2013) point out that some women use physical objects such as knives, chairs, and crockery in attacks against male partners. Hines and Douglas (2009) argue that female perpetrators were more

likely than male perpetrators to hit their male partners with an object, struck them with a vehicle, bite them, and used a weapon against men. Brown (2008) points out that women are more likely to use weapons and cause injuries. They also receive more serious crime charges meaning that more than twice, women are likely to be charged with aggravated assault or assault with a weapon. In South Africa, the study that was conducted by Barkhuizen (2015) found that female perpetrators continue to assert themselves on their male victims by sustaining physical injuries from the use of weapons against them, threats to kill them, and intimidation towards them.

2.5.2 Emotional abuse

Emotional abuse is defined as verbal or non-verbal communication with the intent to hurt or control the other person and the violence may be made directly or occur because of other types of violence (Smith et al. 2017; Chirwa et al. 2018). A study that was conducted by Toccalino et al. (2024) found that emotional abuse is particularly prevalent among male victims and it can be slightly yet greatly damaging, leading to significant psychological distress and feelings of isolation. A study that was conducted in Limpopo, South Africa by Thobejane et al. (2018) found that men experienced insults (i.e., verbal abuse), were stalked by abusive partners and were not allowed to see their children after the couple had separated. According to Morgan and Wells (2016), men experience manipulative behaviours and coercive control through gender-gendered stereotypes of abuse, use of children, and isolation. Thomas et al. (2010) mentions that women's violent behaviour commonly takes the form of psychological abuse such as threatening to take children or ruining their partner's reputation. Martin et al. (2013) points out that due to societal ideas of masculinity, male victims experience depression differently because the incidents conflict with traditional symptoms of depression such as sadness and crying. Josolyne (2011) points out that women abusers constantly criticise their partners with devaluing statements, name calling which leads the men to question themselves about the abuse or whether the abuse is their fault.

Josolyne (2011) points out that verbal abuse is one of the major methods women use to inflict violence on men as they can easily insult and undress their partners in the presence of the children and neighbours. Emotional abuse results in abused men having a greater risk of developing chronic health problems, rage which increases the risk of them becoming aggressors and mental health issues such as depression. Additionally, it also contributes to the

cycle of violence where partners are breaking up and making up constantly after the occurrences (Richards et al. 2017). There is no noteworthy difference between women and men in the long-term effect of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) related symptoms (Lysova et al. 2019). Kigala (2021) mentions that women may use their children to place psychological strain on their partners by instigating violence against their fathers or denying them custody rights. Lien and Lorentzen, (2019) note that men who experience intimate partner violence at the hands of their female partners suffer psychological effects of post-traumatic stress disorder. According to Roebuck et al. (2020), men who are victims of IPV display negative psychological symptoms and most men show signs of PTSD after experiencing common couple violence. Josolyne (2011) points out that the common form of abuse among men is mostly emotional abuse which includes threats, intimidations and behaviour that undermines the victim's self-worth or self-esteem or controls the victim's freedom.

Most male victims of IPV suffer from a variety of psychological problems such as insomnia, a deep sense of insecurity, trauma, anxiety and difficulties in concentration. The outcomes may lead to drastic decision-making by the victim and some male victims of IPV consider the idea of committing suicide (Lien and Lorentzen, 2019). Martin et al. (2013) point out that due to societal ideas of masculinity, male victims experience depression differently because the incidents conflict with traditional symptoms of depression such as sadness and crying. Ogbe et al. (2020) mention that survivors of IPV face serious issues with their mental health and social support systems in addition to the terrible physical effects of the abuse. Some struggle with trauma and social anxiety. The tragic outcome of experiencing violence is that it may lead to drastic decision-making by the victim. Male victims of partner perpetrated violence constantly harbour ideas of end their lives (Lien and Lorentzen, 2019). Emotional abuse contributes to the escalation of HIV infections as men usually avoid going home early and eventually find solace in other women who will not abuse them (Josolyne, 2011).

2.5.3 Sexual abuse

Smith et al. (2017) point out that sexual violence is defined as any act of complete or attempted unwanted sexual advances, which include rape, sexual coercion, or unwanted sexual contact with either male or female partners. Thobejane et al. (2012) point out that when people hear about sexual abuse victims, in people's minds the victim is a girl or a woman and only a few consider the possibility that the abused victim might be a boy or man. In support of this Mphatheni and Mlamba (2022) mention that this narrative needs to change as men are now

often victims of GBV also. Ademuson et al. (2023) point out that men can be victims of sexual abuse and sexual abuse manifest through rape, and sexual deprivation, which shows that sexual abuse experienced by men is a social reality in society. According to Paradis, Bowen and McCullough (2020) sexual violence against men is an area that remains underexplored and unspoken, while men are often perceived as less likely to be victimised of sexual abuse. Mphatheni and Mlamla (2022) argue that sexual abuse of men by women should be given the same attention and treatment as a crime committed against women. A study that was conducted in Tanzania found that the second most prevalent form of IPV is sexual violence after psychological violence (Mulawa et al. 2016).

Sexual violence is more frequent in women than men, while men are treated differently than women victims. It is largely not recognized by international law but women also commit sex offenses (Chen, 2019; Drumond et al. 2018). In support of this, Labuschagne et al. (2020) claim that there is a political commitment to acknowledging sexual violence against women as a societal problem and sexual violence against men is rarely acknowledged and researched. Mshana et al. (2022) mention that men are being forced to have sex while not in the mood or being tired which would make them perform poorly sexually. Hines and Douglas (2009) point out that female perpetrators of IPV, sexual and psychological abuse their male partners and they also use aggression (either verbal or physical) to force their partners to engage in sexual intercourse with them. Consequently, they are unable to meet their women's sexual desires, a cultural expectation of a "proper man". Mphatheni and Mlamla (2022) point out that when men and boys report sexual abuse, society, law enforcement and the judicial community often ridicule the victims. Mphatheni and Mlamla (2022), further point out that when this kind of abuse is male on male, the victim risk being labelled a willing homosexual man.

2.5.4 Financial abuse

King et al. (2017); Peterson et al. (2018) argue that the economic losses caused by IPV are significant, most of which relate to loss of productivity, medical bills, property loss or damage and criminal justice costs. Ademuson et al. (2023) highlight that economic violence is when an abuser monitors and restricts his or her victim's ability to freely use their money and to keep up with available economic resources. Walker et al. (2019) note that financial abuse is another means of control used by women to restrict their male partners on how they spend their money. Male victims of IPV who suffer from PTSD, are left bankrupt after experiencing abuse and some male victims experience financial deterioration after they try to fight for contact rights

for their children in courts (Wallace et al. 2018; Lien and Lorentzen, 2019). Robertson, Walker and Frick (2020) mention that economic stress and substance abuse can further exacerbate tensions within relationships, leading to an increased risk of IPV.

Scott-Storey et al. (2023) mention that financial instability is a common precursor to IPV, with both victims and perpetrators facing significant stress related to economic hardship. This economic pressure can lead to frustration and resentment, creating an environment where violence becomes more likely (Scott-Storey et al., 2023). Ademuson et al. (2023) emphasise that economic violence demonstrates the form of threatening the victim's economic security and self-sufficiency and it is an obscured form of domestic violence. Men with low economic status face hostile behaviour from their abusive partners such as denial of laundry services, cleaning of the house, and cooking. A study that was conducted by Mulawa et al. (2016) in Uganda, found that men who are unemployed or have low income, young, low educational attainment, belong to certain ethnic groups and reside in certain regions experience IPV perpetrated by their female partners. Many other behaviours are used by some women when their husbands have poor financial support. Financially insecure men receive a lot of insults and disrespect from abusive women because they do not have the economic ability to take care of their families (Ademuson et al. 2023).

2.6 Perceptions about men abuse

Hammock et al. (2017) highlight that societal narratives portray female perpetrated IPV as less serious and as occurring while less frequently and males are portrayed as perpetrators. Lysova et al. (2020); Walker et al., (2020) argue that societal perceptions of who is the victim versus the perpetrator are rooted in the belief that abuse happens only to women and not to men increasing disclosure reluctance for men. Sharing the same view, Nybergh et al. (2016) highlight that societal expectations of men make it difficult for people or society to regard or accept that men can be victimised by women. Shehan, (2018) argues that society expects men to be independent, self-reliant, leaders, stronger and more assertive than women. Thobejane et al. (2018) mention that masculinity factors that view men as strong make male victims of IPV reluctant to disclose their victimisation.

Shehan (2018); Wright (2016) argue that men hide their abuse and do not report the abuse because, society expects men to be self-reliant, independent, leaders, strong, and more assertive

than women. Societal norms surrounding masculinity often prevent men from reporting abuse due to fears of being perceived as weak or unmanly (Hines and Douglas, 2019). Morgan and Wells (2016) mention that men experienced domestic abuse from women and the study found that most men described feeling ‘unmanly’ after the occurrences. Perryman and Appleton (2016) argue that the social construction of men and women is rooted in societal expectations characterised by patriarchy, which makes men dominant in almost all spheres of society (Perryman and Appleton, 2016). Scott-Storey et al. (2023) mention that the social construction of society makes it difficult for men to share their experiences or seek appropriate support. According to Toccalino et al. (2024), male victims of IPV experiences are shaped by societal perceptions and most men feel dismissed or disbelieved when they disclose their abuse, which can discourage them from seeking help. A study that was conducted by Lysova et al. (2020), found that men feel embarrassed when abused by women because they believe that they are not living up to the standard set by society. Greene (2018) and Edward and Jones (2009) argue that when men do not follow masculinity ideals in the society, they are socially degraded and stigmatised. MacDonald (2016) states that research and publications on men’s social and behavioural issues tend to be negative and often focus on masculinity as contributing to violence against women. The social construct that subordinates’ women and imposes masculinity ideals on men, victimises both men and women. Drijber et al. (2013) mention that male victims of IPV have become an unrecognised and underserved, population as victims of intimate partner violence. Jovanoski and Sharlamanov (2021) argue that cultural beliefs surrounding masculinity and victimisation can vary significantly across different communities, influencing how men perceive their experiences and whether they feel comfortable seeking help. The societal pressure on male victims of IPV compels them to adhere to masculinity ideals even when facing abuse from their women partners. Due to their gender, victimized men were expected to exhibit strength and masculinity (Hogan et al. 2021; Wallace et al., 2019a; Woodyard, 2019). Society gendered expectations and social expectations around masculinity are detrimental to men recognising themselves as strong and survivors (Huntley et al. 2019; Hines, Bates, and Wallace, 2022). The masculinity narrative promulgates the belief that men should be powerful and able to protect themselves and they should be able to resolve their issues and defend themselves and others against abuse (Dim, 2020; Perryman and Appleton, 2016; Bjørnholt and Rosten, 2020).

It is remarkable that society is still not adapted to offer abused men the same services as abused women. A study that was conducted by Morgan and Wells (2016), found that men who were

victims of domestic violence explained that society does not believe in the notion that men can be victims of domestic violence. Violence towards men is 'trivial and this lack of acceptance that a woman can be as violent and as dangerous as a man, devalues the abuse and the pain inflicted on men (Dutton, 2012). Straus (2011) argues that women perpetrators of IPV are often overlooked because women are perceived as lacking an ability to physically and emotionally abuse their men. Society's perception of men is a contributing factor that men do not report but stay in abusive relationships with their partners. Shiler (2010) argues that IPV against men by female partners is a serious social problem that is largely ignored by society. Society has created gender roles that men should be governing and aggressive thus stigma is more prominent to male victims of IPV than women victims because of these roles. Cheung, Leung and Tsui (2010) argue that society does not perceive male abusers the same way as female abusers. Men abusers are seen as capable of violence, aggressive and jealous while female abusers are seen as reacting to the situation or their violence are perpetuated by disordered behaviour. DeFrancisco et al. (2014) argue that many societies are shaped by a patriarchal belief system under which hegemonic masculinity embracing hierarchy, aggression, and heterosexuality, is valued and men are generally considered capable of causing more harm to others than women. Such beliefs may result in many societies failing to recognise or acknowledge acts of female-perpetrated violence. Bates (2020) argues that society does not perceive men abuse as severe and harmful as is the case with women abuse.

Dutton (2012) points out that IPV against men is viewed to be less severe, irrespective of the (repetition) seriousness of the injuries sustained, with attitudes towards IPV perpetrated by women being seen as less dangerous and less damaging. Contradicting this view, Coker (2021) argues that physical health outcomes can also be severe; many victims face long-term injuries, chronic pain, and various health issues resulting from the violence they endure. The perception about who should be the victim of IPV exposes men to secondary abusive experiences when they are treated as perpetrators and liars who lack masculinity (McCarrick et al. 2016; Walker et al. 2020). Donovan and Hester (2010) mention that IPV is a gendered, heterosexual phenomenon and the primary focus is on female victims. Male victims are neglected which makes it a challenge to address IPV against men. In support of this, Josolyne (2011) argues that the gendered view of IPV hinders the acceptance of IPV against men since men are perceived as perpetrators and the women as victims. Tilbrook et al. (2010) point out that male victims of IPV tend to hide from expressing their emotions related to abuse. These psychological barriers

are believed to have arisen from societal attitudes to IPV that are dominant by feminist gender perspectives and the gender-based services and policies that favours female victims of IPV.

2.7 Research on male victims of intimate partner violence

According to Brooks et al. (2017), most studies on female victimisation are conducted globally, hence relatively few have focused on male victims. Additionally, the research shows male abuse has been conducted across the globe, however, most of the studies have geographical and contextual limitations. Meanwhile, many of them were conducted in Western societies, so it may be challenging for their findings to be generalised to a non-Western cultural context (Rollè et al. 2018; Tshoane et al. 2024). In sub-Saharan Africa, research on male abuse and help-seeking behaviours is limited and researchers have focused on the perpetration of violence against women and children and little attention has been given to male victims (Huntley et al. 2019; Walker et al. 2020). Carthy et al. (2023) argue that even though there is an increased academic interest in men's victimisation by female partners, less research has been published in this area compared to that of women and children abuse.

Additionally, Perryman and Appleton, (2016) argue that women perpetrate violence against men yet, IPV research has on average focused on men as abusers of women. Simon and Wallace (2018) argue that the voices of male victims of IPV seem to be insufficient; in addition, not enough studies have concentrated on issues of men's disclosure of their victimisation. Kalimaposo et al. (2022) mention that in Zambia substantial research has been conducted on GBV against women, yet little research has been conducted to investigate the experiences of abused men since men are always regarded as abusers. Kalimaposo et al. (2022) further mention that there are several research gaps in understanding the occurrence of violence against men, the causes and reactions of male victims to IPV and measures to mitigate this scourge.

Tsui (2014) argues that violence perpetrated by women has not been a subject of public concern. There have been little funds for research, very little publicity, and no funds to address this issue because it has not been identified as a problem and it contradicts patriarchy-oriented gender feminist theory (Cook. 2009). Research on male victims of IPV suffers severe funding deficits, as neither the State nor NPOs are eager about it as they are eager about men's abuse of women (Lien and Lorentzen, 2019). Hines and Douglas (2009) mentioned that despite decades of research showing that women use IPV against their male partners at a rate that is

equal to men, nothing much has been done in terms of research because this topic is controversial in nature. Hines and Douglas (2009) argue that most researchers believe that IPV is an issue of men maintaining dominance and control over women partners and it is impossible for women to be perpetrators of IPV. Hogan et al. (2012) argue that more research on male victims of IPV may lead to the development of understanding and improve theory and practice, which may inform practitioners to work with male victims of IPV. Deshpande, (2019); Kolbe and Büttner (2020) argue that research and policies that focus on women victims of domestic abuse are based on the idea that men are more likely than women to perpetrate violence in almost all types of interpersonal violence, including IPV, murder, assault and rape.

According to Baker et al. (2013) male victims of IPV have not been included in the core conceptualisation of research because IPV has been characterised as a gender problem. This view is supported by Hines and Douglas (2010); World Health Organization (WHO) (2013) pointing out that men's experience of IPV and intimate terrorism victimisation is chronically under researched. According to Straus (2010) the public has paid little attention to women abuse of men and its extent because information on men abuse has not been made available sufficiently or it has been distorted. Dobash and Dobash (2011) mention that most literature that exists portrays women as victims of IPV and men as perpetrators. Hines and Douglas (2009) argue that intimate partner violence against men has not received much attention within the academic world and the media at large. However, for decades research has shown that men were also the victims of IPV despite the lack of attention from government and IPV agencies. Chaudhuri (2012) and Randle and Graham (2011) state that research offers a forum for clarifying male victimisation whilst at the same time validating its importance. Understanding men abuse is important and will lead to the development of understanding of male victimisation and demystifying socially constructed myths surrounding masculinity and men victimisation, and the development of gender specific interventions. In support of this, Hogan et al. (2012) state that research may lead to the development of enhanced understanding, theory and practice, which may inform practitioners' and researchers working with male victims of IPV.

2.8 Reasons men stay in abusive relationships

According to Lien and Lorentzen (2019), the literature states that the reasons for men to stay in abusive relationships are similar to those of women. Bates (2019) points out that men who are victims of abuse are often perceived as abusers or weak by society and society does not

believe men. Several studies done in the United States and Europe have attempted to explain why male victims would choose to stay in an abusive relationship, especially when compared to their female counterparts (Kumar, 2012). According to Wallace et al. (2019) male victims of IPV do not talk about their feelings with each other and do not have social networks to discuss their relationships problems. Most men feel that this negatively affect their lives, leaving then feeling unsupported and vulnerable. The male victims of IPV stay in abusive relationships because, they think the situation will change or wait when they have economic resources to leave the relationship. The reasons for men to stay in abusive relationships include the hope that the abuser's behaviour would change and that the violence would end. Therefore, it is difficult to recognise aggressive behaviours as frequent and it is part of a relationship pattern (Caridade et al. 2020; Sani and Pereira, 2020).

McCart et al. (2010) point out that some men reported lack of finances and access to accommodation as barriers to leaving the relationship. Kumar (2012) argues that the main reason men stay in abusive relationships is economic resources because when a couple marries, they merge their economic resources, living situations change and they also make vows of commitment and love to each other. Cook (2009) and Drijber et al. (2013) mention that male victims of IPV do not leave abusive relationships because of embarrassment, limited financial resources, a commitment to the relationship and concerns for the safety and welfare of their children. Yet, the lack of resources increases the burden of seeking formal support because friends and families feel helpless in supporting their relatives despite a desire to help (Hines, Bates, and Wallace, 2022). Men are banned from gaining access to their children or being involved in decision-making regarding them. Some children are stage-managed and managed not to have contact with their fathers (Ademuson et al. 2022). According to Nekhavhambe (2021) when it comes to the judiciary system, abused men often loose custody of their children some men were blocked from seeing their children, and some men were accused of abusing their children. According to Ademuson et al. (2022), some abusive women abuse their husbands emotionally by threatening to take their children away from them.

Katy (2009) points out that male victims refuse to leave their abusive relationships because they are psychologically dependent on their perpetrators and blame alcohol for the incidents. Some male victims of IPV do not leave abusive relationships because of fear of being alone and a hope that things would change (Keeling and Fisher, 2012). Sani and Pereira, (2020) argue

that men stay in abusive relationships hoping that the perpetrator's behaviour will change. Kumar (2012) points out that male victims of IPV who suffer emotional abuse, feel that there is no way out of the relationship, or without their abusive partners they cannot move on, so they stay with the perpetrators hoping things will get better. Gleason (2008) argues that male victims of emotional abuse may feel there is no way out of their abusive relationships or marriages. They always ignore the feelings and symptoms that they are in emotionally abusive relationships. Male victims of IPV are discouraged to seek for support because of lack of resources regarding men as victims (Wright, 2016). Lack of awareness on men abuse discourages male IPV victims from asking for support which is either non-existent or of poor quality (Wright, 2016; Lambert, 2014). Ngomuo et al. (2023) mention that lack of awareness about male victims of IPV spreads the cycle of abuse against men and deters progress towards gender equality. Due to the lack of awareness campaigns about male victims of IPV, abuse against men remains hidden.

Whitaker et al. (2007) argue that male victims are also too afraid to tell or admit to others that they are being mentally, physically, financially abused and they feel that by telling someone they are going to lose their manhood. This can become physical abuse quickly. They are also dependent on the perpetrators for financial support (Brown, 2009). A study that was done in India by Jagbir and Annuradha (2019) found that approximately 54% of men in rural areas of Haryana reported that GBV acts done to them by their female partners were because of their poor economic status. Dienye and Gleason (2008) argue that male victims of IPV often blame themselves about the incidents because they feel as if they did something wrong to cause their batterers to abuse them and are sometimes dependent on their abusers financially. A study that was conducted in Zimbabwe by Mazikana (2024) found that men tolerate social and economic obstacles that render them vulnerable to gender-based violence, such as poverty. Due to economic difficulties brought on by unemployment, men often find themselves living with their in-laws, resulting in the men depending on them for financial support. Mongare et al. (2018) mention that men of low economic status in Western and Central Kenya were more likely to be victims of IPV and this trend was also confirmed in several other African countries with an increased abuse of unemployed men (Tsiko, 2016).

Brown (2009) argues that male victims of IPV who stay in abusive relationships often assume blame, for the acts of violence because they feel as though they have done something wrong to cause their perpetrators to abuse them. Dienye and Gleason (2008); Wykes and Welsh (2009)

argue that male victims of IPV often have feelings of guilt and shame, often feel embarrassed and humiliated. Whitaker et al. (2007) argue that abused men are often afraid to leave their abusive partners because of fear of being stigmatised by the society and their families. They are also afraid to be labelled as spineless, sissies, dependent, and “wimp” men with low self-esteem. Katy (2009) argues that if the cycle of abuse has taken place for a long time, abuse can make the victims feel powerless and fearful of change and often experience a feeling of personal responsibility for what is happening to them. Thomas et al., (2010); Brown (2009) argue that women perpetrators always threaten their male victims that they will take children away if they do not conform to what they want, and male victims are forced to stay with an abusive partner to protect the children from abusive partners. Taylor et al. (2022) point out that for many of the abused fathers, their children were the significant barrier and they had to weigh up the impact on the children of living through the abuse if they leave. Hines et al. (2009); Cook (2009) mention that men stay in an abusive relationship because female abusers threaten to hurt the children so that their partners will comply with their abuse. Mligo (2021) highlights that most male pastors tolerate abuse from their wives for fear of losing their pastoral status and losing their status as men or lowering their status in the ministries if they report the abuse.

2.9 Why men do not report victimisation

Bates et al. (2022) point out that misconceptions and societal stigma often lead to underreporting and inadequate support for male victims. Thobejane and Luthada (2019) mention that in South Africa male victims of abuse do not speak out to avoid being mocked by society, friends, family members, and police officers. Baker et al. (2022) mention that most male victims of IPV feel shy to report abuse due to norms and standards set up by the society where men are seen as powerful and considered stronger than women. Dim and Lysova (2021) point out that male victims of IPV may not report their victimisation because of fear of losing custody of their children if the couple separates because of the reported abuse. Taking the case of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania, Enryka et al. (2022) mention that men do not report the abuse because many cases are underreported and there are no adequate services to support male victims. A study that was conducted in Limpopo in South Africa by Thobejane et al. (2018) found that men do not report the abuse to the relevant institutions due to the stigma associated with men who report being abused by women. Thusi and Mlambo (2022) mention that male victims are discouraged from reporting violent abuse because South Africa has a strong macho culture, with a well-integrated patriarchal system. According to Katy (2009) anyone who has

been the victim of any type of abuse will understand that it is not easy to report the abuse. Men do not report the abuse because they face disbelief, surprise, doubt, mockery, ridicule and they may also face arrest (Hogan, 2016). In most communities in Africa, it is a disgrace to see a man crying after being abused by a woman (Thobejane and Luthada, 2019). In Zimbabwe, Mazikana (2024) mentions that male victims do not report abuse because they experience a sense of shame which damages their self-esteem and undermines their masculinity. Mazikane (2024) further argues that men who admit to being abused by women are not accepted by society. Walker et al. (2020) points out that male victims of IPV may face social prejudice and humiliation when they report the traumatic events to police and are perceived as lacking machismo while their gender identities may be perceived as fundamentally damaged. Tilbrook et al. (2010) in their Australia study point out that male victims of IPV have various factors influencing their decisions not to disclose the abuse. The common link between the male victims was their denial of abuse, fear of not being believed, perception of the uselessness of the available resources, feelings of shame related to their concept of masculinity, emotional turmoil, and uncertainty.

Thusi and Mlambo (203) state that men who report or admit to being victims of abuse face substantial difficulty reconciling their gender identities with their lived reality. In support of this, Peretz (2021) mentions admitting being a victim of abuse, involves key identity work in which men must reframe their masculinity from the victim identity and the shame associated with abuse. According to Ngomuo et al. (2023) in Tanzania, male victims of IPV remain silent and do not report abuse because of cultural beliefs that men are strong. In Nigeria, male victims of IPV hide and do not talk openly about their incidents because it will bruise their ego and expose them to be ridiculed in a patriarchal society (Adebayo, 2014). Male victims of IPV prefer to suffer in silence until it becomes critical to the point of death. Tsui and Cheung (2011) argue that abused Chinese men living in the United States did not report the abuse because they were affected by their culture and societal expectations of men in the society. The victim's reactions were reflected in their expression of shame and guilt, denial, fear and stigmatisation. These psychological reactions stop male victims from reporting the incidents or seeking for help in relevant institutions. Male victims of IPV do not report the incidents because of a great deal of shame. They do not want to be viewed as weak and, they do not want anyone to know that their abusers are female partners (Tsui et al., 2010). Shuler (2010) argues that no man wants to be considered as weak, spineless, hence because they fear stigmatisation and become silent about the abuse. Vernon, (2017); Barkhuizen (2015) argue that men did not report their

victimisation because of fear of being alone, vulnerable, misunderstood and they did not think anyone would believe them or care about their victimization.

A study that was conducted in Australia by Evans (2016) found that male victims of IPV were told by police to "*grow some balls*". Male victims of IPV are more often ignored by police and women perpetrators are often released from police custody in a short span of time. Male victims of IPV do not report their incidences due to the fear that law enforcement would not believe that they are the victims of IPV, and their victimisation would not be taken seriously (Tsui, 2014; Barkhuizen, 2015; Douglas et al. 2012). They fear being accused of perpetrating the violence themselves. The police respond by telling the male victims to calm down and go to sleep or issue them a warning ticket. Roark (2016) states that male victims of IPV were not recognised by law enforcement as victims of IPV but instead it is usual that men are arrested for IPV, whereas when women were arrested for IPV their male partners were arrested at the same time.

In the Netherlands, Drijber et al. (2013) state that male victims do not report the incidents to the police because men do not believe law enforcement would act on the report. Nwidag, Afolabi and Okwendi (2015) argue that very few male victims of IPV report their abuse to the police because of fear of disbelief and lack of a support system, coupled with the fact that violence towards men has been ignored for too long. Strauss (2011) states that men are afraid to report their abusive partners to the police because police would not take their allegations seriously but instead they will laugh at them. Drijber et al. (2013) argue that IPV against men has often gone unrecognised, is highly stigmatised and this has led to underreporting of the incidences due to fear of humiliation and the lack of available support services. According to Anyuor (2012) male victims of IPV in Kenya prefer to treat their injuries silently to avoid being ridiculed by their fellow men and the society at large. According to Adebayo (2014) three-quarters of male victims who contact an abuse shelter or hotline report that the agencies only provide services to women victims of IPV and nearly two-thirds of male victims are treated as abusers rather than the victims. Morin (2014) argues that these shelters do not admit male's victims of IPV because they are not ready to offer their services to male victims of IPV for a variety of reasons. Morin (2014) further argues that male victims of IPV admitted experiencing judgmental looks from institutions workers, nasty comments and criticism because they are not strong. Tsui (2010) mentions that service perception of client shame and embarrassment, denial, stigma, and fear are constraints to seeking support from agencies stopping men from

reporting their abuse. In Africa, gender-based violence amongst men is fuelled by a patriarchal culture that compels them not to report the abuse. Men feel embarrassed due to the traditional perspective that men are superior to their female partners (Baker et al., 2022). Achem and Anin (2020) mention that men do not report abuse because of fear and stigma. The exclusion of men from various gender-based violence initiatives is attributed to the patriarchal sentiments that are rooted in most South African cultures.

2.10 Reasons for male victims not to seek help

Male victims of IPV fear seeking professional help because of the widespread belief that men are abusers rather than victims and the belief that no one would believe them. Male victims of IPV are discriminated against whenever they require services or they are met with resistance from service providers (Bates, 2019; O'Connor, 2020). A broad body of literature has identified that men are reluctant to seek help because it is associated with submission to social norms and ideologies surrounding masculinity (Berger et al., 2013; Drijber et al. 2013). Randle and Graham (2011) argue that because of the lack of recognition of IPV against males, this has resulted in limited help seeking behaviours by male victims which consequently prolongs experiences of abuse. According to Douglas and Hines (2011) literature on male help seeking indicates that men are less likely than women to seek help. Men do not seek help because of internal and external obstacles to do so. Machado et al. (2016); Ulloa and Hammett (2012) argue that male victims of IPV experience as victims, has received much less attention despite acknowledgment that IPV also has a negative impact on their health and well-being. Melchiorre et al. (2016) mention that older men with disabilities fail to report the abuse due to limited access and fear of retaliation from their intimate partners. Tsui, et al. (2010) argue that it is important to listen to the victims and offer reassurance rather than ignoring or dismissing the problem. Socialisation makes it difficult for male victims of IPV to seek help or admit being the victims of IPV and feeling vulnerable, which are not masculine behaviour and traits. A study that was conducted in Kenya by Obeji et al. (2017) found that male victims of IPV were threatened with witchcraft by the perpetrators if they sought help.

In some instances where help is available for male victims, male victims are reluctant to seek help because are exposing themselves to secondary victimisation. Gender-based violence in most Sub-Saharan African countries is perpetrated by patterns led by male gender socialisation. The socialisation portrays men as strong and dominant and encourage them to be strong and

where this socialisation does not occur, men fear ridicule from all spheres of society resulting in them not reporting abuse. The discussion of social practices eventually reinforces and shapes structural and ideological power relations in society (Fry, Skinner and Wheeler, 2019; Oparinde and Matsha, 2021).

Oliffe et al. (2014) argue that male victims of IPV do not seek help because they believe that IPV services are designed for female victims, and these beliefs have a significant impact on victims' decision to remain in an abusive relationship. Drijber et al. (2013); Hines and Douglas (2010) argue that male victims of IPV believe that IPV support services could not help them because of fear that their victimisation would not be taken seriously, would be ridiculed, humiliated and they would be accused of being a perpetrator. McCarrick et al. (2016); Ayodele (2017) point out that male victims of IPV do not seek help because they lack trust in law enforcement and they are forced to undergo trauma at the hands of their partners and in most cases, they are not being believed. Douglas et al. (2011), Drijber et al. (2013) state that entities, like domestic violence agencies, the police and hotlines do not believe men's account of the abuse they sustained and these entities do not respond to male victims expressed need for help. Tsui et al. (2010) argue that institutions dealing with IPV issues are not targeting male victims of IPV and these institutions make male victims to feel guilty and shame about being the victims. Hines (2011) mentions that some male victims reported that when they call the police during incidents, police sometimes fail to respond, and other male victims reported being ridiculed or being incorrectly arrested as the primary aggressor.

Male victims of IPV have many internal and external barriers when seeking services for IPV, due to society's misconception that domestic violence has always been a woman's problem (Douglas et al. 2012; Johnson, 2012). Durfee (2011) argues that male victims do not seek help because of emotional consequences of IPV, including vulnerability, helplessness, sadness, depression, humiliation, fear, and shame because they do not conform to ideals of hegemonic masculinity. According to Ross (2012) male victims of IPV may fail to seek help because culture prevents men from admitting their fear of violence and societal stigmas often stop men from showing emotions. These feeling are always interpreted as emasculating and weak. Vasilaros (2011) mentions that male victims of IPV do not seek help because by seeking help, they admit being weak and feeling vulnerable which are not masculine characteristics or behaviour. Vasilaros (2011) further mentions that male victim's denial makes it difficult for them to seek community care, psychological help and this denial is protected by stigma surrounding male victims. Admission of being the victim of IPV is associated with stigma of

being a failure as a man and a failure to adhere to internalised standards of masculinity (Nam et al. 2010; Vogel et al. 2011). Barbour (2011) argues that male victims of IPV meet challenges when they reach out for help because they often meet with difficulty due to isolations of hegemonic masculinity and violation of rigid gender expressions.

Studies have found that male victims of IPV have limited access to sources of support and they receive gender stereotyped treatment based on the assumption that men are abusers (Tsui et al. 2010 Douglas and Hines, 2011). Tsui et al. (2010) argues that there is lack of services provided for male victims of IPV and the victims also complain that employees are often not males, mainly women, and men feel judged. Male victims of IPV get rejected or ridiculed by the service providers from whom they seek help (Cook, 2009; Douglas and Hines, 2011). Tsui and colleagues (2010) mention that male victims of IPV who seek help in the institutions are often met with disbelief and these institutions do not know how to deal with the male victims of IPV.

Hester et al. (2012) argue that IPV services would be better and more welcoming for male victims of IPV if these services are not gender specific. St. Pierre and Senn (2010) argue that the lack of male victims IPV services and support further complicates male's help-seeking efforts because of misconceptions that male victims of IPV are perpetrators. Josolyne (2011) also argues that male victims of IPV need services the same as female victims and further argues that treatment programmes for male victims should be developed, which are tailored to meet specific needs of the male victims. Hines and Douglas (2011) mention that research suggests that men who seek help from GVB institutions mention that their experiences are often negative. According to Hines and Douglas (2011), Tsui et al. (2010), male victims of IPV report that institutions believe that they are the perpetrators of violence and these institutions provide services and which target women victims of IPV as their clients.

2.11 Summary

It is critical to note that intimate partner violence affects both women and men even though women are the most affected. Consequently, for equality to be achieved, there is a need to focus on the issues collectively without any bias but concentrate on all the victims. Intimate partner violence cannot be measured by the number of the victims because one is too many. This review of literature provides a comparative gender analysis on experiences of men and women when experiencing IPV barriers to seek help and access services. It identified barriers that

prevent male victims of IPV from accessing services and seeking support. The literature has implications for improvement in all areas of victim outreach specifically for male victims of IPV. The research is extremely limited on what services and help is available for men victims of IPV and the need for the victims to get support from institutions that provide services after intimate partner violence incidents.

It is evident that IPV is not a gender issue. However, very little research is being conducted surrounding the differences in experiences and how it relates to gender. It is common for researchers to generalise victim's experiences while ignoring the individual and lived experiences of men and women. As the issue of IPV is entrenched with gender stereotypes and social discourses, it is often difficult to move these obstacles and make the communities to understand this pandemic and be sympathetic to male victims of intimate partner violence. However, it is evident that both males and females experience IPV at very similar levels for all forms of abuse.

Although women have a great deal of resources at their disposal, very few are not utilising them. There are few resources for male victims (internationally) and where they are available, male victims, due to fear of judgement, do not use them. Furthermore, men are reluctant to seek out help while the programmes available are for women only. However, male victims of IPV are not being educated on what services are provided by these institutions while these institutions do not provide services for men. Further research needs to be conducted on the effects of violence on male victims and the consequences in the country. Due to lack of resources for male victims of IPV, research should focus on men's needs to ensure that proper gender-neutral programmes are developed effectively. Furthermore, research should also focus on how organisations promote their services to male victims of IPV and how these organisations may be reinforcing gender binaries in accessing IPV services. Ultimately research in this area is lacking and research should be conducted in all provinces to provide a better understanding the lived experiences of male victims. The male victims of IPV do not report the incidents because of various reason ranging from ideas about masculinity, culture, patriarchy, and social pressure. The male victims of IPV find it difficult to leave their abusive partners because they are dependent on them financially, they cannot leave their children with abusers, because the abuser might abuse the children as well.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

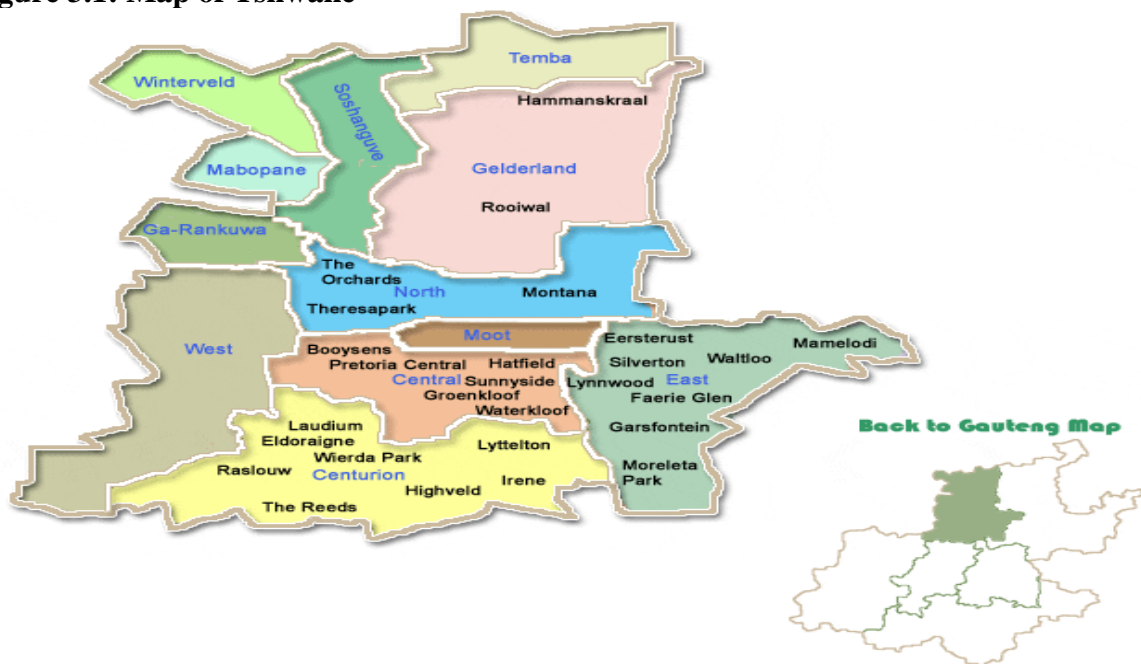
This chapter provides a discussion around the research methodology that was applied in this study. Given that IPV against men is relatively under-researched topic a multi-faceted approach was adopted incorporating both qualitative and quantitative research methods. According to Neuman (2011) methodology and methods are similar and co-dependent concepts which people use interchangeably. This study included both primary and secondary methods to collect data aiding in the provision of comprehensive understanding of IPV against men. This section provides a background to the study area and illustrate the methods that have been used in the collection and analysing of data in the selected study area.

3.2 Study area

Polit and Beck (2009) refer to the study area as a setting describing the location and conditions in which the data collection takes place. Tshwane is amongst the six largest metropolitan municipalities in South Africa and the second largest in Gauteng. Figure 3.1 below is the map of Tshwane Municipality where the study was conducted. The study was conducted in the central business district of the city. The City of Tshwane Metropolitan is the capital city of South Africa (SA) and is the largest metropolitan municipality in the country, as measured by land mass 687.54 kilometres squared (265.46 square miles). The study area for this project was Pretoria Central Business District (CBD) which is an employment hub of South Africa, where most of the National Government Departments are situated. Tshwane municipality is also known as an administrative Capital of South Africa (Union Building) and where most foreign embassies are located. The population density comes to approximately 1,100 residents per square kilometre (2,800 residents per square mile (Statistics South Africa (Stats SA), 2022). According to Stats South Africa (2022) Census data, the City of Tshwane is home to approximately 4, 040, 315 million people. Tshwane's population is predominantly black Africans representing, the majority of the population are between the ages of 16 to 64 years at 70.9%, followed by 23% of people below ages of 15 years and the least are over 65 years at 6.1% (Stats SA, 2022).

Before the researcher selected the study area he reviewed literature on men's abuse in the City of Tshwane. The newspaper articles ranged from women who killed their husbands for an insurance payout and other stories of men who were killed because they suspected that their partners had an affair and others committed suicide because of being abused by their partners. The researcher joined an organisation that is advocating for men's rights and the organisation is based in Pretoria. Through attending meetings and engaging with members of the organisation, the researcher could identify the common problem that most men in the organisation were the victims of intimate partner violence. For these reasons, the Pretoria CBD was selected as the study site for the research.

Figure 3.1: Map of Tshwane



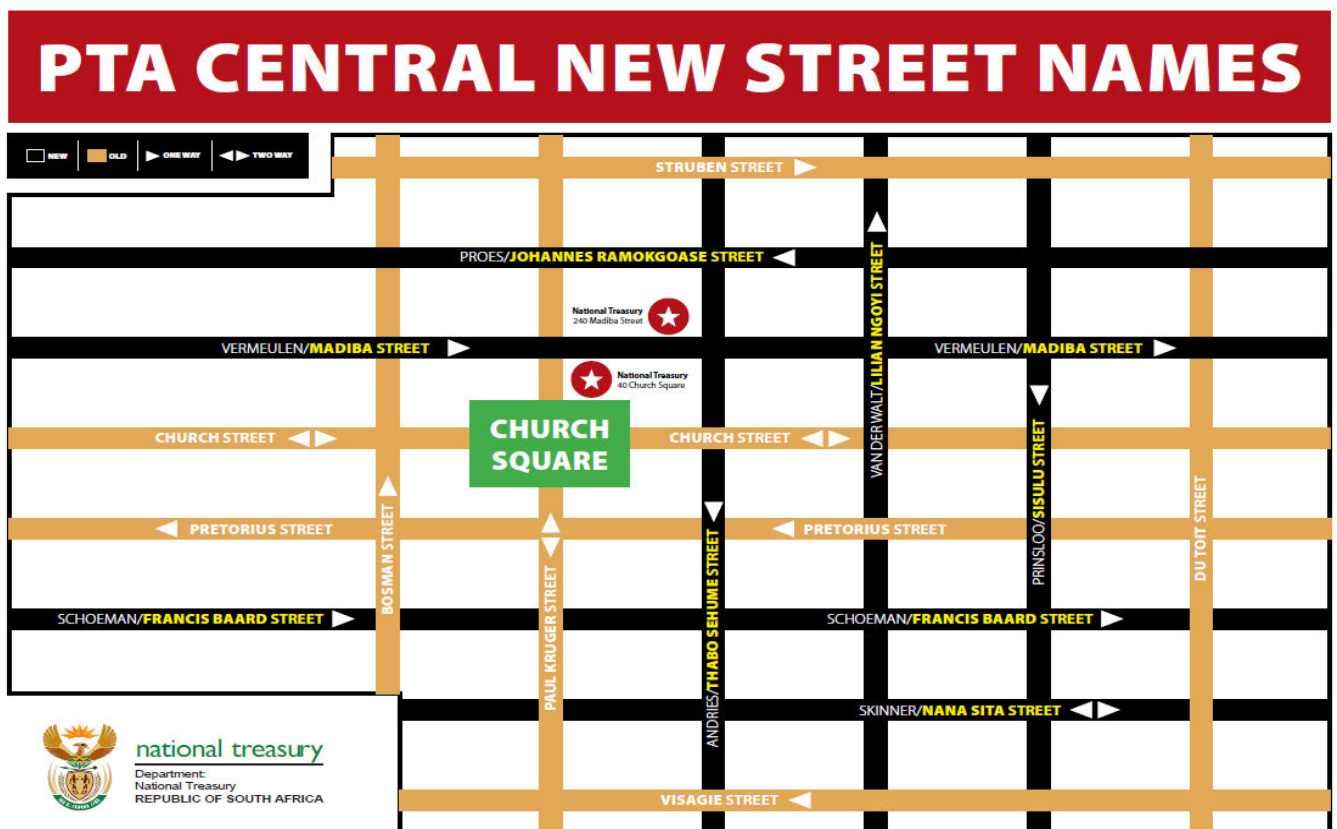
Source: City of Tshwane, Metro Municipality (2019)

3.3 Sampling frame

According to Gregoire and Valentine (2008) it is important to have a 'sampling frame' before a sample can be drawn from a population. The sample frame is a mechanism that identifies and locates the sampling units within the population. Gregoire and Valentine (2008) further mention that a sampling frame is a list of all the sampled units compiled in the study area. The researcher followed the sample frame to identify the list of sampled units to be interviewed in the demarcated study area. Figure 3.1 above shows the demarcation area for the study. The picture below is the study area for the research in Pretoria Central and the demarcation starts

from the corner of Pretorius Street and Bosman Street proceeding to the corner of Bosman Street and Francis Baard Street (formerly known as Schoeman Street), up into the corner of Lillian Ngoyi Street (formerly known as De Walt). Then from the corner of Lillian Ngoyi (De Walt Street) and Pretorius Street back to the corner of Pretorius Street and Bosman Street. There are different types of buildings in the area from businesses, offices, churches and several residential areas. Regarding the nature of the study, only residential areas were selected for the study in the area. Figure 3.2 below shows all roads where the residential units were selected and are all highlighted and labelled in red. In Pretorius Street three residential flats were selected, in the corner of Bosman Street and Pretorius and Francis Baard Street, three residential flats were selected as well. In Francis Baard Street five residential flats were selected while in Lilian Ngoyi and Pretorius Street, no residential flats were selected because there were businesses only.

Figure 3.2: Demarcated Area for the study



Source: National Treasury (2019)

3.4 Population of the study

The targeted population, according to Neuman (2011) can be a group or individuals that are being studied in that particular area and it is drawn from a specific number of respondents that a researcher is interested to use in a study. In support of the statement, Polit and Beck (2017) highlight that a population comprises people with some common characteristics that the researcher wants to study. This study's considered population was a specific number of men found in one geographical area for inclusion in the study (Hammond and Wellington, 2013). This study was conducted in two phases, a survey, and in-depth interviews. The current study population for a survey was conducted with 350 men residing in residential flats in the demarcated area in Pretoria central. The in-depth interviews were conducted with 10 men residing in Pretoria who were victims of IPV, being victimised by their intimate partners. All the 10 participants were members of the organisation called South African Men's Action Group (SAMAG), a non-profit organisation that assist victims of IPV/GBV. In addition, four key informant interviews were held with counsellors at SAMAG.

3.5 Sampling methods

According to Neuman (2011) sampling is a selection of subset of persons or things from a larger population with the intention of representing the particular population. A sampling method is a logical process of picking cases for inclusion in the research study (Moule and Goodman, 2014 and Kumar, 2012). The advantage of sampling for the researcher, is that it acts as a pointer, process or technique of selecting an appropriate sample for inclusion in the study (Kumar, 2012; Nueman, 2011). The quantitative sample for this study consisted of 350 men who were recruited randomly in a specified area in Pretoria Central. The sample for the qualitative research consisted of 10 men who were victims of abuse by their intimate partners and four key informants from SAMAG who worked as counsellors. The men were recruited through SAMAG, an organisation specialising in gender-based violence issues on women. SAMAG has incorporated gender-based violence against men in their workplan. Since all 10 men met the selection criteria, they were included in the study. Due to the nature of this study, both probability and non-probability sampling methods were implemented. The researcher selected these 10 men based on referrals using the snowball sampling technique because they matched the criteria for this study and were deemed suitable therefore to yield the type of

information that would lead the researcher to reaching as many of the aims of this study as possible.

3.5.1 Types of sampling

This study used both the probability and random sampling and non- probability or non- random sampling.

Probability sampling

Neuman (2011) notes that probability sampling as randomisation and the researcher is fully aware of the population for inclusion in the study. Probability sampling comprises of five sampling methods, which include simple random sampling technique; systematic sampling; stratified sampling; cluster sampling and multi-stage sampling. In simple random sampling each member of the population is equally likely to be chosen as part of the sample which removes bias from the selection procedure (Gravetter and Forzano, 2011). An advantage of using simple random sampling is that it is associated with the minimum amount of sampling bias compared to other sampling methods. It is also a straightforward sampling method that requires no advanced technical knowledge. This study used simple random sampling techniques in selecting participants who participated in the survey. Probability sampling is important to researchers who rarely determine the sample size in advance and have limited knowledge about the larger group or population from which the sample is taken (Moule and Goodman, 2014). The researcher used probability sampling for the quantitative component of the study because it gave all men in the area the opportunity to be selected for the study.

Non-probability sampling

The researcher used snowball sampling, which is a form of sampling based on a referral from original informants (Polit and Beck 2017). The non-probability sampling method includes quota sampling; convenience sampling; purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Neuman ,2011). It is also applied by researchers who lack knowledge of the population prior to going to the field. The advantages of the snowballing sampling method include the ability for a researcher to recruit hidden populations, collect primary data in a cost-effective manner while, sampling can be completed in a short duration of time and very little planning is required to

start the primary data collection process. This study used purposive sampling method in selecting the participants in the NPO and all the participants were chosen by the key informants. The participants were selected on their availability and willingness to participate in the study.

3.6 Research methods

Neuman (2014) highlights that research methods refer to the collection of specific techniques we use in a study to select cases, measure and observe social life, gather, and refine data, analyse data, and report on results. Methodology refers to the understanding the whole research process including its social organisational context, philosophical assumptions, ethical principles, and the political impact of new knowledge from the research enterprise (Keenan, 2015). Blaxter et al. (2010); Silverman (2010) also highlight that research methods are a plan of methods and procedures that would be used in the study. This includes the principles and assumptions of the chosen techniques. It pertains to the researcher's choices about the appropriate models, planning and target population, collection of data and analysis.

This study used both the quantitative method and qualitative method. A mixed-methods approach to research implies a planned integration of qualitative and quantitative research into one investigation Creswell and Clark (2017) argue that by blending quantitative and qualitative data, researchers aim to maximize strengths and minimize weaknesses in mixed methods studies. Bryman (2006) observes that by combining the methods, the limitations of one method may be overcome by the strengths of another, leading to more complete and reliable findings. In carrying out this integration, researchers verify findings and reduce biases of using one method or the other (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Fetters et al. (2013) argue that such integration improves the validity of the research findings of the study. According to Creswell (2014) research designs are types of review within the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design (Creswell, 2014). Thus, in both sequential and concurrent designs, qualitative and quantitative data can be collected and analysed either separately or all at once, although it results in a deep interpretation of results (Creswell and Clark, 2018). A qualitative exploratory descriptive is designed to facilitate a detailed and deep understanding of male victims' experience of female-perpetrated domestic abuse (McCarrick et al. 2016; Morgan and Wells, 2016; Wallace et al. 2019). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) highlight that research design is used to guide and direct the collection and analysis of data. In support of this statement, Flick (2009) mentions that the

research design makes life easier for research to answer all possible questions that requires attention. The mixed method approach is adopted when researchers want data from both research approaches to adapt the research findings and draw conclusions based on the two approaches (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). The study used mixed-method research to strengthen both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

The quantitative part of the study aimed at establishing the prevalence of IPV in a given population. Qualitative interviews would then follow to explore personal experiences and contextual variables forming the basis of such statistical outcomes. For the quantitative research method, a survey was conducted to collect data that assisted the researcher in answering the study objectives. According to Williams (2011) the quantitative method is a holistic step a researcher employs in embarking on a research work whereby, numerical data is collected and analysed using statistical approaches. William (2011) also highlights that the method employs strategies such as surveys to collect data on established instruments that yield statistical data. Creswell (2009) highlights that quantitative researchers are objectivists and positivists in their research approach. The advantage of the quantitative method is that it can provide objective, reliable, and generalisable results. Throughout a survey, privacy and confidentiality were maintained. Relationships were built with the participants before the interviews by telling them the purpose of the study and that the information was confidential and mainly for the study only. In each household selected, only one male was interviewed and were assured of full confidentiality of their responses.

In this study, the qualitative method was employed using in-depth interviews which were conducted with 10 men who were victims of IPV and also four key informants from SAMAG who worked as counsellors. The researcher used qualitative research because it is very important in social research as it addresses the “how” and “why” research questions. The qualitative approach also enables a deeper understanding of experiences, phenomena, and context. Qualitative research allows the researcher to ask questions to better understand the human experience. The participants were recruited through this method, which is about recruiting participants based on the research’s decision. Four key informant interviews were conducted with counsellors from SAMAG. Two of the key informants were psychosocial counsellors and the other two were HIV/AIDS counsellors. According to Keenan (2015) the qualitative method explores a phenomenon in an in-depth and holistic manner by collecting rich stories using a flexible research design. The qualitative method aims at understanding

some aspect of social life and its techniques generate narratives (Liamputtong, 2013). Creswell (2014) mentions that qualitative research is in a natural setting where the participants experience the problem instead of a laboratory. Yin (2011) suggests that research participants are free to relate their stories and are not limited to being the researchers' instrument.

3.7 Data collection method

Data collection methods encompass a variety of techniques and tools for gathering quantitative and qualitative data, and the researcher used questionnaires for the quantitative part of the study and an interview guide for the qualitative part of the study. Questionnaires can be used by both qualitative and quantitative researchers in varying degrees of fluidity and rigidity (Neuman, 2011; Romm, 2013). A questionnaire consists of a list of pre-set questions to which respondents were asked to supply answers (Haralambos, 1985). The researcher in this study used a questionnaire for the quantitative data collection and an interview guide or interview schedule for the qualitative in-depth interviews that were conducted for qualitative part of the study. The questionnaire consisted of both open and close-ended questions with a specific purpose of achieving a comprehensive response in terms of both quantitative and qualitative information.

In the first phase of this study a survey was conducted whereby 350 questionnaires were administered with men residing in Pretoria CBD. Those respondents who had enough time to fill the questionnaire or who understand English and were free to fill the questionnaire, were given the opportunity to fill their questionnaires. The primary research undertaken in this project consisted of three questionnaires administered to participants (both qualitative and quantitative) and key informants. The response categories used in this study included "yes", "no" or "other and explain". Other response categories included specific options identified by the researcher to respond to the question raised. According to Robinson (2007) closed-ended response categories are useful for gathering quantitative, easily coded and analysed data and they are most suitable for mass surveys, especially for mailed or telephone surveys. The use of both quantitative (survey questionnaires) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews) allowed the study to do away with biases in the findings.

In-depth interviews were conducted in the second phase of the study with men as well as key informants. Qualitative data was collected using a digital voice recorder to record the interviews with the participants' consent. The interviews were recorded and then subsequently

transcribed verbatim. The voice recorder also helped in the initial stages of interviewing participants as they listened to the recordings for analysis. The participants were interviewed individual because of the sensitivity of the study. It was also to allow the researcher to make important observations aside from the interview responses. According to Creswell (2014) the researcher is the one who collects data through in-depth interviews in the qualitative research as opposed to giving out the questionnaire. Maree (2016) explains that a researcher could raise additional questions while sensitively observing the participants in the telling of their stories. The researcher implemented Smith and Noble (2014) eleven strategies to data analysis, which required the researcher to work back and forth between themes based on the data collected until the themes made sense. The focus was on the participants' lived experiences of IPV perpetrated by their female partners and meanings they ascribed to such experiences. Qualitative researchers focus on learning the meaning that the participants have about the phenomenon and not what the researcher knows from literature (Creswell, 2014).

The data was collected by the lead researcher with the assistance of two field researchers as data collectors. The two field assistant researchers were employed to assist the lead researcher for the quantitative component. The two field research assistants are population studies graduates from the University of Northwest and they have the experience of collecting and analysing data. They were extensive training on survey research. The in-depth interviews and key informants' interviews were conducted by the lead researcher only because of the sensitivity of the subject. The lead researcher felt that it was appropriate to be the one conducting these interviews because he had gained the trust of the participants. Before the interviews, the researcher met with the key informants to explain the purpose of the study and ensure the confidentiality of the information collected.

3.8 Validity and reliability of instruments

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) note that validity and reliability are necessary for data collection and are also used by researchers as data quality control measures in research. They further note that validity and reliability help to establish honesty, integrity and plausibility of findings. They are tested either through face or content and it is done in order to do away with unnecessary information.

Validity

Validity means truth and it is about how the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation (Neuman, 2011). Validity confirms what is happening in reality and helps to test how accurate an instrument is and whether it measures the specific concept it is planned to measure (Neuman, 2011). The researcher relied on the experience of his doctoral supervisor in the School of Built Environment and Development Studies. The experience of the supervisor was invaluable in revising the instrument to ensure that it measures what it is expected to measure. Various approaches were used to ensure the validity of the results in this study. For example, confirmation of the instruments, suitable check-up and proof-reading by knowledgeable persons in the field of population studies as well as semi-structured interviews conducted and endorsement by the supervisor. Validity obtains data that is appropriate for the intended use of the measuring instruments. It also determines whether the expressions in the scale make suitable measurements according to the purpose of the research to come to the forefront (Whiston, 2012). Validity is the extent to which a measure effectively represents the underlying construct that it is supposed to measure. Construct refers to the skills, knowledge, attributes or attitudes that the researcher is investigating (Drost, 2011). According to Shekharan and Bougie (2010) validity is to test how an instrument measures the concept. It is planned to measure and whether we measure the right concept or not the right concept.

Reliability

Reliability can be defined as the degree to which the measure of a construct is reliable or dependable. It is also the extent to which measurements are repeatable when different people perform the measurement on different occasions with alternative instruments which measure the construct or skill (Drost, 2011). Reliability as a degree of measure is meant to give dependable as well as unchanging results in a measurement process (Neuman, 2011). According to Shekharan and Bougie (2010) reliability is an indication of constancy and repeatability with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the “goodness” of a measure. To ensure the application of reliability in the instruments, the researcher conducted a pilot study. The pilot study was to test whether the respondents would have a clear understanding of the questions asked during interviews and how long it takes to conduct both survey and in-depth interviews. In addition, the pilot study was used to revise the questionnaire and interview guide.

3.9 Methods of data analysis

The purpose of analysing data is to discover, communicate, bring order, and make sense of the data collected. The qualitative data collected was analysed using NVivo. NVivo is a software tool that allows its users to organize and store their qualitative data ready for analysis (Polit and Beck, 2017; Doody et al., 2013; Millward, 2001). Qualitative data analysis allows the researcher to explore data to categorise recurring themes, concepts and patterns and then describe and interpret those categories (Nassaji, 2015). In support of this argument, Creswell (2014) mentions that the researcher starts to build themes from bottom up from the raw data by combining relevant data to increase meaning of information. Nieuwehuis (2016) mentions that qualitative studies are inductive and work mainly with emerging theoretical framework that hypothesis. The researcher used the interview guide to conduct the semi-structured interviews. The interview guide does not impose what the researcher should do, this means that the interview schedule is flexible. The interview guide facilitates an interaction with the participants which allows them to provide a detailed narrative of their experience (Smith et al. 2009). Interview guides focus on the interview within the specific topic for the study. The research used the following step to collect and analyse qualitative data of the study. The digital voice recorder was used to record the interviews with the participant's consent. The participants were asked to sign the consent form with their demographic questionnaire before the interview commenced. All the participants gave permission for the interviews to be recorded. The interviews were conducted in English and field notes were also taken as a backup. The researcher wrote brief notes, keywords, and phrases that helped him remember what the participant said to ask follow-up questions to avoid disturbing the participants from his storyline.

After the interviews, the researcher transcribed verbatim the English interviews with the help of a professional transcriber. The researcher together with the transcriber read the transcripts and listened to the audio recordings. All the important points were noted. Twelve themes emerged from the transcript, and the themes were organised chronologically. Thereafter, the themes were grouped. The themes that were similar and had connections were organised together and provided a cluster with a descriptive label, for example, in one of the participants' extracts there was a series of evolving themes around reporting the abuse to the relevant institutions. By the end of the analysis, there were 10 tables of evolving themes since 10

interviews were conducted. After completing the tables for all 10 interviews, patterns and grouped the themes together and lastly, I did the write-up of the narrative.

The researcher used the following steps to analyse the data of the study. The questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data. The quantitative data from the questionnaires were analysed using descriptive statistics. The researcher entered the data in the spreadsheet and coded it and then transported it to the software. For example, age categories were coded, 18-29 = 1 and 30-60 = 2. Afterward, the researcher cleaned the data to ensure the data was accurate by removing duplications or errors, and incorrectly filled to ensure the quality of the data and handled missing values. The researcher ensured that there were no outliers by correcting typographical errors and removing rows with missing values. Then the data was classified according to attributes and class intervals. Descriptive statistics are in the form of frequencies, percentages, tables and bar graphs. After the data was captured, it was cleaned, and the variables were grouped in themes. These themes were coded using STATA 14 which was used to run the analysis of the results via cross-tabulations. The frequencies of the independent variables show the numbers and the percentages of how many of the 350 men answered the questions that were asked. This process allowed the researcher to organise and categorise those themes into different groups. Lastly, during the discussion of the analysis, relationships between collected data and the existing literature was established from combination of close and open-ended questions which the interviewees administered themselves or as assisted by the researcher and research assistants. Data was cleaned and analysed. The analysis and an investigation of data was carried out based on descriptive and inferential statistics to explain occurrences. The last step was interpretation of results. Different methods to summarise and present data such as tables calculation of statistical measures was employed.

3.10 Pilot study

Conducting a pilot study is important because it helps to examine, redefine and strengthen the instruments before the actual study is conducted. A pilot study also saves researchers time and effort (Leedy and Ormrod, 2011; Marshall and Rossman, 2016). The pilot study helped the researcher to establish if participants would be able to answer the questions and how long it would take to conduct a survey based on the average time it took each participant to answer the questions (Drake, 2013). The advantage of conducting a pilot study, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2011) is that it supports the argument and basis for a genre strategy. The pilot

study was conducted in one of the flats in Pretoria central that was not sampled for the survey study. This flat is behind the Department of Social Development where the researcher works. The reason for the researcher to choose to conduct a pilot study in this flat next to his workplace, because it was that it was not far from his workplace. The researcher conducted the pre-test of the pilot using semi structured questionnaires regarding the impact of IPV on men. The pilot survey study was conducted six weeks before the actual survey with 20 sampled men and 20 questionnaires were completed. Some adjustments were made to the questionnaire in terms of rephrasing and merging some questions, and also the time to complete the survey was adjusted. The pilot survey was useful in finalising the questionnaire. The pilot was conducted to improve the research instruments and trustworthiness, adjust and manage the interviews in the real survey. It must be mentioned that the pilot study applied just simple, direct, and unbiased wording in order to yield better results. The pilot study was conducted in June 2020.

3.11 Dissemination of the research findings

This study considers dissemination as a process of sharing information and knowledge for use by the people in the same discipline. The research findings will be presented at national and international conferences and published in peer-reviewed journals to ensure easy accessibility by audiences like researchers and practitioners who handle IPV cases in South Africa. The copy of the dissertation will also be given to the SAMAG organisation to ensure that the participants in this study and other male victims of IPV will have access. An online copy of the dissertation will be available on the University of KwaZulu Natal (UKZN) library for wider distribution. Additionally, part of the research output would be disseminated as chapters in peer-reviewed books as well as peer-reviewed journals. Research dissemination is a planned process that involves target audience which research findings are to be received and communicating and interacting with wider audiences in ways that will facilitate research uptake and understanding (Wilson et al. 2010).

3.12 Ethical considerations

The Higher Degrees Committee (HDC) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal provided the researcher with ethical clearance to conduct this research. Each participant completed the consent form, which stated that the research was voluntary, and the participants, could withdraw at any given time if they wished to do so. Informed consents forms were given to

participants to fill before each interview was conducted. The researcher confirmed that the participants information will not be disclosed or shared with anyone and their names would be changed to protect their identity. In the dissertation pseudonym names are used. The researcher assured the participants that the information was confidential, no one would know about their participation in the study, and their identity would not be in the results of the study. This study was independently evaluated and approved by a University Committee of Research Ethics. The researcher also kept in mind the participants rights such as informed consent, protection from disclosure of information and respect for their privacy and confidentiality (Corbin and Strauss, 2011). The researcher used several approaches to hide the identity of the participants such as use of codes when analysing the data or use of pseudonyms (Streubert and Carpenter, 2011). Anonymity is never complete in most types of qualitative inquiry because the researcher knows who is involved in the research. Confidentiality then remains the only guarantee to the participants that their identities would be protected in front of their peers and the public. All the rights of the victims were protected and the national and international precepts of research ethics with human participants were followed. Each participant received a self-administered questionnaire after explaining the purpose of the study, their freedom to participate and a confirmation of confidentiality. Their identity was kept anonymous in the questionnaire considering the sensitive nature of some of the information that was being shared.

3.13 Limitations of the study

The previous studies on men abuse in the country have been qualitative in nature and the sample size in most studies were less than 10 men that posed a major limitation for this study. Furthermore, most of these studies were conducted in urban settings. Lack of quantitative study on the subject also posed a limitation in this study. The other limitation is that the study was conducted with one racial group. The scope of the population was limited as this study was conducted in Pretoria CBD, in Gauteng Province and not in other areas in Pretoria. Maybe, if the study was conducted in other areas in Pretoria and other Provinces, the findings could be different and could be generalised.

One of the major challenges was to get some of the participants within the specific time frame that was set for interviews, because some men were not available during the day, they were working night. Some of the interviews had to re-scheduled to meet the participants and interviews were conducted on weekends. Though the findings of this study add to the

knowledge gap of IPV against men, this approach does not allow the generalisation of these findings to a population (Strydom, 2011). Accessing the population of men who experienced IPV was a significant limitation since IPV against men is not widely recognised by society and most men do not regard themselves as victims of abuse.

Another of the limitations of this study is that it focused on men abuse, which is a sensitive and taboo topic in South Africa and also in the African context. The society does not recognise men as the victims of IPV, which further stops men to report the abuse which statistically reduces the number of cases against men of IPV against the number of cases reported by women of similar abuse (Edubirdie, 2022). Another limitation of this study was the focus on the abused men and their female partners who were perpetrators were not interviewed. Consequently, only one perspective was explored in the study. The participants I had access to for qualitative study were from an NPO, and even then, most were reluctant at first to talk about their experiences until the interviews were confirmed by the SAMAG counsellors.

3.14 Summary

In chapter three, the researcher discussed the research methodology, which consisted of the research design, research approach and research methods. The qualitative research methods and quantitative research methods were used in this study, covering participants in Pretoria Central Business District which forms part of Tshwane Metro Municipality, in Gauteng Province. The mixed-method approach presents, primarily, an excellent methodological tool for enhancing the credibility, completeness, and depth of the findings. Blending qualitative and quantitative approaches and sources or perspectives allows a researcher to tackle more difficult research questions effectively. The integration of approaches will make research findings not only sound and reliable but detailed, with minimum loss of rich detail. All the participants for the survey and in-depth interviews were drawn from the CBD and the in-depth interviews were from SAMAG. A total of 350 survey interviews were conducted with men, 10 in-depth interviews were also held and four key informant interviews were conducted. The purposive, non-random sampling method was used. Each phase and its underlying steps were discussed comprehensively. It reflected on all the events as they occurred. The researcher further explained how rigour was ensured throughout the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

AWARENESS AND ATTITUDES ABOUT IPV AGAINST MEN

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the major findings of the study emanating from the in-depth interviews conducted with ten men who were victims of intimate partner violence (IPV) and four key informants who are working for a non-profit organisation (NPO). The three key informants were trauma counsellors, and one counsellor was specifically trained in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) counsellor support. This NPO provides service and advice to female victims of IPV and in 2015 the NPO incorporated services for male victims of IPV on a small scale. The participants in the study are victims of IPV receiving counseling from the NPO that provides IPV services and programmes. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an in-depth understanding of male victim's experiences of violence that is inflicted by their intimate partners and the services available to them.

Another purpose was to get an in-depth perspective of IPV and GBV counsellors who provide services to male victims to find out how they managed working with male victims and investigating their understanding of men abuse. It was also to ascertain what challenges they have encountered in providing services to male victims as compared to female victims. The study sought to ascertain an understanding of the specific difficulties male victims may face when reporting or dealing with this dilemma. The themes that came out of the qualitative data, are understanding of IPV by male victims and their understanding of the difference between IPV and GBV. This chapter also addresses the types of violence the victims suffered, their perceptions on the prevalence of IPV in their community. In addition, this chapter explores the sources of information where they acquire information about services for male victims. This chapter also sought to ascertain the type of support that is available for male victims and their perceptions of government and NPOs initiatives on IPV. Lastly, an inquiry was made regarding the importance of the media in tackling IPV.

4.2 Sample characteristics of the participants

Table 4.1 below presents the sample characteristics background of the men in the study (in-depth interviews). The bulk of the sample 7 was over than 30 years of age and only three said that they were less than 30 years of age. In terms of marital status, four were married, followed by three who said they were living together with their partners and two who said they never married, and one man was divorced. Almost nine of the men in the in-depth interviews were heterosexual and only one identified as bisexual. Eight of men mentioned that they were employed either full time or part-time, while some men said they were unemployed. All men said that they were in a relationship during the in-depth interviews, in terms of sexual orientation, the majority of men 9 said that they were heterosexual while only one said he was bisexual.

Table 4.1 Sample characteristics of men

Background	N	%
Age		
< 30	3	30
>30	7	70
Total	10	100
Marital Status		
Married	4	40
Living together	3	30
Never married	2	20
Divorced	1	10
Total	10	100
Current in a relationship		
Yes	10	100
No	00	00
Total	10	100
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	9	90
Bisexual	1	10
Homosexual	0	00
Total	10	100
Education Level		
High school and less	5	50
Post High school and more	5	50
Total	10	100
Employment status		
Employed (full-time and part-time)	8	80
Unemployed	2	20
Total	10	100

4.3 Participants understanding of the IPV concept

Understanding of IPV by men is complex because of how they are socialised. According to Morgan and Wells (2016) most men are socialised to be emotionally constrained or less sensitive; they are discouraged from disclosing their abuse openly due to fears that they might be misunderstood or their manhood questioned (Ratele, 2022). Most of the participants believed that IPV was only encountered by women until they experienced it. Kalimaposo et al. (2022) reveal that since time immemorial gender-based violence has been understood to happen mainly to women because of the different socialisation roles assigned to men and women. Their understanding of IPV was limited because they thought as men, they would

never be in that position in their relationships. The finding of this study is consistent with Scott-Storey et al. (2023) that men do not consider or perceive domestic violence perpetrated on them by women as abuse. The majority of men, 7, mentioned that IPV was violence but could not identify different forms or types of IPV. Consistent with the findings, Medzani (2019) in his study in Zimbabwe found that men in some instances could not find words to describe their abusive experience and they would use examples to describe the abuse suffered. When the participants were asked about the perpetrators of IPV, all the participants mentioned that it was both women and men. This is consistent with the review conducted by Dziewa and Glowacz (2021) which found that in several studies on the prevalence of GBV revealed that both women and men can be victims. Some participants mentioned that they started to notice that they were in abusive relationships when incidents were happening, more frequently and they were also more severe. This evidence is consistent with the findings by Medzani (2019) that in some cases IPV happens in a particular pattern where it is not aggressive but as time progresses it turns to physical violence. However, they thought it was too late to deal with the situation. One of the men said:

“Some men are good and some definitely are abusive, but most women are abusive and most people have not noticed that until it happened to them” [Khumutso # 3, Male victims].

“At some stage I thought my wife was going through some depression after losing her job. She would insult me and accuse me with no facts to support her accusations. I would understand and told the children to understand, however, this behaviour did not stop it got worse until I involved our families” [Nhlanhla # 5, Male victim].

When the researcher provided a broader explanation ,what IPV entailed, the participants were able to provide more information and examples about other forms or types of IPV such as emotional, financial, and sexual abuse. Participants were then able to identify different forms of IPV that most men are experiencing at the hands of their partners. Medzani (2019) mentions that in his study men reported multiple behaviours by their female partners which took the form of physical, sexual, verbal, emotional and financial abuse. Some participants mentioned that they thought it was “normal” for women to shout and scream whenever they were not happy with the situation. The study that was conducted by Medzani (2019) in Zimbabwe found men reported that it was difficult to differentiate between normal and abnormal or abusive behaviour

in a similar way as they struggle with their abuser's behaviour shifts because they did not follow the defined cycle. They have to live with the idea or fact believing that it is more common for some women to act out in this way, especially those who do not respect their partners. The findings from this study are similar to those of Scott-Storey et al. (2023) which found that most men do not consider or perceive that gender-based violence committed by women is abuse. One participant mentioned that when he was complaining to his friend about his girlfriend who demanded sex regularly even when he just got back from work, his friends were surprised. Consistent with the study findings, Depraetere et al. (2020) observed that dominant societal perceptions of male sexual victimisation and sexuality prevent men from identifying themselves as sexual abuse victims and prevent them from reporting or seeking help. She also demanded to know where he was when he came home late from work. To prove that he was not sleeping around, the girlfriend would then demand sex. She was doing this because she did not trust him and thought he was sleeping with other women. Such a finding is consistent with the assertion by Chynoweth (2018) that perpetrators use sex as a means of punishing or controlling their targets for reaching satisfaction that harms their targets. His friends thought he was lazy because they believed that men cannot turn down women whenever women ask for sex with men. They only realised that men could also be victims of sexual abuse. The finding corroborates with some previous studies which indicated that men reported being forced or pressured by their female partners to engage in unwanted and unprotected sexual acts through threats and manipulation (Bates, 2020). They did not understand different forms of abuse until they were introduced to the organisation. He said that:

“My aunt would shout and insult my uncle calling him all sorts of names. We thought that it was because of her clan's name, because it is known that women from that surname are rude naturally. The sad part was that my uncle started to drink after these incidents” [Thabani #6 Male victim].

Some participants also observed financial abuse in their relationships. Consistent with this finding, Ademuson et al. (2022) reveal that in Nigeria Muslim men experience economic abuse from their wives. They noted that men are expected to provide material support in relationships, even if they do not have any money to do so. A study in South Africa by Nekhavhambe (2019) found that a man reported that his wife made excessive financial demands and he paid for everything in the household. The interviews from the present study found that the woman

would lend him money and expect him to pay it back. She demands him to pay back the money she used to buy food and nappies for their child when he gets paid. He said:

“My friend will call me and other friends asking for cash because his girlfriend is not talking to him for days. She demanded money to buy something and he did not have money that time so she was angry and upset. She would threaten to leave him she does not get what she wants and always demanding things, but she is not working. She would verbally be abusing him if she does not have money” [Thabang # 2 Male victims].

One participant mentioned that his wife never gave him an opportunity to be part of the household financials decision making. She assumed sole responsibility for financial decisions and usually spent more money on her family. He further mentioned that when he raised financial issues with her, she would change the topic until he eventually gave up. In their study, Walker et al. (2019) found that men reported that they were financially abused by their partners by restricting how they use their money. They had no access to their banking accounts or access to spending money. The study finding corroborates with some previous studies which indicate that men reported that their female partners wanted to get strict accountability for their income and force them to give a substantial portion of their income to their wives (Athuman and Munish, 2022). Intimate partner violence can be perpetrated by former or current spouses, boyfriends or girlfriends, dating partners, or sexual partners. Below are some quotes from the individual interviews by participants who share their understanding about IPV.

“We have never sat down and discussed how we spend money with my wife. She is the only one who decides how we spend money in the household. When I asked her, she would be nasty for days and not talk to me. I also discovered that she also sends money to her parents without my consent. To make matters worse I am the only one working in the house” [khehla #1, Male victim].

4.3.1 Men’s understanding of the difference between IPV and GBV

The language associated with intimate partner violence is a problematic for many male victims of IPV because they do not associate themselves with the concept. Valle (2021) observes that if the use of gender-sensitive language was used to describe female-against-male violence, the language could influence male IPV victims reporting and help seeking behaviour (Walker et

al. 2020). In the qualitative interviews, participants were asked about their understanding of the difference between IPV and GBV. Lysova et al. (2020) argue that the language associated with domestic abuse among male victims of IPV is uncomfortable and men may feel discouraged to report their experiences. In the present study, the majority of men did not know the difference between IPV and GBV. They thought that the concepts were the same and could be used interchangeable. Medzani (2019) mentions that recognising men as victims of IPV involve the formulation of laws and policies using gender-neutral language or gender-inclusive language. Cook (2009) argues that gender-neutral language does not denote equality of treatment, but it should make equality of treatment possible. Language shows the political will to acknowledge men as potential victims of IPV and IPV against men as unwanted as that against women. Mkhize and Ndimande-Hlongwane (2014) mention that language is used as a form of influence with the potential to inform the way we view and speak about the world around us. Communication and language are certainly central to human experience.

One participant mentioned that previously, he thought that IPV and GBV was mainly applicable to women and children and not men. During the interviews, it became clear that GBV and IPV is fairly common in the community. Bates (2019) argue that intimate partner violence has been viewed through a lens that portrays men as abusers and women as victims and it is a complex issue. Many had personal experiences of violence. One participant explained that he witnessed GBV faced by women. He also observed that when his neighbour was drunk, he would insult his wife and children and they would be forced to escape their home and spend the night at the neighbour's house. In the morning, the man would apologise but this was his behaviour every time he was drunk. This was seen as an example of women being victims of GBV. Nearly, 40% of the males had witnessed parental violence while in other studies the estimate has ranged from 36% to 52% (Gubi et al. 2020). However, violence was not only confined to women, but men were also victims of GBV especially in their intimate relationships. Bates (2020) mentions that research shows that men are also abused by women and encounter numerous barriers when they seek help. In the interviews it was clear that for the men, gender equated to women and therefore they associated GBV with women.

The findings of this study showed that most (9) could not clearly understand the concept of IPV and could not explain it well. Regarding the concept's definitions, the finding of this study is consistent with evidence that some men do not perceive IPV as affecting men. However, the participants make examples that related to their situation when incidents were happening

frequently but still did not regard that as abuse until it was too late. Feyisetan and Oyediran (2019) mention that many men are victims of intimate partner violence, they do not realise they are being abused until it is too late. Some men might assume that they should just deal with the abuse on their own. When the researcher probed further in terms of the IPV concept, the participants made examples such as physical, emotional, financial, and sexual abuse that men are experiencing at the hands of their partners. However, some men never recognised that as violence. The interviews also showed that participants thought IPV was only associated with women only which made it difficult for the participants to regard themselves as victims of IPV. Ayodele (2017) argues that most men are unwilling to admit being victims at the hands of their women for fear of being viewed as weak.

One of the participants mentioned that when he was growing up, his aunt would always verbally abuse his uncle and accused him of not being a man enough. His uncle told the families that his wife would insult and fight with him whenever she was under the influence of alcohol. Eventually, the uncle had to abandon his house in order to escape the violence. The uncle felt humiliated by her behaviour, and he felt ashamed of his spouse. A study by Kalimaposo et al. (2022) also found that alcohol abuse is one of the leading causes of gender-based violence. The study was conducted in Zambia and men reported abusive behaviour from women whenever they are under the influence of alcohol. However, for some women taking alcohol does not lead them to be violent. She would insult and accuse him of infidelity, and he wanted the families to intervene. She would insult him; call him all sorts of derogatory names and he would never fight her back. After months of enduring abuse, his uncle decided to call several members of the family to inform them about the situation in his house. Obeji et al. (2017) mention that alleged or actual infidelity is a major cause of intimate partner violence and cited that in their study 61% of men were accused of infidelity. The finding corroborates with some previous study which indicates that battered and humiliated husbands abandoned their children because they could not take the abuse anymore (Mlilo, 2022).

In the interviews one man said:

“Sometimes he would have to make excuses for my aunt’s bad behaviour to neighbours and relatives when she is drunk and explained that his wife had too much to drink and she cannot remember some of the things, she said or done” [Zakhele #7 Male victim].

He further mentioned that his uncle felt humiliated, especially if she behaved badly in the company of colleagues or friends who respected and valued him. This was quite revealing as this man witnessed violence perpetrated by a woman at a young age and then he also had his own experience.

4.4 Awareness of other male IPV victims

In the interviews, participants were asked whether they were aware of other male victims of IPV in their community. The reason for this question was to ascertain the prevalence of IPV in the community. One man explained that it was painful to see a respected man and very humble man, loved by the community to be disrespected by his wife in front of his children and community. One man said that most men are victims of abuse in their area and this was not a joke because some men have lost respect in the community because of being the victim of abuse. All the participants in the qualitative interviews knew other men who had been hit, kicked, insulted, scorned or punched by a female partner in the area. In the qualitative interviews, most participants mentioned that it is well known that some men are victims of IPV. A study that was conducted in Ingwavuma District in KwaZulu Natal found that all men in the study reported knowing other men who were victims in the area and strongly agreed that men suffer silent abuse by their female partners in the area (Mngomezulu, 2018). All the participants had different stories to tell, and they knew men who were victims of IPV. Some participants mentioned that they knew their uncles were victims of IPV and sadly, some victims were not aware that they were victims. One of the participants mentioned that some of their neighbours are insulted and scorned every weekend by their abusive wives. He said:

“Sometimes our wives would go to where men drink and demanded that men give them money and some women would even accuse men of owing them money and not paying for sexual favours. They would insult men in front of their friends and sometime even their children would be with them. We are living hard lives, and we talk to them, but if some men do not see the need to find help, we cannot do anything” [Martin #8, Male victim]

One of the men said:

“What I can say is that most men in the areas are not happy in their homes because they are not treated as men and head of the households. Some of us prefer to go and visit friends or go to shebeens for peace of mind. We know kind and respected people in the area who are talk of the town because their wives abuse them, and they are still with their families” [Khehla # 1, Male victim].

The interviews seem to suggest that IPV is common among men and often it is women who are the perpetrators. Men try to avoid the situation but it is clear to others around them that they are victims of IPV.

4.5 Reasons women use violence

The majority of men (8) in the in-depth interviews reported that women use violence and they always justify it. Some men reported that women use violence because of jealousy, some women were just women nagging, while other men reported that women seeking attention from their partners. Consistent with the findings of the study, Ayo (2017) alludes that in Tanzania the major reasons for women battering their partners were alcoholism and love-related jealousy. In the interviews men explained that women use violence in self-defence, while other men reported some women were responding to what their partners have done or their partners did something wrong to upset them. Neal and Edward, (2017) in their study found that many female abusers retaliate as a form of defence because they have experienced violence from their partners. The in-depth interviews also revealed that women used violence for various reasons and they always justify it. Men mentioned that women demand money then when men do not have it, they fight them. Ademuson, et al. (2022) in their study in Nigeria reveal that poverty is a major reason why women use violence and men who can provide economic support to their families receive a lot of insults and are not respected in the household.

Other men reported that women would use their money without their consent then when men asked about money spent, they became the victims of violence and insults. Medzani (2019) mentions that men reported that their partners are always unreasonable, demanding money and wanting to live beyond their means, restricting and controlling their family income. Warmling,

Lindner and Coelho (2017) found that financial abuse is more likely to be experienced by older men but young and middle-aged men may be the victims of this type of abuse as well.

One man explained:

“When sitting with friends watching soccer drinking and laughing my wife would accuse me that we discuss about women and do not respect her. She would do funny things in front of my friends and accuse men of infidelity in the presence of my friends. I think this is pure jealous and manipulation” [Vuyani #10, Male victim].

Money was highlighted as an important reason for creating conflict that ultimately leads to violence. Sometimes women accuse men of risky sexual behaviours and this is used to start a fight in the relationship. Another man observed:

“My partner loves to control and always have something to say. Women use violence to control their men. When not in the house you are always accused of sleeping around with different women and when you in the house it is a problem as well” [Martin #8, Male victim].

4.6 Types of violence men experienced.

When talking about types of IPV against men, it was apparent that most men 7 believed that it refers to physical violence only. None of the men mentioned other forms of violence including emotional violence. The key informants on the other hand identified various forms of abuse that included physical, financial, sexual and emotional abuse. However, physical and verbal abuse was still considered to be the most prominent types.

The interviews suggest that men did suffer from different forms of IPV at the hands of their female intimate partners. Females used IPV against men in the form of physical assault, verbal abuse, sexual violence and financial abuse. This result supports the finding of Kalokhe et al. (2020) who found that women perpetrators use different form of control such as manipulation, blackmail, isolation from friends and family, money control and exploitation. In the present study, nine of the men suffered from emotional abuse which took the form of insults, threats and screaming. Eight men mentioned that their partners screamed and insulted them almost

every weekend when they are under the influence of alcohol for no reason. They also explained that their partners were not afraid to abuse them in front of others. Often, their partners insulted and threatened them in front of their children, neighbours, friends and relatives. This caused them a great deal of humiliation in front of people they loved and respected. Thobejane et al. (2018) mention that men reported that their partners would pour hot water over them while they were sleeping, chop off men's genitals, insult them in front of children, whip them, and use other forms of physical and verbal abuse.

In the interviews one participant mentioned that whenever he had an argument with his wife, she called him names and also told him that he was not the father of their child. He said that:

“She would shout at me in front of the children telling me that I am weak in bed and there are better men who could perform better than me. She would compare me with her previous partners every time we had an argument. This utterance has destroyed me and I have lost confidence and have died inside” [Martin # 8, Male victim].

One of the men said:

“Men experience a high prevalence of intimate partner violence, especially sexual violence and stalking and as men or community hardly talk about it. The sad part is that we do not see anything wrong with that because it is done by women and men must not refuse sex. We are regarded as sex machines ever ready and men are shy to refuse even if they are not interested” [Thabani # 6, Male victim].

Men were vulnerable to physical violence as well as threats, emotional abuse, intimidation, isolation, economic, and controlling behaviours (Barkhuizen, 2015; Hines, Brown, and Dunning, 2007; Hines and Douglas, 2009). One participant mentioned that whenever he had an argument with his partner, she would always remind him that she arranged and paid all the expense for his mother's funeral because he was unemployed at that time. He further mentioned that these insults broke his heart because they always talk about it and he feels less of a man. Kigaya (2021) alludes that in Kenya due to the high level of male unemployment and others working as casual workers, many men are considered as poor and depend on their female partners for financial support and are at high risk of IPV. Men also mentioned that their partners have threatened to kill them if they leave. A study that was conducted in Australia by Walkers

et al. (2019) found that men victims of partner violence were threatened by their partners that they would kill them and their families.

In the interviews men mentioned that their partners would throw items such as pots and kettles in the house whenever they were angry. One participant mentioned that his partner assaulted him with a blunt object and stabbed him three times on his back and as a result, he was almost paralysed. Consistent with the study findings Walker et al. (2019) mention that female perpetrators use force, sharp objects to stab their partners, weapons, or restraints to carry out the act including hitting, choking, pulling hair, burning, and shooting.

He said that:

“When she came late in the evening. I asked her where she was and she started insulting me verbally. When I decided to leave the house, she threw a jug at me. When I decided to leave the house, she threw a jug at me. I was angry and wanted to react and then thought I will be arrested and spend time in jail. I took my jacket and wanted to open the doors. She came running after me and stabbed me with a pair of scissors at the back. She left the house and left me, then I called my friend who took me to the clinic. From the clinic, I went to my parents’ place for two weeks” [Khumutso#3, Male victim].

One participant recalled the manipulation and deception he experienced from his partner and stressed that there was a power imbalance in his relationship because he was not working, and his partner was working. He mentioned that she would come home with her friends in the early hours of the morning drunk. She would knock hard on the door and force him to open. He explained that she behaved in this manner because he was not working and she was buying food and paying for other house services such as electricity and water. During this time, she would call him all sorts of insulting names and demand to be served food with her friends while insulting him in front of them. On weekends, this worsened until he could not handle it any longer and decided to return to his family home. One participant mentioned that love was complicated and it was supposed to be a good thing but sometimes it was an unpleasant thing when one is in abusive relationship. He said that:

“She came home late and started insulting me and when I wanted to leave the house, she locked all the doors and took the keys. Then I decided to switch on the radio and

ignored her. She came running and started provoking and pushing me around. The next thing she was throwing things (pot and kettle) at me and she did not want me to leave the house. Finally, she gave me the keys and that day I slept in the car and it was not the first time with her drama. The next day she called her family to a meeting, and apologised, said that I pushed her to do it” [Martin #8, Male victim].

This result supports the findings of Mligo (2021) and Chiganga (2020) who found that in Tanzania men are victims of abuse because women are more economically powerful than their husbands. Burnett (2019) and Kigaya (2021) also found that there is a strong connection between alcoholism and drug use in GBV perpetration for both men and women. Several researchers have recorded aggressive behaviour by women who are under the influence of alcohol and drugs.

In the interview some men also mentioned that their partners monitored their movements and would regularly call just to check what they were doing or who they were with. The majority of men (9) mentioned that this has made them feel like they had lost their independence and identity as men. They mentioned that women monitored their movements and behaviour to control them and exert their influence over them. He said that:

“When I am out with my colleagues or friends for drinks, she would call me now and again and forced me to open the phone speaker so that everyone would hear that I am talking to her. When I missed her calls, she would leave rude message in my voicemail” [Thabang # 2, Male victim].

These findings are consistent with the study findings by Kalokhe et al. (2020) who found that abusive women use force as a form of control, blackmail, and isolating their partners from family members, friends, and colleagues.

Hussain-Abubakar and Arikewuyo (2024) mention that men are being abused by women financially by using unreasonable control over their husbands’ funds, demanding them to make more money, misusing family funds without their husband’s concern, stealing their money and destroying properties. In the present study, the interviews revealed that in as far as financial abuse was concerned, one participant mentioned that his girlfriend misused money by buying unnecessary items and when he complained about this then she would fight with him. He

further mentioned that sometimes, his partner would send money to her relatives without discussing it with him and whenever he asked her, they would begin to argue.

He said that he has decided not to talk about finances with her anymore because of this. His motivation was to avoid conflict. One participant complained that his wife was the only one controlling his money, yet she is not working. She is the only who makes financial decisions in the house and sometimes he had to beg for money to buy drinks. Stylianou (2018) mentions that men are subjected to economic control, where they are not allowed to make financial decisions and also, they are denied access to their finances.

He said that:

“We have never sat down and discussed how we spend money with my girlfriend. She is the only one who decide how do we spend money in the household. When I asked her, she would be nasty for days and not talk to me” [Lihle #9, Male victim].

Morgan and Wells (2016) argue that male victims can be affected in a different way including isolation, intimidation, threats, use of children, victim blaming, financial abuse, and emotional and physical abuse.

In as far as fear and respect by their partners were concerned, most participants mentioned that their partner does not respect them, and they are sometimes fearful of them even when their friends are visiting. The study that was done by Ngumou (2023) in Tanzania found that men reported that their wives did not respect them at all. Rennison and Addington (2018) argue that male victims of IPV may experience fear, low self-esteem, suicidal ideas and isolation. In the interviews one man explained that they rotate their Saturday evening gatherings with friends and each one of them would host. He mentioned that when it is their turn to host, his wife would be rude and have an attitude towards his friend. She would make my friends to complain that women are not respecting their partners because they know that men cannot do anything even if they do not like the situation. Consistent with the study findings, Mngomezulu (2018) mentions that in his study men reported women are not giving them the respect they deserve.

Most of the men felt that because government legislation is protective of women, programmes and even the police are on their side. Some men mentioned that women take advantage and do

not respect their partners because they know men cannot hit them back. Hurtley et al. (2019) and Medzani (2019) mention that government departments, civil societies and interested groups are not assisting men regarding IPV. Men find themselves in a victimisation position and find it difficult to access any help they require. One of the participants said that one Saturday his wife chased his childhood friends out of the house with no valid reason while they were watching a soccer match.

One man said that:

“We were watching soccer with my friends and had few drinks. She asked me to tell my friends to leave because she did not like them. I thought she was joking and took it light. When I asked her to prepare meat for us, she started yelling and insulting me and told my friends to leave before she does something she would regret. I have never been so embarrassed in my life” [Sphiwe # 4, Male victim].

Key informants also noted that men also suffer from physical and financial abuse from their intimate female partners and most of their clients complained about it during counselling sessions. They also mentioned that most men do not believe in hitting women, so they do not respond to their drama. One of the key informants said that some of their clients are complaining that they heard that they are paying maintenance and school fees for children who are not biologically theirs. This is also consistent with other studies. Duru (2022) and Ogundipe et al. (2021) mention that Nigeria was ranked second highest in the world in paternity fraud and this behaviour damages men’s integrity or reputation within the family, friends and society. Most of their clients did not know until they were told by other people, especially friends and family members that their children are not their biological children. This is not an usual findings. This result supports the finding of Medzani (2019) who found that more than ten men in his study reported that they at some point innocently raised children that they had not biologically fathered. According to Preller (2008 as cited in Medzani, 2019) in South Africa child maintenance while not a biological father is assumed to be widespread. However, no estimates can be established. In the present study, the interviews suggest that most people in the community knew about such issues and some men were not aware about these. One key informant said that:

“We have brothers and some girls could be very abusive and cruel, imagine your brother supporting someone else’s child and he does not know but most people in the community knew about it” [Key informant # 3, Male victim].

“One of our clients has been paying maintenance for four years and when he asked for his child to stay with his parents because she is working, she refused with the child and told him that their son was not his and she would not allow him so to stay with another. From that day, he has never recovered from stress” [Key informant # 2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

The key informants also mentioned that some of their clients have been stabbed while others had hot water poured on them by their partners who accused them of infidelity. This result supports the findings of Muhidi (2018) in Kenya which found that male victims suffered the worst cases of physical violence such as major burns by hot liquids and fire, and major body and facial cuts. In Zambia, Kalimaposo et al. (2022) mention that some men were victims of abuse due to suspicions of infidelity by their partners. One key informant mentioned that some of their female clients told them that they inflict physical injuries on their partners and are not ashamed of it. Male victims suffer the same impact as women do from domestic violence, for instance, physical injuries, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), suicidal ideation, loss of self-esteem and confidence (Tsui, 2014). Other studies found that women perpetrators commit intimate terrorism and men have reported being slapped, pushed, kicked, grabbed, punched, choked, stabbed, and physically attacked in the groin areas (Barkhuizen, 2015; Hall, 2012). Some participants mentioned that some male victims still believed that domestic abuse is only physical (slaps, punches, etc.) hence they might not recognise the other signs self-identify as a victim of abuse. Consistent with the findings Walker et al. (2019) argue that male victims of IPV find it difficult to recognise and accept themselves as victims of abuse since there is a widely held notion that women are the only victims of abuse.

Other men think the abuse incidents are private matters, too trivial, and not worth reporting especially non-physical violence. One of the participants mentioned that most abuse came from non-physical actions such as emotional, sexual, or financial abuse. One participant recalled that when he was still living with his parents, that was when he first witnessed violence against men, when his mother was abusing his stepdad. Medzani (2019) mentions that the most common form of abuse is emotional abuse performed through indirect and non-combative

abusive behaviour by most women. This form includes prolonged denying of sex, economic abuse, verbal, and psychological abuse. When his mother was drunk, she would fight with his stepfather, resulting in his stepfather sometimes sleeping on the couch in the dining room. He mentioned that his mother would insult her partner and tell him how useless he was. She also always accused him of sleeping around with women in the area. Men always associate women abuse with their behaviour. One of the men said that:

“This happened at home, when my mother was drunk, she would scream and accuse my stepfather of things he never did. My relatives believed that my stepfather was treating my mother bad. They did not believe that my stepfather was being abused by my mother. She continued abusing him until it got worse. My stepfather’s sisters were always on my mother’s side” [Khehla #1, Male victim].

According to the World Health Organization (2012), physical abuse includes hitting, slapping, kicking, and beating while, sexual abuse includes forced sexual intercourse and other forms of sexual coercion. Emotional abuse includes insulting, belittling, humiliating, threatening to harm, intimidating and threatening to take away children from the partner or demanding money. Obeji et al. (2017) suggest that the aggressive behaviour of women has been linked to mental illness, drug use and. Alcoholism. These women often insult their partners, labelling them as useless and worthless men (Medzani, 2019).

4.7 Why men stay in abusive relationships?

The study findings found that most men stay in abusive relationships because there are no alternatives because of financial constraints. Consistent with the study findings, Lien and Lorentzen (2019) mention that the literature states that the reasons for male victims of IPV staying in abusive relationships are similar to the reasons of women victim. They fear of losing contact with their children. Men do not report the abuse because of the lack of acknowledgment of their abusive experience, self-blame, shame, social gender roles in society, and financial dependence (Bates, 2020; Huntley et al. 2019; Machado et al. 2020). Most participants mentioned that men stay in abusive relationships because they have nowhere to go, because they cannot go back to their family homes or go and stay at relative’s house or go stay with friends because they have to explain why they left their house. Consistent with the study findings Huntley et al. (2019) suggest that some male victims stay in abusive relationships

because they have nowhere else to go. In contrast to the finding, a study that was done in Zimbabwe by Medzani (2019) found that abused male victims may find refuge at their relatives' or friends' homes given that there are no shelters available for men. In most families, men abuse is still a taboo and they do not understand that a man can be abused by a woman. Ayediran et al. (2023) mention that most men may feel discouraged to speak about what is going on in their marital relationship or feel like no one will believe them. Some men cannot leave their families to protect their children because they are afraid that the abuser would also abuse children.

One of the men said that:

“Due to economic hardship these days things are expensive and it not easy to leave your house and go and rent somewhere. You have to maintain your family and have money for yourself it is difficult so one is forced to stay” [Thabani # 6, Male victim].

Another man said that:

“It is difficult to leave your children with someone who is not mentally stable, this person can abuse your children if you leave to settle the score. So, men are compelled to stay in abusive relationships to protect their children” [Khehla # 1, Male victim].

The key informants mentioned that most men stay in abusive relationships because it is not easy for them to talk about abuse. Such a finding is consistent with Kalimaposo et al. (2022) statement that the great misfortune is that abused men do not talk about their experiences openly because it would expose them to mockery and bruise their ego in a patriarchal society. The key informants also mentioned that men do not leave abusive relationships because they do not want to lose their dignity and families. Men do not want to be seen as failures, so to leave their matrimonial home would make them failures. Men always want to keep their families together, that is the other reason why they stay in abusive relationships. Key informants mentioned it becomes a challenge for abused men to leave their partner when he is financially dependent on them. One of the key informants mentioned that:

“These days there is high unemployment rate and sometimes make it difficult for men to leave their supporting abusers because they are dependent on them for financial support” [Key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

4.8 Reporting of IPV

This study found that it was very difficult for most men to report the abuse to anyone. According to Thusi and Mlambo (2023) male victims of abuse are afraid to speak about the abuse for fear of social shame and other difficulties that may arise because of reporting the abuse. Men believe that society presents obstacles for them to report the abuse or seek help in relevant institutions. Men highlighted that they do not report abuse to avoid social stigma, shame, embarrassment, and fear that their families and friends will never believe or support them. The findings of this study are consistent with the results of Ayodele (2017) and McCarrick et al. (2016) highlighting that male victims of IPV do not report their abuse due to ego and stigma and undergoing double trauma of partner violence and not being believed and remain trapped in oppressive relationships. Some men mentioned that they talked with their relatives about the abuse of men in the area and the responses were not good at all. Their relatives responded that “no ways a man cannot be abused by “*umfazi*” [woman].” The men felt that they cannot share their ordeals with relatives because they would be judged and laughed at. One man said:

“In South Africa, there is no place where men can report the abuse because men are regarded as abusers than being abused. When men grow up, they are socialised to be strong to protect their families. Thus, it is not easy to be a victim because that is a sign of weakness” [Zakhele, # 7, Male victims].

He said that:

“Even with your close friend you are afraid to tell them about the abuse because they will blame you and regard you as a failure who cannot control his partner. Most men do not tell anyone because they will be regarded as weak and wimps” [Vuyani# 10, Male victim].

Men agreed that when men report the abuse to anyone, they are not believed but are always regarded as perpetrators. Once you are known as an abuse victim in the society, even in your own family, no one will respect you and you become a joke. Kgatle and Mafa (2021) also found that that men to avoid the feelings of embarrassment are afraid that people will make fun of their situations. To avoid such, men reported that they have to keep the abuse as a secret and

never tell anyone. Consistent with the findings, Woodyard (2019) mentions that since men are not commonly victimised, it is difficult for people to respond to the abuse when they hear about or find out. Men are falsely accused as perpetrators and to describe their victimisation to anyone is fear of theirs. In the interviews all men mentioned that no man dares to go to the police station to report the abuse because you become a joke while the police tell you to go and solve your issues at home. Male IPV victims also are blamed for their victimization to a greater extent (Sorenson and Taylor, 2005). Family court judges (Muller et al., 2009) and police officers (Machado et al., 2021) hold similar biases regarding IPV as the general population. This is hard for men. One the men said:

“When you get to the police station to report the abuse and tell the police officers that your partner will kill you one day, they laugh at you and tell you that a grown-up man cannot be abused by a woman. They will call each other to tell them about your issues and turn your issues into a joke. It not easy to just go and report even to your family because they give you the same treatment” [Martin # 8, Male victim].

4.9 Perceptions and attitudes towards male victims of IPV

All the men mentioned that they believe that society has little sympathy for men that are abused and they are labelled as weak. There is the perception in society that a man should be strong and cannot be a victim of abuse. Donne et al. (2018) mention that male victims of IPV help-seeking behaviour are heavily reliant on societal expectations and norms and men are afraid to be labelled as weak or not being taken seriously by law enforcement. It also shows that society offers little support to male victims by trivialising their abuse, not believing men’s encounters of abuse unless there is hard evidence like scars, bruises, as proof of abuse. This is unlike what is requested of women as proof, like scars and bruises, when they report that they have been abused. The majority of 90% said that male victims of IPV do not have scars because most of them do not suffer from physical violence, hence they have no scars to show but they are wounded inside because they suffered from verbal and financial abuse. Ademuson et al. (2023) highlight that emotional scars run deep and are real and physical violence is not the worst case scenario than emotional abuse because victims of physical violence can be hospitalised and physical scars can be seen. While most female IPV victims have scars to show as proof of abuse. The male victims are also blamed for being abused and seen as deserving of abuse as a

corrective measure. Men mentioned that society always blamed men for provoking women because men have done something wrong to upset their partners. One participant explained that society believed that women are not violent and assumed that they react to a situation to protect themselves. There is a feeling that men are to blame because they might have committed adultery or done something wrong to deserve abuse.

All men said that society does not want to see men as victims of IPV and the society has been judgemental to male victims of abuse in the areas they come from. One man said it was clear that society believed that men could not be abused by women in any situation. In support of this, O'Connor (2020) also found that most male victims of IPV feel that they are faced with negative perceptions by society. According to Nzima (2019) the global society only focuses on men as the perpetrators of GBV and many believe that it is doubtful that a woman can abuse a man in an intimate partner relationship. In the interviews all men noted that if society could change their attitudes towards male victims of IPV and create a friendly environment for abused men to report abuse, it would make it easy from them to come out and share their stories. Bates (2020) argues that male victims of IPV narratives have confirmed a relationship between male's sense of belonging and willingness to disclose their victimisation. In the interviews one of the men said that society thinks that women cannot be abusers which is stereotypical thinking that women are saints and men are only perpetrators Ademuson et al. (2023) highlight that society should also see men as those who can be victims of IPV and not perpetrators of IPV. This will encourage men to speak out when they are abused.

Most of the men (9) in the qualitative interviews mentioned that stereotypes and social beliefs that women could not abuse men were the reasons that women are perpetrating violence against men, since society believes that men are physically stronger, therefore they cannot be abused. Ademuson et al. (2023) mention that most men are victims of abuse from their female partners, nevertheless, due to societal constructs, men learn to hide their abuses since society views men as the stronger sex. In the interviews, one of the participants mentioned that when a woman verbally and physically abuses her partner in public, bystanders would not intervene, yet they laugh at the victim. This result supports the finding of Athuman and Mushin (2022) who found out that men were embarrassed in public, they received threats, were called bad names, treated badly because of things they could not change, such as their family background, sexuality and disability.

One man said:

"The bystander would ask what he has done to her that makes her so upset and angry, and they would be taking pictures and videos. However, when the roles are reversed, bystanders would interrupt and fight the man. Men do not report abuse to authorities or family and friends, due to shame, fear of not being believed, and fear of being seen as weak. Society always treats male victims of IPV with disrespect, saying that 'how come a muscular person being beaten by a woman?'" [Thabang # 2, Male victim].

All men mentioned that society does not talk about men abuse openly so that they would not understand their ordeal. Men are afraid to bring up this subject because they would be judged harshly by society. Only a few brave men talk about their ordeal as victims of IPV as society is more likely to re-victimise them and laugh at them. One of the men said that:

"When I started to talk about the ordeal to my friends, they just make jokes that I cannot fight a woman and I am not man enough" [Zakhele # 7, Male victim].

Another man said:

"I did not know how I will tell my colleagues and family that my wife was not treating me well at home. I was not respected even in front of the neighbours. My colleagues and my family thought I was making a joke and they laughed at me and told me to man up. Once they could see the sadness in my eyes, it is then that they started to listen to me, take me seriously" [Thabang # 2, Male victim].

He said that:

"It is very strange and disturbing because society believes in gender exclusive perspective that men are abusers and it is horrible wrong and outdated belief because they only accept IPV towards women only" [Khehla # 1, Male victim].

One of the men said that:

“It will take years for society to change their thinking and belief that men are abusers only and it will also take many years to accept and embrace male victims of abuse because we still live in a patriarchal society” [Thabani # 6, Male victim].

In general, society does not endorse the idea that men can be abused by female perpetrators (Morgan and Wells (2016). The authors further mentioned that men are socialised to not express their feelings or see themselves as victims, which is due to culture’s constricted roles and expectations of men in society. Men may feel discouraged to talk about their personal situations and think that others may not believe them or mock them.

Some men mentioned that IPV against men was not treated seriously. If a woman accuses her partner of IPV, this is taken seriously and there are far greater consequences. This attitude and treatment that men received from society is not fair to male victims of IPV because they need support and protection as well. Society has little sympathy for male victims of IPV thus labels them as soft men. Society’s continued perception is that men should be strong and not victims of abuse by women and this is shameful and belittling for men. One man said:

“Society is more concerned about insulting male victims of IPV, calling them with names like sissies and softies, and other men do not believe men can be victims of abuse at the hands of their female partners” [Sphiwe # 4, Male victim].

There is the belief that men are invincible and if men do not conform to this ideal then they are likely to face criticism. Due to this lack of understanding of IPV against men and gender stereotypes, one man said:

“Society believes that men are stronger and should be fighting for themselves and society does not believe that men can be abused by women because they are stronger and always lead” [Khumotso # 3, Male victims].

One man said that society perceives that men hold primary power at home and in society, Men are seen as stronger than women and they should be in control always since they are defenders and warriors of their families and society at large. However, when men are abused

by women, they feel a sense of shame and embarrassment and a fear of being laughed at especially by other men. They would say “*how can a strong man be beaten by a woman*” and the society would see that man as useless.) Literature has shown that men are victims of IPV and men are likely not to report incidents (Hines and Douglas, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Shuler, 2010). However, the focus has continued to be on women and society tends to ignore the fact that men can be victims of domestic violence inflicted by women.

One of the key informants also supported the accounts that men are abused by their female intimate partners, further mentioning that most people in society still believe that only women are victims of IPV and they do not care about men abuse. Consistent with the study findings Onyebuchi et al. (2023) argue that the abuse of men by their intimate women partners is a serious health and social problem and that society is ignoring the issue and does not believe that men can be the victims of spousal abuse. The key informants further mentioned that society perceives male victims of IPV as not men enough and they cannot fight for themselves. This makes it difficult for male victims of IPV to admit that they are experiencing abuse. The finding corroborates with some previous studies which indicate that male victims do not freely admit to being victims of IPV at the hands of female partners (Chime and Nduagubam, 2022).

The key informant also mentioned that society hears the word domestic violence, they assume that men are perpetrators and women are the victims. That narrative should change. One of the key informants also mentioned that society’s perception should change because violence against men is the same as violence against women and men experience the same forms of violence as women. Wallace (2015) mentioned that some agencies have different perceptions and attitudes towards male victims of IPV and that shelters and services would need to be divided if female victims who were present were not comfortable around men. Society also views men as the predominantly stronger partner in a relationship (Wallace, 2015).

One of the key informants explained that society has set standards and rules on how women and men should behave. Men are seen as powerful, brave, strong protectors and able to take tough decisions. Society has constructed dominant gender roles and used these to define how each gender should live accordingly. Consistent with these findings, Gumede et al. (2023) mention that intimate partner violence against men has been underestimated whilst it is influenced by social and gender stereotypes that define men as “alpha males” and “heads of households” and strong defenders of the families. The notion that men are strong and dominant

accidentally extends the irony of abuse that men can defend themselves against any form of abuse. One key informant mentioned that:

“Male victims are afraid to seek help and they believe that it is a private family matter or the incident is insignificant to report. However, they always encourage men to report physical abuse to the relevant authorities” [Key informant # 2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

One of the key informants mentioned that whenever a man is hit by a woman in public, society always assumes that the man was wrong, and she was reacting to what he said or did to her. Key informants mentioned that most people turn a blind eye or ignore IPV against men. However, the key informants also indicated that they did not think IPV against men was a private matter that had to be handled internally within families. The key informants believed that all necessary measures should be available to assist and protect male victims of IPV. Consistent with the findings Kigaya (2021) argues that in a society that continues to fight for gender equality and freedom from discrimination, laws and resources to support male victims must also be made available. Society’s attitudes and perceptions, GBV agencies, and the judiciary system are less tolerant of domestic abuse towards men which creates a difficult environment for male victims. Men who are victims of IPV feel isolated and they do not know where to seek information and access services for support. It is remarkable that society is still not yet ready to offer men the same services as offered to women victims of IPV (Drijber, Reijnders, and Ceelen, 2013).

4.10 Source of information about IPV

The participants were asked where they get their information about men abuse. They were also asked about sources of information regarding IPV services for men in the area. All the men in the in-depth interviews emphasised that one of the crucial challenges they faced was to find IPV/GBV information on men victims and where to seek help. All men complained that the only information available especially from the government departments excludes male victims of IPV, only catering for female victims. Abused men expressed feelings of anger and frustration about gender inequalities that they experience from institutions and societies including the legal system (Philpott and O’Connor, 2020). One of the participants said that he heard at the clinic about where to get assistance. He mentioned that when he went to the clinic

for treatment of his stab wounds which were inflicted on him by his girlfriend, it was only when he heard about men's abuse services available on the day. He then requested contact details of the organisation and afterward, he visited the organisation for counselling. He also mentioned that from that day, he told all his friends where information is available for men who are victims of IPV. The results support the findings of Medzani (2019) who found that abused men in Zimbabwe did not know about GBV institutions that assist men before their victimisation and they know about organisation through referrals by friends and relatives. Athuman and Mushin (2022) mention that men were unaware of GBV related services for men such as counselling services and gender desks. A study that was conducted in Zimbabwe by Medzani (2019) found that male victims of IPV were confused about where to find information regarding what to do when they are victimised by their partners. This confusion became a barrier to victim's ability to take any action or seek help. One of the participants said that he heard when he was at the clinic about where to get assistance. He mentioned that when he went to the clinic for treatment of his stab wounds which were inflicted on him by his girlfriend, it was only then that he heard about services for men that was available on that day. Woodyard (2019) mentions that most victims of IPC may not be aware that there is help and support available to them which makes it unlikely that they will report IPV related crimes. Consistent with the findings Medzani (2019) in his study reported that they did not know about the organisations that assist men before they become victims and they were referred to the organisation by friends. In Tanzania Athuman and Mushini (2022) mention that most stakeholders like Un-Women have empowered women and forgotten their male counterparts, which make these institutions not relevant to male victims of IPV.

Men receive information from range of resources. In the interviews some participants mentioned that they also received information about this organisation that assist male victims of IPV from friends at the bar while they were socialising and drinking. Other participants mentioned that they received information about the organisation that offer help to male victims of IPV when they were commuting in taxis or buses. One participant mentioned that he got the information about services for male victims, when the organisation was doing door to door campaigns to increase awareness about GBV in their area. They all agreed that the no information was available for male victims of IPV especially from the governments side while there was little information from NPOs that provide services to IPV victims. All the participants mentioned that in all radio stations, local and national newspapers, and even on television,

information about female victims' services is always available but there is nothing available for male victims. One of the men said that:

“All the corners in South Africa, there are institutions that cater for women victims only, private and public institutions. The services and information for women victims are in all radio stations, television channels, and newspapers but there is no information for men that is available where they seek for help or information when they are victims of abuse. Some men are suffering in silence at the hands of their wives, girlfriends and families but nowhere to go for services or help” [Nhlanhla # 5, Male victim].

Some men agreed that they were not aware of any government institution/s in Gauteng and in South Africa that caters for male victims of IPV. All the participants agreed that in Gauteng there were many institutions that are available for female victims and there was only one that they know available for males. They further mentioned that all the radio stations and newspapers advertised female institutions including the programmes that are offered to females. One man mentioned that men could not even report the incident to the police station because they would not believe them and they would be laughing at them. One participant mentioned that when calling GBV agencies for information regarding services offered, he was informed that these agencies only serve women and he was treated as a perpetrator. One of the men said that:

“When I had an issue with my wife and she was starting to treat me badly. I did not know where to go for help or who to talk to about the abuse. I got the number of a GBV agency that assist GBV victims from the newspapers and called because I wanted to talk to someone. I was shocked, before I could finish my story. I was told that they only assist women victims” [Lihle # 9, Male victims].

The men in the study believe that women are more protected by the government and NPOs than men. Consistent with the study findings, Ngomuo et al. (2023) mention that government institutions and non-government organisations in Tanzania were protecting women's rights as compared to men's rights and this gives more power and rights to women which leads to violence against men.

In the present study one of the participants indicated that:

“In South Africa, men have no rights, all rights are given to women only and the law also protects women only. Women do whatever they want and they know that men would not do anything to them or hurt them because men would be arrested and jailed. One could not even report the abuse to the police station, because they would side with your wife or girlfriend” [Zakhele # 7, Male victim].

All the participants complained that there was no help available for male victims of IPV. Consistent with the findings Medzani (2019) in his study men reported that they did not know about the organisations that assist men before they became victims and they were referred to the organisation by friends and other organisations. He said that

“All the Thuthuzela care centres in the country are strictly for females and nothing for male victims of GBV. It is a shame at this day in age that male victims are not treated as human beings” [Martin # 8, Male victim].

The interviews with the key informants confirmed that there was very little help available for male victims of IPV and nothing would change for male victims of IPV for the next couple of years to come unless the government changed their attitude towards male victims. Kalimaposo et al. (2022) highlight that government agencies, religious fraternities and civil rights groups should advocate to educate the public about the existence and reality of intimate partner violence against men. The key informants mentioned that they work with women victims of IPV. When they saw a gap in their community, they decided to include programmes and services for male victims of IPV. However, this was done on a very small scale due to financial constraints. The key informants mentioned that there was a need for programmes because they always have new male clients coming in to seek help. The key informants mentioned that the only programmes available for men in terms on GBV, is the programme when men and boys are engaged to fight abuse against women and girls. This also showed that stereotypes are still existing when it comes to male victims of IPV whereby men are seen as perpetrators and women are only victims. The key informant mentioned that whenever they meet with other NPOs in the field of GBV, they always raise the issues of IPV against men. Their colleagues from other NPOs always maintain that men are abusers not victims. They receive resistance and are attacked verbally by their colleagues when they suggest that women are equally capable

of abuse as men are. Woodyard (2019) highlights that the challenge was the fact that not all GBV agencies are prepared to work with male victims because they only serve female victims and regard men as perpetrators.

Their colleagues from other NPOs working with them would say:

“Why people care about abusers (referring to men) and why do we provide services and advice to the abusers forgetting that men are also victims of IPV. They only deal with the numbers of victims (referring to women) and they only provide services to women” [Key informant # 2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

One of the key informants mentioned that male victims of IPV continue to face barriers when they want to access help. One key informant mentioned that:

“Police would laugh at the victims when reporting the cases of abuse and in most instances, police would tell male victims to go home and sort this out with their partners. Society would also ridicule them, so it is difficult for male victims to report or to seek help” [Key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

The key informants mentioned that this demonstrated the lack of resources available for male victims in comparison to the resources available to female victims of domestic violence. The finding corroborates with some previous study which indicates GBV institutions were more skewed toward female victims, forgetting about male victims (Athuman and Mushin, 2022). One of the key informants mentioned that this was the reason they decided to have a men’s programme in their organisation. It was also mentioned that all GBV programmes offered by the government and NGOs target men as perpetrators of IPV to change their beliefs, attitudes and therefore their behaviour in relation to women. However, there are no government programmes available that are targeted at directly addressing abuse against men or directed to rehabilitate female perpetrators. The finding corroborates with some previous study which indicates that the lack of satisfactory responsiveness to male victims of IPV contributes to IPV amongst men. The government and NPOs have not paid much attention to the issues of male victims of IPV (Athuman and Mushin, 2022). Key informants mentioned that all the government programme or campaigns on GBV focus exclusively on violence against women and children and men are left behind, while we are not supposed to leave anyone behind.

Woodyard (2019) alludes that there should be an increase in public awareness campaigns to sensitise the public about IPV against men. One of the key informants mentioned that:

“NPOs should support male survivors of abuse who wish to build their capacity to speak publicly or tell their stories through various platforms. Speaking out and sharing one’s story can be a helpful part of the healing journey for the victims, offering personal empowerment and also give courage to other male victims who are afraid to come out”
[Key informant # 3, Trauma Counsellor].

One of the key informants mentioned that men victims need to be given a platform and not be scolded so that they would openly talk about their ordeals. The platform would also sensitise society about violence against men and make them understand that anyone can be a victim of IPV. Consistent with the findings, Bates (2020) and Brooks et al. (2020) mention that it is obvious that male victims of IPV have the desire to share their victimisation stories but it is critical for them to feel a sense of approval and acceptance amongst those whom they are disclosing their abuse stories to. All key informants mentioned that there is evidence that women are abusive to their partners and the government and NPOs should design programmes to rehabilitate women perpetrators. They also mentioned that programmes addressing family violence should not be directed to men and boys only, but women as well should be included in the programme. One of the key informants mentioned that most NPOs are dealing with financial challenges in providing programmes for women hence it is going to be the same situation for men. Such a finding is consistent with a study by Woodyard (2019) who also found that the lack of funding was the biggest challenge identified by service providers. Due to the lack of funds, it is difficult to provide services to victims, both male and female. It was reported that when funding is lacking, the ability to have specialised services, such as therapies, becomes a challenge to continue. Many are trying with the little that they have to offer some assistance and support to male victims of IPV. This is also supported by one key informant who said:

“It has always been our philosophy to help men victims of IPV because they are abused, neglected, and they definitely need help. All government departments do not provide funding for male victims, and they do not get any subsidy from the government” [Key informant #2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

One of the key informants mentioned that they need more services for men, also more awareness campaigns aimed at educating society and male victims to encourage them to get help while it is still early. Consistent with the finding, Ngomuo et al. (2023) mention that well-developed campaign can empower men to seek help and report the abuse, and also assist in understanding the violence against men. The key informants mentioned that door to door visits, awareness campaigns and capacity building networks of support within families and society were meant to address the prevalence of IPV in the area and also to raise alarm about the rising number of men abuse cases and to promote men's rights at the same time. The findings from this study are similar to those of Ngomuo et al. (2023) who mentions that lack of awareness about violence against men prolongs the cycle of abuse and hinders progress towards equality in the family and the violence against men remains hidden.

4.11 Support available for male victims of IPV

The majority of men (9) mentioned that help there is very little no help available for male victims of IPV as compared to what help is available for women victims of IPV. Obeji et al. (2017) mention that despite this effort to raise awareness and existing evidence of male discrimination regarding IPV, most resources are still dedicated to female victims of abuse primarily in urban settings. Men mentioned that there are no institutions that provide programmes and services to male victims. Consistent with the study findings, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2018) in Tanzania found that no GBV institutions are dealing with male victims. The participants who experienced abuse in their relationships indicated that they suffer in silence because there is no help available for them. Sometimes, their friends and family refuse to believe or even listen to them when they tell them about their ordeals or take them seriously when they report the incidents. One of the participants mentioned that when men asked for assistance from institutions that offers services to women victims of IPV, they received no help. According to Drijber et al. (2013), most men do not know or are aware that there is no help and support, available for them as victims of abuse, which makes it difficult for them to report IPV related crimes. There are also other barriers that prevent male victims of IPV from reporting because they are afraid that they would not be regarded as men in their community.

Men also mentioned that it was difficult to seek help, especially with the police services because they do not provide any assistance thus male victims are faced with difficulty finding

appropriate support. Male victims have to confront a number of negative stereotypes and perceptions before accessing assistance from relevant institutions. One man mentioned that there is only one NPO that provided information about male abuse but because of financial difficulties their services are limited. One of the participants mentioned that sometimes men become desperate to see a counsellor for consultation or they want to introduce a friend and they are told to return on the next day because there is a shortage of staff. These other NPOs only provide programmes to men on how they can fight GBV against women and children like how men and boys can work together to fight GBV against women.

One man mentioned that:

“There is no help available for men victims of IPV and. I know some males who are having tough times in their homes, but I cannot refer them anywhere because there is no help available for males in other townships and provinces “[Khehla # 1, Male victim].

Another said:

“The only help that is available is for women and males are not catered for. When you call some NGOs, they make it clear that they do not assist men because men are abusers and honestly not all men are abusers” [Nathi # 10, Male victim].

He said that:

“For some of us, there is no help available for abused men and nowhere to go for comfort and counselling. Some NPOs would tell you do not call us, will call you and you will never hear from them. It is not easy to be a man victim of abuse” [Sphiwe #4, Male victim].

One of the key informants mentioned that male victims of IPV need support despite their underreporting and under-utilisation of services. Men need specialised services designed exclusively for men. The key informants identified training and funding as the key challenges in addressing issues regarding male victims of IPV. Woodyard (2019) highlights that many practitioners working with IPV male victims are not trained to accept a referral with this gender of the victim/survivor due to a lack of skill sets or knowledge.

The key informants acknowledged that there were no services available for abused men. Meanwhile, NPOs and the government interventions on GBV target women victims only and men victims are left behind. Consistent with the findings, Denise and Lysova (2023); Bates and Douglas (2020) mention that despite the high rates of male victimisation, men are reluctant to seek help, because of the lack of services available for them. The key informants emphasise that training of issues on men abuse was important and that would help them to understand issues related to male victims of partner abuse. All the key informants encouraged more training for NPOs so that they would be equipped with skills to reach out to more male victims of IPV. Wallace (2014) mentions that staff training of those who are working on GBV issues should be a priority so they are adequately trained when they provide services. The key informants mentioned that they have been providing service to women victims of GBV only and they had several requests from men who needed advice and services for IPV. They mentioned that since no one was helping male victims, they had then decided to include programmes and services for male victims of IPV at a very small scale. Tekorang et al. (2023) mention that some organisations provide formal support and counselling services to male victims of IPV, including but not limited to hospitals, the police, and other non-state actors to deal with the survivors of IPV. One key informant complained that services and funding available for women are not enough to provide services to all victims and their concern is that the government is not providing enough resources to fight GBV. She further mentioned that this is a huge challenge in advocating for male victims of IPV without resources. One of the key informants said that:

“In the country, even services for women victims are not enough when compared to the rate of GBV against women in our country, can you then think about services for men and what men are going through. She also mentioned that the other main challenge is the office space, men counselling need privacy and there are not enough offices for counselling. There is a need for privacy because of the sensitivity of issue [Key informant # 2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

As far as barriers that prevent male victims from looking for assistance, one key informant mentioned that their main challenge was a lack of training regarding issues related to men victims of IPV. Other studies also mention that training of service providers was important with a focus on inclusive practices alongside training on recognising and challenging insensitivity, bias, and associated discrimination that may follow (Bjørnholt and Rosten, 2020).

They also mentioned that their services are not informed by training on men's issues because there is no training specifically for men in the same manner as training for women victims. In support of this, Bates (2019) posits that interventions for male victims of IPV are lacking and also there is a lack of training of frontline workers.

One of the key informants mentioned that there was a need for the creation of a specialised programme for men because they always had new male clients every week. This current study correlates to the study by Hester et al. (2012) which found that most domestic abuse victims would feel more at ease to approach services if they were gender specific. This also shows that there is still a stereotype when it comes to men victims of GBV that men are perpetrators and women are only victims of IPV. Key informants mentioned that many NPOs still exclude men as victims, from services they offer with the reason being that men are not seen as legitimate victims in need of support and help. Despite that, the key informant mentioned that when they have information sharing sessions with other NPOs dealing with GBV, they always raised the issue of men abuse. When they did so, they always received resistance and criticism from their colleagues from other NPOs representatives would because they always raise the issue about men victims of IPV and those NPOs always say: She said that:

“They talk about the numbers of abused cases of abuse and why they care about men because men are abusers” [key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

One of the key informants mentioned that men victims of IPV continue to face barriers when they want to access help or services, she said:

“Police would laugh at the victims when reporting the case and society would also ridicule them, so it is difficult for male victims” [Key informants #2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

Key informants mentioned that this demonstrated the lack of resources available to male victims in comparison to the resources available to female victims of domestic violence. Consistent with the findings, Carthy et al. (2019) mention that there is a lack of services in terms of age and gender. Due to limitations of policy and practices about gender and age, older male victims of IPV are overlooked (Carthy et al. 2023). One of the key informants mentioned that:

“Most GBV programmes targeted men as perpetrators to change their beliefs, attitudes and therefore their behaviour in relation to women. However, there are no programmes that directly addressed IPV against men or directed to female perpetrators” [Key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

Barkhuizen (2015) argued that in South Africa, the problem why men do not report victimisation that they suffered from their partners, was because many organisations provide services to female victims only and the reasons given for unavailability of male services included staff availability, competency and lack of space. She said that:

“NPOs should support male survivors who wish to build their capacity to speak publicly or tell their stories through various platforms. Speaking out and sharing one’s story can be a helpful part of the healing journey for the victims offering personal empowerment and also give courage to other male victims who are afraid to come out” [Key informant #3, Trauma Counsellor].

Another mentioned that:

“It has always been our philosophy to help men victims of IPV because they are abused, neglected, and they definitely need help. All government departments do not provide funding for male victims and they do not get any subsidy from the government. We pledge to do our best with the little we have” [Key informant #2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

The Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) in their 2012 study showed a willingness to expand their services to better meet the needs of male victims of domestic abuse. However, the challenge was the lack of funding. They further mentioned that the allocation of resources for all victims of domestic abuse was not sufficient and also while women’s services were also under-resourced.

All the key informants agreed that if GBV institutions and programmes were gender specific, male victims of IPV would definitely seek support, information and they would be able to report the incidents to the relevant authorities.

“Our main programmes are for abused women and now we have seen the demand of men’s programme, we want to provide the service to men as well because there is a demand from the community. We are sourcing funding for men’s programmes from different donors, local and international and private sector” [Key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

In a study that was conducted in Hawaii, the lack of emergency services for male victims of IPV was cited as a challenge including the long effects of psychological support to male victims. Not having enough services for male victims also meant that male victims were less likely to learn about coping skills to help them get through a traumatic experience such as IPV (Enyon, 2015).

4.12 Media reporting on IPV and Government initiatives on IPV

From the in-depth interviews with the participants, it could be seen that all sampled participants mentioned that media reporting on IPV against men abuse was biased while the government campaigns were not addressing the violence against men. All the participants indicated that men’s stories of abuse are not reported while women’s encounters are always on the news. The participants mentioned that men are also victims of IPV and are killed by their partners, but those stories are not making newspaper headlines or are on all television channels all the time. Mligo (2021) mentions that in Tanzania, the media instilled stereotypical views to people believing that women could not perpetrate violence as men are the dominant sex. They also confirmed that the media do not report men's abuse or follow stories on male victims of IPV as they do for women victims of abuse. Consistent with the findings of the study, Kalimaposos et al. (2022) mention that the media narrative on the issues of GBV portrays women as the only victims and men as abusers, which has influenced societal views on GBV. On the contrary, Muhundi (2019) argues that in Kenya even though IPV against men may not be a prominent issue, however, scarce reports by the media have drawn attention to men's abuse. All the participants indicated that men’s stories of abuse are not reported while women’s encounters are always on the news. The participants mentioned that men are also victims of IPV and are killed by their partners, but those stories do not make newspaper headlines or are on all television channels all the time. Kalimaposo et al. (2022) argue that the abuse of men by their

wives should not be seen as an unimportant domestic matter. The trials of women who kill their partners must be publicised to set an example to others who may have such tendencies.

In the interviews it was mentioned that when one woman is killed, it would be in all the newspapers but violence against men does not receive the same attention. One participant mentioned that television and newspapers could be used to promote men's rights against IPV. Some of the participants mentioned that they have never seen stories of abused men either in newspapers or on television. Kigaya (2021) highlights that media coverage of victims is scarce and media news portrays females as victims and men as perpetrators. Media is biased in the reporting of the occurrences of physical abuse of males and reasons for female abusers to abuse men (Carlyle et al. 2014). One of the male victims mention that:

“There are stories where women killed their husbands but those stories do not make headlines in newspapers and television channels. Men in South Africa are on their own” [Khehla #1, Male victim].

“If it happened there was a story on man abuse or a varsity boyfriend killed by his girlfriend, it will not be in the headlines but somewhere in a corner to show that the newspaper was not interested in the story because they protect the community narrative that men are abusers” [Martin # 8, Male victim].

Most of the participants in the study confirmed that the government focuses on violence against women and children only. However, there are also male victims of IPV who are suffering abuse and yet nothing has been done about it. . They further mentioned that the government rather wants to be politically correct with the international world therefore ignore the rights of male victims of IPV in the country. They explained that the government's policies and programmes are in line with the needs of the international organisations, and these policies only catered for women leaving men out in the cold. The participants agreed that throughout the year in South Africa, women's rights are protected even though men also have rights, they are encouraged to take care of their health only, there are no campaigns to address IPV suffered by men. Consistent with this finding, Mshweshwe (2020) alludes that most of the laws regarding GBV are inclined toward the protection of women rather than looking at GBV as an issue that can affect any gender, including males. Some researchers argue that women often enjoy special treatment when it comes to GBV issues (Gumede et al., 2023). . Durham (2020) mentions that

in South Africa currently, the legal framework focuses primarily on violence against women and girls and it considerably marginalises the reality and extent of IPV against men. This result supports the finding of Ngomuo et al. (2023) who reported that the government, non-government organisations and community-based organisations (CBO) were giving more rights to women than men, which led to violence against men.

Key informants mentioned that the government and NPOs are providing services and programmes to women victims only. In Zambia, Kalimaposo et al. 2022, mention that despite the government of the Republic of Zambia and its relevant stakeholders making a commitment to protect victims of GBV, all measures are focused only on women as victims and men as perpetrators. Therefore, the government must start to address the issue of men abuse and provide resources to address the issue. They also mentioned that the government is the only institution that could assist with resources to address this new pandemic of men abuse and include men issues in GBV programmes. Josolyne (2011) and Wright (2016) found that government responses to male victims was seriously lacking and those that exist have never actively acknowledged male victims through awareness campaigns. Most of their policies were still oriented towards female victims. All the key informants agreed that men need to become more involved and supportive just as women had been doing since no one would do it for men. Christensen (2019) argues that that some policies increased the risk of GBV amongst male victims, including limited access to health services, protection services, helplines, and shelters because these services solely target female victims. In the present study, the key informants also mentioned that men should organise and should be the ones leading GBV campaigns against them.

“One-sided governmental initiatives that provide funding for women only programmes are based on the assumption that women rarely or are never perpetrators of IPV and this is a problem that needs to be addressed” [Key informant # 2, HIV/AIDS Counsellor].

One of the key informants mentioned that:

“Government keeps on empowering women, but who comes to talk to men about regaining their dignity and listens to their problems and most men are so frustrated because no one wants to listen to them” [Key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

Key informants mentioned that raising public awareness and promoting public education about men as victims of IPV could break the abuse stigma about men abuse, bringing an understanding that male victims of IPV need assistance too. Awareness campaigns and education are important in addressing IPV against men (Mgomuo et al. 2023). This promotes awareness about GBV and challenges stereotypes and social norms about IPV against men. Awareness can help to make men feel comfortable to report the abuse and seek help. The key informants also mentioned that while the 16 days of activism is dedicated to violence against women and children only as victims, it is also important that men should also be included because they are also the victims of IPV. Currently, the current efforts of the South African government indicate their commitments to eradicate GBV but focuses completely on the needs of women and children (Thusi and Mlambo, 2023). They mentioned that these platforms would also assist male victims of to share their stories so that society would understand and know what they are going through. The lack of awareness campaigns for abused men leaves male victims of IPV without the help that they need and it leads to low reporting of abuse perpetrated against men (Ngomuo et al. (2023). The key informants also shared the same sentiments as the participants that the media has a vital role to address the issue of GBV against men in South Africa and the media has not addressed such issues for some time. Van der Watt (2016) argues that the limited publicity for male IPV victims is deeply based on how the media maintains the binary gender distinctions on gender ideals. The media need to be responsible for delivering the needed views to make sure that the lives and health of males and females in relationships are set free from domestic violence of any kind (Iheanacho et al. 2021). The media can be a very good platform to address the issue and also change people's perceptions about male victims of IPV. This finding is consistent with the argument by Oyediran et al. (2023), that the public media has an important role to play in educating citizens about gender-based violence against men and women and, the health and social consequences of abuse for individuals and their families. Dutton and White and Dutton (2013) and Josolyne (2011) mentioned that gender construction of gender under which services were aimed at meeting the needs of female victims only, excluded heterosexual male victims who have challenges and obstacles in accessing services.

One of the key informants mentioned that there is a great need to raise public awareness to promote and support public education on male victims of IPV through the print media and television. To make sure that men are responding to their abuse appropriately, services with

such an inclusive approach should be provided (Lysota et al. 2020). Public education is important and could also be extended to the service provider. One of the men said that:

“Media can play a role to expose that women could be abusers as well and people would know that men are suffering in silence with no help and services from government and other NPOs. Then society would know and talk about it openly which would make it easier for male victims of IPV to come out and report and discuss abuse openly” [Key informant # 3, Trauma Counsellor].

Another said:

“The media is ignoring that men are also victims of abuse as if it does not exist in the public eyes, the media also has the power to create the perception of a problem in the public’s mind” [Key informant # 1, Trauma Counsellor].

According to Quintero, Johnson and Miller (2016) there is evidence that even the media provides more sympathetic accounts of female perpetrators of IPV against male partners.

4.13 Summary

This chapter has highlighted the awareness of IPV against men revealing that violence against men is something that exists. Moreover, the findings of this study show that men’s understanding of the IPV was poor as they could not differentiate between intimate partner violence and gender-based violence before the in-depth interviews. It was also seen that men associated these concepts with women only, with the same men mentioning that men were not included in these concepts. On the other hand, when the researcher probed further, most men were able to make examples of violence they have experienced in their relationships or families when their parents or siblings fought or witnessed violence in their neighbours’ homes. It was noted that after the in-depth interviews men could tell the difference between these concepts and could make examples to show the difference. The findings of the study suggest that men do not understand the concepts of abuse and do not associate themselves with these concepts, which concurs with the feminist theory whose findings led to the conclusion that domestic violence was a problem caused by sexism and female inequality within patriarchal societies as the main causes of IPV and men could be the victims. The feminist perspective fails to

recognise that gender-neutral concepts shield the abused male partner from public scrutiny (Mphatheni and Mlamla, 2022). Social learning theory by Bandura (1973) concurs with the findings citing that perpetrators and victims of abuse learn their behaviour directly or indirectly from experiencing abuse as children, observing it at home or around their homes. The theory of planned behaviour concurs with the findings that men experience abuse at the hands of their female partners; it suggests that the intention of an intimate partner to perpetrate violence is influenced by behavioural beliefs. Social construction theory emphasises how power is historically shaped, contextually regulated, and linked to the benefits and costs of “emphasised femininity and masculinity”.

This study revealed that men experienced various forms of IPV from their previous and current partners, ranging from physical, emotional, verbal as well sexual abuse at the hands of their abusive partners. The study revealed that some men were stabbed with sharp objects while others had hot water or oil poured on them by their partners ending up in hospital. Thusi and Mlambo (2023) mention that men are assaulted, suffocated, and threatened with weapons, such as a gun, and occasionally a knife is used against them. The key informants also confirmed that men were stabbed leaving them with wounds and some also suffered from broken ribs and arms. Consistent with the findings Enakele (2019) mentions that in Nigeria men experience slapping, kicking, destruction of properties, hitting with dangerous objects, pouring hot water on their husband’s private part and setting them ablaze with petrol while asleep. Based on the study findings, most men experienced verbal abuse and this was the most common type of abuse most men went through especially when their partners were under the influence of alcohol. Men reported their abusive partners would insult them and call them derogatory names in front of their children, neighbours and even in front of their family members. Adeleke (2020) mentions that Muslim men in Nigeria suffer from rejection when they are separated from their children and left alone; attacked with serial insults, ridicule, mockery and threats of divorce or divorce without a fair hearing. The findings of the study do not concur with feminist theory and social construction theory which suggest that women can be understood as powerless, and men can be described as having all the power in intimate relationships. Social construction theory shows that masculinity, culture, and gender roles are assigned by society and can lead to violence in an intimate relationship. While social learning theory suggests that learning is a dynamic and mutual interaction of personal factors, environmental influence, and behaviours of others and the theory of planned behaviour concurs with the findings that social

behaviour is a result of intention and performed with conscious awareness then it becomes a routine because it is repeatedly performed and remains implicit, unless effortfully retrieved. The findings revealed that men also experienced sexual abuse from their partners to prove that they were not sleeping with other people. According to Medzani (2019) in Zimbabwe research on men's sexual abuse is insufficient hence this gives the impression that this kind of abuse is non-existent. However, a study that was done by Kembo and Madzingaidzo (2017) in Zimbabwe, reported that there were cases of sexual abuse against men in each of Zimbabwe's 10 provinces. When they were not in the mood for sex, they were forced to perform sexual activities. On the other hand, the men who reported were blamed by their friends for complaining and refusing to sleep with their partners since most men believed that no men should deny women sex. The male victims in the study reported that their partners abused them financially and their partners were the only party in the house who took decision on how much money would be spent in the house, even though these females were not working. The study findings revealed that abusive women denied their partners money to spend on liquor and cigarettes. If men complained that their partners were wasting money by buying unnecessary items not needed in the house, their partners would isolate and ignore them for days because they did not want their partners to question them. Yet, the study findings showed that these women spend money on gambling and supporting their own extended families financially without discussing it with their partners. The findings of the study that men were the victims of abuse, especially sexual abuse do not concur with feminist theory whose findings led to the conclusion that women physically are weak as compared to men and men fulfil their need to control and affirm their power over female partners. Social learning theory concurs with the findings that individuals can develop new behavioural patterns either through personal experiences or by observing the actions of others. The most basic form of learning is based on direct experience and is primarily influenced by the rewards and punishments that result from specific actions. The findings of this study concur with the theory of planned behaviour, social construction theory which states behavioural intentions are determined by individual's attitudes, behaviours and the past behaviour of individuals have an impact on their later behaviour.

The findings revealed that men were not aware or did not know where to seek help or get information on men abuse because there were no institutions available for men in the province as well in other provinces. The key informants in the study also shared the same sentiment with men that there were no institutions or NPOs that were provided support and services to male

victims of IPV, except their NPO that provide support and services to male victims of IPV at a small scale because of financial constraints. On the other hand, the study findings revealed that all men knew a numbers of government institutions that cater for women victims of IPV only. These government institutions are well advertised and are easily accessible. Men mentioned that the unavailability of institutions and information for male victims of abuse make it difficult for them. The findings also revealed that men only rely on word of mouth for any information about men abuse that might be helpful to them. The study findings revealed that the prevalence of men's abuse in the area was increasing at a high rate and all men confirmed that they know someone who was also a victim of abuse in the area. Some of those were prominent and respected members in the areas while some of the other victims were their relatives, friends, and colleagues. Men in the study reported that most men are victims of abuse in the area, however they are in denial. The findings of the study concur with the social construction theory and feminist theory, theory of planned whose findings lead to the conclusion that violence against women is used for social construction and all policies and services are designed to serve the purpose therefore, men are not regarded as victims of abuse. The findings of the study show that that male victims of IPV were not aware of any institutions where they could go and seek for help or support because society often does not believe that men are also the victims of IPV.

The study revealed that men do everything in their power to avoid or stop the abuse and if all failed, they would stay silent about the abuse. The coping mechanisms that the men used were avoidance behaviour like leaving the room where the partner was in to avoid more tension, going to a bar to drink with friends to cool off to avoid their abusive partners. The findings also revealed that some men would go to visit their families or friends or take a drive until they felt better to go back to their homes. Those who did not have a place to go, would lock themselves in another room or stay in the same room until their abusers were done. The key informants also revealed that men are brought up and socialised to always act strong and to handle any abuse against them because no one would fight for them, hence most men would rather stay in the house when an abuser is insulting them because they have no place to go or anyone to share their story with. The findings of the study concur with social construction theory and feminist theory, which found that men are socialised to be strong and breadwinners. Traditional norms and power dynamics between men and women are a contributing factor for men to not report the abuse or retaliate to the violence against them. Social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour concur with the findings of the study which found that men could not retaliate to

their abusive partners or report the abuse for the fear of being not believed. Through social learning theory, society can learn that anyone can be an abuser.

It was revealed that most men stay in the abusive relationships for several reasons while those who are brave enough leave their abusive partners. Men reported that women use various methods of manipulation for them to stay, like promising to change after the incidences, also by threatening to kill themselves and the children if their partners leave or always reminding them that they supported them when they were unemployed. Some men reported that because of their wedding vows, it was not easy for them to leave their partners and they were also afraid that if they left their families and friends will find out about the abuse. It was also revealed that most men stay in abusive relationships to protect their children from the abuser. Men revealed that society's beliefs and attitudes about male victims of IPV have kept this kind of abuse as a secret because society still believes that women are the only victims of abuse. Huntley et al. (2019) mention that society expects men to be strong, more independent, leaders, and more assertive than women. Thus, men hide their abuse and avoid seeking help and reporting their abuse, viewing help from formal institutions to be both inaccessible and unhelpful. The findings of the study concur with social construction theory, social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour whose findings lead to the conclusion that women use various approaches to manipulate men to stay in abusive relationships and as a result men stay in these abusive relationships. Feminist theory does not concur with the findings because the theory mainly focuses on women's victimisation and reduces the unique aspects of male experiences. Men are regarded as family protectors by the theory which puts more pressure on men to conform to ideals of strength and dominance and may contribute to their victimisation in intimate relationships. In addition, it might fail to address the specific dynamics of IPV against men fully.

It was observed from the findings that due to social stigmas about male victimisation, male victims of IPV face an increased likelihood of being overlooked by society. They believe that society has no sympathy for male victims of IPV as compared to women victims of IPV. The key informants also mentioned that society should change their beliefs and attitudes against male victims because anyone could be a victim of IPV. The Key informants also observed that when it comes to IPV society's beliefs are still driven by the gender-exclusive perspective that only women can be victims of domestic abuse, which is horribly outdated. According to feminist theory, intimate partner violence was committed by men to fulfil their need to affirm

their power and control over women and this stems from a largely patriarchal society that endures and celebrates male dominance over women. According to the other theories, social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour, anyone can be the victim of IPV, since behaviour is learned through observation of other people's behaviours, including parents. The theory also motivates people to listen carefully and pay attention in order to understand and it would make it easy for male victims of IPV to be open about their abuse and for society to understand.

It was observed from the interviews that it was difficult for men to report the abuse because of various societal obstacles like the belief that men do not have to show emotions. Men felt that they would be judged as weak and soft, if they reported the abuse. Men were also afraid that no one would believe them. It was revealed that those who decided to report the abuse preferred to report the abuse to informal sources since reporting to family members, colleagues or friends got them mocked by those they reported the abuse to. Consistent with the findings, Huntley et al. (2019) mention that male survivors of IPV preferred to seek help from friends, family, and colleagues. On men's feelings about the print media and broadcast media reporting on IPV and government initiatives to fight IPV, they thought these mediums were biased against male victims of IPV. Carlyle et al. (2014) highlight that the media play a foremost role in depicting the nature of IPV in the public and in shaping the public's opinion on the characteristics of a victim or a perpetrator. According to feminist theory, men are not supposed to show their emotions and share their challenges openly, and also suggest that men are not at risk of being subjected as victims of violence and abuse. From the perspective of the social learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour it is possible to eliminate bad behaviours in people and train them to grow the right way. Furthermore, the social learning model is a tool that can be used as a platform that stimulates an atmosphere of confidence, hope and love.

Men believe that the media reports were more lenient to women victims of IPV than to male victims of IPV. The men reported that media coverage on men abuse was not well portrayed, further mentioning that men are also killed by their partners but those stories do not make headlines on print media and broadcast media. Such findings are consistent with Kalimaposo et al. (2022) mentioning that media coverage reinforces societal views on GBV because the media portrays men as abusers and women as the only victims of GBV. In contrast to this, Muhindi, (2018) mentions that in Kenya, even though abuse against men may not be an emerging issue media reports on abuse of men have drawn attention to this problem and most

extreme cases of male abuse are reported in mass media (e.g. cases involving bodily harm and death). Men suggested that the print and other media sources should portray IPV against men more often, so that the society would know and understand that men are also victims of IPV and be sympathetic. Consistent with the finding, Oyediran et al. (2023) allude that public media has a vital role to play in educating society about gender base violence against both men and women, criticizing such abuses and exposing their important public health and social consequences for individuals and the family. The findings showed that all government initiatives in IPV are tailor made for women. The findings of the study concur with the social construction theory and feminist theory whose findings led to the conclusion that media and schools are not shaped by societal factors and are actively selecting and rejecting the dimensions they choose to incorporate, or not incorporate into their version of gender. From the perspective of the social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour, concur with the study findings and acknowledge that media and cultural factors are instrumental influences on one's understanding of interpersonal violence and that media has a huge role to play in addressing the issue of intimate partner violence.

The findings of this study are consistent with other studies which found that men and women are likely to be violent in the context of intimate relationships (Bates and Graham-Kevan, 2016); Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. 2012). This finding is consistent with a previous study conducted by Lockwood Harris, and Savage (2017) that IPV traditionally has been considered a gendered phenomenon with the perceptions that most victims are women. In support of this, Machado, Hines, and Matos (2017) mention that men do not identify themselves as victims of IPV because of the societal discourse around IPV. Instead, men are seen as perpetrators and women are victims. The findings of the study also suggested that some men did not believe that sexual abuse applied to men as well and could not believe that men are sexually abused by their partners. Cook et al. (2016) mention that men above the age of 18 years old reported being forced into sexual acts by women. The findings highlighted the assumption that men are not exclusively the perpetrators of sexual. They further believed that men are not supposed to turn down women when it comes to sex and could never turn down sexual requests from their partners. In support of this finding, studies conducted by Artime, McCallum, and Peterson (2014) confirmed that males do not identify sexual abuse as a form of abuse and there are assumptions that men were not being forced to have sex with women through inaccurate beliefs about the nature of men's arousal. From the perspective of the social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour anyone can be the victim of IPV

irrespective of gender and men should conform to the traditional norms, the findings led to the conclusion that behaviours are learned through observation and they may learn from other people's behaviours and imitate them in their current or future relationships. Feminist theory argues that women who engage in IPV are reacting to violence from their male partners, however, women still assume the passive roles, and they are unlikely to control their partners in any way.

CHAPTER FIVE

EXTENT AND TYPE OF IPV AGAINST MEN

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data collected from the survey of men in Pretoria CBD. In total, the survey was conducted with 350 men. The chapter is organised as follows, the demographic characteristics of the participants, the reasons why women are abusive and how society perceives abuse against men. This chapter also presents bivariate, multivariate and logistics regression for the men who experienced intimate partner violence. The prevalence of men abuse in the area is also highlighted including types of violence inflicted on men and the injuries men sustained. While the reporting of IPV is vital, this chapter also highlights the reasons why men did not report the abuse. There is a discussion of how men view the reporting of IPV incidents by the media including the government initiatives to address intimate partner violence in the country. This chapter also highlights the coping mechanisms men use to avoid their abusive partners.

5.2 Sample characteristics of the participants

Table 5.1 below presents the sample characteristics of the men in the study. Table 5.1 below presents the 350 men who were selected for the survey and the participants were between the ages of 18 to 60 years. The bulk of the sample was over than 30 years of age and only 42% said that they were less than 30 years of age. In terms of the marital status, 39% were never married, 23% said that they were married or engaged, and few (16%) were divorced or separated. The majority (67%) of the men in the study identified as heterosexual, followed by 24% who were bisexual men and only (9%) as homosexual. More than half of men (63%) had at least one living child. Those men who have children were not staying with their children in the same households. The level of education was relatively high with more than half, 55% of men having post-high school qualifications. Employment levels were high in the sample with 76% of men mentioning that they were in full-time employment and some in part-time employment. Only 24% mentioned that they were unemployed and some men mentioned that they were studying. Of the 350 men, only 89 (25%) mentioned that they were single during the

survey and 271 (75%) men reported that they were in a relationship during the survey. Some of the reasons advanced for being single were that they felt like being single after toxic relationships, some men decided to separate from their partners because they were fighting a lot with their partners and decided to end the relationships. Amongst the men who were not in a relationship during the survey, 37% of men reported that they were not in any relationship for a period of more than twenty-four months while few (15%) reported that they were not in any relationship for a period of fewer than six months. According to Lien and Lorenzen (2019) and Brooks et al. (2020), men who suffered violence from their partners may fear developing new relationships and may have greater chances of developing feelings of fear towards their partners within a new relationship.

Table 5.1 Sample characteristics of men

Background	N	%
Age		
< 30	125	42
30+	225	58
Marital status		
Married or engaged	129	23
Living together	88	22
Never married	90	39
Divorced and separated	43	16
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	238	67
Bisexual	83	24
Homosexual	33	9
Living children		
Yes	217	62
No	133	38
Staying with children		
Yes	78	36
No	139	64
Not applicable	00	00
Currently in a relationship		
Yes	261	75
No	89	25
Reasons for not being in any relationship		
Feel like being single after toxic relationship	18	20
Just decided to separate with my partner	27	30
My partner does not respect me	21	24
We did not agree on anything with her	13	15
We were fighting a lot	10	11
Duration of the respondents not in a relationship		
<6 months	13	15
6-12 months	20	22
1-2 years	23	26
2+ years	33	37
Education levels		
High school and less	206	59
Post high school and more	144	41
Employment status		
Employed (full time and part time)	366	76
Unemployed (studying inclusive)	84	24
Total	350	100

5.3 Awareness of IPV in the community

Table 5.2 below presents men's awareness of IPV in the community. In this study, men were asked, "*If they knew other male victims of IPV in the community that were the victims of abuse? If they knew someone who was that person? If yes, how were they related to them?*". These questions were asked to ascertain the prevalence of IPV amongst men in the community. Interestingly, IPV against men is not uncommon in the community and most men, 68% mentioned that they knew other men who were victims of IPV in their community. Only 32% mentioned that they were not aware of any man who was a victim of IPV. Of those men who were aware of other males who were victims of IPV, 39% of men mentioned that they were their colleagues. Almost 43% knew family members or friends who were male victims of IPV. In addition, 18% of men knew of their neighbours who were also male victims of IPV.

Men were also asked, "*whether they reported the incidents of their colleagues, friends, neighbours or family members to anyone and the reasons for them not to report their abuse*". Almost 73% of men said that they did not report the incident to their friends, relatives, colleagues, or neighbours while only 27% mentioned that they reported the incidents to someone. Those men who did not report the incident cited the following reasons: they were asked by the victim not to tell anyone, and other men were ashamed for other people to find out about their abuse. In addition, men 11% of the men felt that their families would be embarrassed if they found out about their abuse they endured. Some men 27% mentioned that they did not report the abuse because they still love their wives. The findings resonate with previous literature indicating that (Graham and Bates, 2020; Machado et al. 2017; Barrett et al. 2020).

Table 5.2 Awareness of IPV in the community

Do you know other men victims of IPV	N	%
Yes	239	68
No	111	32
Total	350	100
Who was the other victims?	N	%
A colleague	94	39
A friend	47	20
A neighbour	44	18
A family member	54	23
Total	239	100
Did you tell anyone about the incident?	N	%
Yes	64	27
No	175	73
Total	239	100
Reasons for non-reporting		
He asked me not to tell anyone	56	32
Because he was ashamed that no one will believe him	52	30
He still loves his wife	48	27
His family was going to be embarrassed	19	11
Total	175	100

5.4 Source of information on IPV

Knowledge of IPV institutions

The knowledge of IPV institutions and services offered is significant especially to assess the level of services, knowledge and help available to male victims of IPV. Men were asked if they knew any institutions in Gauteng or in other provinces that offer services and help to male victims of IPV. They were also asked if they knew IPV institutions that cater for women victims of IPV and the services offered in those institutions. Table 5.3 below provides information on the general level of knowledge regarding IPV institutions. Men were more likely to have heard about IPV services for women than men.

All the men agreed that they were not aware of any institution that provides services and helps male victims of IPV. All men were aware of IPV institutions that cater to female victims with 80% of men agreeing that female institutions were well advertised. In addition, 20% disagree that women institutions were well advertised. Consistent with the findings of the

study, Athuman and Munish (2022) indicate in Tanzania most men were not aware of any existing institutions where they could report the abuse or where they could get gender related services. In their study, Athuman and Mushin (2022) found that men reported that they heard about gender support desks, however, it was for women only and men were not allowed. Hester (2013) states that services that are available are only for female victims of IPV and are not widely available for male victims of the same crime. Dutton (2012) reported that most services for IPV are provided to women and there is limited capacity to respond to the needs of male survivors. The stereotype that men are the only perpetrators of IPV perpetuates the lack of available resources and help seeking help for the male victims (Dutton, 2012).

Men were also asked if these institutions are easily accessible, most of the men 74% agreed that these institutions are easily accessible while only 26% disagreed that these institutions are easily accessible to women victims. A majority of the men 71% mentioned that they were not aware of services offered and only 29% were aware of services offered in female IPV institutions. Most of the men, 90% said that they did not know anyone who had used these institutions and only 10% of men confirmed that they knew someone who had used these institutions. The results of this study are consistent with previous studies on male victims' knowledge of IPV institutions. This current study correlates to the study by Cheung et al. (2009) in the Asian region which found that there were no services for IPV male victims, and the service that existed excluded male victims of IPV as their target service users. Messing et al. (2015) point out that the challenge with the service specifically, is that they are commonly dedicated to female victims. Donne et al. (2018) argue that there are many intervention options available for female victims of violence, but the same options are not accessible for male victims. According to Roebuck et al. (2020) most services for victims of IPV are accessed by women, and that there are not enough resources that are available to respond to the needs of male victims.

Table 5.3 Men’s knowledge about IPV institutions

	N	%
Are you aware of any institution that cater for male victims.		
Yes	0	00
No	350	100
Total	350	100
Are you aware of institutions that cater for female victims?		
Yes	350	100
No	0	00
Total	350	100
Are female’s institutions well-advertised?		
Yes	281	80
No	69	20
Total	350	100
Are the female institutions easily accessible?		
Yes	259	74
No	91	26
Total	350	100
Are you aware of services offered in these institutions?		
Yes	101	29
No	249	71
Total	350	100
Do you know anyone who has used these institutions?		
Yes	36	10
No	314	90
Total	350	100

5.5 Attitudes towards IPV

Attitudes to violence perpetrated by women against men were explored in a variety of ways. First, respondents were asked questions aimed at provoking their own personal attitudes towards male victims of IPV. Respondents were then asked what their views were about abusive women perpetrators of violence and what they thought were the reasons for women to be abusive in their relationships.

When men were asked about reasons for women to use violence against their partners various reasons were cited .by men (Table 5.4 below). There were 31% of men in the study who indicated that women used violence because of jealousy. This was followed by 29% who indicated that women were just women nagging and seeking attention from their partners while

25% of the men indicated that women used violence in self-defence and only 7% of the men indicated that women used violence to their partners because men might have done something wrong to upset their partners. This current study correlates to the studies by Brown (2009) who found that women abusers were charming, controlling, emotionally and physically abusive, and jealous. Brown (2009) further mentioned that men victims of IPV often assumed blame for the acts of violence because they felt as though they had done something wrong to cause their batterers to abuse them. Bair-Merritt et al. (2010) mentioned that motives for women perpetrators were anger, the need for attention or self-defence. According to Sethuraman (2008), women become violent to their intimate partners as a tactic to get what they want, and they did not know any other way of resolving their conflicts than to fight their intimate partners.

Table 5.4 Reasons women used violence on men.

Reason	N	%
Partner is jealous	109	31
Partner wants to control in the relationship	88	25
Women are just women nagging and seeking attention	101	29
Maybe the partner has done something wrong	26	7
Self-defence	26	7
Total	350	100

*Some respondents chose more than one option

The survey asked respondents if they had been in an abusive relationship during their previous or current relationships. Several studies have shown that male victims of IPV stayed in abusive relationships for various reasons. Men in the study were asked if they believe that men stay in abusive relationships and reasons for them to stay in abusive relationships. Of the 350 men in the study, the majority of men 200 (57%) believe that men stay in abusive relationships for various reasons and only 43% of the men believe that men do not stay in abusive relationships.

Table 5.5 below shows that men stay in abusive relationships and the reasons why men stay. The majority of the men 57% disagree that men stay in abusive relationship and only 43% of men agreed that men stay in abusive relationships. Nearly, 35% of men indicated that they stayed in abusive relationships because they still loved their partners and 23% of men stayed in abusive relationships because they depended on their partners for financial survival. Meanwhile, 17% highlighted that they were afraid that the perpetrators will abuse the children

if they leave. In addition, 15% of men mentioned that they stayed in their relationships because they were afraid that the community will find out about the abuse if they leave. This current study correlates with previous studies, Mqakelana (2015) mentioned that men do not leave abusive relationships in fear that their perpetrators would abuse the children. They also worry about who will protect their children if they separate from their partners. Furthermore, other studies by Brown (2009) and Gleason (2008) found that males stay in abusive relationships because they felt that if they leave their children would suffer the same consequences so they stay to protect the children. Cook (2009); Eckstein (2011); and Hines and Douglas (2010) argued that male victims stayed in abusive relationships because of commitment to the marriage, love, societal embarrassment for revealing victimisation, not having enough money to leave, and negative responses or lack of responsiveness from officials regarding filing complaints.

Table 5.5 why men stay in abusive relationships

Do men stay in abusive relationship?	N	%
Yes	200	57
No	150	43
Total	350	100
Reasons men stay	N	%
They still love their partners	70	35
Afraid that the perpetrators will abuse the children	34	17
Afraid that the community will find out if they leave	29	15
Want to keep it a secret (abuse) that's why they stay	21	11
Depended on their partners for financial survival	46	23
Total	200	100

* Some respondents chose more than one option

5.6 Ever experience IPV

This part refers to the person who has been a victim of any kind of IPV at the hands of intimate partners before the interview without any distinction between previous experience and current experience. Nearly all the men in the study have experienced some type of IPV at the hands of their previous or current partners. Men were asked if they have experienced physical, emotional, sexual, or financial abuse from their previous or current partners and the frequency of the abuse. Those who experienced any type of abuse were asked what type of abuse they had experienced in their intimate relationships.

Table 5.6 below shows that most of the men, 51% mentioned that they have experienced physical abuse in their previous or current relationships while 49% of the men mentioned that they have never experienced physical abuse from their previous or current partners. Of those men who experienced emotional abuse, the majority of men 79% mentioned that they have experienced emotional abuse from their previous or current partners while only 21% of men mentioned that they have never experienced emotional abuse from their partners. Next, men were asked if they had ever experienced sexual abuse by their partners in their lives. About half of men 50.1% have experienced sexual abuse and 49.7% of the men had never experienced sexual abuse. Another finding of the study also shows that men are also the victims of financial abuse, with 78% in the study mentioning that they had experienced financial abuse from their previous or current partner while only 22% mentioned that they have never experienced financial abuse. Ademuson et al. (2022) mention that men can experience sexual violence and it manifests through rape and sexual deprivation, which suggests that sexual violence experienced by men is a social reality in society.

Table 5.6 Ever experienced IPV

Have you ever experienced these types of IPV?		
	N	%
Physical abuse		
Yes	180	51
No	170	49
Total	350	100
Emotional abuse		
Yes	276	79
No	74	21
Total	350	100
Sexual abuse		
Yes	176	50.1
No	174	49.7
Total	350	100
Financial abuse		
Yes	273	78
No	77	22
Total	350	100

Of the 180 men, 94 men (52%) who experienced physical abuse mentioned that they sometimes experienced physical abuse, and 86 men, 48% mentioned that they frequently experienced physical abuse as shown in Table 5.7 below. Frequent abuse is not uncommon and Melinda and Jeanne (2021) mention that if abusive partners have inflicted injuries once on their partners,

there is a high chance that the abusers will abuse the victims physically repeatedly. When it comes to emotional abuse and the frequency, most of the men 52% mentioned they sometimes experienced emotional abuse while 48% of men mentioned they were frequently emotionally abused by their partners. Of those men who experienced sexual abuse, the majority of men, 62% mentioned that they were sometimes sexually abused by their partners and 38% mentioned that they were frequently sexually abused by their previous or current partners. Of those men who experienced financial abuse, 53% mentioned that they were frequently financially abused by their partners and only 47% mentioned that they sometimes experienced financial abuse.

Table 5.7 Frequency of violence inflicted on men

How often was the violence inflicted to men?		
Physical abuse	N	%
Sometimes	94	52
Frequently	86	48
Total	180	100
Emotional abuse		
Sometimes	144	52
Frequently	132	48
Total	276	100
Sexual abuse		
Sometimes	109	62
Frequently	67	38
Total	176	100
Financial abuse		
Sometimes	128	47
Frequently	145	53
Total	273	100

5.7 Forms of abuse men experienced

Men were also asked what type of abuse they have experienced in their relationships. Of those men who experienced physical abuse, the majority 26% mentioned that their partners would punch, beat, and slap them whenever they fought. Although 24% of men mentioned that their partners would throw anything in the room when they were angry followed by 19% who of men mentioned that their partners broke things in the house when they were angry or outraged. Some men mentioned that their partners would bite them when they were fighting. Almost 12% of men mentioned that their partners would use weapons when they were fighting. Of those who experienced emotional abuse, 24% mentioned that their partner's nagged or belittled them and always trashed their ideas as stupid.

Other studies also found that men experience beating and slapping from their female partners, even to the point that they inflict injury on their husbands (Ademuson, 2022). Ishengoma (2023) highlights that abusive women may destroy their partner's possessions, throw things light or heavy, spit, kick and punch them. Physical violence against men by their female partners includes hitting, burning, slapping, biting and assault with a weapon or an object (Kalimapos, 2022). Ademuson et al. (2022) mention that women insult, belittle and humiliate their husbands if they are angry, followed by 18% of men who mentioned that they were threatened by their partners to hurt themselves or hurt the children if they did not comply.

The least number of men, 8% of men mentioned that their partners would embarrass them in front of friends or family. As far as the sexual abuse forms are concerned, 43% of men mentioned that their partners would force them to have sex with them to prove that they did not sleep with other people. This was followed by 24% who mentioned that they were denied sex by their partners for no reason while 22% who mentioned that their partners would play with their manhood even if they did not want to and the least number, 11% mentioned that their partners wanted to have a threesome with their friends. Smith et al. (2017) mention that sexual violence or abuse is an attempted unwanted sexual advance, which includes rape or sexual coercion or unwanted social contact by female or male partners.

Those men who experienced financial abuse also mentioned the type of abuse they experienced. Nearly half of the men 49% mentioned that their partners send money to their families (meaning the female partner's family) without their consent and 22% mentioned that their partners deny them money to buy drinks and cigarettes. There were 20% of men who mentioned that their partners did not involve them in decision-making about their household's budget while 9% of men mentioned that their partners used the money for gambling without discussing it with them.

Table 5.8 below shows that the largest number of men in the study, 64% reported experiencing physical abuse in their relationships with most of these men aged 30 years and more of age. This finding clearly shows that the older age group have experienced physical abuse more than the younger age group in the study. About 37% of men who reported being the victims of physical abuse, were married while least 9% of men who reported ever experiencing physical violence were divorced or separated from their partners. Placing

education as a factor, 55% of men with secondary school education and less reported that they were victims of physical abuse as compared to those with post-high school levels of education. A study that was conducted in Kenya found that men with low levels of education and high levels of unemployment were the victims of violence by their spouses (Obeji et al. 2017). Tsiko (2016) argues that that educated men are more informed and may stand their ground when confronted by their violent female counterparts. Regarding sexual orientation, most heterosexual men 64%, bisexual men 29% reported ever experiencing physical abuse while only 6% of homosexual men reported ever experiencing physical abuse.

Table 5.8 Percentage of respondents who experienced physical abuse by selected background characteristics

Background characteristics	N	%
Age		
< 30	64	36
30+	116	64
Total	180	100
Marital status		
Married or engaged	67	37
Living together	55	31
Never married	41	23
Divorced or separated	17	9
Total	180	100
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	116	64
Bisexual	53	29
Homosexual	20	7
Total	180	100
Education Level		
Secondary education and less	99	55
Post high school and more	81	45
Total	180	100
Employment status		
Employed	130	72
Unemployed	50	28
Total	180	100

Table 5.9 below shows the odd ratios among men who experienced physical abuse. In order to confirm the bivariate results, logistic regression is used. In this model, the dependent variable is men who have experienced physical abuse. For each observation, the dependent variable takes the value of '1' if they did experience physical abuse and '0' if otherwise. As part of the

analysis, all first-order interactions are systematically assessed. However, no significant relationships are observed among the major components of the regression equation.

Table 5.9 below also shows the likelihood of men reported having experienced physical abuse. The findings show that men who are 30 years and above were more likely to have experienced physical violence as compared to those men who were under the ages of 30. Men who never married and divorced or separated were less likely to have experienced physical violence as compared to those men who were divorced or separated. Men who were married, including those who were living together with their partners were less likely to experience physical violence. Those with post-secondary levels of education were more likely to experience physical violence than those men who had secondary level of education and lower. Consistent with the findings Obeji et al. (2017) mention that regarding education, men with post-secondary level of education were more likely to admit experiencing physical violence.

Those men who were unemployed inclusive of those who were studying were more likely to experience physical abuse than those men who were employed. Obeji et al. (2017) mention that in their study in Nyamira, Nigeria men with a lack of employment and low income increased their vulnerability to IPV. In terms of sexuality, bisexual men and homosexual men were more likely to experience physical abuse, however, bisexual men were more likely than homosexual men to experience physical violence as compared to heterosexual men who were less likely to experience physical abuse. Dickerson-Amaya and Coston (2019) mention that bisexual men are pointedly more likely to experience physical violence and it is not surprising that they would be more likely to rate their current mental health poorly.

Table 5.9 The odds ratios of men who experienced physical abuse by selected background characteristics: results from logistic regression

Background characteristics				
	Odds Ratios	Std. Err	95 % Conf. Interval	
Age				
30+	1.05	.2500	.66	1.68
Marital status				
Never married	.66	.1703	.40	1.10
Divorced or separated	.48	.1701	.25	1.02
Education Level				
Post high school and above	1.35	.3057	.86	2.10
Employ status				
Not employed	1.20	.2783	.77	1.89
Sexuality				
Bisexual	2.19	.5913	1.29	3.72
Homosexual	1.94	.7493	.84	4.15
cons	.77	.2203	.44	1.35

Table 5.10 below shows that a largest number of men in the study more than 52% reported having experienced emotional abuse from their partners. The older age group recorded a higher number of men who have experienced emotional abuse than the younger age group. The findings of the study also show that most married men, 30% reported ever experiencing emotional abuse while the least divorced or separated men made up 9% of reported experiences of emotional abuse. Most men 47% who had secondary school or less levels of education reported ever experiencing emotional abuse while the majority of men who were employed. having experienced emotional abuse as compared to men who are unemployed. The majority of homosexual men 52% experiences of emotional abuse from their partners.

Table 5.10 Percentage of respondents ever experienced emotional abuse by selected background characteristics (cross tabulation)

Background characteristics	N	%
Age		
<30	93	34
30+	183	66
Total	276	100
Marital status		
Married or engaged	104	38
Living together	74	27
Never married	65	24
Divorced or separated	33	12
Total	276	100
Education Level		
Less than secondary education	163	59
Post high school and more	113	41
Total	276	100
Employment status		
Employed	211	76
Unemployed	65	24
Total	276	100
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	183	66
Bisexual	66	24
Homosexual	27	10
Total	276	100

Table 5.11 below shows the odd ratios among men who experienced emotional abuse. In order to confirm the bivariate results, logistic regression is used. In this model, the dependent variable is men who have experienced emotional abuse. For each observation, the dependent variable takes the value of '1' if they ever experience emotional abuse and '0' if otherwise. As part of the analysis, all first-order interactions are systematically assessed. However, no significant relationships are observed among the major components of the regression equation.

Table 5.11 below shows the likelihood of men who experienced emotional abuse. The findings show that men who were 30 years and above were more likely to experience emotional abuse as compared to those men who were under the ages of 30. Regarding marital status, the results show that divorced or separated men and never married men were less likely to experience emotional abuse as compared to men who were married, separated or living together with their partners. Men with post-high school levels of education were less likely to experience

emotional abuse than men with secondary school education and less levels of education. Not employed men in the study were more likely to experience emotional abuse as compared to men who were not employed. Both homosexual men and bisexual men were more likely to experience emotional abuse, however, homosexual men experience emotional abuse more than bisexual men. Nevertheless, heterosexual men were less likely to have experienced emotional abuse in their relationships. In support of these findings, Nybergh et al. (2016) mention that men with lower education are more likely to experience intimate partner abuse. Consistent with the findings, Dickerson-Amaya and Coston (2019) mention that bisexual and homosexual men are frequently likely to experience emotional and control violence.

Table 5.11 The odd ratios of men who experienced emotional abuse by selected background characteristics: results from logistic regression

Background characteristics					
	Odds Ratios	Std. Err	95 % Conf. Interval		
Age					
30+	1.16	.4467	.91	2.75	
Marital status					
Never married	.57	.1656	.31	.99	
Divorced or separated	.64	.2633	.29	.14	
Education Level					
Post high school and above	.87	.2385	.51	1.49	
Employment status					
Not employed	1.01	.2811	.58	1.74	
Sexuality					
Bisexual	1.08	.3465	.58	2.03	
Homosexual	1.21	.5846	.47	3.12	
cons	3.57	1.2156	1.83	6.96	

Table 5.12 below shows that 19% of men, who experienced sexual abuse were more than 30 years of age as compared to men at younger ages. Of those who reported having experienced sexual abuse, 17% were married or engaged while the least 6% of men who reported sexual abuse were divorced or separated. Those men who had secondary school education and less levels of education reported experiencing sexual abuse and the employed men were the majority to report sexual abuse. The majority of heterosexual men, 34% reported had

experienced sexual abuse while the least number came from homosexual men 5% who reported ever experiencing sexual abuse.

Table 5.12 Percentage of respondents who experienced sexual abuse by selected background characteristics

Background characteristics		
Age	N	%
<30	65	37
30+	111	63
Total	176	100
Marital status		
Married or engaged	61	35
Living together	45	26
Never married	48	27
Divorced or separated	22	13
Total	176	100
Education Level		
Secondary and less education	107	61
Post high school and more	69	39
Total	176	100
Employment status		
Employed	133	76
Unemployed	43	24
Total	176	100
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	119	68
Bisexual	40	23
Homosexual	17	10
Total	176	100

Table 5.13 below shows the odds ratios of among men who have experienced sexual abuse. In order to confirm the bivariate results, logistic regression is used. In this model, the dependent variable is men who have experienced sexual abuse. For each observation, the dependent variable takes the value of ‘1’ if they ever experience sexual abuse and ‘0’ if otherwise. As part of the analysis, all first order interactions are systematically assessed. However, no significant relationships are observed among the major components of the regression equation.

Table 5.13 below shows the likelihood of men reported who experiencing sexual abuse in their relationships. The findings show that men who were above the age of 30 were less likely than men who were younger to experience sexual abuse. Men who reported to never have been

married and divorced or separated were more likely than married or separated men and cohabiting men to ever experience sexual abuse in their relationship. Those men who reported having post-high school levels of education were less likely to have experienced sexual abuse than men with secondary and lower levels of education. Those men who reported being unemployed were less likely to ever experience sexual abuse in their relationships. In as far as sexuality is concerned, homosexual men were more likely to ever experience sexual abuse and bisexual men were least likely to ever experience sexual abuse in their relationships. Dickerson-Amaya and Coston (2019) in their study found that homosexual men and bisexual men were more likely to report sexual violence than heterosexual men.

Table 5.13 The odds ratios of men who experienced sexual abuse by selected background characteristics: results from logistic regression

Background characteristics	Odds Ratios	Std. Err	95 % Conf. Interval	
Age				
30+	.88	.2042	.5562	1.38
Marital status				
Never married	1.18	.2987	.7226	1.94
Divorced or separated	1.11	.3747	.5686	2.15
Education Level				
Post high school and above	.87	.1936	.5663	1.35
Employment status				
Not employed	.83	.1874	.5342	1.29
Sexuality				
Bisexual	.89	.2291	.5341	1.47
Homosexual	1.21	.3823	.4912	2.13
cons	1.27	.3551	.7303	2.19

Table 5.14 below shows the percentage of men who reported that they ever experienced financial abuse in their relationships. The most significant number of men in the study were above the age of 30, 51% said that they ever experienced financial abuse and the majority of them were also married 30%. The findings of the study also show that the older age group records a higher number of men who have ever experienced financial abuse than the younger age group. 45% of men with secondary education and less reported ever experiencing financial abuse and the least 8% of men who reported ever experiencing financial abuse were divorced or separated from their partners. Of unemployed men, 20% said that they ever experienced

financial abuse and the least 8% of homosexual men reported that they also ever experienced financial abuse.

Table 5.14 Percentage of respondents to experience financial abuse by selected background characteristics

Background characteristics		
	N	%
Age		
<30	96	35
30+	177	65
Total	273	100
Marital status		
Married or engaged	104	38
Living together	71	26
Never married	70	26
Divorced or separated	28	10
Total	273	100
Education Level		
Less than secondary education	156	57
Post high school and more	117	43
Total	273	100
Employment status		
Full-time employed	108	40
Part-time employed	94	34
Unemployed	71	26
Total	273	100
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	185	68
Bisexual	61	22
Homosexual	27	10
Total	273	100

Table 5.15 below shows the odds ratios among men who ever experienced financial abuse. In order to confirm the bivariate results, logistic regression is used. In this model, the dependent variable is men who ever experience physical abuse. For each observation, the dependent variable takes the value of '1' if they ever experience financial abuse and '0' if otherwise. As part of the analysis, all first order interactions are systematically assessed. However, no significant relationships are observed among the major components of the regression equation.

Table 5.15 below shows the likelihood of men ever experiencing financial abuse by selected background characteristics. The findings show that men above 30 years were more likely to

experience financial abuse as compared to men who were under the age of 30 years. Consistent with another study, economic abuse is likely to be experienced by older men (Warmling et al. 2017). As people age, they are more likely to become frail and less likely to defend themselves. Men who reported never married, divorced and/or separated were also less likely to ever experience financial abuse than men who reported that they were married or separated and/or living with a partner. Though, men who were married or stayed together with their partners were less likely to ever experience financial abuse from their partners. Men with post high school educational levels were more likely to ever experience financial abuse as compared to men who had secondary and lower levels of education. Those men who reported that they were unemployed were less likely to ever experience financial abuse than men who reported that they were employed. In regards, to sexuality, homosexual men were more likely than bisexual men to experience financial abuse and heterosexual men were less likely to ever experience financial abuse in the study.

Table 5.15 The odds ratios of men ever experienced financial abuse by selected background characteristics: results from logistic regression

Background characteristics	Odds Ratios	Std. Err	95 % Conf. Interval	
Age				
30+	1.14	.3210	.65	1.98
Marital status				
Never married	.85	.2611	.21	.55
Divorced or separated	.45	.1658	.22	.25
Education Level				
Post high school and above	1.35	.3717	.79	.32
Employment status				
Not employed	.83	.1873	.53	.29
Sexuality				
Bisexual	.73	.2178	.40	.31
Homosexual	1.28	.6140	.49	.28
cons	3.88	1.3371	1.98	.76

5.8 Consequence of IPV

Research has shown that men can be the victims of IPV and could also sustain injuries from their female partners (see Table 5.16 below). Those men who experienced physical abuse were asked if they sustained any injuries or not sustained any injuries. Of the 350 men who were

asked if they experienced physical violence, only 180 mentioned that they experienced physical abuse. As far as sustaining injuries is concerned, many of the men 130 (72%) mentioned that they sustained injuries and 50 (28%) mentioned that they did not sustain any injuries. Thusi and Mlambo (2023) also found that male victims of abuse get serious injuries since women assault their partners with sharp instruments.

Table 5.16 below presents the number of men who sustained injuries. Of the 130 men who sustained injuries, they were asked “*what types of injuries they sustained*”, the majority of the men 35% reported that they sustained blue eyes and some men suffered from broken teeth followed by 28% who sustained Injuries in their sensory organs. Almost 22% of men reported having sustained stab wounds inflicted by their partners and the least 4% of men reported that they sustained broken ribs. The study conducted in Nyamira, Kenya by Obeji et al. (2017) found that more than 65% of male victims of domestic violence reported deep cuts, broken bones, eye injuries, and broken teeth.

Those men who sustained injuries were asked which body part was aimed by their abusers, the majority of men 55% mentioned that the body part that was targeted by their abusers was the head, followed by 24% who mentioned that torso was the targeted part by their abusers, 1% who mentioned that the body part that was targeted was genitalia. The least 2% mentioned that arms and legs were targeted by their partners. The results of this study are supported by previous research, Drijber et al. (2013) highlighted that some studies exploring the prevalence of female on male IPV have identified substantial physical aggression toward men, including kicking, biting, choking, scratching, and the use of weapons. Hines and Douglas (2010), in their study, found that 80% of the men reported being injured, with 35% reporting a serious injury (e.g., a broken bone). Barkhuizen (2015) and Vernon, (2017) also found that men reported being slapped, pushed, kicked, grabbed, punched, choked, stabbed, and physical attacks in the groin area.

Table 5.16 Types of injuries men sustained

Sustained any injuries	N	%
Yes	130	72
No	50	28
Total	180	100
Injuries sustained		
Broken rib	5	4
Blue eye and broken teeth	45	35
Stab wounds	29	22
Injuries to the sensory organ	36	28
Broken arm/s or legs	15	12
Total	130	100
Body part that was targeted		
Head	71	55
Torso	31	24
Arms and legs	3	2
Genitalia (e.g., crotch area for men)	25	19
Total	130	100

*Participants chose one option.

5.9 Men reporting PV

The research has shown that male victims of IPV are at times reluctant to report the violence or to seek help from relevant institutions. The results of this study also highlighted the difficulty men face in dealing with victimisation and reporting the abuse to anyone. Those men who sustained injuries were asked: “*if they reported the incident to anyone and who they decided to tell about the abuse and what were their reactions if they did not report the abuse what were the reasons for them not to report the abuse*” (Table 5.17 below). The majority of men 55% did not report the incidents to anyone for various reasons and nearly half, 45% of men reported the incidents to someone. The findings revealed that the people who reported the abuse were heterosexual men at 56%, followed by 32% of bisexual men in reporting the incident and the least to report the incidents were homosexual men. The majority of men 41% who told someone about the incident mentioned that they told their siblings about the incidents, followed by 37% of men who mentioned that they told their friends and the least (8%) mentioned that they told their colleagues about the incidents. As far as their reaction was concerned, most men (51%) mentioned that the people they told were shocked by the news, 23% of men mentioned that the people they told were angry to hear the news of abuse and 8% mentioned that the people they

told could not believe that they were in abusive relationships. This study is consistent with previous studies that male victims of IPV do not report the incidences. In support of this statement. Drijber et al. (2013) mentioned that reasons for men not to report or seek help include fear of not being taken seriously. Lysova et al. (2019) stated that there are significant differences among family members and friends who seem to be more supportive of women than men victims. Bates (2019) highlighted that those male victims of IPV reported not being believed, being ridiculed, and have described how service providers were mocking their experiences, or suggesting they were somehow responsible for the abuse. Bates (2019) highlighted that some men admitted that when reported the abuse their friends and family laughed at them and in some cases, they had been blamed or accused of being perpetrators.

Male victims of domestic violence face different challenging stigmas than female survivors of IPV and research shows that men in most instances do not report IPV. Those men who report IPV could face various social stigmas regarding their lack of manliness and they are less recognised by society than women IPV victims. According to Thusi and Mlambo (2023) South Africa has a strong macho culture embedded in patriarchy, which may discourage male victims from reporting violent abuse. Men in the study were asked about their reasons for the non-reporting of abuse. Of the 180 men who were physically abused, only 130 men sustained injuries. Those men who sustained injuries and did not report the incidents were 71 (55%) and only 59 (45%) reported the incidents. Hogan (2016) and Walker et al. (2020) stated that men do not report their abuse because they face disbelief, surprise, doubt, mockery, ridicule, and indifference and they may even face arrest. Corbally (2015), Morgan and Wells (2016) and Tsui (2014) stated that male victims of female perpetrated IPV revealed difficulty in articulating their abusive experiences, and many of them do not identify themselves as victims of IPV.

Those men who did not report the abuse were asked “*what were their reasons not to report the abuse and who might they have preferred to talk to about the abuse?*” The majority of men (30%) did not report the incidents to anyone because their partners asked them not to tell anyone, were followed by 28% of men who mentioned that shock and fear stopped them to report the incidents and 24% of men highlighted that they were afraid of losing custody of their children and 18% of men mentioned that they thought their partners would change. Most men (40%) reported that they would have preferred to tell a friend followed by 36% of men who highlighted that they would have preferred to tell a family member and 24% would have

preferred to tell a colleague. Research suggested that male underreporting is related to a lack of trust in police and fear of losing their relationships with their children (Hines and Douglas, 2010; Tsui, 2014). A study that was conducted in South Africa by Mqakelana (2015) found that male victims of abuse did not report their abusive relationships with the hope that their partners would change.

Table 5.17 Men reporting of IPV

Did you report the incident to anyone?	N	%
Yes	59	45
No	71	55
Total	130	100
More likely to report the incidents		
Heterosexual men	33	56
Bisexual men	19	32
Homosexual men	7	12
Total	59	100
Who did you tell about the incident?		
A friend	22	37
A sibling	24	41
My parents	8	14
Work colleague	5	8
Total	59	100
How did they react to the news?		
They were shocked	30	51
They could not believe me	5	8
They laughed at me	10	17
They were angry that women can abuse them	14	23
Total	59	100
Reasons for non-reporting of IPV		
Shock and fear	20	28
Ask me not to tell anyone	21	30
Fear of losing custody of the children	17	24
Belief that the partner will change	13	18
Total	71	100
Who might have preferred to tell about the incident?		
A friend	28	39
A family member	26	37
A colleague	17	24
Total	71	100

5.9 Coping strategies used by men

It has been reported that men do everything in their power to stop the abuse from their female partners and if all fails, they stay silent about being abused. Men make excuses about the behaviour of their abusive partners to family members, friends and colleagues. Various strategies were used by male victims of IPV to cope with the abuse. In this study, men were asked “*how did you feel after the incident? and their reaction regarding the situation?*” Almost 38% of men mentioned that they had to accept that their partners would never change their behaviour, followed by 34% who mentioned that they felt like they were not in control of their families while 15% mentioned that they were in denial that they were victims of IPV by refusing to believe that they were in abusive relationships while hoping that their partners would change. A few men 14% mentioned that they felt useless and less of a man because of the abuse. Table 5.18 below shows how men reacted after an episode of violence in their households and where they went after the accidents. Almost 29% of men mentioned that they took a walk to cool off after the incident, followed by 27% of men who decided to go to their parents or friends place to avoid their partner’s confrontation. Those men who mentioned that they did not go anywhere because they had no way to go after the abuse and locked themselves in another room were 15% while others mentioned going to the bar for a few drinks to meet friends or to be alone and out of the house. In their study, Akarika, Ikon and Nnamdie (2019) mention that a study they conducted in Nigeria found that in order to escape abuse in their homes, some men took drugs while others drowned their frustration by using alcohol.

The results of this study are supported by previous studies on men’s reactions after an abusive situation. The work of Hines and Douglas (2010) confirms the findings of this study, through highlighting that the most common response by men was talking with a partner to reach an agreement. Another tactic was trying to calm the partner or trying to please the partner so that the abusive incident did not happen again. Allen-Collinson (2009) highlighted those strategies men used to stay out of the way of their wives when they fought which would include sitting in the car for hours or some men would take a walk to their parents or go to a friend’s place to cool off. Machado, Hines and Matos (2018) also highlighted that men get away from their partners and go to another room and locked themselves up.

Table 5.18 How men felt and reacted after the incident.

How men felt after the incident	N	%
I refuse to admit, I am in denial and hope my partner will change	19	15
Accepted that my partner will never change	49	38
I felt like, I was not in control in my family	44	34
I felt useless and not man enough	18	14
Total	130	100
Where did you go after the incident?		
I did not go anywhere locked myself in another room	18	14
I took a walk to cool off	38	29
I went to my parent's or friend's place	35	27
I went to the bar for a few drinks to clear my head	19	15
I sat in my car until I was fine	20	15
Total	130	100

*Participants chose one option

Those men who were physically abused by their partners were asked how they viewed their partners after the incidents. This question was to assess the situation of the male victims with their partners after the incident (see Table 5.19 below). A total of 32% of men mentioned that they felt completely alone when they are around their partners, 26% of men mentioned that they sometimes felt numb when they are with their partners and other men mentioned that they were afraid of their partners after the incident. A study conducted in Western Kenya by Obeji et al. (2017) also found male victims stated they were afraid of their wives with the majority of them seeking help from their church leaders. Vernon (2017) mentions that the male victims described being vulnerable, feeling alone because of abuse, being misunderstood, having no one to turn to, and believing no one cares about their victimisation.

Table 5.19 How was the situation with their partners after the incident.

How did the participant feel after the incident?	N	%
I often feel totally alone when with my partner	41	32
I am afraid of my partner	34	26
I sometimes feel numb inside when I am with her	34	26
I try to please my partner and my efforts still did not please her	21	16
Total	130	100

*Participants chose one option

5.10 Summary

This chapter revealed that IPV has no age, education level, sexuality and employment status. Any man can be a victims of intimate partner violence suffered either from their previous relationships or current relationships. The findings revealed that most men who reported the abuse were heterosexual men and most likely were married. The findings showed that most men who suffered from IPV have a high school education but even those with less schooling were affected including men who reportedly were employed while some were studying.

The findings revealed that IPV prevalence against men is not uncommon in Pretoria CBD, as men mentioned that they were aware of other male victims in their communities. Most of the men known victims were their friends, family members or colleagues. 55% of men said that they did not report IPV or tell anyone about the abuse of their family member, friends or colleagues because the victims requested them not to tell anyone but to keep this a secret. Men can be victims and women the perpetrators of IPV. Male victims of abuse suffer in silence because their friends and colleagues do not believe them or take them seriously (Edwards and Wallace, 2020; Breiding et al., 2014; Desmarais et al., 2012; Morgan and Wells, 2016). According to the social construction theory and feminist theory, intimate partner violence is primarily an outcome of patriarchy and mechanisms for maintaining gender inequality in society between men and women. The theories highlight that in abusive relationships, men use violence to control, gain and enforce power over their partners. However, social learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour suggest that men are socialised to rely on themselves and not to ask for help from others. Asking for help is associated with stigma and weakness. These theories also emphasise the individual's intention to perform a given behaviour and there is a high correlation between behavioural intention and actual behaviour.

The findings also revealed that men agreed that there were no institutions in Gauteng province and in the other provinces that caters for male victims of IPV. Medzani (2019) and Barkhuizen, (2015) confirm that the few and less recognised GBV institutions that help male victims of abuse are less known because of a lack of funding. On the other hand, all men revealed that they were aware of institutions that cater for women and those institutions were well advertised and easily accessible. However, most men said they were not aware of the services provided in those institutions. The findings also revealed that men would appreciate to have institutions that caters for men only, because men's IPV needs are different from those of women. Mfecane

(2020) and Medzani (2019) mention that recognising male victims is important to legitimise their demand to access services, shelters, media space, social support and legal services. Having those separate institutions will enable confidentiality and privacy. Josolyne (2011) mentioned that studies on IPV have demonstrated that the service needs of female victims and male victims are hugely different and treatment programmes for male victims should be developed, which are tailored to meet men's specific needs. Intimate partner violence agencies were not at all helpful to male victims because the agencies only helped women, were biased against men, and accused men of being the batterer in the relationship. Men would prefer men only institutions and all men reported that they would attend these institutions (Douglas et al., 2011) if they were made available. The findings of the study are consistent with the theories that state that men are strong and are not supposed to engage in emotions publicly and this viewpoint helps to reduce how strict gender roles and stereotypes can make male victims feel invalidated or less credible, complicating their path to receiving support. Social learning theory gives a comprehensive construction for understanding behaviour through observation, imitation, and strengthening those behaviours and hostile actions, which are learned by observing others and the outcomes of their actions.

The study findings revealed that some women are violent towards their male partners and they used violence for various reasons such as jealousy, control because they thought their partners were cheating, nagging their partners and seeking attention. Some men believed that some women used violence in self-defence in their relationships. It is revealed that those men who opted to be not in any relationships revealed that they had not been in any relationship for more than two years. According to Sethuraman (2008), women become violent to their intimate partners as a tactic to get what they want and they did not know any other way of resolving their conflicts than to fight their intimate partners. Men can be the victims and women the perpetrators of IPV (Edwards and Wallace, 2020; Breiding et al., 2014; Desmarais et al., 2012). Mbandlwa (2020) highlighted that when men choose to leave a toxic relationship, they become victims of hurtful messages and stalking phone calls. Some of these theories like social construction theory and feminist theory take the position that women are not as violent as men and that women are always the victims and defend themselves and their children when they retaliate. They argue that women and men are anticipated to perform and adhere to certain roles and norms relevant to a specified society, and men who are socialized to uphold patriarchal attitudes and norms may be expected to uphold the cultural or dominant notions of masculinity. While social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour argue that anyone can be a

perpetrator or a victim of IPV since violence is learned, through role models provided by the family (parents, siblings, relatives, and boyfriends), either directly or indirectly.

The findings revealed that men in the study stayed in abusive relationship for various reasons, because of marriage commitments while some men were afraid that their family members and friends would find out the reason, if they left their homes. It is also revealed that some men were also scared that the perpetrators would abuse their children while some men reported that they still love their partners and opted to stay in abusive relationships. Socialisation and society's expectation of men make it difficult for men to leave their abusive partners mainly because they were afraid that their families and friends will ask them questions if they leave their families. The findings of the study are in line with previous research studies that were conducted which found that male victims stayed in abusive relationships because of commitment to the marriage, love, societal embarrassment for revealing victimisation, not having enough money to leave, and negative responses or lack of responsiveness from officials regarding filing complaints (Cook, 2009; Eckstein, 2011; Hines and Douglas, 2010; Douglas and Hines, 2011). Mqakelana (2015) mentioned that men do not leave abusive relationships for fear that their perpetrators would abuse the children. They also worry about who will protect their children if they separate from their partners. The findings of the study concur with the social construction theory and social learning theory whose findings led to the conclusion that experiences learned can completely influence and change old behaviours. Consequently, learning encourages earlier prohibited manners. Feminist theory does not concur with the findings but still maintains that cultural, social and gender norms about IPV construct women as passive and vulnerable victims and support the position that violence by women is solely reactive.

The results also highlighted that those men experienced different types of IPV once or more times in their lifetime. Men also reported to have suffered from physical abuse, verbal abuse, financial abuse and also sexual abuse. Consistent with the findings of the study, Mazikana (2024) note that men experience sexual and physical abuse in various environments throughout their lifetime. The data revealed that those men who suffered physical abuse, either had stab wounds or broken ribs. In as far as verbal abuse is concerned, men reported that their partners screamed at them for no apparent reason. Men who suffered financial abuse reported that they were not involved in their household financial decision making and their partners used the household money without their consents. It is also revealed that men are sexually abused with

some of them reporting they were forced into sexual activities without their consent to prove that they were not cheating. On the other hand, men were accused by their friends of complaining about being forced into sexual activities because of the misguided beliefs that men should not say no to women when they demand sex. These findings were also supported by previous studies by Walker et al. (2020) that found that male victims experienced physical, emotional, sexual, and verbal forms of IPV. Bates (2019) argues that it is possible that rape myths are deeply tied to gendered stereotypes, which are learned and instilled from an early age. The gendered behaviour has implications for how people view men's and women's behaviour. Bates and Taylor (2021) and Machado et al. (2017) mentioned that men suffered from physical assaults, which included serious physical attacks from their female partners including being hit, stabbed with an object, kicked, bitten, and choked. The findings of the study concur with the social construction theory and feminist theory whose findings led to the conclusion that men who are socialised into a society that maintains patriarchal ideals and norms which are often expected to support, or defend, dominant notions of masculinity. Both social learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour recognise that women and men learn differently. The theory is the primary process linking social structure to individual behaviour and all human behaviours are learned and modified.

It is also revealed that men do not report the abuse or seek help because there was no help available for male victims of IPV or the victims did not know of where they could go to seek help. Another reason is that they were afraid to expose themselves that they were victims of abuse. The findings revealed that men did not report the abuse because NPOs that work on IPV issues do not recognise men as victims of IPV but only as perpetrators. In support of this Obeji et al. (2017) highlight that in Kenya despite raising awareness and existing evidence of male abuse, most resources are still devoted to female victims of abuse. It is revealed that men prefer to report the abuse to family members, friends, and colleagues than to police and other institutions. This study concurs with other studies which found that IPV agencies were not at all helpful to male victims because the agencies only helped women, were biased against men, and accused them of being the batterer in the relationships. Men felt that there was no help or services available to men victims of IPV (Douglas and Hines, 2011). Previous studies also reported that abused men tend to access informal sources of support such as family or friends (Morgan and Wells, 2016; Safe lives, 2019) rather than formal sources of support. From the perspective of the social construction theory, feminist theory and theory of planned behaviour men are violent, cruel, fearless, and emotionless, and should make the decisions at

home, assert power and authority, are the primary breadwinners and exercise control over women. However, according to social learning theory, men experience indifference when seeking help, greatly due to the impact of gender roles on intimate relationships. The social learning theory shows that people learn by observing what others are doing, especially children.

The findings of this study also show that men use various mechanisms to avoid their abusive partners. It is revealed that some men reported that after the incidents, they would lock themselves in another room to avoid further confrontation or retaliating against their partners while some men would opt to go to a bar to drink to cool down or go to their friends or visit their friends to avoid confrontation. Allen-Collinson (2009); Corbally (2015); Durfee (2011) and Machado et al. (2016) argued that male victims of IPV continued to be socialised to hide personal fears and did not disclose fear of IPV or label themselves as victims.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the main findings of both the quantitative and qualitative research methods and assessed the usefulness of the research methods in achieving the objectives of the study. This chapter will conclude with several recommendations for future research and suggest several policies measures regarding IPV against men in South Africa. To date, there is growing evidence showing an increase in intimate partner violence against men perpetrated by women which has been ongoing for many years. Yet, it has not received much recognition from academia and society. In South Africa, intimate partner violence against men has also received little attention in both print media and broadcast media. Despite this lack of attention on men abuse, the findings of this research have revealed that men are often the victims of IPV at the hands of their female partners. The findings of this study showed that men experienced different types of IPV at the hands of their female partners.

The main objective of this dissertation is to shed insights into intimate partner violence against men. To date, there has been a dearth of information of these important issues. The study used both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Creswell and Clark (2011) highlighted that both, qualitative and quantitative methods may be used concurrently or sequentially because one approach cannot be weighted stronger than the other, while the integration may be comprehensive or restricted. According to Creswell (2015) mixed methods incorporate multiple methods to address the research question in a principled and proper manner, which involves analysing, collecting, reporting, and interpreting both qualitative and quantitative data (Bryman, 2012). Mixed methods enable researchers to answer questions with sufficient depth and help to generalise findings and implications of the researched issues to the whole population. It also offers methodological flexibility and in depth understanding of smaller cases (Maxwell, 2016; Enosh, et al. 2014).

The study applied the social construction theory. It has been observed from the theory that gender roles and responsibilities are socially constructed and are assigned by society to women and men. The social construction theory shows that social groups are constructed rather than

based on objectivity and reality of what is happening in that society. Social constructions are ideas, concepts, and facts that are created by humans just for the smooth running of the community. These habits become part of one's life and it is accepted that men are dominant and stronger as compared to women. Social construction reflects shared ideas or perceptions that exist in society, only because people in a group or individual accept what they do and do not do.

6.2 Summary of key findings

The study findings revealed that men use these concepts of IPV and GBV interchangeable and they did not associate these concepts with men. It was revealed that men have trouble noticing that they were in abusive relationships because of the socialisation that men are tough, strong and protectors who should be fearless and play the role of being the provider at home. The study concluded that men could not differentiate between IPV and GBV which made it difficult for them to identify themselves as victims of any form of IPV. Morgan and Well (2016) mention that men find it difficult to identify themselves as victims of violence since the ideology is that women are victims and men are abusers. Male victims of partner violence feel that their situations are different since they are men. Finneran and Stephenson (2013) highlighted that men have also used IPV concepts that were developed for use amongst women without critical investigation of their validity, applicability and fit to men. It is also limiting how men define IPV against men and it continues to be poorly understood by men. Some critics also argue that there is a need to expand the definitions of these concepts to accommodate awareness that violence within intimate relationships surpasses both gender and sexuality (Finneran and Stephenson, 2013). The findings of this study confirm the social construction theory, because society believes that men are not affected by IPV and these concepts are a result of social construction of gender and are created to conform to the narrative that only women are victims of IPV. The study found that men could not understand IPV/GBV concepts or associate these concepts with male abuse, because these concepts are socially constructed and are more associated with women victimisation. The intimate partner abuse is associated with women because it is rooted in societal norms, power imbalances, and gender stereotypes based on patriarchal beliefs.

The results of the study also established that women can be violent as men and any man can be a victim of IPV regardless of age, marital status, education levels, employment status and

sexuality. The findings also revealed that men who were aged thirty and above were more likely to experience all types of IPV. The study results revealed that heterosexual men and bisexual men were the more likely to be victims of IPV. Irrespective of education level and employment status anyone can be a victim of IPV. The results also revealed that before the interview some men were single because of toxic relationships with their partners. Most of these men had not been in any relationship for more than twenty-four months. The study findings conclude that even homosexual men can be victims of all forms of IPV. To confirm the findings of this study, Mqakelana (2015) in his study found that the stress and expense of finding a new partner are not worth it. Men felt that the expense associated with finding a new partner is an economic factor that causes men to be alone and not in a relationship. On the other hand, Messinger (2011) emphasised that all forms of abuse were more likely to occur in homosexual and bisexual couples than in heterosexual ones. Homosexual men experienced emotional abuse because their partners know that they would not report the abuse to anyone because some of the homosexual men were still in the closet and no one knew about their sexuality. This particular finding of this study is contradicting with the social construction theory because society treats male and female victims of IPV differently. When it comes to IPV victimisation, society treats women victims much better than men victims. The study findings contribute to new insights that men are not comfortable to be associated with being the victims. In addition, it is hoped that this will contribute to the empowerment and support of male victims of IPV. This will also contribute to the limited body of knowledge on IPV against men.

The study findings revealed that there are no government institutions in the country that caters for male victims of IPV while there are many institutions that caters for female victims of IPV. These institutions are well advertised and easily accessible to females and unfortunately, they do not provide services to male victims. The results also revealed that male victims felt that there should be IPV institutions that caters for male victims only which should be managed by men for privacy and confidentiality.

The study concluded that all the IPV institutions and NPOs that work in the field of gender-based violence are designed to cater for females only and men requested institutions that are tailor-made for their needs. However, contrary to the finding of this research, a study that was conducted by Nekhavhambe (2021) in Gauteng on men victims of IPV found that there are only two shelters in the whole of South Africa that caters for abused men despite the extent of the abuse and are both found in the city of Johannesburg, in Gauteng province. This was also

confirmed by Department of Social Development (DSD) (2011) that there were ninety-eight shelters established which cater for women. Some of these institutions were managed by the government and others are privately owned. According to the social construction theory, gender is socially constructed, so are almost all institutions that provides services to victims of IPV are providing their IPV services to women only. This study supports the social construction theory because most of these institutions regard only women as victims and men as perpetrators, because men are perceived as physically stronger than women hence men cannot be the victims of abuse. These institutions only provide services to women because it is socially constructed that women are the only victims. The study's findings will contribute to new understanding that as men are also victims of abuse, they also need their own IPV institutions that will provide services designed to cater to their needs.

The results of the study revealed that the prevalence of men abuse in the area was high. While men also agreed that violence against women and children was high, however the increase in the number of IPV incidents against men also cannot also be ignored. Interestingly, most men in the study reported to know someone who was a victim of abuse in their area, and reported that the victims were their family members, friends, or colleagues, The results also revealed that men could not report the abuse of their friends, family members or colleagues because they were requested not to tell anyone about the abuse. The study concluded that IPV against men was increasing and most male victims are known in the area. Mngomezulu (2018) reported that all men in his study agreed that there was a high prevalence of IPV against men in the area and that men suffer in silence when they are abused by their abusive women partners. A study by Kubai (2014) highlighted that society needs to pay attention to cases that paint men only as perpetrators of brutality, often forgetting that women can abuse men in intimate relationships. The study findings are contradictory to the social construction theory which views men as strong and that men should be the protectors of their family. This study contributes to the new discourse that men are also victims of IPV and that anyone can be a victim of abuse regardless of their gender or sexual orientation.

The results of the study also established that woman used violence for various reasons such as jealousy, trust issues and seeking attention from their partners, control and sometimes self-defence. The study revealed that society does not have much sympathy when it comes to male victims of IPV as they are more sympathetic to women victims of IPV and society does not expect men to be the victims of IPV. The study concluded that society still holds on to the

traditional belief system that a man cannot be abused by a woman as society still perceives men to be strong and sole providers to their families who should never show remorse or cry. The study findings corroborate with some previous studies which indicate that gender-based violence against men is unnoticed and largely invisible in society due to dominant cultural belief that a man cannot be abused or molested by a woman (Kalimaposo et al., 2023). The results of the study revealed that men do not report the abuse or talk about their ordeal because society would call them names and has no sympathy for abused men.

The key informant interviews found that abused men are always blamed by society for provoking their abusers and not respecting them. Male abuse is little known because male victims are afraid to speak out due to society's attitude and social stigma while men are afraid of the dilemma they could face after speaking out (Kubai, 2014). Other studies confirm with the findings of this study that society expects men to be hard, treat women well and not hit them, be inventive, and sharp in the mind, while women act different from their abilities (Shabalala, 2012; Mngomezulu, 2018). The findings of the study are not all contradictory to the social construction theory, because society and NPOs that work with IPV victims perceive men as perpetrators of IPV and only women as the victims. The study's findings will also contribute to the new discourse that men are victims of IPV. This could change the attitudes of the society and IPV services providers to understand and accept that men are also victims of abuse who need services, same as women victims. Powney and Graham-Kevan (2019) argue that in most cases, intimate violence occurrences between intimate partners appear to be characterised by mutual aggression and sometimes initiated by the female partner.

Men have experienced more than one type of IPV which included physical abuse, verbal abuse, sexual abuse, and financial abuse. The findings revealed that women abusers wanted to do more harm to their male victims and men sustained serious injuries, which included stab wounds, burn wounds from boiled water or oil. Some reported being shouted and screamed at, in front of their family members, their children and neighbours. The study findings concluded that men indeed sustained serious injuries inflicted by their abusive partners with some men ending up in hospital. According Kubai (2014) a number of men who experienced abuse at the hands of their intimate partners were left severely assaulted and in need of medical attention, Women can sometimes even inflict serious injuries by throwing objects and liquid that could hurt their partners like knives, hammers, dishes, boiling water, boiling oil, or a frying pan just to mention a few (Kubai, 2014). The study's findings agree with the social construction theory,

that men and women are socialised differently. Not all women are physically weak and submissive, and it is not correct to believe that they will never be the perpetrators of IPV. However, society perceives men to be strong and sole providers to their families who should never show remorse or cry. The study's findings contribute to the new discourse that women are as violent as men and the society needs to understand and learn that anyone can be a victim of abuse.

The study findings revealed the reasons why men stay in abusive relationships which includes the fear that the abuser will abuse their children, they stay to protect their children, they were afraid that their family members, friend and colleagues would find out that they were in abusive relationships. Men were also afraid that their neighbours will know about the abuse if they leave their matrimonial homes while also staying, because of honouring their wedding vows which says, "till death do us apart". The study concluded that men stay in abusive relationships because they do not want anyone to know about the abuse and the fact that their partners also promised to change. A study done in Gauteng, South Africa found that the reasons for men to stay with their abusive partners were based on their belief system, including family values and unity, marriage vows "till death do us part" and some men do not believe in divorce (Nekhavambe, 2021). Due to socialisation and the social construction of gender in the society, men are obliged to stay in abusive relationships because society perceives men as protectors and providers, and they cannot leave their families. The social construction theory concurs with the findings of the study that men are seen as strong by society and are compelled to stay in abusive relationships because society regards men as protectors of their families and men are stronger than women hence, they cannot be the victims of abuse. The study's findings contribute to the new discourse that some men too, are not strong as society perceives them to be and they also have feelings and need to cry when they are hurt.

The study findings revealed the reasons why cases are not reported which include men fearing to be judged for being victims of IPV, men not knowing where to report and how to address such a shameful experience. Men did not report cases of abuse because other people would not take them seriously enough to believe them while society would take them as failures in life. Some men believed that they are not supposed to report any abuse by intimate partners because if they reported, their family members and friends would not support them but instead will laugh at them. Men do not report cases of abuse because they fear to be abandoned by their intimate partners. The study concluded that men do not report the abuse because they feel they

it is disgraceful for a man to be abused by a woman and they fear being a laughingstock in their community. Other studies showed similar findings to this study, that men prefer to use informal sources of support to report the abuse and preferred to speak to family and friends about their abuse (Graham and Bates, 2020; Machado et al., 2017; Barrett et al. 2020). According to Morgan and Wells (2016); Shakil (2016) men find it difficult to report the abuse because of shame and fear. Kubai (2014) mentioned that men do not report the abuse because it is unacceptable for a man to be beaten by a woman in an intimate relationship. Also, Andemuson et al. (2022) mention that in Nigeria it is culturally shameful and wrong for men to be beaten by women. The findings clearly show that men do not report the abuse because they are socialised to be strong, protectors who do not have to cry. Society perceives that men are stronger than women and men can never be victims of abuse. The study's findings contribute to the new discourse that men too are victims of abuse, and they also need to be able to report the abuse without being labelled weak and not being man enough. The abuse is genderless, and society should treat male victims of IPV as victims as well and that men abuse should not be viewed as unnatural and not normal in society.

The results of the study clearly showed that both the print media and electronic media's reporting of IPV against men were biased as compared when reporting abuse on female victims of IPV. Medzani (2019) argues that the media plays an important role in society and it cannot be ignored when gathering information on societal perceptions. Media becomes a source from where evidence and social data can be recorded and published. Government initiatives were aligned more towards female victims of IPV as compared to male victims of IPV. The results also revealed that all government gender-based violence policies, programmes and interventions are mainly designed for female victims of IPV and male victims of IPV are excluded. Consistent with these findings, Woodyard (2019) mentions that the continuing barriers that male victims face are as a result of lack of interventions and supports services available to them.

The findings of the study concluded that both print media and electronic media could be gender neutral in reporting on and portraying victims of IPV. Doing this could play a huge role in education and sensitising society about men abuse. The results of the study revealed that government initiatives are primarily directed to women and children and do not focus on male victims of IPV. Adopting a 'gender-neutral' approach in law, policy or practice is vital because it dismisses gendered dynamics and is helpful to male victims of IPV (Westmarland and

Burrell, 2023). Barlow et al. (2020) mention that to the gender neutrality of forced control legislation, there is a need to recognise the gender specific needs of men to practice.

It is revealed that in South Africa, women's rights are more protected than men's rights which are little protected or their rights are non-existent when it comes to IPV. This study is consistent with the findings by Mngomezulu (2018), that the role of the media is to change attitudes associated with the use of violence in intimate relationships and to increase awareness about IPV to reduce incidents. Media campaigns represent victims of IPV, and it helps to tackle some of the entrenched beliefs held by individuals of all ages that IPV is only against women only (Gold, 2019; Hine, 2019). The findings of this study confirm that men and women are socialised differently. Women are regarded as weak and cannot be perpetrators hence the government programmes and initiatives are designed to protect them from abusers. The study findings will contribute to the discourse that men should also be recognised and acknowledged as victims of abuse and should also be provided with IPV services like women and these services should also be designed to meet the needs of men.

In this study men used various coping mechanisms to avoid their abusive partners, which included taking a drive to be out of the house where the abuser was, locking themselves in the other room to run away from the abuser or going to their friends and families to cool off and leave the abuser. Some men go to the bar to drink alone or with friends to move away from the abuser or to avoid confrontation. The study findings concluded that men do everything in their power to avoid confrontation with their abusers because abused men do not have a safe place to report the abuse, without being judged. Nekhavhambe (2021) mentioned that in her study, men reported that the coping mechanisms they used were avoidance behaviour like leaving the room where the partner was relying on traditional approaches like belief in ancestral protection, alcohol abuse to numb the pain and self-defeating self-talk. Male victims of IPV would leave their house or lock themselves up in a separate room from their abusers to diffuse the violence in the home.

6.3 Methodological issues

The advantages of combining qualitative and quantitative research methods were also demonstrated in this study. The survey was particularly useful in providing information about the background demographics of the participants, the factors hindering and facilitating violence

against men in intimate relationships and constraints on changing behaviour, with particular emphasis on intimate partner violence against men. The in-depth interviews with men highlighted that they were facing difficulties in their daily lives, with the attitudes from the society, GBV service providers, their family members, police and other relevant institutions making it difficult for men to report the abuse or to seek IPV services.

To investigate the extent of abuse on men and the prevalence of IPV in the study, men were asked some questions to ascertain the extent of the abuse. The first question was asked whether they had ever been victims of any form of abuse in their previous or current relationships. The second question was directed to ascertain the prevalence of men's abuse in their community. Furthermore, it was asking if men could associate some of their challenges with the IPV concept and apart from being associated with women only. However, for everyone to understand IPV that for decades, violence has been framed only against men, whereas women were perceived as innocent in everything. Many of these hold the assumption that men perpetrate aggression more often than (Muñoz-Reyes et al., 2020). Using both qualitative and quantitative research methods was vital, because it allowed for the exploration of a range of issues from different perspectives. Furthermore, it allowed the researcher to compare responses in different direct and indirect ways after the researched had realised that one approach would not have been adequate to address the aims of the study.

6.4 Policy implications

Most of the GBV policy implications emerging from this research have implications for South Africa's communities and government departments, including the Victim Empowerment Programme (VEP) and relevant stakeholders in fighting intimate partner violence. The policy implications were drawn from the findings of the study and the policy will address the issues of IPV holistically for both men and women victims.

- Government departments and non-profit organisations that provide IPV/GBV support and service to the victims have a significant role to play in reducing the high prevalence of GBV in the country especially the growing pandemic of men abuse. They should provide genderless services to accommodate male victims of IPV as well.

- Gender based violence institutions and NPOs as service providers should treat male victims of IPV as victims too and they should acquire proper training to be able to provide support and services to male victims of IPV. The service providers are unable to provide necessary services to male victims because they lack training on men abuse issues. Training of service providers should be compulsory on gender neutral training so that they will be able to provide their services to everyone in need.
- Education and communication are important to change society's perceptions and make them understand that IPV affects not only women but men are also affected in several ways. This will reduce discrimination towards male victims of IPV and poor treatment of male victims from society and IPV/GBV service providers. Gender-specific yet gender-inclusive prevention, education, training and treatment programmes must be developed.
- From the study's findings, training and information provision of GBV service providers, health care practitioners, police officials, legal personnel (including people who work in courts), traditional leaders and religious leaders on men's issues is important to help male IPV victims to be open about their abuse and for service providers to be able to provide necessary support and services to male victims of IPV.
- In the curriculum of social workers and health care workers training on IPV against men and its consequences should be included and it should be compulsory. The social workers and health care workers will know that it is important to validate their experience when supporting a male victim of abuse.

6.5 Future research

The present study critically investigated the prevalence and types of abuse against men in Pretoria CBD, in Tshwane in the province of Gauteng. Thus, there is a need to urgently investigate the prevalence and effects of abuse against men by their intimate partners in South Africa as a whole, to draw valid conclusions about abuse against men. Researchers, such as Karakurt and Silver (2013) also reported that just like women, men are also abused by their females' partners. This study also revealed that studies of this nature are not common in South

Africa because as Africans, it is believed that a man cannot be abused by a woman. However, it has been shown in the study that while most men experienced abuse by their intimate partners, there is a need to investigate the causes and effects of abuse against men, just like it is done in the case of women and children. The current study recommends the implementation of strategies as shown in the literature and the findings of the study measuring how men have suffered from their abusive intimate partners. Based on the findings of this study, future research should address the following:

- The study revealed that men's understanding of IPV/GBV and society's perceptions about men abuse make it difficult for male victims to report the abuse or accept their victimisation. More research on male victims of IPV should be on a large scale so that the extent of IPV towards male victims of IPV should be known.
- Based on the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative research, future research should address the non-availability of services and support to male victims of IPV. The government initiatives to address and to curb IPV should also support and address the issues of men abuse. The government should also support and fund independent researchers who are conducting research on men abuse throughout the country, to know the extent of this pandemic and society's perception on men abuse.
- The findings of the study revealed that non-profit organisations and the government are not supporting male victims of IPV. However, GBV policies and programmes should be gender neutral to cater to male victims' needs. Research should be conducted on the social and economic needs of the male victims of IPV, and the cost of the services should also be considered. Government and NPOs should also include the needs of the victims of IPV in their plans and budget for the programmes.

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ANNEXURE A: Ethical clearance



09 June 2016

Mr Blessing J Msomi 09409079
School of Built Environment & Development Studies
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Msomi

Protocol reference number: HSS/1745/015D

Project title: An overlooked minority: Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) on men in Pretoria.

Full Approval – Committee Reviewed Protocol

This letter serves to notify you that your application in connection with the above has now been granted full approval.

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project; Location of the Study, Research Approach/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. Please quote the above reference number for all queries relating to this study. Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

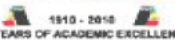


Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor: Professor Pranitha Mahara)
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Oliver Mtapuri
cc School Administrator: Ms Nolundi Mzolo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
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ANNEXURE B: Request for permission to conduct research.



To : Supervisor. Prof Praniitha Maharaj
School of Built Environment and Development Studies
University of KwaZulu Natal

From : The South African Men's Action Group

Date : 20 February 2019

RE: Granting Student a Permission Conduct Research

Dear Committee Review Protocol (University of KwaZulu Natal)

The purpose of this letter is to inform you that **South African Men's Action Group (SAMAG)** gives, Msomi Blessing Jabulani permission to conduct the research titled: **An overlooked minority: Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) on men in Pretoria at our organisation.**

This also serves as assurance that this organisation will assist the researcher to use our facility to conduct the research and also assist in identifying and organising the participants for his research.

The organisation also provide in house counselling to the members of the organisation as we know that this is a sensitive topic, if any of the participants need assistance will be able to assist and will ensure that these requirements are followed in the conduct of this research.

Sincerely,

Mokhethi Ranthako
Executive Director
078 550 1933

--- END---



ANNEXURE C: Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

(To be read out by researcher before the beginning of the interview. One copy of the form to be left with the respondent; one copy to be signed by the respondent and kept by the researcher.)

My name is Jabulani Blessing Msomi (student number 94090790). I am doing research on a project entitled 'AN OVERLOOKED MINORITY: INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV) ON MEN IN PRETORIA'. This project is supervised by Prof. Praniha Maharaj at the School of Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am managing the project and should you have any questions my contact details are:

School of Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban Cell: 082 3745641 Tel: 031 311 4252. Email: 9409079@ukzn.ac.za or bhidiza.msomi@gmail.com

Thank you for agreeing to take part in the project. Before we start, I would like to emphasize that:

- your participation is entirely voluntary;
- you are free to refuse to answer any question;
- you are free to withdraw at any time.

The interview will be kept strictly confidential and will be available only to members of the research team. Excerpts from the interview may be made part of the final research report. Do you give your consent for: *(please tick one of the options below)*

Your name, position and organisation, or	
Your position and organisation, or	
Your organisation or type of organisation <i>(please specify)</i> , or	
None of the above	

To be used in the report?

Please sign this form to show that I have read the contents to you.

----- (signed) ----- (date)

----- (print name)

Write your address below if you wish to receive a copy of the research report:

(Interviewer to keep signed copy and leave unsigned copy with respondent)

ANNEXURE D: Proof of manuscript submission for peer review



Dear Jabulani Msomi,

Thank you for your submission.

Submission ID

241893567

Manuscript Title

Intimate partner violence against men: a qualitative assessment

Journal

South African Review of Sociology

If you made the submission, you can check its progress and make any requested revisions on the Author Portal

Thank you for submitting your work to our journal.

If you have any queries, please get in touch with RSSR-peerreview@journals.tandf.co.uk.

Kind Regards,

South African Review of Sociology Editorial Office

ANNEXURE E: Interview Guides

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW: STUDY ON “AN OVERLOOKED MINORITY: INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV) ON MEN IN PRETORIA (TWO HOURS DURATION)

Introduction: My name is Blessing Jabulani Msomi and I am a PhD student with University of Kwa-Zulu Natal. As part of my studies, I am carrying out research on intimate partner violence in your area. Thank you for agreeing to participate in my research through this in-depth interview that will take approximately 1 hour and thirty minutes. The researcher welcomes the participant and thank them for taking part in the study. The interview starts: I welcome the participant, discuss with the participant briefly about the study and again ask for consent. I will tell him that he is free to withdraw from the study at any time no questions asked.

Characteristics of the participants

What is your age? [Please tick one box only]

Response	Code	Answer
>30	1	
<30	2	

What is your marital status [Please tick one box only]

Response	Code	Answer
Married	1	
Living together with your partner	2	
Engaged	3	
Never married	4	
Divorce	5	
Separated	6	
Widowed	7	

Do you have living child or children? If no, skip to question 4.

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Are they staying with you?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Are you currently in a relationship? [Please tick one box only]

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	
How long is the duration of the relationship?		
Response	Code	Answer
<6 months	1	
6-12 months	2	
1-2 years	3	
2+ years	4	
Other (specify)	5	

What is your sexual orientation? [Please tick one box only]

Response	Code	Answer
Heterosexual	1	
Bisexual	2	
Homosexual	3	
Other (<i>specify</i>)	4	

Highest education level passed? [Please tick one box only]

Response	Code	Answer
High education and less	1	
Post high school level of education	2	
Other (specify)	3	

Participants understanding of the IPV concept and GBV.

- 1) What is your understanding about intimate partner violence?

Please give examples of Intimate partner violence

- 2) Can you mention type/s of IPV you know?

- 3) Have you ever witnessed IPV and where did you witness it?

If yes, please give examples.

- 4) Can you differentiate between intimate partner violence and gender-based violence?

Yes, or no?

If yes, please give examples.

5) When did you realised you were in an abusive relation?

Prevalence of IPV in the community

6) Would you say IPV is common in your community? Yes or no?

If ye, do you know other men who are victims of IPV?

7) Are these men aware that they are victim of abuse? Yes, or no?

8) In your own opinion, why do these people not come out and seek help?

9) In your view, why do you think women use violence against men?

10) What is community's perception about male victims of IPV?

11) What do you think community should do in terms of IPV against men?

12) In your own view, how do you want community to address the issue of men abuse?

Types of violence men experienced.

13) What type of IPV did you experience?

14) How did it occur at first and for how long did it last?

15) How frequently was the abuse that was inflicted by your partner?

Reporting of IPV

16) Do men report the abuse against them? Yes or no?

17) In your own opinion, why men do not report abuse?

18) Did you report the abuse? Yes, or no?

If yes, who did you tell? If no, why you did not report?

Why men stay in abusive relationships?

19) Do you think men stay in abusive relationships? Yes or no?

If yes, why do men stay in abusive relationships?

If not, why they do not stay in abusive relationships?

20) Why did you stay in the abusive relationship?

Source of information about IPV

21) Do you know any institution that provide services to male victims of IPV? Yes or No.

If yes, have you contacted the institution for help?

22) Do you know any institution that provide services to female victims of IPV? Yes or No.

23) How did you find out about SAMAG?

24) Did you receive the services you needed?

25) In your own opinion, are these services enough for male victims of IPV? Yes, or no?

If no, what should be done?

26) In your own opinion, is there any information available on men abuse?

Media reporting on IPV and Government initiatives on IPV

27) In your view, how is media (both print and broadcast media) reporting on IPV against men?

28) In your own view, how is media (both print and broadcast media) reporting on IPV against women?

29) What do you think the media should do when reporting IPV in general?

30) What is your view about government initiatives in fighting IPV against men?

31) Is government doing enough to address IPV against men?

- 32) What strategies can be utilised to address men abuse?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION: STUDY ON AN OVERLOOKED MINORITY: INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV) ON MEN IN PRETORIA

(ONE AND HALF HOUR DURATION)

- 1) Tell me a little bit about yourselves and your work with men who are exposed to violence?
- 2) What is your understanding on IPV against men and your understanding between IPV and GBV?
- 3) In your own opinion, why do you think women use violence in their relationships?

Services offered.

- 4) When and how did you start offering services to male victims of IPV and why?
- 5) What services are your offering to male victims of IPV?
- 6) Do you think the male victim support services rendered by your organisation are enough to address the issue of men abuse in the community? Yes or no?

If no, what are your challenges?

- 7) Are you satisfied with the services offered by your institution to the male victims of IPV? Yes, or no?
- 8) How do you advertise your men's services?
- 9) Are victim support services easy to reach? Yes or no?
- 10) What kind of violence are men often subjected to?
- 11) How does the view of society affect their self-image of male victims of and how they identify themselves as victims?
- 12) Do you think men victims report the abuse to anyone? Yes or no.

If yes, who do they report the abuse to?

If no, why they do not report the abuse?

13) Do you know of other NPOs that are providing services to male victims of IPV?
Yes, or no?

If yes, what kind of support do you provide or give to men?

14) In your own opinion, does government initiatives address abuse against me?
Yes or no?

if yes, name the initiatives that you are aware of.

if no, what do you think the government should do to address the abuse against me?

15) What can be done to improve the effectiveness of the interventions that are being implemented?

16) In your own opinion, how do you find media reporting on men abuse?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SURVEY INTERVIEWS: STUDY ON AN OVERLOOKED MINORITY: INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV) ON MEN IN PRETORIA

(ONE- HOUR AND THIRTY-MINUTES DURATION)

SECTION 1: Characteristics of the participants

This section is on the characteristics of the participants.

1. What is your age?

Response	Code	Answer
>30	1	
<30	2	

2. What is your marital status?

Response	Code	Answer
Married or engages	1	
Living together with your partner	2	
Never married	3	
Divorce	4	
Separated	5	

3. What is your sexual orientation?

Response	Code	Answer
Heterosexual man	1	
Bisexual man	2	
Homosexual man	3	
Other (specify)	4	

4. Do you have living child or children? if No skip to no. 6

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

5. If yes, are they living with you?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

6. Are you currently in a relationship? If no, proceed to no. 9

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

7. How long you have been in any relationship? [Please tick one]

Response	Code	Answer
<6 months	1	
6-12 months	2	
1-2 years	3	
2+ years	4	
Other (specify)	5	

8. Is your partner employed? Then proceed to no. 11

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

9. Why are you not in any relationship? Proceed to Q 9

Response	Code	Answer
Feel like being single	1	
Just separated with my partners	2	
We have a break with my partner	3	
We don't see eyes to eye with my partner	4	
We were fighting a lot with my partner	5	
Other	6	

10. How long you have not been in any relationship? [Please tick one]

Response	Code	Answer
<6 months	1	
6-12 months	2	
1-2 years	3	

2+ years	4	
Other (specify)	5	

11. Highest education level passed? [Please tick one box only]

Response	Code	Answer
High school and less levels of education	1	
Post high school and more levels of education	2	
Other (specify)	3	

12. Which of this best describes your working situation? [For all]

Response	Code	Answer
Employed (full-time or part-time)	1	
Unemployed (studying inclusive)	2	

13. Are you aware of any abused men in community? if no, proceed to no.

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

14. Who was the victims of abuse?

Response	Code	Answer
A colleague	1	
A friend	2	
A neighbour	3	
A family member	4	
Did you report the abuse to anyone?	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	
Reason/s for not reporting the abuse?	Code	Answer
He asked me not to tell anyone	1	
Because he was ashamed that	2	
No one will believe him	3	
He still loves his wife	4	
His family was going to be embarrassed	5	
Did you tell anyone about the incident	6	

15. Are you aware of any institutions that cater for male victims of IPV

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	
If yes, where is it? (specify)	3	

16. Are you aware of institution that caters for female victims of IPV?

Are you aware of institutions that cater for female victims?

Response	Code	Answer
-----------------	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No	2	
----	---	--

Are female institutions well-advertised?	Code	Answer
---	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No	2	
----	---	--

Are female institutions easily accessible?	Code	Answer
---	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No	2	
----	---	--

Are you aware of services offered in these institutions?	Code	Answer
---	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No	2	
----	---	--

17. Do you think there must be institution men only?

Response	Code	Answer
-----------------	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No	2	
----	---	--

Who do you think should work in those institutions?

Response	Code	Answer
-----------------	-------------	---------------

Men only	1	
----------	---	--

Women only	2	
------------	---	--

Both men and women	3	
--------------------	---	--

Other (specify)	4	
-----------------	---	--

Why men institution only? reasons

Response	Code	Answer
-----------------	-------------	---------------

Confidentiality	1	
-----------------	---	--

Privacy	2	
---------	---	--

Haven	3	
-------	---	--

Will you seek help in male victims' institution if women were the one employed?

Responses	Code	Answer
------------------	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No	2	
----	---	--

Will you seek help or use men only institution if women are employed?

Response	Code	Answer
-----------------	-------------	---------------

Yes	1	
-----	---	--

No

2

18. Will you seek help in male victims' institution if women were the one employed?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

19. Why women use violence to men?

Reasons for women to use violence

Response	Code	Answer
Partner is jealous	1	
Partner wants to control in the relationship	2	
Women are just women nagging and seeking attention	3	
Partner wants to control in the relationship	4	
Maybe the partner has done something wrong and to upset her partner	5	
Self-defence	6	

20. Why men stay in abusive relationships?

Do men stay in an abusive relationship?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Reasons to stay in an abusive relationship

	Code	Answer
Men still love their partners	1	
Afraid that the perpetrators will abuse the children	2	
Afraid that the community will find out if they leave	3	
Want to keep it a secret (abuse) that's why they stay	4	
Depended on their partners for financial survival	5	

21. Ever experienced intimate partner violence

Ever experience IPV

Have you ever experiences IPV from the previous or current relationship?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Types of IPV experienced

Physical abuse	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Emotional abuse	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Sexual abuse	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Financial abuse	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

22. Frequency of abuse

Frequency of abuse

How often was the abuse?

Physical abuse	Code	Answer
Sometimes	1	
Frequently	2	

Emotional abuse	Code	Answer
Sometimes	1	
Frequently	2	

Sexual abuse	Code	Answer
Sometimes	1	
Frequently	2	

Financial abuse	Code	Answer
Sometimes	1	
Frequently	2	

23. Form of abuse men experienced.

Men who experience physical abuse

Age	Code	Answer
>30	1	
<30	2	
Marital status	Code	Answer
Married or engaged	1	
Living together with the partner	2	
Never married	3	
Divorced	4	
Separated	5	
Sexual orientation	Code	Answer
Heterosexual	1	
Bisexual	2	
Homosexual	3	
Education level	Code	Answer
High school or less education level	1	
Post high school level	2	
Employment status	Code	Answer
Employed	1	
Unemployment (studying inclusive)	2	

Men who experience Emotional abuse

Age	Code	answer
>30	1	
<30	2	
Marital status	Code	Answer
Married or engaged	1	
Living together with the partner	2	
Never married	3	
Divorced	4	
Separated	5	
Sexual orientation	Code	Answer
Heterosexual	1	
Bisexual	2	
Homosexual	3	

Education level	Code	Answer
High school or less education levels	1	
Post high school levels	2	

Employment status	Code	Answer
Employed	1	
Unemployment (studying inclusive)	2	

Men who experience sexual abuse

Age	Code	Answer
>30	1	
<30	2	

Marital status	Code	Answer
Married or engaged	1	
Living together with the partner	2	
Never married	3	
Divorced	4	
Separated	5	

Sexual orientation	Code	Answer
Heterosexual	1	
Bisexual	2	
Homosexual	3	

Education levels	Code	Answer
High school or less education levels	1	
Post high school levels	2	

Employment status	Code	Answer
Employed	1	
Unemployment (studying inclusive)	2	

Men who experience financial abuse

Age	Code	Answer
>30	1	
<30	2	

Marital status	Code	Answer
Married or engaged	1	
Living together with the partner	2	
Never married	3	
Divorced	4	
Separated	5	

Sexual orientation	Code	Answer
Heterosexual	1	
Bisexual	2	
Homosexual	3	

Education level	Code	Answer
High school or less education levels	1	
Post high school levels	2	

Employment status	Code	Answer
Employed	1	

Unemployment (studying inclusive) 2

24. Consequences physical abuse

Types of injuries men sustained

Did you sustain injuries

	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

Type of injury sustain

Broken rib	1
Blue eyes and broken teeth	2
Stab wounds	3
Broken arm/or leg/s	4

Body part targeted

Response

	Code	Answer
Head	1	
Torso	2	
Arms and legs	3	
Genital (e.g. crotch is for men)	4	

25. Did you report the incident to anyone?

Did you report incident to anyone?

Response

	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No (if no skips to Q 2 below)	2	

Who did you tell about the incident?

Response

	Code	Answer
A friend	1	
A sibling	2	
A parent/s	3	

A colleague/s	4	
How did they react?		
Response	Code	Answer
They were shocked	1	
They could not believe me	2	
They laughed at me	3	
They were angry at me	4	
It was a secret; I could not tell anyone	5	
Fear of losing custody of the children	6	
Shocked and fear	7	
Believe that their partners would change	8	
Who are likely to report the incidents		
Response	Code	Answer
Heterosexual men	1	
Bisexual men	2	
Homosexual men	3	

26. Reasons for no-reporting of the incidents

Why did you not report the incident?

Response	Code	Answer
Shocked and fear	1	
It was a secret; I could not tell anyone	2	
Fear of losing custody of the children	3	
Believed no one will believe me	4	
Believed that my partner would change	5	
My partner asked me no to tell anyone	6	

Who might have preferred to tell about the incident?

	Code	Answer
A friend/s	1	
A sibling/s	2	
A parent/s	3	
A colleague/s	4	

27. In your own opinion, do you think society is treating male victims of IPV like they treat female victims?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

28. Do you think male victims of IPV should talk about it openly and seek advice?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	

No

2

If yes, why?

Explain _____

If no, why not?

Explain _____

29. How does society view male victims of IPV?

Response	Code	Answer
Wimps	1	
Men that are not strong enough	2	
Cowards	3	
They are not mentally balanced	4	
They need help	5	

30. What do you want society to do to address the issue of men abuse?

Response	Code	Answer
They should treat men as they treat women	1	
They must not call them names	2	
They must be educated that anyone can be a victim of IPV	3	
They should be sympathetic to them	4	

31. What role do you think society plays in this issue of male victims of Intimate partner violence? (Please tick one)

Response	Code	Answer
They are not supportive enough	1	
They are judging the victims harshly	2	
They don't want to learn more about this type of violence	3	
They should fight against the abuse of men as well	4	

32. What role do you think society should plays in this issue of male victims of Intimate partner violence? [Please tick one]

Response	Code	Answer
They should be supportive	1	
They should stop judging	2	
They should learn more about this type of violence	3	
They should know that intimate violence is wrong to humankind	4	
They should fight against the abuse of men as well	5	

33. What are the best elements of men according to society expectations?

Response	Code	Answer
Men should be muscled	1	
Men should be able to fight for himself	2	
Look after the people he love	3	
Fight for his things (<i>including relationships</i>)	4	
Providing for their families and exercising leadership	5	

34. Coping mechanism men used

How did you feel about the incident?

Response	Code	Answer
I refuse to admit, I am in denial and hope my partner will change	1	
Accepted that my partner will never change	2	
I felt like, I was not in control in my family	3	
I felt useless and not man enough	4	

Where did you go after the incident?

Response	Code	Answer
I did not go anywhere locked myself in another room	1	
I took a walk to cool off	2	
I went to my parent's or friend's place	3	
I went to the bar for a few drinks to clear my head	4	
I sat in my car until I was fine	5	

35. How was the situation with the partner after the incident?

Situation in the house after the incident

Response	Code	Answer
I often feel totally alone when with my partner	1	
I am afraid of my partner	2	
I sometimes feel numb inside when I am with her	3	
I try to please my partner and my efforts still did not please her to find that my efforts still do not please her	4	

36. Do you feel that there must be institutions for male victims of IPV only?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

If yes, why? Explain cause men have no way to go and maybe these institutions will encourage men to open up and talk about these issues.

If no, why? Explain

.....

37. What do you think about the effectiveness of help available for male victims of Intimate partner violence? Would you say it is? [Please tick one]

Response	Code	Answer
Poor	1	
Inadequate	2	
Adequate	3	
Good	4	
Excellent	5	

38. In comparison to the help and support available for female victims of Intimate Partner violence, how effective would you rate the help and support for male victims? [Please tick one]

Response	Code	Answer
Poor	1	

Inadequate	2
Adequate	3
Good	4
Excellent	5

39. Who should be working in male victims' institutions?

Response	Code	Answer
Males	1	
Females	2	

40. Will you seek help in male victims' institution if women were the one employed?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

41. Is media both (both print and broadcast media) and biased in reporting IPV in general?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

42. Does media do justice when reporting abuse against men?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

43. Does media have a role in addressing IPV against men?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

44. What should be the role of media in society in addressing IPV?

Response	Code	Answer
Be neutral when report IPV whether against women or men	1	
Raise awareness about IPV against men	2	
Encourage discussion about IPV against	3	
Challenging social norms and behaviours that condone violence against women	4	

45. Is the Government doing enough to tackle this issue (men abuse)?

Response	Code	Answer
Yes	1	
No	2	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.