

AN ATTITUDINAL STUDY OF NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY STUDENTS ON  
DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN SOUTH AFRICA



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SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE  
DEGREE OF MASTER OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE DEPARTMENT OF  
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## DECLARATION

I declare that the mini-dissertation for the Masters' Degree in Sociology at the North West University (Mafikeng Campus) hereby submitted, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this institution or any other institution, that it is my own work and that all material contained herein has been acknowledged.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Lebogang Naomi Mfati', is written over a horizontal dotted line.

Lebogang Naomi Mfati

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people:

- God for giving me the strength to finish this research.
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## **LIST OF TABLES**

1. Table 1: Gender
2. Table 2: Nationality
3. Table 3: Age
4. Table 4: Educational level
5. Table 5: Marital status
6. Table 6: Location
7. Table 7: Do you consider domestic violence crime?
8. TABLE 8: Which gender do you think is mostly affected by domestic violence?
9. Table 9: Are the perpetrators of domestic violence fairly punished
10. Table 10: Have you experience domestic violence?
11. Table 11 : Domestic violence experience versus location
12. Table 12: Do you consider domestic violence a crime versus nationality?
13. Table 13: Have you experienced domestic violence versus gender versus marital status

## APPENDICES / ANNEXURES

### **Appendix 1**

Letter of Editing

### **Appendix 2**

1 Questionnaire for students

## ACRONYMS

ACARA - Assessment and Reporting Authority

ACARA -The Government is also working through the Australian Curriculum,

AIC - Australian Institute Of Criminology

CSVR -Centre for Study of Domestic Violence and Reconciliation

CaLD -Culturally and Linguistically Diverse

DAIP -Domestic Abuse Intervention Project

DV -Domestic Violence

DVA - Domestic Violence Act

FBO - Faith- Based Organisations

GBV - Gender -Based Violence

IPV - Intimate Partner Violence

MRC - Medical Research Council

NESBN - Non-English-Speaking Background

NGO - Non-Governmental Organisation

NHMP - National Homicide Monotony Programme

NICRO - National Institute for Crime Prevention and Rehabilitation of Offender

POWA - People Opposing Women Abuse

PTSD - Post Traumatic Stress Disorder

SAAP - Supported Accommodation Assistance Programme

SADC- Southern Africa Development Community

SAPS -South African Police Services

VT- Vicarious Trauma

WWSF -Women World Summit Foundations

## **ABSTRACT**

This study focuses on the views and attitudes of students of the Northwest University, Mafikeng Campus regarding domestic violence in South Africa. Quantitative research techniques are used. The primary data collection instrument is the questionnaire which is self-administered and the sample comprised of students from the North West University. Factors associated with the cause of domestic violence include power to control, drugs and alcohol abuse, socialization process and depression. Finally, the recommendations include stricter laws for domestic violence cases, educational campaigns on the negative implications of the problem and higher conviction rates for the perpetrators of domestic violence

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS	PAGE NO
<b>1CHAPTER ONE</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	3
1.3 Aim	4
1.4 Objectives	4
1.5 Significance of the study	4
1.6 limitation of the study	5
1.7 Definition of concepts	5
1.8 Methodology	6
1.9 Organization of the research	6
<b>CHAPTER 2 background literature</b>	<b>7</b>
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 History of domestic violence in South Africa	7
2.3 South African domestic violence statistics	10
2.4 Causes of domestic violence	12
2.5 Why women do not want to leave	17
2.6 Effects of domestic violence	20
2.7 What the law says about domestic violence	24
2.8 People at risk of domestic violence	27
2.9 Suggested solutions to domestic violence	29
2.10 South African intervention	31
2.11 Conclusion	34

<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	<b>36</b>
3.1 Theoretical frame work : Introduction	36
3.2	36
3.3 Learned theory	36
3.4 Learned Helplessness theory	38
3.5 Cycle of violence	40
3.6 Power a control wheel	41
3.7 Critics of theories above	42
3.8 Culture a violence theory	42
3.9 Ecological theory	42
3.11 Feminist theory	44
3.12 Exchange theory	46
3.13 Resource theory	46
3.14 Marital power theory	46
3.15The Duluth wheel model : figure 1	48
3.16 Duluth manner equality: figure 2	49
3.17 Cycle of violence : figure 3	49
<b>4 CHAPTER4</b>	
4.1 Methodology	52
4.2 Type of research design	53
4.3 Population	54
4.4 Sampling	54
4.5 Data collection instrument	54
4.6 Data collection	55
4.7 Data analysis	55
4.8 Ethical consideration	56

<b>CHAPTER 5</b>	<b>57</b>
5.1 Data analysis	57
5.2 Introduction	57
5.3 Descriptive analysis	58
5.4 Analysis	59
5.5 Cross thematic tabulation	61
5.6 Conclusion	62
5.7 Findings	64
5.8 Recommendations	69
5.9 Conclusion	69
Bibliography	70
Appendices	80

## CHAPTER 1 ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

This chapter presents the introduction of the study, statement of the research problem, aim and objectives of the study, significance, delimitations, and definitions of key concepts, methodology and organisation of the research.

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Saartjie Baartman centre (2011:1) states that domestic violence, also known as domestic abuse, spousal abuse, battering, family violence, and intimate partner violence (IPV), is a pattern of abusive behaviours by one partner against another in an intimate relationship such as marriage, dating, family, or cohabitation. In terms of scope, domestic violence includes physical aggression or assault (hitting, kicking, biting, shoving, restraining, slapping, throwing objects), or threats thereof; sexual abuse; emotional abuse; controlling or domineering; intimidation; stalking; passive/covert abuse and economic deprivation. Awareness, perception, definition and documentation of domestic violence differ widely from country to country, and from era to era. Domestic violence is one of the common crimes that women and children are exposed to in their daily lives in South Africa.

The rate of domestic violence has continued to escalate despite concerted efforts by the government of South Africa. Although statistics on these crimes are unreliable due to massive under-reporting of cases, Seymour (2002:12-20) articulates that a woman on average is assaulted by her partner 35 times before she goes to the police. Research indicates that one of three women is either sexually or physically assaulted in her lifetime (W.H.O 2003:1-24). Adekeye (2009: 25-50) argues that underreporting is due to cultural norms and the need to preserve the age-long practice of silence and confidentiality. The Beijing conference of 1995 advocated for elimination of all forms of violence against women. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) also protects the rights of women.

A community-based prevalence study conducted in three provinces of South Africa revealed that 26.8% of women in the Eastern Cape, 28.4% of women in

Mpumalanga and 19.1% of women in the Northern Province (Limpopo) had been physically abused in their lifetime by a current or ex-partner. This crime has no racial boundaries as supported by Varvaro (1998:40-51) and Barnett (2000:2-4) that domestic violence occurs to anyone irrespective of race, socio-economic, educational, occupational, ethnical, age and religious lines.

The Limpopo Province had a comparatively low report rate of domestic violence than other provinces because assaulted women were not keen in reporting perpetrators as they were afraid. If victims reported the situation to the magistrate, as a way of seeking refuge, they were either killed or suffered rejection by others as well as lacked support from fellow women. Some women were shot at the magistrate offices as a result of lack of protection from their partners (South African Police Service SAPS, 1998). The Limpopo province is characterised by lack of resources such as crisis intervention centres and shelters for the protection of abused women.

According to Idemudia (2009:6), women abuse has serious and long-term impacts on the victim and as a result, can have a negative impact on a woman's self-esteem, which in some cases, result in suicide. Efforts by the South African government to combat domestic violence include the proclamation of the Domestic Violence Act (no 118 of 1998), the Policy Framework and Strategy for Shelters for Victims of Domestic Violence in South Africa and the Maintenance Act (no 99 of 1996). Family courts have also been initiated to address the needs of women and children. Despite all these determinations, cases still go unreported as women fear further assaults and intimidations since they feel they are not adequately protected.

Issues of domestic violence are mostly given serious attention by women as they are the victims in most cases. In addition, pressure groups and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) provide support for women exposed to domestic violence. Women often organise protest marches against domestic violence but in some instances, some men get involved.

Adragna (1991:51-53) and Dobash & Dobash (1992:49-58) agree that domestic violence is a reflection of unequal power relationships, because of sexual and generational inequality in the home and the community. It thus, reinforces the idea that women and children are the property of men. If a woman tries to make her husband responsible for her abuse, she would be labelled as infantile.

An important aspect highlighted by Marc & Cwik, (2002:23-284) is that men use violence as a means of dealing with domestic problems and also as a means of resolving conflicts that arise with their wives. Traditionally, a wife and husband are given guidelines on how to resolve domestic problems but according to the literature, these guidelines are not working. In other words, it seems this encourages a cycle of abuse passed from one generation to the other without any form of support whatsoever from the extended family. This situation puts women in a dilemma as they are expected to provide care for their husbands and children. Unfortunately, they do not receive any appreciation from their husbands/partners.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Domestic violence has become a serious social problem in South Africa, especially for women living in rural areas. This is because some of them might not have formal education or any awareness of their rights and consequently are forced to stay in marriages and relationships that are not good for them in terms of health and all aspects of their lives.

Even with the sixteen days of activism against women and children abuse, seems to be increasing ;Vincent and Jourilies (2000:9) state that though there are many interventions such as giving restriction orders, providing services to victims of domestic violence and treatment programmes, evidence shows that these interventions are ineffective because very little has been done to stop violence against women.

This makes them disbelieve the justice system process. An uneducated female will have a more positive attitude towards male dominance than an educated one.

Knowledge is relevant to power, thus, women who have a low level of education may feel insecure and powerless. This is a major reason why women have to depend on men.

### 1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What is domestic violence?
- Do you consider domestic violence crime?
- Who is mostly affected by domestic violence?

### 1.4 AIM

The aim of the study is to assess the attitude and views of NWU students on women as victims of domestic violence.

### 1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- To assess the attitude and views of students on domestic violence among women;
- To understand the causes of domestic violence;
- To reveal myths about domestic violence; and
- To determine the solutions to domestic violence.

### 1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The following points highlight the significance of the study:

**To society:** it will make a contribution not only to rural communities but also in other communities. Publicising the negative aspects of domestic violence, through research such as this, may contribute in making fathers, boyfriends and husbands refrain from abusing their wives and girlfriends. This study will contribute in creating a better society where men take part in their family lives and help empower women. Institutions such as the Social Development, Saartjie Baartman Centre and crisis centre can also benefit from this study.

**To theory:** The study makes a contribution to theory by focusing on the causes and solutions of domestic violence in general. In addition, it applies relevant sociological theories to this study where applicable.

**To research:** by focusing on the attitudes and views of university students, the study highlights university youths perception of domestic violence

### 1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main focus of the study is on the attitudes and views of university students regarding domestic violence. Interviews of key respondents from the institution where the victims of domestic violence are kept and could not be conducted because the topic is considered sensitive by the management of the shelter.

### 1.8 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

**Emotional and psychological abuse:** Undermining your sense of self-worth, e.g., constantly criticising you, telling you that you are useless or stupid, calling you names, damaging your relationship with your children, humiliating you in public or privately; intimidating you; threatening physical harm to him/herself, to you and your children; destroying your belongings or the property; isolating you from your family and friends; harming your pets; being overly jealous and possessive; stalking you, i.e. following you or waiting for you at work or other places you frequent( Mayhew,Pecy,1996:20-35).

**Verbal abuse:** Calling you names; constantly shouting at you; swearing at you; talking to you as though you were a child or as though he/she owns you.

**Sexual abuse:** Forcing or attempting to force you to do any sexual act without your consent; raping or threatening to rape you (includes marital rape); treating you in a sexually humiliating manner (Mayhew, Pecy, 1996:20-35).

**Physical abuse:** Grabbing, pinching, punching, shoving, slapping, hitting, hair pulling, scratching, biting, throwing things at you; stopping you from getting medical care or forcing you to use alcohol and/or drugs

( Mayhew,Pecy,1996:20-35).**Economic or financial abuse:** Making or trying to make you financially dependent by maintaining total control over financial resources; not giving you money or only giving you a very small allowance; making your account for every cent you spend; stopping you from earning money; withholding access to money( Mayhew,Pecy,1996:20-35).

Misogyny is hostility and resentment towards women.

Misandry is hostility and resentment towards men.

## 1.9 METHODOLOGY

A quantitative research method is utilised in this study since the research involved the numerical assessment and interpretation of students attitudes and views on domestic violence. Quantitative data analysis techniques are used to analyse the data collected. This is discussed in detail in the data analysis section of this study. The methodology chapter discusses the methods in greater detail.

## 1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE MINI DISSERTATION

The mini-dissertation is organised as follows:

Chapter one comprises the general introduction and statement of the problem where the main focus of the study is presented;

Chapter two presents an overview of relevant studies on domestic violence, causes, effects, the low, vulnerabilities and solutions to domestic violence;

Chapter three comprises of reviews of relevant theories connected to domestic violence;

Chapter four is the methodology which gives direction on how the study was conducted including the research design, population, and data collection methods;

Chapter five: In this chapter, data analysis is discussed through tables, thematic analysis, uni and tri-variate tables; and

Chapter six: Presents the research findings, recommendation, and conclusions of the research study.

## **CHAPTER 2 THE BACKGROUND LITERATURE ON DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

Chapter two presents an overview of relevant studies on domestic violence, causes, effects, vulnerabilities and solutions to domestic violence.

### **2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW**

The Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998 defines domestic violence as 'physical abuse; sexual abuse; emotional, verbal and psychological abuse; economic abuse; intimidation; harassment; stalking; damage to belongings, entry into the complainant's residence without consent where the parties do not share the residence; or any other controlling or abusive behaviour towards a complainant, where such conduct harms, or may cause forthcoming harm to the safety, health or well-being of the complainant (Padayachee and Singh,1998:2).

According to Park ,fedler and dangor al. ,(2000:23), violence against women is defined as "any act of abuse, intended or unintended, verbal, emotional, psychological, sexual, or physical form which results in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or deprivation of liberty". Buzawa and Buzawa (1990:9) define it as violence between heterosexual adults who are living together or who have previously lived together in a conjugal relationship. It is therefore clear that domestic violence is usually directed at women by men with whom they live. It is also clear that domestic violence can be physical abuse, sexual abuse, and emotional abuse, verbal and psychological abuse. From the definitions above, domestic violence does not have to be physical only. In most cases, however, victims report domestic violence when it becomes physical. At that time, the victim will be emotionally and socially damaged.

### **2.2 HISTORY OF THE PROBLEM OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN SOUTH AFRICA**

The occurrence of domestic violence in South Africa is as old as the country itself. In the past, little help was available for victims of abuse. Abused women and children were mostly supported by welfare organisations.

Moreover, services for battered women and organisations only started emerging during the eighties. An organisation called People Opposing Women Abuse (POWA) took the initiative. POWA was started in 1979 by a group of volunteers (Van der Hoven, 2001:9-2).

The organisation was officially established in 1981 as a branch of the Witwatersrand Mental Health Society. POWA's aim is to assist women traumatised by rape, emotional, physical and financial abuse as well as sexual harassment and other forms of gender specific violence. In 1984, POWA opened the doors of the first shelter for abused women and their children in South Africa. Today, it has branches in Katlehong and Soweto. The organisation is sponsored by individuals, business and international bodies (POWA Annual Report, 1997-1998). The mission of POWA is to operate an effective and reachable gender sensitive support service that contributes towards the complete eradication of violence against women in society in order to enhance their quality of life (POWA Annual Report, 1997-1998).

Rape Crisis shelter for battered woman in Cape Town was opened in January 1986, and ten years later, it was the largest shelter of its kind in South Africa. The shelter offers both accommodation and counselling to battered women and their children. The shelter provides for sixteen women. Today, there are six shelters providing for abused women in Johannesburg, one in Port Elizabeth, one in Cape Town, one in Kimberly and two in Durban (Van der Hoven, 2001:12-30). The Trauma Clinic is a department of the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV) (Van der Hoven, 2001:12-30).

The clinic has extensive experience in trauma-related work and has been involved in this field since 1988, with regard to research as well as service delivery. The clinic is staffed by a multi-disciplinary team, including psychologists, social workers and a psychiatric nurse. Clinic services include: Individual counselling for people who have been affected by violence - both adults and Children; Group debriefings for couples, families and company employees; Educative talks and workshops concerning the experience of and

reactions to trauma and violence; Training courses for service providers working in trauma-related fields for example the police, social workers, paramedics and teachers. These courses address different aspects of trauma (Van der Hoven, 2001).

In Durban, KwaZulu-Natal, The Advice Desk for Abused Women has been operating since June 1989. This service offers a Hot Line to deal with crisis calls on a 24-hour basis, shelter services, support and counselling services for abused women, men and children, referrals to specialist organisations, training and consultation, community and in-service education programmes and support groups for abused women and men, children who have witnessed domestic violence and men who abuse their partners. The Women's Support Centre was opened in Cape Town in 1993, as a project of the National Institute for Crime Prevention and Rehabilitation of Offenders (NICRO) (Van der Hoven, 2001:12-30).

The project has become national, with trained counsellors, mostly volunteers from the National Institute for Crime Prevention and Rehabilitation branches. The project's mission is to empower women, communities and the criminal justice system to work towards equality, human rights and the elimination of domestic violence against women. This project offers individual counselling, group counselling, legal advice, shelter, education and training to abuse women. The National Institute for Crime Prevention and Rehabilitation of Offenders is a member of the Western Cape Network on Violence against Women and works closely with other organisations in addressing domestic violence (Van der Hoven 2001:12-30).

Apart from welfare organisations, the previous government (apartheid) was not involved in any support services for victims of crime. The Criminal Justice System treated victims merely as part of evidence in court. Victims' only function was to testify in court in order to find the accused guilty or not guilty. Victims had no special Rights (Van der Hoven, 2001:12-30).

## 2.3 SOUTH AFRICAN DOMESTIC VIOLENCE STATISTICS

South African Police Minister, Nathi Mthetwa released annual crime statistics for 2010-2011. On average, crime has decreased and the murder rate has dropped by 6.5%. However, the shocking part of it is that the figures showed a 5.6% increase in the number of women murdered last year. This, while police claim violence against women and children is a priority (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

Reported sexual offences decreased by 3.1% (there were 35 820 reported cases against women and 28 128 against children). The number of rape cases increased from an already alarmingly high number of 55 097 to 56 272. Mthetwa acknowledged that the actual number could be much higher since many cases go unreported. In the first ten years after the enactment of 1998 Domestic Violence Act (DVA), domestic violence remained a crime that received limited attention and not logged with the South African Police Services (SAPS) annual crime statistics. Most domestic violence cases are recorded as assault or assault with the intention to cause grievous bodily harm (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

The Southern African Developing Countries (SADC) protocol on gender and development calls on states to halve levels of gender-based violence (GBV) by 2015, but how is this measured if irrelevant statistics are gathered? Although the 2011 Crime report acknowledges most crime is perpetrated by someone, the victim knows -hence the connotation "social crime". This crime ranges from common assault to murder, marital rape and breaking of protection orders; all ultimately termed "domestic violence" (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

An example could be drawn from the Sowetan newspaper of 12 September 2011. Bossie Phungula, husband to Annie Phungula, admitted to stabbing his wife five times, pouring petrol over her and setting her alight last year. This brutal incident, which led to Annie Phungula's death four months later, occurred in the family home in front of their children and maid. One year later, Bossie Phungula was released due to lack of evidence. Such awful state

of affairs is one reason why national annual crime statistics remain silent on domestic violence (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

A 2010 review conducted by Gender Links and the South African Medical Research Council (MRC) provides a detailed analysis of how Gender Base Violence can be measured. Gender -Based Violence includes physical, sexual, psychological and economic intimate partner violence; rape and sexual assault by a partner, acquaintance or family member; and sexual harassment at school or work. The research further notes that in the period 2008-2009, 15 307 cases of domestic violence were opened in Gauteng and 12 093 cases involved a female victim (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

The same study involved a province-wide household survey. It revealed that 18.1% of women had been abused at least once in the 12 months preceding the survey, while 29% of men had abused their partner in a similar time period. This shows that routine data collected at local police station level is just a tip of the iceberg. Although 25.4% of women experienced rape at least once in their lifetime, only 3.9% had reported it to the police. Just 2.1% of women raped by an intimate partner reported the incident to the police. Women who experienced sexual or physical abuse in their relationships were more likely to be diagnosed with a sexually- transmitted infection, test positive for HIV, suffer from depression or consider suicide (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

The true extent of domestic violence may never be accurately measured by routinely collected data, but the presence of what is reported in annual crime statistics would be acknowledged to the extent of domestic violence in deeply patriarchal society (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

In accordance with the national gender-based violence slogan "Don't look away, act against abuse", it is time we confronted the problem and started talking about its extent, at least from what we can measure. We should also give credit where it is due and praise the police for including rape as a separate category for the first time since the Sexual Offences Act came into force in 2007 (Machisa ,2011:1-10).

According to (Machisa,2011:1-10), reporting domestic violence in crime statistics is not only to understand crime statistics, but it will also help in evaluating where South Africa stands in terms of women's empowerment and gender equality. In situations where women continue to be abused irrespective of the domestic violence and Sexual Offences acts should provoke serious further enquiry into social crime prevention.

More effort and different approaches are required in order to restrict all forms of domestic violence. It is most critical to step-up education, outreach and awareness programmes to sensitise citizens about existing legislations.

Prevention work will only succeed in reducing crime if all stakeholders agree to engage with the difficult underlying factors that contribute to a culture of violence (Machisa, 2011:1-10).

Hopefully, this country will see no more mistakes of justice such as in the case of Bossie Phungula, a man who admitted setting his wife on fire but was released to possibly murder again. Women like Annie Phungula deserve justice (Machisa (2011:1-10).

## **2.4 CAUSES OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

### **Social stresses**

Stress may increase when a person is living in a family situation with increased pressures. Social stresses due to inadequate finances or other similar problems in a family may further increase tensions. Violence is not always caused by stress, but may be one way that some people respond to stress. Families and couples in poverty may be more likely to experience domestic violence, due to increased stress and conflicts about finances and other aspects. Some speculate that poverty may hinder a man's ability to live up to his idea of "successful manhood", thus, he fears losing honour and respect. Theory suggests that when a man is unable to economically support his wife, and maintain control; he may turn to misogyny which is the mistreatment of women (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:45-60).

## **Power and control**

In abusive relationships, violence is suggested to arise out of a need for power and control of one partner over the other. An abuser will use various tactics of abuse (e.g., physical, verbal, emotional, sexual or financial) in order to establish and maintain control over the partner.

Abusers' efforts to dominate their partners have been attributed to low self-esteem or feelings of inadequacy, unresolved childhood conflicts, the stress of poverty, hostility and resentment towards women (misogyny), hostility and resentment towards men (misandry), personality disorders, genetic tendencies and socio-cultural influences, among other possible causative factors. Most authorities seem to agree that abusive personalities result from a combination of several factors, to varying degrees.

A causality view of domestic violence is that it is a strategy to gain or maintain power and control over the victim. This aligns with Bancroft's "cost-benefit" theory that abuse rewards the perpetrator in ways other than, or in addition to, simply exercising power over his or her target(s). He cites evidence in support of his argument that, in most cases, abusers are quite capable of exercising control over them, but choose not to do so for various reasons (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:45-60).

An alternative view is that abuse arises from powerlessness and externalising/projecting this and attempting to exercise control of the victim. It is an attempt to 'gain or maintain power and control over the victim' but even in achieving this, it cannot resolve the powerlessness driving it. Such behaviours have addictive aspects leading to a cycle of abuse or violence. Mutual cycles develop when each party attempts to resolve their own powerlessness in attempting to assert control.

Questions of power and control are integral to the widely utilised Duluth Domestic Abuse Intervention Project. They developed a "Power and Control Wheel" to illustrate this: it has power and control at the centre, surrounded by techniques used, the titles of which include: coercion and threats,

intimidation, emotional abuse, isolation, minimising, denying and blaming, using children, economic abuse, and male privilege. The model attempts to address abuse by challenging the misuse of power by the perpetrator (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:45-60).

The power wheel model is not intended to assign personal responsibility, enhance respect for mutual purpose or assist victims and perpetrators in resolving their differences. Rather, it is an informational tool designed to help individuals understand the dynamics of power operating in abusive situations and identify various methods of abuse.

Critics of this model argue that it ignores research linking domestic violence to substance abuse and psychological problems. Some modern research into the patterns in domestic violence has revealed that women are more likely to be physically abusive towards their partners in relationships in which only one partner is violent, which draws the effectiveness of using concepts like male privilege to treat domestic violence into question. However, it may still be valid in studying severe abuse cases, which are mostly male perpetrated. However, modern research into predictors of injury from domestic violence finds that the strongest predictor of injury by domestic violence is participation in reciprocal domestic violence, and that this pattern of domestic violence is more often initiated by the female in the relationship (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:45-60).

#### DRUG AND/OR ALCOHOL ABUSE

Drug and/or alcohol abuse may be a course for domestic violence. Substance abuse leads to out-of-control behaviour. The number one commonality within the dynamics of most alcoholic families is poor emotional health. This leads to secondary anger, which is an ineffective substitute in dealing honestly with emotion (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:45-60).

Domestic violence is more frequent where individuals experience loss of physical health and/or wage-earning power. It peaks during the Christmas

season as husbands, fathers, and single parents face pressures of paying bill collectors and buying Christmas gifts. The frustration of the inability to "make ends meet" increases conflicts in the home. Feelings of helplessness mount, and anger flares. In the face of inadequate coping mechanisms, violence erupts in the home and everyone loses (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:45-60).

## **2.5 REASONS WHY WOMEN DO NOT WANT TO LEAVE AN ABUSIVE RELATIONSHIP**

The most commonly asked question about victims of domestic violence is "Why do they stay?" Family, friends, co-workers, and community professionals who try to understand the reasons why a victim of domestic violence has not left the abusive partner often feel puzzled and frustrated. Some victims of domestic violence do leave their violent partners while others may leave and return at different points throughout the abusive relationship. Leaving a violent relationship is a process, not an event, for many victims cannot simply "pick up and go" because they have many factors to consider. To understand the complex nature of terminating a violent relationship, it is essential to look at the barriers and risks faced by victims when they consider or attempt to leave, for example a women who is being abused but cannot leave the relationship because of the children, money and shelter (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Fear**

Perpetrators commonly threaten victims, inflict harm, or kill them if they end the relationship. This fear becomes a reality for many victims who are stalked by their partners after leaving. It is also common for abusers to seek or threaten to seek sole custody, make child abuse allegations, or kidnap the children. Historically, there has been a lack of protection and assistance from law enforcement, the judicial system, and social service agencies charged with responding to domestic violence. Inadequacies in the system and the failure of past efforts by victims of domestic violence seeking help have led many to believe that they will not be protected from the abuser and

are safer at home. While much remains to be done, there is a growing trend of increased legal protection and community support for these victims (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Isolation**

One effective tactic abusers use to establish control over victims is to isolate them from any support system other than the primary intimate relationship. As a result, some victims are unaware of services or people who can help. Many believe they are alone in dealing with the abuse. This isolation deepens when society labels them as "masochistic" or "weak" for enduring the abuse. Victims often separate themselves from friends and the family because they are ashamed of the abuse or want to protect others from the abuser's violence (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Financial dependence**

Some victims do not have access to any income and have been prevented from obtaining education or employment. Victims, who lack viable job skills or education, transportation, affordable day-care, safe housing, and health benefits, face very limited options. Poverty and marginal economic support services can present enormous challenges to victims who seek safety and stability. Often, victims find themselves choosing between homelessness, living in impoverished and unsafe communities, or returning to their abusive partner (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Guilt and shame**

Many victims believe the abuse is their fault. The perpetrator, family, friends, and society sometimes deepen this belief by accusing the victim of provoking the violence and casting blame for not preventing it. Victims of violence rarely want their family and friends to know they are abused by their partners and are fearful that people will criticise them for not leaving the relationship. Victims often feel responsible for changing their partner's abusive behaviour or changing themselves in order for the abuse to stop. Guilt and shame may be felt especially by those who are not commonly

recognised as victims of domestic violence. This may include men, gays, lesbians, and partners of individuals in visible or respected professions, such as the clergy and law enforcement (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Emotional and physical impairment**

Abusers often use a series of psychological strategies to break down the victim's self-esteem and emotional strength. In order to survive, some victims begin to perceive reality through the abuser's paradigm, become emotionally dependent, and believe they are unable to function without their partner. The psychological and physical effects of domestic violence can also affect a victim's daily functioning and mental stability. This can make the process of leaving and planning for safety challenging for victims who may be depressed, physically injured, or suicidal. Victims, who have a physical or developmental disability, are extremely vulnerable because the disability can compound their emotional, financial and physical dependence on their abusive partner (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Individual belief system**

The personal, familial, religious, and cultural values of victims of domestic violence are frequently interwoven in their decisions to leave or remain in abusive relationships. For example, victims who hold strong convictions regarding the sanctity of marriage may not view divorce or separation as an option. Their religious beliefs may tell them divorce is "wrong." Some victims of domestic violence believe that their children still need to be with the offender and that divorce will be emotionally damaging to them (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Hope**

Like most people, victims of domestic violence have invested in their intimate relationships and frequently strive to make them healthy and loving. Some victims hope the violence will end if they become the person their partner wants them to be. Others believe and have faith in their partner's promises of change. Perpetrators are not "all bad" and have

positive, as well as negative qualities. The abuser's "good side" can give victims reason to think their partner is capable of being nurturing, kind, and non-violent (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Community services and societal values**

For victims who are prepared to leave and want protection, there are many of institutional barriers that make escaping abuse difficult and frustrating. Communities that have inadequate resources and limited victim advocacy services and whose response to domestic abuse is fragmented, punitive, or ineffective cannot provide realistic or safe solutions for victims and their children (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

### **Cultural hurdles**

The lack of culturally sensitive and appropriate services for victims who are non-English speaking, pose additional barriers to leaving violent relationships. Minority populations include African-Americans, Hispanics, Asians, and other ethnic groups whose cultural values and customs can influence their beliefs about the role of men and women, interpersonal relationships, and intimate partner violence. For example, the Hispanic cultural value of "machismo" supports some Latino men's belief that they are superior to women and the "head of their household" in determining familial decisions (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

Masculinity may cause some Hispanic men to believe that they have the right to use violent or abusive behaviour to control their partners or children. However, Latina women and other family or community members may excuse violent or controlling behaviour because they believe that husbands have ultimate authority over them and their children (Graham-Kevan and Archer, 2003:45-56).

## 2.6 EFFECTS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE



### FINANCIAL

Once victims leave their perpetrators, they are shocked with the reality of the extent to which the abuse has taken away their independence. Due to economic abuse and isolation, the victim usually has very little money of their own and few people on whom they can rely on when seeking help. This has been shown to be one of the greatest obstacles faced by victims of domestic violence, and the strongest factor that can discourage them from leaving their perpetrators. In addition to lacking financial resources, victims of domestic violence often lack specialised skills, education, and training that are necessary to find gainful employment, and also may have several children to support. In 2003, thirty-six major United States cities cited domestic violence as one of the primary causes of homelessness in their areas. It has also been reported that one out of every three homeless women are homeless because they left a domestic violent relationship.

If a victim is able to secure rental housing, it is likely that her apartment complex will have policies for crime; these policies can cause them to face eviction even if they are the victim of violence. While the number of shelters and community resources available to domestic violence victims have grown tremendously, these agencies often have few employees and hundreds of victims seeking assistance, causing many victims to remain without the assistance they need (Bonar and Roberts, 2006:1-30).

On an individual level, domestic violence creates complex economic issues for women and their children and disrupts their lives over the short and long term. Regardless of their prior economic circumstances, many women experience financial risk or poverty as a result of domestic violence. These difficulties hamper their recovery and capacity to regain control over their lives. Domestic violence directly affects women's financial security in key areas of life: debts, bills and banking, accommodation, legal issues, health, transport, migration, employment, social security and child support (Bonar and Roberts, 2006:1-30).

## **PHYSICAL**

Bruises, broken bones; head injuries, cuts, and internal bleeding are some of the severe effects of domestic violence incidents that require medical attention and hospitalisation. Chronic health conditions linked to victims of domestic violence are arthritis, irritable bowel syndrome, chronic pain, pelvic pain, ulcers, and migraines. Victims who are pregnant during domestic violence relationships, experience greater risks of miscarriage, pre-term labour, and injury to or death of the foetus (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000).

## **BURNOUT**

Vicarious trauma leads directly to burnout, which is defined as emotional exhaustion resulting from excessive demands on energy, strength, and personal resources. The physical warning signs of burnout include headaches, fatigue, lowered immune function, and irritability. A woman experiencing burnout may begin to lose interest in the welfare of her family, be unable to empathise or feel compassion for the children, and may even begin to feel hate for other people (Vincent and Jouriles, 2000:13-30).

## **HOMICIDE**

Domestic violence may end in homicide. Through the National Homicide Monitoring Programme (NHMP), the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC) monitors trends and patterns in homicide across Australian jurisdictions (Kristin, 2004:12-18).

The NHMP data are the most comprehensive collection on homicide in Australia, providing details of victims, offenders and the circumstances of incidents. Out of 260 homicide incidents in 2007-08, the majority (52 per cent) were classified domestic homicides involving one or more victims who shared a family or domestic relationship with the offender. Thirty-one per cent were intimate partner homicides. Fifty-five per cent of female homicide

victims were killed by an intimate partner compared to 11 per cent of male homicide victims. Indigenous people were over-represented in intimate partner homicides; one in five (20 per cent) victims was indigenous, as were nearly one in four offenders (24 per cent) (Kristin, 2004:12-18).

## **HOMELESSNESS**

Domestic violence is one of the typical pathways into homelessness for most women. The definition of homelessness used in the Supported Accommodation Assistance Programme (SAAP), the major government programme for homelessness in Australia, recognises the safety of an individual's or family's home as a factor in determining homelessness, as well as other factors such as whether housing damages a person's health, is affordable and provides an adequate level of facility (Kristin,2004:12-18).

The population of women who are homeless because of domestic and family violence is increasingly becoming a group with complex and multiple needs, that is, due to drug and alcohol dependency, mental health issues and disability (Kristin, 2004:12-18).

The reason presented by people to

Supported Accommodation Assistance Programme (SAAP) in domestic or family violence, account for 22 per cent of support periods. While SAAP clients do not represent the whole homeless population, for women with children, domestic or family violence accounted for 48 per cent of the Supported Accommodation Assistance Programme (SAAP) support periods.

## **2.7 WHAT THE LAW SAYS ABOUT DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

Legal definitions of domestic violence are usually described by the relationship between the parties and by the nature of the perpetrator's abusive behaviours. For example, the relationship may be a current spouse, a former spouse, a family member, a child, parents of a child in common, unmarried persons of different genders living as spouses, intimate partners of the same gender, dating relationships, and persons offering refuge. Such

definitions recognise that victims may not be exclusively women, and domestic assaults may not just occur between heterosexual couples. The types of behaviour frequently encountered in domestic violence are physical attacks, sexual attacks, psychological abuse, and the destruction of property or pets (ABS, 2005:1-50).

According to (ABS ,2005:1-50),Police responses to domestic violence have historically been clouded by notions, for example, the idea that a wife is the "property" of a husband and he has the right to adopt whatever behaviour necessary to "keep her in line." This idea and similar views reflect attitudes held by the greater society. Further aggravating the situation was the perception that domestic violence is not "real police work," and such disputes are private matters that should be kept within the household. Prior to the1980, when domestic situations were brought to the attention of the police, calls were often diverted by dispatchers, given a lower priority, or officers responded to the scene and departed again as quickly as possible without achieving any type of meaningful intervention.

Prior to the 1980s, the practice of police agencies was to use mediation in domestic incidents. Ironically, much of this so-called mediation was done only when one spouse was present. Several prominent court cases helped change legislation. In 1972, Ruth Bunnell was killed as a result of non-intervention by the police. Like many cases in South Africa, the issue of non-attendance by police often results in deaths.

In 1996, Maria Macias was killed in Torrington by her estranged husband after an order of protection was not enforced by the County Sheriff's Department. The victim had requested help from the department on 22 occasions. The lower courts held that women have a constitutional right to safety and equal protection, and the Sonoma County Sheriff's Department provided inadequate police protection based on the victim's status as a woman and a victim of domestic violence. In the late 1980s, there were many attempts to change the way police departments intervened in domestic violence situations. Inspired by Sherman's Minneapolis experiment, many

police agencies adopted preferred or mandatory arrest policies. Arrest both acknowledges that society views domestic violence as a criminal offense and also provides immediate safety for the victim (ABS, 2005:1-50).

The Department of Justice estimates that one out of every four South African women is a survivor of domestic violence. According to People Opposing Women Abuse (POWA), one in every six women who die in Gauteng is killed by an intimate partner. A survey conducted in 1999 revealed that 42.5% of women had experienced all forms of abuse and 60% of all cases of abuse were committed by partners, lovers or spouses. A victim of abuse needs to take action in order to prevent further and repeated abuse and, most importantly, to mobilise the law to protect them before it is too late (Wilson, 2009:1-26).

The Act and the relevant organs of State cannot assist a victim until that victim speaks out (Wilson, 2009). The Act is easily understandable and the remedies implemented by it are easily accessible by the public. Every magistrate's court has a domestic violence section and will be to assist a complainant immediately. Once the complaint is lodged, the complainant will be required to complete a set of forms and an affidavit, with the assistance of the domestic violence officer. An interim protection is then granted to the complainant; the interim order is served and explained to the respondent as soon as possible in order for it to be enforced. The respondent is thereby warned not to commit any acts of domestic violence against the complainant, with the threat of arrest and detention if he fails to comply (Wilson, 2009:1-26).

A return date on which both parties will be required to appear in court to present their cases is allocated by the court and both parties are warned to appear on that day. On the return date, the protection order will be made final; alternatively, it may be amended or dismissed (Wilson, 2009:1-26).

Protection order will not readily be dismissed by a court as the court has a duty to protect the public and specifically vulnerable groups of society. A study undertaken for a publication in SA Crime Quarterly, revealed that the attitude of magistrates who are delegated to either grant or dismiss these

orders, are often left with no alternative but to hand down a “conservative decision” in instances where details are “sketchy”. A complainant should therefore be well prepared when lodging a complaint and while it is not always possible or practical, it is in the complainant’s best interest to attempt to provide the court with evidence that the respondent has committed an act of domestic violence. This will ensure that the court is well informed of the circumstances giving rise to the application of the order, resulting in the complainant being granted the most competent order in order to afford them the most protection (Taylor, 2011:1-26).

## **2.8 PEOPLE WHO ARE AT RISK OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

Domestic violence cuts across social and economic boundaries and data on the effects of education, employment status and income are mixed. The IVAWS revealed that the experience of current intimate partner violence during the previous months varied according to education, labour force status or household income. Nevertheless, there is evidence those women who have lived with a violent partner, are more likely than other women to have low levels of education (women’s health, 2005).

ABS data indicates that unemployed women were more likely to experience both current and previous partner violence over their lifetime than those who were employed or not in the labour force. Women dependent on government pensions and allowances as their main source of household income were also at increased risk of violence by a previous partner over their lifetime (ABS, 2005:1-50).

Some women are more vulnerable to becoming victims of domestic violence and less able to leave violent relationships based on factors such as age, indigenous status, location, disability, ethnicity, and English language abilities (women’s health, 2005:1-50).

## **YOUNG WOMEN**

The White Ribbon Foundation points to gender roles and relations as a key factor in young women’s vulnerability to violence in relationships;

inexperience, age differences in relationships, and lack of access to services compound the problem (Wilson, 2009:1-26). It should also be noted that while young women are vulnerable to violence in relationships and more likely than older women to experience violence; violence perpetrated by young women, usually against young women, is increasing (Wilson, 2009:1-26).

In the National Survey on Community Attitudes to Violence against Women, young people had a strong understanding of the criminal nature of domestic violence. However, they were less likely than older respondents to understand complex aspects of violence in relationships such as the range and seriousness of behaviour that constitutes domestic violence, if and when it can be excused and who is most likely to be a victim. They were also more likely than older people to agree with some misconceptions about rape, for example, that it is usually perpetrated by strangers (Wilson, 2009:1-26).

An earlier research project on young people's attitudes to, and experiences of domestic violence, surveyed 5000 Australians aged between 12 and 20 years across Australia (Wilson, 2009:1-26). Researchers found that males with lower socio-economic status and indigenous young people were more likely to hold pro-violence attitudes. Furthermore, pro-violence attitudes were greatest in the youngest age group (12-14 years) and decreased with age (Wilson, 2009:1-26).

### **WOMEN WITH DISABILITIES**

The full extent of violence against people with disabilities is unknown. However, there is evidence that women with disabilities are more likely than those without disabilities to experience domestic violence (Cockram, 2003:1-32). Women with disabilities are particularly vulnerable to physical, sexual and psychological violence due to their situation of social and cultural disadvantage, and increased dependence (Cockram, 2003:1-32). Poverty, low education and low employment perpetuate power imbalances that enable domestic violence to thrive (Cockram, 2003:1-32). There are particular forms of abuse that are unique to people with disabilities, such as removal of an

accessibility device, withholding medication and threatening institutionalisation (Murray and Powell, 2008; 23-50). Adults with intellectual or psychiatric disabilities are particularly at risk of sexual assault and exploitation (Murray and Powell, 2008:23-50). When the abuser is the main provider, individuals suffer neglect, isolation and intense vulnerability to abuse; it may be impossible for them to get help (Murray and Powell, 2008).

As a broad indicator, ABS data indicate that experience of physical or threatened violence in the last 12 months was more common among 18-64 year olds with a core activity restriction (18 per cent) or a schooling/employment restriction of only (19 per cent), compared with those with no disability or long-term health condition (ten per cent) (ASB,2005).

## 2.9 SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

### VIOLENCE PREVENTION EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

The rationale for fostering respectful relationships among children and young people is clear. Many children and young people are exposed to, and influenced by violence in relationships and families, and violence-supportive attitudes, norms, and relations are already visible among young people. (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20-30) maintain respectful relationships education can prevent violence and reduce harm. (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20-30) argue that early interventions with children and young people can have a lasting effect on their relationships in the future. Australian researchers have produced guidelines on best practices in violence and sexual assault prevention through education, stressing the importance of a coherent conceptual framework; relevant, inclusive and culturally sensitive practice; comprehensive development and delivery and effective evaluation (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20-30).

The Australian government is funding Respectful Relationships Education Projects nationally. The primary focus of the programme is to develop the skills young people need in order to treat their partners with respect

through the provision of education to young people aged 12-24 years. Moreover, the aim is to work with young people in order to raise their awareness terms of ethical behaviour, to develop protective behaviours and develop their skills in establishing respectful relationships. The government is also working through the Australian Curriculum (ACARA) to support the inclusion of respectful relationships education in Phase Three of the Australian Curriculum (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20-30).

### **SAFE AT HOME PROGRAMMES**

Safe at home programmes are a relatively new model that works as part of an integrated, multi-agency approach. This model assumes that perpetrators of violence should be held accountable for their actions and removed from the family home, allowing women and children to stay (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20-30). All Australian jurisdictions now have laws which provide for exclusion orders as a condition of domestic violence orders, allowing the person seeking protection from domestic violence to remain in the family home, while the perpetrator is required to seek another accommodation (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20-30) posit that when women are supported to remain in their homes and communities, they are better able to maintain social support networks, employment and educational opportunities and stability of care for their children, all of which support them in their recovery (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20:20).

Safe at home programmes are unsuitable for women and children at extreme risk of violence from their partners or family members (Taylor and Mackay, 2011) .For those who are able to remain in their homes, risk management options that employ an integrated, multi-agency response to family violence are essential (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20). For example, the recently completed Victorian Be safe pilot project provided a risk management option for victims of family violence where they had obtained an intervention order and when pressed, an alarm is sent to a Vital Call response centre and alerted for the police to respond. The service has been applied to 72 women and more than 140 of their children over the past three years. Be safe has

been effective in reducing the incidence and severity of family violence. The enhanced police response served as a deterrent for some perpetrators and increased the likelihood of detection and prosecution. As a result of be safe, women and their children experienced increased feelings of safety. The additional level of support enabled them to remain in their homes and communities (Taylor and Mackay, 2011:20) Be Safe effectiveness in Australia can be applied in South Africa.

## **2.10 INTERVENTION MEASURES OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

Sixteen Days of activism against gender violence is an annual international Campaign that runs from 25th November to 10th December. The campaign began in 1991 to raise awareness about gender -based violence as a human rights issue. 2011 marked the 20th anniversary of the campaign and since its inception, over 3700 organisations in approximately 164 countries have participated in the Sixteen Days campaign. Over the 20 years, gender activists, civil society, governments, private sector institutions, faith- based organisations (FBOs), communities and development partners have used the period to highlight gender violence and call for sustainable strategies to address gender violence (Gender links ,2011:1-5).

The major concern across the globe in 2011 was the progress made in reducing the levels of gender violence in the last twenty years. This year also marked the launch of the WWSF nineteen days of activism for prevention, the Global Campaign for Prevention of Abuse and Violence against Children and Youth. The campaign runs from 1st to 19th November, World Day for the Prevention of Abuse and Violence against Children ([www.gov.za](http://www.gov.za)).

During the 16 days of activism, the South African Government runs a 16 Days of Activism Campaign to make people aware of the negative impact of violence on women and children and to act against abuse. They are firmly committed in leading a coordinated effort to sustain the campaign into its next decade ([www.gov.za](http://www.gov.za)).

Every year, the government, civil-society organisations and the business sector work together to broaden the impact of the campaign. By supporting this campaign, thousands of South Africans have also helped to increase awareness of abuse and build support for victims and survivors of abuse.

The nineteen Days campaign is an important step in the prevention of violence against children and women. The timeframe just preceding the 16 Days campaign highlights the important links between violence against women and children as well the importance of addressing the two issues separately as women and children have very different needs. As these campaigns grow in depth and scope, there has been a significant evolution of efforts to raise awareness and sensitise communities about gender based violence (Gender links, 2011:1-2).

### **FAMILY RESPONSIBILITY**

It is the family that is principally responsible for building the character of individuals, and it is in functioning families that feelings of self-worth, respect for others and conflict resolution skills are developed. It is thus vital that support be given to families to enable them to nurture these qualities which, if not developed in the early, formative years, are very hard to instil later (Kristin .2004:27-36).

### **COUNSELLING**

At the same time, it is important to break the cycle of violence in families where it occurs, as it has been established that children raised in this environment are more likely to become either victims or perpetrators themselves. For this reason, counselling (including techniques of conflict management, negotiation, anger control, etc. where appropriate) is vital for all family members affected by domestic violence. Community funding should be available for this in order to ensure accessibility to all who require it. Referral to full psychiatric care should be made where necessary as voluntary counsellors are not trained to deal with socio-phatic problems (Murray and Powell, 2008:15-35).

## SANCTIONS/PERMISSIONS

Violent behaviour injures victims and degrades perpetrators. Where an abuser seeks help to control his behaviour, help should be made available. However, this should be provided in association with, and not replace, appropriate punishment for the crime. Society must recognise the criminal nature of domestic violence and accord appropriate disciplinary sanctions. The general community must be encouraged to stop "minding its own business" and report/interfere/offer support/let their non-acceptance be known in local neighbourhoods especially in villages and town ships (Kristin, 2004:27-36).

## INTERVENTION ORDERS

Kristin (2004:28-36) states that intervention orders have become an important legal instrument in the management of domestic violence. When an order is issued, it should be accompanied by information about the availability of counselling. If an order is breached, attendance at counselling should be compulsory, in addition to any disciplinary sanctions.

She also specifies that consideration should be given to the expansion of the application of orders so that they protect women and children from all abusers. Uniform legislation and co-operation in all provinces and countries should allow an order issued in one state to be valid and enforceable in the other regardless of the jurisdiction under which it is issued.

## THE MEDIA

The media should broadcast awareness campaigns on domestic violence rather than acting irresponsibly by over-representing violence in news coverage and entertainment. Children, who have been soothed by exposure to violent programmes, demonstrate increased levels of violence in their play as it is considered that the practice may grow with them as some become gangsters and women abusers in their adult hood. This is more in children

from high risk backgrounds; meaning children from high crime activities areas such as Hill brow in Johannesburg, Cape Town flats. It is not reasonable to expect children who have experienced violent behaviour over a period of time and or via the television and video, not to eventually reproduce such behaviour. For this reason, strict controls must apply in children's viewing times (Gelles and Cornell, 1990).

It is sometimes suggested that the solution to domestic violence lies in equality for women and particularly in ensuring that all women are economically independent and therefore, strong i.e. in paid work. While in no way denying the importance of equality, women's action alliance does not believe that economic independence is a universal solution for domestic violence (Gelles and Cornell, 1990:1-15).

## 2.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented a review of literature on domestic violence. Causal factor associated with domestic violence were highlighted in the chapter. It also worked at possible solutions to the problem.

Domestic violence will never be eliminated until:

Effective solutions for preventing intimate partner abuse including providing economic opportunity, mentors, role models who are survivors of domestic violence, organised community programmes for youth and families; and a school environment that promotes prevention of abusiveness in any relationship. Adult family members can help prevent domestic violence by nurturing and providing consistent, structured supervision. Raising the awareness on intimate partner violence in society at large, as it occurs during domestic violence awareness Month every October, can be invaluable in educating people about this issue (Gelles and Cornell, 1990:1-15).

According to the House of Ruth, everyone can help find ways to stop domestic violence, either by donating money or time to a domestic-violence organisation, learning more about the problem, teaching children about healthy versus abusive relationships, listening in a non-judgmental way to a

domestic violence victim when he or she shares what they are going through. Moreover, giving victims information about where to get help, supporters of intimate partner abuse victims can also discourage sexist jokes and remarks, boycott movies that gratuitously depict intimate partner violence and violence against women. Writing legislation to support laws that protect and support intimate violence sufferers can also help in finishing domestic violence. Advocacy can further involve encouraging one's own health-care providers to post information about the issue. In the workplace, those who want to help stop domestic abuse can organise a drive or fundraiser for goods or money to give to a domestic-violence organisation (Gelles and Cornell, 1990:1-15).

### **3.1 CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAME WORK**

Chapter three presents the theoretical frame work that informed the study. It focuses on theories and debates about their relevance to this research. This chapter is organised in terms of selected themes.

#### **3.2 Social Learning Theory**

Social learning theory pioneered by Walker (1975:1-45) suggests that people learn from observing and modelling after others behaviour. With positive reinforcement, the behaviour continues. If one observes violent behaviour, one is more likely to imitate it. However, if there are no negative consequences (e. g. victim accepts the violence, with submission), then the behaviour is likely to continue. The theory suggests violence is transmitted from generation to generation in a repeated manner (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

Researchers as Walker have theorised that violence is learned. They argue that men batter because they learned violence in their families as children, and women sought out abusive men because they saw their mothers being abused. This is the learned behaviour theory of violence. Yet, women who witness domestic violence are no more likely to be battered as adults. Similarly, a study reported that women, who were physically or sexually abused as children, may be more likely to be abused as adults (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

Although research shows that boys who witness abuse in the home are seven times more likely to batter, nevertheless, most men who witnessed violence as children vow never to use violence and do not grow up to be batterers. A more consistent explanation for the relationship between witnessing and battering is that witnessing is one of many sources of information. Men also receive information from the larger society appropriate to control the wife and enforce control through violence. Furthermore, as emphasised in batterer's treatment programmes, boys who witnessed domestic violence and grew up to be batterers, learned more than just violence; rather, they

learned and thus can unlearn lessons about the respective roles of men and women that contribute to their abusive behaviour as adults (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

Closely related to the “learned behaviour” theory coined by Domestic Abuse Intervention Project were theories that described violence as the result of a loss of control. For example, many believed that men are abusive when they drink because alcohol causes them to lose control. Others explained men’s violence as a result of an inability to control their anger and frustration. These theorists argued that gendered societal expectations prevented men from expressing anger and frustration; these feelings grew until the man lost control and released his feelings through violence (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

This “loss of control” theory is contradicted by batterers’ behaviour. Batterers’ violence is carefully targeted to certain people at certain times and places. For example, batterers “choose not to hit their bosses or police officers, no matter how angry or ‘out of control’ they are.”

Abusers also follow their own “internal rules and regulations about abusive behaviours.” They often select to abuse their partners only in private, or may take steps to guarantee that they do not leave visible evidence of the abuse. Batterers also chose their tactics carefully; some destroy property, some rely on threats of abuse, and some threaten children. Through these decisions, “perpetrators make choices about what they will or will not do to the victim, even when they claim they ‘lost it’ or were ‘out of control.’ Such decision-making indicates that they are actually in control of their abusive behaviours (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

### **3.3 The Learned Helplessness Theory**

Another theory advanced is the “learned helplessness” theory by Lenore Walker(1975:1-45). A psychologist in the United States, Walker studied the behaviour of women who stayed in violent relationships. Walker hypothesised that women stay in abusive relationships because constant abuse strips them of the will to leave (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

The learned helplessness theory, however, does not account for the fact that there are many social, economic and cultural reasons why a woman might choose to stay in an abusive relationship. Women may often fear retaliation against themselves or their children, or they may not be able to financially support themselves or their children. They may be hated by their family and community if they leave (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

Furthermore, the learned helplessness theory is inconsistent with the fact that women surviving in abusive relationships, attempt to leave many times and routinely act in very conscious ways to try to minimise the abuse directed at them and protect their children. As (Dobash and Dobash,1992) explain, women are usually persistent and often tenacious in their attempts to seek help, but pursue such help through channels that prove to be most useful and reject those that have been found to be unhelpful or condemning." Battered women do not live their lives in a state of "learned helplessness." On the contrary, they often engage in a process of "staying, leaving and returning." during this process (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

Women make active and conscious decisions based on their changing circumstances. They leave for short periods in order to escape the violence and to emphasise their disaffection in the hope that this will stop the violence. In the beginning, they generally do not attempt to end the relationship, but negotiate to re-establish the relationship on a non-violent basis (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

In addition, the learned helplessness theory is based on perceived characteristics ostensibly shared by battered women, such as low self-esteem, a tendency to withdraw, or perceptions of loss of control. Those who espoused the theory, however, rarely took into account the fact that these "characteristics" might be, in fact, the physical and psychological effects of the abuse (Zorza, 2002:2-5).

Finally, the static model of "learned helplessness" is contradicted by the fact that the violence, and the woman's reaction to the violence, often change over time. The first episode of violence is generally minor; victims may be

surprised and shocked, and may not anticipate that it will occur again. Rather, as (Dobash and Dobash, 1992:90) explain, "Victims believe, anyone can have the potential to reform and still be committed to the relationship." Victims may begin to look into their own actions for an explanation. This is not surprising in societies which assign to wives, the responsibility of happy husbands and families; women are expected to ask how their behaviour 'caused' their husband's violence. Women eventually realise that solutions to the man's violence do not reside in a change of their own behaviour. For some, this realisation comes fairly quickly while others take longer to overcome such culturally constructed notions (Zorza, 2002:2-4).

### **3.4 Cycle of Violence**

Walker is the one who came up with the "cycle of violence" theory and it is the next theory that gained popularity in the United States. This theory was based on the belief that men did not express their frustration and anger because they became violent. The tension was released, and the couple enjoyed a "honeymoon" period, during which the husband was apologetic, and remorseful (Schechter and Ganley, 1995:85-90).

This theory, however, was not consistent with women's experiences. Many women never experienced a honey-moon period. Others stated that there was no gradual build-up of tension, but rather, unpredictable, almost random, episodes of battering. This theory also did not explain why men directed their explosions of rage only against their intimate partners (Schechter and Ganley, 1995:85-90).

Dobash and Dobash (1992:1-90) explain that: the conception of a cycle of violence is static rather than dynamic and changing, does not deal with intentionality, and the notion of the third phase as a 'honeymoon' phase believes the experience of women who indicate that even the process of 'making-up' or reconstructing the relationship is carried out against the background of a personal history of violence and coercion and in the context of few viable alternatives to the violent relationship.

This theory was often paired with the “family/relationship conflict” model. According to this model, “both the man and the woman contribute to violence in an intimate relationship.” This model assumes either that the relationship is characterised by mutual violence. According to Dobash and Dobash (1992: 85-90), “in many cases, a wife provokes her husband by ‘below-the-belt’ arguments prompting a violent response from her husband.” The woman’s behaviour contributes to the build-up of tension in the man, until the man explodes in a violent rage, followed by a honeymoon period.

### **3.5 Power and control wheel**

This theory evolved out of many discussions with battered women and Batterers through the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (DAIP) in Duluth. The Power and Control Wheel describes the different tactics an abuser uses to maintain power and control over his partner.

In abusive relationships, the batterer uses the pattern of tactics described in the Power and Control Wheel to reinforce his use of physical violence. Violent incidents are not isolated instances of a loss of control, or even cyclical expressions of anger and frustration. Rather, each instance is part of a larger pattern of behaviour designed to exert and maintain power and control over the victim. Power and control bring into their intimate relationships, certain expectations of who is in charge and what the acceptable mechanisms are for enforcing that dominance. These attitudes and beliefs, rather than the victim’s behaviour, determine whether or not perpetrators are domestically violent.

The exercise of male violence, through which women’s subordinate role and unequal power are enforced and maintained, is in turn, tolerated and reinforced by political and cultural institutions and economic arrangements.

Over time, however, DAIP began to realise that even this theory that batterers use violence in order to gain control and power did not sufficiently capture the phenomenon of violence. While the Power and Control Wheel

(i.e., coercive behaviours that establish power and control) did describe women's experiences, batterers in batterer's treatment groups did not articulate a desire for power and control when they talked about their use of these behaviours. Consequently, DAIP began to conceptualise violence within the larger context of society. Under this theory, violence is a logical outcome of relationships of dominance and inequality relationships shaped not simply by the personal choices or desires of some men to dominate their wives/girlfriends but, by how we, as a society, construct social and economic relationships between men and women and within marriage (or intimate domestic relationships) and families. Our task is to understand how our response to violence creates a climate of intolerance or acceptance to the force used in intimate relationships.



### 3.6 Criticisms of the Theories Above

Theories based on "mutual" violence do not take into account the different ways that men and women use violence in intimate relationships. Furthermore, any theory that describes violence as a response to "provocation" from the other partner is simply another form of victim blaming. This model does not account for instances in which a husband explodes over trivial issues or starts beating his wife while she is asleep (Zorza, 2002:1).

What is missing in all these theories is recognition of batterers' intent to gain control over their partners' actions, thoughts and feelings. The current understanding of abuse, represented by the "Power and Control Wheel," evolved out of many discussions with battered women and batterers through the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (DAIP) in Duluth. The Power and Control Wheel describes the different tactics an abuser uses to maintain power and control over his partner (Zorza, 2002:1).

In an abusive relationship, the batterer uses the pattern of tactics described in the Power and Control Wheel to reinforce his use of physical violence. Violent incidents are not isolated instances of a loss of control, or even cyclical expressions of anger and frustration. Rather, each instance is part of

a larger pattern of behaviour designed to exert and maintain power and control over the victim (Zorza, 2002:1-5).

The Power and Control Wheel is based on the assumption that the purpose of the violence is to exert power and control over the woman. The elements that formed the basis of earlier theories a boy witnessing abuse as a child, or substance abuse may be contributory factors, but not the cause of the violence. Rather, the batterer consciously uses these tactics to ensure the submissiveness of his partner to ensure that he gets his way. As Schechter and Ganley (1995:19-28) explain, perpetrators of domestic violence bring into their intimate relationships, certain expectations of who is in charge and what the acceptable mechanisms are for enforcing that dominance. Those attitudes and beliefs, rather than the victim's behaviour, determine whether or not perpetrators are domestically violent.

The exercise of male violence, through which women's subordinate role and unequal power are enforced and maintained, is in turn, tolerated and reinforced by political and cultural institutions and economic arrangements (Schechter & Ganley, 1995:19-28).

Over time, however, DAIP began to realise that even the theory that batterers use violence in order to gain control and power, did not sufficiently capture the phenomenon of violence. While the Power and Control Wheel describe women's experiences, batterers in batterers' treatment groups did not articulate a desire for power and control when they talked about their use of these behaviours. Consequently, domestic abuse intervention projects began to conceptualise violence within the larger context of society. Under this theory, violence is a logical outcome of relationships of dominance and inequality relationships shaped not simply by the personal choices or desires of some men to control their wives but, by how we, as a society, construct social and economic relationships between men and women and within marriage or intimate domestic relationships and families (Zorza, 2002:1-5).

### **3.7 CULTURE OF VIOLENCE THEORY**

This theory is derived from the idea that in large, pluralistic societies, like South Africa some subcultures develop norms that permit the use of physical violence to a greater degree than the dominant culture. Thus, family violence will occur more frequently in violent societies than in peaceful ones. Peer-relationships that support patriarchal dominance in the family and use of violence to support it are exemplary of this sub-culture. This theory has also produced theories with examples from pornography and violent images on TV supporting "culture of violence" against women. For example in South Africa, for the so-called coloured community is known for its violent nature and community (Lemke, 2001:1-5).

### **3.8 ECOLOGICAL THEORY**

This theory attempts to link violence in the family to the broader social environment. This includes the culture, the formal and informal social networks of the family, the closer family setting and circumstances, and the family history. This type of framework sets up a basis for a risk-theory of domestic assault based on the given criteria (Lemkey, 2001:1-5).

### **3.9 FEMINIST THEORY BY M.BOGRAD**

There are many different ideas within feminist theory of domestic violence, but Bograd in *Feminist Perspectives on wife abuse* has identified four common strains. These are: 1) that as the dominant class, men have differential access to material and symbolic resources and women are devalued as secondary and inferior; 2) intimate partner abuse is a predictable and common dimension of normal family life; 3) women's experiences are often defined as inferior because male domination influences all aspects of life; and 4) the feminist perspective is dedicated to advocacy for women. On the individual and couple level, different theories that integrate more psychological, sociological and biological perspectives exist (Lemkey, 2001; 12-15).

When feminism emerged in the 1960s and 70s, feminist scholars began assessing the history and impact of misogyny and gender inequality in various spheres of life. This led to the first modern works on abuse being published in the mid-1970s. During this period of early modern feminism, the perspective developed that patriarchy, in any and all forms, is the ultimate cause of all abuse against women, for patriarchy is seen as the overarching social construct which ultimately engenders abuse. Lenore Walker in her early classic on domestic violence asserts: "My feminist analysis of all violence is that sexism is the real underbelly of human suffering (Lemkey, 2001: 12-15).

Typically, violence against women is explained in terms of a power struggle, for feminists argue that in a patriarchal society, those with all the power (males) must resort to violence when their position of dominance is threatened. This feminist perspective on domestic violence is still fairly common. For instance, in a recent journal article, several feminists' state: "domestic violence is a consequence of patriarchy, and part of a systematic attempt to maintain male dominance in the home and in society. Male power and domination, and strident in its condemnation of patriarchy recognise that for many, the term "patriarchy being studied in detail (Lemkey, 2001:12-15).

### **3.10 EXCHANGE THEORY**

People hit and abuse each other because it achieves a certain goal and the benefit outweighs the cost. For example, if a husband is likely to suffer social censure and castigation, he may be less inclined to use violence as a means of control (Lemkey, 2001:12-15).

### **3.11 RESOURCE THEORY**

Resource theory was suggested by William Goode and states that women who are most dependent on the spouse for economic wellbeing (e.g. Homemakers/housewives, women with handicaps, the unemployed), and are the primary caregiver to their children, fear the increased financial burden if they leave their marriage. Dependency means that they have fewer options

and few resources to help them cope with or change their spouse's behaviour.

He theorises that the decision-making power within a given family derives from the value of the resources that each person brings to the relationship. This may indicate resources, financial, social and organisational (Lemkey, 2001: 12-15).

### **3.12 MARITAL POWER THEORY**

This theory hypothesises that power falls into three realms: power bases, power processes and power outcomes. Power bases consist of the assets and resources that provide the bases for one partner's domination over another. Power processes include the interactional techniques that an individual uses to gain control, such as negotiation, assertiveness and problem-solving. Power outcome refers to who actually makes the decision. According to this theory, partners who lack power will be more likely to physically abuse (Lemkey, 2001: 12-15).

3.17 Figure 1. Duluth Wheel Model: Power and Control



Domestic Abuse Intervention Programme in Duluth, Minnesota, USA. Adopted the model of a wagon wheel with spokes radiating out from its hub. Between the spokes of this wheel, behaviours are listed in eight major

divisions, all designed to create a dependency on the part of the victim partner on the controlling individual, who utilises these behaviours. (See figure 1)

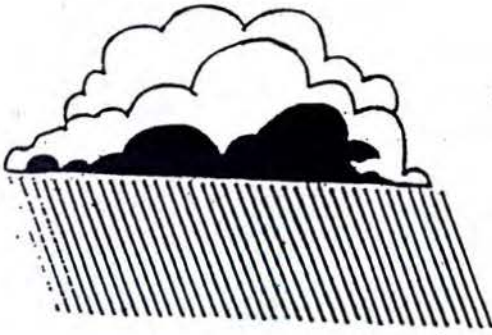
3.18 Figure 2. Duluth Wheel Model: Equality



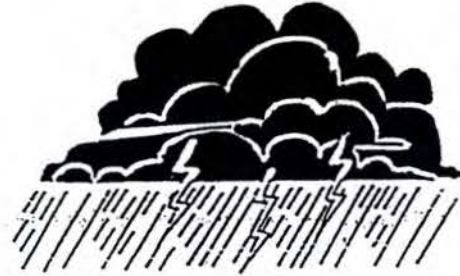
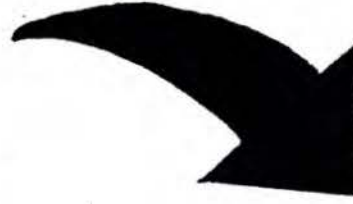
Using the theory that violence is a socialised behaviour, the Duluth Model offers non-controlling behaviours in each of the eight areas and urges batterers to exercise the non-controlling options instead of violence and abuse. (See Figure 2)

3.19 Figure 3. Cycle of Violence

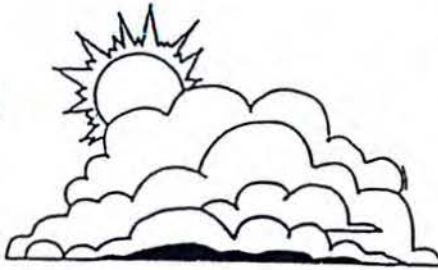
Figure 3 Cycle of Violence



Phase 1  
Increased tension, anger,  
blaming and arguing.



Phase 2  
Battering -- hitting, slapping,  
kicking, choking, use of  
objects or weapons. Sexual  
abuse. Verbal threats and  
abuse.



Phase 3  
Calm Stage (this stage  
may increase over time).  
Man may deny violence,  
say he was drunk, say he's  
sorry and promise it will  
never happen again.



Helton, A. S. (1986). Protocol of Care for the Battered Women.  
©1987. March of Dimes Birth Defects Foundation.

### 3.16 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, everybody has their own perspective about domestic violence and theory. According to theories mentioned above, women fail to get out of abusive relationships because of helplessness and hopelessness. Women in this kind of situation ask themselves questions like where will I go to, who will support my children? In fact, the above theories suggest that domestic violence continues even if a woman stays with her abuser.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **4.1 METHODOLOGY**

According to Hopkins (2000:1-10), a quantitative research design is an excellent way of finalising results and proving or disproving a hypothesis. The structure has not changed for centuries; it is standard across many scientific fields and disciplines.

Quantitative research is all about quantifying relationships between variables. Variables are things like weight, performance, time, and treatment. One measures variables on a sample of subjects, which can be tissues, cells, animals, or humans. It expresses the relationship between variables using effect statistics, such as correlations, relative frequencies, or differences between means. After statistical analysis of the results, a comprehensive answer is reached, and the results can be legitimately discussed and published. Quantitative experiments also filter out external factors, if properly designed, and so the results gained can be seen as real and impartial (Babbie, 1983:13-45).

The strengths of the quantitative method are highlighted in the following points:

- Stating the research problem in very specific and set terms (Babbie,1983:20-30);
- Clearly and precisely specifying both the independent and the dependent variables under investigation;
- Following the original set of research goals, arriving at more objective conclusions, testing hypothesis, determining the issues of causality;

### **4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Surveys are most often described as a method of gathering information from a sample of individuals. Surveys provide an important Source of basic knowledge. Because of the opportunity in obtaining knowledge, surveys have

a wide variety of purposes, dealing with a variety of issues (Lewis-Beck, 1995:2-25). A survey was used for this study for the following reasons:

- Surveys are relatively inexpensive (especially self-administered surveys);
- Surveys are useful in describing the characteristics of a large population. No other method of observation can provide this general capability;
- Consequently, very large samples are feasible, making the results statistically significant even when analysing multiple variables;
- Many questions can be asked about a given topic giving considerable suppleness to the analysis;
- There is flexibility at the creation phase in deciding how the questions will be administered. Standardised questions make measurement more precise by enforcing uniform definitions upon the participants.
- Standardisation ensures that similar data can be collected from groups then interpreted comparatively (between-group study); and (Lewis-Beck, 1995:45-30).

### 4.3 POPULATION

The Northwest University students were used as the population to conduct this study. Smith (1993) defines a population as including all people or items with the characteristic one wish to understand. Because of lack of time or money to gather information from everyone or everything in a population, the goal becomes finding a representative sample or subset of that population.

### 4.4 SAMPLING

**A non-probability sampling method was used namely, purposive or judgemental sampling method. The sample size was fifty comprising of males and female students of the North West University in Mafikeng. Of the fifty students 13 were males and 37 females.**

#### **4.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT**

The data collection instrument used in this study was a questionnaire comprising of open and close- ended questions. The questionnaire was used because it is an inexpensive way of gathering data from a potentially large number of respondents. Questionnaires are often the only possible way to reach a number of respondents large enough to allow statistical analysis of the results. A well-designed questionnaire that is used effectively, can gather information on both the overall performance of the test system as well as information on specific components of the system. The questionnaire included demographic questions of the participants, close- ended and open- ended questions to explain domestic violence in detail and was used to compare performance and satisfaction with the test system among different groups of users. Although questionnaires may be cheap to administer compared to other data collection methods, they are also expensive in terms of design time and interpretation.

#### **4.6 DATA COLLECTION**

The data collection process involved self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaire was designed to elicit the views of North West university students on domestic violence. The rationale for using self-administered questionnaires was because the students were easily accessible at the North West University Mafikeng campus.

#### **4.7 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis was done in three different ways .The first method was descriptive in nature and used tabulation analysis to show statistical quantitative analysis. The specific data was analysed through tables from demographic profile questions and close- ended in terms of the questionnaire. The second method was thematic in nature; this type of quantitative analysis was used for all open- ended questions. The last method was in the form of bi - variate and tri- variate tables to link variables.

#### **4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

##### **Safety of participants**

The primary concern of the researcher was the safety of the research participants. This was accomplished by carefully considering the risk/benefit of both participants and the researcher, using all available information to make an appropriate assessment and continually monitoring the research as it proceeded ( Trochim, 2006:1-6).

### **Voluntary participation**

Voluntary participation was requested from participants, and they were not forced into participating in the research. This was relevant because the researcher relied on the students' participation (Trochim, 2006).

### **Informed consent**

Essentially, this means that prospective research participants must be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved in research and must give their consent to participate. Ethical standards also require that researchers do not put participants in a situation where they are uninformed. The potential human subject must authorise his/her participation in the research study, preferably in writing, although at times, an oral consent or assent may be more appropriate ( Trochim, 2006:1-6).

### **Confidentiality**

The potential participant must be informed as fully as possible of the nature and purpose of the research, the procedures to be used, and the expected benefits to the participant and/or society, the potential of reasonably foreseeable risks, stresses, and discomforts, and alternatives to participating in the research. There should also be a statement that describes procedures in place to ensure the confidentiality or anonymity of the participant. The informed consent document must also disclose what compensation and medical treatment are available in the case of a research-related injury. The document should make it clear whom to contact with questions about the research study, research subjects' rights, and in case of injury (Trochim, 2006:25-30).

## **Anonymity**

The participants remained anonymous throughout the study even to the researchers themselves. Clearly, the anonymity standard is a stronger guarantee of privacy, but it is sometimes difficult to accomplish, especially in situations where participants have to be measured at multiple time points e.g., a pre-post study. Increasingly, researchers have had to deal with the ethical issue of a person's right to service (Trochim, 2006:25-30):

## **5.1 CHAPTER5 DATA ANALYSIS, PRINCIPAL FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.**

## **Introduction**

Chapter five presents the data analysis section of the study in terms of frequency distribution tables and the thematic analysis section. It also discusses the principal findings and recommendation of the study.

Data Analysis is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making. Data analysis has multiple facets and approaches, encompassing diverse techniques under a variety of names, in different business, science, and social science domains (Lewis Beck, 1995).

Data analysis was done in three different ways. The first method was descriptive in nature and used tabulation analysis to show statistical details. The specific data was analysed through tables from demographics profile questions and close- ended questions. The second method was thematic in nature; this type of analysis was used for all open- ended questions. The last method was in the form of bi - variate and tri- variate tables to link variables.

Sample size =50

Males =13

Females = 37

Total = 50

## **5.2 SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHICS analysis**

### **Table 1**

#### **Gender**

Responses	Number	Percentage
-----------	--------	------------

Male	13	26
Female	37	74
Total	50	100

Out of 50 respondents who were issued questionnaires to fill, 13 (26 %) were males and 37 (74%) were females. This shows that the study is dominated by females.

**Table 2**

**Nationality**

Nationality	Number	Percentage
South African	46	92
Others	4	8
Total	50	100

Out of 50 participants 46 (92%) were from South Africa and 4 (8%) from other countries. The table above shows that more participants were from South Africa than other countries.

**Table3**

**Age**

Age	Number	Percentage
18-25	25	50
26-33	14	28
34-41	8	16
42-49	3	6
50 and above	0	0

Total	50	100
-------	----	-----

Out of 50 participants, 25 (50%) were between the 18-25 years, 14 (28%) were between 26- 33 years, 8 (16%) between 33-41 years, 3 (6%) aged 42-49 years and 6(20%) between 50 and above. Table 3 shows that more participants were between 18-25 and 42-49 years.

#### **Table 4**

##### **Educational level**

Educational Level	Number	Percentage
Foundation	0	0
Diploma	4	8
Degree	21	42
Honours	18	36
Masters	6	12
PHD	1	2
Total	50	100

Out of 50 respondents, 0 (0%) had foundation level of education, diploma 4 (8%), degree 21 (42%), honours 18 (36%), masters 6 (12%) and PHD 1 (2%).

#### **Table 5**

##### **Marital status**

Marital status	Number	Percentage
Single	37	74
Married	7	14
Divorced	5	10
Separated	1	2
Widowed	0	0

Total	50	100
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Out of 50 participants, 37 (74%) were single, 7 (14%) were married, 5 (10%) were divorced, 1 (2%) separated, 0 (0%) widowed. Table 5 shows that majority are single followed by married participants.

**Table 6**

**Location**

Location	Number	Percentage
Rural areas	34	68
Urban areas	16	32
Total	50	100

Out of 50 participants sampled, 34 (68%) were from rural areas, 16 (32%) were from urban areas .Table 6 shows that rural area participants outnumbered urban area participants,

**Table 7**

**Do you consider domestic violence a crime?**

Response	Number	Percentage
Yes	49	98
No	1	2
Total	50	100

49 (98 %) students who participated in the study viewed domestic violence as a crime while 1 (2%) maintained it is not crime.

**Table 8**

**Which gender do you think is mostly affected by domestic violence?**

Response	Number	Percentage
Male	2	4
Female	48	96
Total	50	100

Table 8 shows that 96% of students maintain females are the ones who are mostly affected by domestic violence; only 4% think males are affected by domestic violence. This shows that more women are victims of domestic violence.

**Table 9**

**Are the perpetrators of domestic violence fairly punished?**

Response	Number	Percentage
Yes	10	20
No	40	80
Total	50	100

The majority, 40 (80%) of respondents said perpetrators of domestic violence are not fairly punished, while 10 (20%) said that they are fairly punished.

**Table 10**

**Have you experienced domestic violence?**

Response	Number	Percentage
Yes	3	6
No	47	94
Total	50	100

Out of 50 participants, 47 (94%) indicated they have not experienced domestic violence and 3 (6%) answered in the affirmative.

### **5.3 SECTION 2: THEMATIC ANALYSES**

Thematic analysis is a qualitative analytic method for: identifying, analysing and reporting patterns and themes within data. It minimally organises and describes data set in rich detail. However, frequently, it goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

#### **What constitute domestic violence?**

According to most participants, a person's back ground determines whether he or she will exhibit violent behaviour on his/ her partner, They maintain depression ,drugs and alcohol abuse are among the things that add fuel to the fire because of the suppressed anger resulting in poor self-esteem . Some said it is because of the nurturing environment that failed to adhere to the children need that constitutes domestic violence. Some argue that it starts with the family; if it is dysfunctional since the father always beats the mother, then the children will take after the father thinking it is the right thing to do to maintain peace in the family. This comes down to the patriarchal control and the need to be in control of many in society that adhere to patriarchal rule.

#### **What do you think is the primary cause of domestic violence?**

Many students believe the most common and primary cause of domestic violence is due to the need to have control over another person which leads to their using drugs and alcohol as a way out without thinking that alcohol and drugs can affect them and lead them to abuse other people. Others maintain the background of the person is determined by the way a person was raised; if he / she grew up in a hostile and violent environment, this will mean he can be a perpetrator in future, while others maintain it is just plain ignorance of patterns towards each other, some blame the nurturing of man

from birth because they believe if a man is well nurtured, he will first respect himself and others around him.

**Do you consider domestic violence a crime? Justification**

Participants indicated that domestic violence is a crime because the constitution of South Africa restricts people from harming other people. This is why they are jailed. Furthermore, no one has the right to harm any other person. Some participants refer to the actions of perpetrators as barbaric.

**Which gender is mostly affected? Justify your response**

Most participants believe women are the ones who are affected by domestic violence because they are considered to be weak and depend on men that is why most men take advantage of the fact that they are in need and can provide, and in turn, treat women the way they want without any problem with the law.

**How can domestic violence be reduced in this country?**

Respondents viewed education as the only way to reduce domestic violence in this country. They believe men should be educated from childhood on how to treat women and treat other women beside those who are close to them. Moreover, they maintain laws on domestic violence should be stricter than any other law because women are the ones mostly affected by domestic violence and most importantly, to protect children from the perpetrators.

**Have you experienced domestic violence? If yes elaborate**

Most participants indicated they have not experienced domestic violence.

**What should be done about children living in homes where there is domestic violence?**

Most participants mentioned that children should be moved to safer places by taking them from the home where there is domestic violence to a safe home like children's homes. They must also receive counselling from the

multi-disciplinary professionals such as social workers and psychologists most importantly, they must keep regular checks of the progress of these children.

**Are the perpetrators of domestic violence fairly punished? Justify your response**

Most participants hold that perpetrators are not fairly punished because of the following reasons victims' drop charges after a short time of laying the complaint about the incidence that happened to them and victims are also being threatened by perpetrators. In addition, there is a lot of corruption with the SAPS; this is why most of them do not even reach the court let alone jail. Those who have a lot of money are luckier because they do not get a docket opened in their names as one of the participants indicated " they are always getting bail or left without any action taken against them because the victims drop the charges or they pay the arresting officer." Another participant wrote "most of the times, they are given 12 months which is less, some who have connections are left Scott free." This statement stipulates that the country's legislative does not give the victim peace of mind to know that their perpetrators are behind bars. Instead, they are filled with fear of being attacked again. That is why most cases are not reported.

## 5.4 SECTION 3: BIVARIATE TABLES

**Table 11**

### **DOMESTIC VIOLENCE EXPERIENCE VERSUS LOCATION**

Have you experienced domestic violence?	Location			
	Urban area		Rural area	
	no	%	No	%
Yes	3	6	0	0
No	13	26	34	68
Total	16	32	34	68

The above table shows that more participants from rural areas have not experienced domestic violence, compared to 13 (26%) of urban students, while 3 (6%) of urban students have experienced domestic violence.

**Table 12**

**Do you consider domestic violence a crime? Versus nationality**

Do you consider domestic violence crime?	Nationality			
	South African		Others	
	no	%	no	%
Yes	45	90	4	8
No	1	2	0	0
Total	46	92	4	8

Out of 50 students, 45 (90%) from South Africa considered domestic violence a crime, while 4 (8%) of students from other countries considered domestic violence a crime, 1 (2%) of South African students do not consider domestic violence a crime. The table shows that most South Africans are aware that domestic violence is a crime.

## 5.5 TRIVARIATE

### Have you experienced divorce? Gender versus marital status

Divorce Have you experienced?	Gender																			
	Male										Female									
Marital status	Single		Married		divorced		separated		Widowed		single		married		divorced		separated		widowed	
	N	%	n	%	N	%	n	%	N	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Yes	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0
No	8	16	2	4	1	2	0	0	0	0	28	56	5	10	2	4	0	0	0	0
Total	8	16	2	4	2	4	0	0	0	0	28	56	5	10	3	6	1	2	0	0

The table above shows that 28(56 %) of single female students have not experienced divorce, compared to 8(16%) males. 5(10%) of married students have not experienced domestic violence compared to 2(4%) married male students.

## 5.6 FINDINGS

### The principal findings of the study are as follows:

- The majority of respondents view domestic violence as crime
- Regarding causal factors associated with domestic violence respondents identified social background, depression, drugs and alcohol abuse, children being exposed to domestic violence and the need for control by the perpetrator. The literature review section of the study also highlighted the significance of the socialisation process involving children socialising how to become perpetrators of domestic violence through observing their fathers. Physically abusing their mothers. Relevance to this point in the theoretical frame work is the social learning theory. An additional similarity in the literature review aspect of the study and causal factors identified by the respondents were the psychological need for control by the perpetrator.
- The majority of respondents indicated that most victims of domestic violence are females. This assentation is in line with crime statistics which reflect a high rate of victimisation amongst women. Justification for this pattern is the fact that males are physically stronger than females.
- Most participants stated that the perpetrators of domestic violence are not fairly punished.
- Regarding strategies designed to minimise domestic violence the respondents identified education, laws, children being moved to safer environments and counselling for those affected by domestic violence. Of significance is educating the perpetrators of domestic violence on the long term implications of this problem not only on women but also children. Highlighted in the literature review and theoretical frame work of the study observation of domestic violence by the children has the potential of making the perpetrators of domestic violence in their adult life.

## 5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

- The following recommendations are offered to solve problems regarding domestic violence:
- Stricter legislation on domestic violence that will restrict perpetrators from engaging in domestic violence.
- Parents are encouraged especially women to raise boys to respect women and to refrain from physical abuse and aggression.
- Media coverage should be given the negative implications of domestic violence throughout the country including rural areas.
- Street broadcasting is necessary on the negative impact of domestic violence on women, children and society at large
- More safe homes for victims of domestic violence are encouraged.
- Follow- up counselling to be instituted for victims, children and perpetrators of domestic violence.
- Strict rules on court interdictions for perpetrators should be followed.
- More conviction rates for perpetrators of domestic violence are encouraged.
- Corruption intervention within the South African police services should be eradicated.

## 5.4 CONCLUSION

The study has revealed that domestic violence is a serious crime to human nature because people who are mostly affected are women. Women are supposed to be respected. The ecological system is disrupted because of the effects of domestic violence on women. For example, victims of domestic violence may not recover entirely and that will bring sadness and stop the person from trusting others. Campaigns such as the sixteen days of activism against women and children abuse should be allocated more than 16 days so that the rubbing to perpetrators should get across, every day of their lives. Furthermore, NGOS should get support from the private sector as well as the government to improve the lives' of women who fled their marital homes due to domestic violence.

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**SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHICS**

Please respond by ticking in the appropriate box

**(1) GENDER**

Male  female

**(2) NATIONALITIES**

*SOUTH AFRICAN*  *OTHER*

If other please specify .....

**(4) Ages: 18-25**

26-33

34-41

42-49



50 and above

**(3) EDUCATIONAL LEVELS**

Foundation  Diplo  Degree  Honours  ters   
PHD

**(4) MARITAL STATUSES**

Single  Married  Divorced  Separated  Widowed

**(5) LOCATIONS**

Where do you come from?

Rural areas  urban area

**SECTION 2**

6 According to you what constitutes domestic violence?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

7 what do you think is the primary cause of domestic violence?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

8 Do you consider domestic violence a crime? Yes  No

Justify your answer

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

9 Which gender do you think is mostly affected by domestic violence?.

Male

Female

9.1 Give reasons for your response

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

10 How can domestic violence be reduced in this country?.....

.....

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

11 have you experienced domestic violence? Yes  No

11.1 If yes please elaborate

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.....  
.....  
.....

12 What should be done about children living in homes where there is domestic violence?

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.....

13 Are the perpetrators of domestic violence fairly punished yes  No

13.1 Justify your response

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