

***Adolescents' Perception
of Rape***

By

PREM JOTHAM HEERALAL HEERALAL

Submitted in accordance with
the requirements for the
degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in the Department of
PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION

of the

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND
(Durban-Umlazi Campus)**

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**SUPERVISORS: PROF. G. URBANI
DR A. VAN DER MERWE**

DECLARATION

I declare that

Adolescents' Perception of Rape

is my own work in conception and execution

and that

all the sources that I have used or quoted

have been indicated and acknowledged

by means of complete references.

.....
PREM J.H. HEERALAL

January 2004

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

- My precious wife RENU, whose love, support and prayers I treasure more than anything in the world. This thesis would not have been possible without her prayers and encouragement.
- My loving daughter, PARIKSHA and my precious gift RAHUL.

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- Prof G. Urbani for his scholarly advice in the execution of this study.
- Dr A. van der Merwe, my mentor, for his expert guidance and advice.
- The Department of Education and Principals in the Winterton and Bergville areas for granting me permission to undertake the research project.
- Grade 11 learners at schools in the Winterton and Bergville areas for their time in completing the questionnaire.
- Mrs Val van Rooyen for finalising the typing of this thesis.
- Dr M.M. Spruyt for editing this thesis.

ABSTRACT

In order to study adolescents' perception of rape, relevant literature pertaining to rape and adolescence as a stage in the development of an individual was reviewed. The literature review pertaining to rape deals mainly with the following aspects:

- Rape in terms of the law.
- Conditions in society that promote rape.
- Reasons for raping.
- Recognition of sexual abuse.
- Reactions to rape.
- Needs of the rape victim.
- Types of rape.
- Coping with rape.
- The responsibility of parents towards rape victims.

Literature on the following aspects of adolescence is also reviewed:

- Developmental tasks of the adolescent.
- Relations of adolescents.
- Characteristics of adolescent sex offenders.

The descriptive method of research was used to collect data with regard to adolescents' perception of rape. Grade eleven learners at selected schools in the Bergville District, Ladysmith Region of KwaZulu-Natal, completed an empirical survey comprising a structured questionnaire.

The data that was collected was analysed using inferential statistics. From the information gathered the following are the

most important findings of the research regarding adolescents' perception of rape:

- Adolescents are aware that rape is unlawful.
- Adolescents believe that effective law enforcement can curb rape.
- Adolescents do not believe that a culture of violence contributes to rape.
- Women are reluctant to report being raped.
- Adolescents' perception is that rape victims have difficulty in coping with relationships with other people.
- The study reveals that it is vital for rape victims to talk about the rape.
- Adolescents perceive rape as a crime of aggression.
- Adolescents do not want parents to support a child that has been raped.
- Rape is an action that decreases the self-esteem of women.
- They do not believe that there is any relationship between rape and family violence.
- They are uncertain if there is a relationship between women abuse and rape within marriage.

The study also reveals that there is a significant difference statistically between the responses of males and females regarding responses to question that deal with rape whereas there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females regarding questions based on adolescence as a developmental stage.

Based on the findings, the study makes the following recommendations:

- Adolescents must lobby support to ensure more effective law enforcement, speak out against rape and must not be put under pressure by peers to engage in sex.
- Parents need to communicate more effectively with adolescents.
- Law enforcement must be stepped up to curb rape.
- Programs must be put in place to educate adolescents regarding rape.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Rape is a traumatic event in the life of a person and has devastating consequences for the survivor. These consequences may be psychological or physical. The survivor tries to cope with them in order to maintain equilibrium. In 1995, the Human Rights Watch Report on domestic violence and rape, dubbed South Africa as 'the rape capital of the world' and cited a figure which had been quoted for some years by NGOs, asserting that there were 35 rapes for every one reported to the police (Human Rights Watch, 1995). During 1999 the issue of rape was debated at the highest level. The epidemiology of rape has become an issue of considerable political importance and sensitivity. According to Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:1) rape statistics for the country are currently elusive but levels of non-consensual and coerced sex is clearly very high.

Adolescence is a time of heightened sexual risk, not only because young people are experimenting with the newfound sexuality but also because they are inexperienced in communicating their sexual needs and desires to a partner (Rosenthal & Peart, 1996:321). Concerns about adolescents' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and other Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and the evidence of considerable sexual violence against women make it vital that more is learnt about the difficulties that young people have in negotiating sex and the factors that lead to coercion of one sexual partner by another (Holland *et al.*, 1991a:332; Gavey, 1992:325).

In light of the above, the aim of the present study is to research the perception of adolescents concerning rape.

Rape is *inter alia* a brutal attack against women, and always involves force or violence. Although women have for the past 30 years openly organised and educated the public around the issue of rape and given support to rape victims, it is still not easy for women to talk about rape as it makes them feel uncomfortable. They avoid discussing rape. Some women believe that the rape victim is not completely innocent. Such attitudes are deeply rooted in our society, which makes it extremely difficult for rape victims to speak about their experiences. Rape has to be viewed as a social problem rather than a product of individual psychopathology that is so common in criminological disclosure. Whilst recognising that in a small proportion of cases there are individual factors of overwhelming importance in the perpetration of rape, individualistic explanations are inadequate for understanding a phenomenon which is experienced by a very high proportion of South African women and perpetrated by a large proportion of men. Clearly the most important underlying causes of the problem of rape are rooted within the society, and fragmented though the data are, they point to gender power inequalities and low status of women. Other factors of importance are poverty, the generally high levels of violence in society and school abuse. Most of the research related to sex offenders focuses on adults. This study attempts to gain an insight into the perception of adolescents, regarding rape, by examining the reasons why rape takes place, the reactions to rape, the needs of the rape victim, the types of rape, how victims cope with rape and the responsibility of parents towards rape victims (Holland et al., 1991:332:335).

Adolescence is seen as a period of great stress and drama and we assume that all adolescents have to go through a difficult stage to arrive at adult status. They are constantly challenging adult views and decisions and they begin to think about abstract concepts such as freedom and justice and formulate their own views. The respondents in this study were grade 11 students. Adolescents of this age are physically and sexually matured, reaching the upper limits of their genetic potential for endocrine development, skeletal growth and total height and looking increasingly like the adults they are becoming. However, they are not yet emotionally mature. They often find themselves belonging nowhere and floating between childhood and adulthood. They need to adapt to change and redefinition as part of their development and find difficult coping with everyday problems that they encounter. Adolescents are also searching for a self-concept and identity. This is a time of asking questions like "Who am I?", "Who do I want to be?", and "What do I want to do with my life?" During these years adolescents' relationships change. Consequently the adolescent gradually moves away from his parents, and acceptance by and consorting with the peer group assume increasing importance. Friendships with members of the same sex deepen and heterosexual relationships rapidly assume a romantic or sexual dimension. One of the problems associated with the change in relationships is unrestrained sexual behaviour that may lead to rape. The adolescents' relationships with objects and ideas, others and God also influence their perception on rape (Gavey, 1992:325-351).

There is a growing concern over sexual crimes such as rape committed by adolescents. This concern has been fuelled by reports of major increases in the number of forcible rapes and other sexual offences perpetrated by the adolescent population.

This study will therefore also examine the characteristics on adolescent sex offenders.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

From the foregoing it is possible to state the research problem as follows:

- What are adolescents' perceptions of rape?

1.3 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

1.3.1 Gender issue

In this study all reference to any gender, includes reference to the other gender.

1.3.2 Adolescence

The term 'adolescence' is derived from the Latin verb *adolescere*, meaning 'to grow up' or 'grow to adulthood', thus referring to a developmental phase in the human life cycle that intervenes between childhood and adulthood. Efforts to link a specific chronological age to this phase are rendered difficult by major cultural differences. It also appears that the age at which adolescence begins is declining while the duration of adolescence is increasing (Vos, 2002:67).

It is not difficult to identify the onset of adolescence in an individual, since it is marked by clearly discernable physical and physiological changes. During puberty body growth accelerates, the reproductive organs become functional, sexual maturity is attained and secondary sexual characteristics appear. To

determine the end of adolescence is more difficult, since it is characterised by less conspicuous changes than puberty. Unlike the onset of puberty, where physical development is the main criterion, a variety of social, legal, psychological and economic criteria are applied to determine the end of adolescence (Vos, 2002:68).

From the social perspective adolescence ends when the individual assumes such adult roles as matrimony or parenthood. In South Africa adolescence ends legally when the adolescent is able to vote (at the age of eighteen), attains majority and no longer needs parental consent for his actions (at the age of twenty-one), and accedes to independent contractual competence and liability. Psychologically adolescence ends when the person attains certainty of identity and can be and can enter into adult relationships based on love and friendship. If economic considerations are taken as criterion, adolescence ends with the individual's ability to live by his own means and follow a successful occupation.

1.3.3 Rural area

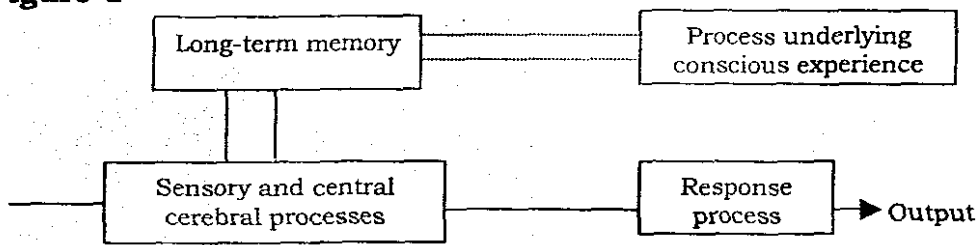
The definition of rural areas, according to Gilg (1985:5), rests on the ideas of population size, distance from a large town, or the degree of urban influence, but the most satisfying and complete definitions are those based on the appearance of the landscape and the intensity of land use. In this respect the most satisfactory definitions remain the ones proposed by Ilbery (1999:194) who argue that the word 'rural' describes those parts of the country which show unmistakeable signs of being dominated by extensive uses of land either at the present time or in the immediate past. Gilg (1985:5) points out that this definition has been widely used and accepted by rural

geographers and other rural workers such as rural sociologists. Gilg (1985:5) notes that the term 'rural' is conventionally employed to denote a delimited geographical area, characterised by a population that is small, unconcentrated and relatively isolated from the influence of large metropolitan areas.

According to Ilbery (1999:194) the concept of rural areas is both elusive and complex, and it has been changing over recent years. Coke (Ilbery, 1999:194) has identified four phases. The first phase equated rurality with particular spaces and functions, notably extensive land uses and low population densities. The second phase replaced these static concepts with more dynamic concepts of political economy in which rural life was seen as a power struggle between class interests. The third phase centred around post-modern notions of rurality as a social construct reflecting a world of social, moral and cultural values. The fourth phase has used post-structuralist deconstruction in an attempt to understand the symbolic meanings of rurality for people. Each phase should not be seen as mutually exclusive but as an alternate viewpoint with its own merits. Jones (1995) in Ilbery (1999:194) has argued that rural areas should now be seen as a melee of conflicting interpretations.

1.3.4 Perception

According to Dixon (1981:1) perception is just one of a whole class of phenomena which point to a relationship between brain, mind and behaviour. This relationship, represented in Figure 1, may be summarised by saying that the brain's capacity to register, process and transmit information, is by no means synonymous with that for providing conscious perceptual experiences. Manifestations of either capacity may occur without the other, and may be independent of the other.

Figure 1

Dixon (1981:2)

Perception, according to Toch and Smith (1968:6) seems clearly to result from the weighing and integrating of a whole host of factors and that the factors introduced into the weighing process, are those that have been learned largely unconsciously from past experiences. One of the most important of these factors is purpose. A perception may thus be defined as an implicit awareness of the probable consequences an action might have with respect to carrying out some purpose (Toch & Smith, 1968:6).

According to Cook (1979:2) perception may be defined as the way people react and respond to others, in thought, feelings and action.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The aims of the study are:

- To study relevant literature pertaining to rape.
- To undertake an empirical investigation among rural adolescents regarding their perception of rape.

- To formulate certain recommendations for adolescents, educators, parents, community leaders and social workers to assist them in identifying causes of rape and how it can be prevented.

1.5 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- A literature study of available, relevant literature will be carried out in order to base this study on an accountable theoretical base.
- An empirical survey comprising a structured questionnaire will be completed by grade eleven learners in the Winterton circuit of the Estcourt district, Ladysmith region of KwaZulu-Natal. A Likert-type scale questionnaire with three (3) response categories, *viz.* Agree, Disagree, Uncertain will be constructed. The three (3) response categories will ensure that respondents' selections fall into one of the categories enabling the measuring of the direction and intensity of adolescents' perceptions of rape.

1.6 FURTHER COURSE OF STUDY

In Chapter 2 relevant and available literature pertaining to adolescents' perception of rape will be reviewed.

Chapter 3 will describe the empirical research design, the reasons for the choice of the research method, permission to conduct the research at schools, sampling, research instrument to be used for the collection of data, administration of the questionnaire, pilot study, limitations of the study and how they will be overcome.

The presentation and analysis of the research data will be dealt with in Chapter 4.

Finally, Chapter 5 will provide a cursory summary, the findings of the study and recommendations made on the basis of this study.

1.7 SUMMARY

The researcher has laid the foundations for this study in Chapter 1. Concepts have been defined, the problem has been stated and the purpose of the study, as well as the methods to be used, has been outlined.

CHAPTER 2

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to undertake a study on *Adolescents' Perception of Rape* it is necessary to build a theoretical perspective on rape. In this chapter relevant literature on conditions promoting rape, reasons for raping, recognition of sexual abuse, reactions to rape, needs of the rape victims, rights of rape victims, coping with rape and the life-world of adolescents, will be reviewed. The literature review will commence by outlining rape in terms of the law.

2.2 RAPE IN TERMS OF THE LAW

The law prescribes what constitutes rape. Rape laws differ all over the world. These variations reflect different countries' attitudes towards the crime of rape. An international definition of rape does not exist. In South Africa the laws should, according to Lewis (1994:7) and Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:3) be more responsive to the needs of the rape survivor, and should increase the chances of a rapist being arrested and convicted.

The following are some of the definitions of rape:

2.2.1 Definitions of rape

According to the law, rape has taken place when a man has 'intentional, unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman without (Funk, 1994:4) her consent'. Funk (1993:8-9) and Lewis (1994:4) explained this definition as follows:

- **Intent** means that the man must have wanted to commit the rape.
- To show that the rape was **unlawful**, it has to be shown that:
 - the rapist is not married to the victim, but as rape in marriage is now recognised, this falls away; and
 - the rapist is over the age of fourteen.
- **Sexual intercourse** means that:
 - the man has to penetrate beyond the woman's vulva (the entrance to the vagina) with his penis;
 - the rapist does not have to achieve orgasm or ejaculate. Full erection and ejaculation, according to Sadock (1995:16) is not necessary; and
 - he can be charged with attempted rape if there is no penetration.

Other forms of sexual violence – such as forced anal and oral sex or penetration by foreign objects, such as bottles and knives – is called indecent assault (Sadock, 1995:16).

- **Without her consent** means that sexual intercourse took place against the woman's will. Consent, or agreement to have sex, is different from submission. When a man scares a woman so much that she submits against her will, he is still guilty of rape. The woman must be able to give her consent. She is not considered able to consent if she is unconscious, drunk or mentally disabled.

According to Keyser and Purdon (1995:2) rape takes place when a man forces a woman or girl to have sex without her permission. In South Africa the law stipulates that it is rape only if the man actually puts his penis into the woman's vagina. Funk (1993:8) defines rape as the forced contact or penetration of the anus, vagina or mouth by any object or body part.

Statutory rape, according to Lewis (1994:5) and Krivacsha and Money (eds) (1994:107) refer to sexual intercourse between an individual who is below the legal age of sixteen and an older offender. The legal age of consent is intended to differentiate adults, who can provide informed consent from children who are believed to be unable to provide such consent.

A number of authors distinguish between blitz and confidence or date rape (Bowie, Silverman, Kalick & Edbril, 1990:180-188). Blitz rape, typically referred to as stranger rape, is a sudden, surprise attack by an unknown assailant. Such rapes typically occur in settings deemed secure by victims, such as their own homes or in secluded outdoor areas, where the victim is taken by surprise. Stranger or blitz rape are more likely to involve threats to a victim's life, involve the use or threat of a weapon and result in greater violence and trauma to the victim (Bowie, Silverman, Kalick & Edbril, 1990:180-188); Bowie, O'Gorman & Sayers, 1991:102-109; Ellis Atkeson Calhoun, 1981:263-266). Confidence or date rape is characterised by interaction between the rapist and the victim for some duration prior to the sexual assault. In this form of rape, the victim knows the assailant: he may be a casual acquaintance or a romantic partner. According to Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:3) and Lewis (1994:5) whenever intercourse occurs against a woman's wishes, irrespective of the level of sexual intimacy reached, it is rape.

Gang rape is an informal term that is used to describe a rape where more than one man assaults a woman (Lewis, 1994:5).

2.2.2 Problems surrounding legal definitions of rape

Several reasons exist why the legal definition of rape is problematic (Lewis, 1994:6; Krivacsha & Money, 1994:106-109):

- For a crime to be defined as rape, intercourse must take place. Other violent assaults, such as oral and anal intercourse and penetration using objects such as bottles, are not considered as rape. These forms of sexual violence hurt a woman's body and mind just as much as being raped with a man's penis.
- In the past, the law did not recognise rape in marriage. According to the law, this meant that when a woman got married she also agreed to consent to any sexual approach her husband chose, even if it was violent. This has now changed with the passing of the Prevention of Family Violence Bill.
- Legally, only a man, can commit rape against a woman. Violent sexual acts between people of the same sex are not considered as rape. In reality men do actually assault other men and this is called sodomy. Sodomy is especially common in men-only institutions such as prisons. In these situations men may sexually assault other men whom they see as 'women' and therefore considered to be weaker or powerless.
- A woman who participates in a rape can be convicted as an accessory (partner in the crime) if she helps the man to rape someone, for example, by holding the victim down. The law cannot punish female rapists.

- In South Africa, a boy cannot be convicted of rape if he is of the age of fourteen years or younger. Because of his age he is assumed to be unable to have sexual intercourse. The researcher is of the opinion that there are no grounds for this belief. There is no reason why a boy under the age of fourteen should not be found guilty if he has committed rape.

2.2.3 **Legal punishment for rape**

According to Davis (1997:7) rape is considered a serious crime. It causes severe trauma for the survivor and should be punished accordingly. Unfortunately, sentences are often too mild and do not reflect the seriousness of the crime. Also, many rapists who are arrested are not convicted. Lewis (1994:7) cites some sentences that convicted rapists have received:

- A man rapes three women in Cape Town in 1987. He gets the death sentence after bragging in court about how much the women enjoyed it.
- A man rapes his eleven year-old stepdaughter in 1998. A doctor says that she suffers from depression and could be mentally scared for life. He is sentenced to seven years' imprisonment.
- A man rapes an American girl near a Pretoria disco in 1988. He gets five strokes with a cane.
- A Westonia man lifts a mentally and physically handicapped five year-old from her pram and rapes her. The offender, with a previous conviction for indecent assault, gets eight years' imprisonment.

- A Paarl man is sentenced to four years and six months' after attempting to rape a sixty-four year old woman.
- A Pretoria man commits incest with his twelve year-old daughter. She bears him two children. He is sentenced to six years' imprisonment in 1988.
- A Cape Town youth gets forty years for raping two children.

The most effective deterrent to rape, according to Lewis (1994:8) and Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:11-16) is an efficient law enforcement system, which makes rapists less confident about escaping punishment for committing a rape.

2.3 CONDITIONS IN SOCIETY WHICH PROMOTE RAPE

In order to understand rape and the experience of a rape survivor, it is necessary to explore some of the ways in which society shapes beliefs about sexual behaviour, relationships between men and women or the gender roles that they are expected to fulfil. It is also necessary to examine the possible effects of living in a society such as South Africa, which was characterised by divisions and inequalities. An understanding of such factors as poverty, unemployment, racism and a culture of violence help explain why rape is common.

2.3.1 Society's expectations of men and women

In society, relationships between men and women are unequal and women are often believed to be inferior to men (Lewis, 1994:8), differences in attitudes, behaviour and self-perceptions of males and females are encouraged from an early age.

Boys are brought up to be:

- in control of women;
- protectors;
- independent;
- strong and aggressive;
- sexually assertive and successful;
- ambitious and competitive; and
- unemotional (Lewis, 1994:8).

Girls are brought up to be:

obedient to men;
 in need of protection;
 dependent;
 weak and passive;
 shy and romantic;
 modest, pure and virginal;
 gentle, nice and kind; and
 emotionally supportive (Lewis, 1994:8).

A man learns that society expects him to be strong, forceful and controlling. In almost all cultures, a man has certain powers over a woman just because he is a man. Violence against women, including rape, is largely the result of unequal power relationships between men and women in society. Rapists believe that to be a man he must use force and be dominant in his sexual relationships. He believes that it is right to overpower his victim. A society in which a man is taught to be competitive and aggressive, especially in his sexual relationships, is called a 'rape culture', because such attitudes are the main contributors to the incidence of rape.

2.3.2 **Beliefs about sexual behaviour**

When dating, many men measure their success by whether they can have sex or not. Some men believe that a woman who agrees to a date, allows a man to express sexual affection in consenting to sexual intercourse (Funk, 1993:3; Lewis, 1994:9). A woman's refusal to 'go all the way', and the belief that she says no to sex even when she 'really means yes', frequently leads to a man using force. A man learns that society expects him to be forceful, controlling and sexually assertive. Sexual violence against women makes some men feel that they are living up to what it means to be a man. Such beliefs often lead to date rape. Because these beliefs are common, but false they are often called rape myths (Lewis, 1994:9).

2.3.3 **Women's economic dependence on men**

One way in which a woman experiences inequality in society is that her position in the economy is weaker than a man's. For this reason, many women are economically dependent on men. One consequence of this dependence is the belief by men that they 'own' their wives, partners and children (Lewis, 1994:92; Coveney, Jackson, Jeffrey, Kay & Mahony 1984:13).

A husband or male partner often feels that he has the right to use violence against a woman to discipline her, or to express his frustrations. In many cases a woman may also believe that she is the 'possession' of her husband, boyfriend, and that these men have the right to use violence against her (Lewis 1994:9; Jewkes & Abrahams 2002:9).

2.3.4 Unemployment and work dissatisfaction

Work is an important part of a person's life. Unemployment threatens a man's sense of self because society expects him to be strong, independent and the breadwinner (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:8; Lewis, 1994:9). Many employed men are also dissatisfied because they are paid poor wages, they work in dangerous conditions, they experience racism or they do not get promoted. This dissatisfaction grows and makes them feel angry and powerless if they are unable to change their work situation. If a man gets angry about his work situation, the target for his anger is woman, especially a woman he has control over at home. She is someone whom he can overpower and dominate, and who cannot challenge his physical strength. In this way the man regains some of his power and therefore his masculine self-esteem (Coveney, Jackson, Jeffreys, Kay & Mahony, 1984:14; Lewis, 1994:9).

2.3.5 Racism

A person who experiences racism also feels powerless and angry. He may try to overcome his feelings and powerlessness by dominating those who are weaker than he is, such as women and children (Lewis, 1994:10; Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:10).

2.3.6 Alcohol and drug abuse

A man may use alcohol and drugs to lessen the stress that he feels because of financial and relationship problems. Using these substances makes him feel better for a short while. However, these substances also make it easier for him to express many feelings that are usually kept in control. For example, drinking

makes it easier for a man to express his anger and frustration and contributes to violent behaviour (Lewis, 1994:10).

2.3.7 A culture of violence and rape

According to Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:9), the term 'culture of violence' is used to explain and describe the high rate of violence in South Africa. A culture of violence means that there are many people in society who think that violence is the most effective way of solving problems and satisfying their desires: they use violence, including rape, to achieve their goals. Gang rapes have developed as a part of the popular culture of gangs in many townships. The rapists are usually young men and their victims are young girls. Violence happens in public and in private; behind closed doors, or in the privacy of the home. Violence occurs less visibly in the form of wife battery, rape and child abuse (Lewis, 1994:10; Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:9). Rape occurs because violence is internalised as a norm and one aspect of this violence acting out is sexual abuse (Power, 2003:3).

2.3.8 Rape as a weapon of war

There is a high incidence of sexual violence during wars. Rape is often used in an organised way during war, as a weapon of terror and intimidation. The belief that women is the 'property' of man helps to explain the use of sexual violence during war: by raping a woman, opposing armies humiliate their male enemies by destroying their 'property', and by showing that they are not able to protect their women. In war situations, gang rape is the most common form of rape (Funk, 1993:2; Lewis, 1994:12).

2.4 REASONS FOR RAPING

Research on rape indicates that many of the commonly held beliefs, or myths, about rape have been proven wrong. No matter what the reason for raping is a man has no right to rape a woman (Lewis, 1994:12).

2.4.1 Why do men rape?

There is no simple explanation for why men rape. However, one thing that is common to all rapists is that they have trouble with issues of strength and power. Often the rapist does not feel powerful enough in his everyday life. He may feel that he does not get enough respect or that he is a failure at work. By raping a woman he makes himself feel more powerful (Funk, 1993:4).

Because rape is a sexual act, it is often felt that it happens because of a man's sexual desires (Lewis, 1994:13; Funk, 1993:4). Research findings clearly show that this belief is false because (Krivacsha & Money; 1994:111; Lewis, 1994:12):

- It suggests that a man is not responsible for his actions during a rape. However, rape is seen as an impulsive and unplanned act against an unknown woman. In fact, about half of all rape involves a man who is known to the survivor, and most rapes happen in the woman's home. Most rapes are also planned in advance. A man losing control when a woman provokes him does not cause rape.
- Women who are perceived "sexy" or beautiful are not the only women who get raped. Rapists choose women who seem helpless and vulnerable. Rape is an act of aggression and

power and not of sexual desire. All women are raped, including very old women and babies.

- Even a man who has an active sex life can rape. Studies and interviews done with convicted rapists show that many of these men had regular sex with their wives or girlfriends. It is also common for a man to continue raping a woman when he has little or no feelings for her.

The above-mentioned findings indicate that not only man's sexual feelings cause him to rape a woman (Krivacsha & Money, 1994:111; Lewis, 1994:14).

2.4.2 Why do women get raped?

According to Lewis (1994:13) and Jewkes and Abrahams, (2002:112) it is a common myth that women encourage rape. The fact is that nobody wants to get raped. Some women may look for sexual attention by dressing "daringly", but they are not asking to be raped. Women irrespective of all age, race and class get raped. It does not matter what a woman looks like, how she dresses or how old she is. Despite these facts, many people feel that it is the woman's fault if she is raped.

It is also a myth that women enjoy being raped. Rape has seldom any relevance to sexual pleasure. It is violent and humiliating, physical and emotional abuse. A rapist uses sex as a weapon in order to hurt a woman. It is a powerful way of making a woman feel bad. A rapist is more likely to be overcome by anger than by sexual passion, and he is more likely to rape a woman because he needs to feel powerful, than his need for sex (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:13).

2.4.3 Where does rape occur?

A large number of rapes are planned, and this influences where they happen. The majority of rapes happen in places where a woman is alone and the rapist will not be interrupted. Both public places and a home can be dangerous. The belief that the home is a safe place, and that a woman can escape rape by avoiding dark alleys, is a myth. Rape can happen anywhere and anytime. More than half of all rape cases take place in the home of a woman, rapist or friend (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:11; Lewis, 1994:17).

Rape occurs everywhere. However, in some communities rape happens more often. Studies show that environments such as townships that have poor lighting, and a lack of public transport, may increase the likelihood of rape. In poorer areas, where there are more criminal gangs, where people feel less powerful and where there are fewer police and other resources to fight crime, the incidence of rape is likely to be higher (Lewis, 1994:20).

2.5 RECOGNITION OF SEXUAL ABUSE

2.5.1 Incidence

There is a general perception that rape is under reported in the country, but the police's conservative estimate suggests that a woman is raped every 30 seconds (Khumalo, 2003:8). The South African Police Services' figures for 2000 showed recorded sexual crimes against children at more than 25 000 (Terreblanche, 2002:9). According to Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:4), police statistics are the most readily available source of information about the magnitude of the problem of rape and provide a basis of comparison between countries. Data available show that the

rape reported to the police (240 incidents of rape and attempted rape per 1 000 000 women per year) represents the tip of the iceberg of sexual coercion (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:1).

A representative community-based survey in South Africa has found, for example, that in the 17-48 age group there are 2 070 such incidents per 10 000 women per year (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:2). Forced sexual initiation is reported by a third of adolescent girls. In addition coerced consensual sex is a problem in schools, workplaces and amongst peers. Jewkes and Abrahams (2002:1) conclude that the rape statistics for the country is currently elusive but levels of non-consensual and coerced sex is clearly very high. In 1996 there were 44 222 cases of completed rape, which is equivalent to 210 incidents per 10 000 women (CIAC, 2000:4). By comparison, in the United States in 1990 there were 102 555 reported cases with an annual rape rate of 80 per 10 000 females (Ramin, Satin, Stone & Wendel, 2000) and 132 incidents per 10 000 women in Botswana (Emang Basedi Women's Association, 1998:5).

2.5.2 Recognition of abuse and barriers to reporting

Many women will only try to report to the police incidents that fall within the popular notion of rape because of the fear of not being believed (Stanton, 1993:16). These fears are confirmed by police assertions that many women lie about rape. There is a range of other barriers to reporting rape incidences to the police, *inter alia*, problems of physical access to police (Artz, 1999:14), fear of retaliation by the perpetrators and fear of the legal process including experiencing rudeness and poor treatment by the police (CIET Africa, 1998:15). Many women do not go to the police because they anticipate that ultimately their action will not lead to the perpetrator being punished. Few rape cases are heard in

court, ranging from 5% and 50% of the reported cases at Soweto police stations (CIET Africa, 1998:15), and of those, which do, only between 7-13% result in conviction and custodial sentences (Masimanyane Women's Centre, 1999:16).

Women may be unwilling to recall and discuss with an interviewer experiences, which were unpleasant and humiliating and/or may be associated with shame, guilt or fear of blame (World Health Organisation, 1999:17). Good questionnaire design, including triggers to enhance recall, will elicit higher levels of reporting without leading to over-reporting (Koss, 1993:61-75). Furthermore fieldwork approaches, which create a supportive environment for women to disclosing information and psychological support by field workers in their very difficult role, also can greatly influence and improve reporting incidences of rape (Jewkes, Watts, Abrahams, Penn-Kekana & Garcia-Moreno, 2001:93-104; Ellsberg, Heise, Pena, Agurto & Winkvist, 2001:1-16)).

2.5.3 Role of religion

Religion and morality, particularly sexual morality, have long been interconnected, strongly influence teaching about sexual matters. While some sex roles are biologically based, more are socially induced and reinforced by sex role stereotypes. These stereotypes are beginning to be acquired by children as young as two and are their strongest at ages six and seven. They will influence what children are able to disclose and how. They will also influence what adults are able to see and hear and how they interpret that material. Unfortunately, in both adults and children these factors make it harder, not easier for children to disclose sexual abuse (Noller, 1991:55; Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:62).

2.5.4 Validation of statement of abuse to children

Faced with all the difficulties many adults have in believing the actuality of sexual abuse to the real child, the normal denial of most abusers and the apparent lack of collaborative evidence, it is often necessary to look at circumstantial evidence which indicates whether an allegation is valid or not. According to Bennetts, Brown and Sloan (1992:62), the evidence available would contain the following elements:

- Spontaneous complaint by the child to a reliable adult such as a teacher;
- Supporting circumstantial evidence by way of the behaviour of the child which is not associated with sexual abuse;
- Investigative interviews which confirms the spontaneous complaint;
- Supporting medical evidence;
- Supporting forensic evidence;
- Evidence which indicate that the alleged abuser had the opportunity to abuse the child;
- Confession by the alleged abuser; and
- Family history.

2.5.5 Child's statement

Few children are able to give initial statements that contain great detail of the abuse. The coping mechanisms of a frequently abused child may lie in the child's ability to forget details of the abuse. In these circumstances, the child may concentrate on a particular feature of the room, which may be recalled more vividly than, for example, whether or not the abuser was wearing socks. Changes in the account should thus not necessarily be equated with false allegations. Threats, particularly violence, may not be a feature of the initial disclosure but such threats are frequently uncovered at a later stage. Statements that are personal to the child and contain personal pronouns and names are more likely to be credible. The child is telling the story of what actually happened to them (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:62; Boyd, Hagen & Cho, 2000:5).

2.5.6 Medical and forensic evidence

Unequivocal medical and forensic evidence can be very helpful in that it is more likely to result in conviction. It also makes it extremely difficult for either the abuser or abused to withdraw the allegations. Medical evidence is sometimes confused with forensic evidence and consequently overemphasised. Medical evidence can only support the probability of abuse, and is but part of the supporting evidential assessment. The lack of medical evidence does not rule out abuse. Even if there is medical evidence it cannot be used to positively identify the abuser. This is very different from forensic evidence that may positively identify the abuser (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:64; Blaske, Borduim, Henggeler & Mann, 1989:850).

2.5.7 Family history

When the family history of the victim of abuse is examined, there is frequently a history of abuse in either or both parents and other family members. This is, of course, very different from implying that abuse victims will grow up either to be the parents of abused children or abusers. Many do not, but a background history of abuse seems to militate against parental ability to protect their own children, unless the parents have been able to deal effectively with the consequences of their own abuse. A family history of abuse does not identify the abuser of the child, although it may point to a range of possible suspects (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:65).

2.5.8 Witness

While it is uncommon for there to be a witness to the actual abuse, knowledge of its occurrence may be more general than is always discovered (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:65).

2.5.9 Confession by the alleged abuser

The more convincing the evidence given by the victim the more likely it is that there will be a confession by the abuser. A premature exposure of suspicion of abuse gives the abuser time to find alternative and credible explanations. Careful planning of the investigation to gather as much information as possible is essential. An unplanned hasty investigation may result in short term protection but is unlikely to result in long-term safety of the victim (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:66).

2.5.10 Accommodation syndrome

Child sexual abuse is commonly described as a syndrome of secrecy and helplessness into which the child is entrapped by the adult abuser. To survive emotionally, the child must accommodate the abuse by adapting his or her own behaviour to make sense of the behaviour of the all-powerful adult. When the child eventually discloses the abuse, the disclosure may be conflicting and unconvincing. Typically this will be an angry teenager who has already been labelled a delinquent, and who is reacting against adult authority (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995:30; Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:66).

2.6 REACTIONS TO RAPE

2.6.1 Rape Trauma Syndrome

Rape trauma syndrome describes a pattern of physical, emotional and behavioural responses, which occur as a reaction to a crisis (Rape Crisis Manual, 1998 and 1999; McFarlane, 1995:31).

Victims to a rape respond to the trauma of rape in various ways (Lewis, 1994:112) therefore the symptoms of rape trauma syndrome may manifest themselves in varying degrees. A woman is said to be experiencing rape trauma syndrome if many of the symptoms are experienced intensely and at the same time (Lewis, 1994:112). Burgess and Holmstorn (cited in Allison & Wrightsman, 1993:197) report that all rape victims suffer from rape trauma syndrome to some degree. Donaldson (1997:109) asserts that even those who avoided a completed rape may experience symptoms of rape trauma syndrome.

Rape trauma syndrome may be divided into two phases, *viz.* Physical, social, psychological and sexual aspects. Each can

affect all facets of the victim's life. Phase one is characterised by the immediate reactions to rape, which may last for days or weeks and are usually quite severe. The second phase looks at the long-term process of coming to terms with the reactions and trying to deal with the pain and hurt in an effective manner.

(1) Physical symptoms

Shock is one of the physical symptoms of rape which may be expressed in various forms, from being absolutely calm and unemotional to shaking, crying or laughing hysterically, twitching, an inability to think, feeling cold, faint, disorientated, nausea and vomiting. Colhoun and Atkeson (1991:113-142) suggest that these reactions are common particularly when the event is sudden and unexpected.

The rape survivor experiences various illnesses and body pains. Gynaecological problems include irregular, heavy periods, vaginal discharged, bladder infections, sexually transmitted diseases and pregnancy. The rape survivor may experience headaches, stomach pain or pains in other parts of the body; there may be tears in the vagina or rectum. Cuts, bruises and lacerations might also be found on other parts of the body as well. The rape survivor might feel sick and dizzy or might experience irritation or soreness of the throat due to oral sex. These symptoms might be the result of the shock of the rape, or a medical problem (Colhoun & Atkeson, 1991:113-142).

(2) Behavioural symptoms

A rape survivor might cry often, have difficulty in concentrating or feel restless, agitated or lethargic. Fear can appear beyond the survivor's control, and has been known to paralyse a survivor

after being raped (Rape Crisis Manual, 1998 and 1999). The survivor may find it impossible to be present in a place or situation, which resembles that of the rape. The survivor may fear different environments, being alone or in crowds of people, or the rape survivor may have sexual fears (Rape Crisis Manual, 1998:20).

The rape survivor may have problems with speech, ranging from excessive speech to not speaking at all. In addition the rape survivor may stutter or stammer more than usual. The survivor may feel a loss of control and might try to hang on to what control she can. Reminders and recollections of the incident may result in feelings of anger and vulnerability (Rape Crisis Manual, 1998 and 1999).

Common past rape behaviours include, *inter alia*, the following:

- The rape may convey to the survivor that she is not worthy of respect.
- Many survivors feel physically dirty and spend a lot of time washing over and over again to try and feel clean after a rape.
- The survivor might want to clean her home if she was raped there. The cleaning may appear to be out of control.
- The survivor might display little interest in herself or other people.
- She might feel worthless and stop caring for herself and other people close to her.
- The survivor may not want to socialise more than usual.

According to Tedeschi and Calhoun (1995:159-169) withdrawal from others could result from a perception that others cannot understand them or help them in any significant way. The relationship with family, friends, a lover or spouse could become problematic. The survivor might be irritable with those with whom she was close to prior to the rape. She may become very dependent on others or overly independent. A survivor may feel unable to be touched by anyone or unable to touch anyone else. A survivor may become promiscuous after a rape, because she feels worthless and useless and shows disregard for her body. There might be a loss of interest in previously interesting activities.

(3) Educational symptoms

The specific types of emotions that predominate will vary among individuals and across specific circumstances (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995:117). One emotion that many individuals experience is guilt (Van der Wal, 1990:149-171). There is a feeling of remorse about what was done and what was left undone. This may reflect in a belief that certain actions may have prevented the event. Anger and irritability are often felt by individuals dealing with major life problems (McCann, Sakheim & Abrahamson, 1998:531-594). The anger experienced may be morally justified, such as anger felt by a rape survivor towards her assailant. One of the most frequently encountered emotional responses following a major life trauma is fear and anxiety (McCann, Sakheim & Abrahamson, 1998:531). When the circumstances to which individuals are exposed involve significant threat to life, health or to important property, it is likely that those individuals will feel apprehension, worry and concern for some time following the event. Anxiety is an emotional response most frequently reported by people who are

faced with difficult circumstances in life. Another general emotional state that is quite common in people dealing with difficult life circumstances is depression. Although anxiety is more likely to occur when trauma involves major threat, depression is more likely when circumstances involve significant loss (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995:117).

Individuals exposed to highly stressful events are likely to experience a constellation of depressing emotions. Although the specific patterns will vary from person to person, it is unacceptable to say that unpleasant emotional states are almost certain to occur. In addition to the occurrence of these emotions, some changes in actions and behaviour may also occur (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995:117).

(4) Cognitive symptoms

Thoughts, images and reflections of the event often occur. The individual may become a bit more vigilant, particularly in matters related to trauma. Being exposed to highly negative events may decrease self-esteem, at least in the first days or weeks after the trauma (Kilpatrick, Veronen & Best, 1985:12). Perhaps the most significant way in which thoughts are affected is the struggle to achieve an understanding of what has occurred (Hodgkinson & Stewart, 1991:38).

2.7 NEEDS OF THE RAPE VICTIM

A woman who has been raped may experience many intense and different feelings. Friends, family and counsellors can help a woman to regain her self-esteem and a sense of control over her life.

2.7.1 Reassurance

After a rape, a rape survivor may feel guilty and unsure about many issues. She needs to be reassured that she is not to blame for anything that happened before, during and after the rape. She may feel that she did something – she may not know what it was – which caused the rape. She needs to be reassured that the rape was beyond her control and not her fault. Rape often results in a feeling of terrible guilt and helplessness, which can lead to a loss of self-confidence and self-esteem (Lewis, 1994:34; Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:11).

She needs to be reassured that whatever she did during the assault was the right thing to do, because it saved her life and more serious injury. She may react in different ways. There is no typical response to rape. She may cry and be upset, she may be quiet and withdrawn or may feel unreal or confused. Whichever way she reacts after the attack is the right way for her. She needs to be reassured that it is all right to seek help if she needs it. It is a sign of strength and coping if she looks for assistance when she is not coping (Lazarus, De Longis, Folkman, Gruen, 1985:770; Lewis, 1994:34).

2.7.2 Talking

The rape survivor needs to think and talk about the rape over and over again. It is important for her to talk about what happened if she wants to. One way to live with difficult circumstances is through talking about them, over and over again, for a time. A woman who is not allowed to talk about the rape often has a much more difficult time recovering. If the woman's family and friends are too uncomfortable to deal with talking about the pain, there are other people who are able to, for

example a rape counsellor, psychologist or respected person in the community. It may help if the woman can find one person whom she can talk to on a regular basis (Lewis, 1994:35; Lazarus, De Longis, Folkman & Green, 1985:770-779).

A rape survivor often feels guilty that her family is also suffering because of what happened to her. Her family may feel ashamed and exposed. She may not want to increase this by talking about the rape. She should be encouraged not to hide her own suffering and deny her need to talk because of others' reactions to her rape (Lewis, 1994:34; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984:48). She is not responsible for making those closest to her feel better.

A rape survivor may have a 'silent reaction' where she does not talk about her rape at all. This does not mean that she is not reacting to rape. She needs to know that when she does feel ready to talk about her experience, somebody will be there to listen. She must not be forced to talk about the rape if she does not want to (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984:85; Lewis, 1994:34).

The survivor should realise she is not alone. Many other women have been raped. She may wish to talk to other women or girls who have been raped (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984:85).

2.7.3 Support and safety

After a rape, the rape survivor needs to be supported in a secure and warm environment. She also needs practical protection against further attacks. This includes being given practical assistance and information about the causes and effects of rape, and how she can deal with these (Lazarus, 1994:35).

It is a relief for a rape survivor to receive other people's physical and emotional support. Sharing with others who have had a similar experience is also helpful for her (Lewis, 1994:35; Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002:5).

2.7.4 Regaining control

After a rape, a woman needs to regain control over her feelings, over things that happened to her, over her body and over her life. A woman will struggle in all kinds of ways to get back her control. It is not helpful for a husband, boyfriend or anyone else to try to persuade the woman to resume or start a sexual relationship before she is ready to do so. She should be allowed to decide when she is ready to start a sexual relationship. It is important that she take control in this area and is not punished for doing so. Sexual control means deciding with whom, where, how and when she has sexual contact (Lewis, 1994:37; Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:5).

2.7.5 Trusting

A rape survivor needs time to trust others in relationships again. For a time she may feel distrustful of men. This fear takes a while to fade away and depends on the support she receives from important men in her life (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:53; Lewis, 1994:37).

2.7.6 Support structures in rural communities

Nzimande (1996:48) investigated support measures in rural communities among Zulu people. To illustrate the nature of the support structure, behaviour and the influence of social change among Zulu people, Nzimande (1996:48) presented the following:

- A widowed woman and her children remain under the control of her deceased husband's agnatic kin. The culture of the Zulu society provided an institutional structure by means of which she was assured of socio-economic support for herself and her children.
- The support of a 'nuclear' family in cases where the male spouse becomes incapacitated, or the family becomes needy for some reason or the other.
- Support and protection of the aged and the aged infirm. The aged are accorded a place of honour in the household and in the lineage of the hierarchy. African social system saw the individual in need of care as the unfortunate victim of generic evil from which the group should shelter him or her.
- The spiritual and emotional support during times of adversity.

Given the peculiar socio-political environment in which black South Africans lived. There has been cultural disintegration and deprivation, placing the black man outside the moral and psychological codes of his society without providing an effective substitute. Motshologane (1996:49) makes the point that in our study of sexual morality and other aspects of family life in the black community we should pay special attention to the fact that socio-culturally we may 'to a certain extent' be dealing with a marginal group.

2.8 TYPES OF RAPE

To date, two types of rape have been identified:

- sadistic rape, in which the act of raping appears to be only a by-product of a sexual gratification achieved by causing fear, pain, injury or even death to one's victim (Brittain, 1970:198-207; Langevin, 1985:39-76); and
- preferential rape, in which a man has persistent urges and fantasies to rape, usually female strangers, despite access to willing sexual partners (Griben, Pos, Rakoff, Bankalo, Lowy & Voineskos, 1980:211-220).

2.8.1 Rape of males

The problem of male rape has been largely ignored by researchers, or has been considered an anomaly of institutional life where the sex object of choice is unavailable (Cotton & Groth, 1982:42-57; Nacci & Kane, 1983:31-36; Sagarin, 1976:25-257; Weiss & Friar, 1974:125; Wooden & Parker, 1982:125). The prevalence of sexual assault of non-institutionalised adult males has been estimated to be between one (1) percent and five (5) percent (Forman, 1982:235-236) but the figures do not carry a statistical certainty. Little attention has been paid to males who experience sexual violence as adults in a community.

The popular conception of male rape is that of homosexual rapists overpowering heterosexual men and boys. This notion is not only false but may even represent an inversion of reality. The majority of assailants in some reports of male rape are perceived to be heterosexual, while victims usually consider themselves to be homosexual or bisexual (Groth, 1979:121; Groth & Burgess, 1980:806-810; Hillman, O'Mara, Taylor-Robinson, Harris, 1990:50-504).

Sexual assault of adult males by females is not unknown, although true sexual aggression, characterised by physical restraint and fear for safety, is rare (Sarrel & Master, 1982:117-133). It appears that men are also subjected to sexually exploitative pressure, most often psychological, such as not wanting to appear homosexual, unmasculine, inexperienced or shy (Muehlenhard & Cook, 1988:58-72; Struckman-Johnson, 1988:234-241).

Effects of sexual assaults on men appear similar to those of women (Anderson, 1982:145-162; Calderwood, 1987:53-55; Groth, 1979:121; Groth & Burgess, 1980:801-910; Kaufman, Divasito, Jackson, Voorhess, Christy, 1980:335-344; Mezey & King, 1989:205-209). The heterosexual victim of male assault may have fundamental beliefs about his sexuality and masculinity challenged (Masters, 1986:35-45).

2.8.2 Rape as a paraphilia

A problematic area for mental health professionals of all disciplines is whether rape constitutes a true paraphilia. The popular perception is that individuals may escape punishment for their actions by using psychiatric diagnosis of paraphilic rape. Marshall, Laws and Barbaree (1990:9-21) point out that as the ability of the victim to resist sexual assault decreases or the degree of force used in the perpetration of crime increases, society is less accepting of psychiatric justification for such crimes and is more in favour of punishment through the criminal justice system.

Contemporary feminist scholars argue that rape is primarily a crime of power and aggression, and represents only one dramatic instance of patriarchal society's general hostility towards women

(Stanko, 1985:125). Such theorists tend, as a whole, to dismiss any argument about the sexual nature of rape.

Support for the classification of rape among the other paraphilias come from a number of sources. Clinical interviews with rapists reveal that in many cases recurrent, repetitive, compulsive urges or fantasies to commit rape are present. This clinical pattern is similar to the clinical picture present in traditionally recognised paraphilias (American Psychiatric Association, 1987:119). Additional support for the conception of rape as a paraphilia comes from the development history of the disorder and its association with other common paraphilias. Further support for a paraphilic model of rape comes from psycho-physiological research. Abel (1988:895-903) suggests that, in a manner analogous to paedophilia, rapists are paraphilic in the sense that they demonstrate anomalous erotic preference for non-consensual aggressive sexual interactions. Rape is a complex multi-determined behaviour and we should not expect all rapists to demonstrate an erotic preference for sexual aggression. However, some relationship between arousal to sexual violence and the commission of rape does exist in some offenders.

2.8.3 Preferential and sadistic rape

According to Masters (1986:35-45) individuals who show a preferential rape pattern are sexually aroused by fantasies and urges of forcing themselves on their victims. In contrast to the sadist, who is stimulated by the use of gratuitous force, the preferential rapist is thought not to use greater force than is necessary to gain the victim's compliance. The sadistic rapist is also distinguished in phallometric assessment by a higher level of arousal to descriptions of physical, but non-sexual, assault on female victims.

2.8.4 **Sadomasochistic paraphilias**

Most of our knowledge of sadistic and masochistic behaviours is derived from clinical histories of individual patients or from a small series of cases that have been published (Dietz, Hazelwood & Warren, 1990:163-178). A distinction is often drawn between major and minor sadism. Major sadism corresponds to Freund's (1993:369-379) concept of dangerous or predatory sadism, is reserved for such safe acts as erotic stabbing, lust murder, and perhaps sexual activities with human cadavers. Minor sadism includes sadistic fantasies that are not acted upon as well as actual humiliation of the consenting partner by means of bondage, mild flagellation, or submission to degrading acts.

Those who participate in giving and receiving acts of minor sadism in consenting relationships often refer to the activity as bondage and discipline, dominance and submission or sadomasochism (Weinberg, Williams & Master, 1984:379-389). In these activities the dominant partner places the submissive one in a position of helplessness and then administers some form of discipline.

Major, or dangerous sadism includes piqueurism, in which the assailant stabs a female victim, usually in the breasts or buttocks, and then escapes (Masters, 1986:35-45).

2.9 COPING WITH RAPE

Coping refers to an individual's effort to master demands that include conditions of harm, threat or challenge that are appraised or perceived as existing or taxing his resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984:112). Appraisal refers to the evaluative process that imbues a situational encounter with meaning for the person.

There are two kinds of cognitive appraisals namely primary and secondary (Fawzy & Fawzy, 1995:110). Primary appraisal refers to our sense that something of importance is jeopardised or at stake, whereas secondary appraisal refers to our evaluation of the ways of opposing demands and options. Constraints and resources moderate this sense of jeopardy. Appraisal can be separated into those that are concerned with the recognition that the individual is in jeopardy and those that are concerned primarily with the evaluation of resources and options available for managing potential or acute harm. This distinction is valuable in drawing attention to different sets of variables that interact in determining stress responses, coping patterns and adaptational outcomes.

According to Fawzy and Fawzy (1995:110) there are three categories of stressful appraisals, namely appraisals of threat, harm/loss and challenge. Primarily their time perspective distinguishes appraisals of threat and harm/loss, with threat referring to the anticipation of imminent harm and harm/loss referring to judgement that the damage has already occurred. Challenge on the other hand involves not only the judgement that a transaction contains potential harm and the potential for mastery or gain but also the judgement that the individual can influence this outcome. Thus, in challenge, appraisal of stake and sense of positive control is fused.

2.9.1. Coping, adaptation to trauma and loss

Traumatic stress is defined as events that involve serious threat to life or physical integrity, either of oneself or significant others, for example the destruction of a home or community that evokes feelings of extreme terror or helplessness, (APA, 1994:33). Traumatic events have also been described as those that shatter

people's beliefs that they live in a meaningful, predictable world (Parkinson, 1997:806-808). Traumatic situations seem particularly important for psychological study because they have the power to transform individuals and family lives, almost always drain personal resources, and have the potential impact on well being and adjustment (Mikulincer & Florian, 1996:114). Trauma includes incidents like major accidents, and violent crimes such as rape and incest. Aldwin (1994:107) states that it is only those accidents or crimes that involve severe injury and perceived threat to life, which should be classified as trauma.

The perception of a threat activates the hypothalamus, which stimulates the pituitary gland to release hormones that activate the adrenal glands (Aldwin, 1994:107). Various efforts have been made to classify the coping process. Lazarus and Folkman (1984:36) emphasise two major categories of coping, which are problem-focused, and emotion-focused modes.

Problem-focused coping refers to efforts to improve the troubled person-environment relationship by changing things (for example, seeking information about what to do, by holding back from impulsive and premature actions and by confronting the person or persons responsible for one's difficulty). On the other hand, emotional-focused coping refers to thoughts or actions whose goal is to relieve the impact of stress (bodily/psychological disturbances). Emotional-focused approaches are mainly palliative in the sense that such strategies of coping do not actually alter the threatening or damaging conditions but make the person feel better. Examples of this include thinking about the trouble, denying that anything is wrong, distancing or detaching oneself as in joking about what makes one distressed, taking tranquillisers or attempting to relax.

It should be noted that the above classification does not imply that either one type of coping is used excessively. Rather complex combinations of problem-focused and emotional-focused methods are used to cope with stress. Monat and Lazarus (1991:114) suggest that coping methods depend upon conditions being faced, the options available to us and our personality.

Esterling, Antoni, Kumar and Schneiderman (1990:291-298) found that the emotional expression and interpersonal coping style evidenced by healthy people dealing with stressful traumatic experiences were related to their Epstein Barr Virus (EBV) antibody titres. More specifically subjects who abstained from disclosing emotional material on a laboratory-writing task had elevated EBV antibody titres.

Data exists that suggests that the impact of acute stressors may be attenuated by cognitive avoidance (Suls & Fletcher, 1985:247-288). Higher life event stress before and during the study together with low levels of avoidant psychological coping were associated with an increased probability of an infectious illness. Avoidant psychological coping style appears to protect against high life event stress (Turner-Cobb & Steptoe, 1996:404-412). Turner-Cobb and Steptoe (1996:404-412) also found that high levels of social support are not protective under high life events stress conditions. However when life event stress was low, high social support was associated with a reduced incidence of infectious illness.

2.9.2 Coping behaviour of the rape victim

In a traumatic rape experience there are three different phases that elicit different types of coping strategies (Aldwin, 1994:107). The first phase, regarded as the threat phase, is characterised by

strategies like cognitive assessment concerning the nature and severity of the threat, verbal tactics and physical tactics.

The second phase refers to the attack itself. This phase involves both problem-focused and emotional-focused coping mechanisms. Problem-focused coping included physical action (fight or flight), as well as cognitive and verbal strategies. Emotional-focused coping strategies includes affective responses like crying, screaming. Psychological defences – mainly emotional numbing and discussions and psychological reactions such as vomiting, passing out and urinating. If these strategies were used purposefully to deter the attacker, they could be regarded as being problem-focused coping strategies.

The third phase follows immediately after the attack, strategies most commonly used are bargaining for freedom, freeing oneself and alerting others who might be seeking social support or reporting the rape to the relevant authorities.

2.9.3 Coping and control

The importance of people's perceptions of, and attempts to achieve control are especially salient when considering coping with negative life events such as rape. Snyder and Ford (1987:116) state that the appraisals of control may be an integral part of perceiving events as negative, conversely, the experience of negative life events can represent an inherent threat to an individual's sense of control. In considering coping, by definition, attempts to control or master the painful consequences of negative occurrences are examined. Coping behaviour can in fact represent specific attempts to restore a lost or threatened sense of control and mastery (Snyder & Ford, 1987:16).

2.9.4 Possible links between stress, coping and illness

There are three main ways in which stress might lead to somatic illness (Goldberg & Breznitz, 1982:111):

- The disruption of tissue function through neuro-hormonal influences under stress. This means that under stress there are major outpourings of powerful hormones creating dramatic alterations in bodily processes such as pounding heart, sweating, trembling and fatigue.
- Engaging in coping activities that are damaging to health for example poor diet, heavy use of tobacco and alcohol. Intrinsically noxious styles of living can increase the likelihood of diseases by damaging the tissues of the body.
- Psychological and/or sociological factors which consistently lead the person to minimise the significance of various symptoms or compliance with treatment programs.

In order to cope with rape, victims need support. Parents have a responsibility towards their child that has been raped.

2.10 THE RESPONSIBILITY OF PARENTS TOWARDS RAPE VICTIMS

Hearing what happened to their child is often painful to the parents. Parents need to support their child. They also need help as well as advice on how to help their child. This can be done on an individual basis or by means of a group where they are able to share their experiences and regain control of what is happening to them. The following issues need to be addressed in parent groups (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:51-52):

- Parents need to vent their feelings without the child being present. By sharing with others how they feel about what has happened, they come to understand that they are not alone and the feelings they are experiencing are usual and to be expected.
- The issue of guilt needs to be tackled to enable them to absolve themselves of unjustifiable self-blame.
- Parents need to learn how to handle the behavioural difficulties that may face them once the abuse/rape has come to light. They need help in establishing reasonable limits and dealing with inappropriate behaviour in a calm and sensible manner. They need to know where they can get help for themselves and their children if problems persist.
- It is vital that parents' feelings towards the victim be addressed if the child is not to be further traumatised.
- Many parents find communicating with their child about the abuse extremely difficult and often need outside help to enable this to take place.
- Many parents experience fear about whether their children would be affected in the long term as a result of what happened to them. These fears need to be addressed calmly by giving parents information and by suggesting ways in which they can help their child.

Parents who are involved in groups to discuss problems relating to rape of their children identify the following benefits of group therapy (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:52-53):

- They no longer feel so isolated and sharing feelings have enabled them to realise that they are not the only ones with those feelings.
- The parents acknowledge that their feelings of anger and guilt have been reduced as a result of their experiences in the group. They were reassured about their ability to be competent parents and knew where to get help if this was required.
- The parents feel that they have a greater understanding of what their children have experienced and why they are unable to confide in them.
- As parents, they are more aware of the dangers their children are exposed to and the need for adequate supervision.

When the police have apprehended perpetrators and gathered sufficient information to present to the courts, then parent groups can then be convened to deal with issues as indicated. The following issues could be addressed at such a meeting of parents:

- Parents can be helped to understand that the reactions of outrage, disbelief and shock are both natural and normal. For the benefit of the child they should remain calm.
- Parents should also try to give the message that they would always be ready to listen to the child.
- They should not ask questions such as 'why did you let him?'; 'why didn't you tell me before?'. These give the impression that the child is to blame.

- It is important to help the child feel safe and be available to give the child extra time and attention.
- Many parents react quite naturally by wanting to be overprotective. Unfortunately this might reinforce children's feelings of helplessness.
- Many parents feel it is better to discourage children from talking about what happened so that they can forget as soon as possible. Parents should be made aware that children will recover from the experience quicker and more permanently if they are given opportunities to talk when they need to.
- Although parents need to share with each other what has happened, they should be given the opportunity to think about the likely impact on their child if these discussions are conducted in the child's presence.
- Parents should be helped to understand that children should express and retain any positive feelings that they have held about the abuser.
- Parents need to be reminded not to ignore brothers and sisters, if only one child in the family is abused. All the family members need to know what happened and this can be a time to teach all the children about personal and sexual safety.

Most adolescents live with their parents, hence parents have a responsibility towards their children that may have been raped. The discussion that follows deals with adolescence and their relationship with themselves, others, things and ideas.

2.11 ADOLESCENTS

The transitional period between childhood and adulthood, which is referred to as adolescence is triggered by changes, that occurs in the young person's body. Some adolescents do manage to cope with these changes more easily than others, and if the young person has successfully negotiated the earlier stages of their development, then the adjustment to adolescence can be completed without undue drama. Adolescence is a time of heightened sexual risk, not only because young people are experimenting with their newfound sexuality but also because they are inexperienced in communicating their sexual needs and desires to a partner (Rosenthal & Peart, 1996:321). Concerns about adolescents' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and other Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs), and the evidence of considerable sexual violence against women, make it vital that we learn more about the difficulties that young people have in negotiating sex, and the factors that lead to coercion of one sexual partner by another Holland, Ramazanogulo, Sharpe & Thomson, 1991a:332; Gavey, 1992:326).

2.11.1 Developmental tasks of the adolescent

A developmental task is defined as a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to happiness and to success in later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks (Burns, 1987:33).

The developmental tasks of an adolescent are always observed in terms of specific situations – in relation to people, ideas, objects,

or himself; the adolescent will be described in terms of these relations (Vrey, 1991:166).

These developmental Tasks will be examined in the light of the adolescent's emancipation.

(1) Relations with ideas in the school environment

- The secondary school child has to pass his final examination
- He has a good deal of success in learning to think abstractly and to solve problems involving symbols and ideas.
- He has achieved considerable self-reliance in work involving problem-solving in most of his subjects; and
- At the end of his matric year, he takes responsibility for completing his studies. This takes him a long way towards accepting responsibility for his own life.

(2) Relations with parents

- Emancipated, he sees his parents more realistically. They, too, obey accepted norms and are not as "omnipotent" as he used to think then;
- Though he misses his childhood home, he is self-reliant enough to leave it temporarily or even permanently; and
- He can form his own opinions on fundamental matters such as religion, even opinions that conflict with those of his parents (Vrey, 1991:167).

(3) Relation with self

- A personal identity has crystallised;
- A consistent, more realistic self-concept has taken shape;
- The adolescent is aware of his own identity or self in relations involving a conscious knowledge of his own capacity and the ability to act more or less intelligently, more maturely than he used to;
- A male or female sexual role has been consolidated; and
- He has learned to control his emotions and to avoid many of the situations that used to cause tension (Vrey, 1991:167).

(4) Relations with peers

- Following the peer group's demands for conformity, self-identity develops in such a way that the person's uniqueness – his difference from the peer group – is accepted.
- During differentiation from the peer group, closer relationships – more mature because less egocentric – are often formed.
- Heterosexual relationships are formed. These are strongly erotic, but infatuation often passes into love. According to Gouws & Kruger, (1994:24) and Vrey (1991:171-172) a well-established sexual identity is needed before heterosexual relations can be formed. The boy-girl relationship is extremely important to the child's self actualisation and self-reliance, and according to Vrey (1991:172) characterised as follows:

- 'chance' meeting occur, dates are made for reporting events, the cinema, etc.;
- older children make more formal arrangements, and the boys begin to court the girls;
- random caresses begin to occur or the couple start 'going steady';
- it is noticeable that there is the erotic factor rather than sexual affinity that sustains the relationship;
- the adolescent's preoccupation with his body brings uncertainty to the relationship because there are new physical phenomena to be assimilated, such as menstruation or ejaculation, as well as new drives and desires;
- these heterosexual relationships are also characterised by a desire for authentic knowledge concerning the partner's body and the effect of the relationship on the other; and
- the boy-girl relationships are also noted for uncertainty, doubt and anxiety.

(5) Relations with values

- Formal operational thought enables the adolescent to form his own opinions about religious and moral issues. These decisions are taken freely and without compulsion from parents or teachers.

- Following a period of doubt, the adolescent has formed his own religious convictions – particularly the adolescents raised in a religious home (Vrey, 1991:184-186; Gouws & Kruger, 1996:182).

2.11.2 **The physical development of the adolescent**

Physical development concerns the growth of the body, changes in the proportions between different parts of the body and changes in the internal structure and functioning of the body (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:9). According to Gouws and Kruger (1996:17-25), the following are characteristics of the physical growth of adolescents:

- accelerated growth during adolescence;
- primary and secondary sexual characteristics;
- motor development;
- secular trend;
- early and late development;
- body image'
- menstruation;
- erection, ejaculation and nocturnal semen emissions; breaking of the voice; and
- acne.

2.11.3 **The affective and development of the adolescent**

Adolescents' affective development is a wide-ranging subject that includes emotional development as well as personality development and identity and self-concept formation (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:9). Affective development consists of the development of such manifestations of personality as emotions,

passions, moods, sentiments and whims. Some of the emotions experienced by adolescents are:

- anxiety;
- aggression;
- anger and hostility; and
- envy and jealousy.

Adolescents gradually learn how to control their negative emotions. They usually become happier as they grow older. One of the reasons for this is that the status of older adolescents is more in line with their level of development. They are more independent and experience less frustration. They are more realistic about their abilities and more inclined to set realistic objectives for themselves (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:96).

2.11.4 **Cognitive development of adolescents**

According to Gouws and Kruger (1996:3) as well as Bennetts, Brown and Sloan (1992:31), Piaget refers to this stage of cognitive development as 'formal operational thought'. The child is beginning to move from thinking, to concrete operations, to ability to reason in the abstract and form hypothesis. Adolescents are increasingly able to operate on a level of theory and to think mentally about a problem before attempting a practical solution. The ability for abstract reasoning also affects other aspects of the young person's development. Adolescents are constantly challenging adults' values and decisions and they begin to think about abstract concepts such as freedom and justice and formulate their own views. Many teenagers enter a period of idealism when they want to change the world and put right the mistakes of the previous generation (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:31).

2.11.5 **Social emotional development**

Adolescents become absorbed with themselves during the adolescent period of development and they are always evaluating themselves in terms of other people's reactions. They are extremely self-conscious and often believe that their thoughts and feelings are unique and cannot be understood by adults. 'Who am I?' becomes an important question and various personas are tried for size. There are various developmental tasks for the adolescent to complete and by using the list provided by Havinghurst in Bennetts, Brown and Sloan (1992:31), as well as Gouws and Kruger, 1996:117-127) we can see how these tasks are achieved:

- acquire more mature social skills;
- achieve a masculine or feminine gender role;
- accept the changes in one's body and one's physique and the use of one's body effectively;
- achieve emotional independence from parents and other adults;
- prepare for sex, marriage and parenthood;
- select and prepare for an occupation;
- develop a personal ideology and ethical standards; and
- assume membership of the larger community.

This is a formidable list of tasks to be achieved and of course some adolescents are more successful than others in reaching these goals. For the abused adolescent, these tasks can present particular difficulties.

(1) Gender roles

By the time adolescence is reached, gender roles are firmly established and, although some blurring occurs, many of these beliefs continue to influence us in adult life. The differing gender roles of males and females are clearly laid down in our culture and although we pay lip service to the concept of equality between genders, the reality is very often different. The same trait is viewed very differently depending on gender, e.g. a man may be described as assertive whereas the same behaviour in a woman is more likely to be labelled aggressive (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:129; Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:33-34).

Abused adolescents receive powerful messages from gender role stereotypes as to how they should regard themselves. Boys have historically been seen to be less vulnerable to sexual abuse than girls, due to the limited number who appear in statistics. However, it is now beginning to be acknowledged that the size of the problem of male victims has been greatly underestimated. According to Plug, Meyer, Louw and Gouws (1988), it does seem that the meaning attached to gender in our society may well underpin why boys are less likely to be recognised as abused and to report their abuses.

(2) Acceptance of changes in one's body

The adolescent's body is changing rapidly during this period with the development of secondary sexual characteristics and a

complex sequence of hormonal changes. They become preoccupied with their appearance. Fashions as to the ideal body shape are transmitted by our culture and girls in particular are anxious to acquire the shape that is currently in vogue. This can lead to anxieties about being too fat and experimenting with various diets. In an attempt to acquire the outward signs of maturity, teenagers become involved in smoking, drinking and substance abuse. As adolescence is a time of risk taking, health education promotions are often ignored and regarded as irrelevant (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:34-35; Gouws & Kruger, 1996:129).

Many teenage girls who have been sexually abused see themselves as damaged goods and fear that they have become physically damaged, especially if their experience was a painful one. They frequently seek reassurance that their bodies are normal and that they will be able to produce normal children in the future (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:31).

(3) Achievement of independence from parents and other adults

The teenage years give rise to an increased conflict with parents and other adults in authority as young people attempt to become individuals in their own right. Authority is constantly being challenged and adolescents become more critical of their parent and are quick to note that adults often behave in ways that are contrary to the standards set for them. Pressures from peer groups can exacerbate these conflicts with parents and most arguments arise over dress, music, hairstyles and limitations placed on their freedom. However, in spite of these areas of conflict, most adolescents want their parents to be interested in them, and it is essential that parents maintain their authority

while allowing the adolescent greater say (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:36; Montemayor, 1990:130-144).

As most adolescents are moving towards greater independence, abused teenagers can often find themselves in a dependency trap. When abuse occurs within the family, many abused girls are prevented from engaging in normal social contacts and dating, due to jealousy of the perpetrator. The teenager increasingly resents these restrictions on her social life and frequently discloses abuse as a result of a row over these restrictions (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:36; Gouws & Kruger, 1996:116).

(4) Preparation for sex, marriage and parenthood

Sexual interest and behaviour increases sharply with the physical and hormonal changes occurring in the teenager's body. The development of secondary sex characteristics makes us aware that sexual maturity is approaching and teenagers are often embarrassed by their lack of control over their bodies at this time. As interest in the opposite sex develops, much experimentation occurs (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:131:13; Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:37).

Making decisions about their sexuality and sexual behaviour is extremely important for the adolescent, but for those who have been victims of sexual abuse, the decisions have already been made regardless of the adolescent's desires. Whereas most adolescents are looking forward towards sexual fulfilment, the abused victim is constantly looking back at feelings of guilt and shame. Some abused girls find that they are unable to tolerate any form of physical contact with a boy. Others may see sexuality as a means of meeting other needs such as acceptance by the peer group and they behave in a promiscuous manner

feeling their body has no value. Many abused girls have anxieties about marriage and having children, as they fear that they will be unable to protect their children just as their mothers were unable to protect them. Having experienced abuse they feel unable to be assertive on their own behalf and are therefore vulnerable to becoming involved in further abusive situations (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:327-38; Burns, 1988:33).

(5) Development of a personal ideology and ethical standards

Throughout childhood decisions about good and bad, right and wrong, have been formulated according to the developmental stage a child has reached. By the time adolescence is reached, moral judgements are made on a basis closer to that of an adult. Judgments are based on the premise of maintaining good relations with others and winning their approval and issues of right and wrong tend to be evaluated in terms of conformity to society's rules and regulations. Although adolescents are aware of the rules of society, it does not always follow that they will abide by them. Much of the risk-taking behaviour, so typical of adolescents, brings them into conflict with these rules and inevitably some of them are broken. The individual has to solve these dilemmas by operating at a higher level of moral development, where evaluation is based on one's own belief system instead of blind conformity to the expectations of society or the group (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:37-39; Burns, 1988:34).

In the early stages of establishing a value system, many adolescents are attracted to ideologies and religious cults that are rather rigid and authoritarian. These may serve the purpose of helping the adolescent to know where they stand and what is important in life. However, as they become more confident of

their own points of view, some are able to dispense with these systems and adopt a more personal viewpoint (Burns, 1988:34; Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:39).

(6) The adolescent and HIV/AIDS

Due to increased media coverage and health promotion education about HIV/AIDS in schools, many adolescents are aware of the existence of AIDS in the community at large. In many of the risk activities teenagers indulge in, such as drug abuse, promiscuity, running away from home or living on the streets, places them in a position of heightened risk of possible infection. This is especially true for those who have been abused. However, there is still evidence of a great deal of misinformation about the subject amongst teenagers, as in the general adult population, and this needs to be addressed. Teenagers are most concerned about the image others have of them, having to deal with the possibility of being HIV-positive can have a major impact on them developmentally. For a sexually abused adolescent, coping with the possibility of a life threatening illness in addition to the squeal of abuse may well increase their symptoms of poor self-esteem, guilt, blame, stigma and isolation (Bennetts, Brown & Sloan, 1992:40; Gouws & Kruger, 1996:33).

2.11.6 The normative development of the adolescent

Normative development is a key aspect of the adolescents' overall development. It bears on both the conative and the cognitive aspects of their development as is influenced by their progress towards independence and identity. The normative development of the adolescent therefore entails an event whereby they acquire values and norms that enable them to distinguish between behaviour that is 'correct' and 'acceptable', or 'wrong' and

'unacceptable' to their community and cultural group (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:10).

Adolescents' normative life includes moral and religious development. Moral development is predicated on the customs, manners or patterns of behaviour that conform to the standard of the group, and it consists in the way people learn to distinguish between right and wrong. Morals are not inherited, but have to be acquired through learning. Adolescents must realise that moral values are important to merit formal attention. Adolescents must evolve a value system in conformity with principles that regulate their thinking and behaviour.

The following are some of the values that adolescents may adopt (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:175):

- respect for the equality of all human beings;
- awareness of social responsibilities;
- honesty in interpersonal relationships;
- recognising the worth of other people;
- weighing up both sides of a situation before drawing conclusions;
- treating others as they would like to be treated;
- being trustworthy;
- telling the truth – which is essential for trust, self-respect and social health;

- being honest in areas of life;
- using honourable means and respecting the rights of others;
and
- showing personal courage and responsibility in the face of peer
and other pressures.

Poor moral development gives rise to such problems as delinquency, sexual permissiveness and the use of alcohol and drugs (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:175).

2.11.7 The life-world of the adolescent

In education, the attribution of meaning is important. It cannot take place without involvement. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the adolescent subjectively experiences and are both components of self-actualisation (Vrey, 1991:186).

(1) Life-world

Everything that has meaning to a person, is his life-world. Every person's life-world, according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:41) is unique to that person. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:41) further state that a person's life-world includes not only the geographic world but also all the relationships with people, things, objects and himself. Vrey (1990:21) states that the *gestalt* of meaningful relationships constitutes a person's life-world.

(2) Experience

Experience is a situation in which an individual receives value and meaning pertaining to that situation. All human beings experience things, but we experience things in different ways. Each experience is accompanied by feelings and aspirations, different in quality and intensity. No one can select his experience, but when he undergoes a certain experience, meanings are assigned and these meanings acquire a personal dimension (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:192).

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:192) identify the following components of experience:

- it determines the quality of relationships;
- it is emotional and is evaluated in terms of varying degrees of pleasantness and unpleasantness;
- it stresses the uniqueness of each person's relationships;
- it determines especially the intensity of the clarity and stability of the meaning assigned by the person;
- it inhibits or incites a person's involvement in every attribution of meaning; and
- it is a meaningful event, involving the total person who experiences certain feelings and also knows that he experiences them.

(3) Relations of the adolescents

As the adolescent moves into the larger society from the restricted world of childhood, he is faced with new choices and demands, comes into contact with conflicting values and behaviours and amidst this all, he is trying to find his place in the world. During adolescence, peer involvement is paramount and yet the adolescent still relies on his or her parents in many areas and holds on to the fundamental values. There is still a definite orientation towards parents. Peers and parents are not in conflict but are used as guides in different areas. Adolescence is an intensely social period and the peer group is a dominant factor in the social life of the adolescent. The peer group takes the place of the family in providing status, acceptance, a sense of belonging, security and much of what the family provides. The peer group serves as a useful stabiliser during a period of instability and change. It contributes to self-esteem, insulates and protects and provides a practical field for the uncertain adolescent (Vos, 2002:68).

(a) Adolescent's relation to self

The child enters secondary school with a real sense of identity and a definite self-concept, either positive or negative (Vrey, 1991:166). This self-concept comprises the totality of evaluation of all the components of his self-identity. Self-identity in turn refers to his conception of his body, of himself as a scholar, including achievements and skills within and outside the classroom – of himself as a child of his parents and a member of his peer group. Each identity component is evaluated, so that self-conception varies in quality. Some are high and others are low. The child's self-concept is the integrated totality of all these self-conceptions (Vrey, 1991:160).

(i) Physical self

During early and middle adolescence, important bodily changes take place that profoundly affects his relationships with objects and people. The physical self is more important during adolescence than in any other stage of a person's life except possibly old age. His experience of his body is not a voluntary one. His corporeality now begins to demand attention, and is centred on the body itself (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:17). The preoccupation with the body is essential; the adolescent's perceptions are limited by the tyrannical standards of the peer group (Vrey, 1991:168). Deviations from accepted standards of dress and appearance are at best tolerated. The price of non-conformity is rejection. Consequently, both sexes go to great lengths to conform to the approved stereotype.

(ii) Social self

The peer group serves as a socialising agent and meets adolescents' needs for comradeship and friendship and gives them the opportunity to practise their social skills, form close friendships and communicate with the opposite sex. Acceptance by the group and popularity are highly important to them at this stage, because they fear loneliness, which they interpret as a symbol of social ostracism. They also aspire to acceptance because it supports them during the process of emancipation. The peer group's acceptance and support of the adolescent's behaviour, appearance and ideas often form a stark contrast with the criticism and disapproval of his parents and society. The peer group in its various forms offers the adolescent the opportunity to make contact with other

adolescents coming from different backgrounds. Social mobility therefore concerns not only the different sexes, but also all relationships between races and socio-economic classes. Adolescents can become better acquainted with each other in the school, or through organised youth groups such as churches and sports groups (Vrey, 1991:170).

(iii) Moral self

Adolescents want to develop their own moral or value system to regulate their behaviour. Although parents' moral and value systems usually serve as a guideline for them, they nevertheless question and evaluate the parents' moral standards and values (Vrey, 1991:170).

(b) Relations with others

(i) Relations with parents

One of the main features of the adolescent's relations with his parents is a striving for independence, self-reliance and autonomy. The emancipation urge does not emerge all at once in the adolescent years but develops gradually from infancy and builds up to its highest point during adolescence. Although the adolescent's relationship with his parents no longer displays the characteristics of the parent-child relationship in the childhood years before adolescence, its further development is nevertheless based on foundations that were laid down at an early stage in the child's life (Vos, 2002:69).

(ii) Relations with educators and other adults

The relations with educators and other adults exert a tremendous influence on the maturity of adolescents. Unlike young children, adolescents no longer accept without question whatever their educators tell them. Their critical attitude and understanding of what is and what can often leads to depression, dissatisfaction and rebellion against authority and school rules. Adolescents also strive to achieve independence in the school context, and during the secondary school years they attain autonomy in the execution of many tasks. They realise that they must accept responsibility for their own lives and decisions, even for the choice of a career. During this stage the educator assumes the role of escort and companion, he or she no longer takes the lead, but walks by the pupils' side. The adolescent's physical maturation can turn admiration of an educator into infatuation with the result that adolescents sometimes fantasise about relations with their educators, or with other adults. The relations between adults and adolescents must therefore be handled with great circumspection and with due recognition of the adolescent's independence (Vos, 2002:74).

(iii) Relations with peers

Young adolescents' relations with children of their own age group assume increasing importance as they pass from pre-primary school years to adolescence. During adolescence relations with peers are highly significant for self-concept formation and for self-actualisation. Adolescents share a great deal of their lives with the peer group, go to school with them, participate in sport with

them, spend leisure time with them and sleep over at their homes. The peer group serves as a sounding board for their ideas, thoughts and concerns. Matters that cannot be discussed with their parents in some instances are freely discussed with the peer group. The peer group constitutes a world with its own customs, traditions and sometimes, language and dress. The adolescent wants to be accepted as a part of this world and therefore endeavours to slot in with a particular group by conforming to its dress, speech and conduct, thus contracting a temporary emotional dependence on their approval (Vrey, 1991:104).

(iv) Relations with friends

Adolescents usually choose friends that are largely similar to them, probably because they are struggling to differentiate themselves from their parents and as a result need support from people who are like them in certain popular ways. They influence each other so much that they become mirror images of each other in due course. Friendships tend to be very intense and take up a great deal of the adolescent's thoughts and time. Sometimes it seems as though they want to spend all their time in the company of their friends. There are various reasons for the intensified interest in friendships during adolescence. One of these may be the higher level to which the adolescent's cognitive development advances. The intimacy, trust and comradeship of friendship may fill the gap left by their emancipation from parents (Vrey, 1991:176).

(c) Relations with objects and ideas

In constituting his life-world, the adolescent is increasingly concerned with ideas. Like objects, (people or attitudes of people towards himself) ideas become important only when they become aware of its significance for him and its implications for his own identity. The adolescent's degree of personal awareness depends on the cognitive development (Vrey, 1991:177).

(i) Pregnancy and abortion

For various reasons such as the high level of sexual activity among adolescents, as well as their tendency not to use contraceptives, teenage pregnancies are both a national and an international social problem that threatens to assume epidemic proportions. In South Africa, teenagers conceive more than 30% of all babies born each year. Although heightened sexual activity, a lack of information about fertility and contraception, are generally cited as reasons for teenage pregnancies. There are several factors that exert an influence interactively, namely:

- having a baby may be viewed as a sign of maturity - kind of status symbol;
- motherhood may be used to achieve both an identity and a feeling of being loved and needed;
- pregnancy may be used to escape from an unhappy home situation;

- pregnancy may be a reaction to the loss of parents through divorce, death or hospitalisation or institutionalisation; and
- many adolescent mothers have a history of being victims of child abuse or rape, or of coming from home with an indifferent or uninvolved pattern of parenting.

Rape and sexual abuse, according to teachers' view regarding the causes of teenage pregnancy, account for 6,5% of teenage pregnancy (Mokgalabone, 1999:55).

It is important to bear in mind that not all pregnancies end in births. In South Africa it is estimated that some 200 000 abortions are carried out each year (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:132). According to national statistics 17,4% of women requesting abortion are below the age of 18 years (Olivier, Myburg & Poggenpoel, 2000:213). According to Olivier, Myburg and Poggenpoel (2000:125-217), adolescents terminate pregnancies for the following reasons:

- forced sexual intercourse (incest or rape);
- material considerations as when they are facing poverty or environmental deprivation;
- reduce the population growth;
- if the girl is under age the termination of a pregnancy is an acceptable option;

- one's future can be destroyed if one cannot continue with one's education because of an unwanted pregnancy, in which case termination would be the best option;
- termination of pregnancy is the right option in the case of an abnormal foetus; and
- pregnancy is terminated to avoid various negative implications like being discriminated against or estranged from their family.

(ii) Adoption

According to Olivier, Myburg and Poggenpoel (2000:220), a pregnant adolescent has various choices, namely to terminate the pregnancy, or to consider some other options. One of these options is adoption, where others can raise the baby, like adopted or foster parents. This option can be made to save a life.

(iii) Suicide

According to Gouws and Kruger (1996:102) suicide among adolescents is on the increase. Part of the explanation for the rise in adolescent suicide is that adolescents have been exposed to increasing stress while environmental supports have decreased, leaving the adolescent more vulnerable. Researchers have established four sets of risk factors, namely (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:102):

- having a psychiatric problem, especially depression or substance abuse;

- having a history of suicide in the family;
- being under stress, especially in the area of achievement of sexuality; and
- experiencing parental rejection, family disruption or extensive family conflict.

(d) Relations with religion

The adolescent's religious background and his education in regard to the origin, nature and destiny of humanity are of vital importance. According to Gouws and Kruger (1996:188), religion has always played a crucial role in people's lives. A personal religion means a faith and hope to which an adolescent can cling during uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development (Vrey, 1991:182). Indications that adolescents value religion include the following (Gouws & Kruger, 1996:190):

- the population of adolescents attending church indicates a high level of religious commitment;
- organised religion as a moral, philosophical and social institution is of central importance to adolescents in the sense that a large proportion of adolescents who rate religion as being important show a commitment to religious institutions;
- religious male students are more successful than non-religious students at meeting academic and social expectations of the school;
- adolescents' religious dispositions influence their moral behaviour and development; and

- adolescents need a faith that can imbue their lives with meaning.

According to Noller (1991:55), several studies have linked the level of religiosity in the family with the type of communication occurring among family members. Adolescents in religious families are more likely than other adolescents to talk to their parents about issues related to philosophy of life, social issues, relationships and sexual attitudes.

2.11.8 Characteristics of adolescent sex offenders

There has been growing public and professional concern over sexual crimes committed by adolescents. This concern has been fuelled by reports of major increases in the number of forcible rapes and other sexual offences perpetrated by our adolescent population (Flanagan & Maguire (ed.), 1992:2; Boyd, Hagen & Cho, 2000:137-146).

(a) Adolescent sexual assault research

Studies in the 1970s began to significantly advance our understanding of the responses of child and adult victims. Concomitantly, attempts to understand the psychopathology and psychobiology of adult offenders, as well as the circumstances under which adult men committed rapes, was being investigated (Boyd, Hagen & Cho, 2000:137-146; Burgess & Holstrom, 1989:648-657).

(b) Individual characteristics

According to Boyde, Hagen and Cho (2000:3) and Davis and Leitenberg, (1987:17) behavioural problems are often present in

the history of adolescent sexual perpetrators. Sexual offenders are characterised by violence in their childhood rather than specific aggression. Their families are described as being dysfunctional and disturbed. Sexual deviancy may be in response to unresolved psychological needs and misplaced anger or, in the case of male paedophiles that have been sexually victimised by other males, a replication of their own abuse.

(c) Age of first offence

Adolescent sexual offenders report having two paraphilias with onset between ages 15 to 18 years of age (Abel, Becker, Mittleman, Cunningham-Rathner, Ronleau, Murphy, 1987:9). It is typical that they act upon these deviant impulses in adolescence. Nearly half of adult rapists and child molesters committed their first offences between 8 and 18 years of age, with the median age being 16. Adolescent child molesters tend to be younger than adolescent rapists. The younger the adolescent is convicted of sexual assault, the more likely he will persist. Sex offenders have established a repetitive pattern of deviant behaviour prior to arrest (Boyd, Hagen & Cho, 2000:9; Abel, Becker Mittleman, Cunningham-Rathner, Ronlean, Murphy, 1987:3).

(d) Nature of first offence

The criminal history variable has been identified to predict recidivism but only moderate significance in general delinquency. Tonroy and Morris (1985:187-220) found that boys who were first convicted for more serious offences of burglary and violent crimes were slightly more likely to become chronic offenders. Sex offenders commit multiple types of offences. Rapists and child molesters show evidence of non-contact offensive behaviour in

adolescence and progress to more serious sexual assaults as adults.

(e) Previous number of arrests/convictions

Fehrenbach, Smith, Monastersky & Deisher, (1986:225), in a large sample (n=297), reported 27,6% as having committed at least one prior sexual offence. Of these repeaters 72% committed the same type of offence as the referral offence. Twenty-three percent had committed both the same types of sexual offences. Five percent repeated a different type of sexual offence. Becker, Kaplan, Cunningham-Rather and Kavoussi (1986:85097) reported in their research that half of their adolescent sexual perpetrators had a prior record for non-sexual offences.

(f) Early predictors

If physical aggression and relationship violence are modelled by significant others, the adolescence may be learning that aggression and/or aggressive sexual expression is acceptable behaviour. Perhaps, due to low self-esteem secondary to the abusive and rejecting parents, the child is resentful and fighting back by displacing anger onto others (Davies & Leitenberg, 1987:417-427).

Research on adolescent sexual perpetrators indicates that they feel isolated and estranged (Blaske, Bordium, Henggeler & Mann, 1989:486). Fehrenbach, Smith, Monastersky & Deisher, (1986:225-233) report that offenders have few, if any, friends and have interpersonal difficulties. This differs from adolescent non-sexual offenders. Factors influencing delinquency and sexual assault include criminal history, individual, school and family characteristics. Similarities between characteristics that predict

onset of delinquency and sexual assaultive behaviour are age of onset, academic underachievement, school problems, dysfunctional family environments characterised by conflict, neglect, erratic discipline, physical and sexual abuse, intrafamily violence, parental handicap, sibling anti-social behaviour, low socio-economic status, parental-child separation and early behavioural difficulties (Boyd, Hagen & Cho, 2000:9).

(g) Victim age

Another important aspect of adolescent offenders is the offender-victim age difference. Adolescent sexual assaulters tend to choose younger victims. Fehrenback, Smith, Monastersky & Deisher, (1982:225-233) reported that 62% of victims were under the age of 12, and 44% were age 6 or younger. Deischer, Wenet, Paperny, Clark and Fehrenbach (1982:274-276) reported similar outcomes, with 46% being less than 10 years of age, 29% being 10 to 19 and 25% were 20 years of age or older.

(h) Gender

Adolescent sexual offenders tend to choose female victims in approximately three-fourths of all victimisation (Boyd, Hagen & Cho, 2000:6).

(i) Victim relationship

While many programs have been initiated to protect the public against sex offenders, such as laws disclosing when a sex offender is released to the community, in most cases the adolescent offender often knows his victim. According to Groth (Boyd, Hagen and Cho, 2000:6) reported that 26% of victims were acquaintances, 15% were friends and 6% were relatives. Van Ness

(Boyd, Hagen and Cho, 2000:6), reported similar statistics, in that 55% of the offenders had some knowledge of the victim. Wasserman and Kappel (Boyd, Hagen and Cho, 2000:6) indicate that 20% of the victims were immediate family, 20% were extended family, 51% were friends and acquaintances, and 9% were strangers. According to Fehrenbach, Smith, Monastersky & Deisher, (1986:225-233) 75% of child victims of rape were acquaintances or relatives of the perpetrators, whereas, adult victims were more likely to be unknown to the perpetrators.

2.12 SUMMARY

In this chapter relevant literature on rape and adolescents' perception of rape have been reviewed. In chapter 3 the planning and research method will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

PLANNING AND RESEARCH

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The descriptive method of research was used to collect data with regard to adolescents' perception of rape of educators pertaining to relationships. According to Mahlangu (1987:77) a descriptive approach is one of the approaches to gathering data and uses a combination of different methods, namely survey, developmental studies and case studies. In this study the survey method will be used. The survey method includes questionnaires, obtains the information directly from respondents by posing questions (Dale, 1990:20).

The survey method will be discussed in this chapter.

3.2 REASON FOR CHOOSING THIS METHOD

Babie (1980:130) points out that the value of the survey as a research method lies in the possibility of making recommendations and likely future demands.

3.3 PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE SURVEY

The survey will be conducted at schools in the Bergville sub-district of the Estcourt district in the Ladysmith Region of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. Permission was requested from the circuit inspectors to administer the questionnaire to learners at schools in their circuits. The requested permission was granted. The researcher sought

permission from each of the principals and made arrangements with them to administer the questionnaire to the learners.

3.4 SAMPLING

Leedy (1992:52) points out that the most important requirement for a sample is 'representativeness' which depends on three important factors, namely:

- Randomisation of the sample, which ensures that every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected.
- Sample size: an increased sample is more representative of the population and yields a better result (Mulder, 1989:59). According to Walitzer and Wiener (1978:433) a sample of 20% has the lowest level of risk and is more accurate.
- High level of significance.

3.5 SAMPLE OF LEARNERS

According to the 2002/3 EMIS report of the Ladysmith Region of the Department of Education and Culture KwaZulu-Natal, there are 1 735 grade 11 learners in the Bergville circuits of the Estcourt district (Department of Education and Culture, 2003:46). Twenty percent of 1 735 is 347, thus 347 learners will form the sample and answer the questionnaire. Each secondary school in the area was given a number. This number was written on a piece of paper with the number of learners that are enrolled at the school in grade 11. Each of these pieces of paper were folded and placed in a container. The contents were shuffled and the researcher took out the papers one by one, recording the

number of the school and the number of grade 11 learners that would form the sample. This process continued until 347 respondents were obtained.

3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT USED FOR THE COLLECTION OF DATA

3.6.1 The questionnaire

The researcher used a questionnaire to obtain data on adolescents' perception of rape. Labovitz and Hagedorn (1981:69) believe that the questionnaire is an instrument, which comprises a series of questions that are filled in by the respondents themselves. Leedy (1992:135) supports the above by stating that a questionnaire is a commonplace instrument for observing data that sometimes lie buried deep within the minds, or within the attitudes, feelings or reactions of men and women. There are two types of questionnaires, namely the open-ended questionnaires and the closed-ended questionnaires. Babie (1980:135) states that in an open-ended question respondents supply their own answers while in a closed-ended question the respondents select from a list of answers provided to them. For this study the questions were of the closed-ended type.

3.6.2 Construction of the questionnaire

Questionnaire construction is one of the few activities in which plagiarism is not only tolerated but also actually encouraged (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982:24). The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding adolescents' perception of rape.

(1) Characteristics of a good questionnaire

According to Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Van den Aardweg (1988:190) the following can be considered as characteristics of a good questionnaire:

- It has to deal with a significant topic, which the respondent will recognise as important enough to warrant spending his time on.
- It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.
- It must be as short as possible, but long enough to obtain the essential data.
- It must be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated and printed.
- Directions for a good questionnaire are clear and complete, and important terms clearly defined.
- Each question deals with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforward as possible.
- Different categories should provide an opportunity for each, accurate and unambiguous responses.
- Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions should render the desired responses.

- Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses.
- Data obtained from questionnaires are easy to tabulate and interpret.

(2) Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

Despite having shortcomings, questionnaires have the great advantage of enabling coverage of a large representative sample and of being relatively efficient. According to Mahlangu (1987:94-95) the questionnaire as a research instrument has the following advantages:

- Affordability is the primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of collecting data.
- Written questionnaires preclude possible interviewer bias.
- A questionnaire permits anonymity.
- It permits a respondent sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.
- Questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously, i.e. a large sample of a targeted population can be reached.
- Questionnaires offer greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews since each person responds to exactly the same questions.

- Generally the data provided by questionnaires can be more easily analysed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.
- Using a questionnaire solves the problem of non-contact when the respondent is not at home.
- Through the use of the questionnaire approach, the problems related to interviews may be avoided.
- A respondent may answer questions of a personal nature or embarrassing nature more willingly and frankly on a questionnaire than in a face-to-face situation with an interviewer who is a complete stranger.
- Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.
- Questionnaire design is relatively easy if the set of guidelines are followed.
- The administering of questionnaires, the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.
- Data obtained from questionnaires can be compared and inferences made.
- Questionnaires can elicit information, which cannot be obtained from other sources.

In this study, the questionnaire will make it possible for the researcher to cover a large sample (347 respondents) at a

minimum cost in both time and effort. Interviewer bias will be eliminated since all respondents will receive the same written instructions on the questionnaire.

(3) Disadvantages of questionnaires

Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:190) mention some of the following disadvantages of questionnaires:

- Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews.
- People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.
- Questions can only be answered when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.
- Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have.
- Answers to mailed questionnaires must be seen as final.
- In a mailed questionnaire the respondent examines all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to the different questions can therefore be treated as 'independent'.
- Researchers are unable to control the context of question answering, and specially, the presence of other people.

In this study some of the disadvantages of the mailed questionnaire will be eliminated since the researcher will be present when respondents are answering the questions.

3.6.3 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

Validity is defined by Schumacher and McMillan (1993:223-226) as a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for the specific inferences or decisions that result from the scores generated. Hence the researcher must show that for specific inferences and conclusions made in a study, there is evidence that validity exists.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:237) and Dane (1990:257-258) distinguish between three types of validity.

- Content validity where content and cognitive processes can be measured. Topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn.
- Criterion validity, which refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable believed to measure directly the behaviour or characteristics in question. The criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.
- Construct validity pertaining to the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct for example intelligence, reasoning, ability and attitudes.

According to Schnetler (1993:71) a valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some 'real' ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the researcher can identify

and characterise. If the ability of attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent's answers to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield the same results (Dane, 1990:158). The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instruments result, other than the ones the researcher wants to make, can be ruled out.

Having taking cognisance of the literature on validity of a research instrument, the researcher is convinced that the questionnaire has to a large degree measured that which it was designed to measure.

3.6.4 **Reliability of the questionnaire**

Reliability, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1994:227), refers to the consistency of measurement, the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument or occasions of data collection. Mulder (1989:209) and Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:512) describe reliability as a statistical concept that relates to consistency and dependability. The aim of developing reliable measures is to minimise the influence of change or other variables unrelated to the intent of the measure. If the instrument is unreliable, the information is ambiguous, inconsistent and useless. The researcher has to therefore select and develop a data gathering procedure that is highly reliable.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:194) distinguish between the following types of reliability:

- Test-retest reliability is consistently estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument. This gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion and another occasion.
- Internal consistency reliability. This indicates how well the test items measure the same things.
- Split-half reliability. By correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same instrument, the split-half reliability can be calculated.

According to Dane (1990:256) the reliability of the question is not proof that the answers given reflect the respondents' true feelings. Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable error. Sources of error that affect reliability are *inter alia*, the following (Mulder, 1989:209):

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.
- Variations on the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omission in verbal instructions.
- Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, change differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.

- Random effect by respondents who guess or check attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

The researcher believes that the respondents were honest and sincere in answering the questionnaire, thus maximising possible reliability. Frankness in responding to questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaire.

3.7 INFERENCE STATISTICS

3.7.1 Inferences

Inferential statistics refer to certain types of procedures that allow researchers to make inferences about a population based on findings from a sample (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990:187). In inferential statistics, statistics are measures of the sample, and parameters are measures of the population. Inferences are made about the parameters from the statistics. The basic idea in making inferences from statistics to parameters is to obtain the sample distribution and then to use statistical techniques to make the inference to the population. Statistics are computed from the sample data, and on the basis of these statistics generalisations to the parameters are made. The theory and methodology underlying this procedure are known as inferential statistics (Wiersma, 1980:258).

3.7.2 Overcoming sample error

Pertaining to the self-structured questionnaire implemented in this research, inferential statistics was used to distinguish the difference between responses of male and female respondents to each statement in the questionnaire. It helps to overcome sampling error (Franknel & Wallen, 1990:193).

3.7.3 Inferential techniques

There are two basic types of inferential techniques that researchers use, parametric techniques and non-parametric techniques. Parametric techniques make use of various kinds of assumptions about the nature of the population from which the sample involved in the research study is drawn. Non-parametric techniques, on the other hand make few (if any) assumptions about the nature of the population from which the sample is drawn (Franknel & Wallen, 1990:193).

In this study the non-parametric technique is used because it is safer to use when the researcher cannot satisfy the assumptions underlying the use of the parametric technique. The type of non-parametric technique used is the Pearson Chi-square test. It is used to test if there is a significant difference between the responses on males and females to each question in the questionnaire. The Chi-square value is less than 0.05, then the difference is statistically significant at the 5% level, and the researcher would conclude that there is a significant difference in perception (of rape) between the two groups. Any Chi-square value above 0.05 indicates no statistical difference between male and female respondents with respect to the particular question. The researcher would then expect that about the same proportion of males and females share that perception (of rape).

3.8 PILOT STUDY

The pilot study indicated that:

- The questionnaire needed to be translated into Zulu (the first language of all respondents) so that respondents would

understand the questions more clearly. This was done (refer to ADDENDUM 1 – the questionnaire);

- Approximately 25 minutes was needed to respond to the questionnaire;
- The level of the language used in the questionnaire was suitable for grade 11 learners;
- The statements in the questionnaire were suitable in achieving the objectives of the study;
- There were spelling errors that needed to be corrected; and
- It also gave the researcher an indication of the time needed to administer the questionnaire to the required number of respondents.

A pilot study is an abbreviated version of a research project in which the researcher practices or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent full-scale project (Dane, 1990:42). In this research project the pilot study was carried out at the researcher's school. The questionnaire was administered to 10 grade 11 learners at Isibuko High School, to determine how the design of the subsequent study can be improved and to identify flaws in the measuring instrument. A pilot study provides the researcher with an idea of what the method will actually look like in operation and helps avert any problems by varying procedures, instructions and questions.

De Vaux (1990:105) points out the following advantages of a pilot study:

- It permits a thorough check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating data.
- It provides the research worker with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study. Such ideas and clues greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear-cut findings in the main study.

According to Plug, Meyer, Louw and Gouws (1991:49-66) the following are the purpose of the pilot study.

- It provides the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study.
- It permits a thorough check of planned statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of the adequacy in treating data.
- It reduces the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study resulted in redesigning the main study.
- It saves major expenditure of time and money on aspects of the research, which could be unnecessary.
- Feedback from other people involved is possible.
- Alternate measures can be selected.
- The approximate time that is required by respondents to complete the questionnaire can be established.

- Questions and instructions that are misinterpreted or misunderstood can be reformulated.

3.9 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher visited the school at the appointed time. The respondents were all seated in a classroom. The questionnaires were handed out to the respondents. The researcher explained to the respondents what was required of them. The respondents were told that they could leave the room as soon as they had finished answering all questions on the questionnaire.

3.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND HOW THEY WILL BE OVERCOME

3.10.1 Limitations

The following are likely factors that might have influenced the validity and reliability of the questionnaire:

- Respondents might not have been frank and truthful in their responses.
- The investigation was confined to grade 11 learners in the Winterton/Bergville areas.

3.10.2 Measures to overcome limitations

- Emphasis was placed on confidentiality.
- The purpose of the research was verbally explained to the respondents.

3.11 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the criteria and procedures that the researcher had to consider in the planning of the research. Planning included permission to conduct the survey, sampling, selection of respondents, the research instrument that was to be used, i.e. the questionnaire, administration of the questionnaire, the pilot study and the limitations of the study and how they were overcome. The above aspects have ensured the construction of a credible research design.

In the next chapter the data that was collected from grade 11 learners will be presented.

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CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data that was collected by means of a questionnaire that was completed by 347 grade 11 learners at 4 schools in the Bergville Circuit Management Centre, Estcourt District, in the Ladysmith Region of the Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal. The information that has been collected is interpreted by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. Inferential statistics has been used to make a comparison between male and female respondents to each of the statements in the questionnaire. The cross tab table shows the percentage for male and female respondents for each of the statements. The Chi-square table gives the statistics indicating whether there is a difference between male and female respondents with respect to the particular statement. Certain comments have been offered.

4.2 BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Key to the use of the Chi-square table

Value is the Pearson Chi-square value,
 cf. is the degree of freedom, and
 asymp. Sig is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05, then the difference is statistically significant at the 5% level. Any value of p above 0.5 indicates no statistical difference between males and females with respect to the particular statement.

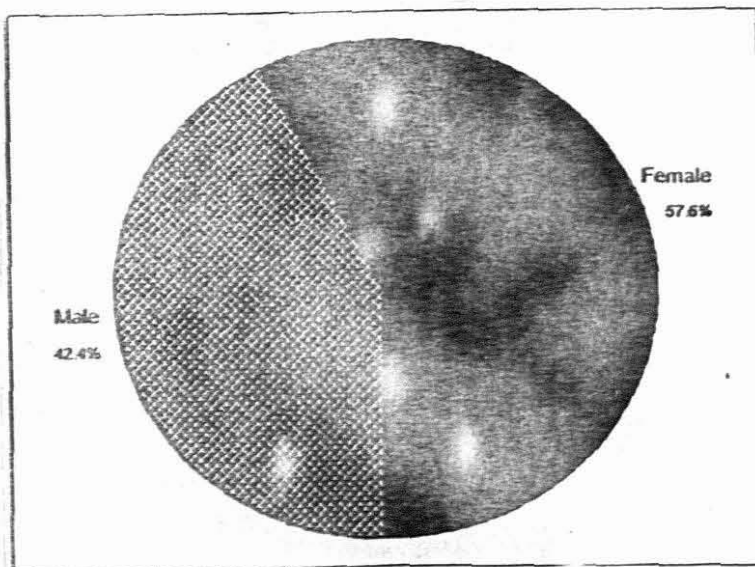
NB Graphs have only been included for statements where statistically, there is a difference between the responses of males and females, to a statement.

(1) Gender

Table 1 Frequency distribution according to gender

Sex	Frequency	%
Male	147	42
Female	200	58
Total	347	100

Diagram 1: **Frequency distribution according to gender**



According to Table 1, of the 347 respondents, 147 (42%) were male and 200 (58%) were female.

(2) Age groupTable 2 Frequency distribution according to age

Cross tab

Age		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
16	Count	22	24	46
	% within Gender	15.0%	12.0%	13.3%
17	Count	21	92	113
	% within Gender	14.3%	46.0%	32.6%
18	Count	38	48	86
	% within Gender	25.9%	24.0%	24.8%
19	Count	41	7	48
	% within Gender	27.9%	3.5%	13.8%
20+	Count		25	25
	% within Gender		17.0%	17.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	63.629 ^a	4	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 Cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.49.

Although all respondents were grade 11 learners, the age of respondents ranged from 16 years old to 20+, the oldest respondent being 23 years old. Forty-six respondents (13.3%) were 16 years old, 113 (32%) respondents were 17 years old, 86 (24.8%) respondents were 18 years old, 48 (13.8%) respondents were 19 years old and 54 (15.6%) of respondents were 20 years old and over.

(3) Number of children in familyTable 3 Frequency distribution according to number of children in family

Cross tab

No of children		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
2	Count	2	17	19
	% within Gender	1.4%	8.5%	5.5%
3	Count	13	31	44
	% within Gender	8.8%	15.6%	12.7%
4	Count	26	39	65
	% within Gender	17.7%	19.6%	18.8%
5	Count	28	11	39
	% within Gender	19.0%	5.5%	11.3%
6	Count	26	39	65
	% within Gender	17.7%	19.6%	18.8%
7	Count	25	30	55
	% within Gender	17.0%	15.1%	15.9%
8	Count	12	12	24
	% within Gender	8.2%	6.0%	6.9%
9	Count		11	11
	% within Gender		5.5%	3.2%
10+	Count	15	9	24
	% within Gender	10.2%	4.5%	6.9%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	37.810 ^a	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	43.413	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.935	1	.026
N of Valid Cases	346		

- a. 1 Cells (5.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.67.

Five-and-a-half percent of respondents come from a family that has 2 children, 12.7% of respondents come from a family of 3 children, 18.8% of respondents have 4 children in the family, 11.3% of respondents have 5 children in the family, 18.8% of

respondents come from a family of 6 children, 15.9% of respondents have 7 children in the family, 6.9% of respondents have 8 children in the family, 3.2% of families have 9 children and 6.9% of respondents' families have 10 or more children.

(4) Live with parents

Table 4 Frequency distribution: Live with parents or not

Cross tab

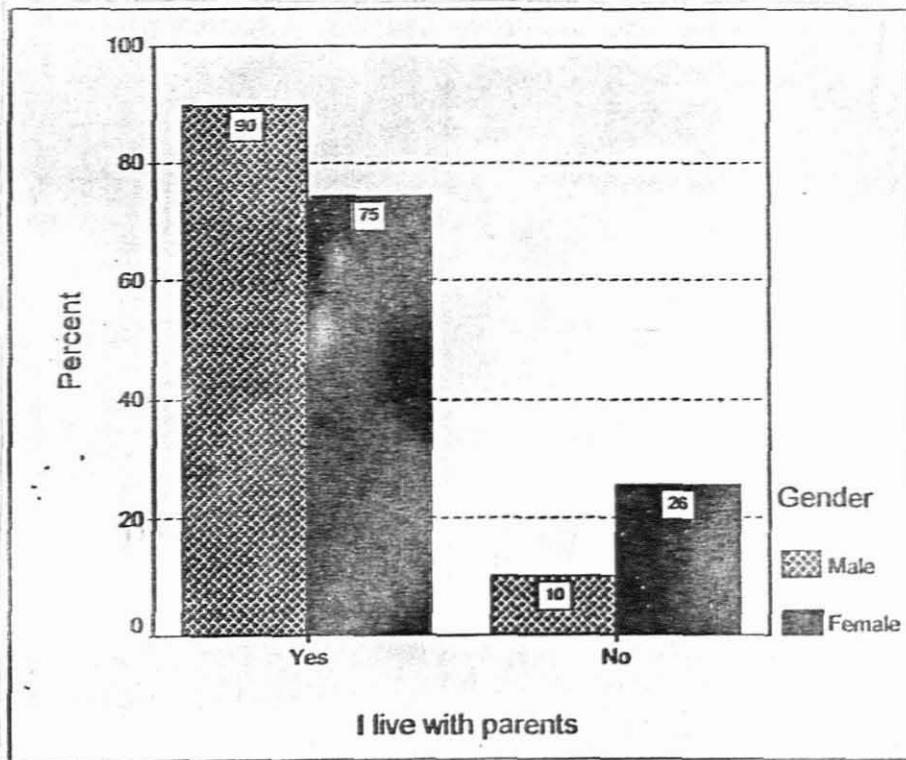
Live with parents		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Yes	Count	132	149	281
	% within Gender	89.8%	74.5%	81.0%
No	Count	15	51	66
	% within Gender	10.2%	26.5%	19.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	12.870 ^b	1	.000	.000	.000
Continuity Correction ^a	11.896	1	.001		
Likelihood Ratio	13.651	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.833	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	347				

- a. Computed only for a 2 x 2 table
- b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.96.

Diagram 2: Frequency distribution: Live with parents or not



Two-hundred-and-eighty (81%) of respondents, 132 (89.8%) males and 149 (74.5%) females live with their parents. Sixty-six (19%) respondents, 15 (10.2%) male and 51 (25.5%) female do not live with their parents.

(5) Ethnic group

Table 5 Frequency distribution according to ethnic group

Ethnic group	Frequency	%
B lack	347	100
Indian	0	0
Coloured	0	0
White	0	0
Others	0	0

All 347 respondents (100%) were black. This is the case because there are only black learners in all of the secondary schools in the Bergville Circuit. All of the secondary schools are rural schools.

(6) Religious group

Table 6 Frequency distribution according to religious affiliation

Religious affiliation	Frequency	%
Christian	347	100
Muslim	0	0
Hindu	0	0
Jewish	0	0
Others	0	0

All 347 respondents (100%) were of the Christian faith.

4.3 RESPONSES OF ADOLESCENTS REGARDING THEIR PERCEPTION OF RAPE

(1) Rape as intentional unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman without her consent

Table 7 Frequency distribution: Rape as intentional unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman without her consent

Cross tab

Question 2 (1)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	94	116	21
	% within Gender	63.9%	58.0	60.5
Disagree	Count	29	38	66
	% within Gender	19.0%	19.0%	19.0%
Uncertain	Count	25	46	71
	% within Gender	17.0%	23.0%	20.5%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	1.982 ^a	2	.371
Likelihood Ratio	2.008	2	.366
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.854	1	.173
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.96

Two-hundred-and-ten respondents (94 males and 116 females) agreed with the statement that rape is the intentional unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman without her consent (cf. 2.2.1), 66 respondents (28 males and 38 females) disagreed with the statement and 71 respondents were uncertain of the statement (25 males and 46 females). The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between male and female responses to the statement.

(2) Sentence for rape

Table 8 Frequency distribution: Sentences for rape offenders are too mild

Cross tab

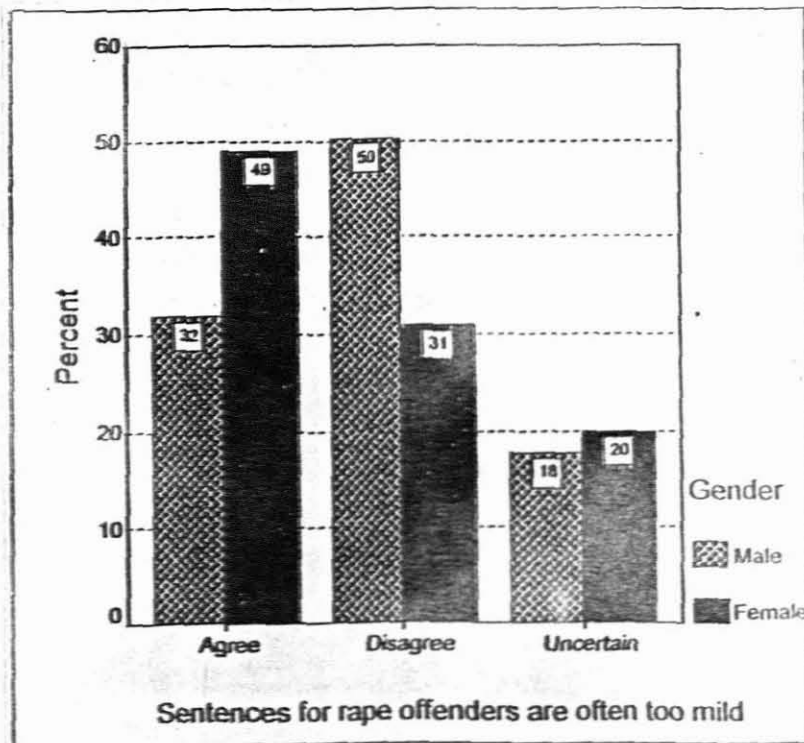
Question 2 (2)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	47	98	145
	% within Gender	32.0%	49.0%	41.8%
Disagree	Count	74	62	136
	% within Gender	50.3%	31.0%	39.2%
Uncertain	Count	26	40	66
	% within Gender	17.7%	20.0%	19.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	14.203 ^a	2	.001
Likelihood Ratio	14.253	2	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.288	1	.070
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.96.

Diagram 3: Frequency distribution: Sentence for rape offenders are too mild



One hundred and forty-five respondents (47 males and 98 females) agreed with the statement that sentences for rape victims are often too mild (cf. 2.2.3), 136 respondents (74 males and 62 females) disagreed with the statement and 66 (26 males and 40 females) were uncertain of the statement. According to the Pearson Chi-square p-value there is a significant difference between male and female responses to the question. Forty-nine percent of female respondents disagreed with the statement. This

can be attributed to the fact that males are at the receiving end of sentences and females are the victims of rape and want to see harsher sentences for rape perpetrators.

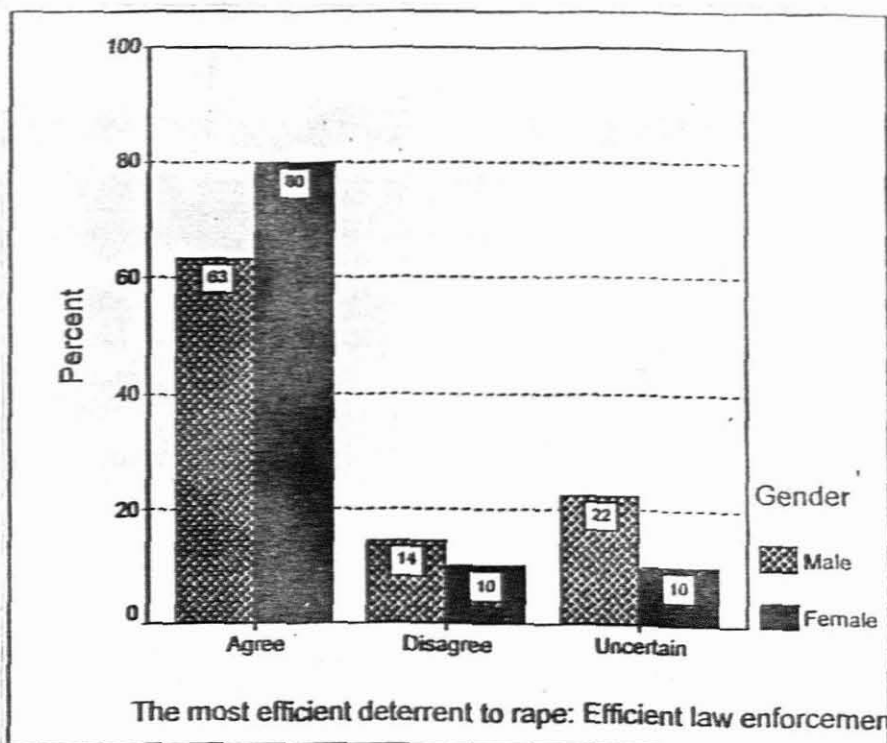
(3) Deterrent to rape

Table 9 Frequency distribution: The most efficient deterrent to rape is an efficient law enforcement system

Cross tab

Question 2 (3)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	93	160	253
	% within Gender	63.3%	80.0%	72.9%
Disagree	Count	21	20	41
	% within Gender	14.3%	10.0%	11.8%
Uncertain	Count	33	20	53
	% within Gender	22.4%	10.0%	15.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Diagram 4: **Frequency distribution: The most efficient deterrent to rape is an efficient law enforcement system**



Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	13.168 ^a	2	.001
Likelihood Ratio	13.075	2	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	13.091	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.37.

Two-hundred-and-fifty-three (72.9%) respondents, 93 males (63.3%) and 160 females (80%), agreed with the statement that an efficient law enforcement system is the most efficient deterrent to rape (cf. 2.2.3). Forty-one (11.8%) the respondents, 21 males (14.3%) and 20 females (10%) disagreed with the statement. Fifty-three (15.3%) respondents, 33 (22.4%) males and 20 (10%) females were uncertain of the statement. According to Pearson Chi-square and p-value there is no significant difference between responses of males and females to this statement.

Male and female respondents are thus in agreement that efficient law enforcement can deter rapists from raping.

(4) Date rape

Table 10 Frequency distribution: Men believe that a woman who agrees to a date also agrees to being raped

Cross tab

Question 2 (4)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	26	40	66
	% within Gender	17.7%	20.0%	19.0%
Disagree	Count	69	94	163
	% within Gender	46.9%	47.0%	47.0%
Uncertain	Count	52	6633.0	118
	% within Gender	35.4%	%	34.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	.379 ^a	2	.827
Likelihood Ratio	.380	2	.827
Linear-by-Linear Association	.365	1	.545
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.96.

Sixty-six respondents (19%), 26 males (20%) and 40 females, agreed with the statement that men believe that a woman who agrees to a date also agrees to being raped (cf. 2.3.2). One hundred and sixty-three respondents, 69 males (46.9%) and 94 (47%) of females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and eighteen respondents (34%), 52 males (35.4%) and 66 females (33%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(5) Frustration at work as a cause of rape

Table 11 Frequency distribution: Frustration at work can cause men to rape

Cross tab

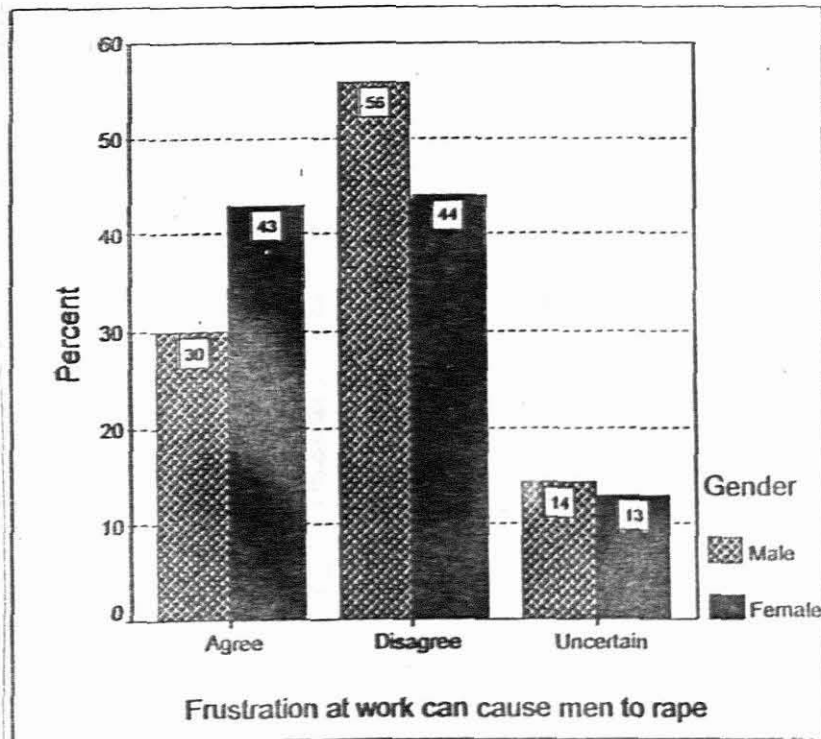
Question 2 (5)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	44	86	130
	% within Gender	29.9%	43.0%	37.5%
Disagree	Count	82	88	170
	% within Gender	55.8%	44.0%	49.0%
Uncertain	Count	21	26	47
	% within Gender	14.3%	13.0%	13.5%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	6.366 ^a	2	.041
Likelihood Ratio	6.434	2	.040
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.843	1	.050
N of Valid Cases	347		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.91.

Diagram 5: Frequency distribution: Frustration at work can cause men to rape



One hundred and thirty respondents, 44 males (29.9%) and 86 females (43%), agree with the statement that frustration at work can cause men to rape (cf. 2.3.4). Of the 170 (49%) respondents that disagree with the statement 82 (55.8%) are male and 88 (44%) are female. Forty-seven (13.5%) respondents, 21 (14.3%) males and 26 (13%), are uncertain of the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value for this statement indicates that there is a

significant difference between the responses of males and females.

(6) Culture of violence and rape

Table 12 Frequency distribution: A culture of violence contributes to rape

Cross tab

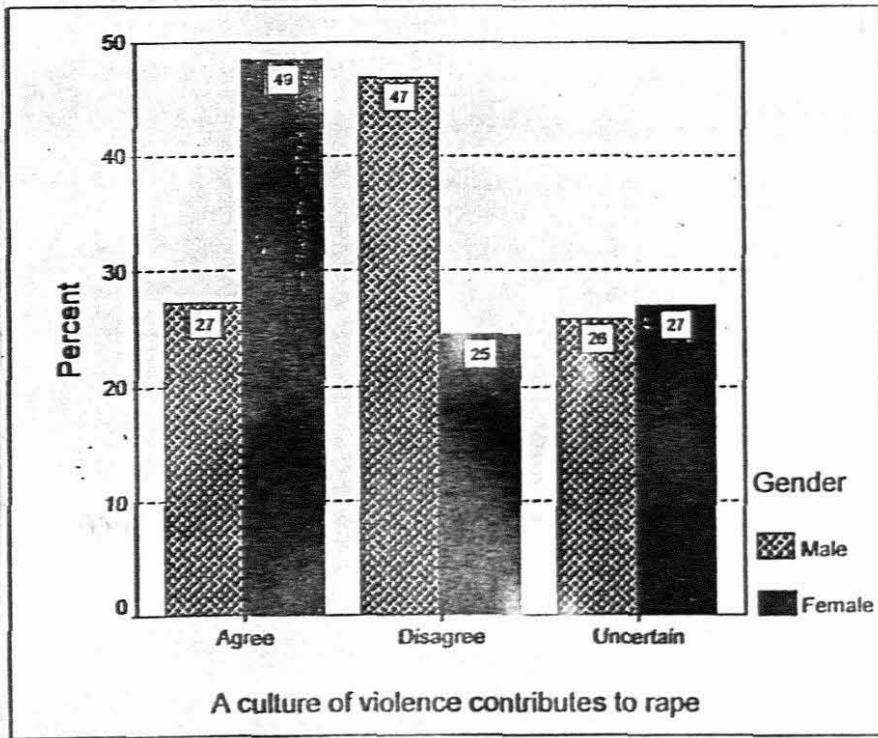
Question 2 (6)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	40	97	137
	% within Gender	27.2%	48.5%	39.5%
Disagree	Count	69	49	118
	% within Gender	46.9%	24.5%	34.0%
Uncertain	Count	38	54	92
	% within Gender	25.9%	27.0%	26.5%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	22.313 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	22.528	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.328	1	.021
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 38.97.

Diagram 6: Frequency distribution: A culture of violence contributes to rape



One hundred and thirty-seven respondents (39.5%), 40 males (27.2%) and 97 females (48.5%), agree with the statement that a culture of violence contributes to rape (cf. 2.3.7). Of the 118 respondents (34%) who disagree with the statement, 69 (46.9%) are males and 49 (24.5%) are females. Ninety-two respondents (26.5%), 38 (25.9%) males and 54 (27%) females are uncertain of the statement. According to the Pearson Chi-square p-value there is a significant difference between male and female responses to the statement.

(7) Rape as an expression of domination over womenTable 13 Frequency distribution: Men rape to express their domination over women

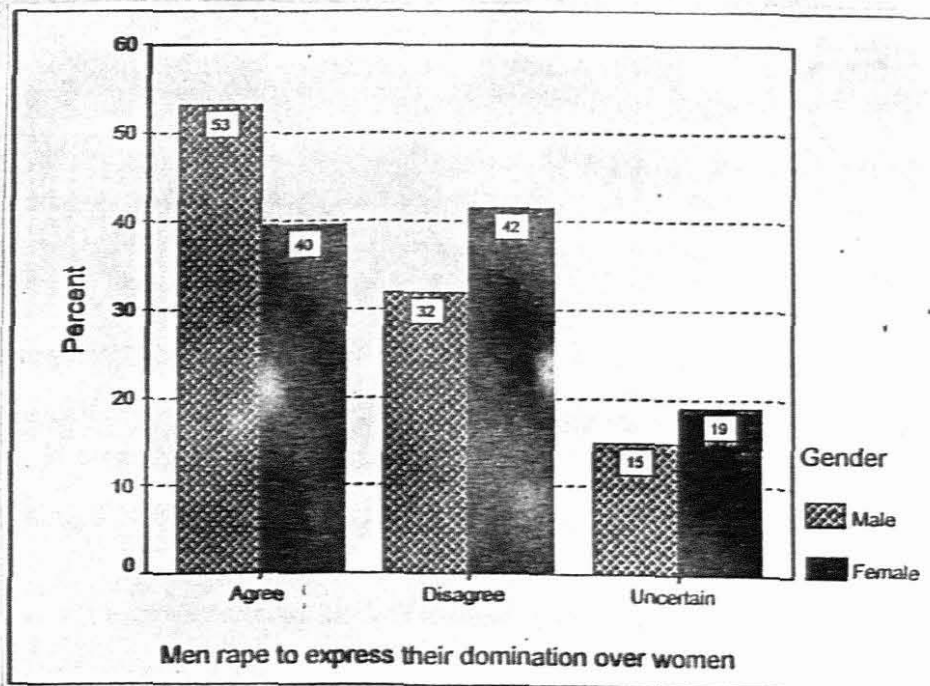
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Question 2 (7)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	78	79	157
	% within Gender	53.1%	39.5%	45.2%
Disagree	Count	47	83	130
	% within Gender	32.0%	41.5%	37.5%
Uncertain	Count	22	38	60
	% within Gender	15.0%	19.0%	17.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	6.294 ^a	2	.043
Likelihood Ratio	6.299	2	.043
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.780	1	.029
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.42.

Diagram 7: Frequency distribution: Men rape to express their domination over women

One hundred and fifty-seven respondents (42.5%) agree that men rape to express their domination over women. Of this number 78 (53.1%) are male and 79 (39.5%) are female (cf. 2.3.1). One hundred and thirty respondents (37.5%), 47 males (32%) and 83 (41.5%) females disagree with the statement. Sixty respondents (17.3%), 22 (15%) males and 38 (19%) females are uncertain of the statement. Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of male and females to this statement.

(8) "Sexy" women and rape

Table 14 Frequency distribution according to: Only "sexy" looking women get raped

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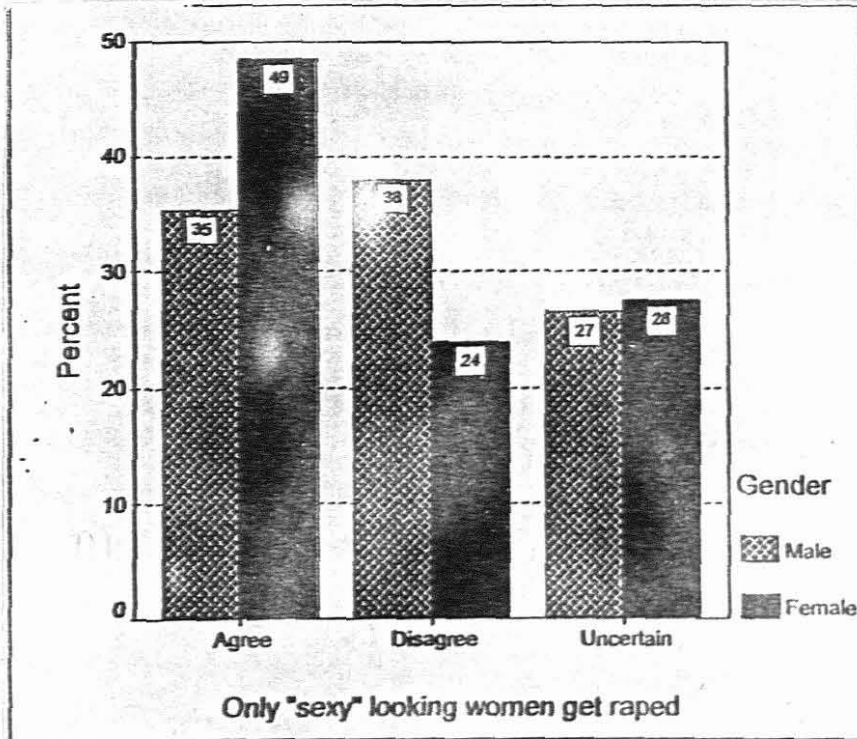
Question 2 (8)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	52	97	149
	% within Gender	35.4%	48.5%	42.9%
Disagree	Count	56	48	104
	% within Gender	38.1%	24.0%	30.0%
Uncertain	Count	39	55	94
	% within Gender	26.5%	27.5%	27.1%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	9.045 ^a	2	.011
Likelihood Ratio	9.031	2	.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.849	1	.174
N of Valid Cases	247		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 39.82.

Diagram 8: Frequency distribution: Only "sexy" looking women get raped



One hundred and forty-nine respondents (42.9%), 52 (35.4%) males and 97 (48.5%) females believe that only "sexy" looking women get raped (cf. 2.4.1). One hundred and four (30%) respondents, 56 (38.1%) males and 48 (24%) of females disagree with the statement. Ninety-four respondents (27.1%), 39 (26.5%) male respondents and 55 (27.5%) female respondents are uncertain of the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference the responses of male and female respondents.

(9) Rape is degrading to anybodyTable 15 Frequency distribution according to: Rape is degrading to anybody

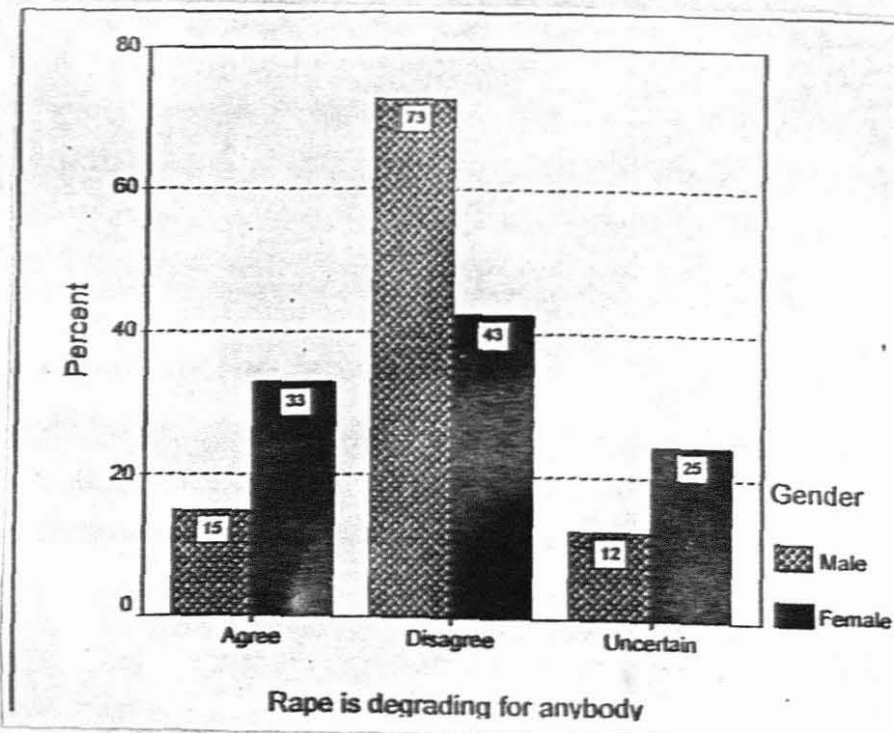
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Question 2 (9)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	22	66	88
	% within Gender	15.0%	33.0%	25.4%
Disagree	Count	107	85	192
	% within Gender	72.8%	42.5%	55.3%
Uncertain	Count	18	49	67
	% within Gender	12.2%	24.5%	19.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	31.504 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	32.327	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.637	1	.425
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28.38.

Diagram 9: **Frequency distribution: Rape is degrading to anybody**

Eighty-eight respondents (25.4%), 22 males (15%) and 66 females (33%) agreed with the statement that rape is degrading to anybody. One hundred and ninety-two respondents (55.3%), 107 males (72.8%) and 85 (42.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Sixty-seven respondents (19.3%), 18 males (12.2%) and 49 females (24.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(10) Provocative dressing and rape

Table 16 Frequency distribution according to: Women who dress provocatively are asking to be raped

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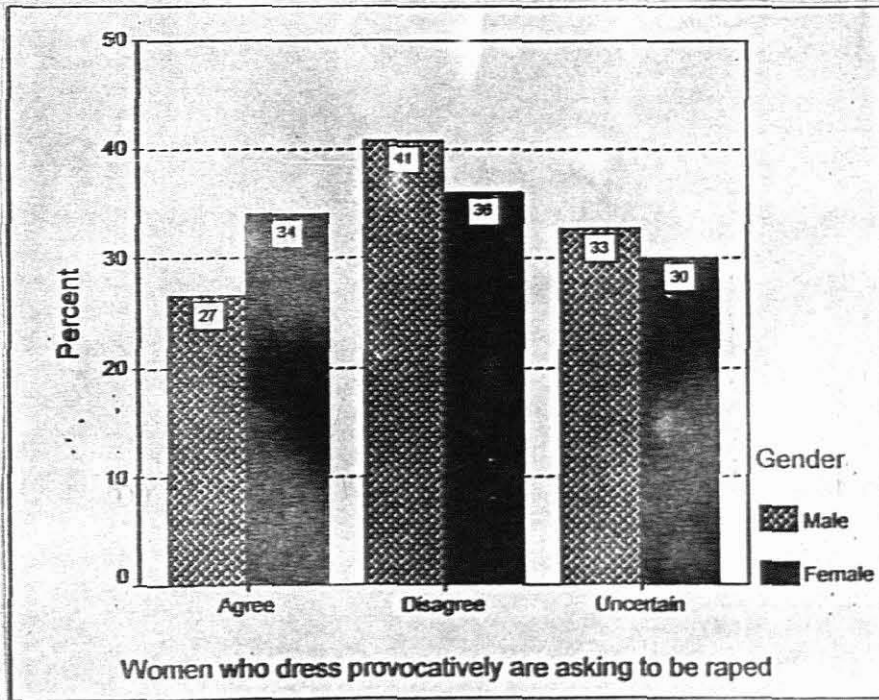
Question 2 (10)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	39	68	107
	% within Gender	26.5%	34.0%	30.8%
Disagree	Count	60	72	132
	% within Gender	40.8%	36.0%	38.0%
Uncertain	Count	48	60	108
	% within Gender	32.7%	30.0%	31.1%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	2.241 ^a	2	.326
Likelihood Ratio	2.261	2	.323
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.397	1	.237
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28.38.

Diagram 10: Frequency distribution: Women who dress provocatively are asking to be raped



One hundred and seven respondents (30.8%), 39 males (26.5%) and 68 females (34%) agreed with the statement that women who dress provocatively are asking to be raped (cf. 2.4.2). One hundred and thirty-two respondents (38%), 60 males (40.8%) and 72 (36%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and eight respondents (31.1%), 48 males (32.7%) and 60 females (30%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(11) Unaccompanied women being susceptible to rapeTable 17 Frequency distribution according to: Unaccompanied women are more susceptible to be raped

Cross tab

Question 2 (11)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	31	33	64
	% within Gender	21.1%	16.5%	18.4%
Disagree	Count	31	61	92
	% within Gender	21.1%	30.5%	26.5%
Uncertain	Count	85	106	191
	% within Gender	57.8%	53.0%	55.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	4.156 ^a	2	.125
Likelihood Ratio	4.213	2	.122
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.978
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.11.

Sixty-four respondents (18.4%), 31 males (21.1%) and 33 females (16.5%) agreed that unaccompanied women were more susceptible to rape (cf. 2.4.3). Ninety-two (26.5%) respondents, 31 males (21.1%) and 61 (30.5%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and ninety-one respondents (55%), 85 males (57.8%) and 106 females (53%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(12) Rapists are known to their victimsTable 18 Frequency distribution: Rapists are often known to their victims

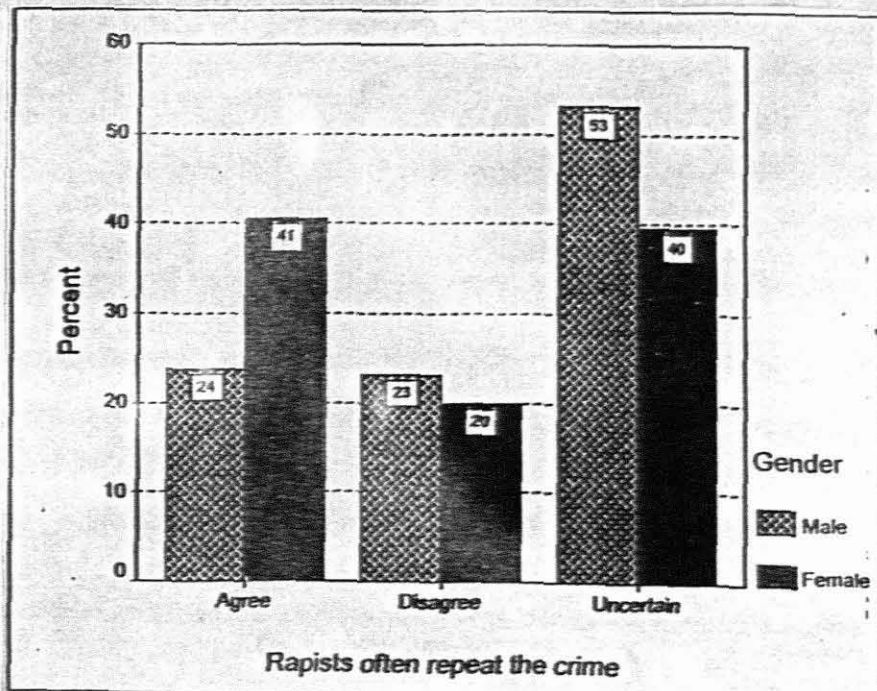
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Question 2 (12)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	35	81	115
	% within Gender	23.8%	40.5%	33.4%
Disagree	Count	34	40	74
	% within Gender	23.1%	20.0%	21.3%
Uncertain	Count	78	79	157
	% within Gender	53.1%	39.5%	45.2%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	10.839 ^a	2	.004
Likelihood Ratio	11.119	2	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.005	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 31.35

Diagram 11: **Frequency distribution: Rapists are often known to their victims**

One hundred and six respondents (33.4%), 35 males (23.8) and 81 (40.5%) females agreed with the statement that rapists are known to their victims. Seventy-four respondents, 34 males (23.1%) and 40 (20%) of females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and fifty-seven respondents (45.2%), 78 males (53.1%) and 79 females (39.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(13) Reporting of rape

Table 19 Frequency distribution according to: Women are reluctant to report being raped

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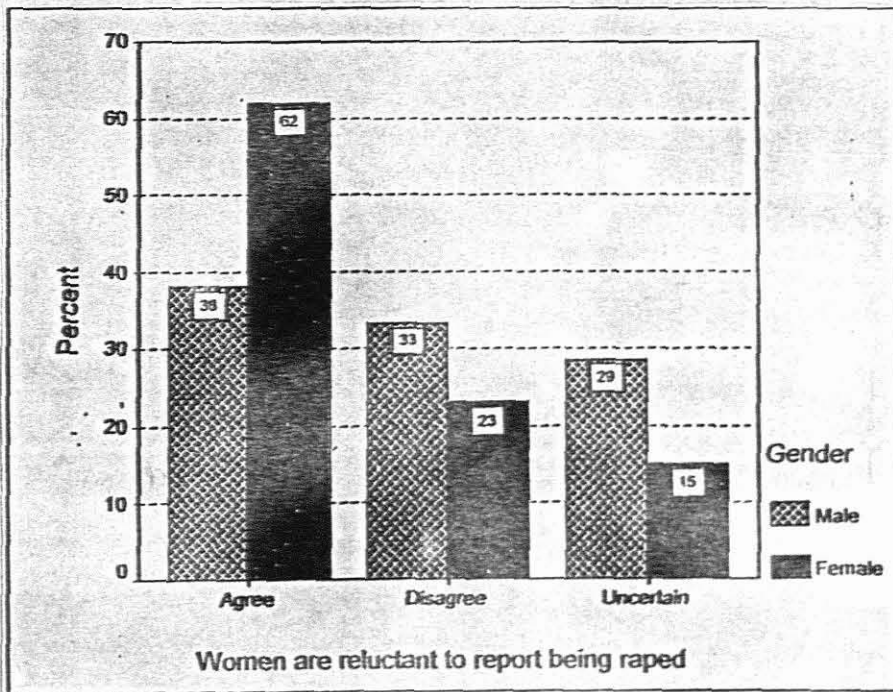
Question 2 (13)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	56	124	160
	% within Gender	39.1%	61.0%	51.9%
Disagree	Count	49	46	95
	% within Gender	33.3%	23.0%	27.4%
Uncertain	Count	42	30	72
	% within Gender	28.6%	15.0%	20.7%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	20.159 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	20.315	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.853	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 30.50.

Diagram 12: Frequency distribution: Women are reluctant to report being raped



One hundred and eighty respondents (51.9%, 56 males (38.1%) and 124 (62%) females agreed that women are reluctant to report being raped (cf. 2.5.2). Ninety-five (26.4%) respondents, 49 males (33.3%) and 46 (23%) females disagreed with the statement. Seventy-two respondents (20.7%), 42 males (28.6%) and 30 females (15%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(14) Rape as a measure of expression of powerTable 20 Frequency distribution according to: Rape is an expression of the measure of power

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Question 2 (14)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	22	39	61
	% within Gender	15.1%	19.5%	17.6%
Disagree	Count	94	123	217
	% within Gender	64.4%	61.5%	62.7%
Uncertain	Count	30	38	68
	% within Gender	20.5%	19.0%	19.7%
Total	Count	146	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	1.155 ^a	2	.561
Likelihood Ratio	1.169	2	.557
Linear-by-Linear Association	.808	1	.369
N of Valid Cases	346		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.74.

Sixty-one respondents (17.6%), 22 males (15.1%) and 39 (19.5%) females agreed that rape is an expression of the measure of power. Two hundred and seventeen (62.7%) respondents, 94 males (64.4%) and 123 (61.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Sixty-eight respondents (19.7%), 30 males (20.5%) and 38 females (19%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(15) Self-esteem of race victimsTable 21 Frequency distribution according to: Rape decreases the self-esteem of the victim

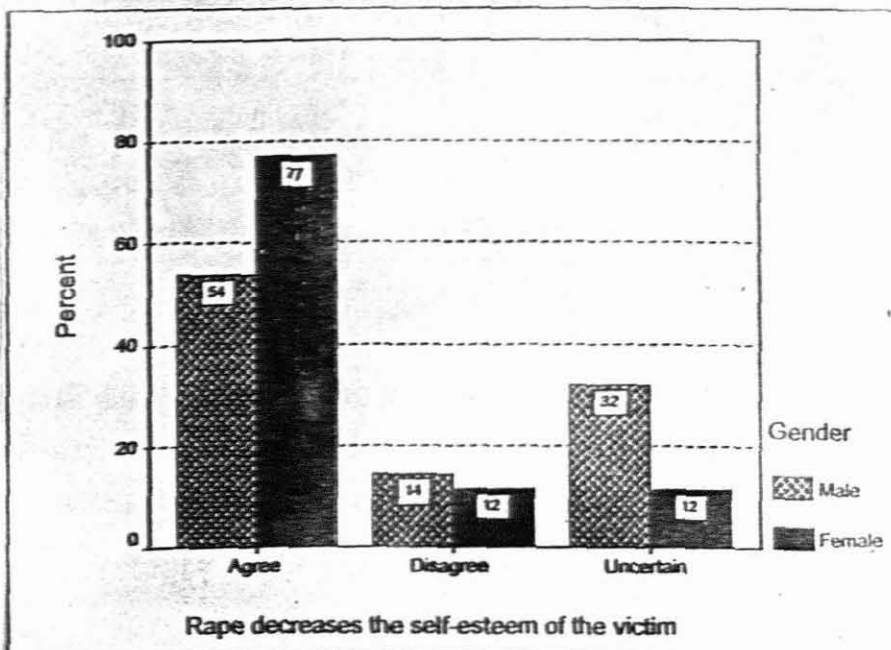
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Question 2 (15)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	79	154	233
	% within Gender	53.7%	77.0%	67.1%
Disagree	Count	21	23	44
	% within Gender	14.3%	11.5%	12.7%
Uncertain	Count	47	23	70
	% within Gender	32.0%	11.5%	20.2%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	24.948 ^a	2	.00
Likelihood Ratio	24.939	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	24.759	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.64.

Diagram 13: **Frequency distribution: Rape decreases the self-esteem of the victim**

Two hundred and thirty-three respondents (67.1%), 79 males (53.7%) and 154 (77%) females agreed that rape decreases the self-esteem of the victim (cf. 2.6.2.3). Forty-four respondents, 21 males (14.3%) and 23 (11.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Seventy respondents (20.2%), 47 males 32.0%, and 23 females (11.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(16) Relationships of rape victims with others

Table 22 Frequency distribution according to: Rape victims have difficulty in coping with relationships with other people

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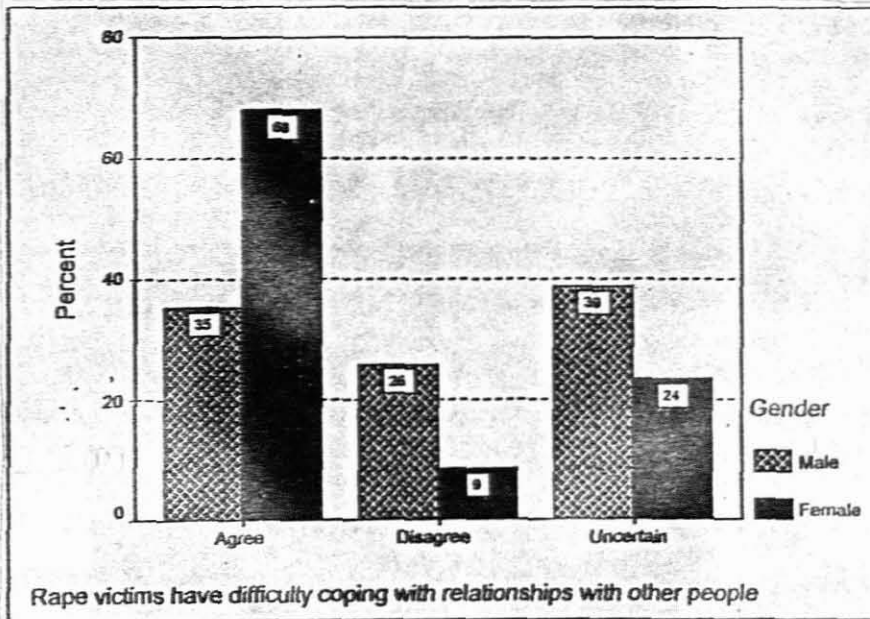
Question 2 (16)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	52	136	188
	% within Gender	35.4%	68.0%	54.2%
Disagree	Count	38	17	55
	% within Gender	25.9%	8.5%	15.9%
Uncertain	Count	57	47	104
	% within Gender	38.8%	23.5%	30.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	39.334 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	39.954	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	24.760	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.30.

Diagram 14: Frequency distribution: Rape victims have difficulty in coping with relationships with other people



One hundred and eighty-eight respondents (54.2%), 52 males (35.4%) and 136 (68%) females agreed that rape victims have difficulty in coping with relationships with other people (cf. 2.10). Fifty-five (15.9%) respondents, 38 males (25.9%) and 17 (8.5%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and four respondents (30%), 57 males (35.4%) and 47 females (23.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(17) Talking about rapeTable 23 Frequency distribution according to: It is vital for the victim to talk about the rape

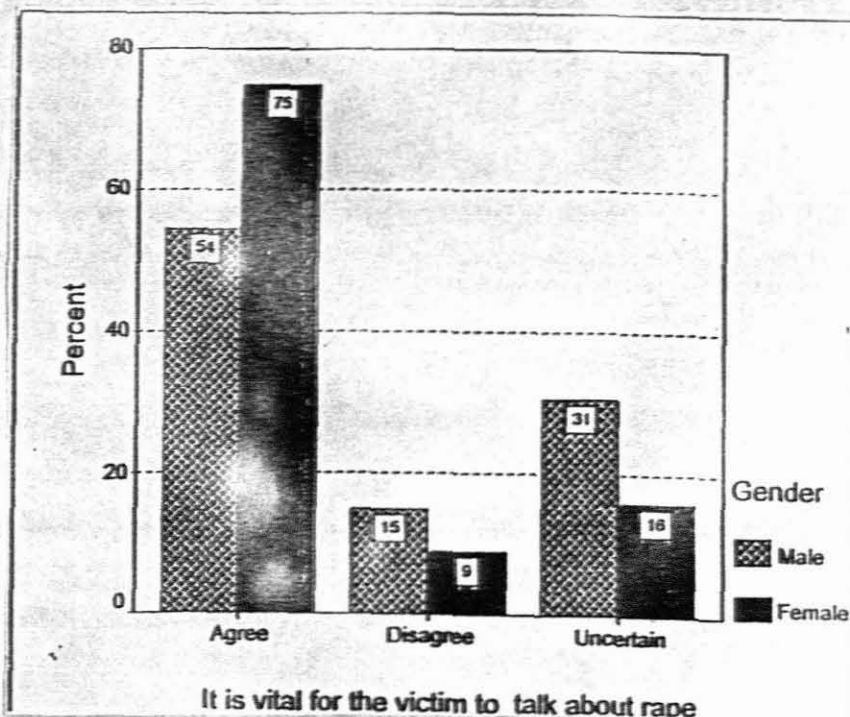
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Question 2 (17)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	80	150	230
	% within Gender	54.4%	75.0%	66.3%
Disagree	Count	22	18	40
	% within Gender	15.0%	9.0%	11.5%
Uncertain	Count	45	32	77
	% within Gender	30.6%	16.0%	22.2%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	16.182 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	16.125	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.155	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.95.

Diagram 15: **Frequency distribution: It is vital for the victim to talk about the rape**

Two hundred and thirty respondents (66.3%), 80 males (54.4%) and 150 (75%) females agreed that it is vital for the victim to talk about the rape (cf. 2.7.2). Forty respondents (11.5%), 22 males (15%) and 18 (9%) females disagreed with the statement. Seventy-seven respondents (22.2%), 45 males (30.6%) and 32 females (16%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(18) Rape and domestic violence

Table 24 Frequency distribution according to: Rape occurs in families where domestic violence is experienced

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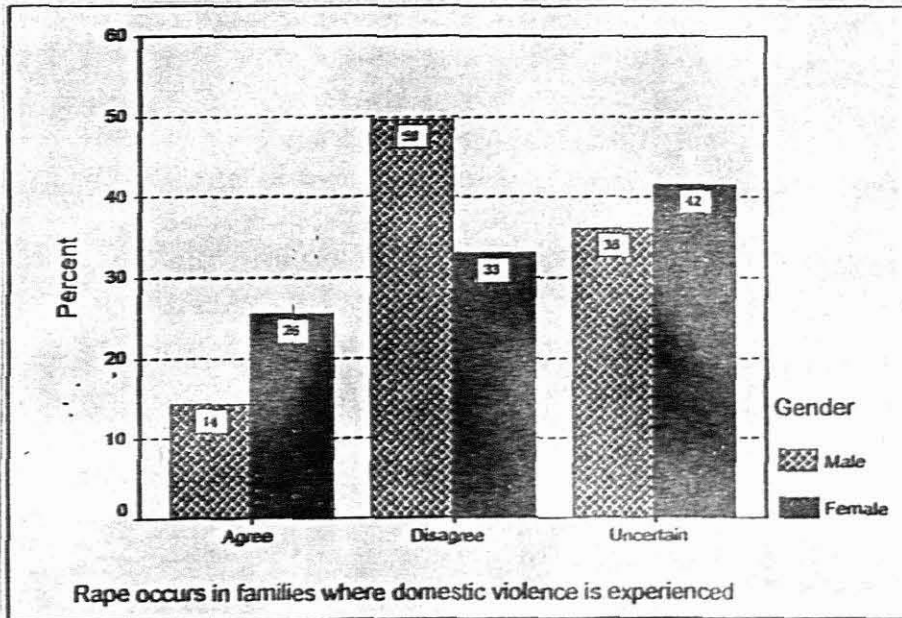
Question 2 (18)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	21	51	72
	% within Gender	14.3%	25.5%	20.7%
Disagree	Count	73	66	139
	% within Gender	49.7%	33.0%	40.1%
Uncertain	Count	53	83	136
	% within Gender	36.1%	41.5%	39.2%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	11.64 ^a	2	.003
Likelihood Ratio	11.788	2	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	.497	1	.481
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 30.50

Diagram 16: Frequency distribution: Rape occurs in families where domestic violence is experienced



Seventy-two respondents (20.7%), 21 males (14.3%) and 51 (25.5%) females agreed that rape occurs in families where domestic violence is experienced (cf. 2.5.7). One hundred and thirty-nine (40.1%) of the respondents, 73 males (49.7%) and 66 (33%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and thirty-six respondents (39.2%), 53 males (36.1%) and 83 females (41.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(19) Rape as a crime of aggressionTable 25 Frequency distribution according to: Rape is a crime of aggression

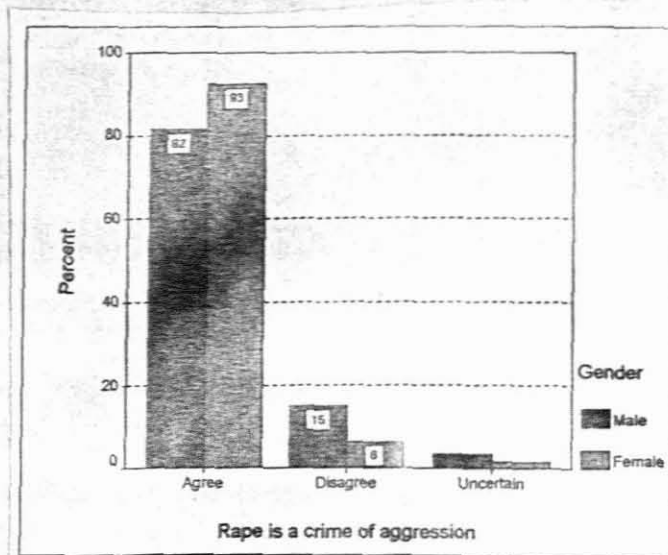
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Question 2 (19)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	120	185	305
	% within Gender	81.6%	92.5%	87.9%
Disagree	Count	22	12	34
	% within Gender	15.0%	6.0%	9.8%
Uncertain	Count	5	3	8
	% within Gender	3.4%	1.5%	2.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	9.418 ^a	2	.009
Likelihood Ratio	9.323	2	.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.129	1	.004
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.39.

Diagram 17: **Frequency distribution: Rape is a crime of aggression**

Three hundred and five respondents (87.9%), 120 males (81.6%) and 185 (92.5%) females agreed that rape is a crime of aggression (cf. 2.8.2). Thirty-four (9.8%) of respondents, 22 males (15%) and 12 (6%) of females disagreed with the statement. Eight respondents (2.3%), 5 males (3.4%) and 3 females (1.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(20) Rape victims' contact with males

Table 26 Frequency distribution according to: Abused girls find it difficult to tolerate contact with males

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Question 2 (20)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	74	111	185
	% within Gender	50.3%	55.5%	53.3%
Disagree	Count	34	43	77
	% within Gender	23.1%	21.5%	22.2%
Uncertain	Count	39	46	85
	% within Gender	26.5%	23.0%	24.5%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	.956 ^a	2	.620
Likelihood Ratio	.955	2	.620
Linear-by-Linear Association	.918	1	.338
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 32.62.

One hundred and eighty-five respondents (53.3%), 74 males (50.3%) and 111 (55.5%) females agreed that abused girls find it

difficult to tolerate contact with males (cf. 1.12.2). Seventy-seven (22.2%) respondents, 34 males (23.1%) and 43 (21.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Eighty-five respondents (24.5%), 39 males (26.5%) and 46 females (23%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(21) Parental support for rape victims

Table 27 Frequency distribution according to: Parents need to support a child that has been raped

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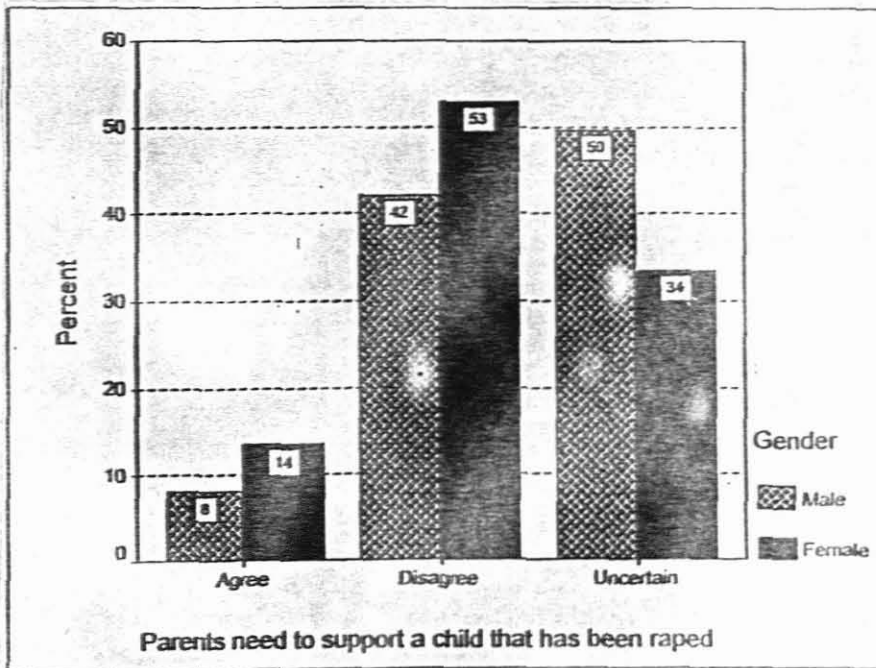
Question 2 (21)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	12	27	39
	% within Gender	8.2%	13.5%	11.2%
Disagree	Count	62	106	168
	% within Gender	42.2%	53.0%	48.4%
Uncertain	Count	73	67	140
	% within Gender	49.7%	33.5%	40.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	.9681 ^a	2	.008
Likelihood Ratio	9.710	2	.008
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.055	1	.003
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.52.

Diagram 18: Frequency distribution: Parents need to support a child that has been raped



Thirty-nine respondents (11.2%), 22 males (8.2%) and 27 (13.5%) females agreed that parents need to support a child that has been raped (cf. 2.10.5). One hundred and sixty-eight (48.4%) respondents, 62 males (42.2%) and 106 (43%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and forty respondents (40.3%), 73 males (49.9%) and 67 females (33.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(22) Adolescence as a time of heightened sexual awarenessTable 28 Frequency distribution according to: Adolescence is a time of heightened sexual awareness

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Question 2 (22)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	104	146	250
	% within Gender	70.7%	73.0%	72.0%
Disagree	Count	24	41	65
	% within Gender	16.3%	20.5%	18.7%
Uncertain	Count	19	13	32
	% within Gender	12.0%	6.5%	9.2%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	4.6401 ^a	2	.098
Likelihood Ratio	4.593	2	.101
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.522	1	.217
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.56.

Two hundred and fifty respondents (72%), 104 males (70.7%) and 146 (73%) females agreed that adolescence is a time of heightened sexual awareness (cf. 2.11.1). Sixty-five respondents, 24 males (16.3%) and 41 (20.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Thirty-two respondents (9.2%), 19 males (12.9%) and 13 females (6.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(23) Adolescents experimenting with sexTable 29 Frequency distribution according to: Adolescents experiment with sex

Cross tab

Question 2 (23)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	119	163	282
	% within Gender	81.0%	81.5%	81.3%
Disagree	Count	18	30	48
	% within Gender	12.2%	15.0%	13.8%
Uncertain	Count	10	7	17
	% within Gender	6.8%	3.5%	4.9%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	2.354 ^a	2	.306
Likelihood Ratio	2.331	2	.312
Linear-by-Linear Association	.450	1	.502
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.20

Two hundred and eighty-two respondents (81.3%), 119 males (81%) and 163 (81.5%) females agreed that adolescents experiment with sex (2.12.2). Forty-eight (13.8%) respondents, 18 males (12.2%) and 30 (15%) females disagreed with the statement. Seventeen respondents (4.9%), 10 males (6.8%) and 7 females (3.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(24) Rape victims seeing themselves as being damagedTable 30 Frequency distribution according to: Teenage girls who have been raped see themselves as being damaged

Cross tab

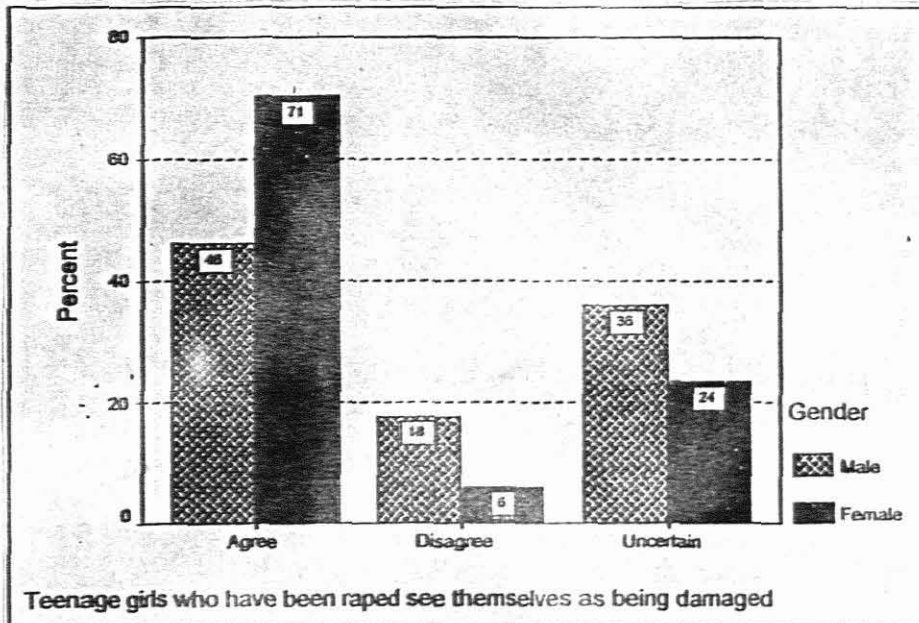
Question 2 (24)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	68	141	209
	% within Gender	46.3%	70.5%	60.2%
Disagree	Count	26	12	38
	% within Gender	17.7%	6.0%	11.0%
Uncertain	Count	53	47	100
	% within Gender	36.1%	23.5%	28.8%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	23.468 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	23.558	2	.00
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.446	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.10.

Diagram 19: Frequency distribution: Teenage girls who have been raped see themselves as being damaged



Two hundred and nine respondents (60.2%), 68 males (46.3%) and 141 (70.5%) females agreed that teenage girls who have been raped see themselves as being damaged. Thirty-eight (11%) respondents, 26 males (17.7) and 12 (6%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred respondents (28.8%), 53 males (36.1%) and 47 females (23.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(25) Making decisions about sexuality

Table 31 Frequency distribution according to: Making decisions about sexuality is extremely important for adolescents

Cross tab

Question 2 (25)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	71	97	168
	% within Gender	48.3%	48.5%	48.4%
Disagree	Count	50	66	116
	% within Gender	34.0%	33.0%	33.4%
Uncertain	Count	26	37	63
	% within Gender	17.7%	18.5%	18.2%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	.058 ^a	2	.972
Likelihood Ratio	.058	2	.972
Linear-by-Linear Association	.006	1	.972
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26.69.

One hundred and sixty-eight respondents (48.4%), 71 males (48.3%) and 97 (48.5%) females agreed that making decisions about sexuality is extremely important for adolescents (cf. 2.12.2). One hundred and sixteen respondents, 50 males (34%) and 66 (48.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Sixty-three respondents (18.2%), 26 males (17.7%) and 37 females (18.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(26) Victims of rape becoming rapists later on in lifeTable 32 Frequency distribution according to: Victims of rape themselves become rapists later in life

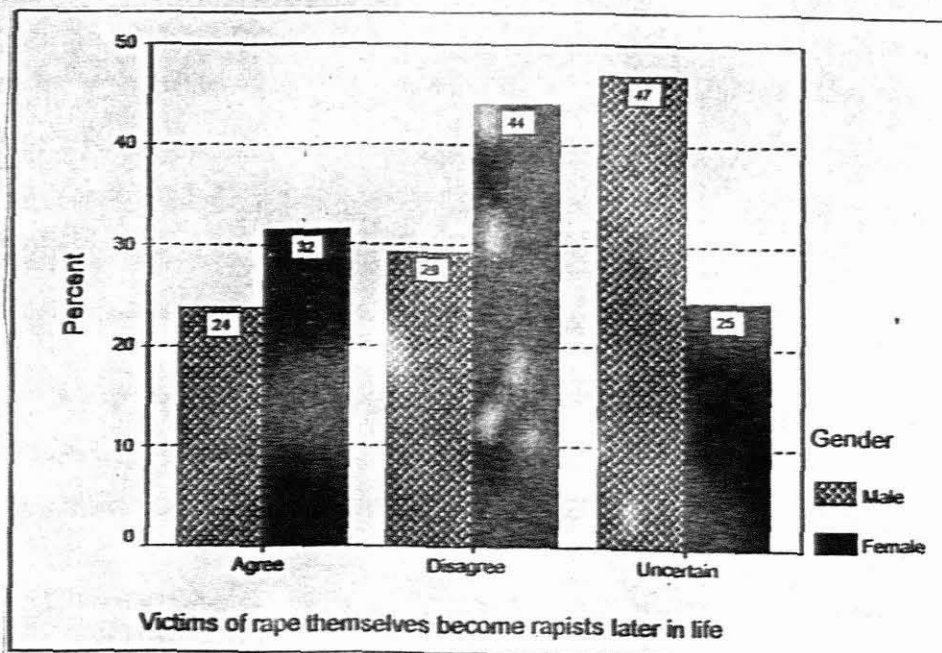
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Question 2 (26)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	35	63	98
	% within Gender	23.8%	31.5%	28.2%
Disagree	Count	43	88	131
	% within Gender	29.3%	44.0%	37.8%
Uncertain	Count	69	49	118
	% within Gender	46.9%	24.5%	34.0%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	19.201 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	19.169	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.386	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 41.52.

Diagram 20: Frequency distribution: Victims of rape themselves become rapists later in life

Ninety-eight respondents (28.2%), 35 males (23.8%) and 63 (31.5%) females agreed that victims of rape themselves become rapists later in life. One hundred and thirty-one (37.8%) respondents, 43 males (29.3%) and 88 (44%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and eighteen respondents (34%), 69 males (46.9%) and 49 females (24.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(27) Adolescent rapists continuing to rape in adult life

Table 33 Frequency distribution according to: Adolescent rapists will continue raping in adult life

Cross tab

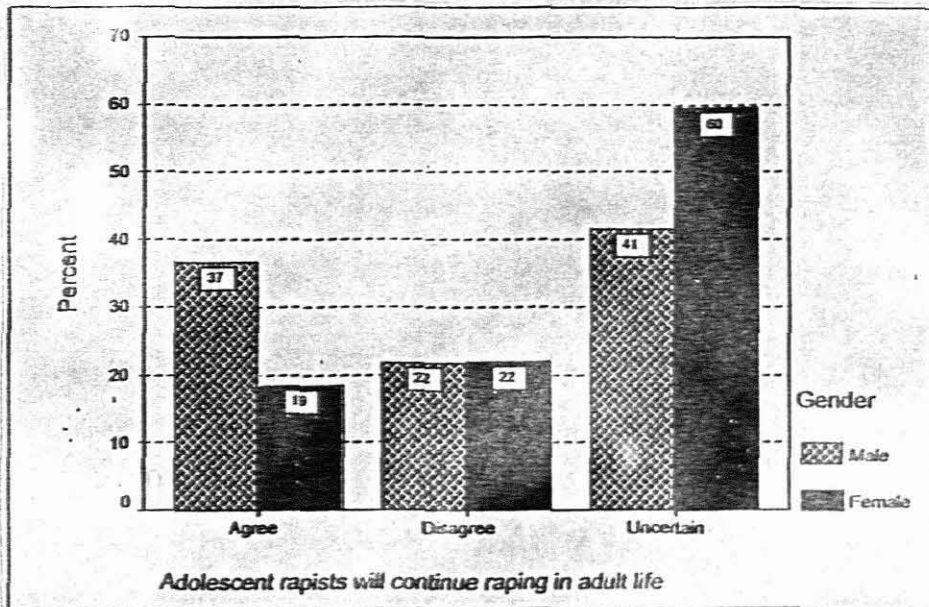
Question 2 (27)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	54	37	91
	% within Gender	36.7%	18.5%	26.2%
Disagree	Count	32	44	76
	% within Gender	21.8%	22.0%	21.9%
Uncertain	Count	61	119	180
	% within Gender	41.5%	59.5%	51.9%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	16.039 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	15.997	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.512	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 32.20.

Diagram 21: Frequency distribution: Adolescent rapists will continue raping in adult life



Ninety-one respondents (26.2%), 54 males (36.7%) and 37 (18.5%) females agreed that adolescent rapists would continue raping in adult life. Seventy-six (21.9%) respondents, 32 males (21.8%) and 44 (22%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and eighty respondents (51.9%), 61 males (41.5%) and 119 females (51.9%), were uncertain about the statement. Adolescents are thus not sure whether adolescent rapists will continue raping in adult life. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(28) Peer pressure to engage in sexTable 34 Frequency distribution according to: Peers put pressure on adolescents to engage in sex

Cross tab

Question 2 (28)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	96	116	212
	% within Gender	65.3%	58.0%	61.1%
Disagree	Count	22	48	70
	% within Gender	15.0%	24.0%	20.2%
Uncertain	Count	29	36	65
	% within Gender	19.7%	18.0%	18.7%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	4.303 ^a	2	.116
Likelihood Ratio	4.410	2	.110
Linear-by-Linear Association	.425	1	.515
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.54.

Two hundred and twelve respondents (61.1%), 96 males (65.3%) and 116 (58%) females agreed that peers put pressure on adolescents to engage in sex. It is evident that peer pressure is a factor that contributes to rape. Seventy (20.2%) of respondents, 22 males (15%) and 48 (24%) females disagreed with the statement. Sixty-five respondents (18.7%), 29 males (19.7%) and 36 females (18%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(29) Street children becoming rapistsTable 35 Frequency distribution according to: Street children often become rapists

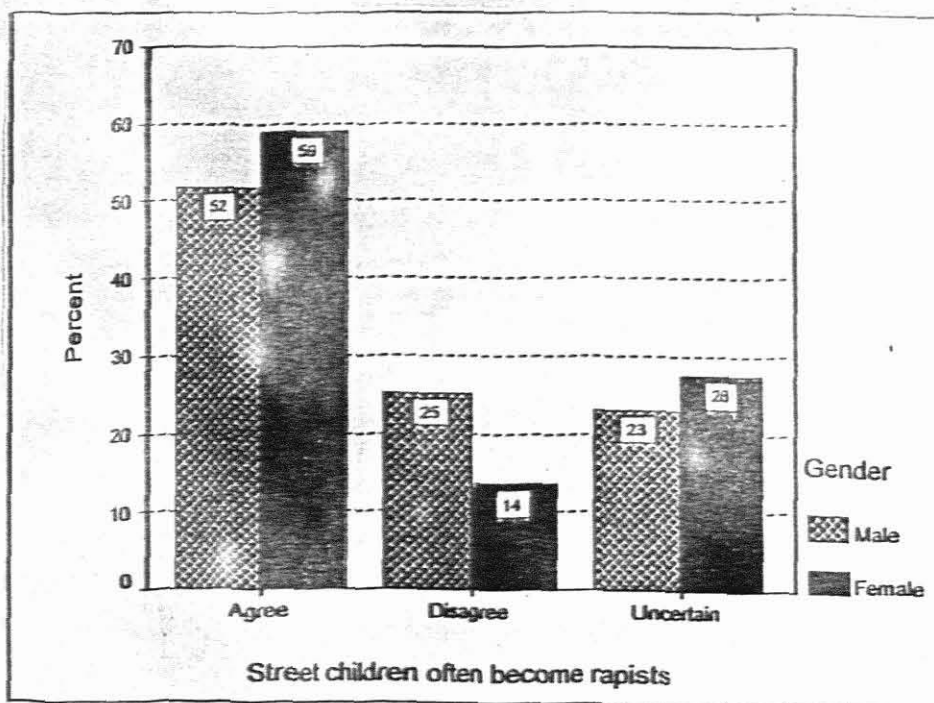
Cross tab

Question 2 (29)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	76	118	194
	% within Gender	51.7%	59.0%	55.9%
Disagree	Count	37	27	64
	% within Gender	25.2%	13.5%	18.4%
Uncertain	Count	34	55	89
	% within Gender	23.1%	27.5%	25.6%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	7.695 ^a	2	.021
Likelihood Ratio	7.609	2	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	.100	1	.752
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.11.

Diagram 22: **Frequency distribution: Street children often become rapists**

One hundred and ninety-four respondents (55.9%), 76 males (51.7%) and 118 (59%) females agreed that street children often become rapists. Sixty-four (18.4%) respondents, 37 males (25.2%) and 27 (13.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Eighty-nine respondents (25.6%), 34 males (23.1%) and 55 females (27.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(30) Prostitutes deserve being raped

Table 36 Frequency distribution according to: Prostitutes deserve being raped

Cross tab

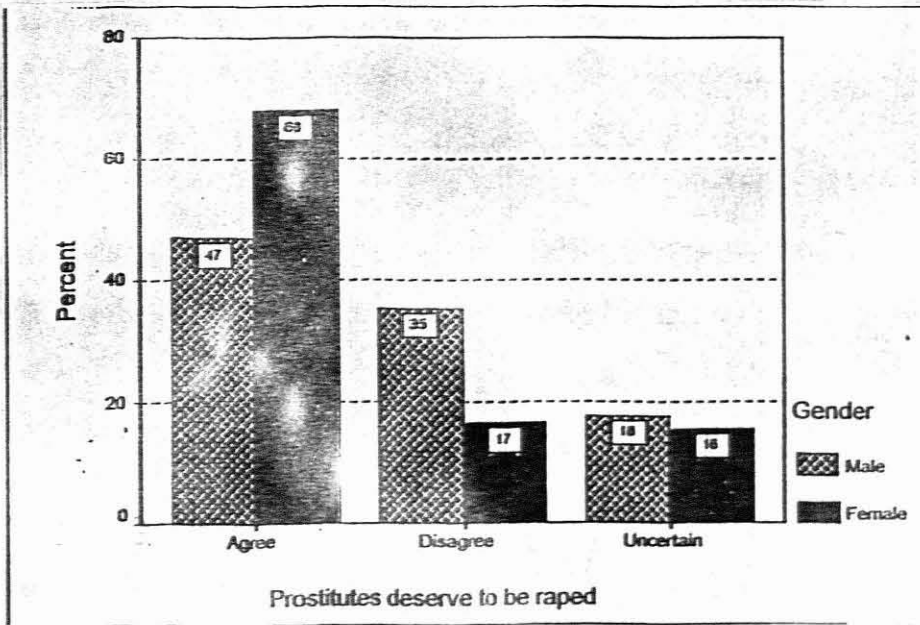
Question 2 (30)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	69	136	205
	% within Gender	46.9%	88.0%	59.1%
Disagree	Count	52	33	85
	% within Gender	35.4%	16.5%	24.5%
Uncertain	Count	26	31	57
	% within Gender	17.7%	15.5%	16.4%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	18.930 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	18.901	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.967	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 24.15.

Diagram 23: Frequency distribution: Prostitutes deserve being raped



Two hundred and five respondents (59.1%), 69 males (46.9%) and 136 (68%) females agreed that prostitutes deserve being raped. Eighty-five (24.5%) respondents, 52 males (35.4%) and 33 (16.5%) females disagreed with the statement. Fifty-seven respondents (16.4%), 26 males (17.7%) and 31 females (15.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement. This difference is as a result of a relatively large number of female respondents agreeing that prostitutes deserve being raped in comparison to the number of males who agree to the statement.

(31) Rape in prisonTable 37 Frequency distribution according to: Many rapists were themselves raped in prison

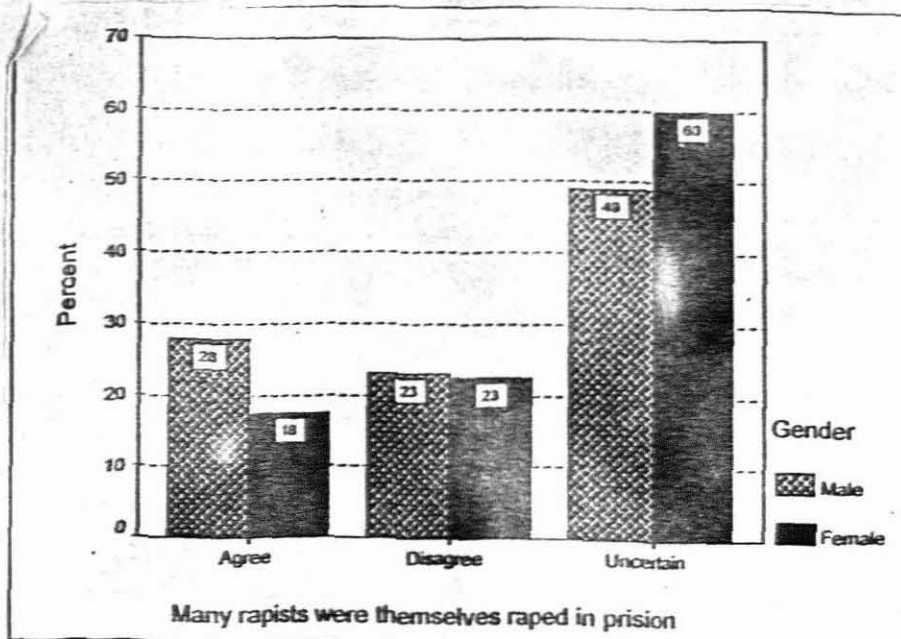
Cross tab

Question 2 (31)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	41	35	76
	% within Gender	27.9%	17.5%	21.9%
Disagree	Count	34	45	79
	% within Gender	23.1%	22.5%	22.8%
Uncertain	Count	72	120	192
	% within Gender	49.0	60.0%	55.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	6.051 ^a	2	.049
Likelihood Ratio	6.012	2	.049
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.863	1	.015
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 32.20.

Diagram 24: **Frequency distribution: Many rapists were themselves raped in prison**

Seventy-six respondents (21.9%, 41 males (27.9%) and 35 (17.5%) females agreed that many rapists were themselves raped in prison. Seventy-nine (22.8%) respondents, 34 males (23.1%) and 45 (22.5%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and ninety-two respondents (55.3%), 72 males (49%) and 120 females (60%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is a significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(32) Street children as victims of rape

Table 38 Frequency distribution according to: Street children are often victims of rape

Cross tab

Question 2 (32)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	41	52	93
	% within Gender	27.9%	26.0%	26.8%
Disagree	Count	55	68	123
	% within Gender	37.4%	34.0%	35.4%
Uncertain	Count	51	80	131
	% within Gender	34.7%	40.0%	37.8%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	1.024 ^a	2	.599
Likelihood Ratio	1.027	2	.598
Linear-by-Linear Association	.691	1	.406
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 39.40.

Ninety-three respondents (26.8%), 41 males (27.9%) and 52 (26%) females agreed that street children are often victims of rape. One

Hundred and twenty-three (35.4%) of respondents, 55 males (37.4%) and 68 (34%) of females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and thirty-one respondents (37.8%), 51 males (34.7%) and 80 females (40%), were uncertain about the statement. It should be noted that rural adolescents might not have exposure to street children. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(33) Young prisoners raped in prison

Table 39 Frequency distribution according to: Young prisoners are more likely to be raped in prison

Cross tab

Question 2 (33)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	60	69	129
	% within Gender	40.8%	34.5%	37.2%
Disagree	Count	25	32	57
	% within Gender	17.0%	16.0%	16.4%
Uncertain	Count	62	99	161
	% within Gender	42.2%	49.5%	46.4%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	1.941 ^a	2	.379
Likelihood Ratio	1.943	2	.379
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.900	1	.169
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 24.15.

One hundred and twenty-nine respondents (37.2%, 60 males (40.8%) and 69 (34.5%) females agreed that young prisoners are more likely to be raped in prison. Fifty-seven (16.4%)

respondents, 25 males (17%) and 32 (16%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and sixty-one respondents (46.4%), 62 males (42.2%) and 99 females (49.5%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(34) Religious background of rapists

Table 40 Frequency distribution according to: Rapists often come from over-religious family backgrounds

Cross tab

Question 2 (34)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	32	44	76
	% within Gender	21.8%	22.0%	21.9%
Disagree	Count	56	82	138
	% within Gender	38.1%	41.0%	39.8%
Uncertain	Count	59	74	133
	% within Gender	40.1%	37.0%	38.3%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	.399 ^a	2	.819
Likelihood Ratio	.399	2	.819
Linear-by-Linear Association	.167	1	.683
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 32.20.

Seventy-six respondents (21.9%), 32 males (21.8%) and 44 (22%) females agreed that rapists often come from over-religious family backgrounds. One hundred and thirty-eight (39.8%) respondents, 56 males (38.1%) and 82 (41%) females disagreed with the statement. One hundred and thirty-three respondents

(38.3%), 59 males (40%) and 74 females (37%), were uncertain about the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

(35) Women abuse and rape in marriage

Table 41 Frequency distribution according to: There is a direct relationship between women abuse and rape within marriage

Cross tab

Question 2 (35)		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Agree	Count	28	41	69
	% within Gender	19.0%	20.5%	19.9%
Disagree	Count	28	26	54
	% within Gender	19.0%	13.0%	15.6%
Uncertain	Count	91	133	224
	% within Gender	61.9%	66.5%	64.6%
Total	Count	147	200	347
	% Within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	2.358 ^a	2	.308
Likelihood Ratio	2.333	2	.311
Linear-by-Linear Association	.129	1	.719
N of Valid Cases	347		

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.88.

Sixty-nine respondents (19.9%), 28 males (19%) and 41 (20.5%) females agreed that there is a direct relationship between women abuse and rape within marriage. Fifty-four (15.6%) respondents, 28 males (19%) and 26 (13%) females disagreed with the statement. Two hundred and twenty-four respondents (64.6%), 91 males (61.9%) and 133 females (66.6%), were uncertain about

the statement. The Pearson Chi-square p-value indicates that there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement.

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the data that was obtained from the questionnaire issued to selected learners from the four schools was presented in a tabular form and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. In the following chapter the study will be summarised and certain recommendations made in the light of the findings.

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SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.1.1 Statement of the problem

Violent crime is rampant in South Africa. Rape is classified as a violent crime. Rape is a traumatic and violent assault, which has devastating consequences for the survivor. These consequences can either be psychological or physical. Irrespective of the consequences the survivor is faced with, he or she has to try to cope with them in order to maintain equilibrium. A large percentage of rape cases are not reported to the police and of the cases that are reported to the police many do not go to trial because of a lack of evidence. Of the cases that go to trial there is a very low rate of conviction. Victims of rape often remain silent because of the stigma attached to rape and for the fear of being victimised by perpetrators and society at large.

Adolescence, the period of transition between childhood and adulthood, is triggered by the changes, which occur in the young person's body. Society has tended to see this stage of development as one of great stress and drama. Teenagers can be difficult to live with due to the fact that they are experiencing dramatic changes not only in their physical characteristics, but also in social and emotional development. They can easily fall victim to rape and other socially unacceptable behaviour.

Adolescents thus need to become aware of rape, its causes, how it can be prevented and what legal recourse rape victims have.

In the light of the above the research questions may be formulated as follows:

- What are adolescents' perceptions of rape?
- What are the causes of rape?
- What can adolescents do to prevent rape?

In essence this study investigated adolescents' perception of rape.

5.1.2 Adolescents' perception of rape

In Chapter 2 relevant literature on adolescents' perception of rape was reviewed.

In order to undertake a study on adolescents' perception of rape, it was necessary to construct a theoretical perspective on rape; hence the following aspects of rape were reviewed:

- Rape in terms of the law.
- Conditions promoting rape.
- Reasons for raping.
- Recognition of sexual abuse.
- Reactions to rape.
- Needs of the victims.
- Types of rape.
- Coping with rape.

Literature on the following aspects of adolescents was also reviewed:

- Developmental task of the adolescent.
- Relationships of adolescents.

5.1.3 Planning of the research

In Chapter 3 the research design that was used in the empirical survey was discussed. A structured questionnaire was used as a research instrument. The construction, advantages and disadvantages, administration and completion of the questionnaire were dealt with. Attention was given to sampling, the pilot study and limitation of the study. The type of inferential statistics that was used to analyse data for the purpose of this study was also discussed.

5.2 FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

The responses to the structured questionnaire were studied during the empirical investigation. The data that was gathered from the responses were interpreted by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. From the information collected, the following are the most important findings regarding the perception of adolescents towards rape:

- The majority of adolescents are aware that rape is the intentional unlawful intercourse with a woman without her consent (cf. 2.1). It is however a matter of concern that some adolescents disagree with this and almost one in five adolescents are not aware that rape is against the law.
- Although it is generally accepted in society that sentences for rape offenders is often too mild, 50% of male adolescents disagree with this. On the other hand 49% of female adolescents believe that sentences for rape are often too mild (cf. 2.2).

- Adolescents believe that rape can be prevented if the law enforcement system is more efficient (cf. 2.3)
- The majority of the adolescents are aware that a date with a woman is not a licence for a man to rape a woman (cf. 2.4). It is however a matter of concern that a high percentage of adolescents are uncertain about what a date entails.
- The majority of adolescents do not see any clear link between frustration at work and rape. Thus, they do not see any relationship between frustration at work and rape (cf. 2.5). However a significant number of female adolescents acknowledge that frustration at work causes men to rape whereas their male counterparts do not agree with this.
- The data suggests that adolescents do not associate a culture violence with rape as there is no clear inclination to either agreeing to, disagree with, or being uncertain about the statement that a culture of violence contributes to rape (cf. 2.6). The Pearson Chi-square value indicates that there is a significant difference in the responses between males and females; the majority of females believe that a culture of violence contributes to rape whereas the majority of males disagreeing that a culture of violence contributes to rape.
- Adolescent males believe that men rape to express their domination over women but the females disagree with this. Thus females do not see rape as an expression of men's domination over women. Overall, more respondents agree that rape is an expression, by men, of their domination over women (cf. 2.7).

- Adolescents' perception is that sexy women are more likely to be raped, although almost one in three adolescents are either uncertain whether "good looks" contribute to women being raped or disagree with this statement (cf. 2.8).
- It is disconcerting to note that the majority of adolescents do not find rape as a degrading action, with 72% of male respondents disagreeing with the statement. This would suggest that rape is acceptable to the adolescents, especially to the males.
- Although adolescents do not see provocative dressing as asking to be raped, the data suggests there is an association between dressing and incidents of rape, but more adolescents are uncertain if rape can be attributed to provocative dressing (cf. 2.10).
- The majority of adolescents do not see any association between rape and unaccompanied women (they are uncertain about the statement). This would suggest that women could be raped even if other people accompany them. There is no significant difference between the responses of male and female adolescents (cf. 2.11).
- A considerable number of adolescents are not sure whether their victims know rapists or not. Thirty-three percent of adolescents believe that their victims know rapists. There is a significant difference in the responses of males and females, especially with regard to the number of males and females who agree with the statement. Significantly more females believe that rapists are known to their victims than males (cf. 2.12).

- Adolescents believe that women are reluctant to report being raped. The female respondents, in particular are of this opinion. Statistically there is a significant difference between the responses of male and female responses to the statement that women are reluctant to report being raped (cf. 2.13).
- The study reveals that the majority of adolescents do not perceive rape as an expression of the measure of power. The Pearson Chi-square value indicates that there is no significant difference between responses of males and females to rape being an expression of the measure of power (cf. 2.14).
- It is evident from the study that adolescents perceive rape as an action that decreases the self-esteem of a woman. Significantly more females than males are of this opinion (cf. 2.15).
- The majority of respondents, especially females agree that rape victims have difficulty coping with relationships with other people. However there is a relatively high degree of disagreement and uncertainty among males to this assertion (cf. 2.16).
- The study reveals that it is vital for the victims of rape to talk about it. Significantly more females than males are of this view. The uncertainty among males to this view is significantly more than that of female respondents (cf. 2.17).
- It is evident from the study that adolescents do not necessarily believe that rape occurs in families where domestic violence is experienced. The results of the study also indicate that there is uncertainty among adolescents as to whether there is a relationship between rape and domestic violence (cf. 2.18).

- The study reveals that adolescents perceive that rape is a crime of aggression. It also indicates that female respondents, in particular, have little doubt that rape is a crime of aggression (cf. 2.19).
- It is evident from the study that adolescents agree that abused (raped) girls find it difficult to tolerate contact with males, and there is no significant difference between the responses of males and females to this statement (cf. 2.20).
- The majority of respondents are of the opinion that parents do not need to support a child that has been raped. This would suggest that adolescents might not want their parents to even know that they have been raped. It is surprising that more females than males are of this opinion. There is however, also a reasonably high degree of uncertainty among adolescents concerning this matter (cf. 2.21).
- The study reveals that adolescents, both males and females, are aware that adolescence is a time of heightened sexual awareness (cf. 2.22).
- According to the study the majority of adolescents agree that adolescents experiment with sex (cf. 2.23).
- It is evident from the study that adolescents, especially females, agree that teenage girls that have been raped see themselves as being damaged. Significantly more males than females disagree with this statement and a high number of male respondents are uncertain whether teenage girls who have been raped see themselves as being damaged (cf. 2.24).

- Although the majority of adolescents agree that making decisions about sexuality are extremely important for adolescents there is a sizeable number of adolescents, both male and female who disagree with this view (cf. 2.25).
- The study reveals that adolescents neither agree, disagree or are uncertain that victims of rape themselves become rapists later in life. There is thus no clear indication on what adolescents' perception regarding this matter are (cf. 2.26).
- Adolescents are, according to the results of the study, uncertain whether adolescent rapists will continue to rape in adult life, although more males believe that this might be the case (cf. 2.27).
- The study reveals that adolescents see peers as putting pressure on them to engage in sex. More males than females experience this. More females than males disagree that peer pressure causes them to engage in sex, suggesting that females are less prone to peer pressure than males (males experience a greater amount of peer pressure to engage in sex) (cf. 2.28).
- It is evident from the study that adolescents see street children as becoming rapists. There is however some degree of uncertainty amongst adolescents whether street children in fact become rapists (cf. 2.29).
- It is evident from the study that adolescents see street children as becoming rapists. There is however some degree of uncertainty amongst adolescents whether street children in fact become rapists (cf. 2.29).

- The study reveals that adolescents, especially females, believe that prostitutes deserve to be raped. However, considerably more males than females disagree with this (cf. 2.30).
- Adolescents are clearly uncertain whether rapists were themselves raped in prison (cf. 2.31).
- According to the study, adolescents are divided on their perception of street children often being victims of rape (cf. 2.32). This can be attributed to the fact that rural adolescents might not be exposed to street children.
- The study indicates that adolescents are uncertain whether young prisoners are more likely to be raped in prison. However there is an indication that some adolescents may agree that young prisoners are more likely to be raped in prison (cf. 2.32).
- The study reveals that adolescents either disagree, or are uncertain of whether rapists often come from over-religious family backgrounds (cf. 2.3.4). Adolescents thus do not see that there is any relationship between rape and religious backgrounds.
- It is evident from the study that adolescents are uncertain if there is a direct relationship between women abuse and rape within marriage. There is indication that some adolescents may agree with this statement (cf. 2.35).
- Further, the results of the study indicate that there is a significant difference, statistically, in the responses of males and females relating to statements that are associated with rape. There is no statistically significant difference between the

responses of males and females regarding statements relating to aspects concerning adolescence as a stage in the development of an individual. This would suggest that male and female adolescents' perceptions of rape differ but their perception of adolescence as a developmental stage are the same.

5.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.5) to determine the course of this study. These aims were realised through a literature study, together with an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire. On the basis of the aims and findings certain recommendations are now offered.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 Adolescents

(1) Motivation

Rape is a serious crime that is increasing rapidly in this country. Adolescents need to become aware of the facts concerning rape in order for them:

- not to engage in rape,
- to make an impact on society regarding rape, and
- to restore the dignity that rape victims (women) deserve.

(2) Recommendations

From the research finding the following recommendations are made:

- Adolescents must lobby support from the community and local authorities to ensure that law enforcement is more efficient, thereby preventing rape from occurring.
- Adolescents should be aware that assistance from parents can assist victims overcome the trauma of being raped.
- Adolescents should be told that experimenting with sex can lead to:
 - (a) unwanted pregnancy.
 - (b) sexually transmitted diseases.
 - (c) HIV/AIDS.
- Adolescents must realise that making decisions about sexuality is extremely important for adolescents.
- Adolescents, especially males, must ensure that peers do not put pressure on them to engage in sex. This can be achieved if they are aware that they should not be coerced into sexual activities by peers.
- Adolescents must assist peers to become aware that rape affects the life of a victim adversely.
- Adolescents must speak out against rape, using whatever forum is available to them.

5.4.2 **Parents**

(1) **Motivation**

Adolescents need to have a close and warm relationship with their parents, and parents need to see their children adopt their norms, attitudes and values.

(2) **Recommendations**

Based on the research findings the following recommendations are made:

- Parents need to gain the trust of their adolescent children so that they are able to communicate freely with their parents, especially if they fall victims to rape. Parents must talk to them about these issues.
- Parents need to be sensitive to behavioural changes in their adolescent children so that they can detect if their child has been raped.
- Parents need to communicate with their adolescent children regarding rape.

5.4.3 **Law enforcement agencies**

(1) **Motivation**

Incidence of rape can be decreased considerably and prevented if law enforcement agencies perform their task effectively and efficiently.

(2) Recommendations

Based on the findings the following recommendations are made:

- Sentences for rape must be increased to a level that will act as a deterrent to rape.
- The number of specially trained personnel to handle rape cases must be increased, so that adequate attention is given to rape victims.
- Communication mechanisms must be established between communities (adolescents) and law enforcement agencies.
- Law enforcement officers must be more proactive. Partnerships between schools and law enforcement agencies must be formed and extended to all schools.

5.4.4 Educational authorities

(1) Motivation

Since the majority of adolescents are at schools under the jurisdiction of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture, it can play a role in shaping the perception of adolescents regarding rape.

(2) Recommendations

Based on the findings of the research the following recommendations are made:

- The programmes developed to train educators to teach adolescents all aspects of sexuality and rape in particular, must be implemented more vigorously.
- Schools must implement programmes to educate adolescents regarding the damaging effect of rape and educate youth on sexuality and responsible sexual decision-making.
- Knowledge gained about sexuality needs to be put into practice using the curriculum at schools, and this needs to be monitored effectively by the education department.

5.4.5 **Leaders: community, church and political**

(1) **Motivation**

Adolescents look up to community, church and political leaders to give them encouragement and direction in their lives. They can therefore play a significant role in influencing the perception and behaviour of adolescents regarding a vast array of issues, rape included.

(2) **Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the research the following recommendations are made:

- these leaders need to use their respective platforms to speak out very clearly and forcefully regarding aspects of sexuality, rape and HIV/AIDS, and engage the law enforcement agencies to step up law enforcement;
- mobilise adolescents to take a stand against rape;

- provide assistance in the form of counselling and support to victims of rape; and
- motivate adolescents, especially women, not to hesitate to report rape to the authorities.

5.5 FURTHER RESEARCH

During the course of the investigation the researcher became aware of many areas of concern regarding adolescents' perception of rape. Some of the areas of concern were highlighted in the study, but require in-depth research.

An investigation into the following areas should be considered for further research:

- if and why male and female adolescents' perceptions of rape differ, and
- what can be done to changing attitudes towards rape.

5.6 FINAL REMARKS

Adolescents' perception of rape has an influence on the incidence of rape in a community. Adolescents therefore should be made aware that rape is against the law and unacceptable to society. They need to abide by the law to become responsible citizens of the country.

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APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE: ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTION OF RAPE

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**RESPONDENTS: GRADE 11****SECTION 1: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

1. Gender

Male ☐Female ☐2. Age of respondent in completed years 3. Number of children in family 4. I live with my parents ☐ Yes ☐ No

5. Ethnic group

Black ☐Indian ☐Coloured ☐White ☐

Other (please specify)

6. Religious affiliation

Christian ☐Muslim ☐Hindu ☐Jewish ☐

Other (please specify)

SECTION 2

ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTION OF RAPE

INDLELA INTSHA EBUKA NGAYO UDABA LOKUDLWENGULWA

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENTS

1. Please read through each statement before giving your opinion.
2. Please make sure that you do not omit a question, or skip a page.
3. Please be honest when giving your opinion.
4. Please do not discuss statements with anyone.
5. Please return the questionnaire

SIYACELA KUMPHENDULI UKUTHI

1. *Afunde ngokuqaphelisisa isitatimende ngasinye ngaphambi kokunikeza umqondo wakhe.*
2. *Aqiniseke ukuthi alikho ikhasi aleqayo.*
3. *Asize athembeke uma enikeza umqondo wakhe.*
4. *Asize angabonisi nomunye.*
5. *Asize alibuyise leliphepha lemibuzo.*

Thank you
Siyabonga!

Before expressing your feelings regarding a specific statement, consider the following example.

Ngaphambi kokuba uveze imizwa yakho mayelana naleso naleso sitatimende, ake, ubheke lesisibonelo esilandelayo.

"Rape is a violent crime"
"uKudlwengula kuyicala lendluzula"

If you agree with the statement
Uma uvumelana nalesi sitatimende

	Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>
Rape is a violent crime <i>uKudlwengula kuyicala lendluzula</i>	X		

If you disagree with the statement
Uma ungavumelani nalesi sitatimende

	Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>
Rape is a violent crime <i>uKudlwengula kuyicala lendluzula</i>		X	

If you neither agree nor disagree with the statement, then it is being uncertain.

Uma uvuma noma ungavumelani naso, okusho ukuthi ungenaso isiqiniseko.

	Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>
Rape is a violent crime <i>uKudlwengula kuyicala lendluzula</i>			X

All statements which follow bear reference to *Adolescents' Perception of Rape*. Please express your feelings on the following statements.

Zonke izitatimende ezilandelayo zikhombisa umcabango wentsha ngendaba yokundlwengula. Siza uveze imizwa yakho kulezizitatimende ezilandelayo.

- 2.1 Rape is the intentional unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman without her consent.
Ukudlwengula ngenhloso akukho emthethweni ngaphandle kwemvume yomuntu wesilisa noma wesifazene.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.2 Sentences for rape offenders are often too mild.
izigwebo zabadlwenguli zivamise ukuba zincane.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.3 The most efficient deterrent to rape is an efficient law enforcement system.
indlela eqinile yokuvikela ukudlwengula ukuselemisa umthetho ukuba bophe.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.4 Men believe that a woman who agrees to a date also agrees to being raped
Umuntu wesifazane ovuma ukukhishwa uvuma ukudlwengulwa.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.5 Frustration at work can cause men to rape.
Ukungabibikho kwemisebenzi kudala abesilisa badlwengule.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.6 A culture of violence contributes to rape.
Umadoda adlwengula ngoba athi anamandla kunabesifazane.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.7 Men rape to express their domination over women.
Abesifazane abaqoka izingubo ezihehayo yibona abadlwengulwayo.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.8 Only "sexy" looking women get raped.
Ukusebenzisa utshwala ngendlela engafanele kwenza ufise ukudlwengula.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

2.9 Rape is degrading for anybody.

Ukudlwengula umuntu wesifazane Kuyindlela yokumjezisa.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

2.10 Women who dress provocatively (sexy) are asking to be raped.

Ukusebenzisa utshwala ngendlela engafanele kwenza ufise ukudlwengula.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

2.11 Unaccompanied women are more susceptible to being raped.

Abadlwengulwabayazi ukuthi okani ababadlwengula.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

2.12 Their victims often know rapists.

Abakebadlwengula baphinda badlwengule.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

2.13 Women are reluctant to report being raped.

Abantu bayasaba ukubika ezehlakalo zokudlwengulwa.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.14 Rape is an expression of the measure of power.
Ukudlwengula indlela yokutshengisa amandla.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.15 Rape decreases the self-esteem of the victim.
Ukudlwengula kwehlisa ukuzithemba kodlwenguliwe.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.16 Rape victims have difficulty coping with relationships with other people.
Abantu abake badlwengulwa bakuthola kunzima ubudlelwane nabanye.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.17 It is vital for the victim to talk about the rape.
Bakuthola kunzima ukuxoxa ngokudlwengulwa kwabo.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.18 Rape occurs in families where domestic violence is experienced.
Ukudlwengula kutholakola emindenini lapho kungekho khona ukuthula

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.19 Rape is a crime of aggression.
Ukudlwengula kuyicala elibi.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.20 Abused (raped) girls find it difficult to tolerate contact with males.
Ukutholakala kwezithombe zabantu abanqunu kugquguzela abantu badlwengule.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.21. Parents need to support a child that has been raped.
Abadlwenguli abaningi bavela emndenini enabazaliababodwa.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.22 Adolescence is a time of heightened sexual awareness.
Intsha sekuyisikhathi sokuthi yazi ngocansi.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.23 Adolescents experiment with sex.
Intsha ayifundiswe ngezocansi.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.24 Teenage girls who have been raped see themselves as being damaged

Amantombazane asake adlwengulwa azibona asonakala.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.25 Making decisions about sexuality is extremely important for adolescents.

Ukwenza izinqumo ngokocansi kubahulekile entsheni

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.26 Victims of rape themselves become rapists later in life.

Abakebadlwengulwa bagcina sebengabandlwe-nguli.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.27 Adolescent rapists will continue raping in adult life
Intsha eyakeyadlwengula iphinda indlwengule noma isindala.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.28 Peers put pressure on adolescents to engage in sex.

Abangane bayahlohlana ukwenza ucansi.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.29 Street children often become rapists
zingane ezihlala emgqwaqeni zingcina zingabadlwenguli.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.30 Prostitutes deserve to be raped.
Abadayisa ngomzimba bakufanele ukudlwengulwa.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.31 Many rapists were themselves raped in prison.
Abadlwenguli abaningi badlwengulwa ejele.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.32 Street children are often victims of rape.
Izingane ezihlala emgqwaqeni zihlale zidlwengulwa.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.33 Young prisoners are more likely to be raped in prison.
Iziboshwa ezisencane zisencupheni yokuthi zidlwengulwe ejele.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.34 Rapists often come from over religious family backgrounds.
Abadlwenguli bajwayele ukuvela emndenini ekholwayo kakhulu.

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

- 2.35 There is a direct relationship between women abuse and rape within marriage.
Kunobudlelwano phakathi kwabesifazane abahlukunyeziwe nalabo abadlwengulwa emshadweni. .

Agree <i>Ngiyavuma</i>	Disagree <i>Angivumi</i>	Uncertain <i>Anginasiqiniseko</i>

Thank you!
Siyabonga

APPENDIX 2

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY

P.O. Box 222

Winterton

3340

November 01 2003

Tel. Nos. (036) 488-1305 (Home)
(036) 488-7052 (Work)

Sir/Madam

QUESTIONNAIRE: ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTION OF RAPE

I am presently engaged in a research project at the University of Zululand under the guidance of Prof. G. Urbani and Dr A. van der Merwe. The research is concerned with *Adolescents' perception of rape*.

As one of the selected respondents, it would be appreciated if I could seek your assistance in acquiring information relating to the above research. You are humbly requested to complete the attached questionnaire, following the necessary instructions. It should not take you more than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Please be assured that all the information will be regarded as **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL** and no personal details will be mentioned in the findings, nor will any results related to a particular learner or school be mentioned.

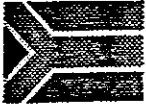
Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely

P.J.H. HEERALAL

APPENDIX 3

LETTER FROM SEM GRANTING PERMISSION



PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATAL
PROVINSIE KWAZULU-NATAL

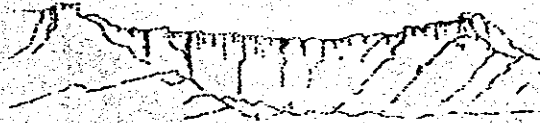


DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO NAMASIKO
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

ESTCOURT DISTRICT

ISIFUNDANA SASE ESTCOURT

ESTCOURT DISTRIK



Address: Estcourt District Office
Ikheli: ESTCOURT
Adres: 3310

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Posadres:

Private Bag X : (036) 4482010/1
7082 : (036) 4482829
ESTCOURT
3310

Enquiries: ME MCHUNU
Imibuzo: (0829535182)
Navrae:

Reference:
Inkomba:
Verwysing:

Date:
Usuku:
Datum:

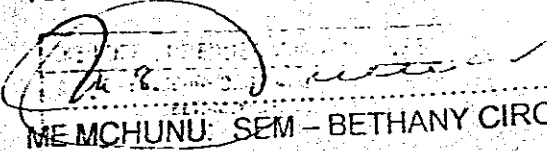
Mr PJH Heeralal
P.O. Box 222
Winterton
3340

Sir

RE- PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY

1. The above matter has reference.
2. Permission to administer the questionnaire to grade 11 learners regarding your research on "Adolescence perception of rape" is hereby granted.
3. I would like to wish you everything of the best for your studies.

Yours in Education


ME MCHUNU: SEM - BETHANY CIRCUIT.