

EXAMINING THE CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO VIOLENT CRIMES

COMMITTED BY WOMEN INCARCERATED

AT THE WALVIS BAY CORRECTIONAL FACILITY, NAMIBIA

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EXAMINING THE CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO VIOLENT CRIMES COMMITTED BY
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ABSTRACT

Violence amongst women has become a concern worldwide, including in Namibia. These violent and aggressive behaviours stem from various challenges experienced by women, overall. If such behaviours persist, the role of women as caregivers will be compromised as incarceration would be inevitable and their absence may have adverse consequences on the overall functioning of their families. Understanding these factors can assist in the application of gender-sensitive approaches, tailored specifically for women who engage in violent crimes. The purpose of the study was to examine the contributing factors to violent crimes perpetrated by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. A qualitative study was applied using the phenomenological research approach with an exploratory research design. Purposive sampling was utilized and the data was collected from twelve (12) sentenced female offenders confined for violent crimes. Semi-structured interviews that are narrative in nature were used to collect the data. The study revealed that the participants experienced various forms of strains and stressors during childhood and adulthood such as physical abuse, emotional abuse and intimidation, economic abuse and neglect, sexual abuse and substance abuse that made them vulnerable to violent crimes. The study also revealed that although services are available, the participants did not make use of these services and they are not informed about existing services at the micro and mezzo levels in society, especially in rural areas. Thus, awareness should be raised about the existing services which could encourage women to make use of such services. Services should be readily accessible in society to help women deal with the strains and stressors that make them vulnerable to act violently. However, this study was conducted with only a few sentenced female offenders and cannot be generalized to the entire incarcerated population across Namibia.

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Table 2: Socio-demographic information of the participants

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVP	Association for the Alternatives to Violence Project
CORD	Coalition for Responsible Drinking
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GRN	Government of the Republic of Namibia
GST	General Strain Theory
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LAC	Legal Assistance Centre
NAWA	Namibia Women's Association
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
NICRO	National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders
NCRST	Namibian Commission of Research in Science and Technology
ORMCS	Offender Risk Management Correctional Strategy
ORN	Out-Right Namibia
OYO	Ombetja Yehinga Organisation
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
WAD	Women Action for Development

WRVH World Report on Violence and Health

YORD Youth Outreach on Rights and Development

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this study to all the incarcerated women at the Walvis Bay Correctional Facility in Namibia who have participated in this study. Without your participation and willingness to share your life stories with me, this study would not be possible.

DECLARATIONS

I, Levina E. Negongo hereby declare that this study is my own work and is a true reflection of my research, and that this work, or part thereof has not been submitted for a degree at any other institution.

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11 March 2019

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1. Orientation to the study

1.1 Introduction

In an age when historians have given women back their autonomy in terms of socio-economic concerns, it is certainly timely to do the same in terms of the female criminal experiences (Kilday, 2007). Kilday (2007) further claims that in the past, historians were more interested in explaining why women were absent from the criminal stage in the pre-modern period, rather than analysing what happened when women broke the law. With the rise in crime worldwide, more so if it involves women, more attention should be given to this phenomenon as it has been believed for centuries that women are the caretakers and nurturers of families. This has been emphasized by Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2008), who argue that women in general are rewarded for building and maintaining relationships and for nurturing families. Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2008) further assert that women are more likely to refrain from crime due to their concern for others.

Moreover, several studies have found that if women commit crime they enter prisons for relatively minor crimes such as property crimes, larceny, fraud, and forgery, and that women are less likely to be involved in violent offences (Henriques & Manatu-Rubert, 2001). According to Barnwell; Francis, Liu & Soothill (as cited in Dastile, 2009) the majority of offences committed by women are non-violent in nature and as such, women offenders pose minimal danger to society. Pollock, Mullings and Crouch (2006) point out that the most common explanation for the low rate of violent

offences by women is the cultural and/socialization theories that suggest that boys are rewarded for acting aggressively, whereas girls are punished. Pollock et al. (2006) further narrate that as girls grow up, they learn to suppress and hide any aggressive impulses, and that girls' and women's criminality is expressed in culturally appropriate venues, for example property crime. This is further emphasized by Adler (1975) who claims that women were not violent in the past because of their socialization, and their traditional sex roles did not allow them to be violent. Adler's (1975) Liberation Theory explains that as doors opened for non-traditional work opportunities, it also opened the door to illegitimate opportunities, including violence.

Consequently, there has been growing concerns worldwide that girls and women today are more violent than in the past (Schwartz, 2013). Similar claims were made by Pollock et al. (2006) who put emphasis on the notion that although women were presented as not as violent as men in the past, they are becoming more violent due to the changes in cultural socialisation. Ness (2007) also emphasises that norms regarding the use of violence by women have undergone a marked shift not only in conflict zones where the need to defend one's life is acutely felt, and in disenfranchised communities where life is comparatively hard, it has changed dramatically in mainstream culture as well. Thus, it can be concluded that girls and women are becoming more violent as pointed out by Murdoch, Vess and Ward (2010) who maintain that the incidence of violence perpetrated by women is increasing across jurisdictions.

Therefore, it was important to analyse the context of women's use of violence because although the violent act is the same as that of men, the reasons for women's use of violence may be very different compared to men's use of violence (Baris, 2015). Similarly, researchers such as Van Wormer (2013) have questioned how dangerous the female offender is. And a response to this is often that while some women do commit violent offences such as spousal murder, the pathways

to offending are often described as a response to various circumstances and situations such as exposure to domestic violence and abuse within the household (Artz, Hoffman-Wanderer & Moul, 2012). Additionally, research also indicates that patriarchal power relations shape gender differences in crime, pushing women into crime through victimisation, role entrapment, economic marginalisation, and survival needs (Schwartz & Steffensmeier, 2008).

Despite the different pathways between men and women into the criminal justice system, violence perpetrated by women is increasing worldwide and it has become a phenomenon to be seriously considered. Baris (2015) asserts that although female prisoners resent violence, many of them are imprisoned due to violent crimes, which means that women are committing violent crimes against abusive partners, not because they are violent, but because they saw killing their partner as a way out to protect themselves. Not only do they exert violence on their partners but also on their children, parents, friends as well as strangers. Reports in Namibian newspapers confirm occurrences of violent offences committed by women within their immediate environments. One such incident happened on 15 January 2018 at around 22H00, where a pregnant lady aged 27, allegedly stabbed her elderly step-father, aged 63, to death at Okakango residential area in Okakarara (Kandovazu, 2018). According to the report, the victim and his step-daughter were quarrelling over how he treated his disabled wife (Kandovazu, 2018). Another similar incident happened in Windhoek's, Okuryangava informal settlement in February 2018, where a woman aged 25 stabbed her childhood friend to death following an argument they had for reasons still not known at the time of the report (Kangootui, 2018). In March 2018, a woman who also resided in Okuryangava was arrested and appeared before the Katutura Magistrate court for assaulting another woman in her neighbourhood. According to reports, the woman was charged with assault with the intent to

cause grievous bodily harm (Halwoodi, 2018). All three (3) of these incidents happened barely a month after each other. Furthermore, in August 2017, a Kunene man was strangled to death by his girlfriend and hardly a day thereafter, was a man aged 41 killed at the Hakaseb location at Usakos by his girlfriend who stabbed him in the chest with a kitchen knife (Beukes, 2018). To this end, there appears to be clear evidence that violence perpetrated by women is escalating in Namibia across all cultures. However, it also became evident that information on violent female offenders and why they commit such crime is non-existent in the Namibian context.

Thus, taking into account what has been reported by the respective journalists such as Beukes (2018) from the Namibian Sun dated August 30, 2018, Halwoodi (2018) from The Villager, dated March 24, 2018, Kangootui (2018) from The Namibian, dated February 15, 2018 and Kandovazu (2018) from the Informanté, dated January 18, 2018 violence amongst women is increasing. Further claims made by various studies such as Murdoch et al. (2010), Ness (2007) and Pollock et al. (2006) concerning the use of violence by women, it has become imperative to understand why women use violence. More so, it is important to find out why Namibian women engage in violent and aggressive behaviours which cause death and injury to others. The need and interest for this study stems from the increased number of female offenders in the Walvis Bay Correctional facility sentenced for a violent crime. Hence, the focus of this study was on sentenced female offenders incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia who have committed a violent crime.

1.2 Statement of problem

Although it is been said that crime is predominantly a male activity and studies worldwide indicate that more men tend to commit violent crimes, the increased number of women who have behaved violently has become a concern. Moreover, since it was believed till a few decades ago that women

are less likely to commit a violent crime and that they are more prone to be involved in minor offences, women's sudden increased participation in violent and aggressive behaviours surely calls for an investigation to find out what has motivated them to display such behaviours. With the focus on women involved in crime and specifically violent offences, statistics drawn from a report on prisoner's rehabilitation and welfare action (PRAWA) indicates that the current population of female offenders in Africa has increased with about 6% from 104 in 2000 to 116 in 2015 (Agomoh, 2015). This statement was further confirmed by records drawn from the unlock statistics on female offenders incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia, where it was indicated that fifty percent (50%) of women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility were remanded for a violent offence in January 2015 (Akuunda, 2015).

However, despite the increase of violence perpetrated by women across jurisdictions, the knowledge and understanding of violent women have been greatly hindered by the general lack of empirical investigation (Murdoch et al. (2010). This is further reiterated by Dastile (2009) who emphasises that little is known about the profile, nature and contributing factors and experiences of black female offenders incarcerated in South African correctional centres. Dastile (2009), stresses that the lack of such empirical information has impeded a comprehensive and integrated understanding of black female criminality. In addition, Baris (2015) highlights the same notion by saying that limited research on female offenders has focused rather on female prisoners' demographic characteristics and socio-cultural and economic factors that is pushing them into crime, instead of studying on motivation and the context of their violent crimes.

Thus, the field is marked by the absence of literature on women who have committed violent crimes and interventions designed specifically for women with violent offenses. Moreover, although the aim of the study is to find out what drives women into aggressive behaviours, it also aims to identify possible strategies that can be effective in curbing the use of violence amongst women at the societal level before they enter the criminal justice system. Furthermore, the study intends to serve as a baseline for future studies in female criminality in Namibia and women's pathways into criminal behaviours which could focus on empowerment policies specifically designed for women in Namibia. It can also assist the criminal justice system to enhance more gender sensitive assessment tools and programmes that can help women to counterattack adverse conditions that make them vulnerable to violent crimes.

Moreover, despite a few studies that were conducted in other African countries on violent female offenders, the researcher could not find similar studies of this nature in Namibia and especially in the Namibian correctional service. This can be attributed to the fact that statistics on female offending are relatively low in comparison to male offenders (Zimudzi, and Beukman (as cited in Dastile, 2010) which could be one of the main reasons why the subject of female criminality in Africa has either been almost totally ignored by scholars or not been dealt with either in a systematic or substantial manner. It is against this background that this study focussed on sentenced female offenders incarcerated for a violent crime such as attempted murder, murder and culpable homicide, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm and common assault.

1.3 The Aims and Objectives of the study

1.3.2 The overall purpose of the study:

Examine the factors contributing to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia.

1.3.3 The objectives of the study:

- To describe the vulnerabilities, context and motivations for violence perpetrated women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia,
- To examine the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia,
- To explore how these violent crimes have affected these women socially, emotionally and physically, and
- To recommend possible community intervention strategies for women before they enter the criminal justice system and also for women after their release from the correctional facility for possible support with re-integration plans.

1.4 The significance of the study

With the focus on women who have displayed aggressive and violent behaviours and who have committed a violent crime, Kubiak, Kim, Fedock and Bybee (2012) state that women convicted of violent offenses represent a small but important subpopulation involved in the criminal justice system. Kubiak et al. (2012) further emphasise that correctional administrators working with these women often rely on treatment and rehabilitation programmes developed for violent male offenders, although women's trajectories into violent behaviour, as well as their trajectory out, differ from their male counterparts. This is not different with organizations that provide psycho-social

support in communities as interventions and strategies are not streamlined specifically to cater for women who behave violently.

This study can thus provide important information on the nature of female criminality that might assist in the identification of vulnerabilities amongst women in the communities where they live. Additionally, knowing what these women experience on a daily basis would enable the development and establishment of appropriate interventions that can enhance the sustainability of programmes and projects provided by organisations at the mezzo level in society. Moreover, it can provide information on the accessibility of services that can better support women who are susceptible to commit crime as preliminary studies indicate that women who use violence to either kill or injure another person encounter difficult circumstances within their immediate environments. These strains and stressors thus provide opportunities to engage in crime in the context in which they live.

1.5 Limitation of the study

The study was conducted with sentenced female offenders incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. Considering the different populations in Namibia and the diverse languages spoken, language barriers were anticipated and it must therefore be noted that two (2) of the respondents were only conversant in Oshivambo and two (2) only in Damara-Nama. However, this constraint was addressed by ensuring that translators were available at the time of the interviews and the assistance of independent translators was utilized and the translators were well versed with these two languages. For this purpose, the translators were taken through the interview process to ensure that they understood the purpose of the study and the content of the dialogues as outlined in the interview schedule. Moreover, it was imperative to orientate the research assistants

on the content of the interview schedule as it served as a guideline on how to pose follow-up questions and how to probe further for detailed information on lived experiences by the participants. Uniformity with regards to the presentation of questions was emphasized as this guaranteed that all respondents understood the questions in the same manner, which in the end ensured that the research objectives were met. Additionally, before the interviews were conducted, the principles of confidentiality were highlighted to the assistants to ensure that trust amongst the respondents would not be compromised and that information would be treated with utmost respect and kept in confidence. Furthermore, the findings of this study cannot be generalized beyond the framework of this investigation as only twelve (12) sentenced female offenders incarcerated for a violent crime at the Walvis Bay Correctional Facility in Namibia were interviewed. Thus their narrations only present their subjective experiences and not that of other female offenders with the same characteristics and experiences at other correctional facilities across Namibia.

Considering the sensitivity of the study and the emotional laden aspects within the study, an important aspect emerged during the interview process where one (1) offender indicated that she did not want to continue with the interview claiming that she did not understand the questions and did not know what to tell the researcher. Another participant also walked out, seemingly very emotional after which the researcher ended the process and attended to the participant, ensuring that she received the necessary attention before leaving the research site. With both participants, the principle of voluntary participation was applied and both were given the assurance that their withdrawal will not count against them in any way in the future. Additionally, the authorities were informed about these two participants and sensitized on the possible additional support afterwards. Also, the district social worker at the Ministry of Health and Social Services at the Walvis Bay

State hospital was informed accordingly as she is responsible for providing services to the offenders at Walvis Bay correctional services. Thus, the matter was attended to but it should be noted that no requests for such services were tendered while the researcher was still at the site.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

The main objective of the study was to examine the factors that contributed to violent crimes committed by women that are incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. Thus, only sentenced female offenders with a violent crime were selected for the study at this facility. Additionally, the researcher focused on female offenders who were serving a sentence for a violent crime such as murder, attempted murder, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, culpable homicide, and who have used a weapon or physical force during the commission of the offence with the intention to cause injury or death to another human being. However, in order to have an equal number of offences to be presented, the researcher tried to select the same number of offences as it was indicated in the records but this was not possible as the murder cases outnumbered all other offences like assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm and culpable homicide, thus the majority of the respondents selected had been in custody for murder. Other cases such as rape and common assault did not form part of the selected cases as the women who were in custody at the time of the investigation were transferred temporarily to the Windhoek correctional facility and they were thus not available at the time of the data collection process.

1.7 Definition of concepts

A variety of concepts and terminologies have been used throughout the study and it was important to define some of these concepts to help the reader to have a clear understanding of the thoughts and perceptions that are relevant to the study and also to understand the real essence of

this investigation. Thus, find below a few of the more prevalent concepts that were used during the course of the study.

1.7.1 Criminal Justice System

According to Turvey and Crowder (2013), the criminal justice system is the network of government and private agencies that intend to manage accused and convicted offenders. According to Turvey et al. (2013) the criminal justice system comprises of agencies that are responsible for enforcing criminal laws and these include legislatures, police, courts, and correctional services.

1.7.2 Violent crimes

According to Felson (2009), violent crime involves both crime and violence. Crime involves rule breaking while violence involves intentional harm-doing using physical means. Violent crimes consist of actions involving force or threat of force against others and these include homicide, attempted homicide, the three levels of assault and sexual assault, robbery, and other violent offences like criminal negligence causing death.

1.7.3 Violence

Violence is defined by the World Health Organisation in the World Report on Violence and Health (WRHV) as “the intentional use of physical force of power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation (Rutherford, Zwi, Grove & Butchart, 2007).

1.7.4 Aggression

Human aggression is a social behaviour, and is any behaviour enacted with the intention to harm another person who is motivated to avoid that harm and it refers only to a behaviour and not to a mindset or an emotional state (Warburton & Anderson, 2015)

1.7.5 Perpetrator

A perpetrator is somebody who, at a particular point in time, intentionally inflicts harm on somebody else (Servaes & Birtsch, 2008, p. 5)

1.7.6 Victim

According to Dahl (2009), a victim is basically a person suffering for reasons unrelated to his/her own agency. The archetypical victim has not effectively caused or provoked her own predicament - neither intentionally nor unintentionally. Victims are by definition, passive objects who have been acted upon by other forces, not active agents (Dahl, 2009). Moreover, a victim is somebody who, at a particular point in time, is subjected to intended harm by somebody (Servaes & Birtsch, 2008, p. 5).

1.7.7 Strains

Agnew (1992) defines strain as negative or aversive relations with others (Jang & Johnson, 2003). Strain is a state of worry and tension caused by difficult situations

1.7.8 Stressors

Scott (2012) defines stressors as situations that are experienced as perceived threats to one's well-being or position in life, when the challenge of dealing with them exceeds the person's perceived available resources. When one encounters stressors, the body's stress response is triggered, and a series of physiological changes take place to allow the person to fight, freeze or run. Sometimes

when people talk about stress in their life they are really talking about stressors. Stressors lead to the body's stress response, and the experience of stress.

1.7.9 Domestic violence

According to the Combating of the Domestic Violence Act, Act No. 4 of 2003, domestic violence means engaging in any of the following acts or courses of conduct such as physical abuse, sexual abuse, economic abuse, intimidation, harassment and entering the residence or property of the complainant without the express or implied consent of the complainant, where the persons in question does not share the same residence; emotional, verbal or psychological abuse, which means any pattern of conduct which seriously degrades or humiliates the complainant, or a family member or dependent of the complainant, or deprives such person of privacy, liberty, integrity or security.

1.7.10 Homicide

Ouimet and Montmagny-Grenier (2014) define homicide as the intentional killing of another human being without proper justification or excuse (as self-defence, during a war, as application of the death penalty).

1.7.11 Intimate partner violence

Intimate partner violence (IPV) includes physical violence, sexual violence, stalking and psychological aggression (including coercive tactics) by a current or former intimate partner (i.e., spouse, boyfriend/girlfriend, dating partner, or ongoing sexual partner) (Breiding, Basile, Smith, Black, & Mahendra, 2015).

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

Intimate partner violence (IPV) includes physical violence, sexual violence, stalking and psychological aggression (including coercive tactics) by a current or former intimate partner (i.e., spouse, boyfriend/girlfriend, dating partner, or ongoing sexual partner) (Breiding, Basile, Smith, Black, & Mahendra, 2015).

1.9 Summary

Intimate partner violence (IPV) includes physical violence, sexual violence, stalking and psychological aggression (including coercive tactics) by a current or former intimate partner (i.e., spouse, boyfriend/girlfriend, dating partner, or ongoing sexual partner) (Breiding, Basile, Smith, Black, & Mahendra, 2015).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Traditionally, violent and aggressive behaviours were mostly associated with men due to their nature and masculinity. Till a few decades ago, it was believed that crime is predominantly a male phenomenon and the world of crime is only a man's world (Islam, Banarjee & Khatun, 2014). Similar claims were made by West, Sabol and Greenman (2010) who proffer that historically males were regarded as the primary perpetrators of violent crimes directed towards both intimate partners and strangers. Women on the other hand have been found to enter the criminal justice system for different reasons than men (Henriques et al, 2001). The authors note that women committed minor crimes such as property crimes, larceny, fraud and forgery (Also see Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997, 1998), which is further confirmed by Liddell and Martinovic (2013) who also noted that women commit minor offences like fraud, theft and deception and rarely engage in violent offences.

However, although it was believed that women were less violent than men, Kilday (2007) indicates that records of the highest criminal court, the Judiciary Court, in lowland Scotland showed that women were unusually aggressive and violent in the crimes they committed between 1750 and 1815. Kilday (2007) further emphasises that although the number of women accused of violent crimes were lesser compared to men, the female proportions of the defendants accused of murder, robbery, assault and riots involving violence were higher than scholars have found in other courts,

and the degree of violence was 'shocking'. Additionally, Schwartz (2013) found that news stories in the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia, and elsewhere raise concerns about the reportedly alcohol-fuelled “shocking rise in violent assaults by women”. Furthermore, Islam et al. (2014) indicate that females in Bangladesh have committed more violent crimes (66%) than any other crime in 2012 and amongst these violent crimes, females have participated in murder or attempted murder (65.2%), assault/collision (10.6%), grievous hurt and hurt (11.3%) with the exception of rape. Thus, although some studies claimed that women were less violent than men in the past, records above indicate that violence amongst women have increased over time. This is further confirmed by Bell (as cited in Bottos, 2007) who argues that although men continue to commit the vast majority of violent offences, although recent research by Schwartz (2013) and Murdoch et al. (2010) suggests that women’s involvement in violent crimes has increased over the past decade.

Moreover, Schwartz (2013) points out that worldwide there has been growing concern that girls and women today are more violent than in the past. Ness (2007) also emphasises that with the closing decades of the twentieth century and the opening of the twenty-first century, the violent female has become a category with new option of behaviour and representation - both heroic and antiheroic. In addition, although women commit fewer violent offences compared to their male counterparts, it has been noted in various countries that there has been an increase in the rate of convictions and custodial sentences for such offences (Mahoney & Karatzias, 2012).

Moving on to Africa, in a study that was conducted by Dastile (2009) on black female offending behaviours in post-apartheid South Africa in three (3) female correctional facilities based in Johannesburg, Pretoria and Heidelberg indicated that more than one in three women (38%) across three (3) three prisons in South Africa had been convicted of murder or attempted murder, thus

making this the most common offence for which women were imprisoned (Dastile, 2009). This is no different in Namibia as statistics indicate that the female offender population rate in Namibia has increased with 6% from 104 in 2000 to 116 in 2015 (Agomoh, 2015). Moreover, monthly statistics provided by the female division at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in January 2015 showed that out of 38 female offenders, 19 have committed a violent offence which is 50% of the total population. These offences include murder and violating a dead body, rape, and culpable homicide, robbery with aggravating circumstances, assault, grievous bodily harm and common assault. Additionally, Kalunta-Crumpton and Agozino (2004) claim that:

Crime is increasing in most regions of the world, and Southern Africa and Namibia are no exception. The study further says that crime, especially violent crime, is increasing rapidly in southern Africa, and alarmingly so, in Namibia. Even though regarded as relatively peaceful in comparison to its Southern African neighbours, South Africa, Zimbabwe and Angola, crime and violence steadily increased in Namibia since the country's independence. (p. 58-59)

Thus, with the rise of female violence, it is said that females can no longer be thought of as the observers or witnesses to 'evil': the will to violence, rather than being a male characteristic, is gender-neutral and dependent on a host of contextual factors (Ness, 2007). The author further notes that as the roles of protector and predator, real and imagined, become more open to women, the likelihood of them acting as agents of aggression is sure to increase. Because of this increase, there has been a burgeoning interest in understanding why some women behave violently (Bottos, 2007). Naylor (as cited in Venäläinen, 2017) posits that violent and aggressive female behaviours show that women who are considered violent are seen as more deviant due to their actions, which are seen as unusual because of gendered expectations. The author further suggests that to understand

women's violence in the media, or in courts, it was frequently relied on reductionist categorisations of violent women as either mad, bad, or victims (also see Allen, 1998; Morrissey, 2003). Kildey (2007) also proffers that female criminality was earlier viewed based on individual characteristics and that the born female criminal was perceived to have the qualities of a man and the worst characteristics of women. These claims certainly give an indication that women who have committed a violent offence are different than the typical women in society who might experience similar situations but would rather submit to the circumstances than acting out.

With reference to the above literature, Hynd (2007) has a different view about women's involvement in aggressive and violent behaviours and argues that African women were both the victims and perpetrators of violent crimes. Hynd (2007), states that though they are not deadlier than their male counterparts, they are nonetheless capable of using and representing their violence in their own interests. Although this source is older than 10 years, it was found relevant to this study as Zimudzi (2004) expressed the same view and argues that although violent African female criminality in colonial Zimbabwe was mostly a reaction to male violence and abuse; African women were in certain situations willing aggressors who engaged in violence that was not merely reactive. Moreover, Liddell and Martinovic (2013) emphasise that a perception exists that women are becoming more violent as a result of being violently abused by others in the past. Similarly, it is also argued that women commit violent crimes against their abusers due to the limited choices they have and as a last resort to free themselves from male violence (Baris, 2015).

Taken together, current and historical facts offer a powerful indicator that women unlike men infrequently resort to violence even to save their own lives (Van Wormer, 2010). Van Wormer (2010) claims that there is certainly a sense that we are now seeing more violence in young girls but that is partly because with girls it sticks out more because we expect it to be the other way.

This could mean that traditionally women were regarded as caregivers, nurturers and homemakers in the family context. They to a large extent, contribute to effective conflict resolutions amongst family members and in the community where they live. Suda (1996) confirmed this by stating that women are culturally socialised to be relationship-oriented and this process prepares them to be sensitive about the quality of relationships in marriages, families and communities, thus overseeing that relationships are intact and respectable. In addition, Rowbotham (2011) observed that female violence is less culturally acceptable than male violence as it is difficult for society to accept violence from females since it is considered unnatural. Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2008) argue that women are rewarded for building and maintaining relationships and for the nurturance of families much more than men, but constraints posed by child-rearing responsibilities are clear. Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2008) further allude that women are more likely to refrain from crime due to their concern for others. Moreover, Pollock et al. (2006) posit that when people think of violent crime, they do not think of women. But then if this is the case, why do they engage in violent and aggressive behaviours?

Looking at the increase of violent and aggressive crimes committed by women, the lack of empirical knowledge and the different views of several researchers on why women become violent, there still seems to be a need to investigate why women engage in violent behaviours. This is especially necessary in the African context since literature on African female criminality remains scarce. Furthermore, no evidence could be found in Namibia on why women commit violent crimes or why they engage in criminal behaviours. It is thus against this background that this study sought to find out what are the contributing factors to violent crimes in the women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. The knowledge gap that exist in the Namibian context would therefore be to find out what are the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women

incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility and thus makes and the study thus makes an important contribution towards understanding the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia.

It further explored the context in which these violent offences have been committed and described how these violent crimes have affected women socially, emotionally and physically. Lastly, the study attempted to recommend possible community and institutional intervention strategies for women in Namibia who have experienced adverse conditions that have prompted them into acting violently before they enter the criminal justice system in Namibia. This can help them counteract adverse conditions that make them vulnerable to behaving violently and aggressively. In addition, the study used the General Strain Theory by Agnew (1992) and the Social Disorganisation Theory by Shaw and McKay (1942) to explain why these women engage in violent or aggressive behaviours.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study employed two (2) theories namely, the General Strain Theory (GST) by Agnew (1992) and the Social Disorganisation Theory by Shaw and McKay (1942) to explain why women engage in violent and aggressive behaviours as women encounter numerous strains and stressors that may have been present in their lives for prolonged periods prior to the offence and which they perhaps did not like. This is accentuated by Agnew's general strain theory (1992) which states that individuals may turn to crime if they are not treated as they would like to be treated (Agnew, 1992). Additionally, the circumstances under which these women have lived may have been aggravated by a lack of support systems available in the community as networks of association influence the amount of social support, informal social control, and resources available in the neighbourhood (Bursik & Grasmick, as cited in Kingston, Huizinga & Elliott, 2009). This relates directly to the

Social Disorganisation Theory of Shaw and McKay (1942) which states that a lack of resources and social isolation caused by poverty can lead to a breakdown in community investments and engagement (Shaw & McKay, 1942) which in turn can lower levels of social control, generate differential norms, and increase violence (Sampson, 2012). The Social Disorganisation Theory by Shaw & McKay (1942) may help to evaluate how the environment in which the participants have lived created and supported opportunity for the violent crimes committed by the women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. In order to evaluate the relevancy of the two (2) theories in relation to the overall purpose and objectives of this study which is to examine the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia; to describe the vulnerabilities of female offending behaviours; to explore how these violent crimes have affected these women socially emotionally and physically; and to recommend possible community intervention strategies for women before they enter the criminal justice system and also for women after their release from the correctional facility for possible support with re-integration plans, the researcher first presents an overview of the General Strain Theory (GST), how strain may be perceived and the different types of strain that may result in crime. The Social Disorganisation Theory with its applicability to the study is then explained in detail and its relationship and interaction with the general strain theory towards an integrated approach in explaining the violent and aggressive offences perpetrated by the incarcerated population

2.2.1 A brief overview of the General Strain Theory (GST)

Before explaining in detail how strain can contribute to crime, it is important to understand what the term of strain means. Agnew (1992), states that strain refers to a relationship in which others are not treating the individual as he or she would like to be treated. Moreover, strain is most likely

to lead to crime when individuals lack the skills and resources to cope with their strain in a legitimate manner, are low in conventional social support, are low in social control, blame their strain on others, and are disposed to crime (Agnew, 1992). Additionally, Eriksson and Mazerolle (2013) explain that according to the General Strain Theory (GST) (1992), certain factors condition and affect individual coping strategies. Eriksson and Mazerolle (2013) express that individuals who exhibit low self-efficacy are more likely to turn to crimes due to the limited or inadequate belief in their own abilities to cope legally with adverse events (Agnew, 2006). Similar claims were made by Agnew, Brezina, Wright and Cullen (2002) who claim that negative emotionality and low constraint increase the likelihood of criminal coping in a number of ways. This includes impulsive behaviour in reaction to strain, inadequate social skills, a general lack of concern for others, and a tendency to attribute one's adversities to the actions of others. However, individuals who are directly controlled by, or experience a bond with family and society in general are less likely to engage in crime since they have more to lose than someone without this form of social control (Agnew, 2006).

The General Strain Theory (GST) (1992) also explains that strains or stressors increase the likelihood of negative emotions like anger and frustrations (Agnew, 1992). The theory further asserts that these emotions create pressures for corrective actions, and crime is one possible response. General Strain Theory (GST) (1992) further states that various forms of strain cause individuals to experience negative emotional states such as anger, depression, and fear. According to Agnew (1992), crime occurs when a person seeks criminal means to cope with his/her negative emotions and that an individual's coping strategy is the determining factor of whether or not one will engage in crime. Agnew (1992) believes that anger is the most critical emotional reaction to strain, but

strain increases the likelihood that an individual will experience one or more of a range of negative emotions. Agnew (1992) further emphasises that the range of negative emotions includes self- or inner-directed (e.g., depression or anxiety) as well as other outer-directed emotions (e.g., anger). Furthermore, Agnew (1992) makes the conceptual distinction of inner- and outer-directedness, not only for emotional reactions to strain but also for deviance committed to cope with negative emotions, inner (e.g. drug use) and outer-directed deviant coping (e.g., aggression).

Brezina (as cited in Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2013) also emphasises that experiencing strain has been linked to a variety of negative emotions, including anger, resentment, anxiety, and depression. Piquero and Sealock (as cited in Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2013) explain that different types of strain may lead to different emotional reactions, and research shows that anger strongly relates to interpersonal aggression than property crime. Moreover, Agnew (1992) highlights that individuals who blame their adversity on others are more likely to experience anger than depression in reaction to strain. These individuals engage in other-directed aggression rather than self-directed drug use, though they may still take drugs to alleviate their anger (also see Jang et al., 2003). The authors further emphasise Agnew's claims that depressed individuals are more likely to turn to self-directed deviance like drug use because they are more likely to blame themselves than others, but emphasise that they may still fight and argue with other people as a result of depressive feelings. This explanation shows that although individuals may first resort to drug use like for example, alcohol or other substances, they may still engage in fighting and arguments with others if they are subjected to strains and stressors. Agnew (1992) also claims that crime is an illegitimate means of coping with experiences of strain and negative emotions, allowing the individual to escape or reduce the amount of strain and negative emotions or take revenge against the individual or the

situation that caused the strain. Furthermore, Agnew (1992) proposes that an individual's internal and external factors condition the effects of strain on negative emotions, which in turn affects deviant coping. That is, the conditioning factors influence an individual's selection of deviant versus non-deviant coping by decreasing or increasing the likelihood that the individual will experience negative emotions in response to strains. Moreover, GST (1992) posits that strained individuals are more likely to experience outer- than inner-directed emotions when they externalise strain by blaming others, whether people or the system, for their adversity rather than internalise it by blaming themselves. Larger effects of strain externalisation on outer- than inner-directed emotions are expected, given that other-blaming increases the individual's level of felt injury, creates a desire for retaliation/ revenge, energises the individual for action, and lowers inhibitions, in part. Agnew (1992), states that individuals differ in their adaptations of strain due to variations in their coping mechanisms. Agnew (1992) proposes three types of coping mechanisms which are namely, the cognitive, behavioural, and emotional mechanisms.

Cognitive coping occurs when an individual attempts to minimise or deny negative feelings and an example would be when an individual states that it does not matter or "I am better off anyway" (Agnew, 1992). Cognitive strategies allow individuals to mentally reinterpret or minimise the importance of strain (Agnew, 1992; Agnew, 2006). Agnew (1992) additionally claims that behavioural coping takes place when an individual takes actions to permanently solve the perceived cause of their negative feelings and uses the example of an unhappy marriage where an individual seeks a divorce as a solution to their problem. However, behavioural coping could also result in criminal behaviour when the person resorts to illegitimate means to alleviate their negative emotions by choosing to murder rather than to divorce their spouses. Thus, behavioural coping may or

may not be criminal and often involves physical action to eliminate or otherwise deal with perceived sources of strain (Agnew, 1992 & Agnew, 2006).

The third coping mechanism described by Agnew's general strain theory (1992) is emotional coping which occurs when an individual does not seek to deny or solve their negative feelings, but only reduces their negative emotions. In this case, Agnew (1992) states that people may choose to exercise, go out with friends, or indulge in comfort food. Emotional coping is theorised as a way to help the person relax or to employ artificial aids for managing stress, such as legal drugs, alcohol, and illegal substances. However, Agnew (1992) further states that emotional coping could become criminal when individuals decide to engage in illegal behaviours (Agnew, 1992 & Agnew, 2006).

Moreover, the General Strain Theory (GST) (1992) offers explanations as to why individuals commit crime and why they resort to violence, and it explains specifically why some women engage in crime by identifying strains of particular relevance to women (Broidy & Agnew, 1997). The authors state that victimisation is one example of a strain. Broidy and Agnew (1997) further postulate that women are exposed to aversive stimuli within the household, such as physical, sexual and emotional abuse to a much greater extent than men. Broidy and Agnew (1997) argue that as women are particularly concerned with interpersonal ties, the failure to achieve a happy and healthy intimate relationship due to abuse may be perceived as highly stressful. Thus, in terms of conditioning factors, Broidy and Agnew (1997) note that women who engage in criminal behaviour are more likely to hold criminal beliefs, associate with criminal peers, experience low social control, and have more opportunities to engage in crime. Broidy and Agnew (1997) further note

that the perceived unavailability of non-criminal coping strategies may lead women to commit crime, for example, in the case of abusive relationships (Broidy & Agnew, 1997). In addition, the General Strain Theory (GST) (1942) terminology asserts that victimisation is the presentation of negative valued stimuli and it is expected that direct exposure to abuse, or vicarious abuse directed towards children in the relationship act as a source of strain for women. In order to clarify the meaning of strain, the following definitions are provided (Agnew, 2001).

2.2.2 Objective strains

Agnew (2001) states that objective strains refer to events or conditions that are disliked by most members of a given group. Consequently, when an individual experiences objective strain, he or she may experience an event or condition that is usually disliked by members of his or her group (society). Agnew (2001) further asserts that many events and conditions are disliked by most people, regardless of group membership (e.g., physical assault, lack of adequate food and shelter) (Agnew, 2001). Thus in view of this strain, the focus was on how the community responded to the strain experienced by the participants like physical assault or domestic violence and emphasis was also placed on whether society displayed acceptance for such obnoxious behaviours and if it was for example normalised or trivialised, thus reacting to it as a common occurrence in the society.

2.2.3 Subjective strains

Agnew (2001), states that subjective strain refers to events or conditions that are disliked by the people who are experiencing (or have experienced) it. Agnew (2001) also states that in the event of such a strain, individuals experience an event or condition that they dislike and emphasises that the subjective evaluation of an objective strain is a function of a range of factors. This includes

individual traits (e.g. irritability), personal and social resources (e.g. self-esteem, self-efficacy, social support), goals/values/identities, and a range of life circumstances. The emotional response to an event or condition is closely linked to subjective strain as subjective strain deals with the individual's evaluation of an event or condition (Agnew, 2001).

In the event of subjective strains, the focus was on various forms of strains that were experienced by the participants. The focus was on the strains caused by another individual (husband, partner, family member, stranger) that presented some form of threat against achieving for example peace at home with the children or in the relationship or marriage; whether the victim had threatened the participant by removing the children from her or preventing her from entering their common house and also if domestic violence was a factor. Moreover, emphasis was also placed on the perceived strain experienced by the participants and if these strains had prevented them from being successful in all the areas of her life. This includes areas such as education, employment, social and emotional wellbeing, and spiritually, thus using a holistic approach to determine what exactly the respondent had experienced that forced her to violent or aggressive responses towards the victim.

Lastly, Agnew's general strain theory (GST)(1992) identifies three sources of strain which could be that other individuals may prevent one from achieving positively valued goals, remove or threaten to remove positively valued stimuli that one possesses, or prevent or threaten to present one with noxious or negatively valued stimuli (Proctor, 2004) . Agnew's perception is that if people are treated badly, they might get angry and engage in crime (Agnew, 1995). Additionally, Agnew (2001) argues that the types of strain that are most likely to result in the commission of

crime are those that are seen as unjust, high in magnitude and low in social control, which is explained as follows.

2.2.4 Strains which are most likely to result in crime

a) Strain seen as unjust

Agnew (1992) presented unjust treatment as a distinct category of strain, classified under the failure to achieve positively valued goals. The issue of injustice applies to all types of strain and it is possible to classify any type of strain seen as unjust as a condition that would most likely lead to crime, primarily because they are more likely to provoke emotions conducive to crime like anger. Agnew (2001) argues that strains perceived as unjust are likely to result in crime as they tend to promote the negative affective state of anger. According to Agnew (1992), anger is the most negative affective state most conducive to crime. Agnew (1992) further stress that anger inhibits the ability of individuals to think rationally, often causing them to neglect alternative means to resolve issues in a non-violent manner. When people experience feelings of injustice, anger distorts their sense of appropriate actions as they feel justified taking extreme measures in order to obtain revenge (Agnew, 2001). Proctor (2004) says that engaging in criminality may help women to cope with the sense of powerlessness they experienced as a result of being victimised sexually and physically. This type of strain may be interpreted by women as unfair and therefore they may resort to crime to cope with the situation.

b) Strains perceived to be high in magnitude (degree, duration & recency)

The negative emotions generated by high magnitude strains are more difficult to cope with using any of the three major coping strategies (Agnew, 2001). Agnew (2001) further argues that strains high in magnitude are much more difficult to cognitively ignore or deal with by

legitimate behavioural means. In the case of high magnitude strains, illegal means of emotional coping such as drug use may seem more attractive than legitimate means of coping such as exercise (Agnew, 2001). The author further states that as the intensity of the strain increases; the more likely it is that individuals will develop psychological problems such as depression. This type of strain inhibits one's ability to effectively cope with problems and this can also cause other negative emotions such as anger or fear which can further motivate an individual to resort to criminal behaviour as a means to alleviate their negative emotions (Agnew, 2001). Thus, the presentation of negative stimuli like for example physical assaults and verbal insults relates strongly to noxious or negatively valued stimuli which can also be related to victimisation. Next is strain that is low in social control.

c) Strains that is low in social control

With this strain, Agnew (2001) explains that strains related to low social control increase the likelihood of crime by diminishing the attachment of an individual to society and in such a case, an individual perceives that they have relatively little to risk by engaging in crime. Whereas, when individuals have high stakes in pro-social institutions, such as a strong relationship to family or an established career, they are less likely to choose criminal behaviour as a source of coping for fear of losing the institutions or persons to which they are attached to. Thus, people who experience strain as a result of circumstances relating to low social control such as negative relationships or stressful jobs are likely to resort to criminal behaviour as a method of coping with their strain as they have little to lose (Agnew, 1992). According to GST (1992) individuals who face straining conditions and subsequently experience negative emotions may choose among the three broad and often overlapping options: emotional, cognitive,

and behavioural coping because coping techniques may vary in effectiveness, thus people often employ more than one method to deal with the strain (Agnew 1992 & Agnew, 2006a)

Thus, the General Strain Theory (1992) assisted in providing answers to the main objective of the study which is to first identify the strains and stressors that were experienced by the respondents prior to the offence and to what extent these factors influenced the respondents to act violently or aggressively. Additionally, if individuals are treated in a negative manner and they are not satisfied with the treatment, they may experience feelings such as anger, resentment and anxiety, which are all negative emotions that may result in crime as it was emphasized by Brezina (as cited in Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2013). These may include killing or assaulting the person who is presenting the perpetrator with undesirable treatments. Additionally, the study employed the Social Disorganisation Theory of Shaw and McKay (1942) to assess how the environment in which the participants have lived, created or supported opportunity to act violently. Therefore, see below a description of this theory and how it assisted in answering the main objective of the study.

2.3 The Social Disorganisation Theory

Social disorganisation refers to the inability of a community to realize the common values of its members and maintain effective social controls (Kubrin & Wo, 2016). According to the Social Disorganisation Theory (1942) a common value among neighbourhood residents is the desire for a crime-free community. Thus socially disorganised neighbourhoods are ineffective in fighting crime (Kubrin & Wo, 2016, p. 122). Shaw & McKay (1942) further state that impoverished areas of the city were typically less 'socially organised', resulting in higher rates of social problems. In short, Shaw & McKay (1942) argue that there is a direct link between violence and the dynamic

life of the community. According to Social Disorganisation Theory (1942) a lack of resources and social isolation caused by poverty can lead to a breakdown of community investment and engagement and can thus lower the levels of social control, generate differential norms, and increase violence (Sampson, 2012).

The Social Disorganisation Theory (1942) incorporates community-level factors to explain public forms of violence and crimes that affect whole neighbourhoods (Goodman & Bouffard, 2017). Additionally, communities are complex structures with institutional and normative dimensions that are rooted in the family structure of that area (Schwartz, 2008). Moreover, Bursik and Grameck (as cited in Kingston, Huizinga, & Elliott, 2009) assert that neighbourhood life is shaped by the structure of formal and informal network associations. The authors further believe that these networks of association influence the amount of social support, informal social control, and resources available in the neighbourhood. However, if these networks of association are absent in a neighbourhood and residents are not supporting each other by interfering in obnoxious treatments by others, it may result in criminal acts such as violence perpetrated by the individuals who are experiencing it. Similarly, if there is no community control measures in place where women can seek support when they experience conditions that make them vulnerable to acting violently, it could create dissonance in the individual where she would react in ways that is not acceptable in society. For example, if women are subjected to abuse and the neighbourhood in which they live does not provide some form of protection by interfering or calling on other organisations like the police to intervene, this may result in them reacting in violent ways which they might have regarded as the last resort to solve the problem. Also, the continuous experience of a lack of emotional or financial support to care for their children may contribute to frustrations and anger and

may result in violence exerted on the individual that was supposed to fulfil this role. Bursik and Grasmick (as cited in Kingston, Huizinga, & Elliott, 2009) further emphasise that collective efficacy is the emergent process by which neighbourhood social ties are activated within social networks. This enhances social control and demonstrates that rates of violence are lower in neighbourhoods characterised by high levels of collective efficacy which is defined as mutual trust and solidarity among neighbours. This should be combined with the willingness of local residents to intervene on behalf of the common good but they are unlikely to intervene when the rules are unclear and people mistrust or fear each other (Kingston, Huizinga, & Elliott, 2009). Also, low social control may reduce the ability to cope in a noncriminal manner and individuals low in direct control, conventional attachments and conventional commitments generally lack the social support and resources that facilitate noncriminal coping (Agnew, 2001). Kingston, Huizinga and Elliott (2009) explain that high control is frequently associated with the provision of social support and the possession of personal and financial resources that facilitate noncriminal coping. In addition, Kingston et al. (2009) proffer that neighbourhoods with weak social networks and low levels of collective efficacy typically lack the resources, social support and informal social controls that are essential. More specifically, collective efficacy and informal social control can impact intimate partner violence (IPV) because victims may perceive their community as more or less supportive depending on the characteristics that are present. For example, victims who perceive their community to be less supportive in fighting intimate partner violence may be reluctant to reach out to community agencies for help. Moreover, society tends to view and treat female behaviour and criminality as a symptom of individual pathology rather than a symptom of structural disadvantages (Liddell & Martinovic, 2013). This term of reference in actual sense, refers to biological

or psychological explanations of criminal or deviant behaviour by individuals which could be interpreted as being abnormal or crazy and might stigmatise the individual, which will further prevent the person from seeking for support or help in times when they experience adverse conditions. When women face difficulties alone, it contributes to stress which in the end may manifest itself in aggressive outcomes and as emphasized by Kubrin and Wo (2016), ecological characteristics of neighbourhoods influence the degree of social disorganisation in the community and certain characteristics can impede the development of social ties that promote the ability to solve common problems, including crime. The authors further emphasise that informal social controls are impeded by weak local social bonds, lowered community attachments, anonymity and the reduced capacity for surveillance and guardianship, meaning that if such bonds exist in the communities or neighbourhoods, people would act in the interest of each other.

Kubrin and Wo (2016) further emphasise that socially organised communities are characterised by solidarity, internal consensus on essential norms and values and cohesion or a strong bond among neighbours (Kubrin & Wo, 2016). A disorganised community has little solidarity among residents and lacks social cohesion or integration and residents will thus not act as the eyes and ears which could have served as informal surveillance and acted as a deterrence for crime (Kubrin & Wo, 2016). Thus, it is believed that if these structures and relationships exist or are functional in neighbourhoods, these may have a positive impact on the prevention of violent and aggressive behaviours as when such behaviours are noticed, intervention from community members and organisations may stop the onset of it. With relevance to this study, the social disorganisation theory explains that it is the informal, nonofficial actions taken by residents and their simple presence that deters others from engaging in crime (Kubrin & Wo, 2016); thus, if such surveillance mechanisms

would be in place it could serve as protective factors against the use of violence and aggression in communities amongst residents.

Furthermore, in most African societies, the survival of the family depends a great deal on the female population and through their expressive and productive roles; women provide a stable emotional environment that cushions individuals against the psychological damage of disintegrating relationships (Suda, 1996). Women are often used as mediators when conflict exists between family members and if they participate in crime which is against societal norms, conflict situations will continue to rise as they will not receive the same respect and credibility for their roles. The roles and responsibilities attributed to women by society do not support violence as a means to solve conflict. Women are socialised in a manner that portrays the softer side of human nature. Therefore, society expects them to deal with conflict in a more socially acceptable manner than men.

Often women experience difficult situations in their lives, in their homes with families and in the community with friends and in the broader society and these circumstances may make it difficult for them to function in a pro-social and acceptable manner in society. In support of this, Baris (2015) states that women commit murder or injury, mostly in order to protect themselves against male violence and that such crimes committed by women who were subjected to violence are mostly arising out of a violent reaction and thus are not premeditated. In addition, Schwartz (2013) proffers that the behaviour change hypothesis assumes that changes in women's lives have spurred real increases in female offending and that such changes in women's lives include not only greater freedoms but also more stresses and strains. Schwartz (2013) further highlights that heightened role strain and conflict between what is supposed to be possible and what is actually available for

women may cause frustration, provoking violent responses to stressful incidents and lives. This is emphasised by the general strain theory as it describes such situations as strains that are most likely to result in crime, especially when it is seen as unjust, perceived to be high in magnitude and strains that is low in social control (Agnew, 2001). Not only will this confusion cause them to act violently but also the combination of traditional and newer female stresses may increase women's violent propensities (Schwartz, 2013). Schwartz (2013) elaborated on this premise and said that the second variant of the behaviour change hypothesis, economic adversity and poor marriage pools may be other relevant life changes affecting women in ways that have spurred increased violent offending.

Schwartz (2013) emphasises that:

Perhaps the increase of violence is because women's economic health and personal well-being are more dependent on domestic arrangements and relationships than men's and also because kin network that act as buffers against victimization are diminished while greater economic hardships may lead to more involvement in violence by women. He further noted that increasing economic inequality among women and between the sexes is a mechanism that might contribute to increased female violence. Faced with greater constellations of disadvantage, women increasingly may resort to physical attack or threat as coping strategy for dealing with disadvantaged surroundings or for confronting conflicts with partners, children, extended family, neighbours, other women, or authority figures. (pp. 791-792)

With the focus on how women deal with these difficulties that they are exposed to, Bottos (2007) argues that as the number of stresses in a women's life increase, inadequate means of dealing with these stressors lead to pent-up negative emotions which may eventually surpass their inhibition threshold and erupt in violence (also see Ogle et al., 1995). Falshaw (as cited in Bottos, 2007)

notes that if individuals are repeatedly exposed to violence, they can become desensitised and end up viewing it as a normal part of everyday life. Moreover, Bottos (2007) claims that when violent behaviours are reinforced (e.g. by achieving the desired objective), they are more likely to be repeated in the future (also see Akers, 1998).

Thus, it can be assumed that women do engage in violent behaviours due to various reasons and circumstances they find themselves in. However, although the phenomenon exists and needs to be explored in order to give a full account of the factors that propelled them into violent and aggressive behaviours, literature on the subject remains limited, especially in Africa and more so in Namibia. Moreover, it should be noted that although their pathways into criminal behaviours differ from those of men and since they experience a considerable degree of difficult circumstances for some time in their lives, they do not seek for assistance before they resort to violence or aggressive behaviours. As stated by Islam et al. (2014), females engage in crime as a result of their repeat victimisation inside the family or society and that familial conflict, increased separation rate, continuous victimisation and disparity in economic sectors force women to marginal positions in a society. Islam et al. (2014) further elaborate that not only was the subject of female criminality neglected but the issues were not explored enough especially to counter attack adverse conditions that make them vulnerable and susceptible to act violently.

According to Freudenberg, Willets and Green (as cited in Liddell et al., 2013), incarcerated women typically have a history of unmet social, educational, health and economic needs, in addition to a history of victimisation. Moreover, there is a general consensus by researchers that the needs of women in the criminal justice system are different from, greater than, and more complex than those of men (Liddell et al., 2013). Thus, it is evident that women have different needs and although

their pathways into the criminal justice system might be similar to men in one or the other way, the subject continues to be neglected. If this trend continues and the plight of women is not addressed, it could contribute to more complex issues that will affect the family system to a large extent. Women's status in society could be affected as they represent the family in many areas and are regarded as the cornerstones of the family unit and the society at large. They were raised and socialised as the homemakers, nurturers and caretakers of the families, who provide a sense of security to the people they care for. Not only will their status be affected but the security of the family system is also under threat as women are the first adult person that children relate to and model from.

2.4 The vulnerabilities, context and motivations for violence perpetrated by women

As previously mentioned, violent and aggressive behaviours were more common amongst men. It was also said to be a male phenomenon and females were more involved in petty crimes such as shoplifting, fraud, theft and drug use or merchants of drugs which are related to minor property crimes. However, although women are regarded as less violent than men, they are becoming violent through changes in cultural socialisation (Pollock et al., 2006). Pollock et al. (2006) further state that researchers speculate that the increase in arrests of women for assault and aggravated assault may be tied to domestic violence policies mandating that arrests are made when the police respond to domestic violence calls. Furthermore, the use of violence by females has become visible and attained categorical significance in an unprecedented way. Moreover, Baris (2015) found that the reason for women's use of violence may be very different from those of men.

Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2008) also claim that females are far more likely than males to be motivated by relational concerns and require a higher level of provocation before turning to crime. Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2008) further emphasise that situational pressures such as threatened

loss of valued relationships play a greater role in female offending and that women appear to be at greatest risk, not just of victimisation but also of committing spousal homicide or engaging in self-defensive or retaliatory violence against a domestic abuser. With regards to motivation for crime, Baris (2015) relates this to underlying psychological processes which activate people's thinking, feelings and behaviours, and further claims that women's motivation for aggression against an intimate partner or any other person can either be defensive/reactive (response to an attack) and active/goal oriented (retaliation). Context on the other hand refers to characteristics of an offense which include the location where the offense happened, the features of the offenders and victims, relationship between the victim and the offender, the extent of the injury and the aim of the offence (Baris, 2015).

In addition, women's violence takes place in an interpersonal context and is commonly triggered by substance abuse and difficulties in managing negative emotions (Bottos, 2007). Moreover, Kilday (2007) argues that women were less likely than men to become involved in most crimes but in certain countries like Scotland, females were proportionality more than twice as likely as their male counterparts to be indicted for a violent crime. Kilday (2007) further cites that when women commit homicide, it usually involves their domestic partner, which is further supported by Pollock et al., (2006) who alleges that when women kill, they are much more likely than men to kill someone they know. Thus, female violence is often committed in the private, domestic arena as opposed to the traditionally male arena of public life, which highlights important issues about the demarcation of spheres of power in society (Mutz, 2001). On the same note, Pollock et al., (2006) argue that violent crimes perpetrated by women are emotionally motivated and impulsive, and the target is generally a family member or acquaintance. This is further emphasized by Baris (2015) who

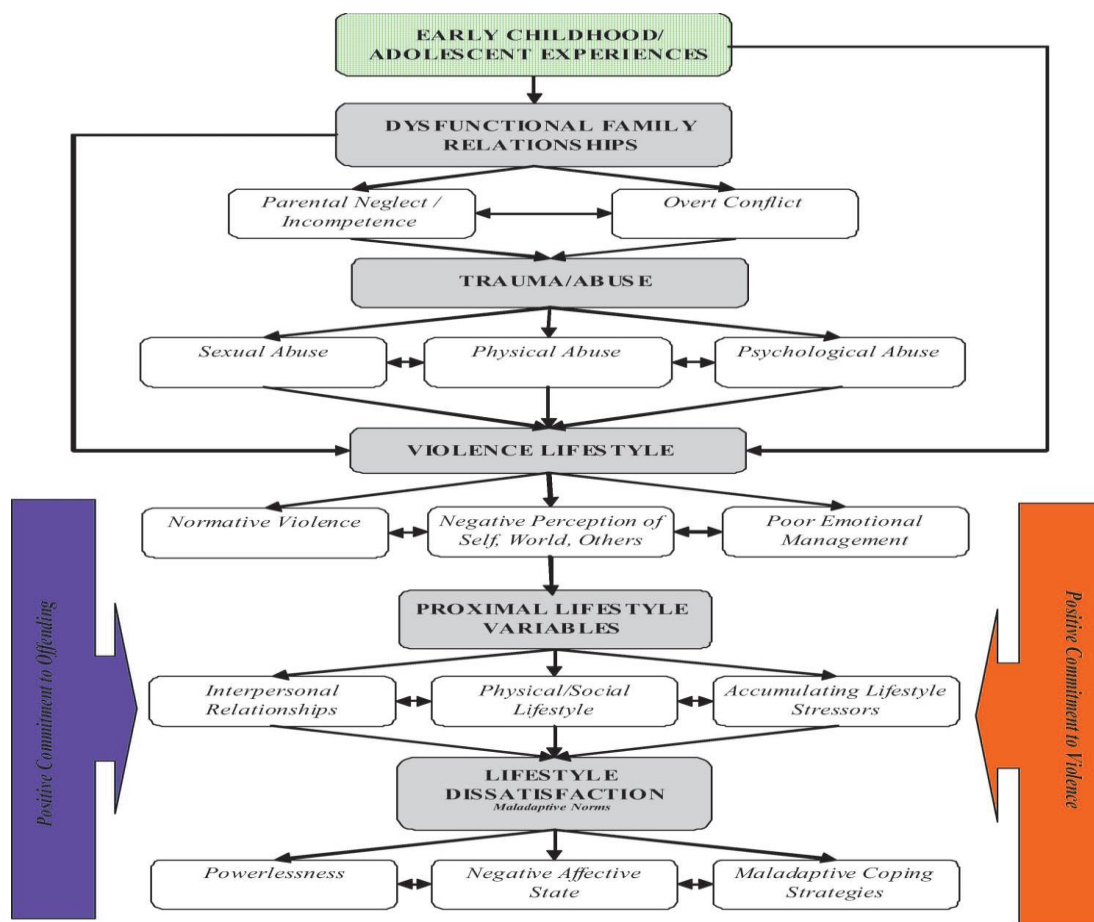
states that when female offenses were analysed, it was seen that women commit crime, especially murder or injury, mostly in order to protect themselves against male violence such as the husband or partner in a domestic relationship. Thus, women who commit crimes that inflict serious harm and that cause the death of another human being seem to stem from a variety of factors and as much as it is important to investigate why women commit these violent acts, it is also important to understand the natural surroundings of those who engage in violent and aggressive behaviours.

The vulnerabilities surrounding women's violence is described as low socioeconomic status, poverty, early traumatic experiences, an inability to cope with stressors, and aberrant personality styles which heighten women's risks of behaving violently (Bottos, 2007). Further studies conducted in America on female offenders indicated that given their history of social exclusion, it seems almost certain that the social conditions that African American women face prior to incarceration is marked by extreme powerlessness which is indicated by factors such as sexual and physical abuse, lack of education, unemployment with few marketable skills, being on welfare and being a single parent. Liddell and Martinovic (2013) confirm this by emphasizing that incarcerated women typically have a history of unmet social, educational, health and economic needs, in addition to a history of victimisation.

Having said that, Murdoch et al., (2010) have used the Women Violent Offence Model (WVOM) to illustrate the background and developmental factors that may predict violence in women and this model is used in this study to demonstrate a typical cycle of female offending behaviours and the factors that may predict violence in future. This offence model identified early childhood and adolescent experiences, dysfunctional family relationships, parental neglect and incompetence,

overt conflict, trauma and abuse, sexual abuse, emotional neglect and psychological abuse, and violent lifestyles which include normative violence as predisposition factors specific to the perpetration of women's violence. Murdoch et al. (2010) found that women have encountered considerable bio-psychosocial obstacles since childhood and these obstacles actively inhibit their ability to establish good and functional lives for themselves (Murdoch et al., 2010). The Women Violent Offence Model (WVOM) developed by Murdoch, et al. (2010) further emphasises that parental neglect and incompetence appear to have played a major role in the lives of these women as many of them and their siblings were placed within extended families or external agency environments. It states that these two categories include the failure to meet the needs necessary to life, for example providing adequate medical attention and normal development including neglect and physical and or emotional abuse, or failure to provide a safe environment from sexual or physical abuse, injury, and exposure to substance abuse and inter-parental violence. It also includes the failure to meet emotional needs, for example lack of parental warmth and or emotional neglect and the failure to provide adequate supervision (Murdoch et al., 2010). Below see figure 1 - Women Violent Offence Model (WVOM)

Figure 1- A descriptive model of the offence process of violent women offenders (Murdoch, et al., 2010)



2.5 Most common violent crimes committed by women

According to Kubiak et al. (2012) violent offenses are defined as acts that involve force or threat of force, and include offense types such as homicide, robbery, assault, and sexual offenses. Furthermore, violence implies destruction, anger, and pain; while family suggests the quality of caring and love and joy (Payne & Wermeling, 2009). Pearson (2010) argues that despite the perception that women are not naturally aggressive, evidence proves otherwise. Pearson (2010) relates that women kill their children, their husbands, their lovers and their lovers' mistresses; women join their lovers in torture and killings, women are psychopaths and women are terrorists and violent criminals. Thus, according to these authors, there are strong arguments that women do commit

violent crimes despite being labelled as not as aggressive as man. Therefore, it was found relevant to this study, to identify the most common aggressive crimes that are committed by women.

The crimes described below illustrate the most common violent crimes committed by women. It was also found that women exert violence mostly on people they know, for example, partners, children, husbands, and friends, family and in certain few cases, against a stranger. However, the researcher focussed at particular offences such as child murder, intimate partner violence, domestic violence, and assault (common and grievous bodily harm) as these offences are found to prevail more in the Namibian context.

2.5.1 Homicide

Homicide is defined as the intentional killing of another human being without proper justification or excuse (self-defence, during a war, as application of the death penalty) (Ouimet & Montmagny-Grenier, 2014). With a focus on women, Pollock et al. (2006) argue that when women kill, they are much more likely than men to kill someone they know and as stated by Rosseger et al. (2009), women are more likely to have a relationship with the target of their violence, either in the form of a close relative or intimate partner. Thus, homicides occur in the family setting and may also include the children of couples who are involved in the killings.

2.5.2 Neonaticide, infanticide and filicide

Pitt and Bale (1995) gives information on the different types of child murders and the motives thereof and although this source is older than ten (10) years, it was found to be relevant to this study. Thus, referring to the killing of children, Pitt and Bale (1995) proffer that the slaying of children is an international phenomenon and cases of infanticide have been documented around the world and once a tradition of infanticide is developed, customs encouraging psychological

distancing between mother and neonate become institutionalised, hence even as social conditions become altered, infanticide is likely to remain in the cultural repertoire. In addition, West (2007) defines infanticide as the murder of a child under the age of one year by his or her parents and filicide has been in existence since the dawn of mankind, which is defined as any murder of a child up to the age of 18 years committed by his parent(s), including guardians and stepparents. Neonaticide refers to the unique circumstances in which a new-born is killed by his or her parents (s) within the first 24 hours of life (West, 2007). In relation to child murder, Lewis Kim (2013) reports that foetuses are dumped or flushed down toilets every month in Windhoek, the capital city of Namibia. Thus, as reported by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare (as cited by Ndempavali and Amukugo (2016), baby dumping has become a social phenomenon with grave consequences that is drawing nationwide attention and condemnation in Namibia. Phillip Resnick developed five categories to account for the motives that drive parents to kill their children as indicated below in table 1 (Pitt & Bale, 1995).

Table 1: Categories and motives for different types of filicides (Pitt & Bale,1995)

Category	Motive
Altruistic filicide	First, the offense may be committed by parents who believe that the child or family is facing an unbearable, inescapable, impending doom. Second, the parents may murder their children in association with their own suicide. These parents often do not believe that the child can exist without them.
Acutely psychotic filicide	Involves parents who kill while suffering from epilepsy, delirium, or hallucinations. This category contains those cases lacking any discernible motive for the crime.
Unwanted child filicide	Is committed because the infant was never, or is no longer wanted by the parents. This type of murder is commonly committed due to illegitimacy or extra-marital conception.
Spouse revenge filicide	Describes children who are murdered in order to retaliate against the perceived wrongdoing of a spouse/partner

2.5.3 Domestic violence (including common assault and assault with the intent to do grievous bodily harm)

Domestic violence is defined as any violence between current or former partners in an intimate relationship, wherever and whenever the violence occurs. The violence may include physical, sexual, emotional or financial abuse (Walby & Allen, 2004). According to the Combating of Domestic Violence Act, Act No 4 of 2003, domestic violence is defined within the context of a domestic

relationship and it means engaging in any of the following acts or courses of conduct such as physical abuse, sexual abuse, economic abuse, and intimidation, harassment, entering the residence or property of the complainant without the express or implied consent of the complainant, where the persons in question does not share the same residence; emotional, verbal or psychological abuse, threats or attempts to threaten a person.

2.6 Risk factors that influence violent and aggressive behaviours in women

Gelsthorpe (2010), postulates that women's physical positions and lifestyles in society might possibly contribute to their vulnerability to financial difficulties, domestic violence and high levels of childhood victimisation. Gelsthorpe (2010) further highlights that these vulnerabilities might be an 'indirect' pathway towards crime. Bottos (2007) emphasises that the increase in women's involvement in violent crimes is calling for a better understanding of risk factors for violence. Bottos (2007) further stresses that it is an important undertaking and studies have identified multiple risk factors related to women's violent behaviours, many of which distinguish them from their male counterparts and from non-violent women offenders, which includes environmental, familial, and individual factors (Bottos, 2007).

2.6.1 Environmental risk factors

According to Bottos (2007), many environmental and societal factors that have been identified as contributors to women's violent behaviour draw attention to women's status in a gendered society. Bottos (2007) further cites unemployment, low socioeconomic status, poverty and lack of access to educational and vocational opportunities as some of these factors. Similarly, Van Dieten et al. (2014) add that environmental risk factors such as a lack of access to vocational and employment

opportunities can contribute to violence in women. Women's offending is most often associated with poverty and financial difficulties; whilst many women's financial situations are further strained by their sole responsibility for dependent children. In a study conducted by Dastile (2014), financial difficulties together with stresses and strains were cited by the incarcerated women as the main reasons for committing their offences as they had childcare responsibilities and had to provide for their children.

2.6.2 Family risk factors

According to Bottos (2007), factors that are external to the individual and highly influential in predicting violence risk can be found in the family environment. Bottos (2007) reiterates that women who are violent have often witnessed violence in their homes whilst growing up, most often between their parents but also between and against siblings. Not only have they witnessed violence in their homes but they are often the victims of violence themselves at considerably higher rates than non-violent women offenders and violent male offenders (Bottos, 2007). Likewise, victimisation during childhood or adolescence is a risk factor for both male and female offenders and is a stronger predictor among females (Cauffman, 2008). Moreover, Murdoch et al. (2010) claim that family environments of violent women are multi-problematic, disorganised and unpredictable, and that the families in which these women developed as children tended to have poor communication skills and exhibited poor problem-solving skills. According to Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2012), wives are far more likely to have been victims and turn to murder only when in mortal fear, after they have exhausted other alternatives. Schwartz and Steffensmeier (2012) claim that the highest proportion of violent offences committed by women occur within the context of an intimate relationship. In addition, Cipaldi et al. (2012) state that relationship conflict that is linked to female perpetrated violence includes low relationship satisfaction, high discord and bi-

directional or mutual violence. Other family factors that have been associated with the perpetration of violence include an array of parental characteristics such as substance abuse problems, anti-social conduct, previous incarceration, or mental health issues.

2.6.3 Individual level risk factors

Van Dieten et al. (2014) claim that women charged with violent crimes have a higher degree of need and that violent offenders are more likely to have a history of substance abuse that resulted in law violation. MacBrayer (as cited in (Bottos, 2007) offers parental attitudes as a risk factor and argue that parental attitudes may influence females' violent behaviour through the internalisation of their violence supporting attitudes as young women, particularly when it is the mother who holds these dysfunctional beliefs. The author further argues that a hostile attribution bias and selective attention to aggressive cues are some of the individual risk factors to violence in women. The author further proffers that violent women tend to perceive hostile intent in ambiguous interpersonal situations that create negative feelings for them, and they also tend to focus more on potentially aggressive behaviour than pro-social ones (Van Dieten et al., 2014).

Babcock (as cited in (Bottos, 2007) documented external blame attributions where women who are violent either blame their partners (in case of domestic abuse) or claim a lack of control as the cause of their behaviour. Anger may also be more influential in women's violent behaviours than men's as incarcerated women have been found to exhibit consistently higher levels of anger compared to their male counterparts, and they tend to respond with aggression to less provocation (Bottos, 2007).

In addition, violence perpetrated by women may be driven by a desire to injure the other person; or to achieve control, compliance, or retribution from their victim (Ben-David, 1993; Babcock et al., 2003). Women's violence is more likely than men's to be economically motivated, undertaken

for survival purposes, and as a way of releasing accumulated tension (Campbell, 1993; Cunningham, 2000). Disrespect and jealousy may also prompt some women to behave violently (Bottos, 2007).

2.7 Social, emotional and physical effects of the violent crimes committed

Physical and mental health consequences for women are countless (Lacey, McPherson, Samuel, Sears, & Head, 2013). Additionally, women who behaved violently and who have committed a violent crime may have sustained serious and long-lasting social, emotional and physical effects. Engaging in violent or aggressive behaviours may have severe consequences on the self, the families and the community in which they have lived. Cauffman (2008) mentions that the negative impact of female offending extends well beyond the immediate consequences of the behaviour itself and the cost of the criminal justice system intervention. Cauffman (2008) emphasises that several studies came to similar conclusions that antisocial women inflict abuse that is serious enough to lead to medical treatment, that elicits fear, and that cannot always be explained as self-defence.

Moreover, Willingham (2011), states that although women are physically free after being released from prison, black women are still being held captive by the continued social injustices committed against them. This in itself can have countless consequences as the lack of support especially after being released from a correctional facility is paramount to effective reintegration into society. Furthermore, inmates must cope with their diminished status and the obvious lack of freedom that comes with their new environment. Not only do they have to cope with that but after their release, they must adjust to the stigma of their history, deciding the best strategy for managing its consequences (Schnittker, 2014). Thus if these factors are not addressed at a societal level and women

are not prepared adequately on how to deal with such challenges once they are released, it may lead to dissatisfaction and failure to successfully reintegrate into society.

Kingston et al. (2009) found that women experience regret and loss of self-respect; they often blame themselves and assume responsibility for not leaving the abusive relationship but assuming responsibility to end the abuse with their own actions if violence was perpetrated in the context of family relationships. Wu (2013) and Haffejee, Vetten and Greyling (2006) posit that a female offender is likely to have been the primary caretaker of young children at home at the time of their arrest. The consequences of incarceration are therefore felt by the children of incarcerated mothers. Incarcerated women are thus often portrayed as inadequate and incompetent mothers who are unable to provide adequately for the needs of their children (Bernstein, 2005).

According to Covington (2003), there is a major difference between female and male offenders' relationship with their children. Covington (2003) claims that women who are incarcerated are mostly portrayed as inadequate and incompetent mothers and that they are unable to provide adequately for the needs of their children (Also see Garcia Coll et al., 1998). According to Covington (2003), separation from and concern about the well-being of their children are among the most damaging aspects of prison for women, and the problem is increased by a lack of contact (Covington, 2003).

As mentioned by various researchers worldwide, women have often suffered abuse at the hands of their victims. They may have sustained serious injuries along the way or may have been injured the day of the offence. According to Lacey et al. (2013), intimate partner violence has significant influences on the wellbeing of women of all racial and social backgrounds. Thus, depending on how serious the injury was, this may prevent them from acquiring a job to provide for their needs and if prolonged, medical treatment is needed, and they would need funds to provide for all of this.

Gelsthorpe, Sharpe and Roberts (2007) emphasise that financial difficulties are perhaps the most significant risk factor leading to offending by women and this is also regarded as one of the most dynamic risk factor. Thus, economic hardships may be a factor even after their release from a correctional facility and this may thus affect the reintegration process into society especially in the event where support is non-existent or inadequate. Due to the commission of the offence, women are often sentenced to a term of imprisonment and as a result often lose their jobs which contribute to loss of income. This may be especially difficult for women who have children whom they still have to support. Thus, continuous economic hardships may be experienced that may have detrimental effects on the mental health of women thereby causing anxiety and depression to mention just a few (Gelsthorpe et al., 2007)

Being separated from loved ones and the loss of freedom has been documented as some of the aftermaths of committing crime. Women's lives tend to be more disrupted by periods in custody in terms of separation from their children and loss of family ties (Gelsthorpe et al., 2007). When a person is sentenced to a term of imprisonment, the person is removed from his/her family which can be traumatic for an individual. Loss of freedom can create fear and contribute boredom as the person will not be able to participate in routine activities anymore and will have to find other ways to supplement these day to day activities. Also, moving freely around from one place to another will be limited as the movement of offenders is strictly controlled in correctional facilities. This may create frustration as the individual will be confined to a small area within the correctional facility.

2.8 Legislation, policies and intervention strategies on the treatment and aftercare of female offenders

Kubiak et al. (2012) argue that women convicted of violent offenses represent a small but important subpopulation of women involved in the criminal justice system. Kubiak et al. (2012) further say that correctional administrators working with these women often rely on treatment and rehabilitation programmes developed for violent male offenders. Although women's trajectories into violent behaviour, as well as their trajectory out, differ from their male counterparts, the field is marked by the absence of interventions designed specifically for women with violent offenses. With the focus on women who have committed violent crimes, it is said that social functional deficits that are not addressed are likely to manifest themselves in the mother-child relationship, which will have an inter-generational impact (Jules-Macquet (2015)). In addition, Liddell and Martinovic (2013) state that women also face particular needs in the area of motherhood as they are often the primary caretakers of their children. Liddell and Martinovic (2013) further state that there is a general consensus by researchers that the needs of women in the criminal justice system are different from, greater than, and more complex than those of men. Thus, legislation, policies and intervention strategies should be specifically designed to focus on those needs and risks that make women vulnerable to crime. Hence, the Bangkok Rules, The Offender Risk Management Correctional Strategy (ORMCS) of the Namibian Correctional Service, projects available by other Government of the Republic of Namibia (GRN) and Non-Government Organisations (NGO) are discussed to give a brief overview on what they entail and how they serve the interests of women in society and the incarcerated female offender.

2.8.1 Bangkok Rules

According to the United Nations Rules for the treatment of Women Prisoners and Non-custodial measures for women offenders, (Bangkok Rules, 2011), rule 67 states that efforts shall be made to organise and promote comprehensive and results-oriented research on the offences committed by women, the reasons that trigger women's confrontation with the criminal justice system, the impact of secondary criminalisation and imprisonment on women, the characteristics of women offenders, as well as programmes designed to reduce reoffending by women, as a basis for effective planning, programme development and policy formulation to respond to the social reintegration needs of women offenders (UNODC, 2011). On this subject, the researcher could not find similar studies in Namibia that focus on the development of programmes designed specifically for violent female offenders as well as other studies that can assist women with adverse conditions that make them vulnerable to crime and specifically to violent crimes where they resort to violence as a means to cope with the conditions that they encounter. However, the Namibian Correctional Service introduced the Offender Risk Management Correctional Strategy (ORMCS) in 2010 and it is explained in detail below.

2.8.2 Offender Risk Management Correctional Strategy (ORMCS)

The Namibian Correctional Service adopted the Offender Risk Management Correctional Strategy (ORMCS) in 2010, which consists of various components that aim to identify the risks and needs of offenders that have contributed to their criminal behaviours. However, this tool was not utilised for female offenders until 2016 when the first group of female offenders went through a pilot assessment at the Walvis Bay correctional facility. With a focus on women who have committed crime, a programme for female offenders (WOP) was implemented in October 2014, but this was facilitated only once in 2015 at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in the absence of a risk/needs

assessment tool, since this tool was only introduced in 2016 (Tjiroze, 2017). Furthermore, the programme was not specifically designed for violent female offenders; it is generic in nature and serves all female offenders, irrespective of the crimes that they have committed. In addition, the programme was only presented once to the female offenders at this correctional facility due to limited resources. Thus these women are still excluded from much needed services that could aid with the reintegration process into societies, thus eliminating the risks of reoffending. Additionally, it may help these women to counterattack conditions that make them vulnerable to crime, specifically violent and aggressive behaviours exerted on others (Tjiroze, 2017).

2.8.3 Ministry of Gender and Child Welfare (MGECW)

The Ministry of Gender and Child Welfare is in the process of implementing programmes that can contribute to the National Development Plan 5, under the pillar of Social Transformation. The focus area is gender equality with the aim to empower women for them to be free from gender-based violence by 2022. The key strategies are to increase financial and human capacity of service, to strengthen the implementation of gender responsive budgeting and planning, and to mainstream informal businesses led by women (Namibia's 5th National Development Plan (NDP5, 2017).

2.8.4 Ministry of Health and Social Services (MOHSS)

With the Developmental social welfare programme, the ministry aims to ensure quality delivery of social care that provides care equally for all while enabling people to retain their independence, control and dignity. This programme includes activities such as the promotion of family wellbeing, substance abuse and prevention, administering policies and legislations for registration and operations of welfare organisations and institutional centres, as well as statutory, residential and institutional care. In addition, the Coalition on the Reduction of Harmful Drinking (CORD) programme

was established in all regions, with CORD Committees (volunteers) functional in most constituencies. Etegameno Resource Centre in Windhoek provides community-based services on alcohol prevention and education. This is a “One Stop Shop” where people can drop in for information, services and help on alcohol and drug abuse; an Alcohol Traders’ Programme, which is an intervention programme with alcohol traders, who are playing a major part in the reduction of harmful drinking. Etegameno Rehabilitation and Resource Centre is an in-patient treatment programme of four (4) weeks and it is offered to adults only. Thereafter, aftercare services are provided to clients in the form of institutional treatment where clients are referred to aftercare groups to ensure their successful reintegration into society (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.5 Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO’S)

Extensive information exists on organisations that provide Gender Based Violence focused services in Namibia, across all the fourteen (14) regions in Namibia. Moreover, researchers worldwide indicate that women who use violence as a means to protect themselves from others, including partners, husbands and others, experience some form of abuse which include physical, sexual, emotional and economic abuse. Thus, prior to the commission of the offence they would need some form of services. Therefore, it was found relevant to identify such organisations in Namibia and to give an indication of what kind of services are available that can be used by women who are exposed to conditions that make them vulnerable to violent and aggressive behaviours. However, it should be noted that these services are not specifically aimed at violent or aggressive women. In accordance with this, the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) in collaboration with Victims 2 Survivors carried out a mapping of organisations in Windhoek that are providing GBV-focused services across regions in Namibia (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012). Below is a presentation of the identified organisations.

2.8.6 Women's Action for Development (WAD)

The organisation is presented as a Namibian-based non-profitmaking, non-partisan Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) and it has been operational in Namibia since 1994. It is a self-help organisation which follows a two-pronged programme, namely the socio-economic and socio-political empowerment of rural women and men (WAD, 2012). The organisation believes that people need to be united to fight poverty, which is one of the most profound social problems in the Namibian society. In addition, like elsewhere in Africa, poverty is fuelled in Namibia by unemployment, large families, and a high degree of illiteracy, semi-literacy and a lack of skilled labour force. These characteristics of the Namibian society present themselves most starkly among the rural poor and in particular among rural women. The establishment of Women's Action for Development (WAD) should be seen against this background, especially for rural women that count among the most deprived, socially and economically, in Namibia. The WAD programmes contributed greatly to the reduction of poverty through their own effort and the rediscovery of their own ingenuity, the provision of jobs in the regions, the restoration of human dignity, pride and self-confidence among the rural poor, and thus the building of peace and the prevention of conflict within the family circle and crime (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.7 Association for Alternatives to Violence Project (AVP)

The Association for Alternatives to Violence (AVP) was initially introduced in Namibia in 2006 and it is administered by the PEACE-Centre. AVP Namibia was registered in 2010/11 as an independent organisation and it seeks to show alternative ways of dealing with potentially violent situations to peacefully transform challenging situations. Therefore, all volunteers working as AVP facilitators are sensitised on various forms of violence, including GBV. Services provided by this

organisation include conferences/workshops, awareness-raising and training, psychological counselling service for survivors of GBV, counselling for child survivors and support groups for GBV survivors. The target group includes various types of offenders in prison and there are plans to cover a broader variety of other target groups in the future, namely the youth, male-support groups, refugees, and LGTBI groups (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.8 C-Change – NGO

C-Change provides technical assistance on behavioural change communication. They train Health Extension Workers, and as part of that training (currently in the northern regions), Health Extension workers are taught to identify GBV and refer to social workers. C-Change also helps link the Health Extension workers with trainings on gender and culture so that they can develop self-awareness (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.9 Council of Churches in Namibia (CCN)

This organisation was established in 1978, and it consists of all major churches in Namibia. The CCN provides further opportunities for the various church denominations to come together to share their experiences and make joint statements on matters of common interest. The pastors receive some GBV sensitisation training through the seminaries. The organisation provides psychological counselling services for survivors of GBV, counselling for child survivors, consultancy and advocacy, conferences and workshops (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.10 Friendly Haven – Civil Society Organisation

This organisation was established in 1996 and it is a project of the Ecumenical Social Diaconate Action (ESDA). Friendly Haven provides safe housing to women and their children in Windhoek. All staff members receive GBV sensitisation training. The main services provided by this project

include refuge/shelter, psychological counselling services for survivors of GBV, lobbying, awareness-raising campaigns, and training and information services. The target groups are females and children survivors of GBV (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.11 Legal Assistance Centre (LAC)

LAC was established in 1989. This law firm's main objective is to protect the human rights of all Namibians through a multi-functional approach. The target group is female survivors of GBV, male survivors of GBV, child survivors of domestic violence, policy making bodies and service providers. The services provided are as follows:

- Legal information for GBV survivors
- Advocacy
- Lobbying
- Awareness campaigns
- Training
- Research
- Information services

(Matthews & Von Hase, 2012)

2.8.12 Men and Women Network – Community-Based Organisation

The aim of this CBO is to make Okahandja Park a safe place free from violence by patrolling and working in collaboration with the police. It also involves the neighbourhood and community leaders. The target groups are women and children and the main services provided are legal support in the police station, home-based care, referral and reporting cases to the police, emergency intervention in the neighbourhood, patrolling with volunteers and counselling (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.13 Move Namibia – Civil Society Organisation

Move Namibia was established in October 2012. This youth organisation gathers young people and encourages them to say no to GBV in Namibia. Based on social network mobilisation (such as Facebook or Twitter), the organisation has reached people all around Namibia. Move Namibia employs a social worker who is tasked to sensitise the members of the organisation on GBV and the main services provided by this organisation are as follows:

- Information services
- Awareness-raising
- Advocacy and lobbying
- Referral
- Conferences/workshops (in project)

The target group is survivors of GBV and policy making bodies (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.14 Namibia Red Cross Society (NRCS) - Community-Based Organisation

Namibia Red Cross Society provides humanitarian aid with a focus on health and care. It was established in 1954 and the Head Office is based in Windhoek. The main activities of the NRCS can be described as “gender-related services in the refugee camps”. In cases of emergency, the NRCS provides interventions such as psychological counselling, support groups, medical support, and training. The GBV component is integrated to the health or emergency trainings delivered to the volunteers and regional coordinators who deal with the emergency situation. The target group is the survivors of GBV, identified as mostly woman and children even if not specifically targeted, who are confronted with violence in refugee camps (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.15 Namibian Women's Association (NAWA) – Civil Society Organisation

Established in 1979, NAWA is involved in child protection. NAWA has several branches in Namibia but some of them have been dormant. Therefore, only one staff member was trained on GBV this year. The main services provided are empowerment of children, advocacy and lobbying. The target group is all marginalized children (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.16 Namibia Women's Health Network (NWHN) – Civil Society Organisation

Established in 2008, this women's rights organisation provides information, education and skills trainings to improve the health of Namibian women living with HIV and to empower them to become leaders. All staff members, interns and volunteers who will be with the organisation on a long term basis receive GBV sensitisation training. The target groups are survivors of GBV (female and children) and policy making bodies, and the main services provided are as follows:

- Psychological counselling services for survivors of GBV
- Counselling for child survivors
- Information services
- Advocacy and lobbying
- Support group for GBV survivors
- Conferences and workshops
- Awareness-raising
- Training
- Research
- Referral

(Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.17 Out-right Namibia (ORN) – Civil-Society Organisation

This LGBTI, MSM and WSW human rights based organisation was formed in 2010 by self-identified LGBTI, MSM and WSW activists and it got officially registered as a Trust. ORN advocates for the voice of LGBTI people to be heard in Namibia and to address homophobia in Namibia. All the staff in the programmes and the field staff that work in the regions receive training on GBV. The group targets female and male survivors of GBV and the main services provided are:

- Psychological counselling services for survivors of GBV
- Support group for GBV survivors
- Advocacy
- Conferences/workshops
- Referrals
- Awareness-raising

(Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.18 Ombetja Yehinga Organisation (OYO) Civil Society Organisation

Established in 2003, OYO is an information and advice centre in terms of GBV. All OYO staff employed before 2012 received training on GBV but the ones who joined in 2012 or 2013 and upwards still need to go through the training. The target group is young people in and out of school as well as policy making bodies. The main services provided are as follows:

- Information services
- Referrals
- Advocacy and lobbying

(Matthews & Von Hase, 2012)

2.8.19 Philippi Trust Namibia – NGO

The organisation was established in Namibia in 1996 but it registered as a warfare organisation in 1999. The Philippi Trust Namibia has only one branch in Namibia although it is spread in different regions. It provide counselling and child protection services to GBV survivors. All staff members working with clients receive GBV sensitisation training. The target group is survivors of GBV and the main services provided are:

- Psychological counselling for survivors of GBV
- Counselling for child survivors
- Training

(Matthews & Von Hase, 2012)

2.8.20 Rights Not Rescue – Civil Society Organization

The programme targets sex workers, with a specific focus on MSM, transgendered individuals, and lesbians. The main services provided are:

- Outreach to sex workers
- Counselling and assessment to sex worker colleagues
- Documenting any reports of GBV
- Assesses documents via the SMS line through LAC
- Referrals to health service providers
- Lobby and advocacy
- Counselling
- Home based care
- SMS line on abuse

(Matthews & Von Hase, 2012)

2.8.21 Tanidare Empowerment Center – Faith Based Organisation

Established in 2002, this women's rights NGO is working closely with the Tanidare Parish to support and empower the vulnerable members of the parish. Workshops, seminars and trainings have been held on the Married Persons Equality Act, the Combating of Domestic Violence and Rape Acts, the Children's Status Bill, and HIV/Aids treatment and care. The staff members do not receive specific trainings on GBV. The target group is the survivors of GBV and young people, and the main services provided are as follows (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012):

- Information services
- Advocacy and lobbying
- Conferences/workshops
- Income-generation and job creation

2.8.22 Victims 2 Survivors - NGO

Established in 2010, this NGO seeks to increase awareness on GBV. The target group are female survivors of GBV, young people and policy-making bodies. The main services provided by this organisation are counselling for survivors of GBV, awareness campaigns, lobbying and advocacy, and information services (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.8.23 Youth Outreach on Right and Development (YORD) – Community-Based Organisation

YORD is a NGO that is working with young survivors of GBV. The services provided include education, awareness raising, and referrals for health and social services. They are currently connected to the PLHIV support groups, and many referrals come from members. Once young people are identified who may be experiencing GBV, they are counselled individually. The target group are the youth, both male and female from the ages of 16-35 and the main services provided involve the following:

- Dramas on the links between GBV and HIV at the hostel grounds for pregnant women and at the regional hospital, thus attempting to educate on GBV awareness and healthy relationships
- Training/capacity building on HIV and GBV as well as SRHR in Windhoek (Matthews & Von Hase, 2012).

2.9 Summary

This chapter discussed the different views of researchers on women's involvement in violent and aggressive behaviours and offences. These studies confirmed that women have become more violent today than in the past and offered different views and beliefs on why this phenomenon is increasing rapidly. Researchers such as Henriques et al., (2001) and Liddell et al., (2013) claimed that women enter the criminal justice system for different reasons than men because women have different needs compared to those of men. However, the majority of the studies were found to be European based and elsewhere in the world, as studies in the African context on violent females

remain scarce. This was said to be due to a lack of studies on female criminality and their contribution to violent offences. In addition, the chapter gave an outline on the different theoretical orientations, namely, the General Strain Theory by Agnew (1992) combined with the Social Disorganisation Theory by Shaw and Mckay (1942), which provide insight into why women engage in violent behaviours. In addition, the chapter further described possible contributing factors to violent behaviours in women at individual, familial and societal levels. Moreover, it described the nature of female offending behaviours and how women are affected by the violent crimes they have committed. In conclusion, the chapter also focused on the legislation, policies and intervention strategies on the treatment of and aftercare services for female offenders, and finally the chapter provided sources where women can get assistance before they engage in criminal behaviours that might bring them into contact with the criminal justice system.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two (2) discussed relevant literature on the different areas of enquiry about the intended research project which is to examine the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay Correctional facility in Namibia. This chapter makes provisions for the research methodology appropriate to the investigation. It describes the research design that was followed, the strategy of enquiry and the nature of the study that was used when the study was conducted. It gives an outline of the procedures that were followed prior to the investigation in order to get access to the subjects under study and it provides information on the data collection processes and the methods that were used to collect the data. In addition, it explains how the data were analysed, with a summary on the ethical issues that were considered prior, during and after the data collection process and during the entire study.

3.2 Research design

According to Neuman (2011), social science research is central in a “reality-based community”. Neuman (2011) further emphasises that it relies on people carefully studying experiences, events, and facts in social reality. Since the purpose of the study was to examine the factors that contributed to the commission of a violent offence by women sentenced and incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia, a qualitative research design with a phenomenological strategy of inquiry was applied. This approach assisted the researcher to identify the essence of the human experiences as described by the participants (Creswell, 2009, p. 13). In addition, the phenomenology approach also helped to understand the phenomena under study on its own terms as

this approach provides a description of human experience as experienced by the subjects thereby allowing the essence to emerge (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont, 2013, p. 316). Furthermore, the study was exploratory in nature as it examined the contributing factors to the violent crimes that were committed by subjects under study. Therefore, it is believed that these methods of enquiry enhanced the identification and examination of factors that impelled aggressive criminal behaviours in women incarcerated at that correctional facility which was the main objective of the study.

3.3 Population

The term population refers to individuals in the universe who possess specific characteristics and it also refers to the sampling frame (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont, 2012). De Vos, et al. (2012) further emphasise that a population is the totality of persons, events, organisations, units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. Thus, for the purpose of this study the target population was the female offenders with a violent crime incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. The focus was only on those who have committed a violent crime such as murder, attempted murder, culpable homicide, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm and common assault.

3.4 Sample

The researcher utilised the non-probability sampling method and specifically purposive sampling as it provided cases that fitted the sampling criteria. A sample is a small set of cases a researcher selects from a large pool and which is generalised to the population (Neuman, 2011). Rubin and Babbie (2011) explain that purposive sampling is a sample of observations that the researcher believes will yield the most comprehensive understanding of the subject of study, based on the researcher's intuitive feel for the subject that comes from extended observation and reflection. The

researcher utilised purposive sampling in selecting cases with a specific purpose in mind as outlined in the criteria below (Neuman, 2011, p. 268).

- Female offender
- Sentenced
- Violent crime: murder, attempted murder, culpable homicide, rape, assault with grievous bodily harm, and common assault.

Initially, the researcher indicated that the size of the sample would be 12 participants from the total population under study. However, as the interviews proceeded, it was realized that the information gathered and after the last respondent were interviewed, new information was still emerging and for this reason the principle of data saturation was applied to ensure the reliability of the research study.

3.5 Research instruments

In this study, semi-structured interviews were utilised to assist in the data collection process. With qualitative research, the researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with participants and these interviews involved unstructured and generally open-ended questions that were few in number and that were intended to elicit views and opinions from the participants (Creswell, 2009, p.181). This provided in-depth information that assisted in explaining why women engage in violent behaviours. During the process, demographic data were collected on the region, age, marital status, dependents and on the education of each respondent. Collecting demographic data such as the above assisted in providing important information on the background and nature of female offenders which is also part of the sub-set of the overall objective. Thus, knowing from which regions the respondents originate from helped to establish how often and severe the phenomena were in a particular region in Namibia as this may direct the development and implementation of possible

intervention strategies in the different regions of Namibia. Information on the age of the respondents indicated which age groups were most prone to engage in violence and gathering information on the marital status, the dependents and educational level also provided the researcher with information on the support systems available during the respondents' lifetime and at the time of the offence; the number of dependents the respondent was responsible for and if she was adequately educated to secure employment that could provide a satisfactory income for better living standards in providing the needs of the family.

3.6 Procedure

The researcher applied for authorisation to conduct the research in Namibia at the National Commission of Research Science and Technology. Authorisation was then granted with specific conditions attached to it, such as to obtain written consent from all the offenders who will participate in the study, to apply the research instruments strictly to the targeted population, to share the outcomes of the research with the National Commission of Research Science and Technology (NCRST) and with the Namibian Correctional Service (NCS) before publishing the research paper (See appendix A for reference). Furthermore, permission was then sought from the Commissioner-General of the Namibian Correctional Service (NCS) to conduct the study at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia with the female offenders incarcerated for a violent crime. After the request was approved by the Commissioner-General of the Namibian Correctional Service, the Officer-in-Charge of the Walvis Bay correctional facility was informed about the study. Thereafter, the researcher arranged for an appointment with the Officer-in-Charge and his deputy to further explain the purpose of the study, the procedures involved such as to have access to a list of all the offenders who have committed a violent offence, the selection process, the logistical issues such as to be allocated a room where the interviews will be conducted and the preparation sessions with the offenders prior to the data collection phase. With the emphasis on a room or office that would

provide minimal disturbances and a conducive atmosphere during the interviewing process, the authorities selected a room near the unit where all female offenders are kept. This was necessary to adhere to security guidelines applicable to this distinct population, and to ensure the safeguarding of confidentiality and the protection of the researcher as well.

Thereafter, a list was obtained from the relevant authorities that included all the female offenders sentenced for a violent crime. From this list the researcher carefully selected the participants based on the criteria that were set as follows:

- Female offender
- Sentenced
- Violent crime: including the following offences - murder, attempted murder, culpable homicide, rape, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, and common assault.

The researcher utilised nonprobability sampling as Neuman (2011) explains that with this sampling technique the researcher does not have to determine the sample size in advance. Additionally, purposive sampling (also known as judgmental sampling) was used, which is described by Neuman (2011) as a valuable sampling type for special situations with reference to the targeted population. The author further emphasised that purposive sampling is used with a specific purpose in mind and in this case it was to identify those female offenders who have committed a violent offence that would provide answers to the research questions in the end. Neuman (2011) further highlights that this type of sampling is appropriate to select unique cases that are especially informative on the subject matter, and that it is used for an in-depth investigation to gain a deeper

understanding of the subject to be studied (Neuman, 2011). After the selection process, the offenders were invited to a pre-group meeting where they were informed about the study and its intended purpose. An invitation was extended to them after which fifteen (15) participants indicated that they would voluntarily engage in the process. The only question that emerged from the participants was if pictures would be taken during the interview process of which they did not agree with. They were thus informed that no pictures would be taken during the entire process.

A pilot study was then conducted with the first participant who was not included in the sample size. The participant was informed that the interview would be audio recorded using a voice recorder and that field notes would be taken during the process. During this interview, informed consent was found to be equally important with this participant which was obtained considering the unique circumstances and setting of the population under study. The duration of the interview during the pilot study took about 1 hour 55 minutes and during this interview it became evident that some of the questions had to be rephrased and others needed to be added in order to ensure that all the questions are clear and well understood by participants as emphasized by Adams and Cox (2008, p. 25). After editing the interview guide, the respondents who agreed to voluntarily participate were called individually to start with the interviewing process and each participant was then again informed about their rights after which an informed consent was signed by both the participant and the researcher before the interview, with special emphasis on the audio recording of voices and taking of field notes during the interview process. The latter was kept as concrete, complete, and comprehensive as possible and it described the lived experiences of the respondents as emphasized by Neuman (2011, p. 444). Attached find an interview schedule guide and a sample informed consent and Voluntary participation form (See Appendix D and E).

Since semi-structured interviews were applied and an interview guide was used to direct the researcher during the interviewing process and the process took on a narrative inquiry which is described by Chase (as cited in Neuman, 2011) as a method of investigation and data collection that retains a narrative like quality from social life. Neuman (2011) further explains that using this method of inquiry, the researcher tries to capture people's ordinary lived experiences related to the area of study without disrupting, destroying or reducing its narrative character. Thus, the researcher used this tool to capture the first hand experiences of the participants in order to establish if there would be any relationship between what they have experienced, what the literature is saying about what may have propelled them into behaving violently as well as to find new evidence as to what may have been the contributing factors to their violent and aggressive behaviours which is the main objective of the study. The subset of the overall objective was also to describe the nature of female offending behaviours in this sample of which the method became quite useful as this could assist the researcher in drawing out patterns that would appear and re-appear in the narratives of the participants. Some of this information was derived from the demographic information as well as from their descriptions about their childhood and adulthood life experiences. Moreover, their accounts would also provide thick descriptive information on how these crimes have affected them socially, emotionally and physically, and lastly it would reveal information on the types of programmes, projects and community interventions available in their environments where they could have sought for help prior to the commission of the offence and them being sentenced to a term of imprisonment.

3.7 Data Analysis

According to Bryman (2016), data analysis is fundamentally about data reduction – that is, it is concerned with reducing the large body of information that the researcher has gathered so that he or she can make sense of it. Bryman (2016) further emphasises that unless the amount of data collected is reduced, for example in the case of qualitative data by grouping textual material into categories like themes, it is more or less impossible to interpret the material (p. 11). Bryman (2016) further argues that an issue to bear in mind with data analysis is that it can refer to the analysis of either primary or secondary data, and with primary data analysis, the researcher is responsible for collecting the data and conducting the analysis, as was the with the present study. The researcher followed the data analysis steps as described by Creswell (2009), which was to organise and prepare the data for analysis by transcribing the interviews. During this process, the researcher listened carefully to the audio recordings and transcribed them as precisely as possible, taking on a verbatim approach. Field notes that were kept during the interviewing process and they were consulted to incorporate all the information so as to ensure a full description of the lived experiences of all the respondents. After the completion of this process, the researcher started to read through the transcripts with the aim to obtain a general sense of the information as described by Tesch's eight (8) steps of data analysis suggested by Creswell (2009). Consequently, the researcher began with the coding process using Microsoft word by inserting endnotes at the end of each transcript and identifying the issues that stood out during the whole interview and these were directed towards the objectives of the study. The researcher then continued to use the eight (8) steps of Tesch's data analysis process by finding the most descriptive word for a topic and then turning it into a category or theme that would describe relevant issues based on the objectives of the study.

3.8 Managing the data

The effective management of data in research is a very important aspect. Not only does it ensure that important material does not get lost during the entire process but it also guarantees anonymity thus protecting the identity of the respondents. Therefore, from the onset of the data collection process, the researcher arranged for a lockable cabinet at the site in which all the material was stored including field notes as well as the voice recorder on which the interviews were recorded during and at the end of each day. The researcher created folders on the laptop to which the data were transferred to from the voice recorder in order to make sure that there was a master copy created in which the data were stored. The researcher assigned a digital code to each of the respondents that were generated by the voice recorder. This served as a measurement to ensure that confidentiality and anonymity were not compromised.

Thereafter, the researcher ensured the safekeeping of the collected data in the following manner. At the beginning of data collection process, the researcher organised the data into folders which were kept in a lockable safe. The data were later converted into different files according to appropriate text units based on the whole story of each respondent. The recorded data were transcribed and also placed in various files. The researcher came up with an inventory to ease the work load and this helped to identify what the researcher already had. The researcher double checked that all field notes were complete and clearly documented. The researcher also went through the scripts to see if there were any gaps in the data that needed to be filled and found that the information was recorded in full and that no gaps could be detected at that stage during the interviewing process and during the analysis of the data. After that, all data were properly labelled to ensure that retrieval of information will be easy. Handwritten field notes were typed up to get them in order and prepared for the data analysis process. A master copy of the data that were collected was placed in a lockable cabinet to ensure that information are not lost as that would compromise the validity

of the study. Another copy was kept during the process to add new information after each interview. It is worth mentioning that all information about this research study is still kept in a lockable cabinet and will be destroyed as soon as the final product is marked and finalised.

3.9 Research ethics

Rubin and Babbie (2011) state that:

Before implementing their studies, social workers and other professionals who conduct research that involves human subjects may confront questions about the ethics of their proposed investigations. They must resolve these questions not only to meet their own ethical standards, but also to meet the standards of committees that have been set up to review the ethics of proposed studies and to approve or disapprove the studies' implementation from an ethical standpoint. (p. 75)

Thus, ethical clearance was sought from the UNAM ethical clearance committee. The data that were collected were only used for academic purposes and will be destroyed after the conclusion of this study which is by the end October 2018. In addition, particular attention was paid to the following ethical principles. Voluntary participation and informed consent as this study was found to be important in a regiment system where offenders can easily misinterpret their role in providing important information. The concept was thus thoroughly explained to the respondents to rule out any confusion and no one was forced against their will to participate in the study as outlined by Neuman (2011) who says that "a fundamental ethical principle is to never coerce anyone into participating; all research participation must be voluntary" (p. 149). Thus, any participant who indicated that they do not wish to continue with the interview was allowed to withdraw without

any negative consequences to the participant. Utmost sensitivity was observed with regards to emotional aspects such as anxiety, shame, anger or guilt feelings during the interviewing process and during interactions with the participants as the study involved a great deal of reliving past experiences and this is very sensitive. Participants were closely monitored in order to ensure that emotional concerns were taken care of and that no participant was harmed in any way by this investigation. In cases where some of the respondents appeared to be very emotional and distressed during the interview process, the researcher showed empathy and acknowledged their feelings as telling their stories may have them relive the same ordeals that had made them vulnerable to commit this crime. Thus, it was imperative to provide them with some form of psycho-social support since this was as traumatising as it was when they had experienced these sad occurrences in their lives. Thereafter, the district social workers were informed about the women who may need further assistance and arrangements were made with the authorities to allow for the participants to make use of the services of the district social worker if the need might have arisen. With regards to anonymity, Neuman (2011) proffers that even if anonymity is not possible; confidentiality should be protected (p.153). Thus, this aspect was discussed with the participants and for the protection of their identities, their real names were not used during the presentations and discussions of the results and they were also not used in any other part of the research report in order to ensure that confidentiality is not compromised at all.

3.10 Summary

This chapter presented the research design and methodology that were used for the purpose of this study. A qualitative research design with a phenomenological strategy of inquiry was applied. The researcher made use of the non-probability sampling method and specifically purposive sampling as

it provided selected cases with a specific purpose in mind (Neuman, 2011, p. 268). The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with the participants and this was guided by an interview schedule for the purpose of the data collection. The population under study were all female offenders incarcerated for a violent crime and the sample consisted of twelve (12) participants. The researcher followed the data analysis steps as described by Creswell (2009) and the management of the data was well taken care of by storing the data in a lockable cupboard during the data collection and data analysis process. Research ethics were observed with utmost caution in relation to anonymity, confidentiality and ensuring that no harm was caused to any of the participants at any stage during and after the research project.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from the analysis of the data and a discussion follows on each of the areas of concern. The results that are presented here were obtained through the data analysis process and these results address the overall objective of the study which was to examine the contributing factors to violent crimes in women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia. The chapter further describes the nature of female offending behaviours incarcerated at this correctional facility and explores how the participants were affected by the crimes they committed and their subsequent incarceration. Finally the chapter looks at possible community intervention strategies that may be implemented before women commit a crime or engage in violent or aggressive behaviours. The information on the analysis and interpretation of the data presented contains realities and facts that were taken from the data that were collected during the study. These facts are presented in verbatim form to demonstrate the real life experiences of the women that were interviewed. With the data analysis process, the researcher followed the steps of Creswell (2009) by creating codes and then moving on to create categories and sub-categories that would assist in achieving the overall goal of the study. Information obtained from the transcriptions was categorized by looking at phrases, words, events and occurrences of incidents within the life of the participants that correlate with each other in order to form a complete picture of what may have propelled the women into committing these violent crimes. Under the objective and the subset of objectives, the verbal responses from the participants were also presented. The names that were used for the purpose of this study are not the real names of the women who participated in the study. This was necessitated to protect the identities of the participants and to adhere to the ethical

aspects as was stipulated in chapter 1. The researcher initially selected twelve (12) female offenders for the purpose of the study. However, as the interviews proceeded, two (2) of the twelve (12) participants withdrew and as a result another two (2) participants were selected from the intended population and were interviewed successfully. It should be noted that the two (2) participants who withdrew from the study had decided not to continue with the interview process just after the demographic information was collected. In addition, the majority of the female offenders that participated in the study were incarcerated for murder and as explained previously, this was due to the transfer of some of the female offenders to the Windhoek correctional facility at the time of the data collection process, thus only two (2) of the participants had committed assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm. Some of the data are presented in graphs and tables in order to give a complete and clear account on the identified areas of concern.

4.2 Socio-demographic information of the participants

Table 2: Socio-demographic information of the participants

Participant	Region	Age	Offence	Marital status	Educational level	Employment Status	No of dependents	Monthly income	Other income/ support
1	Khomas	34	Murder with dollus	Single	Secondary	Employed	1	N\$2000	None
2	Omaheke	57	Murder	Single	Primary	Employed	9	N\$ 550	None
3	Other	38	1) Murder 2) Violating a dead body	Single	Secondary	Unemployed	0	Zero	Father
4	Khomas	28	Murder	Single	Secondary	Employed	0	N\$2000	None
5	Oshikoto	23	1) Murder 2) Birth concealment	Single	Secondary	Unemployed	2	Zero	Family and boy-friend
6	Otjozondjupa	38	1) Culpable homicide 2)Assault with GBH	Married	Primary	Employed	2	N\$1100	None

			3) Assault						
7	Omaheke	39	Murder	Cohabitate	Secondary	Unemployed	2	Zero	Social Grant & Grand-mother
8	Omaheke	Unknown	Attempted murder	Single	None	Employed	3	N\$200	Mother & boyfriend
9	Khomas	61	Murder	Divorced	Primary	Employed	8	N\$2000	None
10	Omaheke	31	Assault with intent to do GBH	Single	None	Employed	3	N\$600	Boyfriend
11	Oshikoto	23	Murder	Single	Secondary	Employed	1	N\$3500	None
12	Ohangwena	42	Murder X3	Single	Primary	Self-employed	3	N\$2500	None

4.2.1 Region

Geographically, Namibia consist of 14 regions countrywide and for the purpose of this study, the researcher found it imperative to establish from which regions these women originated as this could give an indication of the severity of the phenomenon amongst women in a particular region. However, it should be noted that the sample was not representative of all the regions in Namibia as only 12 respondents were interviewed and they hail from the following regions: Four (4) of the participants resided in the Omaheke region at the time of the offence, three (3) in Khomas region, two (2) in the Oshikoto region, one (1) in Ohangwena region, one (1) in Otjozondjupa and one (1)

from another country in Sub-saharan Africa. Therefore, the sample represented only five (5) regions in Namibia and although it only represented five (5) regions in Namibia, the study revealed that Omaheke region had more violent female offenders incarcerated at Walvis Bay correctional facility at the time of the study compared to the other four (4) regions and only one (1) female offender hailed from a region outside of Namibia. Thus, it can be concluded that from the findings of the current study, Omaheke region presented a significant problem regarding females who engage in violent and aggressive behaviours. However, this could still be further explored with future studies to be conducted with female offenders in that specific region as well as across Namibia with the same population.

4.2.2 Age

With this study, age groups were established prior to the investigation and it was found that three (3) women were between the ages of 18 – 25, one (1) woman was between the ages of 26 – 30 years, two (2) women were between the ages of 31 and 35, two (2) were between the ages of 36 and 40, two (2) were between 41 and 45, one (1) was 60 years old and one (1) was above sixty (60) years. It was thus concluded that the age group most prone to crime were between 18 and 25 years and the majority of female offenders incarcerated for violent crimes were between the age groups of 18 to 45 years as this age group presented the biggest number of female offenders in this age category. The age of the participants was found to be another determining factor with regards to proneness to crime and this finding also gave important information about the age groups that were most prone to violent and aggressive behaviours. This was important as it is believed generally that age also serves as a significant risk factor that can provide information of the nature of women who display criminal or anti-social behaviours

4.2.3 Offences

The study revealed that nine of the participants had committed murder. Out of the nine (9), one of the participants was also found guilty of violating a dead body and another participant for birth concealment. One of the nine (9) participants was found guilty on three (3) charges of murder and another one was found guilty of murder with dollus. Moreover, one (1) participant had committed capable homicide and was charged with a second and third count of assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm and assault, another participant was found guilty of attempted murder on her child and one other participant was found guilty of assault with intent to cause grievous bodily harm. As was explained by prior literature, most of the victims were known to the offenders and this was a boyfriend, husband, child or an acquaintance and this finding concurs with previous literature. The context in which these offences were committed was in the immediate environments of the perpetrators and it was on people they knew and they were close to. Most of the participants related that it was out of self-defence while only one participant acknowledged that she her action was deliberate and she did not have any good reason to have killed the victim.

4.2.4 Marital status

The study revealed that nine of the participants were single, one (1) was married, one (1) was divorced and two (1) cohabitated at the time of the offence. Thus, the majority of the offenders were not married but they were in relationships. Marriage and being in a relationship provides meaningful attributions to an individual as this may be regarded as a form of social support. Schwartz (2008) argues that women rely on male-based coping devices and social support systems which may be eroded in areas with low male capital, compounding interpersonal conflict, strain, and violent responses by females to provocation. Five (5) of the participants were found guilty of murder against a partner or spouse. Marital status presents another factor regarding the nature of

women who participate in anti-social behaviours as well as who engage in violence, not only against a husband but also against a partner with whom the participant associated with or had a close relationship with at the time of the offence. Thus, for the purpose of this study it was significant to explore if these women were involved in any type of relationship at the time of the offence and all of the women confirmed that they were in relationships. However, from a life-course perspective, King, Massoglia and Macmillan (2007), claim that marriage suppresses offending behaviours by establishing informal social control; it undermines deviant ties and limits criminal opportunities through integration into normative environments. However, in this case, only one woman was married while others were just in casual relationships, which may also explain why they engaged in violent crimes as per their profiles.

4.2.5 Education level

The study revealed that six of the participants completed their secondary education, with two (2) having completed grade 9, two (2) having completed grade 10, and two (2) having completed grade 12. However, one of these participants only completed grade 12 after she had committed the offence and another one was in her second year at tertiary level. Four of the participants indicated that they had completed various stages of their primary education of which one (1) had completed the lower primary phase, which is grade 1. Three of the participants had completed the upper primary phase, which is grade 5 to grade 7. Education can increase patience and it may also increase risk aversion, that in turn increases the weight given by individuals to a possible punishment and consequently reduces the likelihood of committing crimes (Machin, Marie & Vujić, 2011) and at the same time it prevents impulsive reactions to possible negative stimulants.

4.2.6 Employment status and monthly income

Nine (9) of the participants indicated that they were employed at the time of the offence, while three (3) of the participants indicated that they were not employed and that they had never worked before. Pollock, Mullings and Crouch (2006) indicate that violent women are mostly unemployed, which contradicts the findings from the present study. However, most of these women were employed as domestic workers and they earned very low salaries per month. The study also revealed that one (1) of the participants earned three thousand five hundred Namibian dollars (N\$3500.00), one (1) earned two thousand five hundred Namibian dollars (N\$2500.00), three (3) of the participants indicated that they earned two thousand Namibian dollars (N\$2000.00) per month and one participant indicated that she earned one thousand one hundred Namibian dollars (N\$1100). Three (3) of the participants indicated that they earned below a thousand Namibian dollars per month but actually varying between six hundred Namibian dollars and two hundred Namibian dollars. Dastile (2014) notes that financial difficulties together with stresses and strains are some of the reasons why women commit crime as they had childcare responsibilities and had to provide for their children.

4.2.7 Dependents

The study revealed that one participant had nine (9) children, and another one had eight (8) children during their life time. Three participants had three (3) children respectively; whilst three had two (2) children respectively, whereas two participants had one (1) child each, and two (2) of the participants had never had children. However, one (1) of the participants reported that she was supporting her siblings and assisting her mother with child care responsibilities. According to Henriques and Manatu-Rupert (2001) stress about severe economic pressures that can undermine the

ability of mothers to adequately nurture their children and how the impact of persistent economic strains often produces severe depression among mothers.

4.2.8 Other forms of income and financial support

Seven (7) of the participants reported that they did not have any other form of income and they were not supported at all by the fathers of their children or any other family member, while four (4) reported that they were financially supported by the fathers of their children and other family members. Only one (1) participant indicated that her child was a beneficiary of the child maintenance support grant offered by the Ministry of Gender and Child Welfare. However, all the participants maintained that the money they had received was not enough to provide the basic needs of their children as well as to maintain themselves.

Overall, findings of previous research have indicated that women who are violent are more likely to be younger, unemployed and having extensive criminal histories. With the latter, it should be noted that none of the participants had been previously convicted of any offence. However, the majority of the participants were between the ages of eighteen (18) to forty years (40) which counted for eight (8) out of the twelve (12) participants. Thus, more than half of the population under study was still relatively young and in their most productive years of their lives.

4.3 Key themes and sub themes emerging from the study

The table below presents a summary of the key themes and sub themes that emerged from the data during childhood experiences. This part of the interview process formed the core of the investigation which was to examine the contributing factors to violent crimes perpetrated by women and it presents the life experiences of the participants during childhood and adulthood, which may

reveal possible factors that contributed to their criminal behaviours, thus addressing the main objective of the study. Information presented here was obtained from the transcripts based on the coding process, and the categories and sub-categories that were created during the data analysis process. All the themes and the sub-themes were developed based on the transcripts and the narrations of all the participants that took part in this study and they are presented in the tables and a discussion follows thereafter.

Table 3: Themes and sub themes

THEMES	SUB THEMES
Theme 1: Violence and abuse	Sub theme 1.1: Physical abuse
	Sub theme 1.2: Emotional abuse and intimidation
	Sub theme 1.3: Economic abuse and neglect
	Sub theme 1.4: Sexual abuse
	Sub theme 1.5: Substance abuse
Theme 2: The vulnerabilities to female offending behaviours	Sub theme 2.1: Lack of education
	Sub theme 2.2: Low socio economic status
	Sub theme 2.3: Lack of problem solving skills
	Sub theme 2.4: Trauma
Theme 3: The effects of violent crimes on the women	Sub theme 3.1: Social effects
	Sub theme 3.2: Emotional effects

	Sub theme 3.3: Physical effects
Theme 4: Psycho-social support and recommendations regarding intervention strategies	Sub theme 4.1: Before incarceration Sub theme 4.2: During incarceration Sub theme 4.3: After incarceration

4.3.1 Theme 1: Violence and abuse

The results obtained from the study indicate that ten (10) of the twelve participants had experienced one or the other form of violence during childhood and had witnessed violence between parents, caregivers, grandparents, and siblings. Some of the participants also reported that they had been physically assaulted as children. During adulthood, seven (7) of the participants reported that they were physically abused by their partners on numerous occasions. Pollock et al. (2006) argue that the increase in women's arrests for violent crimes may be tied to domestic violence policies.

4.3.1.1 Sub theme 1.1: Physical abuse

The participants reported that they had witnessed physical fights and arguments between their parents, grandparents, step parents and siblings during childhood. Not only did they witness these violent and aggressive behaviours but they were also subjected to abuse and they reported that they had been physically assaulted when they were children. As indicated above, out of the twelve (12) participants that participated in the study, seven (7) reported that they had been physically assaulted by their partners as adults and had endured numerous beatings during their life time.

Participant 6 related this as follows:

“My parents fought a lot with each other when they were drunk and they would insult each other a lot. Ms I never fought with my boyfriend, but the victim assaulted me badly and that’s why I had to defend myself...yes, I stabbed him with a knife and then he died”.

Participant 2 narrated this as follows:

“Ms my parents left me at my aunt’s house when I became of school age, where people would drink and fight with each other when they were drunk...this was very bad. My boyfriend used to assault me until the day I stabbed him with a knife...yes I did not mean to kill him but I was tired of his insults and assaults and just wanted to make him stop”.

Participant 4 narrated this as follows:

“You know what Mam, I was in a relationship... [pausing] ...hmmm...I am a lesbian so I was in a relationship with another women. I loved her very much but what happened was [pausing...crying], she was very abusive. We used to fight a lot and but let me say, I did not fight with her...she was very jealous...to be honest she did not want me to talk or communicate with other people, so whenever she noticed that I interacted with other people she would shout at me and I did not like that at all. We also drank together at shebeens or clubs and from there most of the fighting started. Sometimes she would insult us at the worse and when I respond to that she would grab anything that she could get hold of and then she would beat me or stab me...my relationship was very bad but I loved her and also felt sorry for her”.

Upon further probing why she felt sorry for her partner Participant 4 continued as follows:

“Ms, my partner was HIV positive and her family also rejected her... at times she would sleep outside of their house. We moved in together at my mother’s house but my mother

did not know that we were in a relationship in the beginning since they never liked the idea of me being gay...so we kept it a secret...but that also did not stop her from abusing me...yes, my mother later also knew about it and warned me to leave the relationship but I did not until this unfortunate situation. Today, I regret that I did not leave her because now I am here because I was implicated in her death...which I still say I did not stab her...[pausing] ...I think she stabbed herself and just wanted me to suffer forever in my life because of guilt feelings”.

Participant 11 said the following:

“Ms my father used to abuse my mother. He used to beat my mother even in the presence of us children and he would beat us all including my siblings...I don’t know what was wrong with that man...really I don’t know...but this was how we were treated by my father...not by my mother... no...only by my father; he would beat us all up if we said something or told the other people what he was doing”.

These were some of the narrations of the participants who had witnessed and experienced violence as children and as adults. It shows that they did not just witness violence alone but they were also victims as they had been subjected to physical assaults perpetrated on them by other people they lived with or had a relationship with.

Childhood life experiences of violence and abuse have been cited as some of the factors that may contribute to violent behaviours later in life. As indicated by Bottos (2007), women who are violent have often witnessed violence in their homes while growing up and it was most often not only between their parents but also between and against siblings. Bottos (2007) further alludes that not

only have they witnessed violence in their homes but they are often the victims of violence themselves and at considerably higher rates than non-violent women offenders and violent male offenders.

With reference to the General Strain Theory (1992) and its relation to the objectives of the study, the theory argues that strains or stressors increase the likelihood of negative emotions like anger and frustrations (Agnew, 1992) and these emotions create pressures for corrective actions of which crime is one possible response, thus the resultant physical abuse.

4.3.1.2 Sub theme 1.2: Emotional abuse and intimidation

Nine (9) of the participants indicated that they were exposed to emotional abuse during their childhood years. They mentioned verbal insults, intimidation, threats, yelling and shouting as some of the forms of emotional abuse that they were subjected to. They narrated that this was very painful and it made them feel unhappy and angry as one participant 2 narrated that:

“My mother’s husband did not like me at all...he would insult me and many times said that I am not his child. He would say “You are not my child...go look for your father”. This made me feel bad and I also did not feel safe with him...yes, I did not feel safe because he used to beat my mother and he killed my mother in the end. Ms this made me very sad and angry...how could he treat me like that while he was treating his own children better than me...I really did not like it. Then when I grew up, the same thing happened with my relationships; I was insulted and called names by my boyfriends. The victim angered me when he threw the food away and again demanded for food while he did not even work or contributed anything to the household”.

Participant 7 related that her parents and grandparents would chase her out of the house when they were drunk. She had the following to say:

“When my parents and grandparents were ever drunk, and they would chase us away from home if we talked about their behaviours...so as a child you were not allowed to say anything...you just have to be quiet as the old people believed that they were always right. All of this made very unhappy and angry”.

Participant 5 narrated her ordeals as follows:

“My sister would quarrel and insult us when she was drunk and I did not feel safe with her...she was very disrespectful towards my mother and even though my mother was also drinking, that did not give her the right to treat my mother like that. She would make a lot of noise when she was drunk and that was really disturbing me in my heart....[sighing deeply] at times she would come when I was studying and I could really not focus on my school work when such things was happening. At times I was thinking if my father was there, such things would not have happened but he passed away when I was still very young”.

4.3.1.3 Sub theme 1.3: Economic abuse and neglect

Nine (9) of the participants related that they had experienced financial abuse and parental neglect when they were children. They narrated that their parents and caregivers did not provide for their basic needs and they shifted their responsibilities as primary caretakers to their grandparents who also experienced a lot of financial difficulties. Based on these factors, the participants narrated as follows:

Participant 2:

“My parents were not married but my mother was married to another man. They used to work at farms as farmworkers but they never gave me money to buy things for myself...yes Mam...they did not do that. Remember I told you that us children...many of us whose parents were working as farmworkers lived at one house and our parents used to leave us without food for long periods and then the neighbour had to take care of us. The neighbour would give us porridge from their leftovers and then sometimes we would make porridge from the remains of the tombo (traditional beer) which was left by the people at the house when they returned to work...[sighing] this was how we have lived...it was not easy”.

Participant 5:

“I used to be very angry with my mother because sometimes we had nothing in the house to eat but then she had money to go and drink...that was not right. Sometimes my school fees was not even paid and the teachers would point us out and then I would feel bad”.

Participant 11:

“My life was very hard because I grew up in poverty...yes...my mother was not working and my father worked but he never came home and never sent money for us to buy food...we were just lucky because we stayed in the village and we produced our food ourselves...that was what saved us from hunger but with other things like clothes and school money ae eh...we really suffered a lot”.

Participant 6:

“Life was very hard because my grandparents worked as farmworkers and never had a stable employment. We moved around with them as they were looking for greener pastures

and as a result I did not even go to school. I only attended school up to grade 1 and thereafter my grandparents told me that there was no money for me to continue with my school. What can you do, you just have to accept and stay with them because you are just a child”.

The General Strain Theory maintains that low economic status increases the likelihood of criminal coping and further alludes that poorer individuals are less likely to possess the skills (problem solving skills) and resources that facilitate legal coping (Agnew, 1995).

4.3.1.4: Sub theme: 1.4: Sexual abuse

Only one (1) of the participants related that she was once almost raped by a man where she lived and later on she was raped and sexually abused by her aunt’s husband when she was still a child (16 years old). Another participant narrated that she had sexual intercourse with different men from a very young age but related that she willingly participated in the act and does not regard that as rape. However, it may have been that the participant was not aware of her rights and might have been coerced into sexual acts since she is one of the participants who did not attend school at all.

Participant 2 narrated her abuse as follows:

“You see Mam it happened like this, while I was waiting for my grandparents to come pick me up at the house to go to the farm, a man grabbed me and wanted to rape me then the older people saw it and stopped him. They then decided that I should not stay there any longer and they sent me to live with another aunt of mine at a nearby farm where my aunt and her husband was working....there another sad thing happened to me...my aunt’s husband raped me. I called for help but there was no one...it was only me, him and another man and his wife who was also working there at the farm. That time he sent his wife (my

aunt) to town when this thing happened. I was very sad...you know what happened thereafter; he treated me like his wife. When my aunt returned from town I told her about it but she was just saying “what can I do...if I talk to him he will just beat us all so we all did not say anything. It then went on like this, he would have sex with me every night when his wife was not there...that was how he treated me and then I had to cook for him and wash his clothes...everything I must do for him like a wife. It made me so sad at times I could not even eat my food... [sighing deeply] if only someone could have helped me but no one did”.

Participant 8 narrated her abuse as follows:

“I was a very quiet girl and also very slow...I was working at a farm and was abducted by ...when I was still a child. At that farm I slept with various men when I was still young [pausing] but I cannot really say they have raped me...I did it because I wanted to have sex”.

From the above narrations and though only two (2) of the participants mentioned about sexual intercourse and abuse during their childhood years, it is evident that they were subjected to sexual abuse during their childhood years. With the narration of the latter participant, although she said that “I really cannot say they have raped me...I did it because I wanted to have sex”, it is clear that there was some form of sexual exploitation as by law, no under age child can give consent to sexual intercourse unless being coerced into it. Murdoch et al. (2010) explain that the consequences of sexual abuse may have long term negative effects like guilt feelings, fear, confusion, and anger which dominates mood orders into adolescence and or adulthood, of which anger is explained as a precursor of violent behaviours (Agnew, 1995).

4.3.1.5 Sub theme 1.5: Substance abuse

Ten (11) of the participants indicated that they were exposed to alcohol use on a regular basis during childhood while only one (1) participant reported that she had never encounter any substance use behaviours. During adulthood, the majority of the participants reported that they had used alcohol on a regular basis and some were under the influence of alcohol at the time of the offence. Only one participant reported that she had been using alcohol and marijuana on a regular basis prior to the offence and she was also under the influence of both substances when the crime was committed.

Participant 2 narrated this as follows:

“Ms my uncle used to sell “tombo” (traditional beer) at his house where people would come and drink...a lot of people then they would fight with each other when they are drunk”. When I got pregnant from the men who raped me, I started to drink [pausing], yes Mam I drank a lot during that time and even after the birth of that child...you know it was very painful for me to have that child so I was just drinking to forget about the whole story... I was about sixteen (16) years old and when I grew up I just continued to drink...even at the day of the offence, I was drunk and my boyfriend was also drunk”.

Participant 7 narrated this as follows:

“I started to drink alcohol when I was about eighteen (18) years old. I did it because all my siblings and cousins were drinking and they would also fight with each other... I was the only one who did not drink but then it was “nice” when you were drunk because you forgot about the unhappiness at home and I also used alcohol as an adult. I was also drunk the day I stabbed the victim”.

Participant 9 said the following:

“I was raised by my grandparents and they did not drink or smoke. I was raised very well and I also did not use alcohol as a child...I was very happy as a child because I was also the only grandchild at the time”.

Participant 11 narrated as follow:

“Mam I don’t know what to say but I was drinking a lot and I was also doing drugs like marijuana with my friends. The only abuse that I have experienced was with my parents but when I moved out from them and lived with my uncle, I started to do all this nonsense...I am even the first person in my family who is in prison and who did drugs...I am very ashamed of my behaviour. I started to meet wrong friends and that night I was smoking dagga (marijuana) and I was drinking with my friends...so when the guy approached me...I just broke a glass and stabbed him for no reason...this was very traumatic for me”.

4.3.2 Theme 2: The vulnerabilities, context and motivation of female offending behaviours

4.3.2.1 Sub theme 2.1: Lack of education

The majority of the participants had none to very low educational levels prior to the offence. These levels ranged between grade one (1) to grade seven (7). Only three (3) participants had reached the junior secondary phase which is grade 9 to 10 and two (2) participants had completed grade 12. However, it should be noted that one of the two (2) participants who had completed grade 12 only completed it after the offence was committed. All of this further contributed to low earning jobs, unemployment and their subsequent low socio-economic status which is emphasized by Botos (2007) as a significant risk factor to violent female offending behaviours. In addition, Agnew

(1992) claims that the loss of one's job could be the removal of a positive stimulus as one loses something valuable such as the job as well as the income. Agnew (1992) further argues that the negative feelings induced by these strains can lead an individual to seek criminal behaviours as a means to cope with their negative emotions (Agnew, 1992).

4.3.2.2 Sub theme 2.2: Low-socio economic status

Low socio-economic status has been described as a circumstance that surrounds women's violence (Bottos, 2007). Although some of the participants reported that they were employed, the majority of the participants worked as domestic workers, earned very low salaries and lived in relatively poor circumstances as some described their income as too little to take proper care of themselves as well as their children. In addition, the study also revealed that some had no support from their families and they as well had their children to care for which they narrated as something very difficult.

4.3.2.3 Sub theme 2.3: Lack of problem solving skills

According to Baris (2015), women commit violent crimes against their abusers due to limited choices around them and use violence as a last resort to free themselves from male violence. Baris (2015) further claims that women commit crime especially murder or injury in order to protect themselves against male violence. On this aspect, most women reported that they had been subjected to violence and abuse from their parents and partners for prolonged periods and they did not know where to go or whom to ask for help. In addition, they feared being ridiculed by society and thus they remained in the abusive relationships. Not only is this a sign of powerlessness but this also indicates that these women lacked effective problem solving skills to deal with their problems in a pro-social manner. Murdoch et al. (2010) cited family environments of violent women as

multi-problematic, disorganized and unpredictable and that such environments contribute to poor communication and problem-solving skills.

4.3.2.4 Sub theme 2.4: Trauma

The majority of the women reported that they experienced a great deal of trauma during their life time. Some of the trauma that were described by the participants were being tested HIV-positive, having lost a child or children to death and also being assaulted and abused by their partners or significant others during childhood and adulthood. On these aspects, the participants had the following to say:

Participant 9 narrated as follows:

“Mama I had eight (8) children but five (5) passed away...When the first one died...I was shocked...you see we did not have food in the house so I gave the child magou and that made the child very sick...I feel very sad about it and I had to go through this alone....[crying]...you see, I did not have contact with the father anymore and my family also did not support me...it was really very sad for me...you see it was like this... if I just think that I can have peace in my heart now then the following child died...so, this was really very bad for me”.

Participant 1 related her trauma as follows:

“Mam, I lost my first child when I was still young and it was a shock to me...Mam, this was my first experience of death and it was the baby that I was with every day and all of a sudden the child was no more there...this was when I also understood that when a person dies, that person does not ever come back again [pausing...crying]...I am still thinking about that child of mine...it was really painful. Mam, what was even more painful is the

day when I was tested HIV-positive...I can still not tell how I felt but it was a shock to me...I was pregnant and then I was tested so thereafter it was even worse because I did not know how to tell my mother...but yes...I have accepted it now...it is just that I am losing weight and my body is suffering [pausing...crying]...I really don't know and I am also worried that my mother might not be able to take care of my son because she is already old”.

The following participants related about the abuse in their relationship and the trauma they suffered as a result of the abuse:

Participant 4 said the following:

“You know what Mam I was in a relationship... [pausing] ...hmmm...I am a lesbian so I was in a relationship with another women. I loved her very much but what happened was [pausing...crying], she was very abusive. We used to fight a lot but let me say, I did not fight with her...she was very jealous...to be honest she did not want me to talk or communicate with other people so whenever she noticed that I interacted with other people she would shout at me and I did not like that at all. We also drank together at shebeens or clubs and from there most of the fighting started. Sometimes she would insult me at the worse and when I respond to that she would grab anything that she could get hold of and then she would beat me or stab me...my relationship was very bad but I loved her and also felt sorry for her.

Upon further probing why she felt sorry for her partner, Participant 4 continued to relate as follows:

“Ms, my partner was HIV positive and her family also rejected her...at times she would

sleep outside of their house. We moved in together at my mother's house but my mother did not know that we were in a relationship in the beginning since they never liked the idea of me being gay...so we kept it a secret...but that also did not stop her from abusing me...yes, my mother later also knew about it and warned me to leave the relationship but I did not until this unfortunate situation. Today, I regret that I did not leave her because now I am here because I was implicated in her death...which I still say I did not stab her...[pausing] ...I think she stabbed herself and just wanted me to suffer forever in my life because of guilt feelings”.

Participant 12 said the following:

“Ms the abuse in my relationship was terrible...I could not take it...sometimes I was really just thinking...why is this man doing this to me...why...what did I do wrong and yes I sometimes blamed myself but I also knew that I did nothing wrong...I just wanted peace...that's all”.

Participant 6 said the following:

“Ms I experienced a lot of domestic violence with my parents and also with my relationships. You know Ms, there was a saying in my culture that man should take care of women and I also wanted a man to take care of me but I was physically abused by the men I had relationships with and although I saw the danger and the abuse going on I did not leave the relationship because I depended on these men. But what hurt me the most is the relationship with the victim. He was very abusive...he was very jealous and always argued and fought with me. Yes Ms my children was also very scared of him and they later on left my house because he was also abusive towards them and he also did not want them to eat the

food that he bought. But Ms this case was not supposed to turn out like this, I reported this person several times to the social worker, the police and his family...but no one took me seriously. He injured me a lot with things that he could find near him even with sticks...so with this case I just defended myself and I really did not want to kill him but just to scare him off so that he could stop troubling me but then we fought and I stabbed him in his chest and he died... [emotional...crying]’.

Participant 2 said the following:

“The relationships with the fathers of my children were not good. They all misused and abused me and I have lost a lot of my children to death. Mama I had nine (9) children from four (4) different men and this was really very sad for me. Not only the abuse from the men but also the death of my children made me very very sad especially when my daughter burned to death in her shack...you see Mama I went through all of these things on my own...no one supported me not even the fathers of these children. I was having a lot of problems and my boyfriend at the time did not work but gave me a lot of stress. So, what happened was, I was receiving my grandson’s maintenance money from the government and this man would always want to just eat and drink whenever I bought things he just used everything up. So, with this case, he was very rude that they and I went to my brother’s memorial service; when I came back he was still drunk and I also went and drank at the same shebeen where he was. So he started to insult me and I just kept quiet and then later he came to me and we started to wrestle with each other, then a knife fell out of his pocket which he wanted to stab me with and I quickly picked it up and stabbed him with it. I was always scared that he would kill me and when I saw the knife that was what first

came to my mind...I had to injure him so he will not get a chance to hurt me or kill me...this was what happened”.

Participant 5 narrated her ordeal as follows:

“Mam when my boyfriend, the father of the child I dumped, left me and denied paternity, I felt very bad and it made me feel worthless. I felt like killing myself because I was still at school and did not know how to tell my mother and sister that I am pregnant and the father of the child denied the pregnancy...so this was what made me very sad. I did not know who to go to and I was also ashamed because I was still at school and very young...I just kept quiet and never told anyone...no one knew...[pausing] I think only the neighbour because she was the one who led the police to me. All I can say is that I was very angry at the father of the child and afraid and did not know how my mother and sister would respond, that’s why I decided not to tell anyone but for the killing of the baby...I really can’t recall what happened...all I can remember is when the pain started I moved out of the house and a little bit away from the house then I delivered it there and left it until it was discovered by the children in the neighbourhood in the afternoon”.

On the same note, Participant 10 narrated her experiences as follows:

“Mam the relationship with my boyfriend made me very unhappy. He always quarrelled with me and was very jealous. He would say like this if why you are with your friends you will just cheat on me...I know that...Mam this man was even my first and only boyfriend. I left my job just to have peace with him. So what happened was one night we went to drink at the shebeen and then he said in front of the people that he is not the father of my last born child...but Mam he is the father so I did not say anything but I was very angry and

upset and I just stood up and walked home. When I arrived at home I took the child from my back and started to stab him all over his body and I also wanted to kill myself but my mother came into the room and stopped me...Mam I was very angry and unhappy...how could he do that to me?"

Participant 3 her story as follows:

"I felt abused and neglected as a child and it still continued into adulthood as I was also abused as a young adult by my aunt. She would always insult me and threatened me that she would bewitch me so that I can go mad or die. The two of us was always in rivalry [pausing] I think we were competing for my father's attention and who would get more from him and so on. She would shout at me and call me names and so I was thinking I should get rid of her before she could do anything to me. At times I tried to talk to my father but he would just say you should respect your aunt and then I would also try and suppress the feelings. These circumstances later drove me into sexual relationships with men...you know what...in four (4) years' time I had sexual intercourse with 40 men and I was really looking for a caring and loving person but I did not find it because they would just have sex with me and walk away...have sex with me and walk away. This happened until just before I came to prison...I was very promiscuous, indeed Godless but these were my own secrets as it made me feel very bad about myself...worthless [sighing]. But to get back to the offence, we had an argument and she started to threaten me again, how she would bewitch me and that night the more I tried not to think about it the stronger the thought became to get rid of her...so the following morning it was just the two (2) of us at the house and after I woke up I went straight to her room and started to hit her on her head. She then begged me to leave her but I did not stop, I dragged her to the bathroom

to drown her but she did not go down and I just continued to hit her on her head until I saw a hole in her head and then she fell on the floor...I made her to stand up and put a rope around her head and I strangled her to death. Then I took to body, set it alight in a drum and after it had burned I put it in a suitcase and dumped it in the riverbed. This was what happened in my life”.

Participant 12 narrated her experiences as follows:

“I killed all my three (3) children at once in a well...I drowned them all but I was very disappointed by the father of my children. Before the incident...I went to hospital by foot to take my child who was sick and my boyfriend although he was there did not want to assist or support me...he was lying that he was not in town and when I arrived at his house, the neighbour told me that he just drove off to the location and when I tried to call him he did not answer his phone so I had to sleep outside the hospital that night and after I and my child was treated I had to walked back to my village because I was not even having money for transport while he was having a car. So upon arrival at home, I took the clothes and my children and went to the well to go wash the clothes and the next thing I found them all in the water, dead...Mam I still don't know what happened...I then came back and told my mother and she also just disappeared without saying anything, I don't know maybe she wanted to go remove them from the water and I think she was shocked and thereafter I just woke up when I was in custody...that is all I can remember”.

From all of the above narrations, it is clear that these women had experienced numerous difficulties in their lives and had been in abusive relationships for some time before the occurrences of the

crimes. The findings reveal that although the abuse persisted, some of them did not leave the relationships but remained in the relationship despite of all the challenges that they faced until the day when they reacted by killing their partners or by assaulting their victims.

Participant 10 narrated her story as follows:

“Ms, I was very angry and felt embarrassed when my boyfriend denied paternity of my last born child...so I then felt it’s better for me and the child to die...I then stabbed my child with a knife but he did not die”.

On the same note Participant 5 narrated her story as follows:

“My boyfriend denied my pregnancy and left me...so I was afraid to tell my family and because I did not know how they would respond ...and that’s why I hid the pregnancy and in the end dumped the baby who was later found dead where I had left it...I still feel very bad about it and sometimes wish I could change it but it’s done...I can do nothing about it now”.

Trauma has been described as a sudden unexpected event which disrupts homeostasis (Mbedzi, Qalinge, Schultz, Sekudu, & Sesoko, 2015). Mbenzi et al. (2015) assert that this could be a critical incident trauma which is shocking, sudden and accompanied by intense fear. It is an unusual event and it is usually very threatening and people who experience trauma need protection and safety. However, as narrated by the participants, they had not received any form of comfort, support or protection from other significant others or by the community members and thus defended themselves by retaliating against the victim.

4.3.3 Theme 3: The effects of the violent behaviours on the women and their subsequent imprisonment

The study revealed that the participants were severely affected by their anti-social behaviours, the crimes they had committed and their subsequent incarceration. As alluded by Cauffman (2008), the negative impact of female offending extends well beyond the immediate consequences of the behaviour itself and the cost of the juvenile justice system intervention (Cauffman, 2008). Thus, to address this sub-objective of the study, below see a description of the effects, and this is followed by a discussion on the social, emotional and physical effects.

4.3.3.1 Sub theme 3.1 Social effects

The study revealed that all the participants were socially affected by the crimes they had committed. Some of the participants reported that they feel ashamed of the crimes they committed, especially those who are incarcerated for murder. Six (6) of the participants reported that just after the crime they did not want to be around people and they would isolate themselves from society. They feared rejection and hatred from the community and especially fear of the family of the victims. Some reported that they do not trust the people in the community as some felt that they do not deserve to be in the correctional facility. The majority of the offenders feel excluded from mainstream society and excluded from social and family life, which further contributes to a breakdown in family relationships and society. One (1) of the participants related that she feels being taken hostage by her own actions because she took someone's life. Schnittker (2014) alludes that offenders must cope with their diminished status in society and the obvious lack of freedom that comes with their new environment. Schnittker (2014) further emphasises that they also have to

adjust to the stigma of their history and decide on the best strategy for managing the consequences of their actions and subsequent imprisonment.

Participant 3 narrated as follows

“This offence has disturbed my whole social life...even though I had few friends when I was outside, it is like it has created a barrier between me and the society...Ms...human beings are human beings...sometimes I think even if people will be told that this person has changed, they might not believe it and for this reason I don't think I will ever have a genuine relationship or relate genuinely to people in the society”.

4.3.3.2 Sub theme 3.2 Emotional effects

The study revealed that the majority of the participants have been affected emotionally. They reported feelings of disappointment, feeling worthless, worried and blaming themselves for committing the crimes. Additionally, they also reported that they feel guilty and always think about the victim and how their families must feel knowing that your family member was killed by a woman. Another participant related that she feels suspicious all the time and fears that she might be killed one day because the family members might hate her for killing their child, father, uncle or brother. Some reported that they feel hurt and at the same time angry at themselves and the victim, especially those who had been subjected to prolonged domestic violence. Four (4) of the participants related that their families rejected them just after they had committed the crime and this was very painful to them. Two (2) of the offenders indicated that they would like to ask for forgiveness from the family of the victims once they are released from the correctional facility.

The emotional impact of violent behaviours and crime is inevitable which is confirmed by Kingston, Huizinga and Elliott (2009) who found that women experienced regret, loss of self-respect

and they often blame themselves and assume responsibility for not leaving the abusive relationships but to end it with their own actions. Handbook on Women and Imprisonment (UNODC, 2014) states that:

Imprisonment generates new mental health problems or exacerbates existing ones and that in most communities women are carers, sometimes the sole carers, of their families and the sudden change of their role from caregiver to “criminal” and isolation from loved ones usually have an intensely adverse effect on their mental well-being. (p. 10)

4.3.3.3 Sub theme 3.3 Physical effects

The majority of the participants reported that they have scars which they will carry for the rest of their lives. Some reported that they have developed illnesses such as high blood pressure, headaches and stress due to the crimes they have committed and their imprisonment. They cited being removed from their families and mainstream society as a major stressor because the majority have children and feel worried about the wellbeing of their children. Abused women are at risk for a myriad of negative physical and mental consequences which can result in bruising cuts, broken bones and internal injuries (Lacey et al., 2013).

Participant 9 narrated her story as follows:

“Mam, I still get headaches from the beatings and have a deep scar in my head from the fights with my boyfriend...like I told you, he would beat me with anything that he can get, sticks or irons that lay around”.

Participant 4 said the following:

“Ms, my partner was very abusive, look here....all these marks that you see on my body (showing her arms and legs) are just some of the marks of the injuries that I have sustained during those fights...sometimes I would lie to people that I got injured in a soccer match or maybe with the practicing sessions”.

Participant 7 shared the following:

“I am separated from my family and I could not even stay with my last born child...I had to send my child to my family...I will never have a good relationship with him”.

“Caroline said that I miss my family...and I am a Namibian soccer player...I play good soccer but because of this I lost that freedom...I cannot participate in sport anymore”.

Some of the participants indicated that their families live far and they cannot visit them, thus they miss that part of family life. The findings correlate with literature such as Schnittker (2014), who states that offenders must cope with their diminished status and the obvious lack of freedom that comes with their new environment which is incarceration. Schnittker (2014) further notes that not only do they have to cope with that but after release they must adjust to the stigma of their history, and decide what would be the best strategy to manage the consequences. This is what most women fear as they stated that they are scared and worried about what the people in the community or people would think about them. In addition, survivors of violence suffer chronic pain disorders, migraines and headaches.

4.3.4 Theme 4: Psycho-social support and recommendations for intervention strategies

Women face particular needs in the area of motherhood, often being the primary carers for children and the needs for women in the criminal justice system are different from, greater than, and more complex than those of men (Liddell & Martinovic, 2013). Thus, support and intervention strategies

for women should be tailored according to those needs in order to address concerns based on a gendered specific approach. With this, these support systems and intervention strategies were assessed to establish their availability and the effectiveness at different levels in the lives of these women.

4.3.4.1 Sub theme 4.1: Before incarceration

The study revealed that nine (9) of the participants were not aware of services available to women in the community that could assist them with their challenges. Two (2) narrated that they were aware of such services of which one (1) narrated that she was a member of a support group in her neighbourhood but it did not help much as many of the community members did not continue to attend the meetings and as a result it was discontinued. Another participant related that she knew about services such as the Women and Child Protection Unit, The Namibian Police and social workers but narrated that despite requesting for services from them, she was not supported and assisted sufficiently as the abuse from her partner did not stop and as a result she killed him in the end. Also, the same participant narrated that she only heard about a protection order in court and was never informed about such precautionary measures that may have prevented the crime from happening. Furthermore, the study also revealed that the majority of the women had no informal support systems prior to the offence, with the exception of four (4) participants who related that their families supported them financially. However, this support was limited to receiving food and shelter but no emotional support was provided nor did any person interfere when obnoxious treatments were experienced by the participants.

With the focus on this subset of the overall objective, which was to recommend possible community intervention strategies for women before they enter the criminal justice system, it was important to explore which types of services are available in the community for women who have encountered various difficulties in their lives. It was equally important to determine the extent to which these services are accessible to young girls and women at the societal level. As argued by Jules-Macquet (2015), social functioning deficits that are not addressed are likely to manifest themselves in the mother-child relationship which may have an inter-generational impact as evidence shows that the negative effects of parental incarceration on children may be that of educational problems, behavioural difficulties and an increased likelihood of being in conflict with the law. Thus, to prevent the negative impact of parental criminality and incarceration on their children and families, it is important to intervene and provide services earlier on before they commit the crime and ultimately being removed from their common homes in society. Centred on this aspect, the participants related as follows:

Participant 11 narrated as follows:

“Ms, to be honest I am not aware of services available to women who face difficulties with drug or alcohol or even who are unemployed...may be those services are just for the people who can afford it...who can attend workshops and things in the community...the government should do something about this situation...many women are suffering...you even get those ones who sell drugs just to make a living”.

On the same issue, Participant 11 said the following:

“Mama...I think if I had my own house, this thing might not have happened...you see we must not co-habit and we must not drink together with our partners...it is wrong. We

should learn how to treat each other with respect...may be we must get help...[thinking]...I think if we can be given a land to make a garden that will help us a lot and also....us women we should learn to control our emotions...we cannot control our emotions...but ya I am sometimes blaming myself just because I killed the victim...that was not my intention...really...but to be honest I just want us in the community to help each other...to inform each other about issues...in my case there was no help...even when my child burned to death...you know Mama...I have two (2) sisters but we all do not support each other and I also did not hear about services for women specific...aha...really only for food parcels now and then but not to assist women with problems”.

Participant 8 narrated her thoughts as follows:

“Mam...If we can be given employment...you know if you work, you will not have time to sit around and drink or do unnecessary things because you are busy, especially with us who are sick...we need to eat so that we can drink our tablets and you know the tablets are a lot and if you don’t eat and just drink the tablets it might not work properly”.

Upon further probing on organisations that provide services to women in the community, Participant 8 had the following to say:

“Mam...I just know Catholic Aids Action, they give food to us and to our children and also school uniforms...I don’t know about other organisations”.

Participant 4 said the following:

“Ms, although I knew about services that were available in the community, I did not make use of them...only after the offence was I approached by someone in the community who wanted to assist and support me through my court case...but to be honest...I would lie if I

say I did not know about services in the community for young girls and women...there were services it is just that we are ignorant”.

Based on the above narrations and the analysis of the data, the study revealed that although services are available in the community, the majority of the participants are not aware of such services and they also claimed that these services are perhaps only meant for those who can afford them, meaning that they have to pay for such services. The findings also revealed that some are aware of such services but they do not make use of the services which they claimed might be due to ignorance amongst them. One (1) of the participants expressed her dissatisfaction with the Namibian Police, The Women and Child Protection Unit and the Social Workers in the town where she had committed the crime. She related that although she had reported the victim several times to all of these government entities, the service was insufficient and she further claimed that perhaps The Namibian Police did not take her complaints seriously. Thus, it may be concluded that the severity of complaints are ignored by the relevant stakeholders, which then results in crime which could have been prevented if services were sufficiently available and functional at a community level.

On the subject of informal support systems like friends and families, the following participant related as follows:

Participant 2:

“Mam, I was staying in the same town and location with my sisters but none of them reached out to me when I was assaulted by my boyfriend...not even the community members...they would just look at me and advise me to run away...that was all”.

According to Schwartz (2008), communities are complex structures with institutional and normative dimensions that are rooted in the family structure. Additionally, as claimed by Bursik and

Grasmick (as cited in Kingston, Huizinga & Elliott, 2009), neighbourhood life is shaped by the structure of formal and informal network associations. However, if these structures are not operational or are non-existent, a lack of resources and social isolation can lead to a breakdown of community investments and engagement and lower levels of social control and increases in violence (Sampson, 2012).

4.3.4.2 Sub theme 4.2: During incarceration

The study revealed that women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia are offered self-development programmes such as literacy classes, bible studies, and computer and needle work classes. This should be commended as it might assist them with their reintegration plans after their release with the focus on being in a better position to secure employment. However, the participants also indicated that they needed the services of a mental health worker such as a social worker or a psychological counsellor that can provide psycho-social services as the need may arise. In addition, it is imperative to note that the majority of these women still struggle to come to terms with the serious offences that they have committed. With the focus on this aspect, they were deeply affected emotionally as they were also subjected to various forms of abuse during childhood and that extended into adulthood. Therefore, having such services to their immediate disposal may help them deal with these emotions before they exit the criminal justice system. Similarly, it could assist with their successful reintegration into society as they would be better equipped to control their negative thoughts and emotions that stem from these thoughts, which may be detrimental to their mental health.

Thus, the study revealed that there is no social worker or a psychological counsellor available at this correctional facility. It further revealed that there are only needle work, literacy, bible studies and computer classes available at some point but no psycho-social services are offered to this group of offenders at this correctional facility. Furthermore, these women are not only concerned about psycho-social services but they indicated that the programmes are few and not all of them are interested in needlework and computer classes. They requested the Namibian Correctional Services to look into other types of programmes such as vocational training programmes that could prepare them better for the job-market as they would still experience unemployment which was identified as one of the major contributing factors that had led them to be dependent on the victims, and indirectly to the commission of the offence as some of the women cited that they did not leave the relationships despite being abused.

When female offenders enter the criminal justice system from the point of arrest to the point of prosecution, service providers ought to assist these offenders with their immediate concerns. However, as stated below by the participants, the services provided are either non-existent or minimal. Based on psycho-social support provided during incarceration, the participants narrated as follows:

Participant 1 narrated her thoughts as follows:

“Ms, I was treated well at the Police station...I once fell and broke my leg and was taken to the hospital...but I never met any social worker there to talk about my problems...hmmm (pausing), Ms I was very depressed when I was at the police cells, so I was taken to the Dr who also prescribed for me medicine for depression but that was all until today...I only hear about social workers but at this facility, yes there was a man but he went and I would not really want to talk about my problems with a man”.

Participant 5 her thoughts as follows:

Ms, there are programmes here for women, the needle work, literacy and so on, bible study, but I think sometimes you have problems at home with your children and no one can assist us, only the officers and they also have other work...I think it will be good if there is a social worker here for us...sometimes you worry a lot about your children and my family is far...they cannot visit just to bring my children. You can ask other offenders also, we all complain about the same problem...and no one listens”.

Participant 4 narrated as follows:

“Mam, I think it will be good if the Government can bring vocational training for women also, not just for men. Not all of us are interested in needle work or literacy...like me I failed grade 10 and am not interested to continue with school but if I can be trained in something it will prepare me to get employment when I am released”.

From all of the above narrations and based on the analysis of the data, it is evident that the participants need some form of psycho-social support during their incarceration which can help alleviate some strains and stressors that they are still experiencing during incarceration. This will not only help them to deal with their current circumstances but will allow for healing and help them with a more effective reintegration back into society.

4.3.4.3 Sub theme 4.3: After incarceration

According to UNODC (2014):

The treatment of prisoners should emphasize not their exclusion from the community, but their continuing part in it. Community agencies should, therefore, be enlisted wherever

possible to assist the staff of the institution in the task of social rehabilitation of the prisoners. There should be in connection with every institution social workers charged with the duty of maintaining and improving all desirable relations of a prisoner with his/her family and with valuable social agencies. Steps should be taken to safeguard, to the maximum extent compatible with the law and the sentence, the rights relating to civil interests, social security rights and other social benefits of prisoners. (p. 159)

Based on this subject, the study revealed that the participants thought about their re-entry into society and the participants are worried about where to start from as multiple challenges would still face them such as lack of education and unemployment which result in lack of income.

Participant 8 shared her thoughts as follows:

“Mam...If we can be given employment...you know if you work, you will not have time to sit around and drink or do unnecessary things because you are busy, especially with us who are sick...we need to eat so that we can drink our tablets and you know the tablets are a lot and if you don't eat and just drink the tablets it might not work properly”.

Participant 2 narrated her desires as follows:

“Mama, we need support...we in the communities should support each other...with the Government...you see all these killings...I just defended myself...I did not mean to kill the person...the police should come into the communities and control the drinking of people...we are all guilty, we drink and fight with each other”.

With reference to the above concern, UNODC (2014) states that:

The obstacles, and their intensity, encountered in post-release reintegration by women in different countries and cultures may vary immensely. Due to the particular gender-related difficulties women are likely to face following imprisonment, prison authorities should cooperate with probation services, social welfare departments and NGOs to design comprehensive pre- and post-release reintegration programmes for women. Assistance provided should cover housing and employment needs, taking into account the parental status and caring responsibilities of the women, parenting skills, psychological support and continued treatment for any substance addiction and other health problems. (p. 160).

Thus, aftercare services are imperative especially for those who have committed a crime under the influence of substances, as well as those who have engaged in substance use on a regular basis as this was also found to be one of the main contributing factors to violent and aggressive behaviours perpetrated by the participants. Also, if support and care after release are neglected or non-existent, it may contribute to recidivism as the participants also indicated that they indulged in substance use partly for socialisation purposes and partly to also forget about the problems that they have been facing in their immediate environments.

4.4 Summary

This chapter highlighted the socio-demographic information of the participants, followed by a presentation of the themes and subthemes that emerged from the study. The findings were then discussed on each of the themes and subthemes that emerged from the study. It further presented the findings and discussions on the relevant themes and sub-themes related to the overall objective and the subset of the overall objective of the study. Lastly, the chapter offered an alignment of the objectives to the theories used to explain women's use of violence and it also highlighted the participants' perceptions and awareness of available services before, during and after incarceration.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter restates the overall purpose of the study, the research objectives the conclusions based on the overall purpose and objectives of the study. It further presents recommendations based on the findings and states the challenges faced during the study. It points out the contributions made by the study and the possibilities for future research to be done with the same population in Namibia.

The overall purpose of the study was:

- To examine the contributing factors to violent crimes perpetrated by female offenders incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia.

The objectives were:

- To describe the vulnerabilities, context and motivations for violence perpetrated by female offenders incarcerated at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia,
- To examine the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay Correctional Facility in Namibia,
- To explore how these violent crimes have affected the women socially, emotionally and physically, and
- To recommend possible community intervention strategies for women before they enter the criminal justice system and also for women after their release from the correctional facility for possible support with re-integration plans.

5.2 The contributing factors to violent crimes committed by incarcerated women at the Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia

Centred on the main purpose of the study, the researcher examined the experiences of these women from childhood towards young adulthood and adulthood. The women had the opportunity to express their own opinions regarding their real live experiences in these categories and the study revealed the following:

The incarcerated women have experienced a considerable amount of abuse during childhood and as they grew towards adulthood. The themes that resulted from the coded and analysed data presented physical abuse, emotional abuse and intimidation, economic abuse and neglect, sexual abuse and substance abuse as some of the factors that contributed to the violent crimes committed by these women. All of these factors strongly relate to domestic violence. The study further revealed that they did not just witness incidents of violence amongst their parents, siblings or caregivers but they had been the victims of such abusive behaviours perpetrated by their caregivers and parents, which in the end contributes to the trauma that they have experienced. During adulthood, the women further experienced tremendous abuse perpetrated by their partners, and in some instances their partners were the victims in the crimes that were committed. These results are confirmed by studies that was conducted by Liddell et al., (2013) who emphasized that a perception exists that women are becoming more violent as a result of being violently abused by others in the past. Similarly claims is made by Baris (2015) who argued that women commit violent crimes against their abusers due to the limited choices they have and as a last resort to free themselves from male violence. The results thus relates strongly to the claims that was made by Liddell et al., (2013) and Baris (2015)

5.3 The vulnerabilities, context and motivations for violent female offending behaviours amongst women incarcerated at Walvis Bay correctional facility in Namibia

- The study revealed that the context in which these offences were committed was mostly in a domestic setting and also against a person whom they knew. It further revealed that although the majority of the participants were employed, they earned very low wages per month and they could barely afford to take care of themselves and their children. Their economic circumstances were further impeded by their lack of education as the majority of the participants had not completed their secondary education thus resulting in them landing low earning jobs. The study further established that the majority of the participants hailed from the Omaheke region, which was followed Khomas, Oshikoto, Ohangwena, Otjozondjupa and one country in Sub-Sahara Africa. The women were remarkably young as the ages ranged between eighteen (18) years to forty five (45) and only one of the participants was married at the time of the offence; the rest were either single, divorced or co-habiting at the time of the offence. The majority of the participants had dependents which ranged between one (1) to nine (9) children. However, it should be noted that some of the women also lost children due to death.
- Thus, the study correlates with studies conducted by Bottos (2007) who cites unemployment, low socioeconomic status, poverty and lack of access to educational and vocational opportunities as some of these factors. Similarly, Van Dieten et al. (2014) add that environmental risk factors such as a lack of access to vocational and employment opportunities can contribute to violence in women and women's offending is most often associate with poverty and financial difficulties; whilst many women's financial situations are further strained by their sole responsibility for dependent children. In a study

conducted by Dastile (2014). Thus, financial difficulties together with stresses and strains were cited by the incarcerated women as the main reasons for committing their offences as they had childcare responsibilities and had to provide for their children elsewhere in the world that state that most women who commit violent crimes come from lower socio-economic backgrounds, have experienced some form of abuse during childhood and have also experienced abuse and trauma as adults.

- With the focus on traumatic events, the study revealed that all the participants had experienced one or the other traumatic event in their lives. The following events were found to have caused tremendous trauma to the lives of these women which are indicated as being abducted as a child and being exploited not just sexually but also physically during childhood; being raped and abused during childhood, having tested HIV positive as adults, experiencing the death of a child or children, fathers denying pregnancy and or paternity, being abused emotionally, physically, financially and sexually as adults, as well as witnessing a house burning down. Thus, the findings indicate that the women in this study have endured difficult circumstances and they were exposed to various strains and stressors as children and as adults.

5.4 The social, emotional and physical effects of the crimes committed by the participants and their subsequent incarceration

- Centred on this objective, the findings indicate that women were affected socially, emotionally and physically. The impact of their violent behaviours and the aftermaths of the crimes appeared to have had a detrimental effect on the functioning of this distinct population under the care of the Namibian correctional service. Social effects include that of

feeling detached from society, claims such as the bond between them and their communities are diminishing due to their absence, exclusion from family and community gatherings and activities, and uncertainty about their future. Emotional effects amounted to being worried about their children who are in the care of their families, feeling guilty about the lives they had taken out, and the hurt and pain that they have caused to the families of the victims. They blamed themselves for the offences, and especially those participants who have children with the victims. Some of the participants related that they feel worthless as women, feel ashamed, and are scared because the society might not trust them again, and being judged for their actions as well as the stigma attached to criminals and being in prison. The physical effects are indicative of being sentenced to a term of imprisonment, being separated from their families and losing their freedom. The effects also include having sustained injuries which resulted in permanent scars on their bodies, still experiencing headaches and other forms of ailments such as high blood pressure, stress and depression. Thus, it can be concluded that the effects are felt by the participants and they appeared to be multi-faceted as indicated by the findings. These findings also correlate with other studies as indicated in the literature review.

Moving on to the environments in which these women had lived as children and as adults, the focus was on informal and formal support systems that were available in the community or neighbourhoods where they had resided. The finding indicated that most of the participants had no informal support systems like families or friends. They indicated that they were either not aware of any kind of support during childhood or they did not make use of the systems that were available and this was not different when they were adults. It was established that although there are a variety of formal systems available such as those that were identified in the literature review chapter, only

two (2) of the women were familiar with some of the organisations but they also did not make use of the services. One (1) of the participants indicated that she reached out for assistance and reported her abuser to the police and the social worker at the town of origin before the offence but she was not assisted sufficiently to stop the abuse. However, the findings indicate that the majority of the women did not know any of the organisations as outlined in the literature review. The study further revealed that besides knowing about the police stations, and the Gender-Based Violence and Child protection unit, the organisations are not known to individuals in their different communities. These organisations also appeared not to be active as indicated in the different regions especially in the rural areas as the participants were presented with a list of these organisations and none of them were recognized by the women.

5.5 Recommendations for intervention strategies for women before, during and after incarceration

5.5.1 Interventions strategies for women before they enter the Criminal Justice System

- As it is evident that the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, The Ministry of Health and Social Services and other non-governmental organisations have various programmes, projects and intervention strategies that provide for the needs of women in society, it is also evident that these services are either dormant or non-existent. It is thus recommended that:
 - These organisations revisit their operational policies regarding psycho-social services and other socio-economic support and self-help projects that can help alleviate the strains and stressors experienced by women on a daily basis.

- In addition, neighbourhood disorganisation is characterized by the absence of formal and informal support programmes and it would be vital to establish such services not just at different points in a particular town but to bring it closer to the people who are in need of such services. Additionally, when people belong to an organisation that brings about change in their communities, it could foster cohesion and collective efficacy amongst community members which are important elements for a crime free society. The lack of community mobilisation and advocating for a violence free society came forth strongly and thus these also need to be revitalised and strengthened to effect sustainability. Thus, it is recommended that the Namibian Police, Municipalities, Town Councils and Village Councils across Namibia embark upon strengthening ties to establish and maintain the community policing strategy, Men and Women Network to effect changes with regards to the domestic violence pandemic that the country is currently experiencing.

5.5.2 Recommendations for intervention strategies during incarceration

- It is recommended that the Namibian Correctional Service appoints a social worker at the Walvis Bay correctional facility and all other facilities where female offenders are held to assist these offenders with their immediate concerns as stipulated by the Bangkok rules (2010). Not only will this assist women with their immediate concerns but it could help them mitigate factors that have propelled them to act violently by receiving regular counselling.

- There is a need to continue providing psycho-social support in the form of programmes and counselling services with a specific focus on substance abuse, education, employment and emotional control strategies before these women exit the criminal justice system in order to prevent recidivism and to aid with their reintegration into society

5.5.3 Recommendation for intervention strategies after incarceration

It is recommended that all women who are sentenced and incarcerated be linked with organisations such as the Ministry of Health and Social Services, Ministry of Gender and Child Welfare and other Non- Governmental Organizations that can assist them with their concerns such as employment, family reunification and housing as well as substance abuse risks and need factors.

5.6 Contribution made by the study

The study contributed to the body of knowledge in female offending behaviours in Namibia. Furthermore, it provides knowledge on not just the criminality of women and how they are affected by their behaviours but it also pointed out that although services are available countrywide, these participants have not made use of them. Also, the study revealed that the majority of the women are not aware of such services, thus more needs to be done to raise awareness and to motivate and encourage women, especially in rural areas to make use of such services. Lastly, the study revealed that services provided are not effective in addressing the plight of women in society, as what was identified as the risk factors pointed clearly to the abuse that women and children suffer at the hands of their parents, caregivers, partners and acquaintances (people whom they live with). However, this is not unique to the subject of the abuse endured by women and children in the country but it again emphasises the extent to which this phenomena can contribute to a fragmented society if the root causes are not penetrated and treated on time. Thus, there exist a need to continuously conduct research on the same population in order to stay abreast with evolving issues that might

have an influence on violent and aggressive behaviours in women in Namibia as this will further strengthen the current research and contribute to more knowledge on the subject.

5.7 Conclusion

The study revealed that women encounter various strains and stressors on a daily basis and these prevent them from successfully performing their roles in society. It further pointed out that support structures be it informal or formal are either non-existent or ineffective in assisting women with the difficulties they are facing within the society. Thus, more needs to be done to effect change that would stimulate and encourage healthy dialogues between partners, parents and children which could yield constructive and responsible family units for the overall well-being of the Namibian society at large. It was also evident that although a myriad of organisations exist that provide psycho-social services across genders, these services are not known in the community and women do not make use of such services even if they are aware of their existence. Thus, ignorance seemed to be of great concern amongst both the individuals and organisations that provide services to strained individuals and across genders.

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APPENDIX A -



ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Ethical Clearance Reference Number: FHSS /420/2017

Date: 1 October, 2018

This Ethical Clearance Certificate is issued by the University of Namibia Research Ethics Committee (UREC) in accordance with the University of Namibia's Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines. Ethical approval is given in respect of undertakings contained in the Research Project outlined below. This Certificate is issued on the recommendations of the ethical evaluation done by the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee sitting with the Postgraduate Studies Committee.

Title of Project: Examining The Contributing Factors To Violent Crimes Committed By Women Incarcerated At The Walvisbay Correctional Facility, Namibia

Researcher: LEVINA NEGONGO

Student Number: 200601636

Supervisors: Dr. J. Ananias (Main) N. Kamwanyah (Co)

Faculty: Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

Take note of the following:

- (a) Any significant changes in the conditions or undertakings outlined in the approved Proposal must be communicated to the UREC. An application to make amendments may be necessary.
- (b) Any breaches of ethical undertakings or practices that have an impact on ethical conduct of the research must be reported to the UREC.
- (c) The Principal Researcher must report issues of ethical compliance to the UREC (through the Chairperson of the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee) at the end of the Project or as may be requested by UREC.
- (d) The UREC retains the right to:
 - (i) Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance if any unethical practices (as outlined in the Research Ethics Policy) have been detected or suspected,
 - (ii) Request for an ethical compliance report at any point during the course of the research.

UREC wishes you the best in your research.

Dr. J.E. de Villiers : UREC Chairperson

Ms. P. Claasson: UREC Secretary

APPENDIX B -



AUTHORIZATION OF RESEARCH PROJECTS

Authorization is hereby granted in terms of section 21 of the RST Act No. 23 of 2004, to:

Name: Levina Elmari Negongo

Address: Private Bag 2008
Tsumeb, Namibia

Coworkers: None

Certificate Number (if applicable): N/A

Authorization No: AN20180501

Type of research

Non- Commercial research and the use of the resources be limited to what is specified in the proposal

Title of Research authorized:

Examining the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvis Bay Correctional Facility, Namibia

Locality:

Walvis Bay Correctional Facility only.

Duration: May 2018 - April 2019

Research/Sample collection conditions:

Obtain written consent from all offender who will be participating in the research

You may only apply your research instruments strictly to the targeted population

You must share the research outcomes with NCS and NCRST before publishing the research paper

Yours sincerely,

Ms. Enid Keramen
Acting Chief Executive Officer



Head Office:

ERF 490, Platinum Street - Prosperita, Windhoek
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APPENDIX C



Republic of Namibia

Namibian Correctional Service

Ministry of Safety & Security

Enquiries: COMM J Konjore
Tel. No.: (+264 61) 284 6111
Fax. No.: (+264 61) 223 606

My Ref: S5/4/3 Your Ref:

Office of the Commissioner-General
Namibian Correctional Service
Private Bag 13281
Windhoek
Namibia

15 June 2018

A/COMM L Negongo
C/o Officer in Charge
Evaristus Shikongo Correctional Facility
Private Bag 13281
TSUMEB

**RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH PROJECT ON FEMALE
OFFENDERS AT WALVIS BAY CORRECTIONAL FACILITY**

Your letter dated 19 October 2017 regarding the above mentioned subject bears reference.

You are hereby informed that permission is granted to conduct a research, "Examining the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarceration in Walvis Bay Correctional Facility" from 18 June 2018 until 14 September 2018 on condition that you assist, S/SUPT I Van Der Westhuizen, with reviewing some reports during the time you will be on leave.

Furthermore, you have to inform the Officer in Charge of Walvis Bay on the schedule of your interviews.

The research findings should only be shared with the relevant authorities for the purpose of the completion of your studies, and NCS should be provided with a copy thereof.

Let me take this opportunity to wish you success with your research project and studies.

Yours sincerely,


ART HAMUNYELA
COMMISSIONER-GENERAL

Cc: Office of the Regional Commander
North-Eastern & North-Western Regional Commands

*All official correspondence must be addressed to the Commissioner-General,
Namibian Correctional Service*

APPENDIX D**INFORMED CONSENT AND VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION FORM****THE TITLE OF THE STUDY**

“Examining the contributing factors to violent crimes committed by women incarcerated at the Walvisbay correctional facility, Namibia”

Researcher: Master of Arts – Social Work

Student No.: 200601636

Levina Negongo
Private Bag 2008
Tsumeb

Tel. No.: (+264) 0 67-2232300/2305 **Cell No.:** (+264) 0 813825057

INTRODUCTION:

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Please take some time to read the information presented here, which will explain the details of this project. Please ask the researcher any questions about any part of this project that you do not fully understand. It is very important that you are fully satisfied that you clearly understand what this research entails and how you could be involved.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to examine the factors contributing to violent crimes in women under the care of the Namibian correctional service at the Walvis Bay Correctional Facility in Namibia and to recommend possible strategies or intervention that may enable women to counterattack these factors that makes them vulnerable to violent crimes.

PROCEDURES

As a participant in this research project, the researcher will engage you in an individual interview that will be conducted at the Walvis Bay correctional facility and in a room that will safeguard confidentiality of information at all times. The interview will be recorded using an audio recorder and notes will be taken during the interview. It is anticipated that the interview will take approximately 1 – 2 hours to be completed.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

The potential risks of participating in this study are some level of discomfort at answering personal questions. The potential benefits to your participation in this study could be that, your view on what should be done to assist women counterattacking the factors that has propelled them into using violence will be published; and this may assist in developing more community based gender sensitive programmes that could help them better their lives in future.

CONFIDENTIALITY/ANONYMITY

As a participant in this study, the researcher will engage you in an individual interview that will be conducted at the Walvis Bay correctional facility and in a room that will safeguard confidentiality of information at all times. The interview will be recorded using an audio recorder and notes will be taken during the interview. However, if you prefer your voice not to be recorded, the researcher will take notes during the interview process and no negative consequences will be hold against you for refusing to be recorded. Your identity will not be revealed at any stage of the investigation

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary and you may withdraw your participation at any point in time of this study. In the event that you have any questions about your right as a study participant or you wish to complain about an issue that happened during the duration of the study, please do not hesitate to contact my Supervisor at the University of Namibia, Dr J. Ananias, telephone number +264(0) 612063713, E-mail address; jananias@unam.na .

An audio recorder will be used to record your interview. Do you agree that your voice may be recorded? Please indicate with an X.

YES	NO
------------	-----------

Respondents Name:

Signature:

Date:

Researchers' Name:.....

Signature: **Date:**.....

APPENDIX E

A STUDY ON THE CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO VIOLENT CRIMES COMMITTED BY WOMEN INCARCERATED AT WALVISBAY CORRECTIONAL FACILITY, NAMIBIA

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE

INSTRUCTIONS

- **Welcome the respondent and put her at ease:**
 - Greet briefly and introduce yourself to the respondent.
 - Name and professional background
- **Give a short description of the purpose of the interview**
 - The purpose of the study is to find out which factors made women vulnerable to commit violent crimes.
 - The identification of these factors will enable the researcher to make recommendations to relevant stakeholders such as the criminal justice system, Government Ministries, Churches and Community Based organisations to develop and implement intervention strategies that may help women counterattack adverse conditions that makes them prone to aggressive behaviours and violent crimes.
 - It could further assist in the development of appropriate treatment modalities and empowerment strategies for women encountering such strains and stressors.
- **Explain the interview process**
 - The researcher is interested in your personal experience; we are not here to judge you in any way and there is no right or wrong answers.
 - The interview process will take about 1 hour to an hour and 30 minutes. Everything that will be discussed will be kept confidential.
 - We therefore ask you to be open and honest at all times when telling us about your life story.
 - The interview will be digitally recorded so that we have a full account of the information needed for the study.
- **Review and confirm consent** – Have you signed the consent form? If not let her sign and again confirm consent to the recording of the interview.
- **Check for inclusion of criteria:**
 - Female:.....

- Sentenced:.....
- **Violent offence:** murder, attempted murder, culpable homicide, robbery with aggravating circumstances, rape, assault grievous bodily harm, common assault

- **Do you have any questions before we start with the interview?:**.....
.....

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

1. Socio- Demographic Information

1.1 What is your age?

18 – 25

26 – 30

31 – 35

36 – 40

41 – 45

46 – 50

51 – 60

OTHER

If other, specify :

1.2 What is your education?

Lower Primary

Upper Primary

Secondary

Certificate

Diploma

Degree

OTHER

If other, specify :

1.3 How many dependents do you have?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 and Above

1.4 What is your relationship to them?

- Biological children
- Adopted children
- Extended family
- Stepchildren
- Other

If other, please specify:.....

1.5 Did you receive any form of social grant/support?

- Child maintenance
- Spousal maintenance
- Child Social Grant
- Pension
- Other

If other, specify :

1.6 In your own opinion, was the income sufficient to maintain yourself and your family?

Please describe:.....

2. Marital Status

- Single
- Married

- Divorced
- Seperated
- Cohabitated
- Widowed

2. Employment history

Employed	Unemployed	Type of employment	Other
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If other, specify :

2.1 What was your income per month?

- 1000 - 2000
- 2001 - 3000
- 3001 - 4000
- 4001 - 5000
- 5001- ABOVE
- OTHER

If other, specify :

THIS PART OF THE INTERVIEW FOCUS ON THE OVERALL OBJECTIVE AND THE SUBSET OF THE OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.

FROM CHILDHOOD TO YOUNG ADULTHOOD

3. Can you describe your life from childhood to young adulthood?

(Use probes for clarity where needed)

4. Have you ever experienced any unfortunate situation during this time of your life?

(Probe for clarity where necessary and look out for any type of abuse experienced by the participant)

5. How did this experience made you feel?

6. Have you received any assistance to deal with the situation?

If yes, from whom and how was your experience?

If no, why not?

7. Can you describe your neighbourhood?

(Probe for the following:

Formal and informal support systems in the neighbourhood or community; any form of social disorganisation; Constructive activities for children and young women,

FROM YOUNG ADULTHOOD TO ADULTHOOD**8. Can you describe your life as a young women moving into adulthood?**

(Use probes for clarity where needed)

(Look out for any significant relationships and the quality of that relationship; any strains and stressors experienced during that time of her life – any type of abuse or other strenuous situations: death of a child, spouse, partner, substance use, financial difficulties ect)

9. Have you ever experienced any stressful event in your life?

If yes, can you describe it?

9.1 How did this experience made you feel?**9.2 Have you received any assistance to deal with the situation?**

If yes, from whom and how was your experience?

If no, why not?

10. Can you describe your neighbourhood? *(Probe for the following: Formal and informal support systems in the neighbourhood or community; cohesion and trust amongst residents, support provided to each other and any form of social disorganisation; Constructive activities for children and young women,***THE OFFENCE****11. Do you have any previous convictions or encounters with law enforcement agencies before this offence?**

If yes, what was it about?

12. Can you describe how this offence happened?

(Probe where necessary for clarity)

13. Did you use a weapon?**14. What is your relationship with the victim?****15. How did the community react towards you after the offence?****16. How do you feel about committing the offence?****17. Did you sustain any injuries, scars, bruises, ailments due to the offence?**

18. Who supported you during your pre-trial period?

19. What have you learned from this experience?

EXPERIENCE DURING TRIAL STAGE AND AFTER BEING SENTENCED

20. Describe your time at the police holding cells?

(Probe where necessary – how long after the offence have you been arrested, how long did you stay in police custody before sentenced and how was the experience?)

21. Describe your time at the Namibian Correctional Service?

(Support during incarceration from family, visits, other organizations, projects/programmes/services provided to incarcerated women?)

POSSIBLE RECOMMENDATIONS

22. In your own words, what do you think can be done to help women in the community not to engage in violent or aggressive behaviours and risk being sentenced and sent to a correctional facility?

23. Do you know of any organisations in your town or neighbourhood that provides support to women?

24. What types of support do they provide?

Thank you for sharing your life story with me. I highly appreciated it and it will surely help in achieving the goal and objectives of this study...HAVE A BLESSED DAY!

APPENDIX F

ACET Consultancy

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6 December 2018

To whom it may concern

LANGUAGE EDITING – LEVINA E. NEGONGO

This letter serves to confirm that a MASTER OF ARTS (SOCIAL WORK) thesis entitled “EXAMINING THE CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO VIOLENT CRIMES COMMITTED BY WOMEN INCARCERATED AT THE WALVIS BAY CORRECTIONAL FACILITY, NAMIBIA” by Levina E. Negongo was submitted to me for language editing.

The thesis was professionally edited and track changes and suggestions were made in the document, which if followed by Levina E. Negongo will result in a thesis with a high standard of English.

Yours faithfully



Dr N. Mlambo

PhD in English

M.A. in Intercultural Communication

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B. A. Special Honours in English – First class

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