

INJURY AND SAFETY MONITOR

E D I T O R I A L

In this edition of the Injury and Safety Monitor, the last for 2004, we include some innovative work from our junior staff members of the Crime, Violence and Injury Lead Programme. Most of the articles included here refer to homicide and/or traffic related issues and refer to intervention programmes on ways of preventing the impact and consequences of these phenomena. According to the latest figures of the NIMSS report (the National Injury Mortality Surveillance System report, 2004), both homicide and traffic related deaths still rate highest as causes of non-natural deaths in South Africa (48% and 30% respectively). This is also the case for individual towns as Nethavhani illustrates with his analysis of city-level injury data for the city of Tshwane. He analysis current injury prevention initiatives in Tshwane and points out the involvement on the level of local government and on NGO level in the area of traffic and violence-related injuries.

The article by MacKenzie discusses attempts to put together a Handbook on interventions in the area of pedestrian safety for South Africa and several other countries in the rest of Africa. Research in South Africa indicates that pedestrians are especially a vulnerable category of road user. In Africa there is a paucity of published evidence on pedestrian safety programmes. For primarily this reason, it was decided to compile a handbook to serve as an inventory of some of the pedestrian safety programmes in South Africa and other African countries. Hopefully this will serve as an incentive for further preventive action in this field.

Two articles in this edition focus on the identification of risk factors for childhood injuries in poor informal settlement communities. The article by Baadjies explains how photography can be used in combination with other research methods to indicate how social and physical space is utilized and in so doing to identify potential risks for injuries not necessarily referred to in focus group interviews or any standard scientific source of information. The article on home visitation explains how volunteer workers can be trained and utilized as fieldworkers to participate in an intervention for identifying and controlling risk factors for childhood injury in the home. In this project the focus is on parental education, implicit enforcement of safety practices, product demonstration and engineering solutions and include four safety topics, i.e. burns, falls, poisoning and child development.

The article by Prinsloo is interesting in that it points out the difficulties of obtaining information on homicide cases at police stations. Inconsistencies in data capturing, unknown police case numbers and absence of perpetrator information due to some court cases not being finalized were all factors for her not to be able to do a study on victim-perpetrator relationships. Her subsequent study on factors impacting on the criminal investigation process is described here.

Sandra Marais

8TH WORLD CONFERENCE ON INJURY PREVENTION AND SAFETY PROMOTION

As the global movement towards the establishment of an injury free and safe world for all gathers momentum, the UNISA Institute for Social and Health Sciences takes great pleasure in announcing that the 8th World Conference on Injury Prevention and Safety Promotion will be held in Durban, South Africa from the 2nd to the 5th of April 2006. Africa's time has come to showcase its vibrancy and the dynamism of its people who have been striving to take their rightful place alongside the global league of nations.

We are proud that the African continent will witness and host an unprecedented gathering of injury prevention and safety promotion researchers, practitioners and activists.

We look forward to hosting you in Durban in 2006. Woza 2006. Welcome to Africa.

www.safety2006.info

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Building a Healthy Nation
through Research



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A HANDBOOK¹ ON AFRICAN PEDESTRIAN SAFETY PROGRAMMES

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INTRODUCTION

The World Health Organisation (WHO) ranked road traffic injuries as the 11th leading cause of death in the year 2002, accounting for 2.1% of all global deaths (Peden, Scurfield, Sleet, Mohan, Hyder, Jarawan, & Mathers, 2004). Low- and middle-income countries carry the major part of the burden of the world's road traffic injuries where they accounted for 91.8% of the disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) lost to road traffic injuries in the year 2002 (Peden et al., 2004). In terms of road user categories, the vulnerable road users such as pedestrians and cyclists, particularly in low- and middle-income countries, account for the major proportion of the injuries and fatalities that result from road traffic crashes (Peden et al., 2004). Pedestrians have received growing attention in international research, corresponding with increasing developments in interventions directed at this type of injury prevention.

Epidemiological research in Europe has shown children to be particularly vulnerable pedestrians (Assailly, 1997). For this reason, most pedestrian safety intervention initiatives have identified children as their target group. Other high-risk groups include the elderly and intoxicated pedestrians (e.g. Fontaine & Gourlet, 1997; LaScala, Gerber, & Gruenewald, 2000), categories that also provide a focus for interventions. By contrast, a survey of research in low- to middle-income countries such as Asia, South East Asia, South America and Africa shows that the majority of pedestrian accidents involve young adults (see Khan, Jawaid, Chotani, & Luby, 1999).

In the year 2001 in South Africa, motor vehicle collision pedestrian fatalities accounted for 10.2% of external causes of all non-natural deaths (Prinsloo, 2002). Pedestrian fatalities represented the largest percentage (37.3%, but could be much higher given that unspecified deaths totaled 22%) of specifically traffic-related deaths in South Africa in 2001 (Prinsloo, 2002). Reflecting the trends of other low- to middle-income countries, pedestrian deaths peak in the 30-34 year age group in South Africa (Prinsloo, 2002). Children are also a significantly represented group in South African pedestrian fatality data. An association between traffic-related injuries in child pedestrians and socio-economic factors has been found, where children in low-income contexts are at particularly high risk (Roberts, Mohan, & Abbasi, 2002). Poorer children often have to walk on a regular basis, on many occasions unaccompanied. Research

has linked both exposure to traffic and lack of supervision to an increased likelihood of being involved in pedestrian accidents (Zeedyk, Wallace, & Spry, 2002).

There is very little research and intervention in the area of pedestrian safety in developing countries, primarily due to a lack of resources (Downing, Baguley & Hills, 1991). In Africa, there is a paucity of published evidence on pedestrian safety programmes. These gaps served as a primary rationale for documenting the pedestrian safety programmes that are confronting this problem in Africa so that such information could be shared with road safety practitioners who are working to improve this situation. The current project involved the compilation of a handbook that aims to offer an inventory, albeit not an exhaustive listing, of some of the pedestrian safety programmes in South Africa and other African countries.

METHODOLOGY

The data collection process for the inventory followed three stages: (1) As part of a snowball sampling technique, the researcher sent a short questionnaire to organisations identified as having an interest in transport- or traffic-related issues in South Africa and the African countries of Egypt, Uganda, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mauritius and Nigeria, in order to determine whether they had a pedestrian safety programme and to refer the researcher to other possible candidates for the study; (2) A second questionnaire was then sent to the organisations with identified pedestrian safety programmes asking for descriptive information about the programme and its specific interventions; (3) Some organisations were then contacted by the researcher directly and sent a third questionnaire that asked them to select one or two of their programmes for the purposes of providing a more detailed description involving the programme's purpose and content, in addition to ascertaining whether evaluations of the programme had been undertaken.

FINDINGS IN BRIEF

Six South African organisations and three African organisations (from Uganda, Kenya and Mauritius) identified as having pedestrian safety programmes participated in this study. A total of 26 programmes were compiled into a table format. The participant organisations included government agencies, non-profit organisations, a research organisation and a private company.

In South Africa, the pedestrian programmes covered the full range of intervention categories, namely educational, engineering and enforcement interventions. Education programmes targeting children in schools predominated. Engineering programmes featuring design interventions such as visibility aids were often included in school-based education programmes. A few engineering programmes involving environmental interventions such as pedestrian facilities (bridges, pedestrian crossings, etc.) were also documented. One enforcement programme was reported, which involved the regulation by on-site traffic police officers of pedestrians crossing the road.

A minimal number of programmes addressing pedestrian safety were identified in African countries outside South Africa. A few representatives from African countries, including Ethiopia and Egypt, reported that no pedestrian safety programmes exist in their countries. Organisations from Kenya, Uganda and Mauritius participated and reported a small range of programmes encompassing educational and engineering (design and environmental) interventions.

DISCUSSION

The study found that the majority of the pedestrian safety programmes surveyed focused on educational intervention strategies targeting children. A review of international studies also shows a similar focus on educational pedestrian safety programmes, although findings on the efficacy of such programmes vary. A Cochrane review by Duperrex (2003) and colleagues on pedestrian safety education programmes finds that inconsistent evidence casts doubt on the value of safety education and recommends the enforcement of traffic laws such as speed limits in addition to engineering interventions. Similarly, Mohan (2004) asserts that educational programmes may increase knowledge but rarely result in appropriate behavioural change and thus are considered insufficient when used by themselves as an intervention. It therefore seems that the focus of African pedestrian safety programmes is not in line with international recommendations. Although targeting child pedestrians is relevant, particularly in terms of teaching road-crossing skills, the fact that in South Africa pedestrian deaths are highest amongst adults also warrants that programmes should focus on this age group.

¹ The full document will be available in December 2004 on www.unisa.ac.za/dept/ishs1

Some work has been done in Africa in terms of engineering programmes that involve an environmental intervention such as, for example, traffic calming measures. Research in developing countries such as Pakistan and Brazil has found, however, that such pedestrian safety interventions have not always been adequately utilised by pedestrians (Khan et al., 1999). Public awareness through publicity campaigns and pedestrian education in addition to regulation enforcement by the relevant authorities has been recommended as ways of addressing these types of problems (Khan et al., 1999).

In South Africa, pedestrian facilities such as footbridges are also not being utilised to their full potential. The reasons for such under utilisation may lie, however, beyond mere pedestrian apathy or lack of safety education: South African pedestrians are particularly vulnerable to crime, and any environment that is perceived to be dangerous impedes pedestrian movement (Robertson, 1994). Fear of victimisation thus affects where pedestrians choose to walk, hence South African pedestrians may choose to risk crossing a busy highway rather than use a footbridge. Pedestrian safety interventions in South Africa clearly need to take the risk of crime into consideration.

Although it was not the intention of this research to evaluate, or discuss evaluations of, the programmes, it was noted that limited evaluative work has been carried out and where such work does exist, public access is difficult. It has been noted elsewhere that most evaluative studies have been undertaken in high-income countries. Duperrex and colleagues (2002) found that despite a thorough search for their Cochrane review they could not identify any randomised controlled trials conducted in low- and middle-income countries. For this reason, the findings from the survey of pedestrian safety programmes in South Africa and other African countries serve as an important gateway to gathering this kind of information.

CONCLUSION

The study showed that, despite international reservations as to their effectiveness, educational interventions tend to prevail in African pedestrian safety programmes. The "systems approach" recommends that instead of focusing on the role of the pedestrian in traffic safety, factors in the traffic environment must be considered when planning and designing interventions (United Nations, 2003). Critiques (e.g. Roberts, et al., 2002) that point out how transport policy and planning strategies have sidelined the interests of pedestrians and other vulnerable groups in favour of motorised road users should also be heeded in this regard. Instead of seeing the pedestrian as an obstacle to transportation planning due to their interference with traffic flow (Whyte, 1988 in Robertson, 1994), ways of integrating pedestrians into the traffic system as a whole should be investigated. Whilst it is difficult to relate any long-term effects in terms of injury reduction or mortality rates directly to any specific pedestrian safety interventions, the magnitude of this problem in Africa warrants serious attention. Traffic safety practitioners need to find innovative ways of dealing with the particularities of the African context, taking cognisance of social issues such as crime when developing safer roads. It is hoped that documents such as the handbook will inform decision makers of some of the work that has been done in the area of pedestrian safety. The need for evaluative work is also apparent, in order to learn from the successes and failures of these programmes, and be able to integrate multiple perspectives into planning and developing intervention initiatives.

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THE USE OF PHOTOGRAPHY AS A DATA COLLECTION METHOD IN A COMMUNITY-BASED WASTE MANAGEMENT CAMPAIGN

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INTRODUCTION

There has been a diverse tradition, spanning different disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, geography and archeology, of photography as a recognized research tool (Pink, 2001). In a research setting, photography is used to provide visual documentation of an object and place; to conduct spatial mapping of activities to determine the proximity between these activities; to determine the consistency of activities; for counting, measuring, comparing and tracking purposes; for the collection of data that is otherwise inaccessible to traditional approaches; for monitoring and evaluation purposes; to provide a supplement to written texts; and for 'photo-talks' in which the meanings of photographs can be explored.

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Community research has noted that data-driven community projects, especially those focused on safety and health promotion in communities, have employed diverse methods such as focus group discussions, questionnaires, depth interviews and consultations to marshal evidence and community support and facilitate community participation. All of these methods embrace the key tenets of community psychology that seem to foster community participation, encourage consensus and consent for community campaigns and give voice to the otherwise marginalised. Studies indicate that these data collection methods succeed in producing relevant information, but are constrained or limited due to the lack of observation of the social and physical environment of the community. We therefore found that there is not sufficient exploration in the health and safety promotion sector of data collection methods that focus on visual representations.

Within most community campaigns, the targets of community change are health status characteristics. Gething (1997) suggested that most community campaigns focus on informal settlements due to their residents suffering from more health threatening issues than their urban counterparts. The prevalence of disorders experienced by residents of informal settlements varies with remoteness of residents, suggesting a link between lifestyle, living and working environment, and health. It also reflects diminished access to services and health-related information.

Most of these informal settlements are located on the peripheries of cities where large tracts of publicly-owned land are located. Due to the sometimes rapid expansion of informal settlements, it contributes to the increase and volume of waste generated because of higher levels of environmental degradation (Gandy, 1993). Improper disposal practices have led to deaths and injuries of workers, direct exposure of nearby residents to toxic wastes, and air pollution and damage to wetlands. This article describes a study that focuses on an informal settlement, Slovo Park, which is situated about 20 kilometers outside the central business centre of Johannesburg. It is not earmarked for formalisation and is not provided with sufficient sanitation, waste disposal and other basic environmental health services.

For the purposes of developing a community-based waste management campaign, the article aims to: (1) provide an overview on how photography was used in collaboration with focus group discussions to collect data in Slovo Park; (2) explore the application and utility of still photography in producing visual documentation of how social and physical space is utilized; (3) identify potential risks for injuries present in the social and physical environment in the community; and (4) integrate the data from both the focus group discussions and photography in order to compare for similarities and discrepancies in the discussion. The findings will be used to motivate for the introduction of a community waste management campaign in Slovo Park.

METHODOLOGY

Current residents of the community were selected to take part in the focus group discussions. Participants were divided into five groups according to age and gender with one male and one female group aged above 20 years, one male and one female group aged between 14 and 20 years, and a combination group of girls and boys between the ages of 6 and 13 years. All focus group discussion sessions were conducted in the participants' first language and were tape recorded with the consent of the participants. Discussions were conducted and recorded by a Zulu-speaking facilitator who also transcribed and translated the discussions for the purposes of analysis. The transcribed data were analysed using a method of content analysis.

Photographic observation was done over a period of one month with regular sessions taken every Thursday and Sunday at exactly the same time of day to determine consistency of activities taking place in the physical environment. Observations were made by driving down every street in the community and involved scanning the environment and identifying all hazardous areas in the community and also how community residents utilised their social and physical space.

The research team formulated seven steps to help analyse the photographs taken in the community. The steps were as follows: (1) photographs were organized as consistent documentation of a project by whatever principles are relevant, such as the identification of potential hazardous areas in the community; (2) categorical structures were formulated such as the days photographs were taken, illegal waste disposal sites, play areas, entrepreneurial activities, social gatherings, religious activities, and sporting events; (3) the research question was reviewed to determine why the photographs were taken in the first place; (4) an observation was made to determine what was captured and what could be seen in the photographs; (5) similarities and differences were identified to determine whether there are consistency in activities taking place in the community on different days at the same time; (6) photographs were mapped to increase the dimensions of detail and the photographic profiles of the community was transferred onto a conventional map; (7) the visual information from the photographic observation was integrated with the written information from the focus group's discussions for the compilation of future reports.

RESULTS

Results pertaining to the focus group discussions highlighted five key elements that include the lack of waste containers, lack of waste removal services, carelessness of community members, children being at risk of injuries and lack of education on waste management and prevention techniques.

Photographic results verified the issues emphasised in the focus group discussions and also presented alternative findings of risk sites. The hazardous areas, mainly the illegal disposal sites, appeared to be the most frequently photographed areas where children seemed to be most at risk.

It was evident from the photographs that children do not have a safe play area - they opt for the streets, illegal disposal sites and old rusted vehicles. Also obvious is the health threat posed by illegal disposal sites in close proximity to homes. The potential injury risks related to the above key themes are poisonings, falls, cuts, burns, electrocution and traffic-related injuries.

DISCUSSION

Community-based interventions rarely target the actual community environment, rather they tend to focus on social issues such as teenage pregnancy, drug and alcohol addictions, HIV and AIDS and gang-related activities in communities. A further compelling reason for the limited research on environmental health and safety threats in informal settlements is the field's lack of research, or lack of concern, about the environmental conditions under which informal settlement residents have to live, and the complexity of fostering changes to these conditions.

Photographs appeared to have been very useful in providing additional information and visual proof to the focus group discussions. When the focus group discussions were conducted, the participants identified the illegal disposal sites as a health and safety hazard not only to children who play on or near these disposal sites, but also to the homes located in close proximity to the disposal sites. The illegal disposal sites were of biggest concern to the community, yet on a photographic assessment site visit, we noted that there are additional health risk concerns in this community.

Participants from the focus group discussions highlighted a few concerns, such as irregular refuse removal services, inadequate waste containers, carelessness of some community members, and inadequate play facilities for children who as a result play on or near illegal disposal sites, and in old rusted vehicles. We managed, with the use of photography, to identify all the above-mentioned concerns and additional hazardous areas such as unguarded vegetable gardens, children playing next to a busy road, and children swinging on loose-hanging electric wires.

Unguarded vegetable gardens pose a risk to children and residents who could enter and consume some of the vegetables sprayed with pesticides, causing possible poisoning. The photographs show that the absence of proper play facilities leaves children with no other option but to select the streets, old rusted vehicles and illegal disposal sites to play on. They play next to a busy road leading to an industrial area that is mostly used by



large trucks, leaving children at risk of being knocked down by these trucks. Children can be poisoned on these illegal disposal sites when they eat the degraded food found on the sites. Falls and cuts are also possible injuries when playing on these disposal sites. The photographs illustrated children using a loose-hanging electric wire as a swing. Children seemed cheerful taking turns to swing on this wire, unaware of the possibility of electrocution, which could result in severe injuries or even a fatality.

The camera is consequently seen as a tool that is able to control visual observation and provide the first step in evidence refinement that turns raw circumstances into data that is manageable in research analysis for evaluating and monitoring purposes (Pink, 2002). Not only is photography beneficial for monitoring and evaluating purposes, but it can also be used for the implementation of a community campaign by providing visual evidence of environmental degradation. For the implementation of this campaign, the photographs can be used as attachments to proposals advocating and lobbying for more service provision such as regular waste removal, fencing for the official waste disposal sites, and the development of safer play areas for the children.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, it was evident that photography has not only confirmed some of the findings highlighted in the focus group discussions, but has also provided additional information that could have been overlooked by participants. This permitted us to do a comparison of our findings and identify similarities and discrepancies in the findings. To strengthen the study, the information derived from both data collection methods was integrated to help conduct a needs analysis in the community.

Photographs could be used in future to conduct photo-talks, the aim being to explore the meanings residents attach to the photographs of their community, as well as how they understand their

community. It could also be used for evaluation and monitoring purposes to determine how well the campaign is received and is progressing in the community.

There are however, some limitations to the use of photographs. Photographs should not be used as the only data collection method for research, and should ideally be used in collaboration with other data collection methods to strengthen the implementation of any community campaign. Also, photographs represent reality as perceived and arranged by the photographer so the observer will only see what the photographer wants them to see.

Photographs appeared to be very effective in this study and could be used to work towards the implementation of effective community campaigns that would not only improve the environmental conditions in neglected communities, but also improve the quality of life for all residents.

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FACTORS IMPACTING ON THE CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION PROCESS IN CAPE TOWN

M. Prinsloo

INTRODUCTION

The World Health Organisation (WHO) considers violence to be a global public health problem and recorded a rate of 28 deaths per 100 000 population worldwide in 2000. The WHO believe that violence can be prevented as other public health efforts have prevented and reduced pregnancy-related complications, workplace injuries and infectious diseases among others, in many parts of the world. It is believed that the attitudinal and behavioural factors as well as the larger social, economic, political and cultural factors contributing to violent responses can be changed (Krug et al (eds), 2002).

The end of apartheid in South Africa in 1994 brought about economic, social and political transitions within the country, which resulted in rapid urbanisation, increased unemployment and inequalities (Chopra, et al, 2004). Increased incidences of crime and violence occurred as a result of these transitions. In 2000, the South African Police Service (SAPS) recorded approximately 2,58 million crimes. Of these, 610 000 (24%) went to court, and the prosecution service took 271 000 cases (11%) to trial. These resulted in approximately 211 000 convictions, which represented a conviction rate of 78% for cases going to trial, but

only 44% for cases going to court and an 8% conviction rate for the 2,58 million recorded cases (Schönteich, 2002a).

Schönteich (2002a) also reported that while the number of serious crimes increased by 24% between 1994 and 2000, the number of prosecutions decreased by 23% and convictions by 19%. This indicated that the chances of an offender being caught and punished consequently declined between 1994 and 2000.

For the city of Cape Town, homicide increased from 84 to 88 per 100 000 population during 1999 to 2001 (Prinsloo et al, 2003) and was identified as the main cause of premature mortality in 10 of the city's 11 sub-districts (Groenewald et al, 2003). The SAPS reported a national homicide rate of 47,4 per 100 000 population for the 2002-2003 financial year; and while a decrease of 29,5% was reported for homicide throughout South Africa from the 1994 to 2002-2003 financial year (SAPS, 2003a), homicide rates have increased in the Mpumalanga and Western Cape provinces (SAPS, 2003b). The SAPS faced many challenges in transforming the eleven South African Police Forces of the apartheid era to a combined South African Police Service in 1994. In Cape Town, public service restructuring to resolve racial imbalances led to the transfer

of investigating officers from specialised units to station level in other communities. This was not good for their morale - many were inundated with general crime dockets while having no motivation to probe cases properly (Anon, 2003). Many were faced with an uncertain future and left the service for private companies (Leggett, 2002).

A pilot study conducted in Cape Town during 2003 to determine victim-perpetrator relationships and motives for homicide that occurred in 1999, was hampered by difficulties in tracing police dockets, inconsistencies in data capturing, unknown police case numbers, the inaccessibility of certain dockets and the absence of perpetrator information due to some court cases not being finalised (Prinsloo, 2003). This resulted in difficulties to access information on victim demographics, perpetrator relations and motives for homicide, which is essential to inform policy development towards crime prevention strategies. These factors may be related to the transformation process that occurred within the SAPS.

It was therefore decided to conduct a study that aims to explore and compare the factors impacting on the criminal investigation



process, at two selected police stations in Cape Town, in order to identify any 'best practices' and constraints to an efficient crime investigative system. This study was conducted for the purpose of writing a mini thesis towards obtaining a Masters degree in Public Health. This article will provide a brief insight to the contextual environment and the attitudes of police officers regarding the transformation of the SAPS, and the factors impacting on the criminal investigation process.

METHODOLOGY

STUDY DESIGN AND SAMPLING

This descriptive, comparative, qualitative study used semi-structured interviews to document the procedures and route of reported crimes, as well as to explore the factors impacting on the criminal investigation process. Purposive sampling was used and one police station from the Eastern Metropole and one from the Western Metropole in Cape Town was selected. The stations were labelled numerically in order to ensure anonymity. Both stations were previously among those selected as part of the pilot study conducted in 2003 to determine victim-perpetrator relationships and motives for homicide that occurred in 1999.

Further criteria applied in the selection of these stations were according to their 'status', as determined by the Provincial Commissioner during each financial year. The 'status' of a police station in essence determines the support and resources allocated to them. 'Presidential' and 'priority' stations are allocated more in terms of resources and capacity than 'gang-infested' and 'normal' stations (Nyalinga et al, undated). Police Station 1 was classified as a 'normal' station, while Police Station 2 was classified as 'gang-infested' for the 2003-2004 financial year. Police Station 1 is situated in an urban, low-to-middle-income community and serves an approximate population of 78 000, whereas Police Station 2 is situated in a peri-urban, low-income community and serves approximately 120 000 people.

DATA COLLECTION

The study was conducted during 3 - 19 March 2004. The Senior Superintendents were handed a copy of the written permission granted by the Office of the Provincial Commissioner. The names of officers within the different units were established and followed-up for possible interviews. The units that were covered by the interviews were management, restructuring, human resources, logistics, the detective branch, court linkage, and crime prevention. All the officers who agreed to be interviewed were asked to sign a consent form, which stated the aim of the study and that confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained. It was decided to conduct individual interviews as opposed to focus group discussions, since it was probable that more in-depth information would be disclosed using this method.

The interviews were conducted with a total of 15 police officers at different ranks. At Police Station 1, six Inspectors, three Captains and the Senior Superintendent, also known as the Station Commissioner were interviewed. In order to maintain the police officers' anonymity, the quotes of the six Inspectors have been labelled 'A' to 'F', the three Captains 'H' to 'J' and Senior Superintendent 'Y'. At Police Station 2 there were five audio-recorded interviews and the participants were one Inspector, two Captains, one Superintendent and one Senior Superintendent or Station Commissioner. The quotes of the officers were labelled as Inspector 'G', Captains 'K' and 'L', Superintendent 'M' and Senior Superintendent 'X'. The 15 participants' years of service, both within the SAPS and the previous South African Police Force ranged from 14 to 29 years.

The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed during 4 - 24 March 2004 and were promptly read by the researcher upon reception. At times, the original cassettes were checked in order to ensure that the meanings of statements were not inadvertently altered during the transcription process.

DATA CODING AND ANALYSIS

The data was analysed using thematic content analysis. This was done separately for both police stations. Firstly, the transcripts were coded according to broad common statements that transpired through the interviews. The quotes selected from the transcripts were then grouped according to themes that emerged from the interviews. The results of the two police stations were then compared and will be reported on in the section to follow. Even though the interviews resulted in many interesting themes, the findings reported only focus on information relevant to the aim and objectives of the study and have been summarised from the mini thesis for the purpose of this article.

RESULTS SUMMARY

TRANSFORMATION

One of the most prominent changes during the transformation process was the change in rank structure from 'Commanders' to 'Managers' at station level. The Managers have to take cognisance of the police officers' rights as employees whereas the Commanders of the past were very 'militaristic'. One of the key themes that emerged from the interviews was the lack of discipline and respect that was created by this change.

Captain K: ...the Commanders, the discipline and the respect, and the way the job was done, [even though it was in a] militaristic manner, ...the job was done well ...The manager can do nothing...he can just talk ...when somebody gives us a small finger then we take the whole hand, and that is the scenario here.

When the Station Commissioners at both police stations were asked how restructuring and the Equity Act affected their specific police stations, the response at Police Station 1 was rather unclear

but he appeared pleased with the changes in general.

Senior Superintendent Y: ...you have to be careful when you answer a question like that...If there's no impact but if there's efficiency then yes, I don't see any problems ...here and there, you will pick up your misunderstanding of ...your unhappiness.

The response of the Station Commissioner at Police Station 2 was more explicit and it appears that the community was not always pleased with the service provided due to language barriers. It seemed like he did not agree with decisions made at national level that were generalised to, and enforced at provincial and community level.

Senior Superintendent X: ...The Equity Act that states that there must be so many coloureds and so many blacks and so many whites and so on. But, I personally feel that you should take it in a certain context. And to me there's no use...eh...putting national demographics on a province ...but what does the community want? ...and then I get community in this office telling me, 'I came to this station, I asked the people, I need the affidavit and then the police officials ask what is an affidavit?' Do you understand? ...I have nothing against change, ...but it's no use putting a person here ...that [the community] feel [they] cannot communicate to. Maybe we can... breach that gap by training, maybe.

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

According to the detectives at Police Station 1 the standard of recruitment was not the same as before and the low prerequisites for becoming detectives affected their status. An increased workload and having to work overtime without additional payment could also cause a lack of motivation in performing their tasks.

Inspector C: ...Detectives obviously, in the old days, that was the upper class policemen. Because he knows more, he's got more intelligence ...in the old days. Now ...there's too much stress on them. ...too much overtime to do work but they get the same salary. So there's nothing in it for the guys becoming detectives...

Inspector D: ...so in the old days, as he explained now, you have to ...eh... they will class you.

Inspector C: ...go into your background. ...then you get a six-month probation ...period ...at the station. Then after that, they will say he's fit to be a detective or not. Now, they stay. Once they're here, they stay.

A study conducted by Khumalo (2001) reported similar findings among the Gauteng Province detectives, who also suggested that the 'detective hiring policies and procedures' be improved. Both police stations experienced a reduction in detective staff since the policy changes in 1994. An increasing workload for those remaining created stressful working conditions, leading to more detectives being booked off by their doctors as a result of stress. This affected the remaining detective's productivity, especially at Police Station 2:





Superintendent M: I put it in this way. A couple of years ago, three or four years ago, there were 20 detectives at this station. Just from the detectives' side, there were 20 detectives to do the job. [pause] Now at this stage we have 11 on record, as I said of which today eight are off sick. Six of them are off with stress at this moment... and that's severely affecting our productivity at this stage. But not due to the fact that people aren't working. The fact remains that the burden gets bigger now.

The retirement of officers from the police service following its transformation appears to not be unique to South Africa. In 1989 Central and Eastern Europe had to decide between transforming their policing services according to Western models, but to also ensure broader economic, culturally sensitive and socio-political transformations. A sharp increase in police officers leaving the service occurred during the first two years of political changes in these 'post-socialist' countries. However, they differ from the South African situation, in that the number of new officers joining the service in Albania and Lithuania increased three-fold since 1992, while this was more moderate in Poland and Hungary (Koci, 1996).

TRAINING

Training methods seemed to have changed since 1994 from a previously militaristic manner to a softer approach or a 'kind of laissez-faire style'. The Station Commissioner at Police Station 1 especially emphasised the lack of discipline within training courses:

Senior Superintendent Y: ...the police members are being trained in a kind of laissez-faire style. ...They come to your classes as they like. ...When it comes to training, discipline must be there.

Even though a 'Performance Enhancement Programme' was reportedly in place, seven of the fifteen police officers interviewed mentioned that training courses were not regularly available, mainly 'due to financial constraints'. At both police stations senior police officers have to provide their new colleagues with in-service training, despite having to deal with their own workload, which impacts on the productivity of the station. A definite need or 'hope' for regular training courses was expressed by many of the police officers interviewed. According to a 2001 national survey, the United States police agencies have identified similar factors impacting on their crime clearance rates. Personnel strength, technology and training were identified as the main factors and were also in greatest need of additional funding and research (Horvath et al, 2001).

COURT IMPACT

Upon inquiring about the communication process and the relationship between the police officers and court prosecutors it was found that they mainly communicate via the docket. The prosecu-

tor returns the docket if further investigation is required. At both police stations the actual preparation of the docket and the collection of evidence were seen as causing the delay in taking the case to court. It could be that the collection of evidence and preparation of the docket for court impacted heavily on their workload. Waiting for the docket to return from the prosecutor was not problematic, since they had other cases to investigate. However, the number of dockets returned from the prosecutor for need of further investigation could be reduced if the detective and the prosecutor remain in contact throughout the investigation. The detectives also found case withdrawals very frustrating, especially if they thought to have thoroughly investigated a case:

Inspector C: ...you do a lot of work to get the docket prepared for court ...you can understand, they haven't got time as well, to get all the dockets ...through the court system. They're either withdrawn, but it's a lot of our time that's been wasted. Why didn't they withdraw the charge from the beginning?

An interesting comment by Leggett (2003) indicated that the prosecution would not accept cases that they perceive to be without adequate investigation, since their failure to secure a conviction after acceptance is seen as a negative performance indicator on their part.

CONSTRAINTS

The constraints to the officers efficiently performing their duties were identified as resources, organisational matters, social support/community factors and gangs/syndicates. At both police stations, the three main resource constraints were training, human resources and vehicles. Human resources were especially emphasised at Police Station 2 due to detectives booked off on stress leave. The closure of a unit that investigated petty crimes in 1992 led to an increasing workload for the detectives and there are many 'cold' or unsolved homicide cases at both police stations. Due to their high workload and limited staff both police stations have to prioritise certain cases.

At Police Station 1 the social support that the police provide to the community was identified as contributing to their already high workload. Whereas social problems were thought to be the responsibility of the Department of Social Services, the community always approached the police first. This appears to be an even bigger burden on the officers at Police Station 2:

Captain K: ...she comes to the police station. Then now I must take the van and take the lady there, ...so that they can help her. And then I must bring the lady back but in that same time, there's no vehicle to patrol the area ...you see.

Since Police Station 1 is situated in an urbanised central area, syndicates easily move in and out of the area due to the many railway stations and taxis available as 'escape routes'. As a result of Police Station 2 being situated in a gang-infested area, they

are often faced with the challenge of gaining the community's trust. Gangsters often intimidate the community with territorial threats.

SUPPORT STRATEGIES/CRIME PREVENTION

Crime Information Analysis and Area Patrol seem to be the standard crime prevention strategies at both police stations. Even though Police Station 2 has many detectives on stress leave, they seem to have a good Crime Office system in place in order to finalise petty crimes as soon as possible and they also record the profiles of suspicious and arrested persons. This assists them and other crime fighting agencies with the tracing of suspects. Besides their human resource constraints, they seem to be running a successful system, as one of the officers stated:

Captain L: ...Just yesterday we were complimented by the zone ...eh...Commissioner. And he said that 'Police Station 2' is the only station that's running this whole system well. That's why we're having some good successes

According to the Station Commissioner at Police Station 2, he currently expects the conviction rate to increase since support strategies to reduce the number of dockets for investigation are in place. However, the comment made by Leggett (2003) regarding conviction failures as a negative performance indicator for prosecutors, makes one wonder if convictions should perhaps be a sole accountability assigned to one of the two departments or whether this only emphasises the need for closer collaboration between the police and prosecutors.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Police Station 2 should be taken into consideration to become either a Presidential or Priority station during the next financial year.
- The interviews with the police officers revealed that a lack of human resources is perhaps not the only reason for the challenges faced by some police stations. There are various issues of management at national and provincial level that need to be addressed.
- The detective 'recruitment standards' requires improvement, yet this cannot be expected without the improvement of training courses.
- An increase in detective and conviction rates cannot be expected when senior officers have to devote the majority of their time to in-service training of new recruits, and an alternative method or solution to this type of training should be sought.
- Addressing the alternative management of less severe or petty crimes will enable detectives to devote their time to the investigation of more serious crimes and the many unsolved or 'cold' homicide cases.
- The Department of Social Services should be made more



accessible to those communities in need of their assistance.

- There is a need for closer collaboration between the police and prosecutors. The communication process and relationship between police officers and prosecutors could be improved to address issues concerning case withdrawals and to reduce the number of dockets returned from the prosecutor for need of further investigation.
- Further research is required to gain the courts' and prosecutors' perspectives regarding performance indicators for prosecutors and the accountability for conviction rates.

CONCLUSION

The South African Police Service has achieved many successes during the years of transformation since 1994. Yet the results and ensuing recommendations of this study show that there are various challenges that remain to be addressed. A possible limitation or criticism of this study could be that the results cannot be generalised to the entire SAPS. However, blockages within the South African criminal justice system have been identified as far back as 1996 (Schönteich, 2002b), again in 2000 and 2004 following two studies on intimate femicide (Vetten, 2003; Mathews et al, 2004). It was also identified in a 2001 study to assess the accountability of Gauteng detectives (Khumalo, 2001), in a 2003 pilot study to determine the victim-perpetrator relationships and motives for homicide (Prinsloo, 2003) and again by this study. The question therefore remains as to how many studies still need to be conducted before these issues are addressed.

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ANALYSIS OF CITY-LEVEL INJURY PREVENTION INITIATIVES: THE CITY OF TSHWANE

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INTRODUCTION

A city-level study of three cities was initiated as a result of the research partnership between Unisa Institute for Social and Health Sciences (South Africa) and Karolinska Institutet (Sweden). The primary objectives of the city-level study are as follows:

- To utilise the available injury surveillance findings generated in the City of Tshwane (Gauteng Province, South Africa), Borås (Sweden) and Kaunas (Lithuania) to stimulate and inform violence and injury prevention initiatives.
- To document and evaluate the resultant outcomes and injury impacts adopted by the respective city-level authorities and governments in response to the injury surveillance data presented to them.

The Unisa Institute for Social and Health Sciences is committed to the success of the city level study. To date, the following tasks have been completed: A city-level literature review; the City of Tshwane stakeholder analysis; injury profile report for the city of Tshwane; the City of Tshwane service directory; review of the existing response from the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipal Council; South African Police Services; groups of injury prevention agencies as well as non-governmental organisations. This article gives a brief injury profile of the City of Tshwane and the existing injury prevention initiatives developed by the City. In conclusion, the article will describe the status quo of the data and the city's response in order to clear any existing gap between the two.

**INJURY
AND SAFETY
MONITOR**

INJURY PROFILE FOR THE CITY OF TSHWANE

In accordance with the injury priorities identified by the Tshwane Non-natural Mortality Report, this document covers homicide and transport related injuries as the two key areas to be targeted for prevention action.

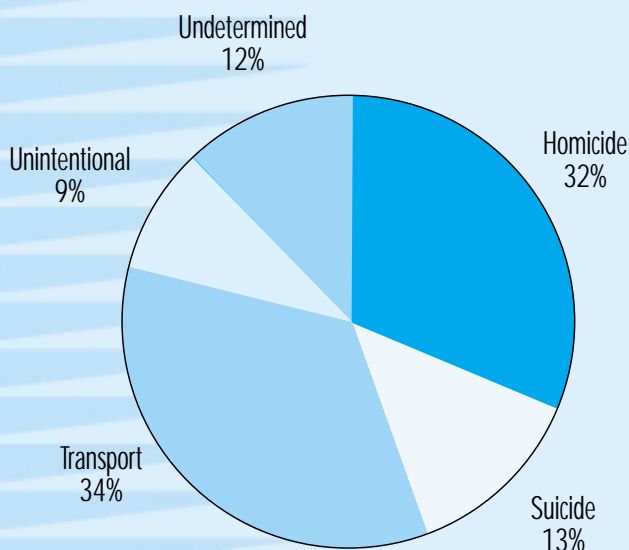


Figure 1: Manner of non-natural death, 2002 (N=2501)

MANNER OF NON-NATURAL DEATH

For 2002, a total of 2501 non-natural deaths were recorded for the Tshwane Metro:

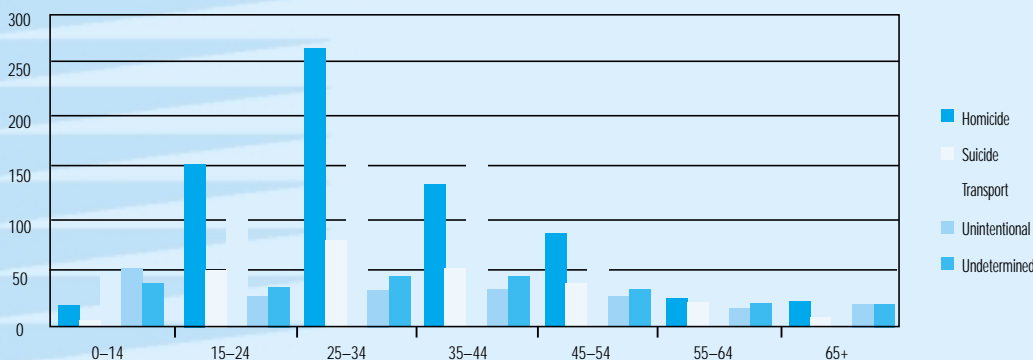
- **Transport related fatalities** were the leading manner of non-natural death in the Tshwane Metro for the year 2002.
- This was closely followed by homicide, which accounted for 32% of the 2501 recorded deaths.
- **Suicide** (13%), unintentional injury deaths (9%) and cases where the manner of death were not determined (12%) constituted the remaining injury mortality figures for the Metro.
- **Homicide- and Transport-related mortality** comprise 66% of all non-natural deaths in Tshwane.

MANNER OF DEATH BY VICTIM AGE

The average age of the victims was 34.8 (± 16.5) years.

The leading manner of death amongst the:

- 0-14 age group was unintentional injuries namely burns, falls, drowning and other reasons (34.5%) followed by transport (31.1%);
- 15-24 age group was homicide (37.7%) followed by transport (31.1%);
- 25-34 age group was homicide (41.8%) followed by transport (30.6%);
- 35-44 age group was transport (37.9%);
- 45-54 age group was transport (32.8%);
- 55-64 age group was transport (38.8%); and
- 65+ age group was transport (38.3%).



METHODOLOGY

This summarised article is part of the city-level study that investigated the injury prevention initiatives of the City of Tshwane. The following variables were identified to describe prevention programmes: scope, geographical location, setting (rural or urban), type of organisation, sector, source of funding, prevention level, intervention strategies (education, engineering, psycho-education and/or law enforcement), nature of prevention, targeted group (sex, victim-perpetrator) and income-level.

SAMPLE

The first point of consultation in this process was the National Department of Social Services. The department provided a short list of services available in the City of Tshwane. The researcher then contacted all agencies listed as well as following a snowballing sampling technique to identify programmes. A sample of 30 organisations was selected in the Tshwane Metropolitan area. Only organisations that offered crime, violence and injury prevention programmes were included. The consent to conduct interviews was obtained from the programme managers of each non-governmental organisation and for the governmental organisations, consent was obtained from the Departmental head office. Face to face and telephonic interviews were used in order to collect detailed information about the different organisations and their activities.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Thirty projects on injury prevention were identified at the Tshwane municipal level. They were analysed across the matrix. Data was analysed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software programme. Descriptive statistics of mean, standard deviation, frequency and range were used for the identified variables.

FINDINGS IN BRIEF

A total of 30 organisations providing violence and injury prevention programmes were extracted and documented information were gathered to supplement data collected during the interview sessions. Of the 30 organisations, 25 (83.3%) were non-governmental, 3 (10.0%) were religion-based organisations, and the remaining 2 (6.7%) were government organisations. The 30 identified organisations (note that some organisations had branches in more than one part of the city) were distributed as follows: 18 were located in the city centre, 13 organisations were located in Black townships (Mamelodi, Atteridgeville, Soshanguve, Garankuwa, Hammanskraal and Winterveld), 5 were situated outside the City of Tshwane although they worked in Tshwane, and 3 organisations were situated in suburban areas. Most of the organisations were operating in two or more areas simultaneously.

Seven of these organisations focus on primary prevention, 19 focus on secondary prevention and 4 of these focus on tertiary prevention. The intervention strategies focussed mainly on psycho-educational dimensions (19 interventions), educational (15), law enforcement (4), and engineering (3). Several organisations have adopted two or more types of intervention. Twenty four of the programmes focus on sexual and physical abuse, followed by violence and crime prevention (18 programmes), psychological abuse, and neglect which accounted for 1 programme each. Most (27) of the programmes were targeted at both male and females, with 2 programmes targeting females only and 1 programme targeting only males. The programmes were primarily focused on victims, with 5 of these focussing on both victim and perpetrators and 1 on perpetrators only. Of the 30, 14 of the programmes were directed at the general population, followed by youth programmes (14) and adults (2).

TABLE 1 shows the funding of programmes in accordance to the prevention level. Of the 7 organisations dealing with primary prevention, 5 received funding from corporate businesses, 1 from government, 6 from churches, 1 from a research institution, and one from an individual donor. As for secondary prevention, 1 were funded by a bank, 8 by corporate business, 13 by government, 3 by churches, one by a research institution, and 3 by individual donors. Of all the organisation covering the tertiary prevention level, 1 are funded by a bank, 1 by corporate business 1 by a church and 1 by an individual donor.

TABLE 2 shows the type of organisations and the funders contributing to their programmes. Of all the non-governmental organisation, 14 received funding from corporate businesses, 9 from government, 5 from churches, 5 individual donors, and 2 from banks. Of all the religious organisation, 3 received funds from government, and 1 received funds from churches. Both of the government organisations are funded by governmental departments with an additional 1 being funded by individual donors.

Twenty-five of the 30 organisations (Table 3) were non-governmental, 3 were religious and 2 organisations were from the government. Of the 25 non-governmental organisations, 14 operated at secondary level, 7 at primary level and 4 at tertiary level. All three religious and both governmental organisations were operating at secondary level.

Of the 30 organisations recorded, most of them were employing two or more intervention strategies (Table 4). Of the 25 non-governmental organisations operating, intervention strategies could be classified as psycho-educational (16), educational (12), law enforcement (3) and engineering (2). Of the 3 religious organisations, the findings were as follows: 2 were educational programmes, followed by one psycho-educational, one engineering and one law enforcement programme each. Government organisations were involved in two psycho-educational, and one case of educational intervention.

SUMMARY

In summary, results revealed that:

- More programmes dealing with crime and violence prevention are located in the centre of the City with fewer organisations located in black townships where violence is dominant (More homicide cases were reported in black townships in 2002 compared to the suburb areas and the City centre - *Ishwane Non-natural Mortality Report, 2002*).
- Seventy-two percent (23) of the organisations helping in terms of violence and injury prevention were operating at both secondary and tertiary levels, with only 7 (28%) operating at a primary level.
- Primary prevention programmes were mostly funded by corporate businesses and by churches.
- Secondary prevention programmes were mostly funded by government.
- There is a gap between injury data profile in black townships and prevention resources (injury prevention programmes) accessible to them.
- There is poor coverage on road traffic injuries (pedestrian injury).
- More programmes focus on victims with very few covering perpetrators.

TABLE 1 FUNDING AND PREVENTION LEVEL

Received funding from:		Primary level prevention	Secondary level prevention	Tertiary level	Total
Organisations/prevention		N=7	N=19	N=4	N=30
Bank	Yes	0	1 (5.3%)	1 (25%)	2 (6.7%)
	No	7 (100%)	18 (94.7%)	3 (75%)	28 (93.3%)
Corporate	Yes	5 (71.4%)	8 (42.1%)	1 (25%)	14 (46.7%)
	No	2 (28.6%)	11 (57.9%)	3 (75%)	16 (53.3%)
Government	Yes	1 (14.3%)	13 (68.4%)	0	14 (46.7%)
	No	6 (85.7%)	6 (31.6%)	4 (100%)	16 (53.3%)
Church	Yes	2 (28.6)	3 (15.8%)	1 (25%)	6 (20%)
	No	5 (71.4%)	16 (84.2%)	3 (75%)	24 (80%)
Research institution	Yes	1 (14.3%)	1 (5.3%)	0	2 (6.7%)
	No	6 (85.7%)	18 (94.7%)	4 (100%)	28 (93.3%)
Individual donors	Yes	1 (14.3%)	3 (15.8%)	2 (50%)	6 (20%)
	No	6 (85.7%)	16 (84.2%)	2 (50%)	30 (80%)

TABLE 2 FUNDERS AND ORGANISATION TYPE

Received funding from:		NGOs	Religious	Government	Total
		N= 25	N= 3	N= 2	N=30
Bank	Yes	2 (8.0%)	0	0	2 (6.7%)
	No	23 (92%)	3 (100%)	2 (100%)	28 (93.3%)
Corporate	Yes	14 (56.0%)	0	0	14 (46.7%)
	No	11 (44%)	3 (100%)	2 (100%)	16 (53.3%)
Government	Yes	9 (36%)	3 (100.0%)	2 (100.0%)	14 (46.7%)
	No	16 (64%)	0	0	16 (53.3%)
Church	Yes	5 (20.0%)	1 (33.3%)	0	6 (20%)
	No	20 (80%)	2 (66.7%)	2 (100%)	24 (80%)
Research institution	Yes	2 (8.0%)	0	0	2 (6.7%)
	No	23 (92%)	3 (100%)	2 (100%)	28 (93.3%)
Individual donors	Yes	5 (20.0%)	0	1 (50.0%)	6 (20%)
	No	20 (80%)	3 (100%)	1 (50%)	30 (80%)

TABLE 3 ORGANISATION TYPE AND PREVENTION LEVEL

Prevention level	NGOs	Religious	Governmental	Total
Primary	7 (28%)	0	0	7 (23.3%)
Secondary	14 (56%)	3 (100%)	2 (100%)	19 (63%)
Tertiary	4 (16%)	0	0	4 (13.3%)
Total	25 (100%)	3 (100%)	2 (100%)	30 (100%)

TABLE 4 ORGANISATION TYPE AND INTERVENTION STRATEGY

Intervention strategies used:		NGOs	Religious	Governmental	Total
		N=25	N=3	N=2	N=30
Psycho-educational	Yes	16 (64%)	1 (33.3%)	2 (100%)	19 (63.3%)
	No	9 (36%)	2 (66.7%)	0	11 (36.7%)
Educational	Yes	12 (48%)	2 (66.7%)	1 (50%)	15 (50%)
	No	13 (52%)	1 (33.3%)	1 (50%)	15 (50%)
Engineering	Yes	2 (8%)	1 (33.3%)	0	3 (10%)
	No	23 (92%)	2 (66.7%)	2 (100%)	27 (90%)
Law enforcement	Yes	3 (12%)	1 (33.3%)	0	4 (13.3%)
	No	22 (88%)	2 (66.7%)	2 (100%)	26 (86.7%)

CONCLUSION

The findings indicated a gap between homicide and transport-related injury data and responses in terms of injury prevention initiatives. The injury profile indicated more cases of homicide in Mamelodi and Atteridgeville, and the responses in turn indicated very few programmes available in those areas (Tshwane Non-natural Mortality Report, 2002). The injury profile data revealed the need for injury

prevention programmes in those areas. The results further indicated the need for more programmes focusing on primary prevention. Finally more funds should be distributed to primary prevention so as to encourage more organisations to shift from secondary and tertiary to primary prevention in order to prevent injuries at an earlier stage. For example, bullying programme for preschool and primary school going children.

HOME VISITATION FOR THE PREVENTION OF CHILDHOOD INJURY

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MRC-UNISA Crime, Violence & Injury Lead Programme, Cape Town

Home visitation programmes (HVP) have been singled out in the literature as a moderately effective intervention for the reduction and prevention of unintentional (accidental) childhood injury (Berger & Mohan, 1996). HVPs are generally characterised as multi-focused because they employ several strategies to reduce childhood injury in and around the home. These strategies include parental education, implicit enforcement of safety practices, product demonstration and engineering solutions (Barnard, 1998).

In 2001, the Crime, Violence and Injury Lead Programme (CVILP) commenced the development of a HVP. The main objective of this project is to develop an intervention that is effective, replicable and appropriate to our South African context (Grobler, 1993). The conceptualisation, development and planning of the HVP was conducted over a period of two years. In 2003, the HVP intervention was extensively piloted in four sites.

In October 2004, the HVP was implemented in two sites: Nomzamo in the Western Cape and Slovo Park in Gauteng. A representative sample of 200 households was selected from each site to participate in the study. Half of each sample was selected as the intervention group and the other half as the control group. Local safety promotion teams from each of the two communities assisted with the intervention. The safety promotion teams provided staff for data collectors and the home visitors.

- 1) Prior to the implementation of the HVP intervention, a pre-assessment gathering baseline data was conducted.
- 2) The HVP intervention comprised four safety visits, each presenting a specific safety topic and various intervention strategies.
- 3) The post-assessment is to be conducted once all the home visits have been completed.
- 4) The process evaluation will monitor the actual intervention and rely on three primary sources of information: the caregiver, the home visitor and the HVP project staff members.
- 5) An additional means of assessing risk and identifying injury risk in and around the home is the development of a systematic photographic assessment procedure. It is expected that this form of assessment will provide an additional indicator to assess the impact of the HVP.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE INTERVENTION

I) HVP HOME VISITOR RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND TRAINING

The home visitors underwent rigorous training and assessment. The training commenced with interpersonal skills, interviewing skills and diary keeping (note-taking). Further training included content on four safety topics: burns, falls, poisoning and child development. Child development was selected as a safety topic because childhood injuries are related to the development of the child (U.S. Department of Health

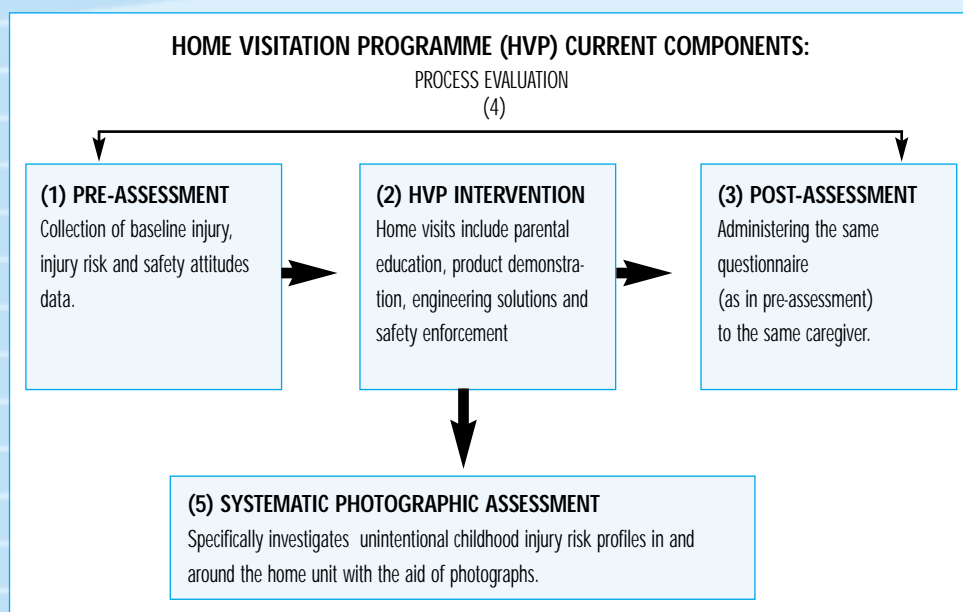
and Human Services and Head Start, 1986b). For example, children are naturally curious and injuries often tend to occur when children explore and engage with their environment (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Head Start, 1986b).

Two research trainees conducted the training for interpersonal skills, interviewing skills and child development. The training sessions were conducted in English and Xhosa and were presented in the form of small group training, role-plays, discussions, presentations, and videos on different safety topics. A training video based on the protocol for the actual home visit complemented the training so that the home visitors were able to familiarise themselves with the practical aspect of the home visit. The training video practically demonstrates how the home visitor should interact with the caregiver while introducing the HVP, obtaining informed consent, sharing information and concluding the visit by making the next appointment. For each safety topic a second refresher training session was conducted for an hour on the same day as the first home visit on the topic.

After the training the home visitors were assessed on their ability to perform tasks required for the intervention. Although the first assessments revealed that volunteers were able to identify hazards in the home environment and provide appropriate suggestions as to the creation of a safer environment, home visitors lacked an adequate understanding of the procedures for the home visits, as well as the safety messages they should share with the caregiver. Additional training was conducted paying special attention to the procedures for the home visits as well as the specific content of the injury prevention messages they were expected to share with the parents. In Nomzamo, ten volunteers were selected as home visitors while fourteen visitors were selected from Slovo Park.

II) HVP DATA COLLECTOR RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND TRAINING

The data collectors received meticulous training on completing the pre/post assessment questionnaire. Similar to the home visitors, the data collectors were also required to introduce the HVP and gain informed consent from the caregivers selected to participate in the study. The data collectors conducted the pre-assessment (collection of baseline data) as well as the post-assessment. Among the challenges faced by the data collectors were the absence of caregivers at home during the day, primarily due to them either being employed or seeking employment. As a result the data collectors filled their quota of questionnaires by interviewing the caregivers either in the evenings or over weekends. Similar to the home visitors, the data collectors were also assessed on their ability to perform tasks required for their data collection. The assessment revealed that some of the data collectors experienced difficulty in understanding questions that included a 'skip' and 'if yes' or 'if no' option. Additional training was conducted specifically focusing on these problematic items. After a second assessment had been conducted, nine data collectors were selected for each of the study sites.



III) HVP INTERVENTION IMPLEMENTATION

The intervention group comprised of a sample of 100 households from each study site. In Nomzamo, ten home visitors were selected which meant that each home visitor was assigned to visit ten households per safety topic. Slovo Park recruited fourteen home visitors, therefore twelve of the home visitors visited seven households per safety topic and the remaining two home visitors visited eight households for each safety topic. This HVP intervention comprised four home visits. The home visits employ four main intervention strategies: parental education, implicit enforcement of safety practices, product demonstration and engineering solutions. The inclusion of strategies like the use of a checklist monitoring injury risk in and around the home can serve as a passive means of enforcing compliance. With the home visitor employing a checklist on each safety visit, the caregiver is likely to monitor hazards in and around the home, thus minimising injury risk.

For each visit a specific safety topic is discussed with the main caregiver of the child. The first visit covered information on child development followed by burns, poisoning and falls. The home visitors presented each safety topic over a period of two weeks. In total, the home visitor will visit the same caregiver four times over a period of eight weeks. Three of the four safety visits will be conducted this year while the final safety visit will be conducted in late January 2005.

For each home visit, caregivers will receive a safety gift. The home visitors were trained either to demonstrate how the product (e.g. childproof safety cap) is used or to explain the information presented on the pamphlets or charts. Apart from the safety gifts being an incentive for caregivers to participate in the study, the rationale was to provide caregivers with a safety gift that was not only appropriate for the safety topic but also items that are relevant and necessary which could be used in their homes. Safety gifts included information charts on the milestones of child

development, burn shields, paraffin storage cans with childproof safety caps and a small first aid kit containing Dettol, plasters and cotton wool.

IV) HVP POST-ASSESSMENT

A post-assessment will be conducted with the selected 200 households in the two study sites, including both the intervention and control group. The data collectors will administer the same questionnaire to the same caregiver as in the pre-assessment. The post-assessment will only be conducted once all the home visits have been completed in February 2005. The data collectors will undergo a refresher training session to re-acquaint themselves with the content of the questionnaire as well as with the application thereof. The post-assessment data will provide an indication of how effective the HVP intervention has been.

V) PROCESS EVALUATION

The process evaluation will rely on three primary sources of information: the caregiver, the home visitor and the HVP project staff members. The evaluation process will utilise four methods of data collection:

- A diary pro-forma, which is to be completed by the home visitor for each of the safety visits.
- The caregivers will assess the safety visit as well as the home visitor.
- An HVP staff member is to observe the intervention visit if he/she receives consent from the caregiver and home visitor.
- The home visitors' assessment of the HVP staff members and the site co-ordinators.

The process evaluation of the HVP includes a pre-determined set of indicators, which monitors the various components of the intervention. Apart from obtaining information on the quality of the visit, these assessments also provide information on the fidelity of the core programme delivery, which is an important determinant

of the success of the programme. A battery of assessments has been conducted at specific times during the intervention. Some of the assessments included weekly notes from home visitors, home visitor assessment of the site co-ordinators, staff members and caregivers as well as the HVP. Data collected from the various assessment measures will be consolidated and analysed.

It is expected that the process evaluation data will provide some information about the process of the HVP intervention and thus provide recommendations for consolidating and refining future interventions.

VI) SYSTEMATIC PHOTOGRAPHIC ASSESSMENT

An additional means of assessment involves a systematic visual examination, analysis and documentation of the interior and the immediate perimeter of homes. This study is specifically directed at identifying unintentional childhood home injury risks as well as identifying household structural, environmental and product risks that are expected to be related to childhood burn, fall or poison injuries in and around the home unit. Even though this assessment was not specifically a component of the current HVP, a pilot was conducted in 68 households in one low-income community in Gauteng in October 2003. In December 2003, a second photographic assessment was conducted in the same 68 households. The next assessment phase is to conduct focus group discussions with the caregivers from these 68 households. Data from the photographic assessment and focus groups discussion will be incorporated and analysed with the intention of clarifying the risks prevalent in the participating homes, and to assist in the development of an appropriately rigorous procedure to taking these photographs. It is expected that this form of assessment will provide an additional indicator to assess the impact of future HVPs.

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