FOREIGN OBJECT INSERTION IN SEXUAL HOMICIDE CASES: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

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A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER ARTIUM

In the Department of Social Work and Criminology at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

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March 2007

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I herewith wish to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude towards the following individuals:

My supervisor, **Professor Aubrey Theron**, for his invaluable input, guidance and patience.

My colleagues at the Investigative Psychology Unit of the South African Police Service, **Superintendent JH de Lange** and **Captain EA Myburgh**, for their support throughout the years.

The hard-working **detectives** of the South African Police Service, truly some of the most intelligent people I have ever had the honour of meeting.

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SUMMARY

TITLE: Foreign object insertion in sexual homicide cases: an exploratory study

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DEPARTMENT: Social Work and Criminology

DEGREE: Magister Artium

Foreign object insertion into the vagina of a murder victim is a rare occurrence. When it is encountered it is often seen as an indicator of a sexual murder, or regarded for signature analysis purposes. Due to its rare occurrence it is often only documented in literature in case-study form. In this research seventeen cases of vaginal foreign object insertion were analysed, by far the largest study of this occurrence to date. Cases were only included in the research if the object was still in the vagina when the body was discovered. The research set out to determine the typical victim profile, crime-scene actions, and offender profile, with the intention of assisting in the profiling of these crimes in the future. There were distinct differences amongst the victims in terms of race, occupation, time of death, cause of death, circumstances and area of the crimes. Only six of the seventeen crimes had been solved, yet amongst the eight known offenders certain common characteristics were observed.

KEY TERMS

Foreign object insertion; sexual murder; offender profiling; investigative psychology; South African Police Service; signature analysis; serial murder; victimology; murder; investigation

1. DEFINING CONCEPTS, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Murder has occurred and fascinated people throughout the centuries. The first recorded murder is found in the Bible where the murder of Abel by Cain is described. Fascination with murder stems from the view that the taking of another person's life is the most serious of all crimes. While the taking of a murderer's life was condoned in the past, a viewpoint that emerged during the twentieth century is that the legal taking of another person's life also constitutes murder. On account of this many western governments have decided to ban capital punishment (Siegel, 2000). With the democratisation of South Africa after 1994, the new Constitution led to the abolishment of capital punishment (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

Murder should not be seen as homogenous behaviour. Different types of murders occur, each with a different motive and modus operandi. A contract murder of a rival businessman is qualitatively different from a husband who murders his wife upon discovering that she has had an extra-marital affair. It is when attention is focused on the realm of murders that are psychologically motivated, such as serial, sexual, and crime-of-passion murders, that evidence of the psychological motivation can be seen on the crime-scene (Burgess, Hartman, Ressler, Douglas & McCormack, 1986; Geberth, 2003; Hickey, 2002; Holmes & Holmes, 2002; Keppel, 1995; Keppel, 2000; Keppel & Walter, 1999; Pistorius, 1996; Rajs, Lundström, Broberg, Lidberg & Lundquist, 1998; Ressler, Burgess, Hartman, Douglas, & McCormack,1986b, Salfati, 2000).

1.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVATION AND THE CRIME-SCENE

Evidence of a psychological motivation on a crime-scene can be seen in various ways. These include excessive violence to the body, mutilation of the body, removal of body parts, and insertion of a foreign object into the genitals of the victim (Geberth, 2003; Holmes & Holmes, 2002; Rossmo, 2000; Watanabe & Tamura, 2001). When evidence of a psychologically motivated murder exists investigators may turn to the use of an offender profile to assist them in understanding the motive for the crime and for an indication of the type of suspect who could have committed that crime (Labuschagne, 2003a). Despite the use of offender profiling to gain some understanding of the motive

for committing murder, a dearth of knowledge exists regarding the psychological motivation for committing various types of murder.

International research into murders with these types of characteristics is limited. Studies (Keppel, 1995, 2000) that have focused specifically on foreign object insertion, as one expression of a psychological motivation, are often single case studies. Alternatively foreign object insertion is listed as one of many behaviours allowing investigators to classify a crime-scene as being organised or disorganised (Ressler, Burgess & Douglas, 1988). This classification has come under criticism. From the classification of a crime-scene as being organised or disorganised an offender profiler can supposedly make certain deductions about the offender. Foreign object insertion is also one of many crime-scene behaviours that are used to classify a murder as a sexual murder when it occurs (Geberth, 2003, Ressler et al., 1988).

1.2 CRIME STATISTICS IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa has a high rate of serious crime (Coetzee, 1996). According to the South African Police Service (SAPS) official crime statistics, from April 2002 until March 2003 a total of 21 553 murders were committed in a population of 44,8 million (South African Police Service, n.d.). This figure shows that an average of 59 murders are committed per day. In Table 1 the murder figure for each province is given.

Table 1
April 2002 - March 2003 Murder Figures per Province

Province	Number of murders	% of total number of murders
kwaZulu-Natal	5 405	25,08
Gauteng	4 830	22,40
Western Cape	3 664	16,99
Eastern Cape	3 365	15,62
North West	1 143	5,30
Mpumalanga	1 050	4,87
Free State	957	4,44
Limpopo	706	3,28
Northern Cape	433	2,02
Total	21 553	100,00

Note: Adapted from South African Police Service (n.d.). *Crime statistics 2002/2003.*

The attempted murder figure for this time period was 35 861, while reported rapes numbered 52 425. These figures include a large number of psychologically motivated crimes like serial murder, *muti*-murder (murder where the intention is to obtain human body parts for use in traditional African medicines) (Labuschagne, 2004), sexual murder, serial rape, family murder and spree murder. The murder figure also includes sexual murders involving foreign object insertion.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) (n.d.) reports that a total of 16 204 homicides occurred in the United States of America (USA) during 2002. Based on figures of the US Census Bureau (n.d.) the USA has a population of 292 852 284. The 2002 figures for Australia show that a total of 318 homicides, 396 attempted murders and 17 850 sexual assaults occurred in a population of 20 009 587 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, n.d.).

No statistics exist as to how often foreign object insertion in sexual homicides occurs in these countries. It can, however, be said that foreign object insertion is a rare phenomenon in the USA and Europe (Keppel, 1995).

Before stating the problem and discussing the needs and aims of the research it is necessary to define certain key concepts central to the research.

1.3 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

In this section the key concepts relevant to this study will be operationally defined. This is necessary as in the scientific community, especially when a field is in its infancy as is the field of offender profiling, there can be a heated debate as to the “correct” definition of a term, and also to make it clear to other researchers how the concept was used in the specific study. In this research the key concepts which will be defined are: psychologically motivated crimes, sexual murder, foreign object insertion, and offender profiling. In later chapters some of these concepts will be further elaborated upon.

1.3.1 Psychologically motivated crimes

The majority of crimes have an external motivation, and are property related (Rossmo, 2000). An offender who, for example, hi-jacks a car for which he has an order, is

motivated to commit the crime as he will receive payment for the delivery of the vehicle (Davis, 2003). In the case of external motivation the crime serves as a stepping-stone for the offender to obtain a concrete reward such as money, the external motive. One could argue in simplistic terms that if the criminal was given the same amount of money, prior to the commission of the crime, he would have refrained from committing it.

Although it is undeniably true that many crimes have an external motivation, Egger (2002) states that “most homicides occur because of an interpersonal conflict between a killer and a victim who have a prior relationship” (p. 4). This sentiment is echoed by Rossmo (2000) and Hickey (2006b). In other words, the motivation for a murder could be either internal and/or external. Two examples are a business deal (external) that went sour leading to one partner murdering the other, or a crime-of-passion (internal) where the husband murders his wife after her having an affair.

With a psychologically motivated crime there is no external benefit for the offender, and victims may tend to be strangers. In other words, there is often no prior relationship that led to the victim being selected. The crime itself is the reward or motive for the offender. Stated differently, such offenders satisfy their need(s) by means of committing the crime. The idea of the crime itself begins within the individual and is not directly dependant on external circumstances, as would have been the case in a crime-of-passion, which involves a history and escalation of events between two people.

Many psychologically motivated crimes have a sexual component. These crimes include serial murder, paedophilic child molestation, stalking, serial rape, single sexual murder, spree murder and mass murder. In these, the crime is not a means to an end, but an end in itself.

With regards to sexual murder, Grubin (1994) states that the murderers are driven by fantasy and that their offences occur in the absence of external stimuli. Fantasy that develops over years could also be acted out in reality (DeHart & Mahoney, 1994; Grubin, 1994; Johnson & Becker, 1997; Labuschagne, 2001a; Myers & Blashfield, 1997; Myers, Burgess & Nelson, 1998). Grubin’s view of the absence of external stimuli seems to ignore situations such as voluntary sexual encounters, for example with a sex-worker,

that can lead to the offender experiencing humiliation (such as being unable to maintain an erection), which could lead to a sexual murder.

Some authors (Myers et al., 1998; Revitch & Schlesinger, 1989) refer to a catathymic process that takes place within the individual. This process occurs when the offender's psychological equilibrium is overwhelmed by powerful emotions, often from conflicted relationships. As a result extreme, unprovoked violence is shown as the tension is released.

A psychologically motivated crime will be defined in this research by the following:

i) There is no external or material benefit for the offender.

ii) The offender satisfies an internal or psychological need by committing the crime.

iii) The victims tend to be strangers.

iv) The crimes tend to be serial in nature.

v) There is often an overt or covert sexual theme.

Now sexual murder, as a specific example of a psychologically motivated crime, will be defined.

1.3.2 Sexual murder

Various definitions for sexual murder exist but most overlap to a large extent. Most emphasize that the killing of the victim is intentional and contains sexual behaviour (Beech, Fisher & Ward, 2005). One of the most established definitions was formulated by Ressler et al. (1988). They define sexual murder as

> murders with evidence or observations that indicate that the murder was sexual in nature. These include: victim attire or lack of attire; exposure of the sexual parts of the victim's body; sexual positioning of the victim's body; insertion of foreign objects into the victim's body cavities; evidence of sexual intercourse (oral, anal, vaginal); and evidence of substitute sexual activity, interest, or sadistic fantasy. (p. xiii)

In the *Crime Classification Manual* (CCM), Douglas, Burgess, Burgess and Ressler (1992) define sexual murder as involving a sexual element (activity), which is the basis for the acts leading to the death of the victim. The performance of these acts and the meaning of the sexual element vary from offender to offender. The acts may range from rape involving penetration (pre- or post-mortem), to symbolic sexual assault such as foreign object insertion into the victim's body cavities. In the CCM they further subdivide sexual homicide into organised sexual homicide, disorganised sexual homicide, mixed sexual homicide, and sadistic murder.

Meloy's (2000) definition closely parallels that of Douglas et al. (1992) and Ressler et al. (1988). He defines sexual murder as "the intentional killing of a person during which there is sexual behavior by the perpetrator" (Meloy, 2000, p. 2). He states that the sexual behaviour might have occurred before, during or after the murder or throughout all three of these phases. The behaviour could range from conscious fantasy, to physiological arousal, to masturbation, or actual penetration (oral, anal or vaginal) of the victim with a variety of objects, animate or inanimate. Sexual behaviour can also be symbolically expressed through the mutilation of the victim's genitals.

In this research a sexual murder will be defined as a murder with evidence to suggest a sexual component to the crime. The crime-scene would therefore suggest a sexual interest or fantasy on behalf of the offender. This may include removal of the victim's clothing, exposure of the victim's genitals or breasts, sexual positioning of the body, evidence of oral, vaginal or anal penetration, and semen on the body or crime-scene. This can include a sexually symbolic act such as the insertion of a foreign object into one of the victim's orifices. It is important to stress that sexual murder does not necessarily imply that pre- or post-mortem rape took place.

1.3.3 Foreign object insertion

Foreign object insertion in a sexual murder typically refers to when the offender has inserted an object into the vagina, anus (male or female) or mouth (male or female) of the victim (Ressler et al., 1988). When an item is inserted into the mouth of the victim it is necessary to determine whether the insertion had a practical function, such as to gag or suffocate a victim, or if it served a psychological function for the offender. Inserted

items that serve a practical purpose, such as to silence a victim, would not be seen as examples of foreign object insertion for sexual purposes.

In this research foreign object insertion is defined as instances where any object has been inserted into the vagina of a murder victim. The insertion may have taken place pre- or post-mortem and the object must have been left in place once the person is deceased. The object can be of any nature, could include sexual objects such as vibrators or other “sex-toys” or non-sexual objects such as sticks, rocks, umbrellas or clothing, and its insertion was for sexual or pseudo-sexual, and not practical purposes.

Cases where there is certainty, either by forensic evidence or the offender’s confession, that an object was inserted, yet the object was removed by the offender, will not be considered for this study. The reason for excluding such cases is that the offender who removes the foreign object might be psychologically different, or have a different motive for the insertion, than the offender who leaves the object in place. Removal of the object could possibly indicate a sense of remorse by the offender, whereas leaving the object in place could indicate a lack of remorse. Those cases and cases where the object was inserted in the anus do qualify as sexual foreign object insertion, but will not be included in this research for consistency reasons.

1.3.4 Offender profiling

Offender profiling as an investigative tool has been in use for a number of years throughout the world (Ainsworth, 2002; Labuschagne, 1998, 2001b; Ressler et al., 1988) and in South Africa (Labuschagne, 2003a).

In this research Labuschagne’s (2003a) definition of offender profiling that reads as follows will be used:

> Offender profiling is any activity specifically undertaken with the intent of assisting an investigator determine the most likely type of individual to have committed a specific crime. The process would usually involve an assessment of the crime-scene, attending the autopsy, examining all available docket material such as statements, photographs, forensic reports and investigative decisions. This

> information is compared to previous experience and research and then hypotheses are formulated regarding the type of suspect who committed the crime. These hypotheses might be verbally communicated to the investigator but would normally also be formulated in a structured written report. The aim is to assist the investigator to focus his or her investigation on the most likely type of suspect. (p. 67)

In Chapter 3 offender profiling will be discussed in more detail.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

DIALOG, SABINET, HSRC and SDI searches reveal that almost no research has been conducted on the topic of foreign object insertion in sexual murder. Research where the concept is mentioned often focuses on signature aspects (Keppel, 1995, 2000) and sexual murder (Douglas et al., 1992; Ressler et al., 1988), of which foreign object insertion is seen as a "symptom" or criteria.

Since almost all the studies in which foreign object insertion is mentioned are based on case studies, the ability of offender profilers to predict motive, as well as biographical details of the offender, and the victim, are severely limited. By using such small samples generalisation of results is not possible. It is necessary to study larger samples to determine if there are any commonalities amongst these fields, which would allow the offender profiler to accurately predict these fields based on a crime-scene, in future instances.

Due to the nature of the studies in which foreign object insertion is mentioned, it has not been possible to develop typologies, models or theories that can offer an explanation or context for such behaviour. With South Africa's apparent higher rate of foreign object insertion, based on the researcher's preliminary availability sample, there exists a unique opportunity to highlight certain similarities amongst these crimes, move towards creating a typical victim profile and typical offender profile to be used in the investigation of such types of murder.

1.5 NEED FOR RESEARCH AND AIMS OF RESEARCH

A dearth of research utilising large samples, exists with regard to the phenomenon of foreign object insertion in homicide cases as the focus. The research that does exist is often in single case-study format (Keppel, 1995; 2000). Alternatively foreign object insertion is listed as one of many behaviours, including excessive violence, blitz victim attack, and post-mortem mutilation that allows investigators to classify a crime-scene as being organised or disorganised (Ressler et al., 1988).

Due to these limitations there exists no empirical basis upon which to make predictions when compiling an offender profile in these instances. Since this crime apparently occurs more often in South Africa than in the USA and Europe it is essential that research should be undertaken to gain a better understanding of it. The applicability of American and Western based research to other contexts, such as South Africa, is also unknown (Salfati, 2001) and further underlines the need for further research. For example Hodgskiss' (2004) research on South African serial murderers indicates stark contrasts between USA and European serial murderers and their South African counterparts.

The researcher is in the ideal position to conduct such research as it is his responsibility as Head of the South African Police Service's (SAPS) Investigative Psychology Unit (IPU) to provide investigative support, research and training for investigating officers, on a national basis, concerning psychologically motivated crimes.

The research will have direct benefits for the SAPS by providing research based conclusions regarding certain aspects of this crime. By achieving the above objective of allowing offender profilers to predict certain suspect characteristics based on crime-scene variables, the research would enable investigators of such murders to narrow down the focus of their investigation by prioritising suspects. Most murders and rapes involve suspects known to the victims (Rossmo, 2000), while many psychologically motivated crimes such as serial murder and serial rape, have strangers as the victims. It is therefore necessary to understand the circumstances and background of such crimes to more effectively investigate them.

In South African Law of Evidence there exists something called “similar fact evidence” (Joubert, 2004). Generally similar fact evidence is not admissible in court. An example would be when a person is charged with housebreaking, his previous convictions for housebreaking are inadmissible as evidence in the current trial since it cannot prove that the accused is guilty of the housebreaking he is currently charged for. Section 211 of the Criminal Procedures Act prohibits this (Joubert, 2004).

The exception to this rule is that if the evidence contributes to the proving or disproving of the facts *at hand*, it may be admissible. There must therefore be a logical connection or nexus between the similar facts and the facts in issue. In South Africa (Schmidt & Rademeyer, 2000) the nexus can be deduced from the following factors:

- continuity (tendency)
- the improbability of coincidence
- common source
- time and place
- cumulative effect
- disproving of a defence or a fact that is disputed by the accused.

Practically, similar fact evidence can be used with regards to identity. An example would be *S v M* (Joubert, 2004) where the accused was charged with four counts of rape and one of attempted rape. Charges 1, 2 and 4 were proved beyond a reasonable doubt but the state had difficulty proving that the accused was involved in charge 5. The court ultimately decided it was indeed the accused since the attack took place in a similar manner, time and place by a person with similar demeanour and clothing as was the case with charges 1, 2 and 4. The accused’s identity as the rapist of count 5 was confirmed by the similar way in which the crimes were committed.

Other elements of similar fact evidence that are relevant here are *Acts of Preparation* where similar previous attempts at a crime may be admissible. *Opportunity, Means and Ability* can be reflected in the example of a person who was in possession of a “rape kit” such as a balaclava, condoms, cable-ties and where he has now been charged for the offence of rape, this may be admissible as evidence. *Systematic Conduct* refers to the

continuance of the conduct of the accused, so someone who had previously committed murder with foreign object insertion and who is again charged with such a murder may be seen to have systematic conduct. Research into the background of offenders who commit foreign object insertion, the scarcity of the act and whether or not it occurs more in serial than in single murders could give weight for its use as similar fact evidence (Ibid).

Based on the preceding, the aims of the study are to

i) construct a typical victim profile for this type of homicide

ii) construct a typical suspect profile based on cases where suspect identities are known

iii) determine the nature of the relationship between suspect and victim based on the crime-scene characteristics

iv) highlight the uniqueness of such behaviour on a crime-scene so as to give weight for its use as similar fact evidence in a series of crimes

v) to describe the crime-scene characteristics of this type of crime

vi) to determine if this crime is more often associated with serial murders or single murders.

1.6 OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH

To achieve the aims stated above, the research will be structured in the following manner. In this chapter the focus was on defining the key concepts, stating the problem, examining the need for the research, and listing the research aims. Chapter 2 will focus on a literature survey of completed research, while offender profiling will be dealt with in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 will detail the methods and procedures underlying the research process and Chapter 5 will deal with the research results and their implications. The final

chapter, Chapter 6, will conclude the research by assessing to what extent the aims have been achieved, making recommendations for further research, investigative support and training and finally providing critique on the research.

2. LITERATURE SURVEY OF COMPLETED RESEARCH

Criminal mutilation of the human body can have different motivations (Rajs et al., 1998). Literature in which foreign object insertion specifically features can be grouped into two broad categories, firstly, systems of classification of murder and secondly, signature aspects. With regards to classification systems, foreign object insertion is often seen as one of numerous signs indicating a disorganised crime-scene, aggressive mutilation, a sexual murder, or a symptom of sexual sadism. With regards to signature, in multiple linked cases, it is often described as a signature behaviour, which can be analysed to gain an understanding of an offender's psyche or assist in linking past or future cases. However, none of these evaluate foreign object insertion as a predictor of offender type or the relationship between offender and victim. In other words, previous research treats foreign object insertion as an example of a class of behaviours. To understand the context and background of foreign object insertion, it is necessary to review research and concepts relating to such murders and specifically psychologically motivated crimes.

2.1 REASONS FOR THE CRIMINAL MUTILATION OF THE HUMAN BODY

There are various reasons or motivations for an offender to mutilate the human body. They can broadly be grouped into two categories: practical reasons and psychological reasons. Firstly, a brief discussion on instrumental versus expressive aggression will be provided, followed by a discussion of the paraphilia known as sadism, concluding with a typology for criminal mutilation of the human body.

2.1.1 Expressive versus Instrumental aggression

To gain an understanding of the role foreign object insertion plays in murder cases it is necessary to give attention to the concepts of expressive and instrumental aggression. Salfati (2000) describes *expressive* aggression as occurring in response to anger-inducing experiences such as insults, physical attacks or personal failures. The goal is often to make the victim suffer.

Instrumental aggression comes from the desire for objects or the status possessed by another person, such as jewellery, money or territory. Here the offender attempts to obtain these regardless of the cost. Therefore the aggression is only expressed when required, in the process of obtaining the objects or status.

Hickey (2006a) differentiates between *expressive crimes*, that primarily have intangible, emotional, and psychologically laden characteristics such as hate crimes and domestic violence; and *instrumental crimes*, that primarily have tangible, extrinsic value such as theft and robberies. It is under this category that mutilation as witnessed in countries such as Afghanistan and Iraq, have recently been seen to occur, motivated by religious beliefs (Perlmutter, 2007). This type of behaviour includes beheadings, genital mutilation, removal of ears, eyes and tongues and dismembering. Perlmutter regards these acts as “sacred violence” and can be seen as relating to religious concepts such as sacrifice, blood ritual, iconoclasm and desecration.

Research by Watanabe and Tamura (2001) on mutilation murder cases in Japan reveals that the main motives for murders involving mutilation was a lovers’ quarrel or brawl (43,30%) followed by money (20,00%). However, when the results are broken down by age and gender there were significant differences. Amongst victims younger than 20 years of age, irrespective of gender, the main motive was sex (66,70%), and most often the offender was a stranger to the victim (66,70%), and always operated alone. For female victims over the age of 20 the main motive was a lovers’ quarrel or brawl (63,40%) and the majority (72,00%) were therefore murdered by family members of lovers, and the majority (90,00%) of suspects operated alone. In almost half of these cases the victims worked as sex-workers of bar hostesses. In the final group, male victims over the age of 20, only 62,50% operated alone and the main motives were lovers’ quarrel or brawl (27,50%) and money (27,50%).

Foreign object insertion would be seen as an example of expressive aggression (Salfati 2000), or part of an expressive crime (Hickey, 2006a) serving the emotional needs of the offender.

2.1.2 Sexual sadism

Sexual sadism may also play a role in foreign object insertion. Sadism is an example of an Axis-I diagnosis, under the category of paraphilias, according to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (4th ed., Text Revision) (DSM-IV-TR). The criteria for such a diagnosis are as follows:

- Over a period of at least 6 months, recurrent, intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviors involving acts (real, not simulated) in which the psychological or physical suffering (including humiliation) of the victim is sexually exciting to the person.

- The person has acted on these sexual urges with a nonconsenting person, or the sexual urges or fantasies cause marked distress or interpersonal difficulty. (American Psychiatric Association, 2000, p. 574)

As the research will focus on insertion occurring either pre- or post-mortem, only pre-mortem insertion can be considered sadistic because the sadist enjoys seeing the suffering he or she inflicts on the living victim (Hazelwood & Burgess, 2001), therefore inserting an object post-mortem will not provide the sadist with the opportunity to view the pain, suffering and humiliation of the victim. Furthermore, the presence or absence of other sadistic wounds would help ascertain if the insertion took place in the greater context of sadistic behaviour. Sadism would most likely fit under Salfati's (2000) category of expressive aggression.

The role of sadism in sexual and serial murder has previously been reviewed. Holt, Meloy and Strack (1999) conducted research with 41 inmates of a maximum security prison who were classified either as psychopaths or non-psychopaths and who were violent or sexually violent. Their findings show that inmates classified as psychopaths were significantly more inclined towards sadism than inmates not classified as psychopaths. Based on this finding they support the assumption that people classified as psychopaths relate to others on the basis of power and dominance, rather than affection.

Various authors report that when sexual sadism does occur in murders it is often characterised by measures that restrain the victim such as handcuffs, cable-ties, ropes or the use of alcohol, drugs or anaesthesia (Beauregard & Proulx, 2002; Rajs et al., 1998). Furthermore, Hickey (2006a) states that body degradation, of which foreign object insertion is an example, may be a manifestation of psychological control on behalf of the offender. In that regard the insertion not only provides sexual arousal but is also related to feelings of power and control. Other common factors associated with sexually sadistic murders are:

- Blindfolding and gagging of the victim (Beauregard & Proulx, 2002; Gratzer & Bradford, 1995; Warren, Hazelwood & Deitz, 1996).
- Penile-anal penetration of the victim (Gratzer & Bradford, 1995).
- Evidence of torture (Arrigo & Purcell, 2001; Gratzer & Bradford, 1995; Warren et al., 1996).
- Penetrating victims with foreign objects (Gratzer & Bradford, 1995).

The current research will also aim to determine if the insertion was pre-mortem (thus possibly sadistic in motivation) and if similar associated factors as listed above occur to support the classification of the insertion as sadistic.

2.1.3 Criminal mutilation types: defensive, aggressive, offensive and necromanic

A typology for criminal mutilation in murder cases was developed by Rajs and his co-researchers (1998). Foreign object insertion is not however a specific feature of their typology. While some of the categories in their typology overlap with the concepts of instrumental and expressive aggression, others extend beyond it. According to them there are four types of criminal mutilation of the human body, namely:

- **Defensive mutilation**

Defensive mutilation occurs when the motive is to dispose of the body and delay identification. This is sometimes referred to as dismemberment. The motive is usually to

protect the offender from discovery. Such mutilation could involve the removal of the victim's arms, hands, legs and head. This is not to be confused with *defense wounds,* which are wounds of the extremities occurring when an individual attempts to ward off a pointed or sharp-edged weapon, or a blunt object used as a weapon (DiMaio & DiMaio, 2001). Another form of defensive mutilation is illustrated Karger, Rand and Brinkman (2000) where an offender amputated both hands and the external genitalia of a victim he had raped and strangled. This motivation for the mutilation was forensic in nature. According to his confession the removal of the hands was to prevent DNA samples being found under the fingernails, while the removal of the external parts of the genitals was as attempt to remove semen inside the vagina. Watanabe and Tamura (2001) indicate that the most offenders mutilate their victims in order to dispose of or destroy physical evidence.

- **Aggressive mutilation**

Here the act of murder is brought about by rage and is followed by mutilation of the body, which may involve the face and genitals. Such wounds tend to be more random and without apparent practical purpose. Aggressive mutilation can be compared to some degree with Salfati's (2000) expressive aggression.

- **Offensive mutilation**

This type of mutilation is motivated by an urge to kill and carry out sexual activity with dead bodies, with prior or subsequent mutilation, or a sexually sadistic need to carry out sexual activities, while inflicting pain or injuries initiated on a living person but which may continue after death. It is here that foreign object insertion could be used as a means to achieve this. Pre-mortem the insertion could be done for sadistic purposes, post-mortem the insertion could possibly be a pseudo-sexual act, or even motivated by a sexual dysfunction of the offender. This type of mutilation is also likely to occur in erotophonophilia where mutilation of the body parts, especially the genitalia, is a common feature (Arrigo & Purcell, 2001).

- **Necromanic mutilation**

Necromanic mutilation, carried out on a dead body, as in normal necrophilia above, or with the purpose of using the body part as a trophy or symbol of what was achieved or as a fetish object.

While far from ideal, this typology (Rajs et al., 1998) gives some structure with which to approach mutilation. Although it does not specifically refer to foreign object insertion, it could be accommodated in either aggressive or offensive mutilation. One criticism of this typology is that it does not account for other types of mutilation, such as that found in *muti*-murders. These murders occur when an individual is instructed by a traditional healer to obtain body parts from a living victim for use in a traditional African medicine, or *muti* (Labuschagne, 2004). Another type of mutilation occurs as part of other traditional practices such as female genital mutilation in the form of "circumcision" (Levin, 1980). It is open to debate whether or not the person to be circumcised is participating voluntarily, or if such a cultural belief should be regarded as criminal or not. This again highlights Salfati's (2001) concerns that American and Western based theories and methodologies are not necessarily applicable to other contexts.

2.2 SYSTEMS OF MURDER CLASSIFICATION

Various systems of classification exist for murder - some are based on motive and others on crime-scene behaviour exhibited by the offender. Three specific classifications will be discussed here with relevance to foreign object insertion.

2.2.1 Crime Classification Manual

Douglas, Burgess, Burgess and Ressler (1992) published what was to become known as the *Crime Classification Manual* (CCM). Classification is a normal process as a field grows and develops into a science. A similar process occurred in the fields of psychology and psychiatry (Kaplan, Sadock & Grebb, 1994) with the development of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM) now currently in its 4th Text Revised edition (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). Early classification systems

for murder did not specifically address the concept of sexual murder (Arrigo & Purcell, 2001). The CCM was an attempt to address this limitation.

As with the DSM, the CCM is intended to standardise terminology, facilitate communication, educate those involved in the criminal justice system and develop a database for future research (Douglas et al., 1992). The CCM divides the crimes discussed in it into three broad categories, these are: Homicide, Arson, Rape and Sexual Assault. They list 24 types of murder that fall under four broad categories. The four broad categories are:

- Criminal enterprise homicide
- Personal cause homicide
- Sexual homicide
- Group cause homicide

While not an ideal classification system, it does give some guiding framework for categorising murder. One criticism is that the classification system is atheoretical and lacking in empirical verification (Rossmo, 2000). Another stumbling block is that police statistics are notorious for not differentiating between different types of murder. In South Africa a charge remains murder irrespective of motive. A serial murder, sexual murder, cult murder or contract murder would only be recorded as a murder on the Crime Administration System (CAS). Therefore, a classification system such as the CCM may be currently more useful to academics and those people involved forensically with such crimes.

2.2.2 Organised versus disorganised crime-scenes

One may also view foreign object insertion from the organised/disorganised typology developed by the FBI (Douglas et al., 1992; Ressler et al., 1988). The typology divides crime-scenes according the behaviour exhibited by the offender during the crime and subsequently viewed by the investigator or offender profiler at the crime-scene. Once the crime-scene has been classified as organised or disorganised, certain deductions are made about the offender's personality.

- **The organised offender**

This typology describes the organised offender as someone who plans his murders, targets victims, and displays control at the crime-scene. A methodological and ordered approach is reflected through all phases of the crime. The victim is usually obtained by means of a con story. The initial contact scene, scene of death and body disposal scene may each be a different location. Weapons are usually brought to the crime-scene and are removed by the offender. Methods of restraint such as cable-ties, ropes or chemicals may be evident. Souvenirs or trophies may be missing and the body will be concealed if time permits. A comparison of the difference between organised and disorganised crime-scenes is illustrated in Table 2.

- **The disorganised offender**

The disorganised offender on the other hand commits a murder of an unplanned and spontaneous nature. The motive for such disorganised behaviour may be anything from criminal inexperience, substances used prior to or during the commission of the crime or mental disorder. Victim selection tends to be opportunistic due to the impulsive nature of the crime, while the crime-scene reflects the spontaneity of the act. The scene of contact with the victim, murder scene and disposal scene are often the same place. The method of approaching the victim is usually a blitz attack as opposed to a con story in the case of organised offenders. Depersonalisation, such as covering of the victim's body or face may occur. Since the crime is unplanned weapons tend to be opportunistic in that they are found and left on the scene by the offender. Mutilation of the breasts, genitals or other areas of sexual association, such as the neck and buttocks, may occur and body parts may be missing, having been kept as a souvenir or trophy.

DiMaio and DiMaio (2001) report that in their experience, psychotic individuals may mutilate the victim's genitals, while non-psychotic individuals may mutilate as a warning, in revenge or to collect souvenirs. Husbands may mutilate the genitalia of cheating wives. In disorganised offences sexual acts often occur post-mortem and often involve insertion of foreign objects into body orifices. Such insertion is frequently accompanied by mutilation of the sexual areas of the body. As with signature where foreign object

insertion can be regarded as one possible signature behaviour, in this typology foreign object insertion is seen as one of many "symptoms" indicating a disorganised individual.

Table 2
Differences between Organised and Disorganised Crime-scenes

Organised	Disorganised
Planned offence	Spontaneous offence
Stranger victim	Victim or location known
Personalises victim	Depersonalises victim
Controlled conversation	Minimal conversation
Crime-scene reflects control	Crime-scene sloppy or chaotic
Demands submissive victim	Sudden violence towards victim
Restraints used	Minimal use of restraints
Aggression pre-mortem	Sexual acts post-mortem
Body hidden	Body left in view
Weapon/evidence absent	Weapon/evidence often left on scene
Transports victim or body	Body left at murder scene

Note: Adapted from: Geberth, V.J. (2003). *Sex-related homicide and death investigation: Practical and clinical perspectives.* Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.

This typology has come under criticism (Beauregard & Proulx, 2002; Godwin, 1998; Kocsis, Irwin & Hayes, 1998; Rossmo, 2000). The criticism of Beauregard and Proulx (2002) is based on their study of non-serial sexual murderers. According to them three significant differences occur when comparing their results to the FBI Organised/Disorganised typology. Firstly, in their study mutilation was characteristic of a sadistic pathway. The sadistic pathway profile is indicative of a carefully planned murder where restraints are often used, the crime is committed in a controlled manner and the body is frequently disposed of afterwards. The FBI on the contrary regards mutilation as being characteristic of a disorganised offender.

Secondly, they show that the sadistic pathway offender is more likely to be caught. However,the FBI study, which led to the creation of their typology, shows that a disorganised offender is more likely to be caught. This is because of all the evidence left on the scene.

Thirdly, the FBI study shows that the disorganised offender is known to position the victim's body in a sexually explicit manner after the murder. In Beauregard and Proulx's study, their anger profile category (which corresponds in certain respects with the disorganised profile in the FBI typology) does not have positioning as a characteristic.

This could possibly be linked to the assumption in the FBI study that the disorganised offender shares certain characteristics with the psychotic offender. However, offenders in the anger profile category of Beauregard and Proulx (2002) present more with characteristics of the borderline personality disorder.

2.2.3 Serial murder

Foreign object insertion as a crime-scene behaviour is often thought to be associated with serial murders. Part of the aims of the research will highlight whether this type of crime is indeed associated more so with serial or single murders. Serial murder will be briefly discussed in the following section.

The terms mass, spree and serial murder are often used interchangeably. While all refer to the murder of more than one individual, distinct differences exist. Each one will be briefly defined.

- **Mass murder**

Mass murder refers to the murder of three or more victims at one time and at one location (Hickey, 2006b; Keeney & Heide, 1995; Labuschagne, 2001; Levin & Fox, 1985; Leyton, 1986; Norris, 1988). A South African example would be Barend Strydom who murdered numerous black victims on Strijdom Square in Pretoria in the 1980s. Another example would be the Sizzlers Massage Parlour murders during 2003 where seven men were murdered by two suspects.

- **Spree murder**

The murder of three or more victims in different locations but within the context of a single event is known as spree murder (Keeney & Heide, 1995; Labuschagne, 2001; Rossmo, 2000). A South African example would be Charmaine Phillips and Peter Grundling who in June of 1983 over a three week period murdered four victims. Their spree began in Durban then moved to Melmoth, Secunda and ended in Bloemfontein (author's files). Another example would be Bulelani Vukwana from Mdtansane Township

near East London. In February 2002 he murdered eight people and wounded six at eight locations within the township (author's files).

- **Serial murder**

For serial murder it is the murder of multiple victims combined with the time factor that becomes relevant. The time period can be days or even up to years.

According to Labuschagne's (2001) definition, serial murder comprises

- person(s) motivated to kill
- the murder of three or more victims
- murders occurring at different times
- murders that appear to be unconnected
- murder without the intention to eliminate witnesses
- murder where motive is not primarily for material gain
- a motive that is not primarily for gaining revenge. Revenge may play a role but it is not revenge against a specific person for a previous wrong-doing but rather revenge against a certain category of individuals, such as sex-workers, and the offender selects his victim according to that category.

What is missing from Labuschagne's definition is the accent on the unique intrinsic or psychological motivation of the offender. This is cardinal in differentiating a serial murderer from those involved in a military operation (e.g. a sniper) or those who are part of religious group (e.g. Muslim extremists or cults) or those who share ideological beliefs (e.g. a terrorist organisation).

A further problem with Labuschagne's definition is the requirement of three victims. Numerous researchers claim that after two murders it can be defined as a murder series. Egger (2002) states:

> Although many researchers define serial killers as those who kill a minimum of three or four victims, a more reasonable approach would be to consider two similar homicides as an example of serial murder until proved otherwise. When law enforcement apprehends a serial killer, that murderer may be just beginning a "harvest" of victims. In other cases, a killer may be killed by a resisting victim or may die of natural causes before adding to his victim count. (p. 5)

Pistorius (1996) also agrees that a person can be classified as a serial murderer after having murdered two victims, especially if the offender was apprehended after the second murder, thereby being denied the opportunity to murder again.

Therefore a refined definition of serial murder comprises the following:

- Person(s) intrinsically/psychologically motivated to kill.
- Murder of two or more victims.
- At least two of the murders occurring at different times.
- The motive is not primarily for material gain.
- A motive that is not primarily for revenge. (Revenge may play a role but it is not revenge against a specific person for a previous wrong-doing but rather revenge against a certain category of individuals, such as sex-workers, and the offender selects his victim according to that category.)
- Elimination of a witness for another crime is not the intention.
- Victims tending to be strangers.

Table 3 lists all the identified South African serial murderers and their known victim count. Some of the cases used in this research are from the murder series listed below, such as the PE serial murderer Brydon Brandt, the Cape Town Prostitute Killer (unsolved) and the Pretoria West Kleinfonteine serial murders (unsolved). Foreign object

insertion is sometimes seen as a signature behaviour of serial murderers that will occur throughout the series (Keppel, 1995, 2000; Hazelwood & Warren, 2003), however, in South Africa it appears that foreign object insertion is more likely to occur in single murders rather than in murder series. When it does form part of a murder series it tends to be a behaviour that is not exhibited with all the victims in that series.

Table 3
South African Serial Murderers 1936 to 2006

Series Name	Location	Suspect Name	Date	# Vics
Johannesburg	Johannesburg	Cornelius Burger	36-37	5
Cape Town	Cape Town	Salie Lingevelt	40	5
Kwazulu-Natal	Kwazulu-Natal	Elifasi Msomi	53-55	15
Pangaman	Pretoria	Elias Xitavhudzi	60s	16
Athlone	Athlone	Noor Ahmet	68/69	4
Atteridgeville	Atteridgeville	John Phukokgabi	74-78	16
Soweto	Soweto	Joseph Mahlangu	79	13
Pietermaritzburg	Pietermaritzburg	Phillip Khehla Magoso	83	5
Station Strangler	Cape Town	Unsolved	86- 94	22
Vlakgrafte	Kuilsrivier	Zola Jackson Mqombuyi	87-01	5
Norwood	Norwood	Cobus Geldenhuys	89-92	5
Port Elizabeth	Port Elizabeth	Brydon Brandt	89-97	4
Boetie Boer	Port Elizabeth	Steward Wilken	90-97	10
Cape Town	Knysna	Wessels & Havenga	91	4
West Rand	West Rand	Moses Mokgeti	91-93	7
Kaap prostituut	Cape Town	?	92- 95	19
Eva Nosal	East Rand	Christiaan de Wet	93-94	2
Witbank	Witbank	Nolan Edwards	93-94	3
Cross-dressing	East Rand	Brown & Coetzee	93- 95	5
NASREC	Johannesburg	Mazankane & Motsegwa	93-98	17
Cleveland Strangler	Cleveland, Jhb	David Selepe	94	14
Pinetown Strangler	Pinetown	?	94-95	3
Atteridgeville Strangler	A/ville, Boksburg, Cleveland	Moses Sithole	94-95	38
Donnybrook	Natal Midlands	Christopher Zikode	94-95	8
Phoenix	Phoenix, Durban	Sipho Twala	94-97	17
Louis Trichardt	Louis Trichardt	Willem Grobler	95	2
Mdantsane	Mdantsane, East London	Vuyani Mpezo	95	2
Kranskop	Newcastle	Bongani Mfeka	95	4
Wemmerpan	Johannesburg	Cedric Maake	95-97	35
Lenyenye	Tzaneen	?	96-97	5
Oos Kaap	Kwazakele	Nicolas Ncama	96-97	4
Carltonville	Carltonville	?	96-98	6
Thohoyandou	Thohoyandou	David Mbengwa	96-98	10
Roadside	N/W province	Francois Potgieter	96-00	16
Langlaagte	Johannesburg	?	96-00	2
Piromaan (pyromaniac)	Jeppe, Johannesburg	Norman Hobkirk	97	2
Saloon Killer	Piet Retief	V. Nglanamandla	97-98	16
Maize Field	Kroonstad	Daniel Ramayisa	97-98	3
Upington	Upington	JAC Nel	97-98	2
Skiereiland Nagmerrie	Cape Town	?	97-	3
Doringdraad	Empangeni	?	97-98	16
Sleepy Hollow	Pietermaritzburg	?	97-99	8
Capital Park	Pretoria	Samuel Sidyno	98	7
Vereeniging	Vereeniging	?	98-99	2
Juan Jordaan	Natal	Juan Jordaan	99	3
Barberton	Barberton	Frank Ndebe	99	4
OSizweni	Newcastle	Sidney Dlamini	99-00	5
Rioolplaas (sewage farm)	Cape Town	?	99-00	9
Riverman	Durban	?	99-01	13
Kleine Fonteine	Pretoria West	?	99-01	5
RDP Strangler	Potgietersrus	Ephraim Legodi	00	4
Hospital View Strangler	Potgietersrus	Ephraim Legodi	00	1
Kwa Dukuza	Kwa Dukuza	?	00-01	4
Keiskammahoek	Keiskammahoek	McPherson Nyonga	01	13

PE Prostitute	Port Elizabeth	?	01	2
Randfontein	Randfontein	?	01-03	4
Mapelo Hans	Mapelo Hans	Awaiting trial	2002	7
Highwayman	Pretoria	Elias Chauke	2002	3+
Newlands East	Durban	?	02-03	5
Jhb Mine Dump	Johannesburg	Siphoi Dube	03	9
Rustenburg Child Killer	Rustenburg	Awaiting trial	03	2+
Stellenbosch Child Murderer	Stellenbosch	?	01-03	4
Newcastle	Newcastle	Themba Sukude	04-05	4
Barberton 2004	Barberton	Suicide in prison	2004	5
Cape Town Child Murderer	Cape Town	?	2004	3
Philippi	Cape Town	Awaiting trial	2005	6+
Railway killer	Pretoria	?	2005	5
Mhluzi	Mhluzi	Awaiting trial	2005	5
Quarry Killer	Centurion	Awaiting trial	2006	16
Modimolle Child Killer	Modimolle	?	2004-2006	5
Volksrust	Volksrust	Awaiting trial	2003	3
Moffat Park	Johannesburg	Awaiting trial	05-06	5
Springs Dam	Springs	?	2006	2

2.3 SIGNATURE

The rarity of the insertion of a foreign object into the vagina of a sexual murder victim makes it a prime behaviour for signature analysis if it occurs in more than one linked case. As such it could provide vital insights when compiling an offender profile (Keppel, 2000). Signature is regarded as the offender's unique calling card. It is a personal expression, beyond that which is necessary to commit the crime (Keppel, 1995). The signature can be verbal, as in the case of a serial rapist who repeats certain phrases, or behavioural, such as posing the body in a degrading position in a homicide.

2.3.1 Foreign object insertion in signature analysis

Rossmo (2000) states that there are three main methods that investigators use to link crimes, namely

- physical evidence
- offender description
- crime-scene behaviour.

It is under the third method, crime-scene behaviour, that signature resides. The person who has probably commented the most on foreign object insertion is Robert Keppel, who was the investigator in the Ted Bundy and the Riverman murder series in the USA.

Keppel (1995, 2000) sees foreign object insertion as a signature amongst other possible signatures, such as posing the body of the victim, leaving items on the scene, or specific mutilation of certain parts of the body. Hickey (2006a) echoes this sentiment. Yet when one considers that anything can become an offender's signature, the possibilities are infinite.

Keppel (1995, 2000) as well as Keppel and Birnes (2003) describe signature by firstly differentiating it from modus operandi (MO). They describe MO as those actions necessary to commit the crime. These actions can change according to the circumstances or to mislead investigators. Factors that could cause an offender's MO to change are victims' responses to the crime situation, offender experience/learned behaviour, and a change in circumstances such as a burglar beginning his crimes during the day then moving to night-time or becoming cautious when it is believed that the police are progressing in their investigations. MO behaviours are therefore practical.

Other behaviours expressed on the crime-scene go beyond that which is necessary to commit the crime. These are often a reflection of the personal needs of the offender; these expressions are referred to as a "signature" (Hazelwood & Warren, 2003; Keppel, 1995, 2000; Keppel & Birnes, 2003).

While a MO can change, the signature remains relatively constant. However, the signature can develop over a series of crimes. As the offender becomes more and more experienced he spends more and more time with the victim, allowing him to live out more and more of his underlying fantasy.

Signature is not always easy to detect. Decomposition of the body can make signature detection difficult and if an offender was interrupted before completion, then the signature behaviour might not be fully expressed. Signature can also include verbal behaviour. For example, a serial rapist may use certain phrases in each rape. Andre Mohamed, and Indian English-speaking male who was active in the Durban and Pretoria areas, repeatedly used the phrase "Ek wil jou naai" (I want to fuck you) during his rapes (author's files). A serial rapist may ask all his victims if he may see them again, or if they enjoyed the rape.

The aetiology of the signature is the expression of an underlying fantasy the offender has been developing over a number of years (Douglas & Munn, 1992; Hazelwood & Warren, 2003; Labuschagne, 2001; Pistorius, 1996). In a typology for understanding sexual murder, Keppel and Walter (1999), classify someone who mutilates by inserting objects into the victim's body, as an anger-excitation rape-murderer, with the motive for the insertion being an underlying sadistic fantasy. They classify this as an example of post-mortem sexual experimentation.

Therefore, while foreign object insertion has been mentioned as one possible signature behaviour, no research has been undertaken to look at using foreign object insertion as a predictor of offender type when profiling. It is also undetermined whether or not foreign object insertion in South African sexual murder cases can be used to link cases (Labuschagne, 2006).

2.4 CONCLUSION

Existing literature either refers to foreign object insertion as one of many possible criteria for a specific typology, such as in the cases of signature analysis and disorganised crimes, or indirectly refers to foreign object insertion as being a sign of sadism or a form of criminal mutilation. No literature focuses on foreign object insertion in sexual homicide as an entity on its own with a possible predictive offender profile. This research aims at overcoming this gap in knowledge.

3. OFFENDER PROFILING

The purpose of this research is to provide insights that can be included in compiling offender profiles in similar murder cases. In this chapter a definition of offender profiling as used by the Investigative Psychology Unit (IPU) of the South African Police Service, the Unit with the mandate to provide such a service for investigating officers, is put forward. Furthermore, this chapter also looks at other uses of the word profile and finally places offender profiling in a context of other services that are provided by the Unit.

3.1 HISTORY OF PROFILING

Offender profiling as an investigative tool has been in use for a number of years. Despite its frequent use there still seems to be confusion about the meaning of the concept “profile”. The popular media has created an image of a “profiler” that is so strong it has even influenced academic ideas as to what profiling is. This image is often one in which the profiler is depicted as being someone with psychic powers, or as being the person responsible for solving the case, or responsible for its success. What was once a verb, to “profile” became a noun, a “profiler” (Del Fabbro, 2006; Pistorius, 2005).

One of the earliest examples of profiling dates back to 1943 when the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) in the United States commissioned Dr Walter Langer, a psychiatrist, to “profile” Adolf Hitler. To execute this task Langer hired three research assistants. They sourced the New York City Library and academic references, and solicited personal interviews with people who had intimate knowledge of Hitler. The profile was intended to offer insights into the personality of Hitler so that if captured an interrogation strategy would be in place to help authorities to elicit information from him (Holmes & Holmes, 2002). Hitler’s suicide towards the end of the World War II prevented their research from being put to the test but it marked the first incidence of what was later to become known as profiling.

“Modern” profiling, which was developed later and is seen in present day investigations, was developed by the Behavioral Sciences Unit of the FBI. Their study of 36 incarcerated sexual murderers lead to the development of the “organised/disorganised”

typology (discussed previously in Chapter 2) (Ressler et al., 1988). This type of profiling differs from Langer's in respect that it involves profiling an unknown offender.

3.2 DEFINITION USED BY THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES' INVESTIGATIVE PSYCHOLOGY UNIT

The definition used by the IPU is given as it is the most suited to use within the South African context. The IPU defines offender profiling as

> any activity specifically undertaken with the intent of assisting an investigator determine the most likely type of individual to have committed a specific crime(s). The process would usually involve an assessment of the crime-scene, attending the autopsy, examining all available docket material such as statements, photographs, forensic reports and investigative decisions. This information is then compared to previous experience and any available research. Finally hypotheses are formulated regarding the type of suspect who committed the crime. These hypotheses might be verbally communicated to the investigator but would normally also be formulated in a structured written report. The aim is to assist the investigator to focus his or her investigation on the most likely type of suspect. (Labuschagne, 2003a, p. 67)

Most notable in the definition are the following:

- **The aim is to assist the investigating officer**

The person compiling the offender profile is not the person leading the investigation. A myth, perpetuated by the media, is that the profiler is the one who leads the investigation and solves the case.

- **The offender profile is intended to indicate the type of person who could have committed such a crime**

The profile cannot be used to highlight an individual as a suspect. The profile is intended to be compared to available suspects. Those that fit the characteristics indicated in the

profile are prioritised above other suspects who fit the profile to a lesser degree. Evidence is still needed to link a suspect to a crime and lead to a conviction.

- **The process would usually involve an assessment of the crime-scene, attending the autopsy, examining all available docket material such as statements, photographs, forensic reports and investigative decisions**

The person compiling the offender profile must have access to confidential investigative information. The ideal is to attend the crime-scenes and autopsy. If unable to, the person should revisit the crime-scene and compare it to crime-scene and autopsy photographs. Furthermore, the person should have access to reports relevant to the investigation such as autopsy reports, ballistic reports, fingerprint reports and statements made by relevant witnesses.

- **The information is compared to previous experience and available research**

With the popular media influencing the concept of offender profiling, even professionally, there are growing efforts to make the concept more scientific. It is therefore essential that available, relevant research be used to support the statements made in any offender profile. It should also be emphasised that, from the researcher's experience as Head of the IPU, overseas research has proved to be of limited value when applied to the South African context.

- **Finally hypotheses are formulated that can be communicated verbally but should be followed-up in a structured, written report**

Investigations often need to proceed rapidly, therefore information is sometimes given verbally as certain hypotheses are made by the person compiling the offender profile. A profile may be up to 20 pages or more in a serial offence, and take a long time to compile. However, to prevent misunderstandings, and to protect the person compiling the profile in a legal environment, these hypotheses must be formulated into a structured, written report, the actual offender profile.

Holmes and Holmes (2002) state that the goals of profiling are to provide

- the criminal justice system with a social and psychological assessment of the offender
- the criminal justice system with a psychological evaluation of belongings found in the possession of the offender
- interviewing suggestions and strategies.

In the SAPS offender profiles are used for the following purposes:

- Linking of cases in a series.
- Predicting future offender behaviour.
- Developing individualised interrogation strategies.
- Predicting offender characteristics.
- Predicting offender motive.
- Identifying instances of crime-scene staging.
- Providing suggestions regarding search warrants.
- Providing investigative suggestions.
- Educating the investigating officer about the crime under investigation.

3.3 APPROACHES TO OFFENDER PROFILING

Literature (Holmes & Holmes, 2002; Turvey, 1999) refers to two broad approaches to offender profiling within the criminal context in the USA. These are inductive criminal profiling and deductive criminal profiling.

- **Inductive criminal profiles**

An inductive criminal profile is briefly defined as one that is generalised to a suspect from behavioural and demographic characteristics shared by other offenders who have been

studied in the past. In other words, such a profile is strongly based on previous quantitative research on similar offenders (e.g. paedophiles) and their characteristics are then generalised to a suspect being profiled. The type of logic would be represented in the following hypothetical statement:

> "A study of 100 incarcerated paedophiles found that the average age when apprehended is 24, the average type of occupation is white-collar, 80% are married and have children, therefore, the suspect in this case must be approximately 24, be a white-collar worker, and is most likely married."

Such a form of profiling can also be used by the prosecution once someone has already been arrested, to try and prove to the court that the accused has the "characteristics" of a paedophile, in an attempt to add weight to the accusation. Alternatively, such a profile could be used by the defense in support of their claim that the accused is innocent, because he or she does not fit the typical profile of such an offender.

Turvey (1999) states that the advantages of such a form of profiling is that it is a relatively easy tool to use, requires no specialised knowledge, education or training or understanding of criminal behaviour. Furthermore, such profiles can be compiled in a relatively short period of time.

He lists the disadvantages as follows:

- The statements are generalised and not related to a specific case.
- The samples used are often small and only include apprehended offenders.
- Due to the generalisations such a profile can implicate an innocent person.
- Environmental and contextual differences are not taken into account.
- It is assumed that behaviour and motivation do not change within an individual over a period of time.

- **Deductive criminal profiles**

Turvey (1999) defines deductive profiling as the process of interpreting forensic evidence, including crime-scene and autopsy photographs, autopsy reports, and victimology with the intention of reconstructing offender crime-scene behaviour patterns and from those patterns, deduce offender characteristics, demographics, emotions and motivations.

Advantages of this type of profiling is that it is more useful for establishing modus operandi, signature and in linking cases to one offender. Changes in offender behaviour over a series of crimes can also be accommodated by deductive profiling. This type of profiling is more specific about the offender in question in that it does not rely on statistic generalisations but uses the crime-scene as its main source of information when making statements about the offender.

Turvey (1999) feels that the disadvantages of deductive profiling are few but include that it is not a quick fix and requires a great deal of effort and skill on behalf of the person compiling the profile. Also, since it is an intensive process it is emotionally exhausting. Finally, a deductive profile cannot point out a specific known individual and say that he or she is likely responsible for a certain crime(s) unless that offender's unique signature is known and established.

The type of offender profiling used by the IPU is more in line with the deductive method described by Turvey, although relevant, available research is also utilised as in the case of inductive criminal profiling. In addition previous experience is also relied on. It must not be forgotten that experience is unwritten research.

Hickey (2002) refers to the above as Crime-Scene Profiling. The current researcher, however, disagrees with the use of this term as it implies that the crime-scene is the only source of information. Although this may be true in some cases, it is not so for all cases. When a rape occurs, for example, the crime-scene is of less value than in a murder. In a series of rapes the victim statements become the important source of information for the purpose of compiling an offender profile, and the scene may be more relevant for geographical profiling purposes.

A brief description of other types of profiling will now be given.

3.4 OTHER USES OF THE WORD PROFILE

As mentioned earlier, the term profile can have various meanings depending on the context. A psychologist may refer to the profile of a psychometric test, such as the Minnessotta Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) or the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI) (Millon & Davis, 2000). This is a graphic representation of the testee's scores on a test. A profile can also refer to the side view of an object, such as in art. However, in a forensic/criminal justice setting the term has numerous definitions. To aid in clarity, some of the other uses of the term profiling in such a setting, are explained.

- **South African Police Service profiling**

The term profiling is not used exclusively to refer to "offender profiling" as described above. In the SAPS, profiling also refers to the process when a known suspect's name, identity number or date of birth are entered into the Case Administration System (CAS), Home Affairs Register, Vehicle Registration System, Firearm Register, or any other databases to which the SAPS have access, and all available information on the suspect is then sourced. This would include registered addresses, whether the suspect was previously the suspect in other cases and have any previous convictions, whether the suspect was the complainant in a case previously, what vehicles the suspect has owned, and any firearms licensed to the suspect. Yet, unlike offender profiling, this type of profiling involves a *known* suspect or individual (Labuschagne, 2003a).

- **Intelligence profiling**

Another type of profiling is a background profile, which is often used by intelligence agencies. This involves gathering as much data about a known person so as to build up an understanding of the person and gain insight into his or her behaviour. This might be to aid in the prediction of the person's future behaviour, assess whether a person would be a likely candidate to recruit as an intelligence source such as an informer, or to prepare interrogators for a future interrogation. As with the SAPS profiling mentioned above, it involves a known individual. It may involve many of the activities mentioned in

the SAPS profile, but goes beyond just calling up factual information and is more in-depth, providing hypotheses about the individual also (Labuschagne, 2003a).

- **Geographical profiling**

From the time of the Chicago School (Siegel, 2001), geography has played a role in crime investigation. Many television programs depict policemen standing around a map of a city with pins inserted into it indicating areas where a series of crimes have occurred. Yet it is only recently that a more rigid scientific approach, with the aid of computers, has been applied to understanding statistical frequency with regard to geography and crime.

The 1990s saw the re-emergence of a focus on the early works by Shaw and McKay (1942). This revival is referred to as the "New Chicago School". While adopting an ecological approach, it also was spurned by computerised mapping and spatial analysis techniques. Geographical Information Systems (GIS) allowed for the measurement of spatial aggregation and thereby opened up a host of possibilities with regards to the ecology of crime (Ainsworth, 2002).

Canter (1994, 2003, 2004) and Rossmo (1995, 1997) are two figures that stand out when it comes to geographical profiling. Canter (1994, 2003), for example, states that offenders rarely travel long distances to commit their crime and are more likely to offend in a relatively small geographical area, based around their home address. Similarly, Rossmo (1995, 1997) also suggests that the examining of the exact location of a series of crimes can be helpful in identifying the most likely area in which an offender lives or works. Such input can be used to help prioritise suspects by address or area. Furthermore it can be used to deploy increased uniform patrols in that specific area for crime prevention purposes.

One concern of such a method is that if inaccurate information is recorded or if information is missing (e.g. certain crimes are not included in the series because they were not reported, or if crimes not committed by the suspect are included) it can skew the geographical profile. However, this is the same criticism for any other form of profiling. Furthermore, this method has so far only been tested in Europe and the USA.

While the generic suggestion that offenders will offend in areas they feel comfortable with, such as areas nearby their home or work place, has been correct for some instances of serial offences in South Africa, there are also many examples where this has not been the case. Serial murderers such as Samuel Sydino, the Capital Park serial murderer, Sipho Twala the Phoenix serial murderer, and Kobus Geldenhuys the Norwood serial murderer, as well as Cedric Maake the Wemmerpan serial murderer committed their crimes near their homes.

Moses Sithole on the other hand, who operated in Atteridgeville, Boksburg and Cleveland, lived in Atteridgeville where he began his murder series according to the investigating officer (V. Viljoen, personal communication, September 8, 2004). He had previously been incarcerated in Boksburg prison but was obviously not living there when the Boksburg murders were committed. The recent Highwayman serial murderer in Pretoria, Elias Chauke, did not operate anywhere near his place of residence (author's files).

South Africa's socio-economic circumstances may be one reason why geographical profiling is not as useful as it may be overseas. A large portion of the South African population travels great distances to and from work and makes use of informal transport such as taxis to do so. Also, due to the high rate of unemployment, people are often quite willing to go with a stranger if it may mean the promise of employment, thus victims are easily lured to out of the way areas where the crime is committed. In a review of 19 different rape series conducted by the IPU, 14 offenders consistently made use of a "con" story to lure their victims away to the eventual scene of crime, with the offer of employment being the most often used con story (Labuschagne, 2003b).

- **DNA profiles**

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is being increasingly used in investigations as an extremely effective means of linking a specific suspect to a specific crime-scene (Geberth, 2003). DNA typing was, for forensic purposes, developed by Dr Alec Jeffrey's in 1985 (DiMaio & DiMaio, 2001). Once DNA from, for example, semen or hair is collected, it is sent to the Forensic Sciences Laboratories of the SAPS and the DNA is processed, or profiled.

Should a suspect be arrested, his DNA is then compared to see if the two profiles match (Labuschagne, 2003a).

DiMaio and DiMaio (2001) state that there are two basic concepts that must be kept in mind when dealing with DNA analysis. First, if the DNA profile of the evidence DNA is different from that of the suspect, then the suspect is absolutely excluded as being the source of the evidence DNA. Secondly, if the evidence DNA and the suspect DNA match then there are three possibilities:

- The evidence DNA came from the suspect
- The evidence DNA came from another person who has the same DNA profile, as would be the case if the second person is a monozygotic twin, or because an insufficient number of tests were performed to differentiate the suspect from the other person
- An error was made in either the collection or analysis of the DNA samples.

- **Victim profiling**

By identifying the personality and behavioural characteristics of people who become victims of crimes committed by certain types of offenders, steps can be taken to reduce those people's risk of becoming victims. This is useful in serial murder and serial rape cases as victim selection might reflect something about the motives of the offender. Victim profiling information is gathered from various sources such as personal records, interviews with witnesses, victims, family members and friends, as well as crime-scenes and autopsies (Hickey, 2002). In the SAPS this makes up part of the offender profile as compiled by the IPU.

- **Psychological profiling**

Hickey (2002) as well as Kocsis, Cooksey and Irwin (2002) describe psychological profiling as using the crime-scene to identify and interpret certain items of evidence that would be indicative of the personality type of the individual who committed the crime and

his or her possible motives. This also makes up part of the offender profiles compiled by the IPU of the SAPS.

- **Crime-scene assessment**

The term crime-scene assessment is often incorrectly used synonymously with offender profiling. The IPU defines a crime-scene assessment as the attempt that is made to understand what was taking place during the commission of the crime. This is based on what is left on, or is missing from, the crime-scene itself. The aim is not to go further by making statements about the offender's personality, and occupation, as would be the case with an offender profile. It is therefore focused on the time-period of the crime. It also aims to determine what took place *between* the offender and the victim. In other words, it attempts a reconstruction of the crime. A crime-scene assessment is incorporated into the offender profile. Due to its nature it is more appropriate for murders than rapes.

- **Computer databases and profiling**

The purpose of such databases are two-fold, firstly to help link cases and secondly, to help when compiling an inductive profile by providing the profiler with information about previous cases and suspects.

Computer databases have proven to be a valuable source of information for investigators. Since serial offenders often operate across different policing areas or jurisdictions, linking crimes due to lack of communication can prove problematic. Traditional methods of obtaining such information include faxes, telephone calls, bulletins, letters, e-mails, meetings or seminars. By utilising these traditional methods it took Keppel (Keppel & Birnes, 2003) over a year to accumulate data on 90 murder victims from the western states of the USA that might be connected to the Ted Bundy murders.

One attempt to consolidate information to assist in creating links between crimes is the *National Centre for the Analysis of Violent Crime* (NCAVC) in the USA, which became operational in 1984 with the purpose of acting as a "clearing house" of information

regarding violent crimes. It is a law-enforcement orientated behavioural science and computerised resource centre which consolidates research, training and operational support functions.

The NCAVC consists of four departments: (i) Research and development; (ii) Training; (iii) Profiling and consultation; and (iv) the *Violent Criminal Apprehension Program* (VICAP). VICAP is a national data centre housed at the FBI Academy, Quantico, USA (Holmes & Holmes, 2002). It is primarily designed to collect, collate and analyse information regarding

- solved and unsolved murders or attempted murders, especially involving abduction, or that appear to be random, motiveless, sexually motivated or are part of a series

- missing person cases where there is a strong suspicion that foul play is involved and the persons are still missing

- unidentified dead bodies where the manner of death is known or suspected to be homicide

- cases in which the offender has been arrested or identified for comparison to unsolved cases in VICAP to evaluate for possible linkages (Keppel & Birnes, 2003).

The FBI's, *Profiling and Consultation Program* conducts analyses of violent crimes on a case-by-case basis in order to construct profiles of unknown offenders. This allows the investigation to be narrowed down to concentrate more readily on the suspects who closely fit the profile. Consultation also includes planning case strategies, furnishing information for search warrant preparation, personality assessments, interview techniques and coaching prosecutors of violent criminals (Brooks, Devine, Green, Hart & Moore, 1987).

The *Homicide Investigation and Tracking System* (HITS), initiated by Keppel (Holmes & Holmes, 2002; Keppel & Birnes, 2003) was developed for the Washington State area in the USA. It was later expanded to include cases from Oregon State.

The HITS program

- evaluates the critical factors necessary to solve murder investigations
- identifies the salient characteristics of homicides
- records information unique to a particular offender, such as the offender's mode of operation, and/or physical evidence.

HITS is designed to improve the investigation of murder and sexual assault and the apprehension rate of violent offenders. There are currently over 7 000 murder cases and 8 000 sexual assault investigations from the states of Washington and Oregon in the HITS program (Keppel & Birnes, 2003). HITS also complements VICAP by having many overlapping fields.

Other computer databases include: the *Homicide Assessment and Lead Tracking* (HALT) in New York (Holmes & Holmes, 2002); the *Violent Crime Linkage Analysis System* (ViCLAS) in Canada, the Netherlands, Germany and France; *TracKERS* in Orange County, California; and the *Violent Crime Information Network* (VCIN) used in the State of California (Hickey, 2002).

3.5 THE CONTEXT OF OFFENDER PROFILING

Ideally the person compiling the offender profile should be part and parcel of a greater service to the investigating officer. The reason for this is that an offender profile may be of limited use to an investigator. An offender profiler can also provide input with regard to

- crime-scene assessments
- assistance in investigative decision-making
- assistance in interviewing witnesses and suspects
- geographical profiling
- assistance in dealing with the media

- managing the vast amounts of information often collected in the type of crimes in which offender profiles are often used
- courtroom testimony
- linking of cases to a series
- predicting future offender behaviour.

Furthermore, an offender profiler can be of great use in the training of investigators. Areas for training can include; the nature and purpose of offender profiles, understanding psychologically motivated crimes, and investigative guidelines for such cases. The investigation of psychologically motivated crimes often has certain unique aspects differentiating them from financially motivated crimes. Understanding the behaviour of serial murderers and serial rapists, for example, can allow the investigator more insight into the type of criminal he is investigating.

The IPU of the SAPS is one such unit in which the members offer a wide range of services to investigating officers. A description of the roles of the Unit will be given to provide a context within which offender profiling can be placed.

- **Investigative Psychology Unit of the South African Police Service**

The IPU was established in 1996. It falls under the Serious and Violent Crime Component of the Detective Service of the SAPS. It is a National Unit, which can be called upon to provide investigative support throughout the country and has also assisted in the neighbouring country of Swaziland. The Unit has also interacted with foreign law enforcement agencies such as Scotland Yard (on the “Adam” torso murder).

The SAPS is one of the few police services in the world that has a full-time Unit devoted to Investigative Psychology. In the UK, the Home Office has a *Behavioural Analysis Unit*, at the National Crime and Operations Faculty (NCOF). Investigators can make use of this unit should they wish to do so. However, not being a police unit per se, they have no authority over the use of behavioural analysis in the police. In Europe, the Netherlands National Police Service, a national co-ordinating body, does have behavioural analysts at its sexual crimes unit, but since each individual police area functions independently,

there is no requirement that their services must be used. In Germany, certain of the 16 states, such as Bavaria, do have what is known as Operational Case Analysis Units within the police service providing such services (Bundeskriminalamt, 2003).

The IPU's mandate is to assist with any psychologically motivated crime. These crimes include serial murder, serial rape, sexual murder, *muti*-murders, infant rape, spree and mass murders, paedophilic child molestations, analyzing letters of extortion, blackmail and death threats, and single murders with bizarre circumstances. Some of the well known cases the Unit has assisted on are: The Wemmerpan serial murder case; Moses Sithole serial murder case; the rape of nine month old baby Tshepang in Upington; the Torso murder where the body was found in the Thames river, London; the NASREC serial murder case; the Capital Park serial murderer Samuel Sydino; the Phoenix serial murderer Sipho Twala; and the Highwayman serial murder case; the Centurion Quarry murder series, and the Johannesburg Mine-Dump serial murder investigation. In 2003 their services were used in the "Advocate Barbie" case and the triple murder of a professor and his companions in Pretoria. The Unit also has a co-ordinator in each province to monitor and co-ordinate any investigations that would require the services of the Unit.

- **Staff**

The Unit currently has three members. The commander of the Unit and the other staff members are:

- Senior Superintendent Gérard Labuschagne: MA (Clinical Psychology), PhD in Psychology

- Superintendent Jan de Lange: investigating officer and previously a detective branch commander (Police Diploma)

- Captain Elmarie Myburgh: BA, BA Honours (Psychology), BA Honours (Criminology)

All the members are employed in terms of the Police Act and are functional police members.

- **Role of the Unit**

The Unit has three, overlapping roles within its mandate of providing support to investigating officers. These are investigative support, training of detectives and research.

(i) Investigative support

The Unit provides investigative support nationally to investigating officers by means of consultations, reports, crime-scene analysis and offender profiles, as described above. Members of the Unit assist in the interrogation of suspects and interviewing of witnesses. They provide "witness handling guidelines" for sensitive witnesses. Furthermore they are often called on to testify in court for the cases that they have assisted on. Since they are all functional police officers, this unique position allows them access to crime-scenes and autopsies. They are literally involved from crime-scene to courtroom. Many people doing similar work in foreign countries are appointed as civilian personnel and therefore prevented from direct access to such investigative information.

The members can also be called upon after an investigation has taken place should the need arise, to act as professional witnesses. This helps the SAPS by reducing the need to contact outside professionals who would require payment.

(ii) Training

The IPU has a world renowned, distinguished reputation when it comes to the field of serial murder. Over a 12 year period, dating from 1992 to 2004, over 50 serial murderers have been active in South Africa, the majority of them having been apprehended and convicted. Numerous serial murderers have been apprehended within six weeks of a task team being assigned to the case, and has received praise from retired FBI agent and serial murder expert, Colonel Robert Ressler for the speed of their successes. This highly successful rate of apprehension of serial murderers is in part due to the training programs offered by the IPU. The Unit assists in the training of detectives as part of the *Serious and Violent Crimes Course*, and also offers a specialised three-week course known as the *Psychologically Motivated Crimes Course* for Serious and Violent Crime

Unit detectives, Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences (FCS) Unit detectives and general detectives. Previously known as the *Investigative Psychology Course*, in 2002 the course was re-named the *Psychologically Motivated Crimes Course*. This course is a prerequisite for someone to be able to investigate a serial murder case.

Over 235 detectives have undergone the *Psychologically Motivated Crimes Course* training. This course focuses on investigative psychology issues that are unique to serial murder investigation, and furthermore focus on issues related to serial rape, child molestation, sadism, sexual murder, *muti*-murder, and certain paraphilias. Since its inception training has also been provided to members of the Royal Swazi Police, Scotland Yard, the Botswana Police, and the Behavioural Sciences Unit of the Belgium Police.

The focus is on the investigation of such crimes and the practical application of research and experience. In 2002 the Unit also expanded its training function to include courses for crime-scene photographers who often cover areas that include the jurisdiction of numerous detective units that would be investigating murders, and are therefore ideally placed to help link serial crimes. Furthermore, crime-scene photographers are called out to all crimes, not just murder, and can therefore also help link incidents of sexual burglary and serial rape, which can be associated with serial murder.

(iii) Research

Besides the investigative support and training roles, the Unit also has a research role and is currently involved in research focusing on *muti*-murder, and serial murder. Other research projects include criminal mutilation, foreign object insertion in sexual murder (the topic of this study), spree murders and infant rapes. These are aimed at supporting the investigative support function and training function of the Unit. The Unit's position within the SAPS allows it unprecedented access to first-hand research material in the form of the investigation files.

3.6 CONCLUSION

Offender profiling, despite criticism from various groups within law enforcement and outside of law enforcement, has established itself as an investigative tool when dealing with crimes of a psychological nature. How it is used often depends on whether the compiler of the profile is operating from within a law enforcement agency or not. Recent years have seen more scientific study of offender profiling, which has helped move towards greater reliability when compiling offender profiles. Yet as mentioned, offender profiling should be one of various services being provided when investigative support is given. In the following chapter the research design will be discussed.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

In the preceding chapters the aims of the research, the literature associated with the research topic and the theoretical backdrop of offender profiling have been set out. In this chapter attention is paid to the research methodology guiding the research and how the research was undertaken.

This research is aimed at exploring the relatively unexplored topic of foreign object insertion in sexual murder. As such the study does not begin by stating certain research hypotheses that are to be tested (Welman & Kruger, 2002). This approach, also called descriptive research (Bailey, 1982), is aimed at describing a new phenomenon, with the primary task being to learn about, or gain familiarity with, the topic at hand (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2002), not to compare it with other phenomena (Welman & Kruger, 2002). In such instances the "newness" of the phenomenon means it lacks established theories or research findings. As a result this approach lends itself well to qualitative research. De Vos, Fouché, and Venter (2002) state that exploratory research is typically used when

- a researcher is examining a new concept
- the subject of the study is relatively new and unstudied
- a researcher seeks to test the feasibility of undertaking a more careful study
- the researcher wants to develop the methods to be used in a more careful study.

This exploratory research was conducted by using a documentary study. With this in mind the next section will describe the methodology used, in this instance, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods.

4.1 METHODOLOGY

Quantitative and qualitative methods can briefly be distinguished in that *qualitative* methods involve a researcher describing kinds of characteristics and events without comparing them in terms of measurements or numbers. *Quantitative* methods, on the

other hand, focus on measurements and the number of characteristics or events (Thomas, 2003).

This research involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods to create the necessary synthesis to give meaning to the data. Mouton and Marais (1990) state that the investigation of social science phenomena, which tend to be inextricably enmeshed, creates the situation that no one single approach can deal with the complexity of human beings. The approach taken is akin to Creswell's two-phase model for combining qualitative and quantitative approaches (De Vos, 2002). The two phases are:

- Phase one, involving converting qualitative data into nominal or ordinal categories in each case study. A case study approach was used and content analysis conducted on each case.

- Phase two, involving taking the total sample's data (N=17) and converting it into quantitative data. This gives meaning to each case-study's data in relation to the total sample. Meaning in this instance takes the form of percentages such as simple frequency distributions, grouped frequency distributions for continuous data, and relative frequency distributions.

4.2 MEASURING INSTRUMENT: FOREIGN OBJECT INSERTION CHECKLIST

A measuring instrument, in the form of a checklist called the Foreign Object Insertion Checklist, was compiled highlighting the necessary areas of importance to the research. The checklist (Appendix A) includes the following four sections:

- **Section A: Victim's biographical details**

In this section biographical details of the victims are recorded. These are:

- Age of the victim

- Population group (groups categories are determined in accordance with the 2001 Census categories)
- Whether not the victim has been identified
- Home language
- Marital status
- Education level
- Occupation

These fields allow for the compilation of a basic victim profile in cases of sexual murder with foreign object insertion. This information is from sworn statements, post-mortem reports, and identification of body forms. In instances where information from these sources was not adequate, contact with family members by the researcher was made by the researcher.

- **Section B: Nature of assault**

In this section information regarding the injuries inflicted upon the victim as well as the cause of death are recorded. The main source of information for this is from the post-mortem report. The post-mortems were conducted either by a District Surgeon or Forensic Pathologist. Other information includes the condition of the body on the crime-scene, focusing on the position of the body, presence of ligatures, state of dress, and whether the body was covered. This information is obtained from sworn statements and crime-scene photographs in the police case file.

- **Section C: Crime-scene details**

In this section details about the crime-scene itself are recorded. Items recorded here include whether the crime-scene was inside a building or outside, who discovered the body, at what time and on what day was the body discovered, time and day of the murder, in which province the murder occurred and if the crime has been linked to any other murder, and if so, did foreign object insertion occur in any of those murders. This

information comes from sworn statements and crime-scene photographs contained in the police case file.

- **Section D: Offender details**

In cases where a suspect(s) was convicted for the murder, the biographical details are noted. These include:

- Age
- Population group
- Gender
- Home language
- Marital status
- Education level
- Occupation
- Sexual orientation
- Use of substances at the time of murder
- Prior criminal record
- Mental illness
- Accompanying offences at the time of the insertion such as rape, burglary, robbery, hijacking or other
- Suspect's relationship to the deceased

Information for this section was obtained from the police case file, police Crime Administration System (CAS) database, the SAPS Profiling Database, and public court records.

4.3 DATA COLLECTION

The researcher made use of a non-survey data collection method known as a document study (Bailey, 1982; Hagan, 2005; Strydom & Delport, 2002a; Thomas, 2003; Welman & Kruger, 2002). The sources for a documentary study can be primary or secondary sources (Hagan, 2005). Primary sources are defined as the original written material of the author's own experiences and observations, while secondary sources consist of material derived from someone other than the original source (Strydom & Delport, 2002a). The documents used in this study are primary documents.

The documents that served as the source of information are the police dockets for the various cases that have been investigated. Police dockets are referred to as official documents by Strydom and Delport (2002a) and are more formal and structured than personal documents. Consequently such uniformity can assist when comparing case studies to one another, as is done in phase two of this research.

The police dockets contain sworn statements of witnesses, confessions by suspects, medico-legal autopsy reports, crime-scene and autopsy photographs, the investigation diary of the detective and any other reports or documents that have been included in the process of the investigation. In South African courts the crime-scene photographs are regarded as documentary evidence (Joubert, 2004). These documents are in the possession of the researcher as part of his responsibilities as the Head of the Investigative Psychology Unit of the SAPS. Where information was lacking other sources were used such as the CAS system, public court records, and contact with victims' families.

Documentary research was chosen for this study as it has the following advantages:

- The subjects, due to having been murdered, would otherwise have been inaccessible.

- There is little or no reactivity since the documents were created for other purposes, that is, a police investigation.

- The information, due to police procedures, is recorded in a uniform manner thus making comparisons possible between cases.

- The document study allows for cases to be used that had occurred a number of years ago. Furthermore, the study can be related to any future follow-up studies to determine if there are any trends.

- A document study can allow for a retrospective search for similar cases thus increasing the sample size and number of solved cases.

- It allows for more spontaneity since the information recorded in the case dockets is done as soon as possible during the investigation and not at a later stage, which could lead to information being altered or distorted for various reasons.

- With this research the documents are mostly in the possession of the researcher as a result of his current position and those not in his possession can easily be obtained (Bailey, 1982, Strydom & Delport, 2002a).

- **Validity**

The validity of the research is increased by the documents being first-person accounts of what happened, especially in the case of sworn witness statements, similarly, the crime-scene photographs are the closest a person, who was not on the crime-scene, can come to actually having been there. They are also “fixed” in the sense that they are not subject to distortion by a person’s memory as in the case were one is working retrospectively from an interview with someone who was on the crime-scene. Since the documents were collected in the context of a police investigation they are collected in a similar procedural manner according to standing orders, and are therefore less likely to be open to subjective distortion. The documents were not collected with an ulterior motive, and different people having been involved in the compilation of the documents reduce the possibility of a collusion to distort the facts. Local Criminal Records Centre (LCRC) members take the crime-scene and autopsy photographs, a forensic pathologist or district surgeon conducts the autopsy and compiles the autopsy report in a standard format, the investigator collects statements, the first uniform member on the scene

provides a crime-scene description statement, and the members of the Forensic Sciences Laboratory (FSL) may provide other information such as a DNA report. Since all of these are done beginning immediately after the discovery of the deceased's body, there is also little time-delay in which failures of the relevant people's memories could influence the accuracy of the information. As these documents were prepared for court purposes it contributes to their authenticity, validity and reliability.

Data, in this instance the contents of the police case files, was collected primarily through two means. First, many such case files were already in the possession of the researcher through the normal course of his job description. Second, enquiries were made to detectives about any similar cases that fulfilled the operational definition of foreign object insertion used in this research. Either the original case files are used or photocopies were made of each file not in the possession of the researcher. Where copies were made, the crime-scene photographs were either scanned onto computer or album reprints were made. Where the police case file did not contain certain information the CAS system and the SAPS Profiling Database were used. Information from these usually pertained to the date of birth of the suspect, and his previous criminal record history.

4.4 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Due to the lack of accurate and descriptive statistics kept by the SAPS it is difficult to determine the extent or universe of murder cases that involve foreign object insertion. As is typical with qualitative research, non-probability sampling was chosen as it is the most appropriate method to undertake this type of research (Strydom & Delport, 2002b; Thomas, 2003; Welman & Kruger, 2002). In non-probability sampling the probability of the unit being chosen is not known. This affects the ability of the researchers to generalise their results upon completion of their research. Further, it is not possible to determine the sampling error. However, non-probability sampling does not necessarily mean that the results cannot be generalised to a larger population. Thomas (2003) states that

> When researchers thus attempt to apply a project's results beyond the things that were actually studied, they incur an obligation to demonstrate why such an extension is warranted. Their demonstration can be founded on either qualitative reasoning or quantitative reasons or on some combination of the two. (p. 91)

Using qualitative reasoning, expanding the results beyond the group under investigation is possible if the pattern of causal factors responsible for the results in the group that was studied is the same pattern found in another group, then the conclusions reached in the studied sample will apply to the other group as well.

The advantages of non-probability sampling is that it is much less complicated, less expensive and can be done to take advantage of available research units (Bailey, 1982), such as foreign object insertion cases already in possession of the researcher. The researcher is also able to seek out individuals, groups and settings where the phenomenon under study is most likely to occur (Strydom & Delport, 2002b). In this instance due to the lack of descriptive crime statistics kept by the SAPS the researcher had to specifically search for cases that qualified to be in the study.

The sampling technique deemed most suitable to undertake this study is purposive sampling because only cases that specifically fell into the research criteria for foreign object insertion were included. The scarcity and lack of an established database of such cases also guided the researcher to use this sampling technique. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to "rely on their experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings … to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population" (Welman & Kruger, 2002, p. 63). As a result the researcher could select those units of analysis (foreign object insertion murders) to obtain units representative of the relevant population sample. This made it possible for the researcher to obtain cases during the course and nature of his work. The records of the Investigative Psychology Unit of the SAPS were consulted, as this Unit is the one most likely to be involved in most cases involving foreign object insertion, and enquiries made from investigators regarding similar cases and from various offices of the Department of Public Prosecutions. Seventeen cases made up the sample size. The murders occurred between 1990 and

2004. Three occurred between 1990 and 1995, and three between 1996 and 1999. Eleven cases were between 2000 and 2004.

Table 4
Age Distribution of the Sample

Age group	N
15-19	2
20-24	1
25-29	4
30-34	1
35-39	4
>39	4
Unknown	1
Total	17
Average age	36,56

Fourteen (82,35%) of the 17 cases fall into the above 25 years age group, with 8 (57,14%) of the 14 being 35 years old and above. The youngest victim's age was 18 and the oldest 74. Two victims were 54 and one was 57. Only one victim's age was unknown due to her being unidentified and because of advanced decomposition. The District Surgeon who conducted the medico-legal post-mortem did not give an age estimate.

Fifteen (88,24%) of the 17 victims were identified.

Table 5
Object(s) Inserted at Incident

Object	N
Comb, cloth, Vics tin, trouser	1
Sandal	1
Glass bottle	3
Stick/branch	5
Wooden rod/handle	1
Cigarette box	1
Bag of marijuana	1
Plastic bottle	1
Business card	1
Steel rod	1
Candle	1
Total	17

The items inserted varied greatly. In 12 (70,58%) instances the items were man-made, and in 5 (29,41%) instances the items were branches, the most common item inserted. A

glass bottle was the second most common item to be inserted, occurring in 3 (17,65%) instances.

Table 6
Population Group of Victims

Population group	N
Black	9
Coloured	5
White	3
Total	17

Due to the nature of the study, all victims were females. The victims were black, Coloured and white. No victim's population group was unidentified, and no victims were Asian or Indian. The majority of the victims, namely 9 (53%), are black, with 5 (29%) representing Coloured and 3 (18%) white.

Only 6 (35,29%) of the cases were solved at the time of the completion of the research. Of those six, two incidents involved two suspects and the rest (4) involved single suspects. All suspects have been convicted of the crimes included in the study.

No identifying data of the deceased, or the identified suspects, is revealed during the research. Police case files and court records are regarded as open, public records, but despite this the researcher does not reveal any information that could lead to the identities of either the victims or the convicted persons becoming known.

4.5 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In document studies there are two main types of analysis. They are the

- relatively unstructured and non-quantitative case study approach

- structured content-analysis approach yielding quantitative data from verbal documents (Bailey, 1982).

In this study the data is analysed by two means. In the first or qualitative phase, the case study method was used. In the second, quantitative phase, percentages are used.

Documentary methods are classified not by the structure of the document under scrutiny but rather by the analytical method employed. The reason behind this method of classification is that most documents were not originally created for research purposes, they might be public documents, or official data, such as government records (Strydom & Delport, 2002a), or private documents such as a person's diary (Hagan, 2005). In this research the documents are public documents created during the process of investigation. Since investigations are conducted according to standardised procedures, the documents being compared, or analysed, will have internal uniformity, thus facilitating their analysis. As a result, public, or non-personal documents, are more amenable to structured analysis.

Document analysis is prone to two problems, namely

- gaining access to the documents
- coding and analysing the documents.

Coding and analysing the content of the documents took place as follows:

- **Case study method**

Case study research refers to a limited number of a phenomenon under study, yet is studied intensively. The aim is to gain a deeper understanding of the uniqueness of the phenomenon and its complexity, in this instance it does not include the introduction of an intervention and therefore does not qualify as a *one-shot case study* (Fouché & De Vos, 2002; Welman & Kruger, 2002). This study can be regarded as a *typical case study* as all of the sample units are similar, and typical of foreign object insertion. The advantage of the case study method is that it permits the researcher the opportunity to highlight the way a complex set of factors have interacted to produce the phenomenon under examination. One of the obvious possible limitations is the generalisation of the results; there exists the risk of error in assuming that the results can be applied to others (Thomas, 2003). This is dealt with by having multiple case studies and other concerns regarding non-probability sampling in qualitative research have already been discussed.

(i) Content analysis

Hagan (2005) regards content analysis as a method of analysing existing data by systematic analysis and selective classification of the contents of mass communication, while Welman and Kruger (2002) include personal documents as well as mass media. Thomas (2003) states that it entails searching through communications to answer questions that the investigators brings to the search and includes in communications documents such as court records.

Hagan (2005) further states that this technique is useful for comparative and historical studies or for discerning trends in existing phenomena. The aim of content analysis is to take a verbal (and in this instance visual), non-quantitative document and convert that into quantitative data (Bailey, 1982; Welman & Kruger, 2002). The results of this quantitative data are usually presented in tabulated form with percentages and frequencies. Content analysis can also be seen as a form of structured analysis applied to documents instead of being applied to direct observation of non-verbal behaviour. This research comes close to mixing both direct observation and content analysis in that there are documents that are analysed and also crime-scene photographs, which depict the outcome of a behaviour or a post-mortem observation of behaviour, the behaviour here being the crime of murder.

A simple example from this research would be to indicate whether the crime-scene was indoors or outdoor; or whether the victim was black, white, Indian, Asian or Coloured. Each one of these categories is mutually exclusive and for each case at least option must be indicated. As with the other forms of analysis the researcher needs to develop a coding scheme for converting the data into numbers.

Categories created need to be adequate for the study, the goals of the study will influence the categories to be defined. The categories need to be exhaustive, mutually exclusive and independent. The documents to be analysed need to be examined to determine what are appropriate categories based on common elements throughout the sample; failing to do such an examination would lead to valuable categories being excluded. Content analysis will yield both qualitative categorical data, such as eye colour, gender, population group, age which is either nominal or ordinal in nature; and

also quantitative numerical data. Quantitative numerical data comes into effect when data across the case studies is processed.

(ii) Statistical techniques

Once the qualitative data for each case study had been recorded onto the measuring instrument, the data was quantitatively processed by statistical techniques. Where the number of cases is small, as is the case in this study (N=17), statistical analyses can be performed manually with calculators (De Vos, Fouché & Venter, 2002) or computer programs. The analysis of the data does not in itself provide answers; rather, interpretation of the data is necessary. In this study the relations within the research study and its data are interpreted.

A system of enumeration was developed to allow for quantification of the data. There are four main ways to do this in content analysis, they are

- a simple binary code to indicate whether or not the category appears in a document
- the frequency with which the category appears
- the amount of space allocated to the category
- the strength or intensity with which the category is represented.

In this research the first option is used - whether or not the category appears in the document. Further examples would be: if there are any post-mortem wounds; if the victim was raped; and the nature of the object inserted.

Frequency distributions are used for univariate analysis to determine the percentages of certain factors recorded on the checklist. *Simple frequency distribution* is used to determine the percentage of certain occupation categories of the victims, and population group of the victims. Simply put, if the sample consists of 20 victims and 10 are sex-workers then the simple frequency distribution is that 50% of the sample were sex-workers (De Vos, Fouché & Venter, 2002).

Grouped frequency distribution for continuous data was used for data that is grouped in manageable units. An example here is age with victims' age being grouped into 15-19, 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, 45-49, 50-54, 55-59. *Relative frequency distribution* further allows for the calculation of data in percentages by indicating the proportion of the total number of cases that were observed for a particular value (De Vos et al., 2002).

Bivariate analysis is used to determine the relationship *between* variables (Mouton & Marais, 1990). *Cross-tabulations* are used to determine the degree of association between two variables. For example, one might discover that, if the victims are of a specific population group it is typical that their crime-scenes would be outside? The *scattergram* is also used to determine the relationship between variables (Bailey, 1982).

Goodwin (1995) makes a fundamental distinction between "descriptive" and "inferential" statistics; he defines descriptive statistics as the type that summarizes the data collected from the sample of subjects participating in the study, and inferential statistics as the type that allows you to draw conclusions about the data that can be applied to a broader population.

Descriptive Statistics

The current research project employs mostly descriptive statistical techniques such as frequencies and cross-tabulations.

- **Frequency counts and distributions** are used to summarize large sets of data. To establish the frequency of occurrence, data must be in categories, therefore frequency counts are summaries of nominal categories, ordinal categories or even ratio type data that has been grouped into categories (Blaikie, 2003).

- **Cross tabulations**: this is similar to the frequency but lists the frequencies of categories in one variable relative to frequencies in another variable. This is best presented in the form of a table.

Inferential Statistics

One inferential statistical technique that was employed is the use of the **analysis of variance** (ANOVA) test to determine if the different ethnic groups differ significantly in terms of age. ANOVA tests the null hypothesis that all the population means are equal. The analysis of variance test is used when testing for significant differences between means of more than two groups (Breakwell, Hammon & Fife-Schaw, 2000).

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlights the research method which involves the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to deal with the complexity of the data. This was felt necessary due to the exploratory nature of the research into this unique phenomenon. While the view may be held that these two research methods are exclusive, researchers have shown that the two are actually complementary.

5. RESEARCH RESULTS

Seventeen cases (17), meeting the specified criteria as outlined in Chapter 1, were identified and information was collected regarding the victims, the crimes and the offenders by means of the questionnaire. This chapter aims to analyse and present these results.

5.1 VICTIMS' BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

This section presents the biographical details of the victims in terms of age, population group, home language, marital status, educational qualification and occupation. The aim of this section is to explore the possibility of creating a typical victim profile.

With the exception of a few demographic variables, recording of demographic data is dependent on the identification of the victims. Nearly all victims were identified (15 of the 17) as is seen from Figure 1.

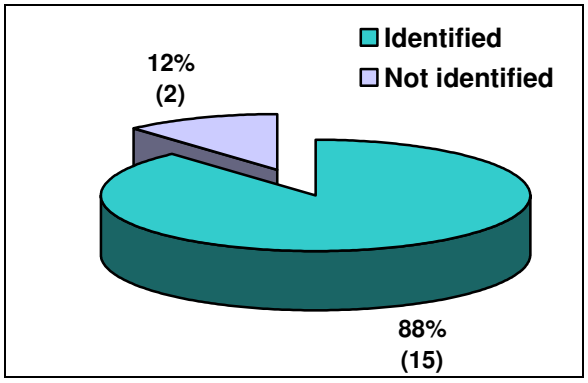

Figure 1. Identification of the victim (N = 17)

Both women who are unidentified are black, yet very little else is known about them.

With the exception of one missing age (one of the unidentified victims, the other unidentified victim's age was estimated by the medical practitioner that conducted the post-mortem), victims' actual ages were recorded and a visual presentation of the age distribution is given in Figure 2. The histogram presents the frequency distribution between different age bands.

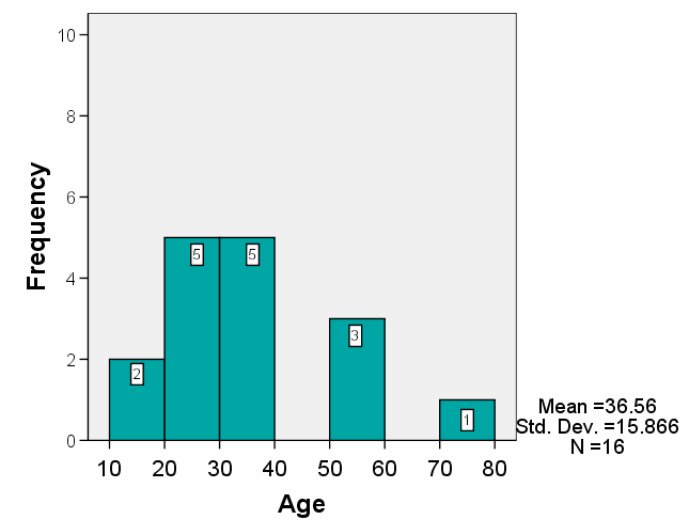

Figure 2. Age distribution of victims (n=16)

The histogram shows that two (2) victims are between the ages of 11-20, five (5) between 21-30, five (5) between 31-40, three (3) between 51-60 and one (1) that falls into the category 71-80. The average age of victims is 36, with the youngest being 18 and the eldest 74. The standard deviation of 15,87 years is relatively large, due to being influenced by an outlier of 74 years.

Figure 3 shows that most of the victims are black (9) followed by Coloured (5) and white (3).

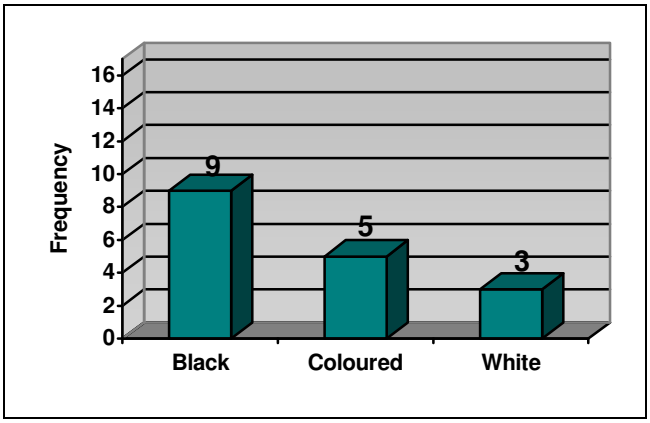

Figure 3. Population group distribution (N =17)

Victims spoke either a black language or another language, in two incidents the victims were black but not identified therefore it could not be confirmed whether they spoke a black language or Afrikaans. Coloured and white victims spoke Afrikaans at home, while black victims spoke one of the black languages.

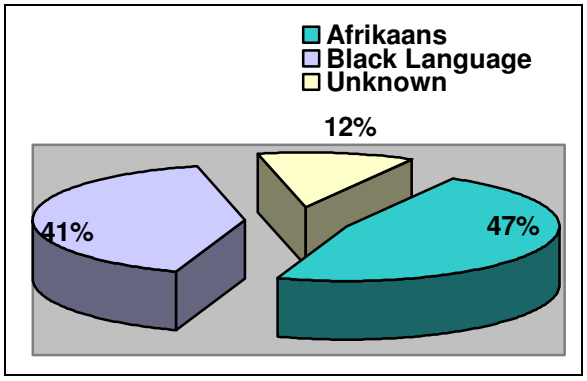

Figure 4. Home language (N = 17)

Figure 5 shows the marital status of victims.

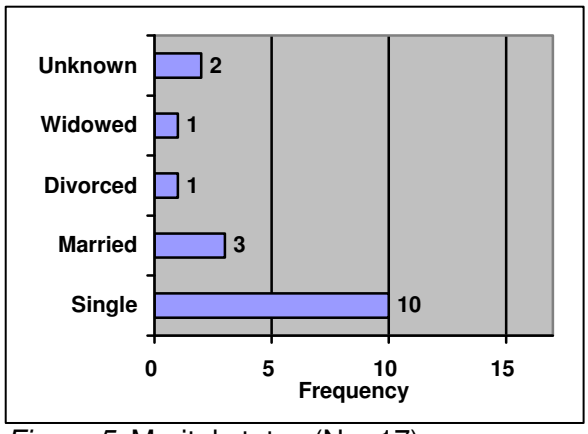

Figure 5. Marital status (N = 17)

From the above figure it is apparent that 10 (58,82%) were single, 3 (17,65%) were married, 1 (5,88%) was divorced, 1 (5,88%) was widowed, while the martial status of 2 (11,77%) were unknown. Younger victims were mostly single, while the married, widowed and divorced women were slightly older – the 74 year old woman was widowed and the divorced woman was 39 years old.

The educational qualifications of victims are presented in Figure 6.

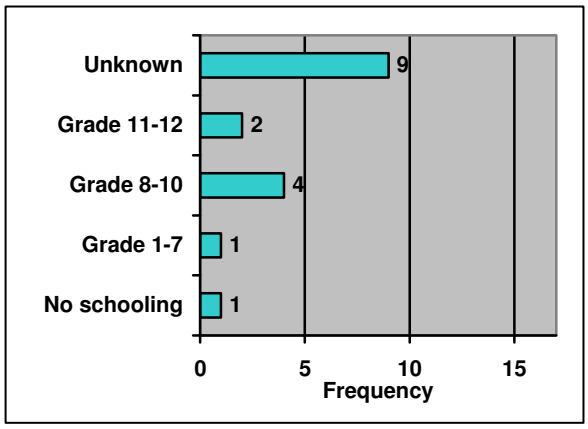

Figure 6. Highest educational qualification of victims (N = 17)

In 9 (52,94%) of the cases no information was available concerning their level of education. In those cases where the information was available, most victims had either no schooling or less than Grade 12: no schooling 1 (5,88%); Grade 1-7, 1 (5,88%); Grade 8-10, 4 (23,53%); and Grade 11-12, 2 (11,77%). In none of the cases where information was available did the victims have a post-matric qualification.

The last demographic detail of victims that is reported is the victims' occupations. Figure 7 shows the number of victims within each occupation category.

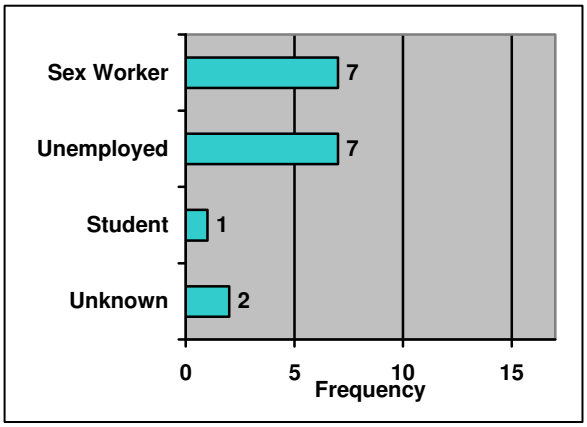

Figure 7. Occupation of victims (N = 17)

Most victims were either unemployed or employed as sex-workers. Whereas 7 (41,18%) were sex-workers, 7 (41,18%) were unemployed, 1 (5,88%) was a student, while the occupation of 2 (11,77%) victims was unknown.

5.2 ASSAULT DETAILS

Various details of the assaults were collected from post-mortem reports. The cause of death, as reported by the post-mortem reports are shown in Figure 8.

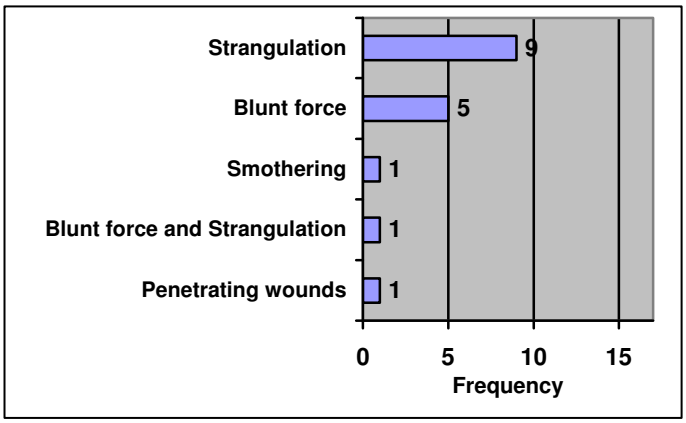

Figure 8. Cause of death (N = 17)

Whereas 9 (52,94%) victims died from strangulation, the death of 5 (29,41%) was as a result of blunt force trauma. The remaining three victims died of smothering, blunt force trauma and strangulation, or penetrating wounds.

The types of wounds infliected on victims were recorded in some detail in the post-mortem reports. Figure 9 shows the number of victims with wounds to different parts of their bodies.

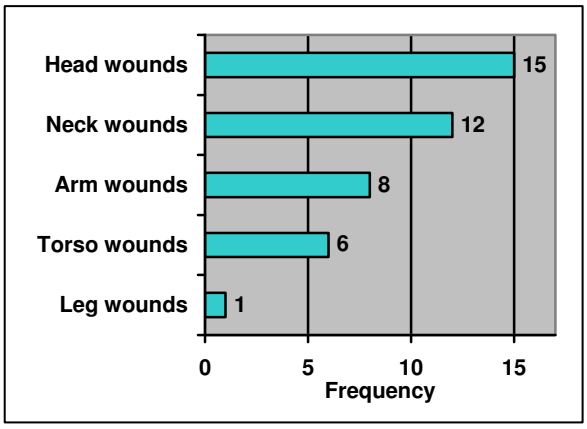

Figure 9. Main wound areas (N = 17)

Most wounds occur around the head and neck area. Fifteen (88,24%) sustained head wounds, 12 (70,59%) neck wounds, and only 1 (5,88%) victim had wounds on her legs. This is consistent with the cause of death, which also nearly always involved the head or neck area.

More details regarding the different wounds are set out in Table 7.

Table 7
Wound Details

	Head wounds		Neck wounds		Torso wounds		Arm wounds		Leg wounds	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Laceration	0	0,00	0	0,00	0	0,00	1	5,88	0	0,00
Blunt force	9	52,94	0	0,00	2	11,77	3	17,65	0	0,00
Penetrating wound	0	0,00	1	5,88	2	11,77	3	17,65	0	0,00
Abrasion	2	11,77	0	0,00	1	5,88	2	11,77	0	0,00
Multiple	4	23,53	1	5,88	2	11,77	0	0,00	0	0,00
Strangulation associated wounds	0	0,00	10	58,82	1	5,88	2	11,77	1	5,88

In addition to occurring more often, head and neck wounds are more likely to be “multiple” type wounds indicative of a higher degree of violence.

In addition to these wounds all victims had an object inserted into the vagina. Table 8 gives an overview of the different types of objects inserted.

Table 8
Type of Objects Inserted into Victims

Variable	Frequency	%
Stick/branch	6	35,29
Bottle	4	23,53
Sandal	1	5,88
Cigarette box	1	5,88
Bag of marijuana	1	5,88
Business card	1	5,88
Steel rod	1	5,88
Candle	1	5,88
Multiple	1	5,88
Total	17	99,98

Sticks or branches (6) and bottles (4) were the most common objects used. Most objects are typically objects of “convenience”, either easily accessible at the scene of the crime (like branches) or daily objects carried with a person (bottles, cigarette boxes, business card). The “multiple objects” inserted into one victim included more daily used objects such as a comb, tin of Vicks Vaporub and clothing.

Figure 10 indicates that generally objects were not inserted into other orifices – only in two of the cases did this happen. In these cases a stick and matchbox was inserted into the anus of victims, in addition to the vaginal insertion. As mentioned previously, while cases of only anal insertion were discovered during the course of the research, these cases were not included in the present study.

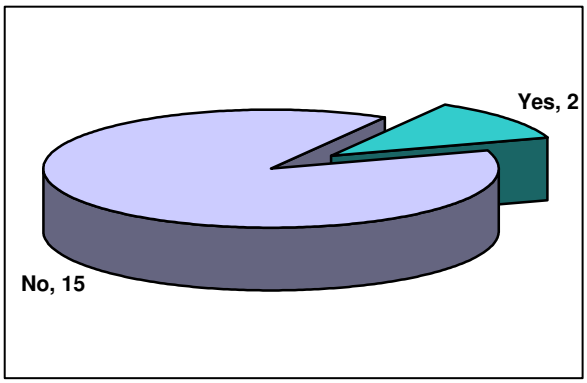

Figure 10. Objects inserted into other orifices

The occurrence of penile rape and existence of semen inside or outside the body on the crime-scene were investigated, yet it was not possible to obtain this information for all cases due to reasons such as the state of decomposition of some bodies.

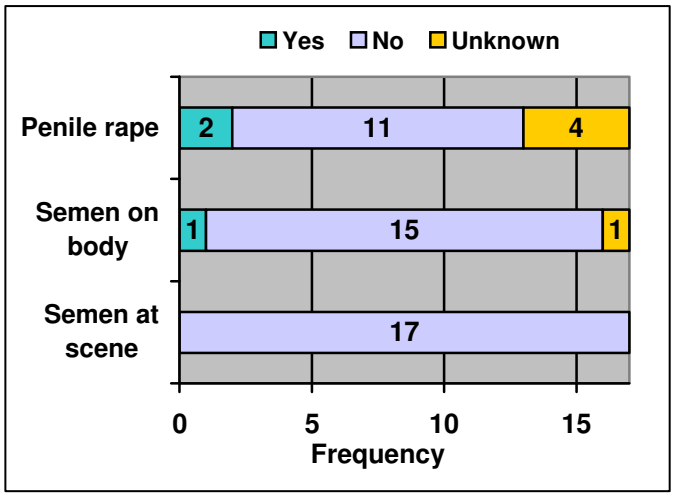

Figure 11. Evidence of penile rape and semen (N = 17)

In only 2 (11,77%) cases was there any evidence of penile rape, although in 4 (23,53%) cases this could not be confirmed, yet in the majority of cases (11 = 88,24%) penile rape was ruled out. In addition, semen was almost never found on the bodies and never at the crime-scene. Due to the lack of evidence for penile rape it strengthens the hypothesis that foreign object insertion in murder cases is a substitution for penile rape, which could possibly result from factors such as sexual dysfunction on behalf of the offender. Future research involving interviews with such offenders should focus on this aspect.

Figure 12 indicates the position in which the bodies were found in when the police arrived at the scenes.

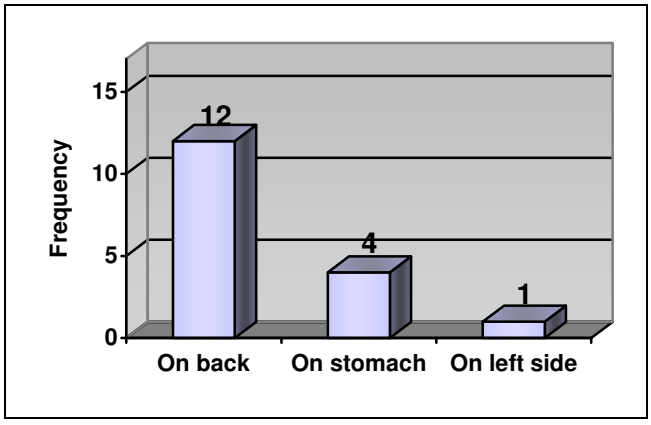

Figure 12. Position of the bodies (N = 17)

When the police discovered the bodies, 12 (70,59%) were lying on their backs, 4 (23,53%) on their stomachs and 1 (5,88%) had been placed on her left side. Only one of these victims was covered, by means of a cardboard box, while 16 (94,12%) were clearly visible without particular attempts having been made to hide their bodies.

Table 9 shows the various states of dress that victims were found in.

Table 9
State of Dress of Victims

Variable	Frequency	%
Clothed	1	5.88
Naked	5	29.41
Upper body clothed	11	64.71
Total	17	100,00

Only 5 (29,41%) of the victims were completely naked and most tended to have been clothed to some degree; 11 (64,71%) had clothed upper bodies and 1 (5,88%) was fully clothed. Only one of the victims had her hands tied with shoe laces, and in the other cases there was no evidence to support that the victims had been restrained by means of a ligature at any time. None of the victims' feet were restrained by means of a ligature.

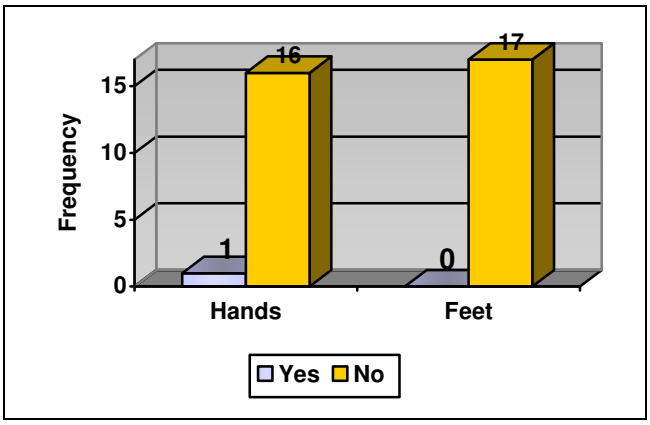

Figure 13. Number of victims' hands or feet restrained by means of a ligature

The relative nakedness of lower bodies are of significance as most of the wounds were found on the upper bodies of the women (Figure 9) and might suggest that unclothing of the lower bodies occurred after the majority of wounds were inflicted, perhaps even after the murders. Similarly, the lack of restraint accompanied by the low frequency of wounds on the arms of the victims (only in 8 cases) and only one victim with leg wounds, could

indicate that the insertion was post-mortem. Alternatively, if there were two or more offenders, the victim might have been manually restrained during the insertion and so restrained until death, thus preventing the victim from removing the inserted object.

This observation is further lent credence by Figure 13 that shows that all but one of the women were never restrained and it is probable that more wounds on the lower bodies would have occurred should victims still have been in a position to resist.

5.3 CRIME-SCENE DETAILS

Figure 14 shows how many of the bodies were found out- and indoors.

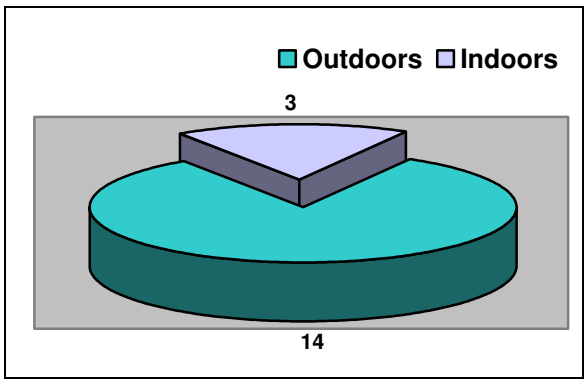

Figure 14. Bodies found in- or outdoors (N = 17)

Most bodies were found outdoors. Of the 14 (82,35%) found outside, most were lying in bushes, on grass or on the ground. One victim was, however, found lying on the tarmac of a deserted road.

Two of the three victims found inside were lying on beds, while the third one was lying on the floor. Of the three “inside” victims one was an 18 year old white scholar and the other two were older unemployed black women (aged 54 and 57). Therefore the youngest victim in the sample and two of the three victims over the age of 40 (the other being 74) were found inside their homes.

In Table 10 an overview is given of who discovered the bodies.

Table 10
Person who Discovered the Bodies

Person	Outdoors	Indoors	Total
Passer-by	11	0	11
Family	1	2	3
Police member	1	0	1
Security guard	1	0	1
Neighbour	0	1	1
Total	14	3	17

Eleven (64,71%) of the bodies were discovered by a passer-by whereas those discovered indoors were discovered by family members or a neighbour. In two of the indoor instances the offenders were known to the victim, the 18 year old schoolgirl was murdered by her brother, and the 54 year old adult female victim was murdered by two neighbours. The third indoor case has not been solved.

Figure 15 shows the time at which the bodies were discovered by the above people as well as the estimated time of the day that the murders occurred.

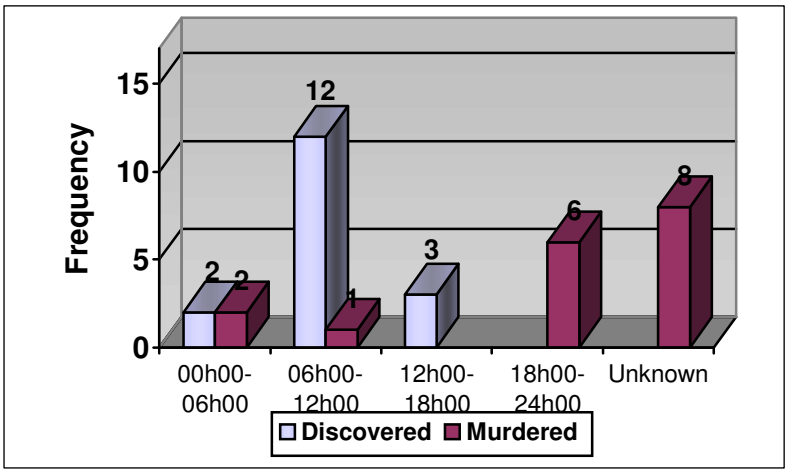

Figure 15. Time of day murdered and discovered (N = 17)

The time at which the crime was committed, is not known for 8 (47,06%) of the cases. The majority of the crimes (35,29%) where the time-frame is known occurred between 18h00 and 24h00. Considering that most victims (14) were found outside it is perhaps logical to deduce that the crimes would have occurred during the evening when (i)

victims are more likely to be on the move outside, and (ii) the cover of darkness affords the offender the opportunity to successfully commit the crime.

Most victims, namely 12 (70,59%) were discovered in the morning, somewhere between the 06h00 and 12h00. This is the time of day when activity picks up and people either go to work or start going about their daily activities. This makes sense in that the victims were left clearly visible, and were discovered mostly (11 of the 17 incidents) by a passer-by.

Similarly, as with the time of day, the day of the week when the victims were discovered and when they were likely to have been murdered are indicated in Table 11.

Table 11
Day of the Week the Crime was Probably Committed and Victims were Discovered

Week day	Crime committed	Discovered
Monday	1	2
Tuesday	0	0
Wednesday	2	2
Thursday	3	5
Friday	5	3
Saturday	2	5
Sunday	2	0
Unknown	2	0
Total	17	17

Most of the crimes, namely 5 (29,41%) were committed on a Friday and discovered on a Saturday. Three (17,65%) were committed on a Thursday and discovered on a Friday. Crimes committed on a Sunday or early in the week were likely to be discovered slightly later in the week. None of the known crimes were committed on a Tuesday neither were any discovered on a Tuesday or on a Sunday.

In Figure 16 the area where the crime was committed is shown.

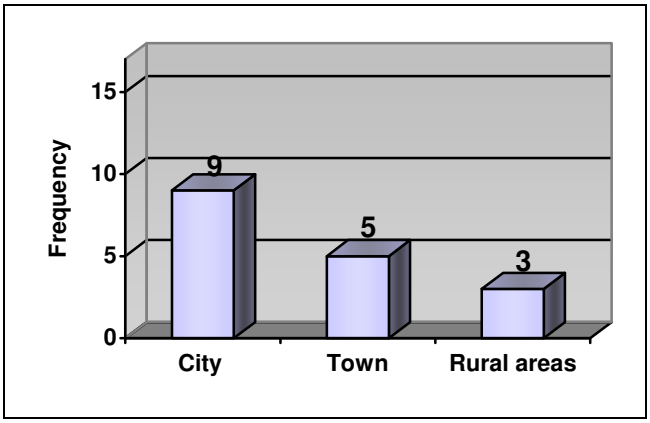

Figure 16. Area where crimes were committed (N = 17)

The crimes were mostly committed in the following areas: 9 (52,94%) in cities; 5 (29,41%) in towns; and 3 (17,65%) in rural areas.

A cross-tabulation (see Table 12) between the day of the crime and the area indicates that a foreign object insertion sexual murder committed in the city is most likely to occur over a weekend, starting Thursday through to Sunday. Murders in towns and rural areas are likely to occur spread throughout the week.

Table 12
Day of Crime and the Area where Crime was Committed

	Area		
Day of crime	City	Town	Rural area
Monday	0	1	0
Wednesday	0	1	1
Thursday	3	0	0
Friday	3	2	0
Saturday	1	0	1
Sunday	2	0	0
Unknown	0	1	1
Total	9	5	3

Table 13 shows the number of murders per province.

Table 13
Number of Murders per Province

Province	N	%
Western Cape	4	23,53
Gauteng	3	17,65
Limpopo	3	17,65
North West	2	11,77
Mpumalanga	2	11,77
KwaZulu-Natal	2	11,77
Eastern Cape	1	5,88
Free State	0	0,00
Northern Cape	0	0,00
Total	17	100,00

As Table 13 indicates, these murders were committed in seven of the nine provinces of South Africa, however, due to the sampling method used in this research it cannot be said with certainty that similar cases have not occurred in the other two provinces.

As Figure 17 below shows, only 5 (29,41%) murders were linked with other murders, not necessarily included in the current study. Yet these five cases were linked with not only one other murder but were often linked to more than five other murders, and were part of an identified murder series. In those linked to a murder series, foreign object insertion occurred as an exception rather than a rule across the series. This has obvious implications for foreign object insertion, linkage and signature analysis. Foreign object insertion is sometimes seen as a signature behaviour of serial murderers that will occur throughout the series (Keppel, 1995, 2000, Hazelwood & Warren, 2003).

Two incidents included in this research were part of an unsolved five-victim-series of female sex-workers. The insertion occurred during the second incident (which involved two victims murdered at the same time) and the fourth and final incident to date. While foreign object insertion did not occur in the other three murders in that series, the offender did make a small fire on the genitals of two of the other victims at separate incidents, the first incident and the third incident. In this series the signature can be said to be that the offender tampered with the genitals of his victims, by means of fire and foreign object insertion.

Two other incidents included in this research were part of a 19-victim-series of female sex-workers, which is unsolved. In this series the foreign object insertion cases occurred in victims number 10 and 15. The final incident from this research comes from a solved four-victim-series. The victims were sex-workers and non-sex-workers, male and female victims, black, Coloured and white. In this series the insertion occurred during the second incident, and the victim was a sex-worker.

Considering that to date the IPU of the SAPS has identified 75 murder series, dating from 1936 to the end of 2006 (author's files), of which only three series have reported incidents of foreign object insertion, it can be said that foreign object insertion is an uncommon feature of South African murder series and that it is more often associated with single murders. When it does occur during a series it is not a dominant behaviour that occurs consistently across the series. When it is linked to a series the victims were almost exclusively sex-workers. However, due to the rarity of this crime-scene behaviour in general, when two or more cases do occur in a close geographical area, and where the victims are sex-workers, it can be used to link cases together.

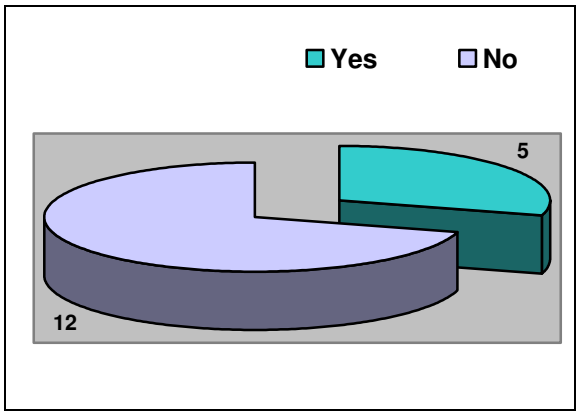

Figure 17. Murders linked with other murders

5.4 PROFILING VICTIMS: DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES

In an attempt to better understand the profile of victims, the various data points collected and discussed in the previous section are compared to highlight differences and similarities.

5.4.1 Population group

- **Demographics**

In terms of demographic variables, the victims from different population groups are compared with regards to their ***age***, ***occupation*** and ***marital status***. The education variable was not used due to the high "unknown" percentage.

A cross-tabulation between population group and age is shown in Table 14.

Table 14
Cross-tabulation between Population Group and Age (n = 16)

	Population group		
Age	Black	Coloured	White
18	-	-	18
19	-	19	-
20	-	-	20
25	25	-	-
26	26	-	-
28	-	28	-
29	-	-	29
31	-	31	-
35	35	-	-
37	37	-	-
39	-	78	-
54	108	-	-
57	57	-	-
74	74	-	-
Σ	362	156	67
Mean	45	31	22

Table 14 shows that the average age for black victims is 45 years, for Coloured 31 years and 22 years for white victims. An analysis of variance test, testing for significance in the average ages, indicates that these differences are significant at the 90% level of confidence (p = 0,056).

In Table 15 the occupation of the victims is given according to the different population groups they belong to.

Table 15
Cross-tabulation between Occupation and Population Group

Population group	Occupation				Total
	Student	Unemployed	Unknown	Sex-worker	
Black	0	6	1	2	9
Coloured	0	1	1	3	5
White	1	0	0	2	3
Total	1	7	2	7	17

Table 15 shows that 66,6% of the white and 60,00% of the Coloured victims were sex-workers (5 of the 7 sex-workers were white or Coloured). Only 2 of the 9 black victims were sex-workers, most black victims were unemployed.

Based on the above table it appears that the unemployed (52,94%) and more specifically black women (85,72%), have a higher risk of falling prey to his type of crime. It can further be hypothesised that being a sex-worker increases the risk for black, Coloured and white women (41,18%) to become victims of this crime.

Table 16 gives an overview of marital status and population group.

Table 16
Cross-tabulation between Marital Status and Population Group (n = 15)

Population group	Marital status				Total
	Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed	
Black	3	3	0	1	7
Coloured	4	0	1	0	5
White	3	0	0	0	3
Total	10	3	1	1	15

Table 12 shows that most of the victims (66,67%) were single. Whereas an equal number of black victims were single and married, single victims predominated the Coloured and white groups. Based on the above table the deduction can be made that single women of all three population groups as well as married women of the black group are more at risk of becoming victims of this crime.

- **Assault details**

In terms of the assault details, the ***cause of death***, ***main type of wounds*** and ***type of objects inserted*** are compared for the different population groups.

In Table 17 cause of death and population group is cross tabulated.

Table 17
Cross-tabulation between Cause of Death and Population Group

	Cause of death					
Population group	Blunt force	Strangulation	Blunt force and strangulation	Smothering	Penetrating wounds	Total
Black	3	3	1	1	1	9
Coloured	2	3	0	0	0	5
White	0	3	0	0	0	3
Total	5	9	1	1	1	17

The cause of death of victims was generally very similar with 9 (52,4%) dying of strangulation and 5 (29,41%) of blunt force injuries. If the first three categories are combined (88,24%) it can be hypothesised that for women of all three population groups the highest risk is to be strangled or to die of blunt force injuries. The lack of weapons such as firearms or knives as a means to murder the victim can possibly point towards a lack of planning on behalf of the offender to commit the crime, or at least to murder the victim. On the other hand, some offenders, such as serial murderers, might prefer the personal physical involvement that strangulation affords him when committing the crime, and hence not make use of other weapons such as firearms or knives. In South Africa the most common method used by a serial murderer to murder his victim is manual strangulation (author's files) and in most of those cases, as evidenced by the use of a con-story to lure the victim, there was preplanning and therefore an awareness that the murderer was going to commit a murder.

Table 18 shows the nature of the wounds sustained by victims of the different population groups.

Table 18
Cross-tabulation between Main Wounds and Population Group (N = 17)

Population group	Main wounds				
	Head wounds	Neck wounds	Torso wounds	Arm wounds	Leg wounds
Black	8	6	3	4	1
Coloured	4	3	2	3	0
White	3	3	1	1	0
Total	15	12	6	8	1

The main areas of the body that sustained wounds were the head and neck, consistent with the most common causes of death (strangulation and blunt force trauma). Arm wounds, which occurred in 8 of the 17 instances, would most likely be consistent with defensive wounds sustained during the commission of the crime. In all areas of the body black victims (except leg wounds in which they were equal with white victims) sustained the most wounds, possibly indicating higher levels of aggression during their murders. If arm wounds are an indication of defensive wounds, further indicating a higher level of resistance, then it is perhaps a logical deduction that black and then Coloured victims, resisted, or were in more of a position to resist, the offender. Unfortunately due to the low solving level of these crimes in this sample it was not possible to determine whether or not the nature of the relationship had anything to do with the level of violence.

In Table 19 the relationship between objects inserted into he victims and population group is shown.

Table 19
Cross-tabulation between Object Inserted and Population Group

Population group	Object inserted									
	Stick/ branch	Bottle	Steel rod	Sandal	Cigarette box	Bag of marijuana	Business card	Candle	Mult-ple	Total
Black	4	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	9
Coloured	2	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5
White	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	3
Total	6	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	17

Table 19 shows that white victims (11,77%) were more likely to have uncommon items inserted such as a bag of marijuana and a business card. Objects inserted into black (41,18%) and Coloured (23,53%) victims were more often sticks, bottles or easily

available objects. Whereas 11 (64,71%) of black and Coloured victims had these types of objects inserted it only occurred in 1 (5,88%) of the white victims.

- **Crime-scene details**

Certain crime-scene details were also compared with population group. These include the ***areas where the crime was committed*** and the ***day of the week*** that the crime took place.

Table 20 shows the relationship between the area where the crime was committed and the population group of the victims.

Table 20
Cross-tabulation between Area of Crime and Population Group (N = 17)

Population group	Area			Total
	City	Town	Rural area	
Black	3	3	3	9
Coloured	4	1	0	5
White	2	1	0	3
Total	9	5	3	17

An equal number of black women were murdered in rural, town and city locations. Moreover, three of the five murdered in towns were also black women. Coloured and white victims were murdered predominantly in cities, followed by towns to a lesser degree, where they were likely working in the sex trade (see Table 22).

Table 21 highlights the days on which the crimes were committed.

Table 21
Cross-tabulation between Day of the Crime and Population Group

Population group	Day crime was committed							Total
	Mon-day	Wednes-day	Thurs-day	Fri-day	Satur-day	Sun-day	Unknown	
Black	0	2	1	3	1	0	2	9
Coloured	0	0	0	2	1	2	0	5
White	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	3
Total	1	2	3	5	2	2	2	17

The above table shows that white victims were murdered during the week (Monday to Thursday), while the Coloured victims from Friday to Sunday, and black victims were most likely to be murdered from Wednesday to Saturday. When population grouping is not taken into consideration then there is an even spread across all days of the week, with a peak period over Thursdays and Fridays, with no victims murdered on a Tuesday.

- **Summary**

A summary of the results is given in Table 22. The summary is based on a qualitative view of the results.

Table 22
Summary of Population Group Comparisons

Variable	Population group		
	Black	Coloured	White
Average age	45	31	22
Occupation	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Sex-worker
Cause of death	Strangulation and blunt force	Strangulation and blunt force	Strangulation
Object inserted	Sticks and bottles	Sticks and bottles	Unusual
Areas of murder	Cities, towns or rural areas	Cities	Cities
Day of crime	Wednesday - Saturday	Friday - Sunday	Monday - Thursday

5.4.2 Occupation

While it has already been established that the sex-workers were most likely Coloured or white and that black women were unemployed, this section seeks to determine if there is any other differences in terms of the assault and crime-scene details between the victims of different occupations.

- **Assault details**

The cross-tabulation between cause of death and occupation is presented in Table 23 below.

Table 23
Cross-tabulation between Cause of Death and Occupation

	Occupation				
Cause of death	Scholar	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Unknown	Total
Blunt force	0	4	1	0	5
Strangulation	1	2	4	2	9
Smothering	0	1	0	0	1
Blunt force and strangulation	0	0	1	0	1
Penetrating wounds	0	0	1	0	1
Total	1	7	7	2	17

Table 23 shows that sex-workers were more likely to have been strangled, while the unemployed more likely to have been murdered by means of blunt force.

In Table 24 the relationship between the main wound areas of the body and occupation is highlighted.

Table 24
Cross-tabulation between Main Wounds and Occupation

	Occupation				
Type of wound	Scholar	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Unknown	Total
Head wounds	1	7	5	2	15
Neck wounds	1	3	6	2	12
Torso wounds	0	3	2	1	6
Arm wounds	0	3	3	2	8
Leg wounds	0	0	1	0	1
Total	2	16	17	7	42

The wounds on the bodies are consistent with the area of the cause of death. Sex-workers show a higher percentage of strangulation as cause of death, with trauma to the head and neck occurring frequently. With regards to wound patterns, sex-workers and the unemployed have almost similar patterns of wounds.

Table 25 shows the cross-tabulation between occupation and object inserted.

Table 25
Cross-tabulation between Object Inserted and Occupation

	Occupation			
Object	Scholar	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Unknown
Stick/branch	0	3	2	1
Bottle	1	2	1	0
Steel rod	0	0	1	0
Sandal	0	0	0	1
Cigarette box	0	0	1	0
Bag of marijuana	0	0	1	0
Business card	0	0	1	0
Candle	0	1	0	0
Multiple	0	1	0	0
Total	1	7	7	2

According to Table 25 three of the sex-workers had more uncommon, and a wider variety (6 different types), of objects inserted during the murders. This was also observed in Table 19 for white victims, who tended to be sex-workers.

- **Crime-scene details**

The cross-tabulation between the occupation of victims and the area of the crime is given in Table 26.

Table 26
Cross-tabulation between Area of Crime by Occupation of Victim

	Area			
Occupation	City	Town	Rural area	Total
Student	0	1	0	1
Unemployed	2	3	2	7
Sex-worker	5	1	1	7
Unknown	2	0	0	2
Total	9	5	3	17

Five (71,43%) of the seven sex-workers were murdered in cities. Unemployed victims or in other words 71,43% (5 of 7) were murdered in rural areas or towns.

Table 27
Cross-tabulation between Day of the Crime and Occupation

	Occupation				
Day	Student	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Unknown	Total
Monday	1	0	0	0	1
Wednesday	0	2	0	0	2
Thursday	0	1	2	0	3
Friday	0	2	2	1	5
Saturday	0	1	1	0	2
Sunday	0	0	1	1	2
Unknown	0	1	1	0	2
Total	1	7	7	2	17

In terms of the day of the crime, it appears that unemployed women were more likely to have been murdered from Wednesday to Saturday, while sex-workers were most likely to have been murdered from Thursday to Sunday.

- **Summary of differences between occupation groups**

A summary of the results for occupation is presented in Table 28. Again the summary is based on a qualitative view of the results from the above section. As there was only one student in the sample, the comparative value is limited and this victim is excluded from the summary. The "unknown" occupation group is, however, included.

Table 28
Summary of Occupation Comparisons

	Occupation		
Variable	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Unknown
Cause of death	Blunt force	Strangulation	Strangulation
Object inserted	Stick or bottle	Mix	Mix
Areas of murder	Cities, towns and rural areas	Cities	Cities
Day of crime	Wednesday-Saturday	Thursday-Sunday	Friday-Sunday

The victims with "unknown" occupations show many similarities with the profiles of sex-workers; death by strangulation, murdered in cities during weekends, and a mixture of common items inserted (stick/branch and a sandal). Similarly, only 1 of the 7 (i.e. 14,29%) of the sex-worker cases were solved, and none of the unknown victim cases were solved. It is therefore possible that the victims whose occupation is unknown could have been sex-workers.

5.5 OFFENDER DETAILS

5.5.1 Description of the cases where suspects were arrested

A mere 6 (35,29%) of the 17 cases were solved allowing for offender details to be collected. Two cases involved two suspects bringing the total number of suspects in the six solved murders to eight.

In terms of these six murders, suspects were arrested for two of the three indoor murders (see Figure 18). It is possible that indoor murders offered more possibilities whereby offenders could be identified, such as fingerprints, or eye witnesses. In the two indoor solved cases the suspects were known to the victims (one was the brother of the deceased, and in the other incident the offenders were neighbours to the deceased). This is discussed further later in this section and reflected graphically in Figure 24.

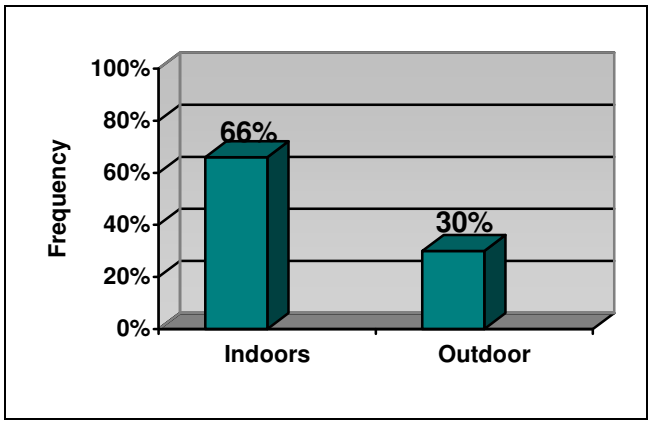

Figure 18. Percentage of indoor-outdoor murders with suspects

Table 29 indicates the split of arrests for the different victim occupation categories.

Table 29
Split of Suspects across different Occupation Groups of Victims

	Occupation				
Variable	Student	Unemployed	Sex-worker	Unknown	Total
Arrests	1	3	1	1	6
No suspect	0	4	6	1	11
Total	1	7	7	2	17

A suspect was arrested in only one of the seven sex-worker cases. Perhaps due to the illegal nature of sex-workers' occupation people might be less likely to come forward as witnesses in an attempt to avoid association with a sex-worker. It could, however, indicate a lack of effort on behalf of investigators due to the victim's status. Alternatively, due to the possibility that sex-workers are more likely to be murdered by strangers because of the nature of their work, their murders are more difficult to solve. Most murders in South Africa (81,50%) are committed by perpetrators known to the victim (South African Police Service, 2006), and thus have a higher chance of being solved. The highest success rate occurred in the unemployed group (43,00% solved) and the only student victim case was solved.

In Table 30 the split of suspects across the different population groups is given.

Table 30
Split of Suspects across different Population Groups of Victims

	Population group of victim			
Variable	Black	Coloured	White	Total
Suspect	2	3	1	6
No suspect	7	2	2	11
Total	9	5	3	17

Table 30 indicates that suspects were arrested for 3 (60,00%) of the 5 Coloured murders, 1 (33,33%) of the 3 white murders, but only for 2 (28,57%) of the 9 black murders.

Table 31 provides an overview of the proportion of arrested offenders per province.

Table 31
Split of Suspects across Different Provinces

Variable	Province							Total
	Gauteng	Limpopo	North West	Mpumalanga	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	KZN	
Suspect	0	2	1	0	1	1	1	6
No suspect	3	1	1	2	3	0	1	11
Total	3	3	2	2	4	1	2	17

When considering the proportion of arrests in each province, it appears that two (66,6%) of the three murders in Limpopo resulted in arrests. Both North West and KZN solved 50,00% of their murders, the Western Cape had the most incidents but solved only 25,00% of their cases, while Gauteng and Mpumalanga provinces had not solved any of their cases. The Eastern Cape (100%) and Limpopo (66,60%) provinces had the highest success rates. The Northern Cape did not have any such cases.

5.5.2 Demographic description of offenders arrested

In two of the cases the details for two offenders who committed the crime in partnership, are available and this brings the total number of offenders reported on to eight.

All offenders were male, and their ages are given in the Figure19.

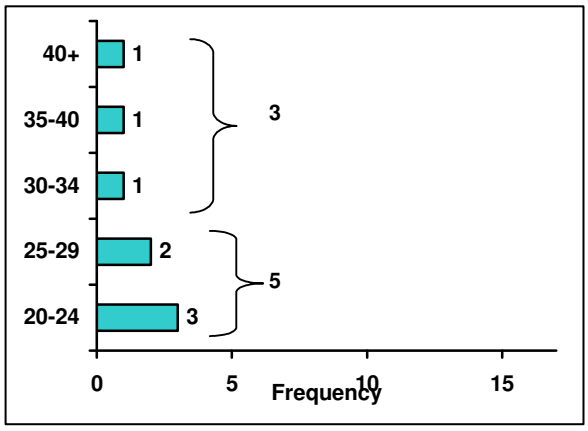

Figure 19. Age of suspects (N = 8)

Three (37,50%) of the eight offenders were aged between 20-24 years and two (25,00%) in the 25-29 age category. The remaining three were older than 30. When viewed by population group the age ranges were as follows: white offenders 20-24 (1),

25-29 (1); black offenders 20-24 (1), 25-29 (1), 40+ (1); Coloured offenders 20-24 (1), 30-34 (2).

The population group the different offenders belong to are presented graphically in Figure 20.

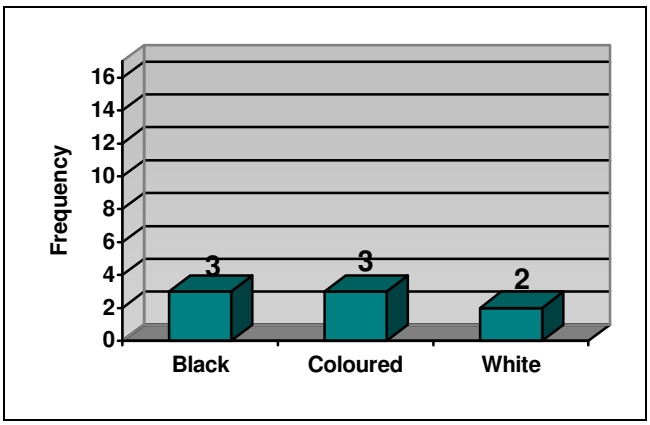

Figure 20. Population distribution of offenders (N = 8)

Table 32 presents a cross-tabulation between the population group of the victims and the population group of the offenders.

Table 32
Cross-tabulation between Victim and Offender Population Groups

Population group of victim	Population group of offender			Total
	Black	Coloured	White	
Black	3	0	0	3
Coloured	0	3	1	4
White	0	0	1	1
Total	3	3	2	8

From Table 32 it is evident that offenders and victims generally are from the same population group. The exception to the rule occurred in the case of a Coloured sex-worker who had been murdered by a white offender. This was part of a four-victim-series that involved males and females, black, Coloured and white victims, discussed previously.

The marital status of the offenders is presented in Figure 21.

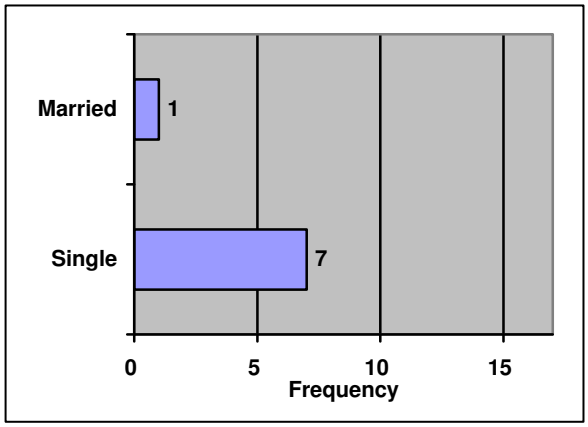

Figure 21. Marital status of offenders (N = 8)

From the above figure it appears that seven (87,50%) of the offenders were single, while one (12,50%) was married at the time of the murder. Further research could explore whether or not the lack of a relationship or attitude towards women in general, plays a role in motivating the person to commit this crime.

Educational level achieved by the offenders is shown in Figure 22.

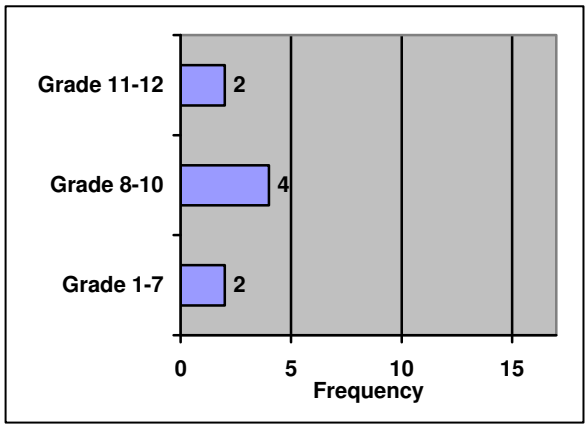

Figure 22. Highest educational qualification of offenders (N = 8)

As is evident from the above figure most of the offenders have a relatively low level of education: two (25,00%) have a grade 11-12 education; four (50,00%) a Grade 8-10 level; and two (25,00%) between a grade 1-7 education. Thus 75% did not attain a qualification above the Grade 10 level.

In Figure 23 the occupations of the offenders are shown.

Figure 23. Occupation of offenders (N = 8)

All eight the offenders are heterosexual. Their employment circumstances were as follows at the time of committing the crime: six (75,00%) were unemployed, one (12,50%) was employed as a labourer, while one (12,50%) was employed in a clerical position. The latter person was arrested for the murder of a sex-worker.

The relationship of the offenders to their victims is illustrated in Figure 24.

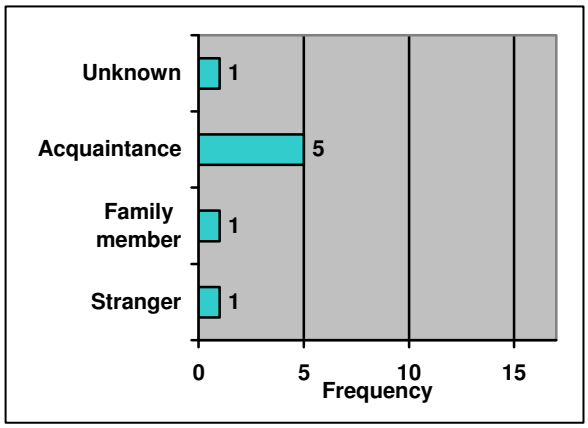

Figure 24. Relationship to victims (N = 8)

Most suspects (5) were acquaintances of their victims such as a neighbour, one was a family member, one was a stranger (a serial murderer) and one's relationship was unknown. From the small sample of solved cases it is apparent that people murdered in

this fashion are more likely to have been done so by someone known to them. This is consistent with the overall statistic that people in South Africa (81,50%) are usually murdered by people known to them.

None of the known offenders had a mental disorder while only one of the eight offenders was diagnosed as having a neurological problem, namely epilepsy. This is contrary to the controversial Organised/Disorganised Typology developed by the FBI for sexual murders as discussed in Chapter 2. In their typology the FBI states that the insertion of objects into the genitals of a murder victim is indicative of a disorganised offender and such offenders are typically experiencing a mental disorder (Douglas et al., 1992; Ressler et al., 1988) and also DiMaio and DiMaio's (2001) similar statement that such individuals are often psychotic, are therefore not supported by this research. This is further supported by the fact that they were all competent to stand trial. Seven (87,50%) of the eight offenders were positively identified as having been under the influence of a substance, namely alcohol, at the time of the offence.

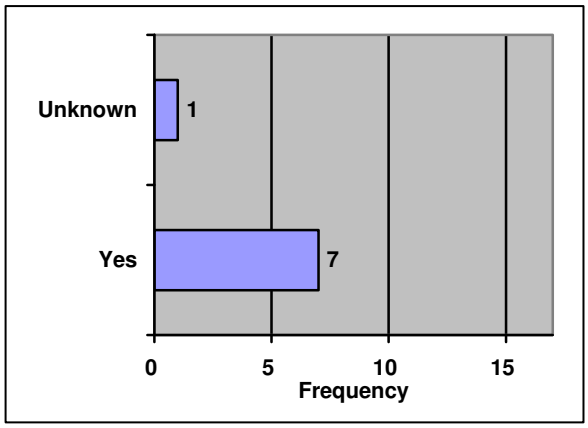

Figure 25. Under the influence of a substance (N = 8)

In Figure 26 it is shown to what extent the offenders had previous criminal records.

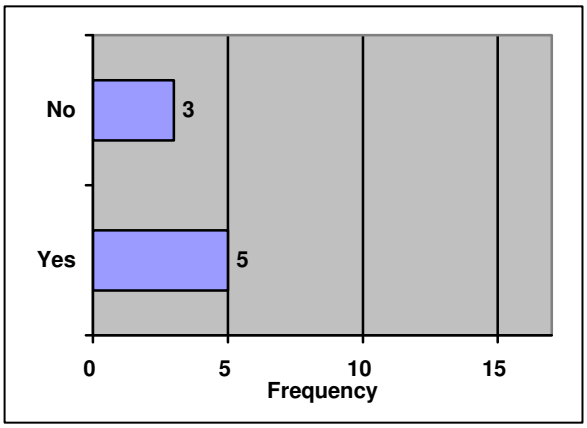

Figure 26. Previous criminal record (N = 8)

Five (62,50%) of the offenders had previous criminal records according to the SAPS criminal records database. The crimes they had committed in the past are relatively violent, ranging from theft and assault to murder. Table 33 categorises the different crimes committed previously by the offenders. However, a formal criminal record does not necessarily encompass a person's full criminal history as there may have been crimes for which the suspect was never arrested.

Table 33
Types of Crimes Committed Prior to being Arrested for these Murders

Type of crime	N
Violent contact crimes (murder, rape, assault)	5
Property related (robbery, theft, housebreaking)	4
Other (driving under the influence, escaping custody)	2

In summary the characteristics of the offenders is represented in Table 34 below:

Table 34
Summary of Offender Characteristics

Characteristic	Highest Incidence	%
Marital status	Single	87,50
Education level	Below grade 11 (std 9)	75,00
Age	20-29	62,50
Language	Black language	50,00
	Afrikaans	50,00
Occupation	Unemployed	75,00
Sexual orientation	Heterosexual	100,00
Relationship to victim	Known to victim	75,00
Mental illness	None	0,00
Neurological disorder	Epilepsy	12,50
Under influence of substance	Alcohol	87,50
Previous criminal record	Violent offence	62,60
	Property related offence	50,00

In summary of the offender characteristics most were single males, with an education level below grade 11 in the age range of 20-29. Regarding language half of the offenders spoke a black language and the other half spoke Afrikaans. The majority were unemployed and often had a criminal record history that included violence and property related offences. All were heterosexual and many were known to their victims. The majority had used alcohol prior to the offence. None had a mental disorder and only one had a diagnosed history of epilepsy.

5.6 CONCLUSION

Even within the relatively small sample of victims and offenders, clear patterns emerged that may be of use to investigators. When victims were analysed by population group each group had unique characteristics, similarly when looked at from occupation. The offenders, perhaps due to their smaller sample size, appeared to be a more homogenous group in their characteristics. Of the solved cases a pattern did start to emerge with many having known their victims.

In the next chapter the merits and shortcomings of the research, and the degree to which the research aims were achieved, will be discussed.

6. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

This study analysed 17 cases of sexual murder involving foreign object insertion - a rare occurrence throughout the world - with the intention of exploring and describing the phenomenon. The results of the research show certain unique groupings of actions and circumstances regarding the victims, the offenders, and the circumstances of the crimes.

6.1 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of the research as set out in Chapter 1, and the degree to which they were achieved in the research, are discussed below:

- **Construct a typical victim profile for this type of homicide**

This aim was successfully achieved. Certain patterns did emerge in the victimology. This was most significant when the victims were clustered according to population group, and occupation. A profile for each population group was determined, which should prove to be of use to investigators when an unidentified victim has been discovered.

- **Construct a typical suspect profile based on cases where suspect identities are known**

This aim was achieved, despite the small number of apprehended offenders. Since there were very few solved cases, six in total, with eight offenders involved and three population groups involved, it was not possible to determine if there were unique differences between offenders when grouped in that manner. An overall profile, encompassing all offenders, was compiled. A larger sample size of offenders would be necessary to give more credence to this profile.

- **Determine the nature of the relationship between suspect and victim based on the crime-scene characteristics**

This aim was not fully achieved. Once again the small sample of solved cases limited the researcher's ability to thoroughly explore this aim. What was determined was that in

most cases the offender did know the victim. The nature of the relationship ranged from an acquaintance to a family member.

- **Highlight the uniqueness of such behaviour on a crime-scene so as to give weight for its use as similar fact evidence in a series of crimes**

This aim was successfully achieved. By virtue of the scarcity of this crime-scene behaviour its occurrence in any two or more crimes in the same geographic location makes it a strong linkage behaviour. However, where this did occur in series it was not a consistent feature of the series and should therefore not be seen as the only linkage factor in a series of crimes. This and its occurrence in two or more cases would be a strong point for similar fact evidence, either to argue that crimes must not necessarily be excluded if foreign object insertion did not occur, or to argue that when it does occur in close proximity it is a strong linkage factor. Finally when a case of foreign object insertion does occur it does not automatically signify a series.

- **To describe the crime-scene characteristics of this type of crime**

This aim was successfully achieved. Various aspects of the crime-scene characteristics were discussed in relation to different factors such as population group, age, occupation, and location of the crime. Noteworthy patterns did emerge.

- **To determine if this crime is more often associated with serial murders or single murders**

This aim was successfully achieved. The results of the research clearly indicated that this is not a crime-scene behaviour typical of serial murder. It did occur in a three series, yet was not a consistent feature of those series. Its occurrence on a crime-scene should not automatically be taken as a warning sign indicating the start of a murder series.

6.2 BENEFITS FOR INVESTIGATION AND TRAINING

From the results of the research investigators will be in a better position to investigate these types of crimes. Victims discovered who are not yet identified can be profiled based on the circumstance of their crime-scenes. This can allow investigators to focus

their enquiries, for example, on local sex-workers to determine the identity of the victim sooner and thus locate valuable witnesses who last saw the victim.

Similarly, due to the high percentage of offenders who are known to their victim, the preliminary results of the research can be used to focus investigators' attention towards offenders known to the victim. Further, the research has dispelled the misconception that this is a crime-scene behaviour typically associated with serial murder. Finally, due to the reason that it is a rare crime-scene behaviour it has a strong potential for linkage of cases when two or more similar cases do occur, this is useful during investigation and prosecution. This information is beneficial to investigators and can be communicated to them by means of training presented on the investigation of psychologically motivated crimes.

6.3 CRITIQUE OF THE RESEARCH

As with all research there are certain shortcomings and positive points. With regards to shortcomings the most pertinent was the limited sample size. However, the rarity of foreign object insertion makes large samples almost impossible. Furthermore, due to the sampling method used, based on the fact that there is no comprehensive database of such crimes, nor a more effective way to find out about crimes involving foreign object insertion, the sample cannot be said to include all such cases. Despite this, the research comprises to date the largest sample of foreign object insertion in sexual murder cases.

6.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research should be seen as a starting point for understanding this phenomenon and contributing to more effective investigation of such cases. Based on the experience of the researcher on this topic, it is suggested that future research should focus on the following:

- **Larger sample size**

Future research can build upon the foundation of this research by expanding on the sample size. This would allow for a more statistically reliable determination of the results

presented in this research. This would allow for more reliability when generalising the results.

- **Interviews with convicted offenders**

This research did not directly delve into the motivation for offenders to engage in foreign object insertion. Interviews with co-operative offenders who have been convicted of murders in which foreign object insertion has occurred would greatly expand our understanding of why people engage in such crime-scene behaviour.

- **Comparison to international samples**

Comparison to research conducted in other countries would assist in determining whether or not such crime-scene behaviour occurs in a similar fashion, with similar victim and offender characteristics, as in South Africa. Due to cultural, political and socio-economic differences in different countries it is possible that this phenomenon would present differently in different countries.

6.5 CONCLUSION

This research approached a rare phenomenon that had not been researched on a similar scale before. Its overall aim was to explore and describe how this crime occurs, under what circumstances it occurs and who the victims and who the offenders are. While the aims of the study were achieved to a large degree, the research should rather be seen as a foundation for future research, so as to broaden scientific understanding of foreign object insertion in sexual murder.

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APPENDIX A: FOREIGN OBJECT INSERTION CHECKLIST

Section A: Victim's biographical details

For office use

Respondent no.

V1			1-2

Card no

V2		3

1. **Age:** _____

V3			4-5

2. **Racial/ethnic background:**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Asian	Black	Brown	White	Indian	Unknown

V4		6

3. **Has victim been identified?**

1	2
Yes	No

V5		7

4. **Home language:**

1	2	3	4	5	6
English	Afrikaans	Black Language	Indian Language	Other	Unknown

V6		8

5. **Marital status:**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Single	Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Unknown

V7		9

6. **Educational qualification:**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No schooling	Grade 1-7	Grade 8-10	Grade 11-12	Diploma	Degree	Unknown

V8		10

7. **Occupation:**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Prof.	Semi-Prof	Clerical	Labourer	Student	Unemp.	Unknown	Sex Worker

V9		11

Section B: Nature of assault

8. **Cause of death:** ____ _____

V10			12-13

9. **Wounds inflicted to the body:**

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V11		14

10. **If yes, nature of the wounds**

******** ********

11. **Head wounds:**

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V12		15

12. Type of head wound(s):

1	2	3	4	5
Laceration	Blunt force	Penetrating wound	Abrasion	Multiple

V13		16

13. If yes, describe the nature of the wound(s)

V14			17-18

_____

_____

14. Neck wounds:

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V15		19

15. Type of neck wound(s)?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Laceration	Blunt force	Penetrating wound	Abrasion	Strangulation	Multiple

V16		20

16. If yes, describe the nature of the wound(s)

_____

V17			21-22

_____

17. Torso wounds:

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V18		23

18. Type of torso wound(s):

1	2	3	4	5
Laceration	Blunt force	Penetrating wound	Abrasion	Multiple

V19		24

19. If yes, describe the nature of the wound(s)

V20			25-26

_____

_____

20. Arm wounds:

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V21		27

21. Type of arm wound(s):

1	2	3	4	5
Laceration	Blunt force	Penetrating wound	Abrasion	Multiple

V22		28

22. If yes, describe the nature of the wound(s)

V23			29-30

_____

_____

23. Legs wounds:

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V24		31

24. Type of leg wound(s):

1	2	3	4	5
Laceration	Blunt force	Penetrating wound	Abrasion	Multiple

V25		32

25. If yes, describe the nature of the wound(s):

_____

_____

V26			33-34

26. Object inserted into vagina : _____

V27		35

27. Objects inserted into other orifices:

1	2
Yes	No

V28		36

28. If yes, describe orifice and object

_____

V29			37-38

29. Injuries to genitalia:

_____ _____

_____

_____

V30			39-40

30. Is there evidence that penile rape occurred?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V31		41

31. Is there evidence of semen on the body?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V32		42

32. Is there evidence of semen elsewhere on the crime-scene?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V33		43

33. Position of body:

1	2	3	4
On back	On stomach	On left side	On right side

V34		44

34. State of dress:

1	2	3	4
Clothed	Naked	Upper body clothed	Lower body clothed

V35		45

35. Describe state of dress: _____

_____

V36			46-47

36. Was body covered?

1	2
Yes	No

V37		48

37. If yes, describe nature of covering _____

V38		49

38. Were the victim's hands tied?

1	2
Yes	No

V39		50

39. If yes, describe ligature _____

V40		51

40. Were victim's feet tied?

1	2
Yes	No

V41		52

41. If yes, describe ligature _____

V42		53

SECTION C: CRIME SCENE DETAILS

42. Who discovered body? Describe _____ _____

_____

V43		54

43. Where was body discovered?

1	2
Indoors	Outdoors

V44		55

44. If indoors, in which location (e.g. bedroom, kitchen, etc.)

_____

V45		56

45 If outdoors, describe the location

_____

V46		57

46. What was the body lying on? _____

_____

V47			58-59

47. Time body was discovered:

1	2	3	4
00h00-06h00	06h00-12h00	12h00-18h00	18h00-24h00

V48		60

48. Day body was discovered:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mon	Tues	Wed	Thur	Fri	Sat	Sun	Unknown

V49		61

49. Time the crime was committed:

1	2	3	4	5
00h00-06h00	06h00-12h00	12h00-18h00	18h00-24h00	Unknown

V50		62

50. Day the crime was committed:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun	Unknown

V51		63

51. Year the crime was committed: _____

V52					64 - 67

52. Area where the crime occurred:

1	2	3
City	Town	Rural area

V53		68

53. Province where the crime occurred:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Gauteng	Limpopo	North West	Mpuma langa	North Cape	West Cape	East Cape	Free State	KZN

V54		69

54. Has this murder been linked to any other murders?

1	2
Yes	No

V55		70

55. If yes, how many other murders?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	More than 5	Not applicable

V56		71

56. If yes, in how many other murders did foreign object insertion occur?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0	1	2	3	4	5	More than 5	Not applicable

V57		72

_____
For office use

Respondent no.

V58			1-2

Card no

V59		3

_____

SECTION D: OFFENDER DETAILS

57. Has a suspect been arrested in connection with the crime?

1	2
Yes	No

V60		4

58. Age at time of offence?

1	2	3	4	5	6
15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-40	40+

V61		5

59. Gender:

1	2
Male	Female

V62		6

60. Racial/ethnic background:

1	2	3	4	5
Asian	Black	Brown	White	Unknown

V63		7

61. Home language:

1	2	3	4	5	6
English	Afrikaans	Black Language	Indian Language	Other	Unknown

V64		8

62. Marital status:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Single	Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Unknown

V65		9

63. Educational qualification:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No schooling	Grade 1-7	Grade 8-10	Grade 11-12	Diploma	Degree	Unknown

V66		10

64. Occupation:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prof.	Semi-Prof	Clerical	Labourer	Student	Unemp.	Unknown

V67		11

65. Sexual orientation:

1	2	3	4
Heterosexual	Bisexual	Homosexual	Unknown

V68		12

66. Was offender under influence of any substances at the time of the crime?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V69		13

67. If yes, what substance(s) _____

V70			14-15

68. Previous criminal record/history?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V71		16

69. If yes, name the offences

_____
_____

V72			17-18

70. History of mental disorder(s)?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Unknown

V73			19

71. If yes, what disorder(s)? _____

V74			20-21

72. Accompanying offences at the time that this crime was committed:

V75			22-23

_____

_____

_____

73. Suspect's relationship to victim: _____

V76		24