



**Statement taking by police officers from persons
with complex communication needs who report
being a victim of crime**

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

With this I, Erna Viljoen, declare that the thesis titled “Statement taking by police officers from persons with complex communication needs who report being a victim of crime”, is my original work written under the supervision of Professor J. Bornman and Professor K.T. Tönsing.

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ABSTRACT

Persons with disability, especially those with complex communication needs, face various barriers in realising their right to access justice when a crime has been committed against them. Giving a statement to the police as a first step in this process can be challenging for various reasons. Barriers may include negative attitudes and/or a lack of knowledge and skill by police officers in taking statements from persons with complex communication needs.

The study used a mixed methods sequential exploratory design to develop and evaluate a custom-designed disability training programme (Everyone Communicates Training Programme – ECTP). The programme is aimed at improving South African police officers' knowledge and skill in taking statements from persons with complex communication needs and at improving their attitudes towards these individuals. In this study, the programme focussed on police officers who work in Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Units. Phase 1 of the study comprised a systematic review of published disability training programmes provided to police officers, a quantitative disability knowledge survey with police officers (n = 98) and two focus groups (n = 16). During Phase 2 the training programme and measuring instrument were developed, incorporating recommendations from Phase 1. A Stakeholder group comprising of persons with CCN (n = 6) and two occupational therapists (n = 2) appraised the training programme. Stakeholder groups, South African Police Service (n = 2) and a healthcare expert panel (n = 11) appraised the training programme and measuring instrument (which evaluated the three dependent variables, namely knowledge, skill and attitudes) and a pre-pilot test followed (n = 10). After the necessary changes had been made, a pilot study was conducted (n = 7). During Phase 3, a non-randomised pre-test post-test control group design was used to evaluate the newly developed training programme and measuring instrument. Fifty-eight police officers completed the pre-test, after which the 29 police officers in the experimental group participated in the two-day custom-designed ECTP, based on the six andragogical assumptions of adult learning. Thereafter, the post-test was completed (n=58).

The interaction between groups (comparing the experimental and control groups) and time (comparing pre-and post-test) were tested using mixed factorial ANOVAs. There were statistically significant outcomes for three dependent variables, namely knowledge about disability ($p < .001$), knowledge about statement taking from persons with complex communication needs ($p < .001$), and perceived skill in statement taking ($p < .001$). There was

no statistically significant interaction between any variable and applied knowledge, and only an interaction between the group and attitudes towards persons with disability. The implications for practice are that the two-day ECTP can positively influence police officers' knowledge and perceived skill in statement taking from persons with complex communication needs. Future research could focus on the value of increasing the length of training; measure the impact of including a co-facilitator with disability in the training; and determine the sustainability of this input.

Keywords: access to justice, andragogy, attitudes, awareness training, disability, human rights, knowledge, police officers, skills, statement taking.

OPSOMMING

Persone met gestremdhede, veral diegene met komplekse kommunikasiebehoefte, kom voor verskeie struikelblokke te staan wanneer hulle hulle reg tot toegang tot geregtigheid moet uitoefen wanneer 'n misdad teen hulle gepleeg is. Die aflegging van 'n verklaring by die polisie is 'n eerste stap in hierdie proses, maar dit kan baie uitdagend wees vir verskeie redes. Struikelblokke kan byvoorbeeld negatiewe houdings en/of 'n begrip aan kennis aan die kant van polisiebeamptes met verklaringafneming by persone met komplekse kommunikasiebehoefte insluit.

Die studie het 'n gemengde-metode sekwenšiele ondersoekende ontwerp gebruik om 'n aangemete gestremdhedsopleidingsprogram te ontwikkel (*Everyone Communicates Training Programme – ECTP*). Die program is gemik daarop om Suid-Afrikaanse polisiebeamptes se kennis en vaardighede met verklaringafneming by mense met komplekse kommunikasiebehoefte te verbeter en om hulle houdings teenoor hierdie persone te verander. Vir die doeleinde van hierdie studie het die program gefokus op polisiebeamptes wat in Gesinsgeweld-, Kinderbeskermings- en Seksuele Misdryfeenhede werk. Fase 1 van die studie het 'n sistematiese oorsig van die beskikbare publikasies oor gestremdhedsopleidingsprogramme, 'n kwantitatiewe gestremdhedskennisopname onder polisiebeamptes (n = 98) en twee fokusgroepe (n = 16) behels. Tydens Fase 2 is 'n opleidingsprogram en meetinstrument ontwikkel na aanleiding van aanbevelings uit Fase 1. 'n Belanghebbende groep bestaande uit persone met komplekse kommunikasiebehoefte (n = 6) en aarbeidsterapeute (n = 2) het die opleidingsprogram beoordeel. Belanghebbende groepe, Suid Afrikaanse Polisie Diens (n = 2) en 'n paneel van gesondheidsorgkenners (n = 11) het die opleidingsprogram en meetinstrument beoordeel. Die meetinstrument evalueer drie onafhanklike veranderlikes, naamlik kennis, vaardighede en houding. 'n Vooraf-loodsprojek het daarop gevolg (n = 10). Nadat die nodige verandering gemaak is, is 'n loodsprojek gedoen (n = 7). Gedurende Fase 3 is 'n nie-ewekansige voortoets-natoets kontrolegroepontwerp gebruik om die nuut-ontwerpte opleidingsprogram en meetinstrument te evalueer. Agt-en-vyftig polisiebeamptes het die voortoets afgelê, waarna 29 polisiebeamptes in die eksperimentele groep deelgeneem het aan die ECTP oor twee dae. Die ECTP is gebaseer op die ses andragogiese aannames van volwasse leer. Daarna is die natoets afgelê (n=58).

Die effek oor groepe (vergelyking van die eksperimentele en kontrolegroepe) en tyd (vergelyking voor en na die toets) is getoets met die gebruik van gemengde feitlike ANOVAs. Daar was statisties betekenisvolle uitkomst vir drie afhanklike veranderlikes, naamlik kennis oor gestremdheid ($p < .001$), kennis oor verklaringafneming by persone met komplekse kommunikasiebehoefte ($p < .001$), en waargeneemde vaardighede met verklaringafneming ($p < .001$). Daar was geen statisties betekenisvolle interaksie tussen die groep en houdings teenoor persone met gestremdheid nie. Die implikasie vir die praktyk is dat die ECTP wat oor twee dae aangebied word 'n positiewe uitwerking kan hê op die kennis en waargeneemde vaardighede van polisiebeamptes in verklaringafneming by persone met komplekse kommunikasiebehoefte. Toekomstige navorsing kan moontlik fokus op die waarde van die verlenging van die tydperk van opleiding; die effek wat die insluiting van 'n medefasiliteerder met gestremdhede by opleiding het; en die volhoubaarheid van hierdie inset.

Sleutelwoorde: toegang tot geregtigheid, andragogie, houdings, bewustheidsopleiding, gestremdheid, menseregte, kennis, polisiemanne, vaardighede, verklaringafneming.

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*Let the morning bring me word of your unfailing love,
For I have put my trust in You.
Show me the way I should go, for to You I entrust my life.
Psalm 143:8*

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 outlines the research problem addressed in the study and highlights the significance and relevance of the study. Next, the chapter offers a list of important and frequently used terms and definitions. This is followed by a list of abbreviations and acronyms, and the chapter concludes with an overview of the seven chapters of the thesis.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Crimes against vulnerable and disadvantaged groups, including persons with disability, are rife. Within the broader group of disabilities, persons with complex communication needs are particularly vulnerable due to the common belief that a silent victim is the perfect victim. The crimes committed against this population include neglect and various forms of abuse such as financial, physical and sexual abuse, which may include rape. Persons with disability also tend to be repeat victims with the intensity of abuse increasing over time. The crimes perpetrated against them give persons with disability a higher chance of coming into contact with the criminal justice system than the general population. However, when examining police statistics, there does not seem to be a high incidence of crimes where persons with disability are the victims. This begs the question, why not?

This question can be answered from three different viewpoints, namely that of the victim, that of the perpetrator and that of the police. However, the focus of this thesis is on only two of these, namely that of the victim and that of the police, with an emphasis on the latter. Persons with disability face multiple barriers when they report being a victim of crime. Underreporting of crimes perpetrated against persons with disability has been ascribed to the fact that many persons with disability feel they have little or no redress to report crimes perpetrated against them. Persons with disability have also reported that they experience barriers in reporting a crime to the police due to their physical challenges (e.g. immobility), communication limitations, feelings of shame or self-blame, fear of retribution when reporting perpetrators and their lack of knowledge about the criminal justice system. Reporting a crime to the police is further complicated by the fact that persons with communication disabilities are often stereotyped as having an intellectual disability, which means that no statement is taken from them as their credibility as complainants is questioned.

In high income countries such as the United States of America (US) and Australia, police officers have expressed that their lack of knowledge and skills in identifying persons with various types of disability is one of the most challenging barriers they face (Hess & Orthmann, 2010; Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission, 2014). Police officers stated that they typically rely on a person's physical appearance and behaviour when deciding what constitutes a disability. Moreover, it has also been indicated that police officers lack knowledge about and skills to communicate with persons with different disability types, specifically persons with complex communication needs, resulting in statements either not being taken, or else, if taken, these statements are of poor quality and may not proceed to the prosecution level. A statement should comply with certain principles to ensure it has forensic value, allowing the case to proceed to the prosecution level. No information is available about police officers' knowledge about and skill with taking statements from persons with disability in South Africa, especially in cases where the person has a complex communication need.

This discussion shows that persons with complex communication needs and other disability types experience challenges in reporting a crime for a plethora of reasons. The purpose of this study was to develop and implement a disability training programme focussed on knowledge, skills and attitudes for police officers pertaining to statement taking from persons with complex communication needs by police officers. An effective statement should adhere to certain principles, such as accuracy, completeness, expansiveness, objectivity, clarity, honesty, and a linguistic simplicity. Effective statements will lead to more cases involving persons with complex communication needs being presented to court, while simultaneously also lowering the number of instances where cases are withdrawn due to the poor quality of the statements taken by police officers. This will contribute positively to ensuring access to justice for persons with disability.

1.3 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are critical to this study. This section therefore explains how these terms are used in the current study. They are presented in alphabetical order.

Access to Justice for Persons with Disability

In this thesis, access to justice is viewed from the unique perspective of persons with disability and is rooted in the fundamental principles of respect for human dignity and non-discrimination against these individuals. The Foundation for Human Rights defines access to

justice as “the ability of people to seek and obtain a remedy through formal or informal institutions of justice, and in conformity with human rights standards”, and this extends to persons with disability. This would include, among other things, a fair outcome when persons with disability participate in the justice system (Hughes, 2013). Access to justice would imply that persons with disability have the opportunity to give a statement, which would require that police officers are equipped with the knowledge and skills in taking statements from persons with disability, in particular those with complex communication needs. Police officers should also be sensitised to understanding barriers (e.g. physical, environmental and attitudinal barriers) and know how to eliminate and overcome these barriers when taking statements from persons with disability.

Andragogy

The theory of andragogy is a theory specifically for adult learning. This theory emphasises that adult learners are self-directed and expected to take responsibility for their decisions. The theory of andragogy with its six assumptions was applied to inform the delivery of a training programme developed for this study. The six assumptions are the learner’s self-concept; the role of experience; the readiness to learn; the orientation to learn; the need to know: and motivation (Knowles, Holton III & Swanson, 2015).

Applied Knowledge

Applied knowledge can be explained as learning that is used in various situations and contexts, in other words, “knowledge constructed in one context is then applied to another context to solve a problem or improve practice” (Groeneboer & Whitney, 2009, p. 7). This involves applying knowledge and practical experience gained from one context of statement taking to a new one. In the current study, police officers were trained in statement taking by using case studies and they were then required to apply it to a new (albeit similar) one. Police officers had to apply their knowledge to develop and evaluate new solutions in creative ways, recognising that the application of strategies and problem solving is situational.

Attitude

The concept of attitude as it applies to this study is defined as an idea charged with emotion that predisposes a class of actions to a particular class of social situations (Triandis, 1971, p. 7). Attitude comprises of three components, namely the cognitive, the affective and

the behavioural components (Olsen & Zanna, 1993). In the current thesis, the cognitive component implies what police officers thought about persons with disability, in other words, their beliefs, opinions and general knowledge of persons with disability. The affective component includes the emotional or feeling component of police officers' attitudes towards persons with disability, while the behavioural component refers to how police officers behave or act towards persons with disability.

Augmentative and Alternative Communication

Augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) is defined as a set of tools and strategies that an individual uses to solve every day communicative challenges (Beukelman & Mirenda, 2013). In this study, the focus was on both unaided forms of communication, ranging from non-linguistic means of communication (e.g. gestures and facial expressions) to linguistic forms, for example, manual signs from South African Sign Language (SASL), and aided forms of communication, such as communication boards with various graphic symbols and also speech generating devices (e.g. computers, or mobile technology with graphic symbols, words or letters, that "speak" through synthetically produced speech or recorded natural speech).

Complex Communication Needs

Persons with complex communication needs (CCN) are persons with severe speech, language and communication impairments often associated with conditions such as autism spectrum disorders, cerebral palsy, certain learning disabilities and multiple disabilities (Light & Drager, 2007). In this study, there is no distinction between persons with CCN due to developmental causes or acquired causes (for example a stroke) and includes all persons who cannot rely on spoken language to report that they have been a victim of crime.

Crime

Crime can be defined as an action or omission which constitutes an offence and is punishable by law (Farmer, 2008). In modern criminal law, the term *crime*, does not have any simple and universally accepted definition. One such proposed definition is that a crime is an act that is harmful, not only to one specific person, but can also extend to a community, society or the state, and is punishable by law. *Crimen injuria* can include emotional or psychological abuse and can be coupled with assault. Crime under South African personal

law is defined to be an unlawful act, intentionally and seriously impairing the dignity of another (Clark, 2003). Crimes against a person is generally referred to as *contact crime*. Contact crime includes physical harm where a person or persons are injured/harmed or threatened with injury/harm during the commission of a crime (Hillyard & Tombs, 2004). *Contact crime* would in the context of this thesis constitute *sexual harm*, which includes assault, rape and violent crimes against persons with disability.

Criminal Investigation

A criminal investigation can be defined as “the process of discovering, collecting, preparing, identifying and presenting evidence to determine what happened and who is responsible” (Hess & Orthmann, 2010, p. 6). A criminal investigation is an important part of bringing perpetrators to justice. The statement given by a victim forms one important part of the criminal investigation process as it is an account of events in the victim’s own words.

Disability

The definition of disability used in this study echoes the definition articulated in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), which refers to disability as “an evolving concept resulting from the interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others” (United Nations, 2012). This definition was selected as it reflects the reciprocal interaction between police officers and persons with disability and the barriers that persons with disability encounter when they report being the victim of crime, as well as the barriers that police officers encounter in taking statements from persons with disability. Attitudinal and environmental barriers prevent persons with disability from reporting being a victim of crime and prevents their equal access and effective participation to the criminal justice system, as it applies to all citizens of South Africa.

Knowledge

In the Cambridge International Dictionary of English (2002, p. 787), knowledge is defined as an “understanding of or information about a subject which has been obtained by experience or study and which is either in a person's mind or possessed by people generally”. Social scientists refined this definition by adding that it is “the ability to remember – recall or recognise – ideas, facts, and the like in a situation in which certain cues, signals, and clues are

given to bring out effectively whatever knowledge has been stored” (Gage & Berliner, 1992, p. 43). Police officers from the FCS unit were identified as the participants in this study due to their prior knowledge and experience in statement taking from one vulnerable group, for example children. In this study the andragogical assumptions to adult learning was employed to achieve the construction of new knowledge (Gage & Berliner, 1992) and hence the role of existing knowledge and experience is recognised.

Police Interview

A police interview can be defined as a communication, a conversation, part of a conversation, or a series of conversations for purposes of obtaining the best quality and quantity of information (related to the case and crime committed), as the first step in the statement taking process (Milne, 2004; Milne & Bull, 2006). The police interview is a complex process, and to gather valuable information from victims, police officers need to communicate with the victim. Any communication with the above-mentioned purpose of gathering information thus constitutes an interview (Milne & Bull, 2006). The knowledge, skills and positive attitudes of police officers towards persons with disability are essential to ensure the best quality of information is obtained as it forms the cornerstone of an investigation.

Police Legitimacy

Police legitimacy is one of the constructs inherent to procedural justice and refers to the extent to which members of a community trust and have confidence in the police, believe that the police are honest and competent, think that the police treat the members in the community fairly and with respect, and are willing to defer to the law and to police authority (Tyler, 2014). The police can increase their level of perceived legitimacy by explaining their actions to the members of a community who are directly involved in those actions, thereby increasing trust and the belief that the police actions are justified to the circumstances. This study aims to enhance police legitimacy pertaining to persons with disability through a disability training programme.

Procedural Justice

In this thesis, the focus is on procedural justice as the first step in ensuring access to justice for persons with disability. Procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the

process and is focussed on whether the case will proceed to trial. It includes as key components presenting one's side in a case and being heard (having a voice): being treated fairly, with dignity and respect; having one's human rights acknowledged; making police actions and decisions transparent and impartial; and generating trust from persons with disabilities (Kunard & Moe, 2015; Tyler, 2003). Substantive justice refers to how the justice system, which includes the police, constrains and directs people's behaviour and how the facts in each individual case will be handled and how the crime will be charged – in other words, it deals with the substance of the case and how *just* the outcome of the case will be.

Skills

A skill is an ability and capacity acquired through deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to smoothly and adaptively carry out complex activities or job functions (Moharrer, 2011). Skills are acquired for example through training, exposure and practice. In the current study skills will enable police officers to produce solutions to a particular problem domain and to then apply these in their jobs. As there were no measures available on the police officers' level of actual skills, only their levels of self-perceived skills were measured, as this was the focus of this study.

The Statement

The statement is defined as “a written communication of facts observed by the deponent in the form of a statement, that can be supplied to a court of law. The facts can be expressed verbally or in writing” (SAPS, 2013, p. 2). The statement should adhere to eight principles (accuracy, completeness, expansiveness, objectiveness, comprehensiveness, honesty, simplicity and directness and meaning of English words), which acts as a guideline for police officers as to what information and facts should be recorded in a statement. The statement provides an outline of the evidence and enables a case to be prosecuted in court. Effective communication with the victim during the interview should form a basis for obtaining information and facts to be recorded in the statement, which leads to the investigation process of a reported case.

Victim of Crime

According to the Victims' Charter of South Africa (1995), “a victim of crime is a person who has suffered harm, including physical or mental injury; emotional suffering;

economic loss or substantial impairment of his or her fundamental rights, through acts or omissions that are in violation of our criminal law”. The focus of this study is on the victims of crime who have complex communication needs as part of the broader disability group and their rights during their interaction with the justice system.

1.4 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAC:	Augmentative and alternative communication
ANOVA:	Analysis of Variance
ASD:	Autism Spectrum Disorder
ATDP:	Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons Scales
ATDP-R:	Attitudes Toward Persons with Disability Scale - Revised
CCN:	Complex communication needs
CPF:	Community Policing Forum
CRPD:	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
Deaf/HH:	Deaf and Hard of Hearing
DLP:	Detective Learning Programme
ECTP:	Everyone Communicates Training Programme
EDT:	Education Training and Development
FCS:	Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences
ID:	Intellectual disability
LD:	Learning disability
NGO:	Non-governmental organisation
SA:	South Africa
SAPS Act:	South African Police Services Act

SAPS:	South African Police Services
SASL:	South African Sign Language
SDG:	Sustainable Development Goals
UN:	United Nations
US:	United States

1.5 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

This thesis is presented in seven chapters. *Chapter 1* provides the background and rationale for this study. The terms and definitions are explained and clarified as they apply to this study. A list of abbreviations and acronyms is provided before this chapter concludes with an overview of the various chapters.

In *Chapter 2*, the Human Rights model of disability and access to justice for persons with disability is discussed. Next, the barriers across the judicial system that persons with disability who report being a victim of crime experience and the barriers police officers taking a statement from persons with disability experience, are discussed. Legislation and policies that are relevant to this study is discussed. The role of the police in ensuring access to justice is discussed and police legitimacy and procedural justice is explained. Training in the South African Police Service (SAPS) is described from the perspective of andragogical principles. Next, the chapter offers a discussion of the SAPS and in particular the Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Unit (FCS), as this unit formed the focus of the current study. This is followed by a discussion of the role of the police during the interview and statement taking process.

This study used a three-phased sequential mixed method exploratory research design. The methodology for these three phases is discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5. *Chapter 3* focuses on the three stages that make up Phase 1. Firstly, the main aim and sub-aims of the study are discussed. This is followed by Stage 1a, which comprised a systematic review of published literature on disability training programmes presented to police officers. Next, in Stage 1b a survey was conducted by means of a questionnaire on disability knowledge that was distributed to police officers at various police stations. Lastly, Stage 1c involved two focus groups on police officers' challenges and experiences working with persons with

disability who report a crime. This chapter concludes with a summary that explains the implications of Phase 1 for Phase 2.

Chapter 4 continues with the methodology used in Phase 2. The chapter focusses on the development of the measuring instrument and a two-day custom-designed training programme based on the data synthesis of Phase 1 (Stages 1a, 1b and 1c). Similarly, to Phase 1, Phase 2 also consists of three distinct stages. Stage 2a comprised the initial programme development of the Everyone Communicates Training Programme (ECTP) and the measuring instrument. It also included the evaluation of the ECTP by means of a training evaluation form for stakeholder groups and a healthcare expert panel working with persons with disability. After recommendations following this process, changes were made to the ECTP and measuring instrument for the pilot study (Stage 2b). Phase 2 concluded with Stage 2c, which comprised the final changes made to both the ECTP and the measuring instrument after the pilot study for the implementation during Phase 3.

Chapter 5 focusses on the final phase of the methodology, namely Phase 3, the implementation and evaluation of the ECTP. The chapter covers the participant sampling, recruitment, selection, group assignment, participant description and group equivalence. The ECTP materials and procedures are discussed. Next, the reliability and validity of the ECTP, the measuring instrument and the training evaluation form is described. The data collection procedures using a pre-test post-test design are described. Lastly, the methods of data analysis follow, including both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Chapter 6 presents and discusses the results from Phase 3 of the study, namely, the pre-test post-test implementation of the ECTP, using both an experimental and control group. The results are presented according to the sub-aims of the study. Descriptive and inferential statistics pertaining to the dependent variables are presented. First, the results pertaining to the effects of the ECTP on knowledge is presented. Knowledge is divided into three categories, namely knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN and applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN. Next, the results pertaining to the effect of the ECTP on perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN are presented, Lastly, the results pertaining to the effect of the ECTP on attitudes towards persons with disability are presented.

Chapter 7 presents a summary of results, followed by their clinical implications. A critical appraisal follows, focusing on both the strengths and limitations of the current study. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research.

1.6 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 provided the justification for the study by highlighting the challenges persons with disability, and more so, persons with complex communication needs, experience when entering the criminal justice system when they report being a victim of crime. This was followed by an explanation of terms and definitions used, and the abbreviations and acronyms as they appear in this thesis. The chapter concludes with an overview of the seven chapters of this thesis.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Police officers are often the first point of entry to access to justice for persons with disability. Access to justice is a basic human right as articulated in the human rights model of disability, which advocates equality before the law for all persons with disability. However, for many persons with disability this is not a reality as they face numerous barriers that threaten their access to justice. Despite these barriers, legislation is in place to support access to justice. Following a discussion of the barriers, this chapter focuses on the police and their role in ensuring access to justice for persons with disability. Police legitimacy and procedural justice are described as prerequisites for ensuring access to justice, and how training, using andragogical principles for adult learning can impact this, is then highlighted. The chapter concludes by contextualising police services in South Africa with specific focus on the FCS unit police officers.

2.2 HUMAN RIGHTS MODEL OF DISABILITY

Human rights are fundamental rights that emphasise the right to be recognised as an equal person with dignity before the law as reflected in the preamble of the CRPD (UN, 2006). The right to be regarded as a person before the law, which is the specific focus of this thesis, is a right regarded as a civil and political right. For persons with disability the most important implications of the conceptual move from the medical and social models of disability, to the human rights model of disability, has to do with how disability is framed in the law, in public policy and in the attitudes of society towards persons with disability. The human rights model of disability includes the values for disability policy that acknowledges the human dignity of persons with disability and is thus seen as an improvement on the medical and social models of disability as it acknowledges the human dignity of persons with disability. It defies the presumption that impairment may hinder human rights capacity and places the person with disability centre stage in all decisions taken that impact the person. As such, it places the main problem outside the person and in society. This model includes the political, civil, economic, social and cultural rights of persons with disability (Degener, 2017). The human rights model of disability acknowledges multiple layers of identity within the context of disability and human rights, for example the multiple discrimination children and women with disabilities are subjected to. Vulnerable groups are more likely to encounter discrimination of other human

rights violations than the general population and thus forms an important part of this study as they are at higher risk for perpetration due to their vulnerability.

2.3 ACCESS TO JUSTICE

Ensuring access to justice for all persons including persons with disability across the judicial system is a basic human right and involves various stakeholder groups. In this study, it involves on the one hand, police officers, and on the other, persons with disability and in particular persons with CCN. Reporting a crime at the local police station is the first step into accessing the criminal justice system. Accessibility to justice is afforded by police officers cultivating a human rights culture by ensuring that victims reporting a crime are treated with sensitivity and human dignity, ensuring their rights to receive information are adhered to and that victims are informed about their rights and how to exercise these rights. However, when the service delivered to victims with disability and particularly persons with CCN reporting a crime does not allow for accessibility to justice, or the fair and just treatment of persons with disability, their access to justice is threatened and barriers are encountered to their accessibility to justice. In this study seven barriers that threaten access to justice for persons with disability and persons with CCN will be discussed namely: i) communication barriers; ii) information barriers; iii) physical barriers; iv) attitudinal barriers; v) language and literacy barriers; vi) resource barriers; and vii) knowledge and skills barriers.

2.3.1 Communication barriers

Persons with disability, and specifically persons with CCN can experience multiple barriers when they attempt to access the justice system as victims of crime when reporting a case to the police and, also during the interview and investigation stages. There are many different types of disabilities that can impact the person's ability to communicate. These include life-long disabilities for example developmental disabilities such as autism spectrum disorder, cerebral palsy, learning disability, or cognitive disability which are disabilities that are present from birth (Birenbaum & Collier, 2017). Other disabilities are acquired for example a brain injury following a motor vehicle accident or after a stroke where the person was able to communicate but lost that ability, as well as degenerative progressive diseases such as Motor Neuron Disease. Included under CCN may be mental health difficulties that may also impact on the person's communication abilities (Birenbaum & Collier, 2017).

A communication difficulty can affect both a person's ability to speak (expressive language skills), and/or to understand what others are saying (receptive language skills). This could also include reading and/or writing. Some persons with communication disabilities may have unclear/slurred speech or difficulty with speech production and others may not be able to speak at all. Often unclear speech is misinterpreted, and these difficulties may affect speakers' ability to communicate their messages clearly to the police which may lead police officers to draw incorrect conclusions without taking time to clarify the facts presented.

At the point of contact with police officers, communication capacities of the victim may determine how the police respond to the victim's account of events. These persons are often seen as voiceless and "invisible" in our society, unable to communicate intent, call for help and report that they have been a victim of crime (Bryen & Wickman, 2011). Police officers often believe that persons with communication disabilities cannot explain their experiences in clear and simple language. Police officers may also consider the competency and believability of the person and their perceived ability to eventually testify in court (Doak & Doak, 2017). There is, thus, an indication that police assessments of the complainant's credibility and reliability influences their decision to take a statement and if they do not believe that a positive conviction is possible in the long run due to the person's communication and comprehension difficulties they may not take a statement at all (Bailey & Sines, 1998; Keilty & Connelly, 2010; O'Mahony, 2009).

2.3.2 Information barriers

Research indicates that victims of crime want three types of information: firstly, information about the criminal justice process at all stages of their case; secondly timely and accurate information and updates about the progress of their case and thirdly information about the types of support services available to them (for example Braille or graphic symbols) (Wedlock & Tapley, 2016). The Victims' Charter of South Africa (1995), stipulates that a victim of crime has the right to information about the judicial process such as procedures that are to follow, for example the interview, the statement taking process, the progress of their case and the support services that they can access. In a longitudinal study with victims of violent crimes, results showed that the lack of information at all stages of the criminal justice system was frustrating to the victims and that these victims experienced further distress due to the fact of not being kept fully informed of what was happening with their case (Wedlock & Tapley (2016). These victims also expressed a lack of interest by police officers in their

case and that their cases were given low status (Du Plessis, 2007). If police officers are trained to understand how important these processes are to the victims of crimes access to justice, and they approach these victims with sensitivity, an understanding of their needs and ensure that their human rights and dignity are respected, outcomes of these types of encounters can only lead to favourable and positive resolutions for both the police officers and for the victims of crime they assist.

2.3.3 Physical barriers

Various barriers exist in the physical environment of persons with disability, and persons with CCN often have comorbid physical and sensory disabilities which further impacts the barriers they experience. Human Rights Watch (2013), reported that a lack of physical accessibility to police stations especially for persons with reduced mobility as well as unclear information and signage in police stations were problematic. This would include for example boards or symbols for easy English to accommodate a person who has an intellectual disability or for a person that cannot read what is printed on an information board or pamphlet.

Physical access to police stations can be challenging for persons with disability and especially persons living in rural communities where a significant portion of persons with disability live. Persons with disability who live in rural communities are as diverse as those living in urban settings. In South Africa, persons with disability who live in rural areas face what is referred to as a “triple vulnerability” namely poverty; disability and rurality (Vergunst, 2016). Less specialised services are typically available to persons with disability living in rural areas for example access to the police and police stations and are often exposed to poorer service delivery than persons living in urban settings (Huus, Dada, Bornman & Lyngnegård, 2016; RTC, 2017; Vergunst, 2016). Police stations in rural areas are often staffed with a minimum of manpower and this means that the charge office may be closed at the time when the victim arrives to report a crime. These barriers constitute discrimination and contravenes Article 13 of the CRPD which requires the provision of support for persons with disability to access the justice system (Holness & Rule, 2014). The above factors seem to intensify the experience of disability and unless measures to overcome these barriers are instituted, police stations and access to justice will remain inaccessible to a large percentage of persons with disability.

In rural communities, police stations are often situated in outlying areas with poor access routes which has a direct impact on their access to justice. Furthermore, accessibility to police stations is further compromised due to access to transport as many South Africans depend on minibus taxis for transport. In a study undertaken in KwaZulu-Natal, it was found that participants reported that when taxi drivers saw a person with disability waiting to be picked up, they drove onto the next stop as they were unwilling to take the time to load the person and their wheelchair into the taxi and were often charged double the fare (Holness & Rule, 2014). Persons using wheelchairs among other mobility devices may be unable to negotiate their way over hills and cross rivers or use gravel and uneven roads. Therefore, they may be unable to access police stations to even set the process of access to justice in motion (Vergunst, 2016).

Furthermore, counters in police stations are typically raised and too high thereby prohibiting persons who use wheelchairs to see over the counter and to be seen (O'Leary & Feely, 2018). Many police stations do not have wheelchair accessible ramps, toilets or restrooms which further prohibits their access to justice.

2.3.4 Attitudinal barriers

When inclusion of persons with disability is considered, it not only refers to accessible physical environments but also an attitudinal context (Ryan, 2013). Many negative attitudes, false beliefs, myths, misconceptions and stereotypes exist around persons with disability.

General attitudes and behaviour play an important role in the interactions between persons with disability and the community they reside in and in their interactions with the police. Attitudes and perceptions about persons with disability cannot be discussed without discussing the attitudes and perceptions of the general public, as police officers are part of the general public (Tyson, 2013). Attitude can direct the manner in which the police officers will think of persons with disability and their behavioural intentions toward persons with disability when they report being a victim of crime (Bailey & Sines, 1998; Daruwalla & Darcy, 2005). Negative attitudes and stereotypes regarding persons with disability can lead to police officers often not taking statements from victims based on their disability. Prejudices held by the general population is not uncommon, so it is not surprising that police officers would hold the same or similar prejudices.

Although there is no universally accepted and agreed definition of what attitudes are, most researchers agree on certain aspects namely the assumptions that attitudes are constructs with affective, cognitive and behavioural components (Olson & Zanna, 1993). Triandis (1971, p. 7), defined attitude as “an idea charged with emotion which predisposes a class of actions to a particular class of social situations”. When this definition is placed within the sphere of persons with disability the cognitive component would refer to the other person’s ideas, thoughts, perceptions, beliefs, opinions or mental conceptualisations of persons with disability. The affective or emotional component reflects the amount of positive or negative feelings towards persons with disability (Antonak & Livneh, 1988) and the behavioural component relates to a person’s willingness to respond to, interact with or behaves towards persons with disability (Noe, 2002).

Police officers may even believe that due to their disability persons with disability brought the crime upon themselves (Victoria Human Rights, 2014). There are a number of factors that impact on attitudes towards persons with disability. Often attitudes towards persons with disability are formed on the basis that persons are to blame and are responsible for their own disability (Kirkpatrick, 2003). Negative attitudes can also be remnants from the outdated charity and the medical model of disability towards persons with disability, especially intellectual disability where persons are in need of constant care and protection or to be admitted in a medical care facility for their own good (Fisher & Goodley, 2007). This constant care and protection of persons with disability can cause caregivers and others in the persons’ community to act negatively towards them as they may seem helpless and dependent and this can impact the attitudes that are formed about persons with disability (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

When focussing on the crimes of a sexual nature, the attitude of police officers towards sexual assault victims with disability is the most important factor in determining the success of the victim interview, statement and the subsequent investigation (Archambault & Lonsway, 2007). Police attitudes are often shaped by rape myths and this is a strong determinant of whether police officers will process complaints as a case of rape (Smith & Skinner, 2017). Common rape myths include that women often falsely accuse men of rape, that rape only occurs at night and that rape must involve violent physical force (Jordan 2001; Smith & Skinner, 2017). In a study by Machisa et al., (2017), in which they reported on the FCS units across the country, it was found that the gender of the investigating officer was strongly associated with

attitudes around rape myths. This extended into ideas about gender equality and male sexual entitlement. This study also found that investigating officers who had experience of 21 years and longer held more conservative views and especially more patriarchal views around gender equality. Women police officers showed more progressive attitudes on rape myths, gender equality and male sexual entitlement and were less likely to be supportive of conservative notions of male sexual entitlement (Machisa et al., 2017). As the ratio of male/female is approximately 66% to 34% in the SAPS, this could impact on the number of female FCS unit detectives available to take statements from women and children reporting a sexual offence as some victims may prefer to report the sexual offence to a female police officer.

Moreover, misconceptions about the sexuality of persons with disability exist (Bryen & Wickman, 2011). Persons with disability have a range of sexual desires just as the general population, but commonly lack sex education that would assist in their sexual lives and how they choose to express their sexuality (Bornman & Rathbone, 2016). The neglect on the sexual lives of persons with disability stems from the idea in society of the beliefs that persons with disability are not sexually active and that persons with disability have no or little understanding of their bodies (Bornman, 2014). This limited education and knowledge has fed false beliefs and myths attached to the sexuality of persons with disability which come into play when investigating a crime that has a sexual undertone. There is, for example, the false belief that persons with disability are asexual. Women with disabilities are often not viewed as physically attractive and hence society views them as asexual (Pepper, 2016). This false belief that women with disabilities are asexual increases their vulnerability to sexual abuse (Carew, Braathen, Swartz, Hunt & Rohleder, 2017). Many persons with disability are thus viewed as asexual as society finds it hard to imagine that persons with disability engage in sexual activities because of restricting impairments. Another false belief is that persons with disability are child-like or that they are seen as eternal children which makes them prime targets for persons who base abuse on sexuality (Bornman, 2014), as they are often offered money, gifts or food or tricked into coercion by the perpetrator telling them they are special (Machisa et al., 2017).

Stereotypes concerning persons with learning disabilities and intellectual disabilities include the belief that they are unreliable in reporting crimes perpetrated against them and lack the capacity to be competent and reliable witnesses which impacts negatively on the quality of statements taken by police officers in cases where they even take statements (Bailey & Sines, 1998; McAfee & Musso, 1995; Modell & Mak, 2008). Police officers reported that

misinformation surrounding women with intellectual disabilities statements were seen to lack credibility, especially if false complaints had been laid in the past (Keilty & Connelly, 2010). In a study of police files on women, rape and their credibility (Jordan, 2001), it was found that reported cases involving either a victim with intellectual impairment or psychiatric disturbances were regarded by the police as false complaints. This analysis of police files showed that the assessments made by police officers on the complaints involved subjective evaluations and interpretations of the reported rape (Jordan, 2011).

Persons with disability are often dehumanised by society and become the object of ridicule and made to feel devalued and objectified. They feel deprived of privileges and are seen as vulnerable members of society. This can easily leave the person to feel robbed and deprived of his/her basic human rights (Bailey & Sines, 1998; Daruwalla & Darcy, 2004). Barriers in reporting sexual violence or abuse included for example the victims' feelings of shame or self-blame (Du Plessis, 2007; Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission, 2014). Underreporting of these crimes were noted due to the fact that many victims with disabilities felt they had little or no redress to report crimes perpetrated against them and that they will be seen as lacking credibility (Primor & Lerner, 2012; Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission, 2014).

2.3.5 Language and literacy barriers

Many persons entering the judicial system do not speak English, which is currently the language of the judicial system in South Africa. Reporting a crime is a barrier for those who cannot report a crime in one of the 11 official languages spoken. Many persons with disability living in the rural areas are illiterate due to a lack of proper schooling. Persons with communication disabilities are then not only faced by a language barrier, they often also face literacy barriers in that they are not taught how to read or write, and even more so then for persons with limited speech and vocabulary as they are often not clearly understood or heard (Bornman, 2014). Persons who are non-literate and who use Augmentative and Alternative Communication (AAC) may find that they are unable to construct messages as they do not always have the vocabulary to report a crime (Bornman, 2014). Persons with disability reporting a crime are entitled to have a communication partner present (e.g. an interpreter or a caregiver) during all stages of the justice process, from reporting the crime to the interview stage, giving a statement and then finally to the prosecution level (Keilty & Connelly, 2010). Although the law thus allows for interpreters to be present during all stages of the judicial

system in recognition of the influence of language, there are seldom interpreters on hand to assist in translating the crime that is being reported at the police station (Du Plessis, 2007). Research indicates that police officers often do not know how to take statements from persons with communication disabilities because they are afraid of the possibility of misinterpreting what is being conveyed to them (Coetzee, 2005; Keilty & Connelly, 2010). The consequences of such challenges are that the statement of such a person is often seen as faulty and the case is not investigated and thus does not follow through to prosecution. This often renders the victim unable to testify (O'Leary & Feely, 2018; Primor & Lerner, 2012), which clearly is a violation of the individual's basic human right to access to justice.

Survivors of sexual assault who were deaf found that they were stereotyped due to the fact that they were deaf (Obinna, Krueger, Osterbaan, Sadusky & DeVore, 2006). In July 2017, the Constitutional Review Committee in Parliament recommended that Sign Language be declared the 12th official language in South Africa. The committee recommended that Section 6 (1) and (5) (a) be amended to include South African Sign Language (SASL) as an official language. This amendment to the Constitution to accommodate sign language like any other language is a fundamental human right and means that sign language is treated equally to any other official language (News24.com, 2017). The implication of recognising SASL as a home language means that the Deaf culture is recognised as a fundamental part of South African culture (TimesLIVE, 2018). This in effect means that police stations as the first point of entry to access to justice should be equipped with for example, a basic SASL guide to provide an adequate service when a person reports being a victim of crime.

2.3.6 Resource barriers

Police officers reported that the lack of accessible vehicles impacted on their ability to go to victims of crime, including persons with disability, to take statements from these victims as a reason for their statement taking being inadequate and not complete (Machisa et al., 2017). This also impacted on the collection and delivery of evidence and their follow-up on the investigation of the case and reporting the progress of the case to the victim. Time pressures and constraints were quoted as another reason that negatively impacted the quality of statement taking (Keilty & Connelly, 2011; Machisa et al., 2017). Further resource barriers include limited access to telephones and office machinery (e.g. computers and fax machines), limited access to interpreters or communication assistants/intermediaries and other service

providers (e.g. safe homes for children and women), and limited manpower. All these affect the service delivery to the communities the police officers serve.

2.3.7 Knowledge and skill barriers

Police officers may not have the required experience and/or training in how to communicate with persons with CNN who report being the victims of crime creating knowledge and skill barriers. These barriers often add to the incomplete collection of evidence from the victim. In turn, this can hinder or compromise the successful apprehension and prosecution of perpetrators and the provision of appropriate and suitable disability related support systems that increases the safety of victims (Hughes et al., 2011a). In their study of perceptions and knowledge regarding disability conducted with police officers (n = 124), in northern California, Modell and Mak (2008), identified four themes regarding knowledge and skills needed by police officers to respond to persons with disability: i) training on characteristics and classification of disabilities to assist police officers in recognising different disabilities; ii) teaching patience as victims with communication difficulties may need more time to tell their story and take longer to respond to questions asked; iii) setting out resources and referrals systems and making this information readily available to police officers; and iv) teaching communication skills as many police officers do not have the skills to communicate with persons with disability and how to respond to them in the appropriate manner with respect and dignity (Hughes et al., 2011a).

Given the varied and multifaceted nature of disabilities, police officers cannot be expected to know every disability that is present and visible as not all disabilities are visible (e.g. deafness). A major challenge for police officers is to be able to identify and understand that there are different types of disability, including amongst others physical disabilities, mental health disabilities, psychosocial disabilities, cognitive and intellectual disabilities, learning disabilities, communication disabilities and sensory disabilities (blindness and or deafness). Identifying a person's disability may therefore be a problematic issue for police officers, especially in certain cases. Training on disability issues could enable police officers to better assist persons with disability when they report being a victim of crime and assist the police officers to overcome some of the multifaceted barriers experienced by both the person with CCN reporting a crime and by the police officer taking the statement (Bornman, 2014; Primor & Lerner, 2012; Victorian Equal Opportunity and Human Rights Commission, 2014).

2.4 LEGISLATION AND POLICIES TO ACCESS TO JUSTICE FOR PERSONS WITH DISABILITY

From the above discussion it became clear that although access to justice is a basic human right, it is hampered by many different threats/barriers. On a more positive note, however, it should be noted that there are numerous policies and legislation designed to support and underpin the participation of persons with disability in everyday life including access to justice across the judicial system as advocated for in the Human Rights model of disability. Policies and legislation are put in place to raise awareness on the rights of persons with disability, to ensure that their rights to equality before the law is promoted, and to safeguard that their rights in the criminal justice system are recognised and fulfilled. The policies and legislation discussed in this chapter are relevant to this study and should be read in conjunction with each other, with a specific focus on the rights of persons with disability and their access to justice, and how these policies and legislation apply to police legitimacy and procedural justice.

2.4.1 The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

Transforming our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development also known as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UN, 2015) has a disability inclusive focus and thus includes persons with disability in all its 17 goals. There are 11 explicit references to persons with disability in the Agenda. It specifically promotes the empowerment of vulnerable persons and clearly stipulates that persons with disability are among vulnerable people and whenever “*vulnerable*” is referenced throughout the SDGs these provisions also directly apply to persons with disability. The SDGs also endeavour to contribute in practical ways to the protection and full enjoyment of the rights of persons with disability as set out in CRPD (UN, 2006).

Of particular interest to this study is Goal 16 of the SDGs

“Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels”.

As Goal 16 stands, it applies to access to justice for persons with disability namely: i) to promote the end of abuse, exploitation, trafficking and forms of violence against and torture

of children; ii) to promote the rule of law at national and international levels and equal access to justice for all; iii) to promote the development of effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels; iv) to ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision making at all levels; v) to ensure public access to information and protection of fundamental freedoms in accordance with national legislation and international agreements; and lastly vi) to promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development (Beqiraj, McNamara & Wicks, 2017). Goal 16 of the SDGs provides the opportunity in this study to further explore the human rights of persons with disability and their access to justice as it links itself to the legislation and policies that will be discussed next.

2.4.2 The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

The United Nations Generally Assembly adopted the CRPD on the 6th December 2006 (UN, 2006). Shortly thereafter South Africa also ratified this convention in 2007, which means that SA is legally bound to implement the 33 core articles of the CRPD. The CRPD recognises that persons with disability continue to face multiple barriers in accessing the justice system as well as violations of their human rights (O’Leary & Feely, 2018). The CRPD thus recognises that access to justice is indivisible from and interdependent with other rights and freedoms enshrined in the CRPD (Beqiraj et al., 2017).

The implications of the ratification of the CRPD are to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disability, and to promote respect for their inherent dignity. South Africa aligns itself with the definition of disability as articulated in the CRPD which refers to disability as

“an evolving concept resulting from the interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others”
(UN, 2012).

This holds the Government accountable to ensure that campaigns that facilitate disability awareness are imposed, as well as putting strategies and systems in place that will ensure awareness raising, accessibility, access to information and access to justice (UN, 2012). The CRPD has therefore been domesticated for SA to align with local legislation such as the constitution of SA.

2.4.3 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Section 205 [3]) states that

“The objects of the police service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law” and that “everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law” (Act No.108 of 1996).

The Constitution is thus clear that every human being, irrespective of any difference in development or functioning, or health condition, gender or age, is equal in dignity, human rights and access to justice for example to lay a charge at the police station that they have been the victim of crime. Therefore, it also guarantees the right of persons with disability to protection by the police, as well as equality, non-discrimination and human dignity. The rights to access to justice include that persons with disability are provided with procedural and age-appropriate accommodations to enable them to participate directly or indirectly in all justice proceedings, and at all stages of these justice proceedings.

Although the Constitution of South Africa states that everyone is equal before the South African law, the needs of persons with disability are not the same, and thus, for equal treatment before the law, different measures are required to accommodate different people. In his first public address, President Cyril Ramaphosa indicated his intention regarding inclusion and equity for persons with disability (Chabalala, 2017). There has been a call from stakeholders in the disability sector to restore parliamentary respect for the rights of persons with disability by restructuring the government’s approach from one that

“regards people with disabilities as passive recipients of care, and rather recognising us as entitled to all rights and services that South Africans enjoy from all government departments” (Chabalala, 2017).

There was a strong call that the office on the status of persons with disability be moved to the Presidency and the various provincial premiers’ offices, where it belongs. President Ramaphosa mentioned the importance of working with persons with disability in small business and enterprise development (Chabalala, 2017). However, no mention was made of access to justice for persons with disability, the training of government officials on disability

or how to increase and improve service delivery to persons with disability or raising awareness on disability issues. Although the Constitution and legislation proclaims to be progressive and an exemplary model of disability rights, gaps remain between the letter of the law, persons living with disabilities' understanding of the law and ultimately its implementation by state agencies which includes the police service as part of the judicial system (Suleman & Elphick, 2013).

2.4.4 The South African White Paper on Policing - Human Rights Principles of Policing

The South African White Paper on Policing - Human Rights Principles (2016), advocates a police service that embraces a community-centred approach that is underpinned by integrity, accountability, effective service delivery and maintaining high standards of professional conduct. A central pillar in this approach is a police service that is equipped to respond to the vulnerabilities and needs of the different communities they serve. An emphasis is placed on serving marginalised communities and vulnerable groups such as children, women, older persons and persons with disability. To effectively respond to crimes, police officers must acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and positive attitudes to act against crimes perpetrated against these vulnerable and marginalised communities. The South African Police Services Act (SAPS Act) (68 of 1995) (RSA, 1995a) confers specific powers, duties and functions on police officers. To be an effective organisation, the SAPS recognises the need for knowledgeable police officers who are skilled in the execution of their duties.

2.4.5 The SAPS Code of Conduct

The SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b) aims to regulate how police officers conduct themselves and treat the people in the communities they serve with fairness and in a just manner. The SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b) also places emphasis on special efforts that should be directed towards supporting minority groups, specifically mentioning persons with disability. All persons, irrespective of their disability, should be treated equal to any other person according to their basic human rights and be given the opportunity to report a crime and give a statement to the police and not be judged on their disability or whether they will make a credible witness or not. In addition, particular and urgent emphasis is placed on all serving police officers to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and sensitivities to respond to crimes against vulnerable and marginalised communities such as persons with

disability, within the context of community-oriented policing. As such, the SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b) thus closely resonates with the White Paper on Human Rights of Policing in supporting and responding to the vulnerable groups in communities and especially persons with disability in ensuring that they are treated fairly, justly and their human rights are respected in their interactions with police officers.

2.4.6 The South African Service Charter for Victims of Crime

The Victims' Charter of South Africa (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2004) can be traced back to the National Crime Prevention Strategy (SAPS, 1996), and the National Victim Empowerment Programme (1998) of which both focused on the needs of victims within the criminal justice system. The Victims' Charter is in line with the South African Constitution and legislation, specifically (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2004), the Criminal Procedure Act, 1977 (Act No. 51) of 1977, as well as international conventions such as the United Nations Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for the Victims' of Crime and Abuse of Power (UN,1985). This declaration states that:

i) "victims should be treated with compassion and respect"; and that ii) "they are entitled to access to the mechanisms of justice and to prompt redress, as provided for by national legislation" (p. 303-304).

The responsiveness of judicial and administrative processes to the needs of victims should be facilitated by

"informing victims of their role and the scope, timing and progress of the proceedings and of the disposition of their cases" and "allowing the views and concerns of victims to be presented and considered at appropriate stages of the proceedings without prejudice to the accused and consistent with the relevant national criminal justice system" (p. 303-304).

Taking measures to ensure the safety of victims is reiterated, as well as compensation and the right to restitution.

According to the Victims' Charter of South Africa,

“a victim of crime is a person who has suffered harm, including physical or mental injury; emotional suffering; economic loss or substantial impairment of his or her fundamental rights, through acts or omissions that are in violation of our criminal law” (Victims' Charter, 1995).

The rights of a victim during their interaction with the police and the justice system includes: i) the right to be treated with fairness and with respect to their dignity and privacy and includes fair treatment by the police during the investigation; ii) the right to offer information which includes that the police will ensure that a victim may make any contribution to the investigation; iii) the right to receive information from service providers including the police; iv) the right to protection by the police; v) the right to assistance from the police who will explain police procedures, inform the victims of their rights and make appropriate referrals to other relevant service providers; vi) the right to compensation and vii) the right to restitution. The Victims' Charter of South Africa (1995), thus, is in accordance with the United Nations Declaration in that victims are treated fairly, they have the right to protection from the police, they have access to justice and information during the whole justice process from reporting a crime to restitution.

2.4.7 The South African Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act 32 of 2007

The Sexual Offences Amendment Act came into operation in December 2007 and is an act of the Parliament of South Africa that reformed and codified the law relating to sex offences, setting it on a gender-neutral basis. The Act expanded the range of sexual offences, expanded services for victims and created a national register of sexual offenders but it only mentions children and persons with mental disabilities as vulnerable groups. No other types of disability are mentioned in the Act. The Act deals with all sexual offences including; rape, sexual assault, child pornography, adult prostitution, and human trafficking. The Act aims to implement provisions in a coordinated and integrated manner, and the implementation of the laws relating to sexual offences. For this to happen it involves many role-players for example the police, court processes and support services to the victims. These are all stages that interlink and factors influencing the outcome of cases. Each role-player, either independently

and/or collectively will have an impact on how victims are treated in the justice system (Ramotsho, 2018).

2.4.8 Legislation and Policy Summary

There is a logical and obvious link between the different policies discussed and because of this, these policies can only be successful if they are implemented together as a whole, exemplifying Aristoteles adage that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Countries cannot cherry pick and implement only those goals or articles that they perceive as applicable to them, as all of these policies and legislations collectively form part of a complex and interconnected equation. As the focus of this study is on persons with CCN and their access to justice, Goal 16 of the SDGs namely Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions, can be linked to the CRPD, specifically Articles 12 (Equal recognition before the law); Article 13 (Access to justice) Article 16 (Freedom from exploitation, violence and abuse) and Article 21 (Freedom of expression and opinion, and access to information). The Constitution of South Africa, the White Paper on Human Rights of Policing, the SAPS Code of Conduct and the Victims' Charter have as a common thread regarding vulnerable groups such as persons with disability which include protection and safety of its communities and citizens; access to justice for all; equal benefit and protection of the law; the right to information and the right to be treated with fairness, dignity and respect during all proceeding throughout the criminal justice process. Although the Criminal Law Amendment Act is in line with UN Conventions and treaties, a significant part of the disability population is absent from this Act as it only mentions children and persons with mental disabilities as vulnerable groups.

2.5 THE POLICE AND THEIR ROLE IN ENSURING ACCESS TO JUSTICE

It was illustrated that despite challenges faced by persons with disability, a legal basis exists that grant's persons with disability the right to access to justice. Legislation and policies thus broadly guide and govern the processes that are aimed at ensuring the ratification of the right for all persons, including those from vulnerable groups such as persons with disability (Noppe, Verhage & Van Damme, 2017). Police legitimacy are measurements of the extent to which members in their communities

“trust and have confidence in the police, believe that the police are honest and competent, think that the police treat people fairly and with respect,

and are willing to defer to the law and to police authority” (Tyler, 2014, p. 4).

Procedural justice on the other hand offers a framework within which the interactions between police officers and persons with disability can be viewed and how the fairness of these interactions shape persons with disabilities’ views of the police and their willingness to obey the law. The procedural justice framework is built on the pillars of fairness, voice, transparency and impartiality (Kunard & Moe 2015; Tyler, 2003; Watson & Angell, 2007) which are presented schematically in Figure 2.1.

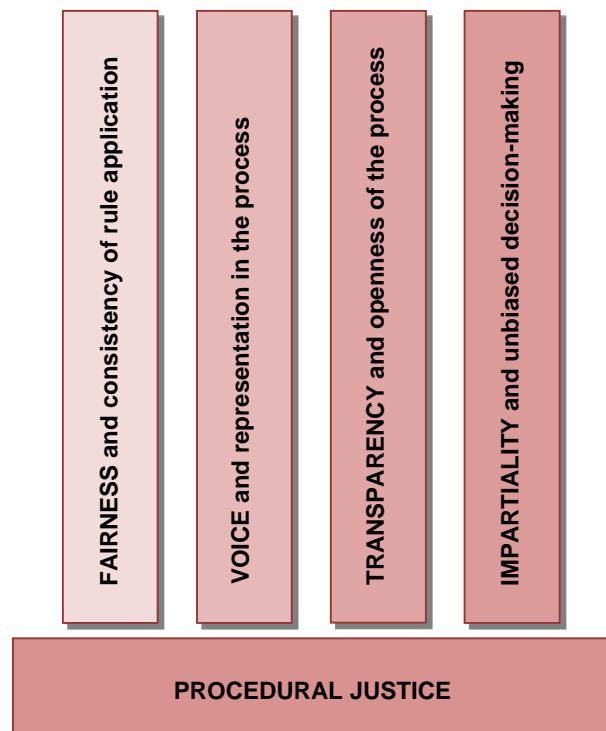


Figure 2.1: The four pillars of procedural justice (Adapted from Kunard & Moe, 2015)

When these four pillars are applied to interactions between police officers and the communities they serve, mutual respect and trust for future interactions are fostered, thereby heightening police legitimacy and procedural justice.

i) Fairness and consistency: The assessment of fairness is based on the consistency between what a community expect and what they experience in their interactions with the police (Van Camp & Wemmers, 2013). When the communities’ expectations about procedures and outcomes are not met, the assessment of fairness is more likely to be negative resulting in the

police being viewed in an unfavourable manner. Therefore, when communities, such as persons with disability view their treatment as fair, they are more likely to consent and cooperate with police officers (Tyler, 2003). This fair treatment may contribute to greater levels of police legitimacy (Tyler, 2014).

ii) Voice and representation: Every person, irrespective of ability status, deserves to be treated with respect and their dignity acknowledged. Giving persons with disability a voice means they are afforded the opportunity to participate in the process, voice their concerns and be heard before a decision is made (e.g. whether to take a statement from them or not) (Van Camp & Wemmers, 2013). When police officers are objective and respectful in their encounters with members of their communities they serve, trust is gained.

iii) Transparency: The actions of police officers and the decisions they make in any given encounter with any person in the community, including persons with disability, are more significant than the outcome of the encounter (Kunard & Moe, 2015). People in the community must be able to understand how the police behave in order to have confidence that the police force is working. This knowledge of how the police force work will ensure that communities trust the police (Schafer, 2013). Police officers' actions and decisions in encounters should be made without deception and secrecy which ultimately results in greater cooperation and support from the various communities they serve.

iv) Impartiality: Impartiality relates to the perception of honesty, objectivity and neutrality that is displayed by the police officer in interacting with persons with disability and their community (Van Camp & Wemmers, 2013). Impartiality should be based only on relevant evidence of facts and not on speculation or suspicion, thereby ensuring an environment in which community members and persons with disability know they will be treated fairly and justly, and the police are able to gain the trust of everyone in the communities they serve.

Police officers who are familiar with the concepts of legitimacy and procedural justice and who incorporate these concepts in their interactions firstly with each other, and secondly with the communities they serve, will generate feelings of helpfulness, kindness, trust and support from these communities (Jackson, Bradford, Hough & Murray, 2012; Maguire, 2018; Tyler, 2014). The adoption of community policing has resulted in communities having higher expectations of accountability and efficiency of police officers in the communities they serve (Maguire, 2018; Tyler, 2014). Positive experiences increase trust in the police and in turn it

also builds beliefs about the legitimacy of the process and the institutions of justice (Jackson et al., 2012; Wedlock & Tapley, 2016).

2.6 LEGITIMACY AND PROCEDURAL JUSTICE IN THE SAPS

According to Hinds and Murphy (2007, p. 27), legitimacy reflects a “social value orientation toward authority and institutions”, and the compliance, cooperation and obedience with law and order which is central to the understanding of policing (Tyler, 2003; Worden & McLean, 2016). This includes the belief that the police should be allowed to exercise their authority to maintain law and order. In doing so, the police create safer environments and manages conflict in different communities. Legitimacy is enhanced when the police gain and maintain the support from the communities they serve. However, it does not stop there as perceptions of legitimacy will lead persons with disability to report a crime to the police and start this encounter with positive feelings without any hostility and resistance (Tyler, 2003; Worden & McLean, 2016). Police legitimacy is enhanced in individual encounters with victims of crime and the combined actions of the police when victims of crime are treated with fairness, courtesy, respect, dignity and their fundamental human rights protected and upheld and in a way that shows the police is trustworthy (Kunard & Moe, 2015; Tyler, 2003; Worden & McLean, 2014).

Procedural justice can be viewed as a means to attain legitimacy (Kunard & Moe, 2015; Tyler, 2003). When embraced by the police, it promotes positive organisational change, and fosters legitimacy with the community police officers’ serve (Kunard & Moe, 2015). Victims reporting crime are more confident and satisfied when they have an opportunity to tell their story and when the police react objectively and neutral in dealing with their cases. This means that police officers must make decisions based on legal principles and facts of what happened during the crime. Transparency and openness during the justice process creates the impression that the police are neutral in the case. Organisations that train their police officers in proper police-community interactions, treat their officers with the same procedural justice that they demand of the police officers in their encounters with the community (Worden & McLean, 2016). When having contact with the police, the subjective experience of procedural justice (i.e. the perceived fairness with which the police officers act, and people being treated with dignity) affects the trust and confidence that community members put in the police as presented in Figure 2.2.

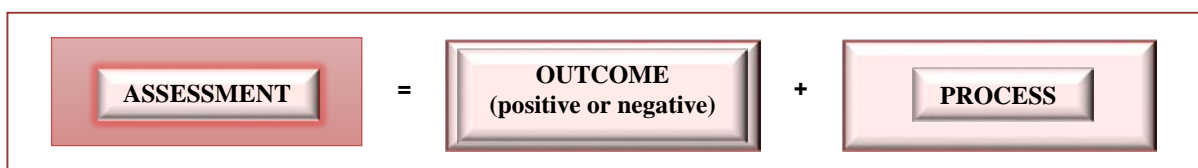


Figure 2.2: Procedural Justice (Adapted from Kunard & Moe, 2015)

The link between the pillars of procedural justice, the SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b) and the White Paper on Human Rights of Policing (SAPS, 2016a), are shown in Table 2.1. and is discussed in the introduction section of the training programme. This section is linked to Section B of the measuring instrument (Appendix I) where police officers answered questions related to a case study.

Table 2.1:

Linking Pillars of Procedural Justice with the SAPS Code of Conduct and The White Paper on Human Rights Principles of Policing

Pillars applied to interactions between police officers and communities they serve	Link with SAPS Code of Conduct	Link with White Paper on Policing – Human rights principles
Fairness and consistency of rule application.	Exercise powers in a responsible manner. Act with integrity. Uphold and protect the fundamental rights of every person.	Commitment to policing that is fair. Upholding and protection of fundamental rights of all persons.
Voice and representation in the process.	Render effective service of high standard which is accessible to every person.	Retaining dignity of persons.
Transparency and openness of the process.	Act transparently and honestly in an accountable manner.	Effective policing that is transparent and honest.
Impartiality and unbiased decision making.	Act impartially, respectfully and courteously.	Effective policing that is just and equitable.

Table 2.1 shows how procedural justice, the SAPS Code of Conduct and the White Paper on Policing - Human rights principles, link in their commitment to uphold the fundamental rights of all persons including persons with disability, treatment that is transparent and open, fair, responsible, and effective in their policing of all members of the communities they serve.

In conclusion, when applying the four pillars of procedural justice to interactions between police officers and the communities they serve, which includes persons with

disability, it is evident that the four pillars are linked and integrated with the SDGs, the CRPD, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the White Paper on Human Rights Principles of Policing (2016), the SAPS Code of Conduct (2015/16) The South African Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (2007) and the Service Charter for Victims of Crime (2004) in South Africa. The four pillars of procedural justice and the legislation and policies recognise persons with disability before the law and their treatment on an equal basis with all others with fairness, voice, transparency and impartiality.

2.7 TRAINING ANDRAGOGY IN THE SAPS

In order to attain police legitimacy and procedural justice which are prerequisites for attaining access to justice, training of police officers should be considered. Policing in the 21st century is changing from purely militaristic organisations to organisations in which community-oriented policing strategies are advocated (Birzer, 2003; Maguire, 2018), and a police force that is publicly accountable, subject to the rule of law and respectful of human dignity. Community policing has now been recognised as more effective because it acknowledges that it is not the police alone who combat and prevent crime but recognises the role the community in this and their responsibility for aiding the police in criminal prosecutions. As mentioned earlier, the importance of professionalism, accountability and legitimacy are emphasised in democratic policing (Maguire, 2018; Marenin, 2004).

Change in any organisation creates considerable challenges, such as change in hierarchy, technology, chain of command, mission statements, policies and service delivery. Therefore, to facilitate change, interventions should be designed to enhance learning as that will contribute to problem-solving and effective delivery of the desired strategic changes that are required (Sloman, 2005). Any new strategy with a shift in emphases from a top-down authoritative training approach to collaborative learning requires engagement and commitment at all levels in the organisation (Sloman, 2005).

Theories of change, thus, have a wide range of uses from developing, managing and evaluating interventions. For the purposes of this discussion the following definition of the theory of change will be used namely that “a theory of change is a predictive assumption about the relationship between desired changes and the actions that may produce those changes” (Connolly & Seymour, 2015, p.1). For any organisation to be successful including the SAPS, it needs personnel who are trained in the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform

the duties expected of them. As explained earlier, training within the SAPS previously relied on an authoritarian, paramilitarian, teacher-centred approach when training new recruits and when offering continuous in-service training for experienced police officers. However, modern day policing requires a collaborative adult learning training environment in which learners are encouraged to take responsibility for their own thinking, while encouraging problem-solving and leadership skills. This in turn increases effectiveness and efficiency in an ever-changing work environment (Birzer, 2003).

Andragogy, in contrast to pedagogy, is adult focussed and encompasses the concept of self-directed learning based on the experiences of the learner as is applicable to this study. An andragogical approach regards the trainer as the facilitator of adult learning. Six specific andragogical principles are suggested that apply to adult learners namely: they have a maturing self-concept; they have prior adult learner experiences; they have an orientation to learning; they have a need for information; they have the motivation to learn and show a readiness to learn (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2015; Laird, 2003). As the self-concept matures adult learners move from being dependent (for example on the trainer) towards being more self-directed, thus allowing them to discover information and knowledge for themselves without depending on others. Topics that have immediate relevance and impact to adult learners' occupation or life foster a readiness and motivation to learn. The orientation to learning changes from being content (for example material that was learned) oriented application, to problem-centred and relevant, and provide learners the opportunity to integrate what was learned into their everyday experiences (Ntiri, Schindler, & Henry, 2004). The motivation to learn becomes internal as the adult learner continuous to mature. For optimal learning, adult learners' need to know why they need to learn something before they actually learn.

The SAPS is regarded as a learning organisation due to transformation processes not only in name but in a whole new style of policing (Brand, 2002). This meant the introduction of new systems and processes to enhance the capabilities of police officers to achieve the objectives set for themselves and the community they serve through specific training programmes (Brand, 2002). A learning organisation creates a climate that fosters learning in an ever-changing environment, as well as knowledge acquisition and skills development (Brand, 2002; Oliver et al., 2002). By concentrating on the end result of learning, outcomes-based training is achieved (Oliver et al., 2002). According to andragogy principles, the adult

learning environment is one in which the individual differences in learning is recognised as all individuals approach learning in distinctive and different ways. Adults learn most effectively when they can apply their new knowledge, skills, and attitudes to real life practical situations (Knowles, et al., 2012). Police officers need to think critically, conceptually and creatively, and develop solutions when faced with difficulties they encounter in their work environment (Charles, 2000). Through andragogy, police officers are presented with the opportunity to apply learned contents in a real and experiential manner (Birzer, 2003). Learners not only bring past experiences into the learning context but also get the opportunity, with the use of experiential learning activities such as case studies, question and answers exercises, discussions, and skill demonstrations to foster new experiences (Knowles et al., 2012). This in turn assists police officers to connect and relate what has been learned in theory to the practical work environment. They are thus able to recognise that there is often more than one way to approach and solve a problem they may encounter in the execution of their duties (Oliver et al., 2002).

When following the principles of andragogy, the learning environment therefore becomes one in which the focus becomes learner-centred and the trainer spends more time on the practical applications of what has been learned and less time on teaching (Reynecke & Fourie, 2001). Within this andragogical learning environment, learners also become knowledgeable, and opportunities for feedback are provided congruent with learning objectives and outcomes. Training of police officers must therefore be geared toward ensuring that they are sufficiently knowledgeable and skilled with the necessary confidence to respond to the needs of diverse communities and the complexities of every-day policing (SAPS, 2016a).

Training that provides police officers with the knowledge and skills to communicate with persons with various types of disability should be included in training and ongoing development. Newly trained police officers in the SAPS are taught to write accurate and detailed statements and reports which add to their individual credibility and reputation when cases go to court. In-service police officers also receive continuous training in interviewing and confessions as these skills are part of the interviewing process (SAPS, 2013; Marion, 1998). However, neither of these curricula include statement taking from persons with CCN or other disability types or how to treat persons with CCN and persons with disability when they present themselves at a police station to report a crime (Kolwapi, 2009). Therefore,

newly qualified police officers from training colleges within South Africa do not receive training in how to recognise persons with CCN and other disability types or work with them (Kolwapi, 2009).

SAPS police officers often felt ill equipped to take statements from persons with CCN, due to the possibility of misinterpreting what is conveyed to them (Bornman, 2014). They might also see the testimony of these individuals as faulty and therefore they don't investigate the case, which implies that it is not followed through to prosecution, rendering the victim unable to achieve access to justice (Primor & Lerner, 2012). However, research has shown if questioning is matched to the person's communicative abilities, it can produce an accurate and detailed account of the crime perpetrated against them (Aarons, Powell & Browne, 2004). Bryen and Wickman (2011), discussed court cases involving persons with severe CCN as victims of crime and highlighted that communication methods could be found in every case that enabled victims to give evidence in court. This implies that difficulty in speaking does not mean that victims cannot explain what happened to them and that the inability to speak does not render them incompetent to communicate. Literature shows that police officers may benefit from being made aware that everyone communicates in some way and that communication comes in many forms other than speech, yet, such important training is currently not available in the SAPS. This lack of knowledge in interviewing persons with CCN is a good indication of the gap in training programmes in interviewing skills development. One way to improve on this identified gap is that monitoring and feedback of skills regarding difficult to interview victims, such as those with CCN, should be undertaken to foster the confidence needed by police officers to take detailed and accurate statements from persons with CCN (Aarons et al., 2004).

2.8 THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: A CONTEXTUALISATION

Internationally, South Africa has some of the highest crime statistics for violent crimes such as homicide, burglaries, robberies with aggravated circumstances and sexual offences (Business Tech, 2017; Chutel, 2017). The Institute of Security Studies (Chutel, 2017), reported that South Africans were at a substantially higher risk of being victims of crime in 2017 than five years prior with specific emphasis on more serious and violent crimes, including sexual offences. International research has demonstrated that persons with disabilities are more likely to be victims of crime than the general population (Hoong Sin, Hedges, Cook, Mguni & Comber, 2009; Lewin, 2007; Sobsey, 1994). Persons with CCN face multiple disability-related

barriers to reporting a crime which increases their vulnerability. As discussed in Section 2.3., these barriers may also include, but are not limited to social and/or physical isolation, feelings of shame and self-blame, lack of knowledge about the criminal justice system and fear of retribution in reporting perpetrators who are caregivers or family members (Elphick, 2012; Hughes, Curry, Oschwald, Child, Lund, Sullivan and Powers, 2011).

In the World Report on Disability (WHO and World Bank, 2011), the prevalence of disability is estimated at about 15% globally, which is higher than earlier predictions of 10% in 1970. Therefore, not only has the crime rates increased in South Africa, but the number of persons with disability has also increased. As the number of persons with disability increases, so may the number of crimes committed against them which may lead to police officers investigating a greater number of crimes perpetrated against persons with disability (Modell & Mak, 2008). It is a fact that persons with disability therefore have a higher likelihood than the general population of coming into contact with the police as either as a victim, witness or suspect as their first entry point in the criminal justice system (Hughes et al., 2011; Primor & Lerner, 2012). Within the broader population of persons with disability, persons with severe CCN are at an even greater risk of being victims of crime as they are often voiceless and invisible in society (Bornman, 2014).

These facts clearly justify why training police officers regarding knowledge, skills and attitudes towards persons with disability should be regarded as high priority, as this impacts directly on access to justice for persons with disability.

2.8.1 The South African Police Service

SAPS is the national police force of South Africa and is constitutionally mandated to prevent, investigate and combat crime. This study is placed within the context of the SAPS. First the structure of the SAPS will be explained, followed by the ranks and roles of police officers in the SAPS. Finally, this section will conclude with the process of statement taking.

2.8.1.1 Structure

Community Policing was introduced in the SAPS in 1994 and form part of the partnership between the police and the communities they serve in achieving access to justice for people in these communities including persons with disability. These partnerships have been structured by means of Community Policing Forums (CPFs), as prescribed by section

27 of the South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No. 68 of 1995). Community policing is a policy and strategy aimed at achieving more effective crime control, reducing fears of crime in communities, improving quality of life of communities including persons with disability, improving police service and police legitimacy. Community Policing Forums are established at the 1140 police stations spread across the country and are broadly representative of the local community in that area for example community leaders, business forums, security companies, neighbourhood watches, municipalities and Non-Governmental Organisations (Kunard & Moe, 2012).

These active partnerships between the police and the community jointly addresses various aspects namely: i) to promote communication between the community, including persons with disability and the police on crime related aspects; ii) to promote cooperation between police and the community, including persons with disability in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing; iii) to improve transparency in the SAPS and accountability of the SAPS to the community and persons with disability and v) to promote joint problem identification and problem solving by the SAPS and the community collectively relating to crime and community safety. This approach to policing recognises the interdependence and shared responsibility of the police and the community in maintaining safety and security to ensure police fairness, transparency, voice and representation and increase trust in the police.

One of the most important parts of any police station is the Community Service Centre or charge office, the first point of entry into the justice system. It is thus one of the most active division of the SAPS as they work directly with the persons in a community when a crime is reported. This is a crucial part of the process as effective statement taking, gathering of evidence, and the apprehension of the alleged perpetrator will determine if the case will proceed through the justice system to the prosecution stage, and ultimately lead to a conviction of the perpetrator (Du Plessis, 2007; Keilty & Connelly, 2010; Lutshaba, Semenchuk & Williams, 2002). The Community Service Centre provides a service to any person who is a victim of crime. Here all documents pertaining to the crime will be completed by a police officer. A police officer will interview the victim of crime and then take a statement. The case will be registered in the SAPS Crime Administration System at the charge office and this number is given to the victim for all enquiries regarding the reported criminal case. Once the case docket is completed, a police detective will carry out the investigation.

Once the detective in charge on the case has completed the investigation, the docket will be presented to the relevant court for prosecution. All sexual offences are first reported at the local Community Service Centre where the victim will lay a charge of any sexual and violent assault. Once the victim has given a statement, the case is referred to an FCS unit detective.

The FCS unit is a specialised investigation unit established to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in combating crime and investigating sexual offences against children, women and persons with disability by means of both proactive and reactive strategies and provides a sensitive and effective service delivery to the victims of crimes. The role of the FCS unit in investigating sexual offences prompted the researcher to focus on this unit as they are exposed to working with vulnerable groups such as children, women and persons with disability. The FCS unit currently includes 189 units which includes the nine provincial units and hosts 2145 FCS detectives and 94 Forensic Social Workers nationwide (SAPS, 2017). This in effect means that there is not an FCS unit at every police station and an FCS detective will then be called to interview the victim of a violent crime or a sexual offence and take a statement. In addition, the FCS units employ a network of forensic social workers to assist with assessment of abused victims and the compilation of court reports for family violence and sexual offences including persons with disability, as well as for providing an expert testimony in court when called to do so.

2.8.1.2 Ranks

The rank structure in the SAPS is divided into commissioned officers (senior management) with the highest rank of general, followed by lieutenant general, major general, brigadier, colonel, lieutenant colonel, major, captain and lieutenant. These senior officers are responsible for planning, organising, directing, controlling and evaluating police force administration and police activities, maintaining law and order, detecting and preventing crime. These officers are specifically in charge of support and running of the police force in designated areas, where they plan and draw up budgets, coordinate with other law enforcement agencies and emergency service providers, supervise, select and train police officers. Non-commissioned officers on the other hand include the ranks of warrant officer, sergeant, constable and student constable and they usually obtain their position of authority through the enlisted ranks. These officers are responsible for preventing and investigating crime. A provincial commissioner is appointed to each one of the nine provinces and report directly to the national commissioner.

2.8.1.3 Roles

There are approximately: i) 103 746 police officers who are engaged in visible policing; ii) 39 748 who are detectives; iii) 8 723 who are crime intelligence officers; iv) 6 331 who are protection and security officers and v) 36 304 who are employed in administrative positions (SAPS, 2017). However, in this discussion, the roles in the police will not be discussed but will only focus on the roles of police detectives in the FCS units, as they are the primary focus of this research.

There are a number of specified criteria that police officers need to comply with to become FCS unit detectives. All police officers must be appointed in terms of the SAPS Act (Act 68 of 1995). To become a FCS unit commander, the detective must have at least two years practical experience regarding the policing of FCS related crimes and have completed the general course for detectives (Detective Course/Detective Learning Programme/Resolving of Crime) and the relevant FCS course (Child Protection/Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Investigator's Course/Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Detective Learning Programme) (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2011). To become an FCS unit detective, the criteria include that the detective must have at least one year's practical experience of detective work and completed the Detective Learning Programme (DLP); Sexual Offences Investigator's Course; and Resolving of Crime Course (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2012).

The role of the FCS unit detective is to ensure the effective investigation of family violence and sexual offences related crimes, for example rape, and to ensure fair and dignified service delivery to these victims. This would include any sexual offence perpetrated against persons with disability, irrespective of the type of disability. Just as with the Community Service Centres, the FCS units should be equipped with a victim friendly room. Unfortunately, this is not always the case which often means that there is no privacy when the victim reports a crime and the dignity and rights of the victim in these sensitive cases are not adhered to according to their human rights (Victim Empowerment Service, 2017). The FCS unit detective will interview the victim and collect all evidence from the victim and if an impairment or disability is present, this should be noted on the statement and placed in the docket. The role of the forensic social worker is to assist with the assessment of abused children and the compilation of court reports. They are also often called to provide expert testimony in court. Thus, the roles that both the FCS unit detective and the forensic social

worker fulfil include the treatment of victims/complainants and their families with respect and courtesy; taking statements in a professional manner; providing victims with information on their case number as well as details of the investigating officer; informing/educating victims about the procedures of the police investigation and the criminal justice system; providing advice on crime prevention and referring victims to medical and/or counselling and support services in the community. In the next section, the process of taking statement is described.

2.8.2 Process of taking a statement

Investigation is a core duty of policing. The term investigate is derived from the Latin word “*vestigare*”, meaning to track or trace, a derivation easily related to that of criminal investigation (Hess & Orthmann, 2010). Hess and Orthmann (2010, p. 6) defined a criminal investigation as “the process of discovering, collecting, preparing, identifying and presenting evidence to determine what happened and who is responsible”, and therefore facts need to be gathered in an orderly, systematic way, before analysing and evaluating it. The statement given by a victim of crime forms one important part of the criminal investigation process and it is an account of the events in the victim’s own words.

2.8.2.1 The Interview

An interview can be defined as a communication, a conversation, part of a conversation, or a series of conversations for the purpose of obtaining the best quality and quantity of information (Milne & Bull, 2006). The task of interviewing is complex, and the knowledge, skills, attitude and training of police officers are essential to the success of the interview (Milne & Bull, 2006). The initial interview and the accurate recording of a victim’s statement is crucial to the investigation of crime and can very often determine the success of the investigation (Keilty & Connelly, 2010; Milne & Bull, 2006). The interview is therefore a central aspect of the criminal justice process (Oxburgh, Myklebust & Grant, 2010).

Police officers are expected to act with professionalism and integrity during the interview process. Establishing rapport is seen as the foundation of a successful interview and research has shown that the quantity and quality of information produced by both children and adults are increased and recall is more accurate when there seems to be well established rapport between the victim and the police officer (Vallano et al., 2015). Victims are more likely to present accurate information if they trust the professionalism of the police officer (i.e. police

legitimacy). Planning and preparation should ensure that the police officer follows an interview plan (SAPS, 2013), and that a victim friendly room or an office where there are no interruptions is available to ensure the privacy, safety and welfare of the victim. The interview must be approached without prejudice and personal beliefs about persons with disability. Vulnerable victims such as persons with disability and children may be more suggestible to what they believe the police officer wants or expects them to say (Milne & Bull, 2006). The police officer should be aware of this and compensate for this by not asking leading questions or asking questions that have more than one answer (SAPS, 2013). Victims should be treated fairly and in accordance with his/her basic human rights as stipulated in the Victims' Charter of South Africa (1995), the SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b) and The White Paper on Human Rights Principles of Policing (SAPS, 2016a). All departments who implement the Victims' Charter should develop special programmes to educate vulnerable groups including persons with CCN and other disability types about their rights and services available to them (Vetten et al., 2008).

2.8.2.2 *The Statement*

The statement follows the interview and is defined as “*a written communication of facts observed by the deponent in the form of a statement, that can be supplied to a court of law. The facts can be expressed verbally or in writing*” (SAPS, 2013, p. 2). Statements are taken for the following reasons, namely: i) to elicit information from the victim of a crime; ii) to obtain a written record which may be read and checked by the victim; iii) to determine what action the police must take; iv) to assist in the examination of the victim in court, and v) to justify police action and also to shorten criminal trials (SAPS, 2013).

The SAPS National Instruction 22/1998 states that *the “victim’s statement must be comprehensive”* and this instruction also sets out a checklist of 77 details that a police officer should include in a victim’s statement. According to the Learner’s Guide (SAPS, 2013), a well-planned and structured statement consists of three parts, namely the preamble, the contents and the ending.

i) The preamble has as its purpose the identification of the victim to ensure that the victim can be traced at a later stage. The preamble includes the date, time, place, the language used by the victim and the names of persons present at the time of the interview.

ii) The contents contain the facts in a logical sequence as they pertain to the case and contains all the information the police officer obtained through the questioning of the victim in the victim's own words. The information contained in the content also indicates what type of crime was committed and based on this content the public prosecutor will determine the criminal charge.

iii) The end of the statement entails the police officer summarising the statement and explaining the criminal justice process to the victim and informing the victim of what can be expected during the various steps of the criminal justice process (SAPS, 2013). The ending of the statement requires both the victim and the police officer to initial each page and if the statement is complete, the victim must be put under oath. Once the victim has confirmed that he/she understands the contents of the statement, has no objections to taking the prescribed oath and that he/she understands that the prescribed oath is binding to the victim's conscience, the oath will be administered. When a person is illiterate, the oath will be read to him/her. A thumb print or a mark is applied instead of a signature. If the victim is unable to speak any of the official languages an interpreter must be used to translate the victim's statement from the language used by the victim, to any of the official languages. There are, however, no specific instructions or guidelines on taking statements from persons with disability and specifically persons with CCN in the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013).

The statement should also adhere to eight principles (accuracy, completeness, expansiveness, objectiveness, comprehensiveness, honesty, simplicity and directness and meaning of English words), which acts as a guideline for police officers as to what information and facts should be recorded in a statement. The statement provides an outline of the evidence and enables a case to be prosecuted in court. The police officer should also note in the statement if there is a suspected impairment or disability and as far as possible describe what the impairment or disability may be. In previous research on family and interpersonal violence (Brownridge, 2006; Smith, 2008), it was noted that police reports, and studies on crime rates failed to include information on disability type and status. Effective communication with the victim during the interview should form a basis for obtaining information and facts to be recorded in the statement, including the report of a suspected impairment or disability, which are important facts that lead to the investigation process of a reported case.

2.9 SUMMARY

Chapter 2 focused on relevant literature on the human rights of persons with disability as victims of crime and their access to justice through the police as their first point of entry. Next, barriers to access to justice experienced by persons with disability including persons with CCN who reporting being a victim of crime was discussed. Legislation and policies were discussed as these translated to persons with disability and policing. Police legitimacy and procedural justice was discussed in relation to the SDGs, the CRPD, the Constitution of South Africa, the White Paper on the Human Rights Principle of Policing (SAPS, 2016a), the SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b), the Sexual Amendment and Related Matters Act and the Service Charter for Victims of Crime in South Africa. Next training in the SAPS was discussed related to modern day policing, the principles of andragogical adult learning and learning in an ever-changing environment. This was followed by a description of the structure of the SAPS including ranks and roles with specific emphasis on the FCS unit and the role they play in the reporting and investigating of sexual offences against persons with disability. This chapter concludes with the interview and the statement taking process which is the first step in ensuring access to justice, police legitimacy and procedural justice for persons with disability and specifically persons with CCN. The findings from Chapter 2 will be used to inform the methodology used in the study, specifically emphasising Phase 1 of the study namely the exploratory phase.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Phase 1: Exploratory Phase

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains the methodology adopted for this research study, namely a three-phase sequential mixed method exploratory research design. The schematic outline of the complete study is presented in Figure 3.1, highlighting Phase 1 with its three distinct stages, as this is the focus of Chapter 3. The chapter discusses the research methodology followed to obtain the data related to Phase 1. It starts by discussing the main aim and sub-aims, followed by the research design and ethics considerations. Next the systematic review (Stage 1a) is briefly described, followed by the survey on police officers' current disability knowledge (Stage 1b). This is followed by a discussion of the two focus groups (Stage 1c) and concludes with implications for Phase 2.

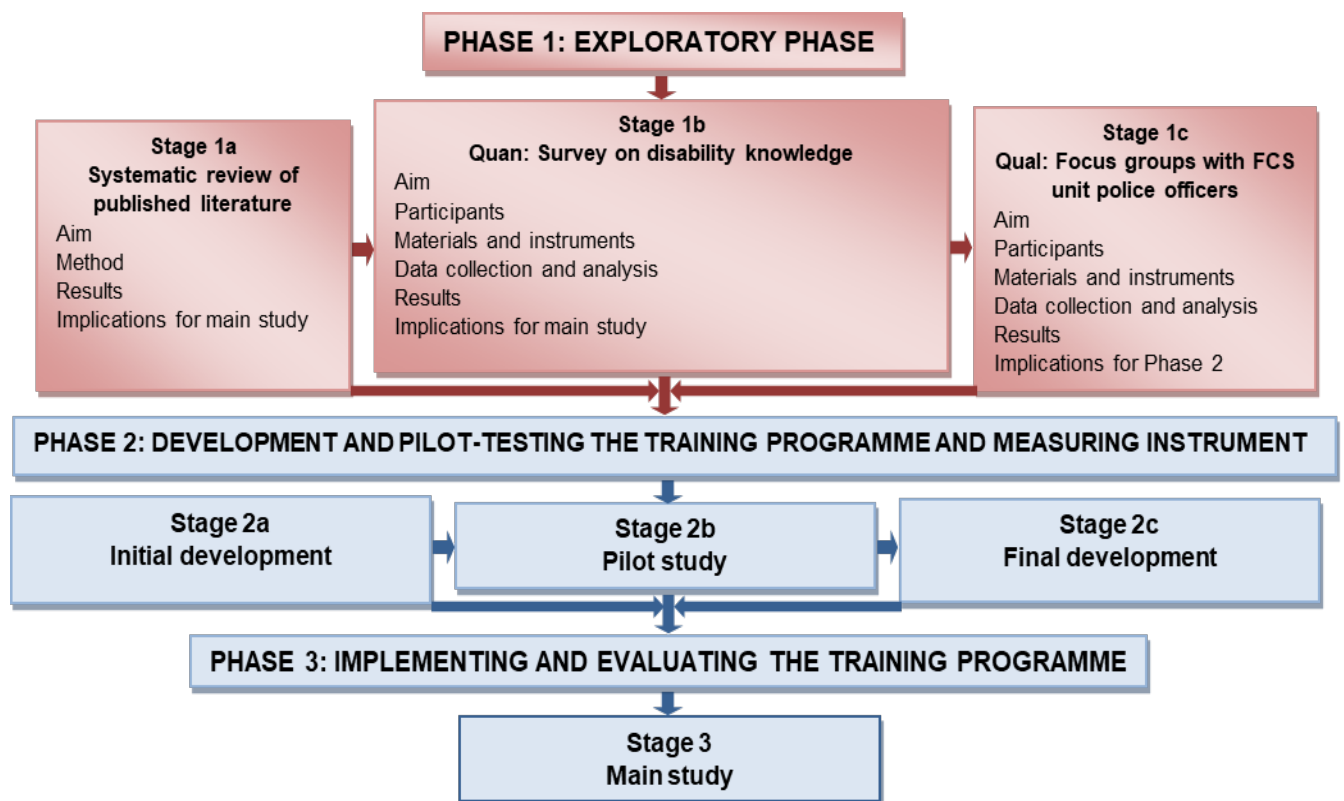


Figure 3.1: Schematic outline of study: Emphasis on Phase 1, Stage 1a –c

3.2 AIMS

3.2.1 Main Aim

The main aim of the study is to determine the effect of a custom-designed disability training programme on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of police officers when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

3.2.2 Sub-Aims

In an effort to address the main aim within the design of the study, the following sub-aims were formulated to specifically reflect Phase 1:

- i) to perform a systematic review on published literature regarding disability sensitivity training programmes provided to police officers, either as new recruits during their induction training or as part of their in-service continuing education;
- ii) to determine, by means of a survey, police officers' knowledge regarding persons with disability and compare this knowledge to their perceived self-competence in interacting with persons with disability who report being a victim of crime;
- iii) to identify, by means of focus groups in the FCS units the challenges police officers face and to understand their experiences when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime; and
- iv) to determine by means of a written exercise the knowledge of the FCS unit police officers on the eight principles of a credible statement.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Mixed methods research utilises both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Therefore, it is distinguished from pure quantitative approaches that are based on a positivist philosophy and purely qualitative approaches that are based on interpretivism and constructivism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005) as it allows for multiple philosophies to inform the research approach (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutman & Hanson, 2003). Mixed methods are a means of collecting, analysing, and using both qualitative and quantitative data within one research design. It thus strengthens a study by mixing different types of methods without simply including both types of data (Creswell et al., 2003). In the pragmatic philosophy, the focus is on the research question and how different approaches can be combined to answer the research question (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). This approach was

considered appropriate for answering the current research question as both the qualitative and quantitative phases deliver significant data and the integration of the different phases permits a more complete utilisation and understanding of the data collected and analysed (Wisdom & Creswell, 2013).

The study used a mixed methods sequential exploratory research design as the researcher needed to develop and test an instrument as there was not an existing instrument available (Creswell, 2015). This design consisted of three distinct phases (Creswell, 2015), namely an exploratory phase (entailing the collection of quantitative and qualitative data) followed by the development and pilot-testing of a training programme and a measuring instrument and the implementation and evaluation of the training programme and measuring instrument for the main study. The exploratory phase was necessitated by the fact that limited knowledge of the context (South African Police Officers) and the constructs (knowledge, skills and attitudes related to statement taking from persons with disability, specifically CCN) were available. This stage therefore contributed information required for the development of a custom-designed training programme and measuring instrument. During Phase 2, a two-day custom-designed training programme and measuring instrument were developed based on the findings from Phase 1. The training programme and measuring instrument were reviewed by stakeholders and a healthcare expert panel and piloted with a group of police officers. Data obtained from these three data sources (Phase 2) informed the researcher on the changes needed to the training programme and the measuring instrument for Phase 3, which entailed the administering and evaluation of the training programme and the measuring instrument for the main study. Using a three-phased approach required considerable time (Creswell, et al., 2003). In summary, based on the results from data collected during Phase 1 (qualitative and quantitative), a measuring instrument and training programme were developed during Phase 2 and implemented during Phase 3 of the main study.

3.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics are guided by one over-riding principle – the need to acknowledge and respect human dignity. Ethics principles, codes of conduct and the application of professional standards are ultimately there to protect participants of the research (Babbie, 2014). This implies duties of honesty, integrity, objectivity, accountability and openness (Canterbury Christ Church University, 2014). Before proceeding with this study, institutional approval (Appendix A) was obtained from the SAPS through the Provincial Head: Legal Services; the

Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Crime Detection and the Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Human Resources Management (Appendix B) and from the Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria's Faculty of Humanities (Appendix C) to confirm that the study was ethically sound. Ethics principles of research and their relation to this study are discussed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1:

Ethics Principles Pertaining to the Study

<p>The principle of free and informed consent (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011):</p> <p>Participants were given details regarding the nature of the research and procedures involved. Due to the participants' proficiency in English, the researcher was confident that the information on the consent form and reply slip was understood. Participation was completely voluntary, and participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study without any negative repercussions. Participants signed a consent and reply form after reading the informed consent letter.</p>	<p>The principle of confidentiality (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004):</p> <p>Data was coded using participant numbers to protect the participants' identity. All information and data are in secure storage. This information is available to the researcher and cannot be accessed without prior permission from the researcher. Focus group participation involved the sharing of information and experiences. In this context confidentiality can only be ensured as far as each participant is concerned, in that they were encouraged to keep the shared information during the focus group confidential.</p>
<p>The principle of veracity (Snyder & Gauthier, 2008):</p> <p>All practices pertaining to this study was planned and conducted in an open and transparent way to minimise misleading results. All results were reported according to the findings and within the research context and were not falsified or manipulated in any way. Peer review of methods and findings was adhered to throughout the study. There is a visible audit trail for other researchers to follow.</p>	<p>The principle of justice and inclusiveness (Orb, Eisenhauer & Wynaden, 2000):</p> <p>Justice connoted fairness and equity for all participants. Participants had to be sworn in and in-service police officers. Participants had to be competent in both written and spoken English.</p>

Phase 1 of the study comprised of the data collection of Stages 1a–c, which is the focus of this chapter. This resulted in the development and pilot-testing of the training programme, training programme evaluation form and measuring instrument (Phase 2) which is the focus of Chapter 4. Data collected and analysed in Phase 1 comprised of: i) a systematic review; ii) a survey on disability knowledge; and iii) two FCS unit focus groups to understand their challenges and experiences when taking statements from persons with disability who report being a victim of crime.

3.5 STAGE 1a: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

As unpacked in Chapter 2, police officers encounter persons with CCN as victims, witnesses or alleged offenders of crime. There is evidence which suggests that education and training programmes can successfully improve disability-related knowledge and attitudes (Murray et al., 2013; Scior, 2011). The systematic review (Viljoen, Bornman, Wiles & Tönsing, 2017) allowed for an in-depth look at existing disability sensitivity training programmes provided to police officers to assist in the identification of a potential programme that could be used for the purposes of the present study. This systematic review was published in a peer-reviewed journal (Viljoen et al., 2017). For the post-print version of this review, please see Appendix P.

3.5.1 Aim

The aim of the systematic review was to identify and describe the characteristics of disability sensitivity training programmes provided to police officers. This could be either at the induction training of new recruits or during continuing education of police officers already in the service. This systematic review addressed the first sub-aim of the study.

3.5.2 Method

The systematic search aimed to identify a comprehensive list of published literature on training programmes regarding disabilities provided to police officers. The search strategy was developed using a hybrid of conceptual (Sampson et al., 2009) and objective (Hausner et al., 2015) approaches and was pilot-tested across two different databases (Academic Search Complete and Criminal Justice Abstracts).

With input from an academic librarian (Sampson et al., 2009), 13 electronic databases were considered relevant and searched during November 2015 from their year of first availability (1980). Databases included: Academic Search Complete; Criminal Justice Abstracts; ERIC; EJournals; Family Social Science; Index to Legal Periodicals; Teacher Reference Centre; Emerald, Proquest; Scopus; SAePublications and Oxford Journals. Additional sources included those gleaned from reference lists of screened records and searches of relevant grey literature using Google Scholar. The search strategy followed the PICO format (population, intervention, control or comparator and outcome) and employed keywords and MeSH terms related to each of these four components (Appendix P).

After a process of elimination of studies according to strict eligibility criteria, only three articles were identified to be included in the systematic review. A detailed PRISMA flow diagram that shows the process which was followed as suggested by Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff and Altman, (2009) is included.

The McMaster quantitative and qualitative critical appraisal tools (Lam, Stewart, Pollock, Bosch & Westmorland, 1998) were used for the appraisal of bias of the included studies. All 15 domains on the McMaster tool were allocated a score (1 = Yes; 0 = No or Not Addressed). There was 100% agreement between the scores of two reviewers for this phase of the process. Critical appraisal scores ranged from 8 (53.33%) to 11 (73.33%) out of a maximum of 15 (mean 9.3, 62.20%). Common methodological problems were noted in all three studies related to inadequate description and justification of the sample size and insufficient reporting about the avoidance of contamination and co-intervention. For a comprehensive overview of the results of this appraisal, please see Appendix P.

3.5.3 Results

There appears to be a paucity of research reporting on and evaluating disability sensitivity interventions for police officers, as only three studies were identified spanning the last 15 years and in high-income Westernised countries. Results are presented according to: i) study demographics; ii) population; iii) intervention and (iv) control groups; and v) outcomes. A synopsis of various components of the three disability sensitivity training programmes included in the systematic review is presented in Table 3 in Appendix P. Studies in this review consistently reported statistically significant improvements in participants' attitudinal scores following training, and in comparison, with the control groups (Study 1 and Study 2).

3.5.4 Implications for Phase 2

The findings of this systematic review offer several implications for the development of the training programme in Phase 2. Firstly, it shows that when attempting to train police officers, collaborative teaching approaches from multi-disciplinary professionals (e.g., mental health professionals, social workers, psychologists, police officers and persons with disability themselves) should be used (Coleman & Cotton, 2010; Hatfield, 2014; Vermette, Pinals & Appelbaum, 2005). Secondly, a problem-based and experiential learning approach should be used to combine information gathering activities and group discussions. While training programmes could include role play, simulation and the use of video and film media where available (Coleman & Cotton, 2010; Hatfield, 2014), direct contact with persons with disability

is preferable as it may promote longer-lasting training effects and provides opportunities for shared learning (Crisp & Turner, 2009). Thirdly, the disability training programme should cover a wide spectrum of disabilities to promote greater recognition and acceptance, while at the same time highlighting specific factors that may be unique or of greater importance to sub-groups within the population of persons with disability. Ideally, training programmes should include comprehensive content on methods for recognition and techniques for how to respond effectively and empathetically to persons with a variety of disability profiles. Learning is not a one-time event and therefore renewal and reinforcement of material through ongoing and repeated exposure is recommended. Fourthly, studies should employ measures beyond those of attitudes alone, and include aspects such as knowledge, skills and behaviours of police officers towards persons with disability. In time, it may also be possible to investigate practical outcomes of interactions between police officers and persons with disability (such as auditable records of reports and incidents), and levels of staff and community satisfaction, although this is beyond the scope of the current study.

3.6 STAGE 1b: SURVEY ON DISABILITY KNOWLEDGE

As explained earlier, police officers regularly come into contact with persons with disability as victims, witnesses or perpetrators (Primor & Lerner, 2012). They need adequate knowledge to recognise and understand when a person has a disability and should be able to cope with any cases presented to them. Information from the knowledge-based survey titled *Police officers' knowledge and perceptions of disability questionnaire* (Modell & Mak, 2008) allowed for baseline information on South African police officers' knowledge and perceptions of persons with disability.

3.6.1 Aim

The purpose of Stage 1b was to determine South African police officers' knowledge regarding persons with disability using an existing questionnaire titled *Police officers' knowledge and perceptions* (Modell & Mak, 2008), and to compare their knowledge to their perceived self-competence in how they communicate with persons with disability who report being a victim of crime. This addresses sub-aim ii of the study's first phase.

3.6.2 Participants

A total of 116 survey questionnaires were distributed. Of these, 98 police officers consented, completed the biographical questionnaire and the survey questionnaire on disability.

Thus, 18 survey questionnaires were not returned for reasons that possibly could include non-consent or that they neglected to complete they survey questionnaire by the collection deadline. A description of the participants in Stage 1b is presented in Table 3.2.

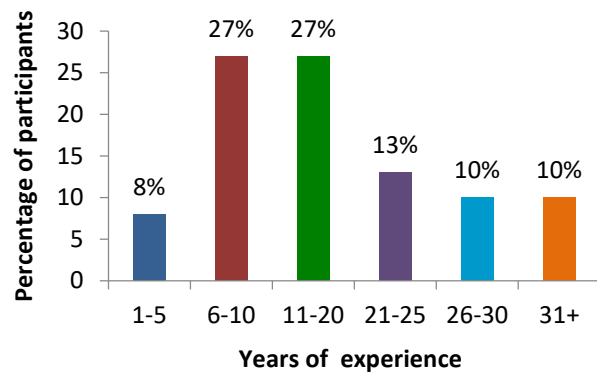
Table 3.2:

Participant Description - Stage 1b (N = 98)

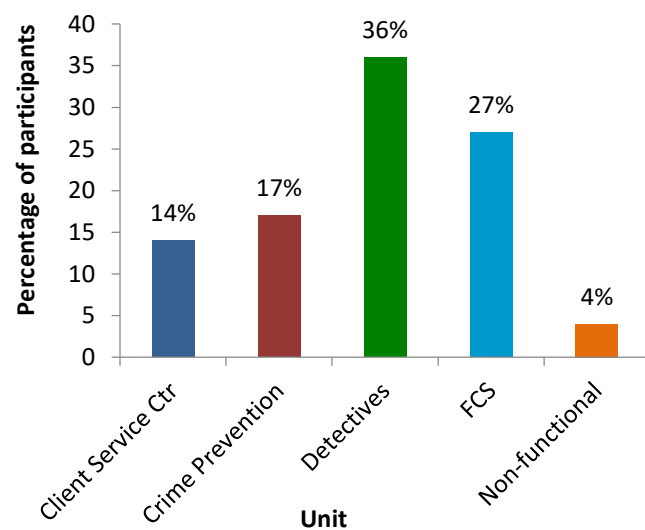
Description of Variable	N = 98																		
<p>Gender:</p> <p>Of the participants, 36% were female and 64% were male, resulting in a male:female ratio of 2:1. Gender equity in the SAPS is at a ratio of 65/35 (male:female) (SAPS /2015).</p>	<p>A pie chart titled 'Gender' showing the distribution of participants by gender. The chart is divided into two segments: a blue segment representing 'Female' at 36% and a red segment representing 'Male' at 64%. A legend below the chart identifies the colors: a blue square for 'Female' and a red square for 'Male'.</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Gender</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Female</td> <td>36%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Male</td> <td>64%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Gender	Percentage	Female	36%	Male	64%												
Gender	Percentage																		
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Male	64%																		
<p>Age:</p> <p>Ages ranged from 19 years to 57 years. The average age across the participants was 35.78 years. The majority of participants (25%) were in the 36-40-year-old category. The adjacent bar graph shows the age distribution.</p>	<p>A bar graph titled 'Age' showing the percentage of participants in different age groups. The y-axis is labeled 'Percentage of participants' and ranges from 0 to 30. The x-axis is labeled 'Age in years' and includes categories: -20, 21-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, and 51+. The bars are colored as follows: -20 (blue, 2%), 21-25 (red, 5%), 26-30 (green, 6%), 31-35 (purple, 19%), 36-40 (cyan, 25%), 41-45 (orange, 20%), 46-50 (teal, 9%), and 51+ (pink, 12%).</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Age in years</th> <th>Percentage of participants</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>-20</td> <td>2%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>21-25</td> <td>5%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>26-30</td> <td>6%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>31-35</td> <td>19%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>36-40</td> <td>25%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>41-45</td> <td>20%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>46-50</td> <td>9%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>51+</td> <td>12%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Age in years	Percentage of participants	-20	2%	21-25	5%	26-30	6%	31-35	19%	36-40	25%	41-45	20%	46-50	9%	51+	12%
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<p>First language:</p> <p>Half of the participants indicated that isiZulu was their first language (50%), followed by English (42%). Other first languages included Afrikaans (2%), isiXhosa (3%), Sesotho (1%). isiZulu is the first language of the majority of the KwaZulu-Natal province's population (77.8%) and the participant sample reflects this (Statistics SA and Ethnologue, 2016).</p>	<p>A bar graph titled 'First language' showing the percentage of participants for different first languages. The y-axis is labeled 'Percentage of participants' and ranges from 0 to 60. The x-axis is labeled 'First language' and includes categories: isiZulu, English, and Other. The bars are colored as follows: isiZulu (red, 50%), English (blue, 42%), and Other (green, 6%).</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>First language</th> <th>Percentage of participants</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>isiZulu</td> <td>50%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>English</td> <td>42%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Other</td> <td>6%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	First language	Percentage of participants	isiZulu	50%	English	42%	Other	6%										
First language	Percentage of participants																		
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English	42%																		
Other	6%																		

Description of Variable**N = 98****Years of experience:**

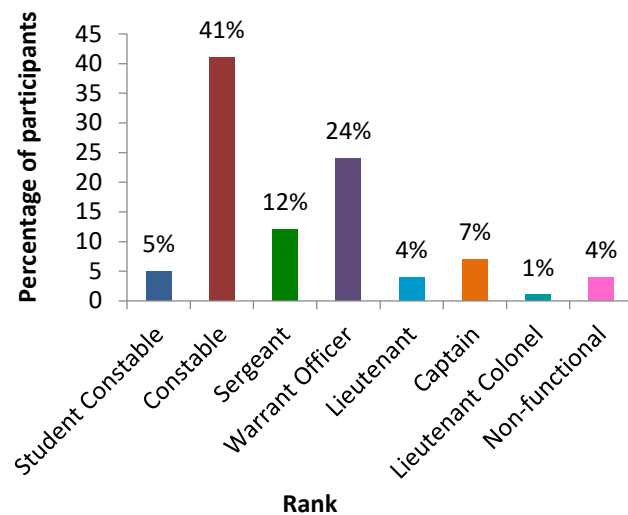
The mean years of experience was 15.35 years, with a range from 1 to 35 years. There was an equal distribution of participants who had between 6 and 10 years (27%) and between 11 and 20 years (27%) of experience, with 33% having 21 years of experience or more.

**Unit:**

The majority (95%) of the participants specified working as functional members (police officers on active duty) with (4%) non-functional (administrative) members. Of the functional members, most worked as detectives (36%) followed by FCS unit officers (27%).

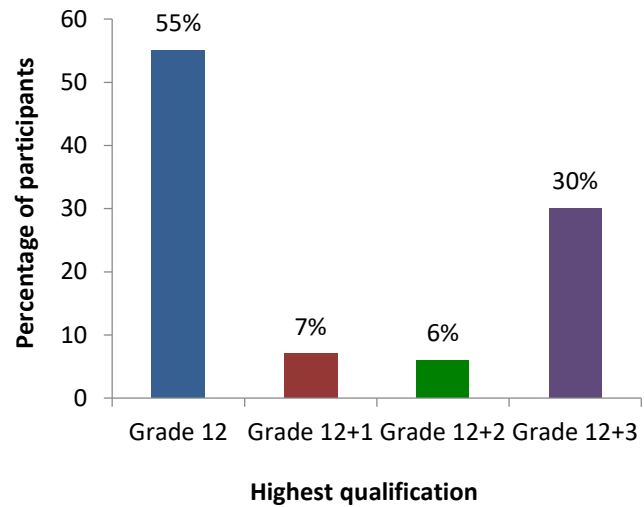
**Rank:**

The participants ranged from the lowest rank of student constable to the highest rank of lieutenant colonel. As expected, non-functional (administrative) members did not indicate a rank. Most participants (41%) held the rank of constable.



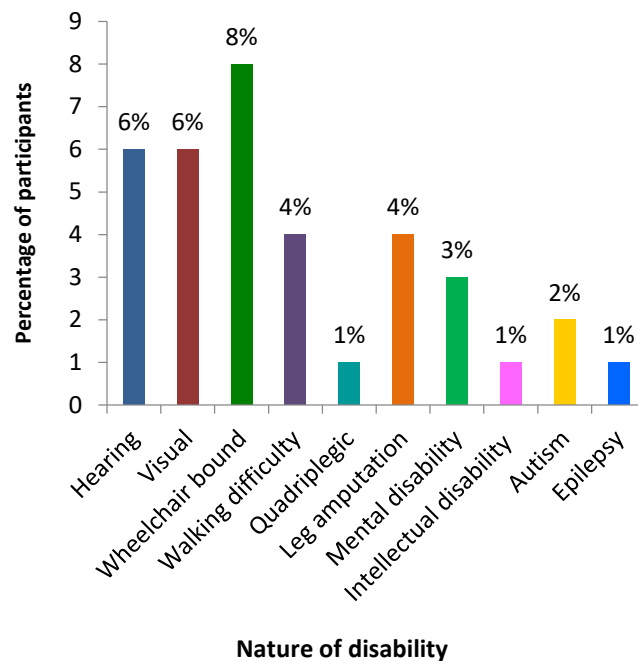
Description of Variable**N = 98****Highest qualification:**

Slightly more than half of the participants (56%) had a Grade 12 qualification and 30% of participants had a Grade 12 qualification plus three years additional tertiary education. The sample can be regarded as representative of the SAPS as only 25% of employees in the SAPS have post Grade 12 qualifications. (SAPS, 2015).



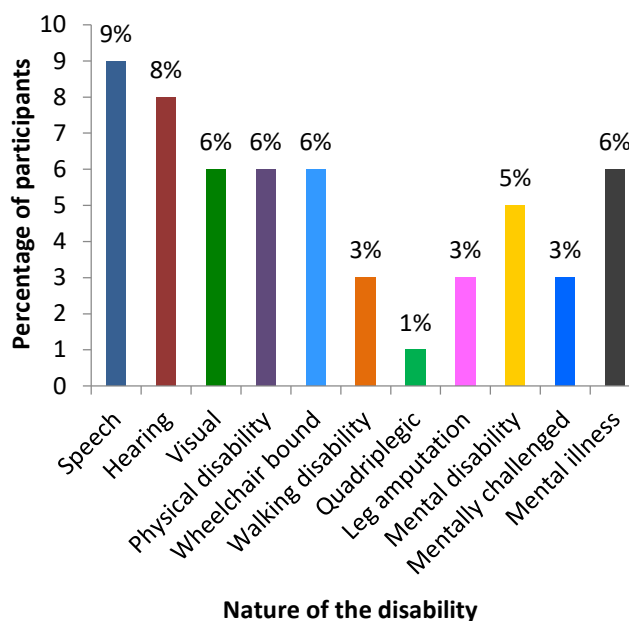
Has a family member or knows a person with a disability and the nature of the disability (open-ended question).

A total of 36 % of participants stated that they either had a family member or knew persons with a disability. This implied some exposure to disability. The most frequent categories mentioned were: being in a wheelchair (physical disability), hearing and visual disabilities, walking difficulty and leg amputation. (This list differs from the next one, where the police officers described their contact with a person with a disability).



Description of Variable**N = 98****Contact with a person with a disability in the line of duty and the nature of the disability (open-ended question).**

Just over half (56%) of the participants stated that they had contact with a person with disability in their line of duty. Speech disability (9%) was mentioned most frequently. However, when adding all the types of disabilities together, physical disabilities (wheelchair-bound, walking disability, quadriplegic and leg amputation), becomes the largest group of disabilities mentioned by the police officers.



Of the 98 participants, only one participant indicated that he/she had a disability, namely a hearing impairment. From Table 3.2 it can be deduced that the police officers have general knowledge about disability. However, they use a variety of terms to describe different types of disability, such as “leg amputation” and “mentally challenged”. Police officers encountered persons with a variety of disability types. Persons with physical disability were encountered most, while persons with speech disability were encountered most frequently within the group of persons who could have communication disabilities. The participants had difficulty differentiating between mental (psychiatric) disorders and intellectual impairment, and generally referred to these two constructs as “mentally challenged”.

3.6.3 Materials and instruments

A survey, *Police officers' knowledge and perceptions of disability questionnaire*, developed and tested by Modell and Mak (2008), was adapted for this stage of the research. The original survey questionnaire comprised of 10 questions to solicit broad opinions on disability, knowledge about disability, and perceived competence in handling crimes involving persons with disability among police officers. This questionnaire was put forward for review by a South African healthcare expert panel (n = 11). The healthcare expert panel comprised of speech-language pathologists (n = 5) who specialise in the field of augmentative and alternative

communication (AAC); psychologists who specialise in the fields of counselling, clinical and educational services (n = 4), and occupational therapists (n = 2). All participants on the expert panel were female. Qualifications included master's degrees (n = 7), and doctoral degrees (n = 4). They suggested that the term "cognitive disability" should be changed to "intellectual disability" (Question 3). This replacement was considered as intellectual disability refers to a group of disorders defined by diminished intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviour (AAIDD, 2016). After a thorough discussion by the expert panel and consensus reached, intellectual disability was accepted as the replacement for cognitive disability as it was the term more readily used, understood and identified in general conversation by most lay persons in South Africa. Question 4 focussed on a component of mental illness namely "emotional disabilities" and thus the relevance of this question came under scrutiny as mental illness was not the focus of this study. After discussion and consensus reached by the expert panel, it was decided to omit Question 4 from the questionnaire.

With Question 4 omitted, all the questions from Question 5 onward were renumbered. On the adapted questionnaire, the rating of self-competence (Question 5) was adapted from a Likert-type point scale to reflect a graphic or continuous rating scale as it allowed participants to place a mark at an appropriate position with a continuum of scale points which ranged from 0 to 10 with anchor points that demarcated levels of competence from "not experienced at all" to "fully experienced". This allowed participants the opportunity to choose any point between 0 and 10 and not to be bound by a specific number when rating their perceived self-competence (Treiblmaier & Filzmoser, 2009). No other questions were adapted on the questionnaire (see Appendix D for the adapted survey questionnaire).

The biographical information section of the questionnaire required participants to indicate their gender, age, first and second language, years of experience, qualification, unit, and rank. This section also included three questions asking participants to indicate if they had a family member with or knew somebody with a disability, if they have had contact with a person with a disability in their line of duty; and if the participant him/herself had a disability. In all three questions participants had to state the nature of the disability.

3.6.4 Data collection and analysis

Approval was obtained at national institutional level from the SAPS prior to conducting the current study. Provincial level approval to conduct the research was then obtained for two provinces namely KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng. The province of KwaZulu-Natal was selected

as the province where Phase 1 was implemented. KwaZulu-Natal faces high levels of poverty and unemployment, with the poverty and unemployment the highest in the rural areas (Tshabalala, 2014). Furthermore, as there is a link between poverty and disability and there is high disability prevalence, the likelihood that police officers will come into contact with persons with disability are therefore higher. Low levels of education contribute to high rates of unemployment and bears a direct relationship with the high rates of crime in this province (Tshabalala, 2014). Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the provincial head office which also assisted in identifying police stations that had FCS units as it consists of 185 police stations throughout the province of KwaZulu-Natal, which are coordinated through 25 cluster offices situated throughout the province. Given the active involvement of the police service in KwaZulu-Natal, and the numbers of police officers who were available to participate in the research, recruitment from the Gauteng province was not due necessary.

Three police stations in the greater Durban area of KwaZulu-Natal were randomly selected from a list of nine police stations that were identified for research purposes. Contact was established with the three station commanders via e-mail and followed up via telephone. The instructions and approval from national level as well as the provincial level were communicated to the three station commanders and permission was obtained to conduct research at station level.

A contact person was identified at every station to distribute the questionnaires on knowledge and perceptions of persons with disabilities. This person was also responsible for the returned completed questionnaires, which were placed in a return box. The researcher together with the contact persons decided that the most convenient and suitable time for distribution of the questionnaires would be at the weekly morning meetings of the various units and at shifts changes in the morning and evening. The contact persons were made aware of the inclusion criteria, namely that police officers had to be sworn in and be active in-service police officers at the time of the study. Police officers could be working in rural, urban and suburban areas. The units in which the police officers were working were not specified. This afforded the opportunity for the distribution of questionnaires to as many different units as possible. It was also clearly stipulated that it was not compulsory for a police officer to complete the questionnaire. The anonymity of the police officers was ensured by the fact that no identifying information was requested on the questionnaire. By returning the completed questionnaire, participants consented to participate in the study.

A total of 116 questionnaires were distributed at the three police stations, of which 98 questionnaires were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of 84.48%. This is a high response rate considering the fact that the typical response rate for internal surveys are estimated between 30-40% on average (Fincham, 2008; Nulty, 2008). A time frame of one week was allowed for the completion of the survey questionnaires. The researcher arranged with the contact persons at a predetermined time to collect the returned survey questionnaires from the return boxes.

3.6.5 Results

Data were analysed using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Of the nine questions, Questions 1 to 4 and Question 6 were open-ended questions, allowing for free responses from participants. The answers to these questions were thus analysed through content analysis. Question 5 was analysed using a continuous scale with two anchor points, namely “not experienced at all” to “fully experienced” to measure self-perceived competency. Questions 7 to 10 were tallied, and a simple frequency distribution applied.

3.6.5.1 Knowledge regarding disability

Four different questions were asked in this section. The first focussed on what participants understood by the construct “disability”, secondly, they were asked to differentiate between “mental retardation” and “mental illness”, as well as between “physical disability” and “intellectual disability”. Finally, participants were asked what they understood by the term “Autism”.

A number of responses were elicited when asking participants what thoughts came to mind when they hear the word “disability”. Responses were analysed and divided into three themes, namely “physically and intellectually challenged”; “inability to do things” and “dependent on others for care”. In their own words, physical disability was described as “physical challenges” namely physical disability (6%) using a wheelchair (6%) and walking disability (7%). Three different types of mental disability were mentioned, namely mental disorders (5%), mentally challenged (3%) and mental illness (6%). It is unclear if these relate to mental health challenges as intellectual impairment is glaringly absent from the list. The construct “disability” along with direct quotes is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3:

Analysis of the Construct “Disability”

Disability themes	Specific examples
Physically and intellectually challenged	“Persons with physical, mental and psychological challenges”; “persons who function at a different level”; “person is impaired”; “unable to walk”
Inability to do things	“Can’t do anything”; “unable to do some things”; “challenged”
Dependent on others for care	“Need to be taken care of”; “depends on others to live”; “needs help”; “unable to fend for themselves”

On asking participants what they thought the difference was between “mental retardation” and “mental illness”, 41.2% of participants indicated that there was no difference between these two concepts, while 58.8% thought that there were differences between the two concepts. Specific responses and how they differed between the constructs are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4:

Differentiating Between “Mental Retardation” and “Mental Illness”

Mental retardation	Specific examples	Mental illness	Specific examples
Permanent	“long term”; “can’t be cured”	Temporary	“Curable”; sickness “temporary disturbed”; “can be treated”; “short term”;
Limited IQ	“learning disability is high”; “child mind”; “unable to make decisions”; “slow thinker”	Acquired	“Lost their mind, has gone mad”; “involve violence”; “developed due to trauma”

A number of responses were elicited when participants were asked to distinguish between “physical disabilities” and “intellectual disabilities”. Responses were analysed and are presented in detail in Table 3.5. In summary, physical disability was reported as “impairment in bodily structures” and described as “visible”, while intellectual disability was reported as “impairment in thinking” and described as “invisible”.

Table 3.5:

Differentiating Between Physical Disability and Intellectual Disability

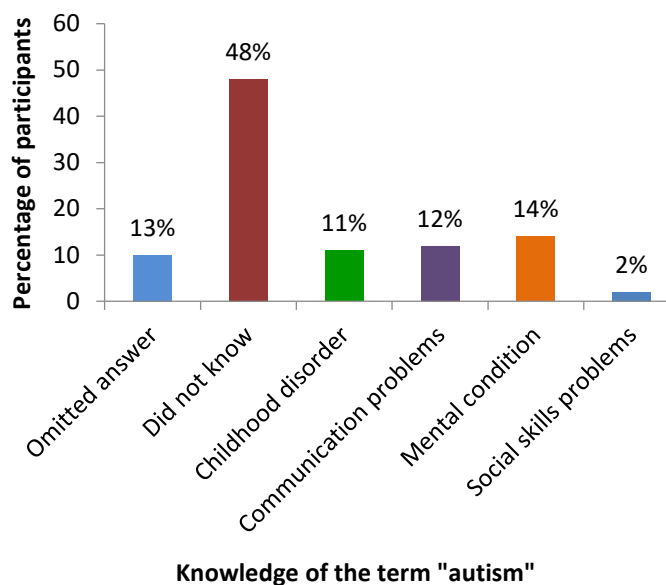
Physical disability themes	Specific examples	Intellectual disability themes	Specific examples
Impairment in body structures and or functioning	“cannot walk”; “hearing disability”; “being blind”; “in a wheel chair”; “paralysed”; “no arms or legs”; inability to use limbs properly”	Impairment in thinking	“think at a different level”; “can’t cope with too much information”; “retarded”; “slow thinking”; “can’t understand”
Visible	“can be seen”	Invisible	“cannot see it”

Several responses were elicited to the question “What does the term autism mean to you”? as presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6:

*Knowledge of the Term “Autism”***Knowledge of the term “autism”**

Of the (39%) of the participants who provided an answer, the following answers were reported: childhood disorder, communication problems, mental condition and social skills problems. Of the participants, 48 % did not know what autism meant, and 13% omitted an answer.

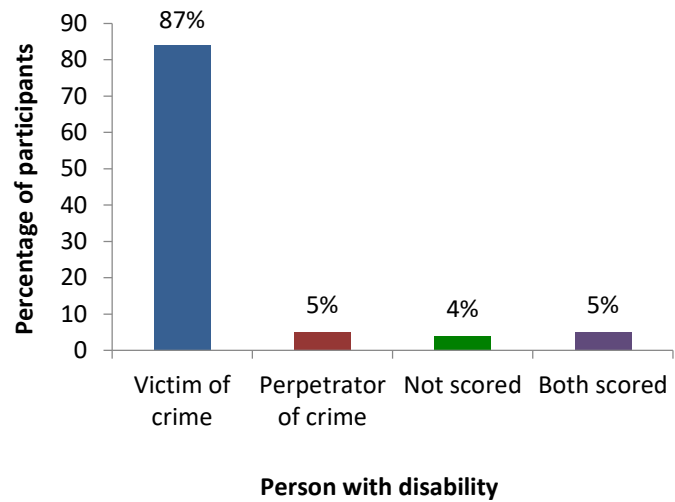


Police officers were asked if they thought a person with a disability is more likely to be a victim of crime or a perpetrator of crime. They were asked to only select one. Results are presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7:

*Person with Disability as Victim of Crime or Perpetrator of Crime***Person with disability:**

87% of the participants indicated persons with a disability were more likely to be a victim of crime, while 5% indicated persons with a disability to be a perpetrator of crime. 5% indicated both instances despite the instruction to select only one and 4% did not answer the question (thus they did not score any).

**3.6.1.1 Perceived self-competence regarding disability**

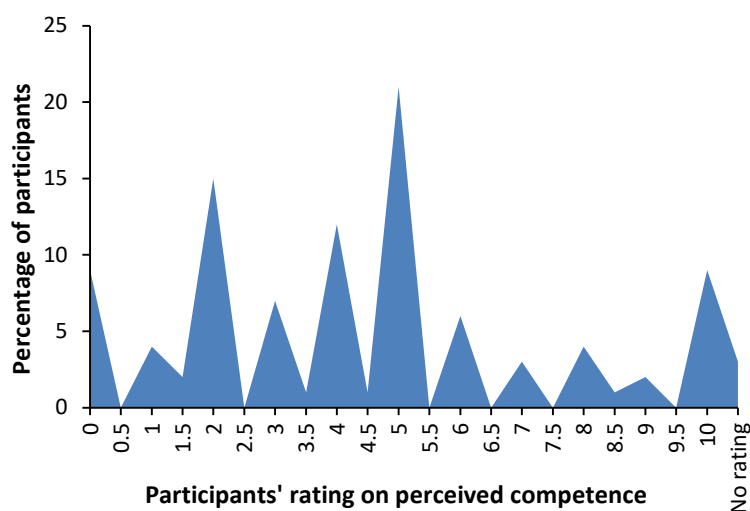
Two questions were asked in this section. First, participants were asked if they had received any previous training regarding disability. The majority (93%) noted that they had not received any training, 6% reported minimal training and one participant noted training in victim empowerment.

Participants were asked to rate their perceived self-competency in assisting a person with a disability. Results are presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8:

*Perceived Self-competence in Assisting a Person with Disability***Perceived self-competence:**

9% of the participants rated themselves as very experienced. 9% rated themselves as not experienced at all. The largest percentage (21%) rated themselves in the middle at 5. Half of the participants (50%) rated themselves at 4 or below, with slightly more than a quarter (26%) rating themselves at 6 or higher.

**3.6.5.2 Further training needs**

Participants were asked whether they would be interested in receiving further training to assist them in providing services to persons with disability and if so, what aspects they thought should be addressed in this type of training to provide them with the knowledge and skills that would enhance their service delivery to the disability population.

A total of 94% of the participants responded that they would like training in how to provide services to persons with disability. In response to the question “What special skills and knowledge do you feel a police officer in your position should have in providing services to persons with disabilities?”, a variety of answers were elicited namely:

- i) Sign language
- ii) Patience and sympathy
- iii) Communication skills
- iv) How to treat persons with a disability
- v) Information on the various disabilities
- vi) How to recognise persons with a disability
- vii) Psychological understanding of disabilities

The police officers preferred that training be presented by professionally qualified trainers and that the exposure to persons with disability as part of the training would be most beneficial to them.

3.6.6 Implications for Phase 2

Police officers had a fair knowledge of the different disability types, even though they had not received any previous training. Knowledge was poor in identifying specific characteristics of various disabilities. Of concern was the lack of knowledge on autism given the fact that this is a disability with an increasing prevalence (Rutter, 2005). More participants rated themselves below the midpoint of the competence scale than above it, indicating that many perceived themselves as lacking competence in dealing with persons with disability. This correlates with their lack of formal training as mentioned earlier. A total of 93% of the participants had not received any training with respect to disabilities and thus the result of 94% of participants indicating an interest in training is not surprising. These results regarding police officers' knowledge of disability, their perceived competence in dealing with persons with disability in their line of duty, and their self-identified training needs underline the urgency of disability training at all levels of the police force.

3.7 STAGE 1c: FOCUS GROUPS AND CREDIBILITY TEST

3.7.1 Aim

Phase 1c addresses sub-aims iii and iv of Phase 1 of the study, namely to identify the challenges police officers in the FCS units face based on their experiences when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime and their knowledge of what constitutes an effective statement was also investigated in order to understand to what extent FCS unit police officers are aware of the eight principles of an effective statement. This was achieved by collecting qualitative data from two focus groups.

3.7.2 Participants

Three selection criteria for the participants included in Stage 1c were set namely; i) sworn in and in-service police officers; ii) a minimum of two-years-experience in the FCS units and; iii) competent in both written and spoken English. These criteria were communicated to the unit commanders at both FCS units. The number of participants needed per site (no less than six and a maximum of 12) were also stipulated to both the unit commanders. The selection

criteria as well as the method used, and the theoretical justification for the criterion are set out in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9:

Participant Selection Criteria: Stage 1c

Criteria	Method	Theoretical Justification
Sworn in and in-service police officers.	Biographical Questionnaire.	FCS unit police officers investigate crimes against persons with disabilities reporting sexual crimes perpetrated against them as they have additional specific training in taking statements from vulnerable populations (SAPS, 2016a).
Competent in written and spoken English.	Biographical Questionnaire.	Court records are only written in English (Chabalala, 2017). It is therefore assumed that all police officers are proficient in spoken and written English when they take a statement from a victim of crime.
Minimum of two-years work experience in the FCS units.	Biographical Questionnaire.	Participants with two years or more of experience should have reasonable knowledge in statement taking and investigating crimes against vulnerable populations (SAPS, 2016a).

A total of 16 police officers, including three unit commanders, consented and took part in two separate focus groups. Biographical information on the participants was collected before the onset of the focus group discussions. This section required participants to indicate their gender, age, first and second language, years of experience in the SAPS, years of experience in the FCS unit, qualification, and rank. A description of the participants is presented in Table 3.10.

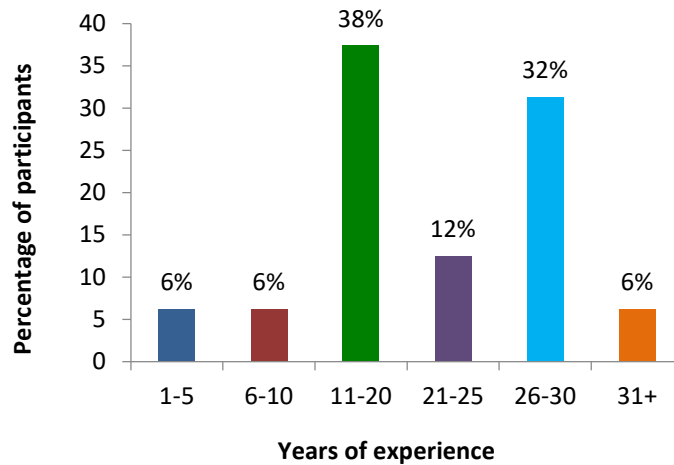
Table 3.10:

Participant Description - Stage 1c (N = 16)

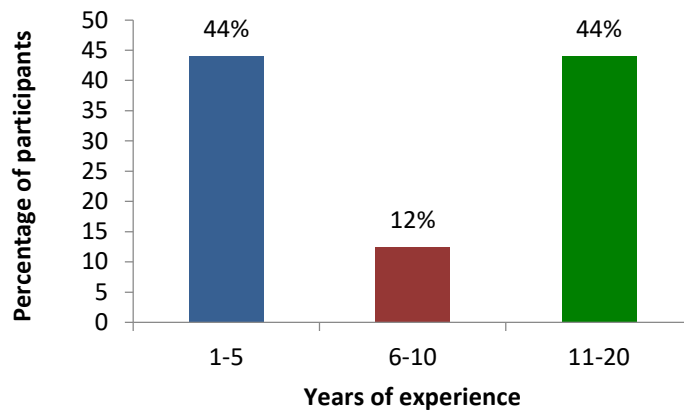
Discussion of variables	N = 16												
<p>Gender:</p> <p>Of the 16 participants, 5 (31%) were female and 11 (69%) were male, resulting in a male:female ratio of 2:1. Gender equity in the SAPS is at a ratio of 65:35 (male:female) (SAPS, 2015)</p>	<p>A pie chart titled 'Gender' showing the distribution of participants by gender. The chart is divided into two segments: a blue segment representing 'Female' at 31% and a red segment representing 'Male' at 69%. A legend below the chart identifies the colors: a blue square for 'Female' and a red square for 'Male'.</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Gender</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Female</td> <td>31%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Male</td> <td>69%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Gender	Percentage	Female	31%	Male	69%						
Gender	Percentage												
Female	31%												
Male	69%												
<p>Age:</p> <p>Ages ranged from 32 years and 54 years. Age is equally represented across the five age groups. The average age across the participants was 42.68 years.</p>	<p>A bar chart titled 'Age in years' showing the percentage of participants in five age groups. The y-axis is labeled 'Percentage of participants' and ranges from 0 to 5. The x-axis is labeled 'Age in years' and has five categories: 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, and 51+. The bars are colored as follows: 31-35 (dark blue, 24%), 36-40 (dark red, 19%), 41-45 (green, 19%), 46-50 (purple, 19%), and 51+ (cyan, 19%).</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Age in years</th> <th>Percentage of participants</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>31-35</td> <td>24%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>36-40</td> <td>19%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>41-45</td> <td>19%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>46-50</td> <td>19%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>51+</td> <td>19%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Age in years	Percentage of participants	31-35	24%	36-40	19%	41-45	19%	46-50	19%	51+	19%
Age in years	Percentage of participants												
31-35	24%												
36-40	19%												
41-45	19%												
46-50	19%												
51+	19%												
<p>First language:</p> <p>More than half of the participants indicated that English was their first language (68%), followed by isiZulu (31%). One participant's first language was isiXhosa. Police officers' first language is not reflective of the language of the province which is isiZulu (77.8%) (TimesLIVE, 2018)</p>	<p>A bar chart titled 'First language' showing the percentage of participants for three language categories. The y-axis is labeled 'Percentage of participants' and ranges from 0 to 80. The x-axis is labeled 'First language' and has three categories: isiZulu, English, and isiXhosa. The bars are colored as follows: isiZulu (dark red, 31%), English (dark blue, 68%), and isiXhosa (green, 1%).</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>First language</th> <th>Percentage of participants</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>isiZulu</td> <td>31%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>English</td> <td>68%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>isiXhosa</td> <td>1%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	First language	Percentage of participants	isiZulu	31%	English	68%	isiXhosa	1%				
First language	Percentage of participants												
isiZulu	31%												
English	68%												
isiXhosa	1%												

Discussion of variables**N = 16****Years of experience in SAPS:**

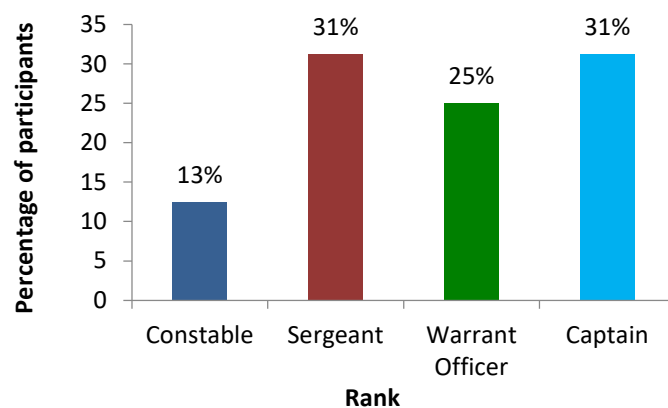
The mean years of experience was 19.68 years, with a range from 4 years to 34 years experience.

**Years of experience in FCS unit:**

The mean years of experience were 9.68 years, with a range from 2 years to 17 years. There was an equal distribution between 2-5 years (44%) and 11-20 years (44%).

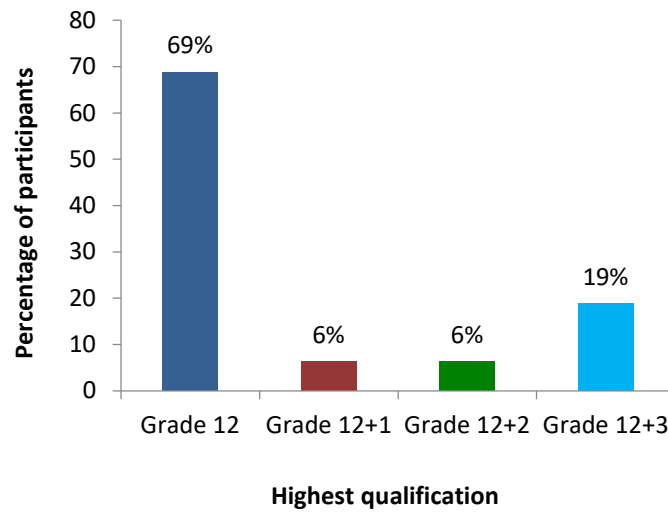
**Rank:**

Although the participants ranged from the rank of constable to the rank of captain, the constable category was the lowest. There was an even distribution between the ranks of sergeant and captain.



Highest qualification:

The majority of participants (69%) obtained a Grade 12 level of education as the highest level and 19% of participants obtained a Grade 12 level of education plus three years' additional tertiary education. The sample can be regarded as representative of the SAPS as 25% of employees have post-Grade 12 qualifications (SAPS/2015).

**3.7.3 Material and instruments**

The letters of informed consent and accompanying reply slips and all instruments used in relation to Stage 1c (for the focus groups and the credibility test) are presented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11:

Instruments Used in Relation to the Focus Groups

Instruments to obtain qualitative data	Discussion of instruments
Biographical questionnaire (Appendix G)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description: This questionnaire required participants to indicate their gender, age, first and second language, years of experience in the SAPS, years of experience in the FCS unit, qualification, and rank. • Aim: To obtain descriptive information on the participants and to ensure that the participants met the selection criteria for the study. • Rationale: Describing the participants by relevant variables enabled a contextualisation of the results.
Focus group script (Appendix F)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aim: A script was used to introduce the objectives of the focus group discussions and for exploring participants' challenges and experiences. • Rationale: Focus groups provide deep and rich information in a short period of time. • Use: During the focus groups the script ensured that the discussions were structured. This script also ensured that both focus groups were conducted in the same way. The focus group script was reviewed with the other moderators prior to the use with the focus groups.
The credibility test (Appendix H)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description: The credibility test is a reliable instrument developed and used by the SAPS (SAPS, 2013), against which the quality of statements taken by police officers is measured. For a statement to be credible and ensure a more valid statement that could be used in a court of law and go through to the prosecution stage, the eight principles of the credibility test need to be adhered to. The credibility test (which consisted of a free writing exercise) was scored by predetermined criteria. • Aim: To measure participants' knowledge on the eight principles of a credible statement, as stipulated in the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2103). • Rationale: Police officers should be knowledgeable about credible statements in order to ensure that their statements are valid and reliable, to ensure access to justice for persons with disability. Credible statements are the first step of ensuring procedural justice for persons with disability.
Laptop and data projector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aim: The laptop and data projector were used for capturing and projecting all responses of participants during the focus group in order to enable participants to check and revise the formulation of their statements. • Rationale: Participants were able to follow the process of data collection and could see their statements projected on the wall. • Use: The entering of comments on the laptop assisted in the review of all statements and gave the moderators the opportunity to ask for more information about possible missing data. This process afforded the opportunity to perform member checks immediately.
Voice recorder with omni-directional microphone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aim: The recorder was used to capture all verbal discussions. • Use: The voice recordings were used as a back-up and enabled the researcher to refer to the data collected if needed.

3.7.4 Data collection

As national institutional level and provincial level approval was already obtained to conduct the study, the only additional approval that needed to be obtained was at station level. Two FCS units in the greater Durban area of KwaZulu-Natal were randomly selected from a

list of nine potential FCS units. Contact was established with the two FCS unit commanders via e-mail and followed up via telephone. The approval from both national and provincial level were communicated to the two unit commanders, and permission was obtained to conduct research at their respective units. The criteria for the focus group participants (please see Table 3.9) were communicated to both unit commanders. A predetermined date and time were set with each of the commanders to conduct the focus groups.

The focus groups were set up and took place at the offices of the FCS units. One of the units was attached to a police station while the other unit operated from premises not located near a police station. This unit had direct access to a victim friendly office which was set up at the tertiary public hospital located opposite the offices of the FCS unit. This allowed for victims of crime to be interviewed and medically assessed all in one location. Various facilities were available to the victims for example a shower and blankets if needed. The victim was then able to return to their place of residence after the interview and statement taking, thereby reducing any potential secondary trauma.

Focus groups were used to collect data in Stage 1c. The focus groups afforded the opportunity for participants to interact, discuss and comment on, give meaning to and organise their unique personal experiences on the topic under discussion (Krueger & Casey, 2015), which was to identify the challenges police officers face based on their experiences when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. Participants' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences, and reactions to persons with CCN who report being victims of crime, as well as their knowledge about statement taking could be elicited within these group contexts. This also enabled the researcher to gain a large amount of data in a short period of time as the duration of the focus groups were pre-set to conclude within a two-hour time frame (Krueger & Casey, 2015). A script was used to introduce and explain the purpose of the focus groups and allowed for procedural reliability of the study (Appendix F). A maximum of 12 participants and no less than six were invited to the two focus group sessions (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Eight participants arrived for each focus group at the specified time and day. Before the commencement of the focus group, participants completed consent forms (Appendix E) as well as a short biographical questionnaire (Appendix G), and the credibility test (Appendix H). A description of the participants is presented in Table 3.10.

Interaction between the participants was necessary as it allowed for the researcher to gain insight into and understand the language the participants used to explain their challenges and

experiences when dealing with persons with CCN (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Through follow-up questions, crucial information was extracted on what issues were salient, and helped in the understanding of what the gaps were in what participants expressed in how they performed their duties. Participants were made aware of the importance and value of their contributions to the study and how the information would be assembled to inform the development of a training programme on disability.

The focus group meetings took place at the offices of the two FCS units. Both units had a meeting room in which regular meetings took place. Both these meeting rooms had tables and chairs which the participants were comfortable with and the settings were thus left undisturbed and no changes were made to the set-up of the rooms (Masadeh, 2012). This allowed for a relaxed atmosphere in which the participants felt comfortable with each other and in their contributions to the discussions. The groups were homogenous in that the participants were all FCS unit police officers and therefore likely to have similar levels of understanding and experiences in taking statements from persons with disability (Krueger & Casey, 2015).

Careful preparation of the process (for example a focus group script was prepared – Appendix F), ensured consistency across the two focus groups. Furthermore, the roles and responsibilities of the researcher, the co-facilitators and participants were clearly stipulated. The co-facilitators were both lecturers and consisted of a speech-language therapist and an educator who both had a PhD in AAC and research experience in disability and access to justice. The researcher, with the assistance of the two co-facilitators facilitated the focus groups. The purpose of the focus groups was explained, and participants were made to feel at ease about their participation. They were ensured that every contribution would be valuable in assisting the researcher. Participation was further explained as voluntary, and participants were made aware that they could withdraw from the process at any time without any negative repercussions. Confidentiality was emphasised, and participants were encouraged to keep information about the discussions in the groups. Participants' permission was asked to audio record the discussions to accurately transcribe the information. The researcher and one co-facilitator promoted debate and asked open questions for clarification and to draw out meanings and explanations and to steer the conversations back on course when necessary (Masadeh, 2012). This was also achieved by explicitly stating that all the participants could have an opinion and that these opinions could differ from one another. The second co-facilitator typed up all responses on a word document on a laptop which was projected on a wall for the

participants to read. This allowed the participants to check their statements and participants indicated that the statements truly represented their challenges and experiences. This type of member checking also enhanced the trustworthiness of the data (Nilsson, Johnson, & Adolfsson, 2016).

3.7.5 Data analysis

The data analysis for the focus group and credibility test differed and hence are presented as two separate sections.

3.7.5.1 Data analysis: focus group

The information related to the challenges and experiences the FCS unit police officers face when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime collected in the focus groups was analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis was the method used to analyse data, and the reporting of themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Themes related to the focus group questions were extracted as it represented levels of patterned responses or meaning within the data sets. The recorded raw data for each focus group was printed and then analysed using an inductive thematic approach after multiple readings of the text and noting down initial ideas. The interpretation of the recorded raw data was directly linked to the evidence obtained in the focus group discussion. The researcher and a coder worked independently to generate codes across the data sets and from there delineated semantic themes. The themes were reviewed in relation to the codes and the themes were coded diversely as the themes on this topic was not identified from previous research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The next step was to clearly identify the name for each theme and report the results.

3.7.5.2 Data analysis: credibility test

The responses provided by the participants in the credibility test was assessed according to the principles of a credible statement as set out in the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013). These principles include that a statement is accurate; complete; expansive; objective; clear; honest; simple and in a language with easy and simple words. These constructs are central to this study and are therefore discussed in more detail.

i) Accuracy: The main purpose of obtaining information is to establish the facts as they pertain to a case (College of Policing, 2016; SAPS, 2013). The facts must be recorded in detail as there may be a considerable lapse of time between the incident and the time the case

is presented in court. (Milne & Bull, 2006). The information provided in the statement must be as accurate as possible and recorded in the victim's own words. Children and adults use different words to describe body parts, and the exact words as verbalised by the victim must be recorded. For example, what is communicated by the victim in both a verbal and non-verbal way must be recorded (Milne & Bull, 2006) and the police officer must not assume the meaning of words or gestures but should question everything they see and hear and not accept things at face value (Hess & Orthmann, 2010). For individuals with severe communication disability who might use ideographic manual gestures (for example sign language or a gesture language), this is of great importance.

ii) Completeness: A statement can only be complete if it contains all the facts pertaining to the case. The ability to communicate is crucial and completeness can be established by asking questions (Goldsworthy, 2009). Police officers must be skilled in questioning techniques to elicit accurate and relevant information to the investigation (Oxburgh, Myklebust & Grant., 2010) and to ensure the statement has forensic value and would proceed to a prosecution level (Keilty & Connelly, 2010). The Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013), follows what is commonly referred to in the literature as 5W1H questions (Oxburgh et al., 2010). This refers to five questions commencing with "W" (What, Who, When, Where and Why) and one commencing with "H" (How). Police officers must ascertain through their questioning, what happened, who is alleged to be the perpetrator, where and when the crime occurred, how the crime was committed, and why the crime happened (the events that led up to the crime) (Keilty & Connelly, 2010; SAPS 2013; Oxburgh et.al., 2010). Through questioning the police officer can clarify, test and corroborate information where gaps exist in the victim's statement. A skilled interviewer will know when to use questions to extract information and open other lines of inquiry from the victim. For example, open-ended questions can be used, as this allows the victim to give unrestricted and detailed answers (Westera, Kebbell & Milne, 2011). Closed-ended questions on the other hand are used to ascertain specific information or clarify information and produce narrower responses from the victim (SAPS, 2013; Oxburgh et al., 2010). Answers that police officers obtain by asking leading questions should be avoided as these answers may reduce the accuracy of the responses from the victim (Keilty & Connelly, 2010; SAPS, 2013; Westera, Kebbell & Milne, 2011).

iii) Expansiveness: All the facts must be recorded as comprehensively as possible. The statement must be brief but without using "telegram style" language and omitting relevant

information. When information is missing in a statement, the credibility of the victim may be questioned (SAPS, 2013). The victim must be informed that the police officer does not know what happened and they need to tell the police officer, in their own words and in as much detail as possible, everything that they remember (Milne & Bull, 2006). This has implications for persons with significant communication disabilities who are illiterate and who depend on a pre-selected symbol-based communication board which might not include all the relevant words needed. Police officers should then try and ask the person to combine symbols to create words. For example, if the person wants to say “wheelchair” and the word is not on the board, the person would indicate the symbol “not on this board”. The police officer could then ask the person “can you try and describe the word?”. The person can then attempt to combine the words “wheel and chair”. If the police officer thinks he/she understands, it should be clarified with yes/no questions for example “do you mean wheelchair?”.

iv) Objectiveness: Even before a statement is taken, the police officer forms an opinion or judgement about the crime and/or the victim (Milne & Bull, 2006). The police officer must not allow his/her own bias, judgements and stereotypes or emotions to influence the statement, as relevant and vital information may be overlooked or ignored (Milne & Bull, 2006; SAPS, 2013). Interviewing vulnerable victims may affect the police officer’s behaviour especially if the police officer is not experienced at interacting with vulnerable victims (Milne & Bull, 2006).

v) Comprehensiveness: The Learner’s Guide (SAPS, 2013) explains comprehensive to mean a statement that is compiled in such a way that whoever reads it, would be able to understand it and it not want for certain aspects to be explained. The police officer must also ensure that the statement is written in clear and neat handwriting as a presentable statement is a reflection of the police officer’s quality of work. When persons with CCN report a crime, it should not prevent police officers from taking a statement that is comprehensive and contains all the facts pertaining to the case. When a person cannot communicate by using spoken language or words, it does not mean that the person does not have anything to say as they may have an alternative way of communicating.

vi) Honesty: In order to produce a credible statement that will proceed to a court of law, the victim and the police officer must be honest at all times. If any discrepancies are found in the statement, it could mean that the statement is inadmissible in court and the case will not proceed through the criminal justice system and ultimately no conviction of the perpetrator

will take place. The credibility of both the victim and the police officer can be called into question (SAPS, 2013). Persons with intellectual disability for example have a greater tendency to acquiesce and often will select the last-mentioned option, referred to as “regency”, that is offered to them. If the person tends to agree with statements, they will answer all or most of the questions as “yes” and if they tend to answer questions in a way what is termed as “nay-say” they will answer in the negative (D’Eath, 2005). Persons with intellectual disability may also have a desire to please others, especially persons in authority roles which includes the police officer. Therefore, they may not answer questions truthfully, but respond to the police officer’s questions in a way they think is the “desired” response (D’Eath, 2005). Police officers need to be skilled in questioning techniques and the rephrasing of questions to establish if the person is telling the truth or just agreeing with what is said because they think it is the desired response.

vii) *Simplicity and directness:* Questions should be short and simple and not contain meaningless words, jargon or a language which the victim does not understand (College of Policing, 2016; SAPS, 2013). In cases where the victim is a person with an intellectual disability or communication disability, even more care should be taken, and rapport should be established before the interview commences. An accurate and detailed account from any person with an intellectual or communication disability requires questioning that is matched to the victim’s communicative abilities, and the use of open-ended questions are preferred to elicit more detailed facts from the person (Aarons, Powell & Browne, 2004). Writing in simple language and short sentences ensures that information is not distorted and incorrectly reported (Fisher, Ross & Cahill, 2010).

viii) *Meaning of English words:* Different English words mean different things to persons, the police officer must ensure that he/she understands exactly what the victim means, for example when he/she uses the words “lend” and “borrow”. The use of a dictionary is encouraged when the police officer is unsure of the meaning of a particular word (SAPS, 2013). South Africa has 11 languages which puts the justice system in jeopardy because of the use of interpreters during statement taking and court proceedings. This problem is not restricted to any one province but has been found to be a problem that is encountered across all nine provinces of South Africa. A study conducted across the high courts in the Eastern Cape by Advocate Matthew Mpahlwa (2015), highlighted this fact that interpreters who are called upon to assist with translating, are often unprofessional and inadequately trained. It

was also found that a lack of understanding of regional dialects resulted in the wrong translation of local isiXhosa expressions. In a review of a full court transcript, it revealed numerous errors by the interpreter, and it was concluded that the interpreter's performance was "alarmingly poor". It was found that these misinterpretations and the use of non-official language and casual interpreters could lead to "great travesties" of justice and had detrimental effects on evidence presented and court verdicts (Mpahlwa 2015). The above presented evidence also highlights the difficulty encountered when interpreters are used to assist with translating victims' statements during the statement taking and interview stage. Mpahlwa (2015), suggested the re-training of interpreters as it was found that the courses presented to interpreters were insufficient. This lack of training could result in a statement taken from a victim which may not be used during the prosecution stage due to the misinterpretation of the victim's words and could either be referred back to the police officer to obtain corroborating evidence to present to court or be thrown out of court due to a lack of credibility which means the case will not be prosecuted.

3.7.6 Trustworthiness of qualitative research

Aspects of credibility/trustworthiness, transferability, dependability and confirmability need to be considered in all qualitative research and how trustworthiness was ascertained is outlined in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12:

Increasing the Trustworthiness of Phase 1c (Qualitative phase)

Strategy	Technique	Application of technique in present study
Credibility (in preference to internal validity). How objective, authentic and accurate are the results?	Member checking. Examination of previous research findings.	During focus group discussions member checking was conducted as the co-facilitator typed up verbatim statements from participants on a laptop and projected on a wall for them to read. Participants could correct mistakes immediately. A systematic overview of published literature regarding disability training programmes was undertaken (Phase 1a). A survey questionnaire on disability knowledge and perceptions (Phase 1b) provided baseline information for the present stage.
Transferability (in preference to external validity). How applicable are the findings to other settings?	Use of multiple groups. Representativeness of participants.	Two focus groups, representative of FCS units was used to obtain rich descriptive data and to enhance transferability. Results from these groups were compared and this data, together with the systematic review and the survey questionnaire on was used to develop a training manual on disability. A biographical short questionnaire provided information on the participants to ensure representativeness. Participants were included in the

Strategy	Technique	Application of technique in present study
		focus groups based on specific inclusion and exclusion criteria.
Dependability How consistent are findings and could it be repeated?	Use of multiple groups.	The two focus group participants had similar replies to the questions asked from the focus group script and their responses to the eight principles of a credible statement.
Confirmability How accurately does the data represent the information provided and the role of researcher bias?	Independent coders.	Transcripts were analysed by external coders and after discussion, consensus was reached on the codes.
	Researcher bias.	Focus groups used as an exploratory tool were subject to potential researcher bias as it was easy to be drawn into conversations not related to the topic under discussion. The use of the focus group script ensured that discussions were contained.
Auditability The degree to which procedures are documented and could someone outside the project follow and critique the research process.	Use of peer debriefing.	Peers were consulted in discussions, decisions, procedures, and interpretations in developing the focus group script through online discussion groups. New ideas were generated, and potential pitfalls were identified related to the methodology. This feedback that was provided helped to enhance the quality of the research.
	Audit trail.	All procedures followed during the research process were recorded. The collection of raw data, data reduction, transcriptions, thematic categories, results, interpretations and implications adhered to are acceptable research practice.

Table conceptualised from: Graneheim & Lundman (2004); Nassar-McMillan & Borders (2002); Shenton (2004).

3.7.7 Results

Results from Stage 1c are divided into two sections. First, the information for the two focus groups are discussed. The codes and themes identified during the thematic analysis on the focus groups of the FCS unit police officers' experiences are presented in Table 3.13. Second, the results from the credibility tests are presented in Table 3.14.

3.7.7.1 Results from the focus groups

The results from the focus groups are presented in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13:

Codes and Themes Identified During Thematic Analysis: Experiences

Codes identified on a semantic level	Themes identified on a semantic level
Sign language (2)* Victim not able to speak (1)* + (1)** Don't understand (5)* + (2)**	Communication
Knowledge of English (3)* + (1)** Body parts – different meaning (2)* + (2)** Definition of rape (1)* + (5)**	Language
Access to social workers (2)* Access to interpreters (1)* + (2)** Access to safe homes (1)* + (2)** Access to school for deaf (3)* + (1)**	Resources
Living conditions (1)* Neglect of children (1)* Domestic disputes (2)**	Environment
Persuasion by parents (1)* + (2)* Persuasion by perpetrator (3)** Sequence of events (1)* + (1)** Understanding of “rape” (2)*	Mental disability
Frustration of family (2)* Frustration of police officer (4)* + (2)* Ignorance (1)* + (2)**	Frustration
Myths (1)* + (4)** Traditional healers (2)**	Cultural elements
Lack of training (1)* + (2)** FCS course (1)**	Training
Statement to open case (1)* + (1)* Aspects of statement (5)* + (1)* Elements of crime (3)* + (3)** Traumatised victim (2)* + (1)** Rapport with victim (1)* + (4)** Evidence medical – DNA (4)* + (2)**	Statement
Defence attorney (1)* + (1)** Prosecution (1)* + (2)** Lack of professionals (2)* Child witness in camera (2)** Victim's rights (2)** Alternate dispute resolution (2)**	Justice system

*Frequency of this issue provided by participants in Focus group 1

**Frequency of this issue provided by participants in Focus group 2

3.7.7.2 Results from the credibility test

Next, the results from the credibility test in which participants were asked “*What are the principles of a credible statement?*” was scored to determine their knowledge of the principles of a credible statement (SAPS, 2013). The analysis of the eight principles of a credible statement was undertaken by the researcher and the two co-facilitators. The responses of the participants were copied verbatim into a word document and grouped according to the eight principles of the credibility test according to the examples provided in the Learner’s Guide (SAPS, 2013). The data from the two focus groups were then merged onto one spreadsheet.

Reductions were made due to the duplication of concepts, overly general meaning words, and statements not related to the question posed, which focussed on the experiences of the participants in taking statements from persons with CCN who report being the victim of crime. Similar meaning units were then combined and coded resulting in a list of semantic codes. The researcher and coder discussed the codes and after discussion of discrepancies, consensus was reached on the codes. The process of combining codes into meaningful themes followed the same procedure. The description of codes and themes identified on a semantic level is presented in Table 3.13. The combined responses of the two focus groups are presented in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14:

Combined Results on the Principles of a Credible Statement

Principle	Participant responses
<p>Accurate The information that is provided in a statement must be as accurate as possible, enabling the readers/detectives and public prosecutor to establish the facts.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To make sure that there have been elements of unlawfulness that have occurred. • Establish what unlawful acts have been conducted. • Crime scene – what offence to determine the correct charge.
<p>Complete A statement is only complete when it contains all the facts applicable to an event or the case.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preamble of the complainant. • Obtain proper particulars of the victim/complainant and nature of the complaint. • Person making the statement should have his/her address clearly written plus the identity. • At the end of the statement signatures should be appended confirming knowledge of statements made. • Certification of the statement. • A good statement needs to be comprised of all elements of the crime being investigated. • All elements of the crime must be included in the statement. • The person furnishing the statement should be able to remember full details of the incident. • Must be comprehensive.
<p>Expansive All the facts that the deponent knows must be included in the statement and completed in as few words as possible.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A recollection of important clues that may identify a suspect for example scars, clothing, deformities, specific features and size. • The person giving the statement should provide detailed descriptions of the incident, the place it occurred, the date, the time and the suspect if possible. • It must be clear as to who, what and where the incident happened. • The person must name the names of witnesses and the faces. • Ask How/When/Who/Where/What/When/Why the crime was committed. • Time line of crime.
<p>Objective The statement must have only the facts that relate to the case.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In order to get a good statement do not ask too many leading questions which may lead the person to add things or get confused. • Do not provoke or lead the victim in giving facts. • Make notes without interrupting the victim. • Be focused.
<p>Clarity</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify ambiguity. • Bring out the facts of the case only.

Principle	Participant responses
The statement must be in full and no need to discuss or clarify facts further.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask questions differently.
Honest The deponent as well as the member of the SAPS need to be totally honest irrespective of who is incriminated.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Truth.
Simple Statements must be simple, easy language with short sentences.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan the statement. • Take statement in point form. • Sequence must be done systematically. • Must be precise. • Must be neat.
Language. Use English words that do not have double meanings and could be interpreted in the wrong context.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use the language that the witness understands. • Use the language used by the victim. • Use the victim's own words of what occurred. • Children speak to them in the language they know and level of understanding.

The frequency of the principles noted by the participants on the credibility test was counted and proportional percentages calculated as set out in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15:

Number of Statements Related to Principles

Principle	Focus group 1: (N = 8)	Focus group 2: (N = 8)	Total (%)
Accurate	0	4	4 (7.27%)
Complete	7	7	14 (25.45%)
Expansive	9	7	16 (29.09%)
Objective	3	4	7 (12.72%)
Clarity	2	2	4 (7.27%)
Honest	1	0	1 (1.81%)
Simple	2	3	5 (9.09%)
Language	3	1	4 (7.27%)
Total	27	28	55

From the analysis of the written responses it is evident that the police officers in both the focus groups were aware of the principles of a credible statement and are also knowledgeable about the principles of a credible statement, although they did not know the principles by name. During the process of analysis, it was noted that other factors were mentioned by the participants which do not form part of the credibility test but are important factors and contributes to a credible statement being obtained. These factors were analysed by the researcher and the two co-facilitators and themes with sub-themes were identified, following deductive coding per principle as described earlier. These factors were divided into two themes

namely interpersonal factors and contextual factors and are discussed in more detail in the next section.

3.7.7.3 *Interpersonal factors*

Interpersonal dynamics refer to the way in which a person's body language, facial expressions, natural gestures, and other non-verbal cues support the verbal message in one-on-one communication. Communication is more than the explicit meaning of words but includes the implicit messages that are communicated through non-verbal behaviours such as the tone of voice, natural gestures displayed through body language and the physical distance between the communicators. Police officers indicated that these factors were important considerations in facilitating the process of obtaining a credible statement. They emphasised issues related to developing rapport - the establishment of an environment where respect, trust and understanding is present. Active listening was particularly highlighted. They also emphasised that victims must be made aware that there is no time limit for the interview especially if the victim is suffering from shock or trauma as a result of the incident. These factors with direct quotes from the participants are set out in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16:

Interpersonal Factors Noted by Participants to Obtain a Credible Statement

Interpersonal factors	Specific examples
Rapport.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have empathy with the person you are taking the statement from. • Do not show sorrow for him. • Eye contact. • Make the child comfortable. • Comfort the victim if she gets emotional, stop for her to compose herself. • Coming down to their level no matter what or how long it takes with the victims. • Understanding – it goes with experience. • Learn by experience. • Basic principles are listening, observing. • Assess the complainant whether it is an adult or a child. • What is desired by the complainant? • Good listening skills (ask victims to speak up). • Listen attentively. • In order to get a good statement, we need to listen.
Body language.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facial expressions – how does the victim/complainant feel – sad, cry, etc. • What kind of emotions are you expecting – anger, fear, sadness.
Time frame.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do not rush the victim whilst taking down the statement. • Patience – it goes with experience. • Be very patient. • Patience with the victim especially challenged victims with mental, mute and deaf. • Let the victim ventilate.

3.7.7.4 Contextual factors

Contextual factors refer to the physical and structural setting, in other words the environment in which the statement is taken from the victim. Participants suggested that the interview takes place in a functional victim-friendly room, which should be non-threatening, neat, clean, painted and decorated. The room must be fully equipped and maintained. This would include comfortable seating and where available a sofa, a blanket and pillow, refreshments, bathroom facilities, toys for children and a television if possible. It must be in a quiet place, not in close proximity to police cells or the Client Service Centre (charge office). There should be few distractions and maximum privacy. Equipment and exhibits that can assist in obtaining the best statement should be readily available in the interview room. These factors with direct quotes from the participants are set out in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17:

Contextual Factors Noted by Participants to Obtain a Credible Statement

Contextual factors	Specific examples
Victim-friendly room.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It must be in a friendly environment. • Most importantly the environment where the statement is taken should be comfortable and good. • Office set-up – relaxed. • Ensure that there are no disruptions for example the telephone being distracting.
Equipment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prepare the model if it is a child.

The frequency of the other factors noted by the participants was counted and proportional percentages were calculated as set out in Table 3.18.

Table 3.18:

Frequency of Other Factors Noted per Focus Group

Other factors	Focus group 1: (n = 8)	Focus group 2: (n = 8)	Total (%)
Interpersonal factors			
Rapport	7	8	15 (51.72%)
Body language	1	1	2 (6.89%)
Time frame	3	4	7 (24.13%)
Contextual factors			
Victim-friendly room	2	2	4 (13.79%)
Equipment	0	1	1 (3.44%)
Total	13	16	29

3.8 IMPLICATIONS FOR PHASE 2

The themes that emerged from the focus groups indicated that police officers generally based their interactions on their previous experiences with persons with CCN. Their knowledge was based on these interactions and on-the-job experiences rather than formal training. Challenges expressed by the groups included the fact that they had difficulty identifying a person with a CCN and when persons with a CCN presented themselves at the FCS unit, it was often not possible to take a credible statement due to the lack of training that they received on disability issues, particularly individuals with CCN. Participants typically found it impossible to handle disability issues.

Police officers expressed that they felt ill equipped for this task and they were uncomfortable in their efforts to communicate with a person with CCN (described as non-verbal, as having language disabilities or as not fitting the social norm when it comes to communication). In both focus groups police officers expressed that training on communication disabilities will make them more aware of the various disabilities and will allow them to make communication adjustments and ensure more effective communication takes place. They expressed a desire to have resources available, such as communication boards or books with graphics as they felt that this would help them to establish if the person is there to report a crime and if so, how to assist in taking a statement from the person. They also stated that such resources will guide them in their decisions on the appropriate support services that should be contacted. Accessibility to for example interpreters are at times extremely limited or non-existent.

The focus groups showed that learning should occur throughout police officers' careers with continuous reinforcement. They should learn by doing as results were similar by rank.

The credibility test also had specific implications for Phase 2. When considering police officers' knowledge on the eight principles of a credible statement, it was clear that the FCS unit police officers knew some of the principles but did not know the principles by name. In the analysis of the principles of a credible statement, only 25% of the police officers knew two of the principles, namely completeness and expansiveness. Building police competence requires career-long learning and development. Part of this is equipping police officers with the necessary knowledge and skills to work with persons with disability and to make reasonable adjustments to communicate with persons with CNN and take effective statements based on the eight principles of a credible statement. These results also indicated that it is crucial to

include the eight principles of a credible statement in the main study and that the content of credible statements should be explicitly included in the training content.

3.9 SUMMARY

This chapter focussed on Phase 1, Stage 1a–c. The chapter discussed the aims of the study and the research design. The data collected and analysed in Stage 1a–c was both qualitative and quantitative. Stage 1a comprised a systematic review of published literature on disability training programmes for police officers at various levels of development. Stage 1b entailed the completion of a survey on knowledge of disability and perceived self-competence in assisting persons with disability who want to report being the victim of crime. During Stage 1c, focus group discussions were conducted with FCS unit police officers. The challenges faced by police officers and their experiences in taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime were explored. The FCS unit police officers' knowledge on the eight principles of a credible statement was also assessed during Stage 1c. The results from Stage 1a–c informed the development of a training programme that is described in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Phase 2: Development and pilot-testing the training programme and measuring instrument

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes Phase 2 of the study, which involved the development of a two-day custom-designed training programme and measuring instrument based on the data synthesis of Phase 1. Phase 1 comprised a systematic literature review (Stage 1a), a survey on police officers' disability knowledge (Stage 1b), as well as focus group data (Stage 1c). Phase 2 comprises of Stages 2a–2c and is discussed in detail in this chapter. A schematic outline is presented in Figure 4.1.

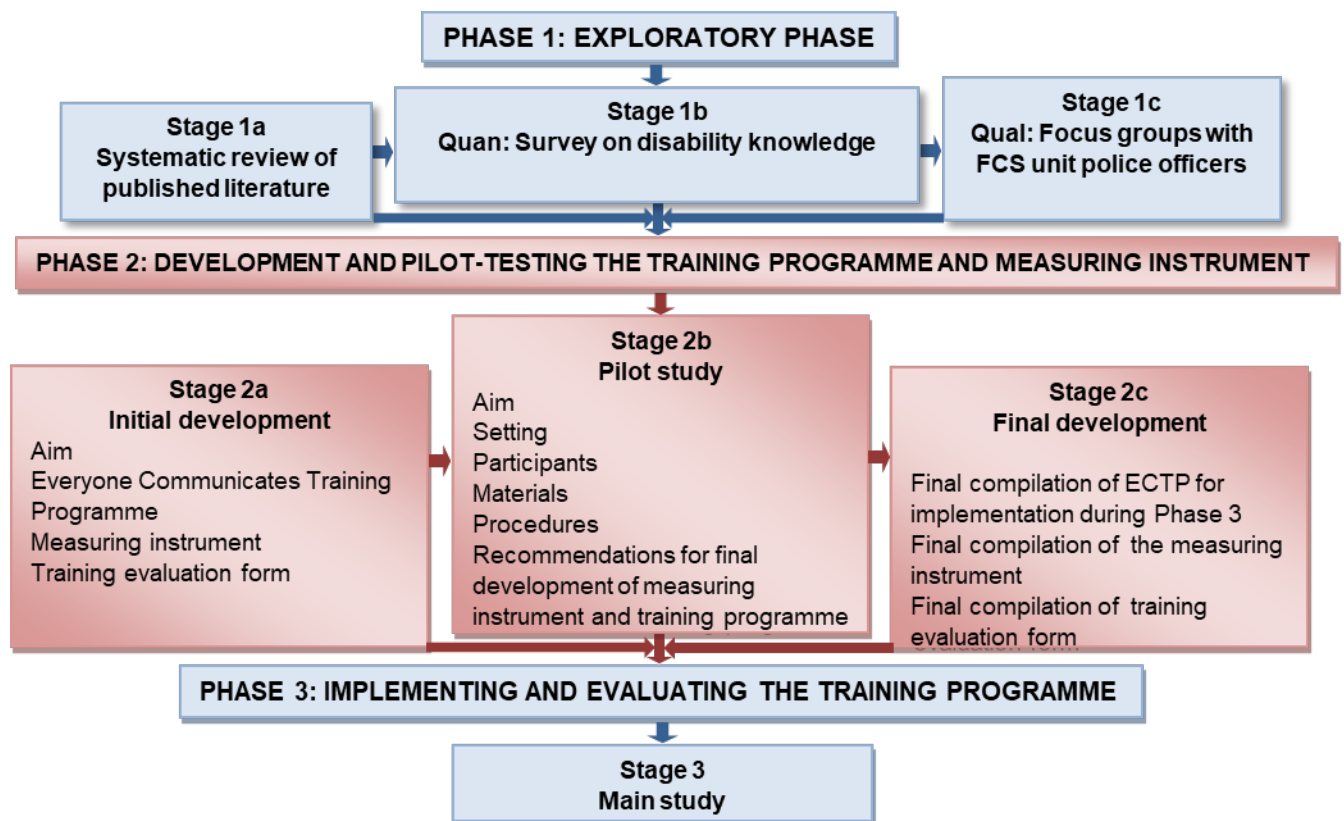


Figure 4.1: Schematic outline of study: Emphasis on Phase 2, Stage 2a–c

Chapter 4 starts with a discussion of the main aim of the study and the sub-aims related to Phase 2. Stage 2a, the initial development of the training programme and measuring instrument, is then discussed. The andragogical principles on which the training programme is based are first described, followed by a discussion of the requirements for effective training programmes and the content information on the ECTP. Stage 2a concludes with a discussion of the measuring instrument. Next, the pilot study (Stage 2b) is described, focussing on: i) the aim of the pilot study; ii) the participants; iii) the materials used; iv) the setting; v) the results; and vi) recommendations. Finally, the chapter concludes by describing the final development of the training programme, the measuring instrument and training evaluation form (Stage 2c).

4.2 AIM

The aim of the study was divided into the main aim and sub-aims related to the different phases of the study.

4.2.1 Main Aim

The main aim of the study was to determine the effect of a custom-designed disability training programme on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of police officers when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

4.2.2 Sub-aims

In order to address the main aim of the study, the following sub-aims were formulated in relation to Phase 2, (Stages 2a, 2b and 2c) of the study:

- i) to develop a custom-designed disability training programme aimed at improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of police officers when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime;
- ii) to develop a measuring instrument that will capture knowledge, skills and attitudes pre- and post-training to determine whether there has been a change in any of these domains;
- iii) to develop a training evaluation form to determine the outcomes of the ECTP; and
- iv) to determine the feasibility of the proposed material and data collection techniques by means of a pilot study.

4.3 STAGE 2a: INITIAL DEVELOPMENT

In this section, Phase 2, Stage 2a, the development of the training programme, the measuring instrument and the training evaluation form are described. This is based on the available literature on policing and education as discussed in Chapter 2 and was informed by: i) the six andragogical principles of adult learning (Knowles et al., 2012); ii) the requirements of effective training programmes (Caffarella, 2002; Kirkpatrick et al., 2016); and the SAPS Education, Training and Development Policy with subsequent input from the stakeholder groups and the healthcare expert panel.

4.3.1 Andragogical principles of adult learning

The andragogical principles of adult learning, namely: i) the learners' self-concept; ii) the role of experience; iii) the readiness to learn; iv) the orientation to learning; v) the motivation; and vi) the need to know, were incorporated and applied in the development of the training programme (Knowles et al., 2012). Adult learners learn through self-directed means, but the facilitator creates opportunities for the learners to experience growth. With this training programme, many concepts were introduced that had to be explained. Explanations had to be given on how these concepts could be applied in situations involving persons with CCN. In instances where concepts were unfamiliar or new, a more directional approach was needed to explain these concepts. The police officers were made aware of the importance of the concepts they are being taught. They were also assisted with making connections between their new learning, their previous experiences in their work environment, and the current situation as they fulfil their duties (Knowles et al., 2012).

During the training programme, police officers were required to participate in communication activities and case studies that allowed for opportunities where feedback was provided in line with the learning objectives and outcomes of the training programme. Through these adult learning experiences, the police officers were given the opportunity to develop their self-awareness about disability issues and persons with CCN. There was an emphasis on a safe environment in which the police officers could develop their skills in assisting persons with CCN. A supportive, collaborative and mutually respectful environment was necessary for the participants to learn new approaches and practice these with their fellow police officers during the training programme. This allowed them to motivate and encourage each other during the various activities that formed part of the training programme (Cercone, 2008; Knowles, 1984). Each communication activity and case study were problem-focussed for learning and presented

in such a way that questions provoked thinking, stimulated recall from the previous exercises in the different modules and challenged the attitudes and beliefs of the police officers towards persons with CCN (Cercone, 2008; Oliver & Kandadi, 2006). This left room for the police officers to use the knowledge, skills and experiences they gained from the training programme and to link these to past knowledge, experiences and real-life situations where they assisted persons with CCN (Cercone, 2008; Patton, 2002). The facilitator's role was to summarise key points of discussions, to protect and validate opinions offered by the police officers and to allow and encourage them to share experiences during the training programme and to make connections between their opinions and ideas (Cercone, 2008).

4.3.2 Requirements of effective training programmes

Apart from considering the andragogical principles of adult learning that the study followed, effective training programmes also need to meet specific requirements. This ensures programmes that are well designed, organised and that have an evaluation component. In developing this training programme, requirements were identified based on the work of Caffarella (2002) and Kirkpatrick et al. (2016) as set out in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1:

Requirements of an Effective Training Programme and Application to the ECTP (Cafarello, 2002; Kirkpatrick et al., 2016)

Programme requirements	Application to the ECTP
1. Identify the basis for programme development.	Organisational change experienced by the SAPS creates considerable challenges. Changes within an organisation produce the opportunity for the development of individuals and the organisation. Aligning training and interventions with organisational needs creates an environment in which knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to perform job related tasks are fostered (Sloman, 2005). Persons with disability are coming more and more into contact with the criminal justice system and this means reporting crimes and statement taking from the victim. Police officers need to be equipped to deal with persons with disability and specifically persons with CCN. There is currently not a programme in place in the SAPS that specifically focusses on persons with CCN reporting a crime.
2. Determine needs.	This was achieved by means of three stages of Phase 1 namely, a systematic review of published literature on disability programmes, a survey on police officers' knowledge on disability and two focus groups with FCS unit police officers as discussed in Chapter 3.
3. Set objectives.	Objectives were set according to the SAPS being a learning organisation. This refers to the organisation having systems and processes in place that enhance the knowledge, skills and attitudes of police officers and to achieve objectives set for themselves and the communities they serve and participate in (Skyrme, 2003), a climate that fosters learning in an everchanging environment, knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN and the application of this knowledge to their statement taking form persons with CCN, skills development in taking statements from persons with CCN and improved attitudes towards persons with disability (Luca & Oliver, 2002).
4. Determine content.	Content was determined by the findings of Phase 1, Stages 1a – c as set out in Chapter 3. The findings of the systematic review (Stage 1 a) of published literature indicated that a disability training programme is necessary to assist police officers in developing the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to take statements from persons with disability reporting being a victim of crime. The survey on knowledge on disability (Stage 1b) indicated a lack of necessary knowledge on disability issues at various levels. The two focus group discussions (Stage 1c) uncovered topics to be included in a disability training programme and the type of facilitators to conduct the training. This included the facilitation in the training programme by a person with a CCN who uses AAC to enhance learning and offer face-to-face interaction (experiential learning). The completion of the credibility test by focus group participants indicated that the eight principles of a credible statement needed to be included in the training programme as it showed that police officers were aware of some of the principles but could not name the principles. Specific learning objectives were identified for each of the three modules developed for the training programme. Each module had communication activities which entailed that participants would be exposed to various communication challenges and participants had very clear instructions in how they approached and solved these challenges. Case studies with questions were designed relevant to the police officers' work which afforded them the opportunity to apply learned content to case studies. Discussion sessions were planned after each communication activity and case study. Training methods and techniques were chosen with the participants in mind and ensured that hands-on training would be achieved.
5. Selection of participants.	Police officers with knowledge and experience in their field of work in the FCS units and Detective Units were selected for participation in the pilot study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), as they had knowledge on statement taking from vulnerable groups. All police officers selected had to have a minimum of two-years-experience in their respective units and be competent in written and spoken English. Police officers of all ranks were included in this non-random selection of participants and participation was voluntary.

Programme requirements	Application to the ECTP
6. Determine training schedule.	Due to the daily duties of police officers in the FCS units and Detective Units, the various unit commanders were informed well in advance of the training dates. This enabled the commanders to plan, with their members how their needs could be accommodated within the scope of their daily duties. The training programme was planned for presentation over two days (8h00 to 16h00). A detailed schedule of daily activities was presented at the commencement of each day, detailing the sequence of events for the day.
7. Selection of facilitators and instructional plan.	The researcher (who was also the facilitator) developed the training programme and was knowledgeable on the subject matter, had experience in presenting workshops within the SAPS and the appropriate facilitator skills to elicit participation from the police officers. Data collected and analysed from both the survey on knowledge of disability and the focus groups, indicated a preference expressed by the participants for trainers outside of the SAPS and also indicated that a person with disability should form part of the instructional team. This prompted the inclusion of a person with CCN who uses AAC in the training programme as this seemed to be important to police officers' orientation and motivation to learning. Police officers in the focus groups showed a desire and readiness to learn especially due to the relevance of learning that can be applied to real-life situations. An independent person was designated to tick off the completion of tasks on the procedural checklist of the training programme. A Power Point presentation was developed to aid in the learning process and for ease of reference.
8. Programme arrangements.	A venue close to the various units were chosen for ease of access. Information communicated to the unit commanders entailed the location of the venue, the duration of the training programme and the time schedule. On arrival at the venue at 8h00 the police officers enjoyed refreshments. A short tea/coffee break was set, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. A lunch was also included.
9. Programme presentation.	Each participant received a training manual and a training pack which contained all materials to be used during the ECTP. Each module was designed in such a way that communication activities would present the opportunity for question and discussion sessions. Each module concluded with a case study with questions pertaining to the case study. A Power Point presentation was used to further add interest and aid in the presentation of the training programme.
10. Programme evaluation.	Each participant completed the measuring instrument before the commencement of the first day of training and again after the training was concluded on the second day. This questionnaire was designed to evaluate pre-training knowledge, skills and attitudes of the police officers and at the end of the training programme to evaluate what learning took place. A training evaluation form was designed following the four levels of Kirkpatrick et al., (2016) model of training programme evaluation. In this training the focus was on Levels 1 and 2 as Levels 3 and 4 were beyond the scope of this thesis as it involved evaluation at an organisational level and the return on investment of the training programme. This evaluation included aspects of the training programme and participants input on the knowledge and skills of the facilitators, objectives, contents, presentation, materials and overall impressions of the training programme.

The ECTP evaluation was developed based on Levels 1 and 2 of the models of Kirkpatrick et al. (2016) and Tamkin, Yarnall & Kerrin (2002), to determine: i) if the content of the training programme was applicable; ii) if the training programme objectives were met; iii) if the training programme materials were meaningful and appropriate; and iv) if the results of the training would be transferrable to practice (Table 4.2). Levels 3 and 4 were not evaluated as this is beyond the scope of this thesis.

Table 4.2:

Requirement of Effective Training Programmes

Kirkpatrick et al., (2016)		Tamkin et al., (2002)		ECTP	
Level		Level		Level	
Level 1: Reaction.	Reaction level measures satisfaction and emotional responses, degree of active involvement.	Level 1.	Reaction level measures i.e. difficulty, usefulness, motivation to learn.	Level 1.	Measures active involvement in learning, motivation to learn, relevance, usefulness, satisfaction.
Level 2: Learning.	The extent to which knowledge, skills learned are applied on the job.	Level 2.	Training measures, pre-test post-tests, self-report, intention to transfer.	Level 2.	Pre-test post-test, assess perceived knowledge and skills, case studies, communication activities, self-report.
Level 3: Behaviour.	Capacity to perform learned skills on the job.	Level 3.	Visible behaviour change, manager reports, self-reports. Attitude survey, retention, morale, commitment (Impact on organisational change).	Level 3.	Not measured - beyond scope of this study. Impact not measured – beyond the scope of this thesis.
Level 4: Results.	Factors such as increased productivity, impact on quality measures, return on investment.	Level 4.	Productivity, profitability (Organisational outcomes).	Level 4.	Impact, outcomes, desired results appraised through key performance appraisals – beyond scope of this thesis.

4.3.3 Level 1

This level not only measured the participants' emotional and attitudinal responses, but also looked at the degree to which they were actively involved in and contributed to the learning experience; their motivation to learn; the relevance of the content and materials; the quality of the training they received and their perceptions about the opportunity to apply and use what they had learned in training in their jobs (Arthur, Gordon & Butterfield, 2003; Farjad, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2010; Tamkin et al., 2002). The training programme was evaluated at this level by the SAPS as a stakeholder and the healthcare expert panel to determine whether improvements should be made to the training programme.

4.3.4 Level 2

In an effort to assess the gains in learning, participants completed a pre-test and post-test as a measure of their gain in knowledge, skills, and change in attitude (Tamkin et al., 2002). Case study examples from the participants' workplace and the communication activities were used to assess the transfer of learning. These types of assessments during training helped participants' recall of information and how to apply the gain in knowledge and skills in the practical examples as set out in the training programme. Presenting case studies and communication activities with real-life contexts gave the opportunity to test learning and for participants to see the complexity of the real-life situations in which they take statements from persons with CCN.

4.3.5 Level 3

Behavioural criteria measure on-the-job performance and are used to identify the effects of the training programme on actual work performance, on-the-job processes and systems that reinforce, encourage and reward behaviour, which in effect relates back to the transfer of learning (Kirkpatrick et al., 2016). Police officers' behaviour and work performance is evaluated through key performance appraisals and this is usually conducted by the police officer's unit commander. Change in behaviour is not easy to measure as people change in different ways and at different times. Change in behaviour is more difficult to quantify and interpret than reaction (Level 1) and learning evaluation (Level 2). Well-defined training objectives were set for each of the modules of the training programme, but as the evaluation of the impact and transfer of learning of the training programme on the police officers' behaviour and work performance was not possible, evaluation beyond Levels 1 and 2 was not part of this thesis. Well-defined training objectives were set for each of the modules of the training

programme to guide behaviour after training. Factors that predicted behaviour and transfer of learning of the training programme included organisational culture, individual and personal factors, motivation to learn and attend training and workplace commitments of the police officers (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Kirkpatrick, 2007). To assess change, the relevance of change and the sustainability of change in behaviour, observation and interviews over time are required. Change in participants' behaviour was not observed in this study as this was beyond the scope of this study.

4.3.6 Level 4

This level attempts to assess the evaluation of the training programme in terms of the organisational results, thus, the return on investment to the organisation. This would for example include factors such as increased productivity, impact on quality measures through the reduction of re-works and getting a higher number of work assets right the first time, short-term observations and measurements that imply that critical behaviours are on track (Arthur et al., 2003; Farjad, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2007; Kirkpatrick et al., 2016). Abernathy (1999) states that Level 4 is applicable to soft skills training and that there are too many variables that can affect performance other than the training itself. Pulley (1994) argues that evaluation should pay attention to both hard (quantitative measures) and soft skills (qualitative measures) and due to this complexity of evaluation, few organisations actually evaluate at Level 4. Twitchell, Holton III and Trott (2008) found that many organisation use Level 1 and 2 for some programmes, less than half may attempt Level 3, and only a small percentage employ Level 4 evaluation. The training programme was not evaluated at Level 4 as it is beyond the scope of this thesis and the evaluation on the impact, outcomes and desired results of training are usually completed when key performance appraisals of each police officer are undertaken by their unit commanders.

4.3.7 SAPS training guidelines

The guidelines for the assessment strategy (SAPS, 2012), which state that all training should link the skills that are taught with theory (knowledge), were used as a basis for building the training programme. It stipulates that where no existing on-the-job assessments are available, simulation scenarios, role play and case studies should be used. All outcomes-based assessments should be designed in such a way that it measures learner-applied competencies or skills. The ECTP was developed with these guidelines in mind and linked the proposed skills with the theory behind it (the knowledge component). The skills acquired during the ECTP can

be applied in actual situations where the police officers encounter persons with CCN. As neither job assessments nor assessments of transfer of learning to the workplace were possible, case studies that were directly related to cases similar to what the police officers' encounter in their daily duties as FCS unit members, were used. The New World Kirkpatrick Model (2016) also suggests this strategy.

4.3.8 Guidelines for the certification of learner achievements

The guidelines for the certification of learner achievements (SAPS, 2012) outline the roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders involved in the development of SAPS programmes to ensure that standards adhere to validity, credibility and authenticity. The ECTP was presented to the Education Training and Development: Curriculum and Development Department at the SAPS Head Office in Pretoria, Gauteng, where it was evaluated for its validity, credibility and authenticity. This rigorous evaluation ensured that the programme aligned itself with the guidelines for the certification of participant achievements and that the ECTP can be placed within the organisational standards-based learning programmes.










4.4 ECTP CONTENT INFORMATION

The ECTP started with an introduction to the human rights of persons with disability, the SAPS Code of Conduct (SAPS, 2016b) and the White Paper on Human Rights of Policing (2015). This information was included to create an awareness of disability issues and the human rights of persons with disability, to reiterate the code of conduct police officers should adhere to when working with community members. The next section of the ECTP included the aims of the ECTP, with accompanying icons, followed by the three modules: Module 1 included general information on disability, Module 2 focussed on communication and Module 3 included information on communication access, techniques and tips on communication. Each module followed the same layout, namely: i) learning objectives; ii) a communication activity at the start of each module as an introduction to the module, and another as a wrap-up activity at the end of each module; iii) definitions; iv) content pertaining to the topic of the module; v) activities and vi) a case study with questions. The ECTP was written in the first person as it offered a more personal connection, believability of contents and broke down any prospective barriers that the police officers may have felt as they received a direct account of the activities and learning material in the ECTP.










Icons on core information and activities were included to highlight the distinction between the core information and activities. These icons were repeated in all the sections throughout the ECTP. The icons with the core information and activities are set out in Table 4.3.







Table 4.3:









Icons on Core Information and Activities Used Throughout the ECTP

Icons	Core information and activities
	<p>Key information Key information is the most important information or facts that you need to know regarding disability.</p>
	<p>Learning objectives The learning objectives define the expected goals of the training programme i.e. the knowledge that you will acquire as a result of participating in this training.</p>
	<p>Definition A definition is the explanation of the meaning of a specific word or term that you will encounter in this training programme. It highlights certain important facts.</p>
	<p>Communication activity A communication activity is the act of conveying the intended meaning of the activity to another person using manual signs, graphic symbols or speech.</p>
	<p>Activity An activity is an educational procedure designed to stimulate your learning by providing you with hands-on experience.</p>
	<p>Case study A case study is a documented study of a real-life or imagined scenario that is used in this training programme. You will be required to analyse the study, present interpretations or solutions and justify your answers.</p>
	<p>Outcomes An outcome is the end result of an activity or process or a conclusion reached by you through a process of logical thinking. For the purpose of this study, outcomes were stated in the form of discussion questions to encourage reflection.</p>
	<p>Example An example is an illustration of pictures, diagrams, written letters or a description that is used to make this topic easier to understand.</p>
	<p>Materials and equipment Materials and equipment included for example a notebook, pen, envelopes with cards and communication boards.</p>

The introduction and three modules of the ECTP are presented in more detail in Table 4.4.

Programme contents	Description of contents
 <p>Activity.</p>	<p><i>Activity:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Do you know the appropriate word to use in place of the unacceptable words listed?
 <p>Case Study.</p>	<p><i>Case study:</i> Sam.</p>
 <p>Outcomes.</p>	<p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What environmental factors do you recognise that restrict Sam's participation and functioning? What attitudes, myths or misunderstandings do you recognise that Sam faces? What would your first steps be after receiving this case? What techniques might you use in your preliminary interview with Sam?
 <p>Communication activity.</p>	<p>Which line is the longest?</p> <p><i>Description:</i> You will be shown two lines on a card.</p> <p><i>Presentation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You must decide which of the two lines is the longest.
 <p>Outcomes.</p>	<p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is it that makes you believe that the line you chose is the longest? Taking into consideration what you have learned in this module about disability, what are some of the things that you can think of that you can relate to this activity to explain why you may have a different opinion than the other participants in the group about the longest line?
 <p>Definitions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is disability? Definition of disability used in SA. Human rights-based definition common elements explained.
 <p>Materials and equipment.</p>	<p>You will receive an envelope with all the cards included that were used for the communication activities in Module 1.</p>
Module 2 – Communication	
 <p>Learning objectives.</p>	<p>This module will enable you to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Define communication and understand the basic communication model; List the general and specific features of communication; Understand CCN and the causes of CCN; Know what a communication partner is and what his/her role is in the reciprocal communication exchange; Understand the communication barriers experienced by the person with CCN who reports being a victim of crime and the police officer taking a statement from the person with CCN who reports the crime; Know what AAC means, who uses AAC and the different systems/strategies of AAC; Complete a case study and questions.
 <p>Communication activity.</p>	<p>Non-verbal communication card game.</p> <p><i>Description:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You will choose a card from a pack of cards presented. Each card will have a different drawing or picture on it. <p><i>Presentation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You are going to communicate what you see on your card to the group. No speech is allowed. You must explain what is on your card in any non-verbal way that you can think of. The participants in the group must guess what you are trying to explain to them. The group may ask questions to clarify what you are explaining to them. Remember, even when clarifying to the group, no speech is allowed.

Programme contents	Description of contents
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Questions:</i></p> <p><i>Questions to the group</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What different non-verbal communication strategies did you recognise that was used during the activity? <p><i>Questions to the person communicating</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What did you find easy while trying to explain the picture on the card when you were not allowed to use spoken words? ● What did you find difficult while explaining the picture on the card when you could use speech? ● How did it make you feel when you were not allowed to use speech to explain what was on your card? <p><i>Questions to the person listening</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What communication strategies made it easy for you to guess what your colleague was trying to explain to you? ● What communication strategies made it difficult for you to guess what your colleague was trying to explain to you? ● How did you feel not being able to understand your colleague because he/she could not use speech to explain what was on their card. <p><i>Question to the group</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What do you think the purpose of this communication activity was?
 Key information.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Communication. ● How does communication take place – the basic communication model is explained. ● Means of communication. ● What is meant by CCN? ● What causes CCN? ● Who or what is a communication partner? – Communication partner relationship model is explained.
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● In what circle do you think you as a police officer fits? ● In what circle do you think prosecutors and presiding officers fit? ● In what circle do you think a sign-language interpreter from the local special school fits? ● In cases of abuse, who can support you as the investigator? Name all the circles of communication partners that you can think of that will be able to support you. ● In what way can these communication partners support you when you are taking a statement from a person with a CCN
 Key information.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Communication partners and the criminal justice system. ● Communication barriers experienced by e person with CCN who reports being a victim of crime. ● Communication barriers experienced by the police officer taking a statement from a person with a CCN who reports being a victim of crime. ● What does AAC mean? ● Who uses AAC? ● What are the different forms of communication support? ● What is a communication friendly environment?
 Activity.	<p>You are each presented with a card with sentences typed on the card. You are to read the sentences. Once you have deciphered what the sentences mean, and you have written them down, the meaning of the sentences will be discussed in the group.</p>
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Discussion question:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What do you think the purpose of this activity was?

Programme contents	Description of contents
 Case study.  Outcomes.	<p><i>Case study:</i> Busi <i>Questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● If Busi came to the police station to report this crime, how would you create a communication-friendly environment for taking a statement from her? ● How would you ensure that your interview with Busi was completely private? ● What AAC techniques might you use in a preliminary interview with Busi? ● How would you decide whether to call for a communication partner or not? ● If you cannot locate a communication partner to assist with the statement taking, how would you proceed from there?
 Communication activity.  Outcomes.	<p>Paper folding exercise. <i>Description:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● You will be handed a sheet of paper. You are to close your eyes or use a blind fold and follow my instructions. NO peeking is allowed at any time. <p><i>Presentation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Place the sheet of paper in front of you on the table. ● Fold the sheet of paper in half. ● Now fold the lower left corner over the upper right corner. ● Turn it 90 degrees to the left. ● Fold it again (upwards). ● Now tear a half-circle in the middle of the right side. ● Now fold the right side over the left side. ● Now tear a half-circle in the bottom of the right corner. ● You can now open your eyes and unfold your sheet of paper. <p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Which features of communication do you think you applied during the communication activity? ● When you think of everything that you have learned so far about communication, why do you think that your end results look differently?
 Definitions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Definition of communication. ● Definition of CCN. ● Definition of AAC. ● Definition of who or what a communication partner is.
 Materials and equipment.	<p>You will receive an envelope with all the cards included that were used for the communication activity in Module 2. Blank piece of A4 paper.</p>
Module 3 – Communication access, techniques and tools	
 Learning objectives.	<p>This module will enable you to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Understand what is meant by the lack of communication access. ● Communicate clearly and respectfully with persons with CCN. ● Know the different ways of assisting persons with CCN when reporting a crime. ● Use communication boards in taking a statement from a person with a CCN.
 Communication activity.	<p>Non-verbal information sharing <i>Description:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Pair up with the person sitting next to you and ask your partner one thing that is interesting/uncommon/unknown about him/her. <p><i>Presentation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● After everybody has completed the activity, the information that you gathered from your partner will be shared with the group. ● There is a catch however. ● You cannot use words or props to tell the group what information you gathered from your partner. ● Only actions are allowed. ● Think of the other forms of communication described in Module 2 that Might be helpful to you to communicate the information to the group?











Programme contents	Description of contents
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What did you find easy to do in the communication activity? ● What did you find difficult to do in this communication activity? ● What other forms of communication can you think of that you could have used in this activity?
 Key information.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Lack of communication access. ● Steps to ensure clear and respectful communication with a person with CCN. ● Different ways of assisting persons with CCN who report being the victim of crime.
 Example.	<p>Communication Boards</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Communication board indicating persons, actions, body parts, establishments and emotions. ● Adult alphabetical and numerical communication board. ● Child communication board. ● South African Sign Language boards. ● What happened boards?
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Discussion question:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What factors do you need to take into consideration to obtain an effective statement from a child with CCN? Think about the various factors that you have learned about during the training programme to help you answer the question.
 Case study.	<p><i>Case study:</i> Elizabeth</p>
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What steps would you take to ensure a victim-friendly environment is available when taking Elizabeth's statement from her? ● If you think of everything that you have learned over the three modules of this training programme, what methods would you use to help you when there is communication breakdown during your statement taking from Elizabeth?
 Communication activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Do I understand you correctly? <p><i>Description:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● You will split into pairs. You will be given marshmallows to put in your mouth and then you must describe a crime to your partner. <p><i>Presentation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Your partner must get the information from you. ● You may use any technique, device or communication support that you have learned about throughout this training programme to help you get the information from your partner.
 Outcomes.	<p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What was the first thing that you thought of doing as your partner reported the crime to you? ● What techniques or communication support did you use to help you in taking down the information from your partner? ● As the partner reporting the crime, how did you feel when you were not understood by your partner? ● What did your partner do right to get the information from you?
 Definitions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What is a communication board?
 Materials and equipment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Various communication boards. ● South African Sign Language boards. ● Marshmallows.

Table 4.4. showed the learning objectives, communication activities, learning content, definitions, outcomes, examples and materials and equipment included in the ECTP.

4.4.1 Stakeholder groups

Stakeholder groups were asked to review the ECTP as their analysis and feedback were deemed necessary to ensure the relevance and applicability of the ECTP. The first stakeholder group, an NGO (non-governmental organisation) in KwaZulu-Natal, consisted of six persons who have CCN and make use of AAC, as well as two occupational therapists who work with them. None of the persons with CCN were employed at the time of the study. Of the six participants, two were female and four were male. On average, the occupational therapists had 8.5 years of experience.

The second stakeholder group, namely the SAPS, consisted of two participants. Both participants worked in the ETD department in the SAPS Head Office in Pretoria, Gauteng. The focus of the ETD department is mainly on implementation, evaluation and monitoring of programmes and to ensure that programmes comply with the Safety and Security Sector Education and Training Authority. Both participants were high ranking SAPS members. Both were male and on average they had 10.5 years of experience.

4.4.2 Healthcare expert panel

The expert panel was engaged as the opinions, analysis and feedback of professionals working in the field of disability were required for the review of the ECTP. Eight experts were engaged in this process based on various fields of expertise and experience to ensure that the content was fully reviewed, evaluated and suggestions set forward to be implemented on the ECTP. The panel was made up of speech language therapists (n = 3), an audiologist (n = 1), an occupational therapist (n = 1), an educator (n = 1), an educational psychologist (n = 1) and a developmental therapist (n = 1). All the experts were female. The average years of experience of the expert panel were 9.37 years.

4.4.3 Procedure

The ECTP was e-mailed to the respective stakeholders and the expert panel for review. As not all the participants in the NGO had access to e-mail facilities, one of the occupational therapists arranged a meeting to discuss and work through the ECTP with the participants.

After this meeting, the researcher was given feedback and suggestions to improve its applicability. Once the analysis and reviews of the SAPS and the expert panel had been completed, the ECTP was changed and adapted to reflect their recommendations.

4.4.4 Recommendations from the stakeholder groups and the healthcare expert panel

Recommendations from the two stakeholder groups and the healthcare expert panel regarding the ECTP are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5:

Recommendations of the Two Stakeholder Groups and the Healthcare Expert Panel and Changes to the ECTP

Training programme recommendations	Stakeholder group 1: Persons with CCN	Stakeholder group 2: SAPS	Healthcare Expert Panel	Type of changes and clarification
Introduction.	Suggested the use of an example related to a person with a CCN in the introduction box and not the experience of a police officer.	Include SAPS Code of Conduct. Include list of abbreviations. Table of contents to be included.	Include a table of contents. One expert suggested the inclusion of the definition of disability as ratified in the CRPD.	The example in the introduction box was changed to include the experience of a person with a CCN. The SAPS Code of Conduct was included in the training programme as it aligns itself to the basic human rights of persons with disability. This prompted a further search on the SAPS Code of Conduct and the White Paper on Human Rights Principles of Policing was also included. A list of abbreviations and a table of contents were drawn up and included. The CRPD definition was included.
Module 1.	Delete myth related to ancestors and being cursed – not a topic to be included in the training programme. Myths and facts – ensure that it comes through clearly that all persons with disability and CCN are different and not to generalise.	No recommendations were made.	One expert felt the communication activity was not clearly explained in how it fits into the module and suggested a clearer explanation of the purpose of the activity. One expert found the heading “ <i>activities and participation</i> ” confusing. One expert indicated that the contexts and activities sentence should follow after the definitions on that page. This expert also felt <i>that” the questions to the case study were somewhat difficult”</i> . One expert suggested the rewording of the introduction to barriers and facilitators to the following: “barriers that restrict a person with disability participation in his/her environment and facilitators that increase a person with disability participation in his/her environment”.	The communication activity was changed to a simpler activity which purpose was clearer. The heading on activities and participation was adjusted to read easier. The researcher did not find that the contexts and activities should follow after the definitions and no changes were made to this part of the training programme. The questions to the case study was not changed as the researcher felt they were relevant and that participants should be able to answer the questions.

Training programme recommendations	Stakeholder group 1: Persons with CCN	Stakeholder group 2: SAPS	Healthcare Expert Panel	Type of changes and clarification
			One expert suggested that the facilitator example – walking on smooth surfaces - be deleted as it can be confusing.	The heading to barriers and facilitators was changed to include the wording suggested. The example of walking on smooth surfaces was deleted as per the suggestion put forward.
Module 2.	Ensure that the differences in communication are highlighted during the actual training and the fact that all persons can communicate.	No recommendations were made to this section.	One expert pointed out that the picture of the computer with software was incorrect and the picture of the speech generating device was also not a good example of this type of device and suggested pictures of more current devices used in AAC. One expert suggested that it be mentioned that only those who ascribe to Deaf culture in SA make use of SASL.	More current examples of the devices were found and included. The suggestion that only those who ascribe to deaf culture in SA make use SASL was noted in the discussion on that section.
Module 3.	No recommendations were made.	No recommendations were made.	One expert suggested to include a board with the graphic symbol “other” when there is not an option to choose from on the communication boards being used.	A communication board was designed to include the option “other” and was added to Module 3.
General comments.	It is a necessary project and needed as people struggle to interact with persons with disability. Police officers need to be informed about AAC.	Participant 2 commented: “The pitch of the programme is good and accommodates all levels of participants found in our organisation. The programme speaks to the Constitution in the beginning and Human Rights, which is also held in the SAPS Code of Conduct”.	One expert commented: “The training manual has a good balance between not being too easy and therefore undermining their thinking and not being too difficult for them to understand. The content covers a lot and they will learn whole new concepts at the end of the course”. One expert indicated that “the case studies were excellent”. She commented on the fact that the “case studies focussed on sexual crimes” and asked if “this was intentional and what about other types of crime?” One expert commented “the communication boards included are great and useful tools”. One expert commented “it was easy and flowed well for me”. One expert commented on the time spent on the training programme and suggested enough time be allowed for the training otherwise “it will not have meaning if the police officers do not learn a thing”.	Comments were noted. The case studies referring only to sexual offences were included as the participants in the main training were all drawn from the Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Unit (FCS) and relevant to their field of expertise.

4.4.5 Training programme adaptations

Firstly, the training programme incorporated the six andragogical principles of adult learning (Knowles et al., 2012). This was achieved by highlighting the six principles throughout the training programme by pulling together the police officers' pool of experience so that they could draw from it during the training programme and apply this experience to their new learning. The principles also include a readiness to learn new and unfamiliar concepts, their need to know about what they are going to learn in the training programme, their orientation and motivation to learn through problem-focussed communication activities and case studies and recognising that each police officer is autonomous, and that learning will be different for each police officer.

Next, the training programme was further based on the requirements of an effective programme by following the guidelines suggested by Cafarello (2002) and Kirkpatrick et al. (2016), which include the basis for the programme development, determining the needs to develop a training programme through a systematic review of published literature, a survey on knowledge of disability and focus groups. Objectives were set to improve knowledge, perceived skills and attitudes towards persons with disability to enhance the capabilities of the police officers in their daily duties. Content was then determined by the finding of Phase 1 (Stages 1a–c). The participants in the main study were selected from the FCS unit based on their experiences in working with vulnerable groups. A schedule was set for the training duration and days and a venue for the training was confirmed. Facilitators included the researcher, who was knowledgeable on the training programme content and a co-facilitator, who is a person with CCN and uses AAC. Participants received a training pack that included all materials necessary for them to complete the training programme. Programme evaluation was achieved by using a measuring instrument and training programme evaluation form.

Lastly, the training programme followed the training guidelines of the SAPS in that all training should be of such a nature that all skills are taught with theory and then allows for the actual implementation and practice of the skills and knowledge acquired. In the ECTP this was achieved by the use of communication activities and case studies (knowledge) and then the application of their skills developed through the practical exercises.

4.5 DEVELOPMENT OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A measuring instrument was compiled to gather information on the knowledge, perceived skills and attitudes of police officers before and after training. The development of the measuring instrument was based on information included in the ECTP and the SAPS Education and Training Development Policy of assessment strategies. The measuring instrument for the ECTP included four sections and is set out in Appendix I.

4.5.1 SAPS EDUCATION TRAINING and DEVELOPMENT POLICY

In the development of the measuring instrument, the ETD Policy of the SAPS (2012) were taken into consideration and used as guidelines for the measuring instrument. The Education Training and Development Policy stipulates that guidelines be set to regulate processes and procedures when interventions are developed. Six guidelines are stipulated in this policy namely:

- i) Implementation guidelines for the assessment strategy;
- ii) Implementation guidelines for the moderation of assessments;
- iii) Implementation guidelines for the certification of participant achievements'
- iv) Implementation guidelines for handling disputes and appeals on assessment decisions;
- v) Implementation guidelines for recognition of prior learning; and
- vi) Implementation guidelines for providing participant support and guidance.

Of the six guidelines, the first three were adapted and applied to the measuring instrument. Guideline 4 was not applicable to this study as it was not related to handling disputes and appeals on assessment decisions. Guideline 5 was also not related to this study as the focus was not to recognising prior learning, for example any certificate, diploma or degree that has been completed. Guideline 6 focusses on the provision of support and guidance for interventions for learners with specific training needs (i.e. learning disabilities or physical disabilities). This guideline was not applicable to the FCS unit members but applies to police officers employed in a broader capacity within the SAPS.

4.5.2 The moderation of assessments

The guidelines for the moderation of assessments (SAPS, 2012) makes a clear distinction between knowledge-based assessments that measure different levels of the cognitive domain,

usually in a written format, and performance-based assessments that typically involve demonstration of skills or competencies. In this research study the focus was on the former. The ECTP aligned itself with these guidelines and made use of a custom-designed measuring instrument pre-test and post-test that were completed by participants before the start of Day 1 and at the end of Day 2 of the training programme. The measuring instrument included a section where knowledge was tested as well as a section where perceived skills were assessed using a continuous rating scale. A combined approach was therefore used for the moderation of assessments for the ECTP. A case study was also part of the pre-test post-test custom-designed measuring instrument, which measured the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the police officers, thus enabling the researcher to gauge if there was a change in any of these domains as a result of the training.

4.5.3 Sections of the measuring instrument

The measuring instrument consisted of four sections that participants had to complete pre-and post-test. Section A was only completed on the first day pre-test and was not included in the post-test.

4.5.3.1 Section A

In Section A, police officers completed a short biographical questionnaire that gathered information on i) gender; ii) first language; iii) what other languages are spoken; iv) age; v) highest level of education; vi) years of experience in the SAPS; vii) years of experience in the detective unit or FCS unit; and viii) rank.

4.5.3.2 Section B

Section B was designed in such a way that information was obtained on: i) police officers' knowledge of disability (Questions 1–4), with a score ranging between 0–33; and ii) knowledge of statement taking (Question 9) from a person with a CCN, with a score ranging between 0–10. Their perceived level of skill (Questions 5–8) in statement taking from persons with CCN was scored ranging between 0–40. Please see Appendix I for details. Measuring knowledge or skills is a challenging task, especially where the application of the knowledge or skills acquired cannot be observed first hand. In the measuring instrument, questions were used to provide information on the police officers' level of perceived skill (subjective measure) without any objective measure of actual skill for comparison (Moharrer, 2011). Police officers rated themselves on a continuous rating scale from 0 to 10 for each of the four questions. In responding to questions on the measuring instrument, over-confident

police officers may have rated themselves higher on their skills, thereby enhancing their level of skill and/or chance of success in general (Moharrer, 2011). On the other hand, police officers could have “overestimated” their actual ability, performance, level of control, and/or chance of success (Moore & Healy, 2008) and sometimes “underestimate” themselves, and then underrate themselves in their knowledge and level of ability or perceived skills.

4.5.3.3 Section C

In Section C, police officers had to answer 30 statements on their attitudes toward persons with disability. A reliable and valid attitude measuring instrument, the Attitudes Toward Persons with Disability Scale (ATDP) (Yuker, Block & Youngg, 1970) was included as part of the measuring instrument after a review of the literature (Lam, Gunukula, McGuigan, New, Symons, & Akl, 2010; Palad, Barquia, Domingo, Flores, Gratil, Padilla & Ramel, 2016). The literature indicated that the ATDP was an objective and reliable instrument to measure attitudes towards persons with disability. The ATDP is a short instrument and reliability is partially a function of the length of the instrument. Form A of the ATDP scale was used in Section C of the measuring instrument. The reliability coefficients for the normed sample for Form A of +.78, is comparable to those found in other attitude scales. There are unfortunately no reliability scores for the ATDP done on the South African population. Three types of reliability were used to investigate the reliability of the ATDP scale, namely i) stability; ii) equivalence; and iii) stability-equivalence. Stability measures of reliability of this scale assumed that the characteristics being measured were stable and that the individual did not have experiences that may seriously affect the behaviour measured (test-retest reliability). Equivalence reliability was measured by investigating whether the items on the ATDP (Form A) is representative of the items included in the longer more extensive version (Yuker et al., 1970). The ATDP, Form A, also demonstrated stability equivalence as it scored similarly on different occasions.

The ATDP scale was revised for this study and renamed to reflect the respondents’ first language, namely Attitudes Toward Persons with Disability-R (ATDP-R). Form A was included in the current measuring instrument as it measures attitudes toward persons with disability in general, rather than towards persons with specific types of disability only, making it applicable for the purpose of the current study. The ATDP-R assesses the degree to which an individual perceives persons with disability as being similar to persons without disability, and whether individuals think persons with and without disability should be treated in the same manner. Items with positive wording indicate that persons with disability are not *different* from persons without disability. A 6-point Likert scale is used to indicate the extent of agreement or

disagreement of a participant on the test items ranging from -3 (I disagree a lot) to +3 (I agree a lot). Of the 30 statements, 12 items are worded in a positive manner. Once the signs of positive items have been changed, the algebraic sum of all the item scores is obtained (Yuker et al., 1970). This means that the sum is then reversed from negative to positive or positive to negative. Scores obtained on Form A range from -90 to +90. In order to eliminate negative values, a constant of 90 is added to make all the scores positive. For Form A, scores achieved by the participants could range from 0 to 180, with a high score reflecting a positive attitude. Scores lower than 90 would reflect a negative attitude. Grammatical changes were made to this scale to reflect person first language i.e. “person with disability” and not “disabled people”. These grammatical changes were applied to all 30 statements on the scale.

4.5.3.4 Section D

In Section D, the applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN was measured. Ten statements were presented based on the principles of the credibility test in how to obtain an effective and credible statement. This section was set up in the form of statements, and police officers had to choose whether they agreed with the statement or not (1 = “Agree” or 0 = “Disagree”). Scores ranged between 0 and 10.

4.5.4 Scoring criteria development

In order to score the responses of the participants on the measuring instrument, scoring criteria were developed for Sections B and D. Participants recorded their responses for the pre-test and post-test on the forms provided for each of the sections of the measuring instrument. The closed questions in Sections B and D consisted of fixed responses that the participants could choose from (Table 4.6). The open-ended questions consisted of items that allowed the participants to express their knowledge on disability. For the purposes of scoring the open-ended questions, a descriptive scoring rubric was developed to guide the analysis and evaluation of the participants’ responses on their knowledge on disability (Moskal & Leydens, 2000; Wolf & Stevens, 2007). Using this scoring rubric ensured scoring consistency, reliability and fair assessment on all questions of the measuring instrument between participants pre-test and post-test in both the experimental and control group (Dawson, 2017). Scoring rubrics not only contribute to sound assessment but are also important sources of information for training programme improvement and facilitator teaching (Wolf & Stevens, 2007). The development of the scoring rubric entailed three distinctive steps as set out in Figure 4.3.

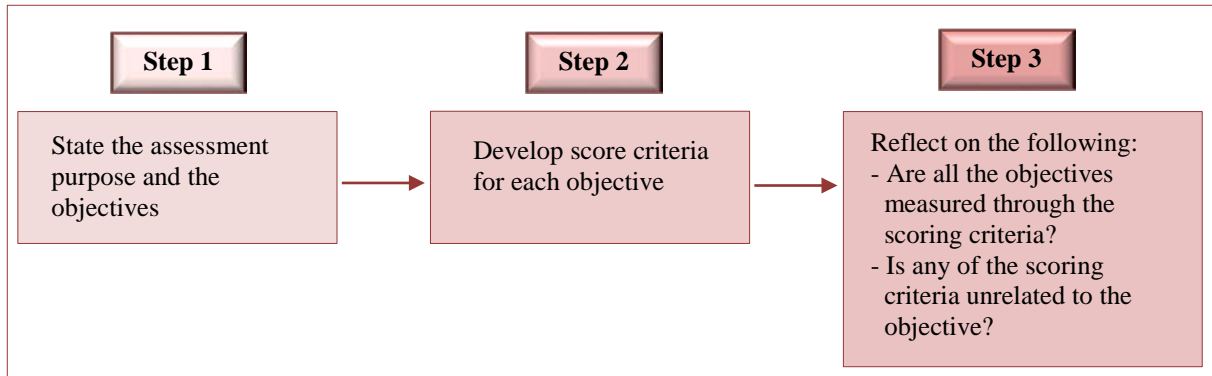


Figure 4.2: Development of a scoring rubric (Adapted from Moskal & Leydens, 2000; Wolf & Stevens, 2007)

The three steps when applied to the measuring instrument ensured that:

- i) the purpose of the measuring instrument was clear in its assessment of the knowledge, perceived skills and attitudes of the participants pre-and post-training to determine the potential change in any of these domains;
- ii) in the development of a list of the components for the evaluation of the open-ended questions, acceptable levels of performance were provided for each of the components; and;
- iii) the researcher reflected on the objectives that were measured through the scoring criteria and that the scoring criteria related only to the objectives stated in Step 1.

Each of the sections are discussed in Table 4.6 by explaining i) the question, item or statement content; ii) the question, item or statement formulation; iii) the type of question, item or statement; and iv) the theoretical justification for the inclusion of the specific questions, items or statements.

Table 4.6:

Measuring Instrument: First Version

No	Question/Item/ Statement content	Question/Item/Statement formulation	Type	Theoretical justification
Section A: Biographical information				
A structured questionnaire was designed to obtain biographical information from the policer officers. This section contained eight questions.				
1	Gender.	Tick female of male.	Closed ended question.	Gender equity in the SAPS is at a ratio of 65:35 (male: female) (SAPS, 2015). This question was included for descriptive purposes to establish the ratio of male:female in the training group.
2	First language.	What is your first language?	Closed ended question.	Police officers must be fluent in English and at least one other official language (SAPS Service Act, 1995) (Act no 68 of 1995). Most processes in the criminal justice system in SA is conducted in English and all court records are entered in English (Chabalala, 2017) and it is therefore assumed that all police officers are proficient in speaking, reading and writing English when they are taking a statement form a victim of crime.
3	Other language(s).	What other language(s) do you speak?	Closed ended question.	Police officers who are proficient in any of the ten other languages of SA have the benefit of communicating and taking statements from persons in their first language. This enhances understanding and can ultimately ensure that an effective statement is taken by the police officer (SAP Service Act, 1995) (Act no 68 of 1995).
4	Age.	What is your age?	Open ended question.	Police officers must be between the ages of 18 and 60 years to be listed as active police officers (SAP Service Act, 1995) (Act no 68 of 1995). It is indicated that older police officers are believed to possess what is known as “industry knowledge” and age can have an impact on knowledge, skills and attitudes of the police officers (Donovan, 2017).
5	Education.	What is your highest level of education? Please give the name of your grade, certificate, diploma or degree.	Open ended question.	Various authors have documented differences between college or university educated police officers and their less educated colleagues in terms of: i) how they relate to members of the public (Kappeler, Sapp & Carter, 1992); ii) attitudinal approaches to their duties (Aamodt, 2004; Shernock, 1992); iii) communication skills (Carter, Sapp & Stephens, 1989); iv) daily commitment to policing (Paoline & Terrill, 2007); and v) evaluation by superiors (Aamodt, 2004; Donovan 2017; Paoline & Terrill, 2007). The inclusion of educational levels alludes to the fact that older police officers historically were not college educated (Smith & Aamodt, 1997). This will be a factor that can be established by the inclusion of this question.

No	Question/Item/Statement content	Question/Item/Statement formulation	Type	Theoretical justification
6	Years of experience in the SAPS.	How many years of experience do you have working in the SAPS?	Closed ended question.	Policing cannot be taught in a classroom and thus experience is best gained “on the job”. Necessary performance skills are developed through the situational aspects of everyday policing over time. It is suggested that police performance is attributable to variation in experience (Paoline & Terrill, 2007) and will reflect in the approaches of police officers in the execution of tasks, attitudes, behaviours and verbal communication when taking statements for persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime (Paoline & Terrill, 2007).
7	Years of experience in your particular unit.	How many years of experience do you have as a detective? If other, please state the unit?	Closed ended question.	Working in various units within the SAPS affords police officers the opportunity to gain experience in different units. Extensive experience of activities in a domain (e.g. taking statements) is necessary to reach higher levels of proficiency and performance. Task performance is assumed to improve as a consequence of continued experience in domain related activities (e.g. statement taking).
8	Rank.	What is your current rank?	Closed ended question.	The SAPS rank structure is similar to the military ranks structure. The full rank structure of the SAPS is General (National Commissioner); Lieutenant General (Deputy National Commissioner, Divisional Commissioner, Regional Commissioner and Provincial Commissioner); Major General; Brigadier; Colonel; Lieutenant Colonel; Captain; Lieutenant; Warrant Officer; Sergeant and Constable. This question will give an indication of the rank distribution between the participants.
Section B: Knowledge and Skills				
Section B contained ten questions on knowledge and skills. Six questions (Questions 1 – 4 , and questions 9 – 10) measured the knowledge of police officers on disability. Four questions (Questions 5 – 8) related to skill and police officers had to rank themselves on their skills in how able they perceived themselves to be to take a statement from a person with a communication disability.				
1	Disability.	In your own words, how would you describe a person with disability?	Open-ended question.	This question gauged the knowledge of police officers on how they would describe a person with disability. Many of the obstacles that persons with disability face in their interactions with police officers are generated by a lack of knowledge about persons with disability (Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission, 2014). This question was scored between 0 – 5, with 0 the lowest and 5 the highest.
2	Phrases and words to describe disability.	There are many different words and phrases to describe persons with disability. Some of these words are appropriate and some are inappropriate. From the list below tick if you think it is an appropriate phrase or if it is an inappropriate phrase.	Forced choice question.	Words create images that reflect as well as influence the way persons think. Police officers should know the correct language to refer to persons with disability in a sensitive and respectful way as this could enhance their interactions and statement taking from persons with CCN who report being the victim of crime. For example, they should use “person first” language. The preferred term to use is “a person with disability” which recognises the disability as only one characteristic of the person. Participants could score between 0 – 10, with 0 the lowest and 10 the highest.

No	Question/Item/Statement content	Question/Item/Statement formulation	Type	Theoretical justification
3	Barriers and facilitators.	Persons with disability may experience barriers that restrict participation in everyday activities. Please name as many barriers that you can think of. Persons with disability may experience facilitators that increase participation in everyday activities. Please name as many facilitators that you can think of.	Open-ended question.	Barriers are factors in the person's environment that are absent (e.g. no wheelchair ramp) or not available (e.g. a sign language interpreter), and that limits the person's participation or even create disability. Facilitators increase the participation of persons with disability for e.g. wheelchairs to help improve the mobility of persons with physical disability (WHO, 2001). Police officers should be able to recognise that disability can be a result of the environment the person participates in and not only the persons restricted body functions. Participants could score between 0 – 5. This meant that both the facilitators and barriers were scored out of 5, with 0 the lowest and 5 the highest.
4	Self-assessment of knowledge about statement taking from persons with CCN.	How knowledgeable do you think you are to handle a case with a person with a communication disability?	Continuous rating scale.	Police officers are trained to take statements from victims reporting crime. The same principles apply in taking a statement from a person with CCN. Irrespective if there is a disability present or not, everyone communicates, and an effective and credible statement needs to be taken (SAPS, 2013). However, interaction with a person with CCN is dependent on knowledge and skills. Therefore, training can better equip police officers to interact with persons with CCN, and subsequent practice and experience can be impacted. Scoring was scaled between 0 and 10 with 0 – not knowledge at all and 10 – full knowledgeable.
5	Self-assessment of communication skills in taking a statement from a person with CCN.	When taking a statement from a person with a communication disability, how able do you think you are to communicate effectively with a person with a communication disability?	Continuous rating scale.	Communication is part of everyday life in various and different forms. This includes less frequently modes of communication for example facial expressions, gestures, pictures and body language. These modes are referred to as AAC and are essential for enhancing both receptive and expressive language when interacting with a person with CCN. Police officers communicate all the time in performing their duties. The effectiveness of that communication is what will ensure an effective and credible statement (SAPS, 2013). Scoring was scaled between 0 and 10 with 0 – not able at all and 10 – fully able.
6	Self-assessment of skills to understand spoken messages from a person with CCN.	When taking a statement from a person with a communication disability, how able do you think you are to understand the spoken messages of a person with a communication disability?	Continuous rating scale.	Gathering facts and information about a crime is accomplished through asking the correct questions (SAPS, 2013). There are various and different ways to establish what a person with a CCN is saying. Police officers are trained that there are resources available to assist them in taking a statement from a person with a CCN for example language interpreters, sign language interpreters and family or friends of the victim reporting the crime, Police officers are encouraged to develop their skills in statement taking to enable them to take an effective statement. Scoring was scaled between 0 and 10 with 0 – not able at all and 10 – fully able.
7	Self-perceived skills to confront obstacles when taking a statement	When taking a statement from a person with a communication disability, how able do you think you are to confront obstacles you come across when taking	Continuous rating scale.	Police officers face many obstacles in statement taking. Their ability to think and be creative in statement taking is an important factor that is stressed in developing their own skills and their participation in the development of their fellow police officers (SAPS, 2016b). Police officers need to be able to creatively problem solve

No	Question/Item/Statement content	Question/Item/Statement formulation	Type	Theoretical justification
	from a person with CCN.	a statement from a person with a communication disability?		and confront potential communication break downs when taking a statement from a person with CCN – a skill that will be honed with increased practice and experience. Scoring was on a scale from 0 to 10 where 0 = not able at all, to 10 = fully able.
8	Self-assessment of skills to create ways to help when taking a statement from a person with CCN.	When taking a statement from a person with a communication disability, how able do you think you are to create ways to help you when taking a statement from a person with a communication disability?	Continuous rating scale.	Police officers will be confronted by situations in which they encounter obstacles when taking a statement from a person with CCN. This could include not understanding what the person is saying, or the person not being able to explain what they mean. Police officers are encouraged to think of creative ways that will enable them to ascertain the meaning of words and phrases when taking a statement from a person with a CCN. This can be accomplished by the use of paper and pencil or crayons, a book with pictures or a communication board with words, symbols and pictures (Beukelman & Mirenda, 2013). Scoring was on a scale from 0 to 10 where 0 = not able at all, to where 10 = fully able,
9	Communication difficulties.	Communication difficulties may be experienced by persons with a communication disability reporting a crime and also by the police officer taking the statement.	3-point Likert scale.	Both, the person with a CCN and the police officer taking a statement may encounter difficulty in the process of communicating with one another. A communication breakdown is the result as neither the person with the CCN nor the police officer can understand one another and thus questions may not be clear and the person with the CCN may not understand the question or the way that the person with a CCN communicates is not understandable to the police officer (Vernon & Miller, 2005). Police officers had to choose either that they “agree”, “are uncertain” or “disagree”.
10	Case study.	The case of Mary. What method or methods do you think you can use in an interview with Mary to help you take an effective statement from her considering her speech difficulty?	Open-ended question.	All persons reporting a crime must be treated with respect, fairness and dignity. Police officers are trained to be patient with any person reporting a crime as they may take a little longer to tell their story, express their emotions, understand and respond to the police officers’ questions due to the trauma experienced. The process of what is going to happen to the victim must be explained step-by-step to ensure that the victim feels safe and supported. Use simple, clear, and specific language Plan the interview to maximise the privacy, safety and comfort (SAPS, 2013). Scoring was according to the principles of a credible statement as these principles apply to taking a statement from a persons with CCN.

No	Question/Item/ Statement content	Question/Item/Statement/ Formulation	Type	Theoretical justification
Section C: Attitudes Toward Persons with Disability - Revised (ATDP-R)				
Form A of the Attitudes toward Persons with Disability (Yuker, Block & Younng, 1970) was used in this measuring instrument as it measures attitudes toward persons with disability in general, rather than towards persons with specific types of disabilities All 30 questions were adapted to reflect person first statements from “disabled people” to “persons with disability”. Police officers completed the attitude scale to gauge their attitudes toward persons with disability. Police officers had to answer 30 statements on a 6-point Likert scale, 1 = “I agree a lot”, to 6 = “I disagree a lot”.				
Please refer to Section 4.6 for a discussion on the use of the ATDP in the measuring instrument				
Section D: Principles of an effective statement				
An effective statement must adhere to eight principles as set out in the Learner’s Guide (SAPS, 2013). These principles relate directly to the important role a police officer fulfils in obtaining relevant evidence that can be submitted to a court of law. Twelve statements were set out in this section. Statements were set out in such a way that the police officers had to recognise what the principles were and to answer: 1 = “I agree”; 2 = “I am uncertain” or 3 = “I disagree”. A score of 1 was awarded for a correct answer and a score of 0 for an incorrect or omitted answer.				
1	Accuracy.	The accuracy of my observations will depend on my senses I use when taking a statement from a person with a communication disability.	3-point Likert scale.	Observation is the active acquisition of information from the victim who reports a crime. Observation employs the senses, and the accuracy of the police officer’s observation will depend on the senses that are used in taking a statement from a person with CCN who reports being a victim of crime (SAPS, 2013).
2	Complete.	My statement is complete when I have asked who, what, where, when and why about the crime from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	3-point Likert scale.	Completeness of a statement can be established by asking the following questions: who; what; where; when; why and how. These are called Kipling questions and are asked to help trigger ideas and solve problems, to help guide the police officer through a sequence of thoughts towards a complete answer from the person with a CCN. Kipling questions work best when they are short and direct (Nugent, 2003).
3	Accuracy.	Facts refer to what is seen.	3-point Likert scale.	To ensure accuracy, the police officer must draw a distinction between facts (seen and heard by the person with CCN) and hearsay (which will be facts supplied by a communication partner). The accuracy of the facts recorded is of vital importance when a case goes to trial in that the victim’s oral testimony does not differ from the statement taken by the police officer. When differences are evident, it has an impact on the prosecution of the case and could lead to the case being thrown out of court (Mistry, 1997).
4	Complete.	I can only ask open-ended questions from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	3-point Likert scale.	Open questions allow the victim to give an unrestricted and detailed answer about the crime. In using open ended questions, the police officer can gain richer information from the person with a CCN who reports being a victim of crime. Open ended questions tend to produce the greatest accuracy and quantity of information when used in taking a statement from a victim of crime (Milne & Bull, 1999).
5	Objective.	I can allow my emotions to influence the content of the statement when it is a	3-point Likert scale.	The police officer who takes a statement must not allow his/her emotions to influence the content of the statement. When a police officer loses his/her

No	Question/Item/ Statement content	Question/Item/Statement/ Formulation	Type	Theoretical justification
		person with a communication disability reporting a crime.		objectivity in writing a statement, facts unrelated to the crime may be written down which will influence the accuracy of the content of the statement (SAPS, 2013).
6	Complete.	I can ask closed questions from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime if the person goes astray during the interview.	3-point Likert scale.	Closed questions are used to bring the person with a CCN back to the conversation when he/she loses his/her train of thought. Closed questions are also used to clarify facts. Closed questions are appropriate when more information is required from the victim and the use of open-ended questions has failed (Westera et al., 2011).
7	Comprehensive.	I can make some mistakes when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability as the person may not be able to communicate clearly.	3-point Likert scale.	The statement must be neat and presentable. As a statement is presented to a prosecutor, attorney or a judicial officer, it must at all times be free of mistakes and dirty marks. The police officer must remember that a statement creates an image of professionalism and tidiness and attests to their own credibility as a witness (SAPS, 2013).
8	Expansive.	It is easier for me to use the “telegram style” when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability as it means I can complete the statement in less time.	3-point Likert scale.	All the facts that the victim knows must be included in the statement as comprehensibly as possible. This must be done without using “telegram style” and omitting relevant information. By using the “telegram style” the police officer can omit relevant details that the person with a CCN reports about the crime (SAPS, 2013).
9	Complete.	A statement from a person with a communication disability is comprehensive when I report most of the important facts.	3-point Likert scale.	A statement can only be complete if it contains every fact that is applicable to the crime the person with a CCN reports. If only some of the facts are reported, it could mean that a statement is not credible, and the case may be thrown out of court based on the fact that it is incomplete. This could lead to the non-prosecution of a case (Mistry, 1997).
10	Meaning of English words.	I do not need to understand the meaning of English words when I take a statement, as English words mean the same to all persons with a communication disability.	3-point Likert scale.	Write simple language and short sentences. English words are often used in the wrong context where a distinction cannot be made. The police officer must clarify with the person with a CCN what they mean by using specific words. A victim can refer to a penis as a “stick” because that is the only English word, he/she knows to describe a penis (SAPS, 2013).
11	Honesty.	I do not need to be honest when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability when I find that they are not being honest.	3-point Likert scale.	The victim, as well as the police officer who takes the statement must be honest at all times, even it means that another person may be incriminated in the process. A statement filled with dishonest comments and facts will not proceed to a court of law and no prosecution of the case will take place (SAPS, 2013).
12	Simplicity and directness.	I can use meaningless words when I do not understand the person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	3-point Likert scale.	Meaningless and vague words in a statement should be avoided as it could lead to the misunderstanding of what the person with a CCN related to the police officer. A statement should be recorded in such a way that any person reading the statement will have a clear picture of the events that transpired (SAPS, 2013).

4.5.5 Input from the healthcare expert panel regarding the measuring instrument

Feedback was sought from the same healthcare expert panel that evaluated the ECTP to measure the feasibility of only Section C (that focussed on attitudes) of the measuring instrument. The measuring instrument was distributed electronically and posted on an online discussion forum where the experts gave their input and suggestions.

The expert panel agreed that all statements referring to “disabled people” were to change to “persons with disability”. Also, all statements referring to “physical disabilities” were replaced with the word “disability/s” as it then included all types of disabilities and did not refer to only one type of disability. This suggestion was put forward by the expert panel as the participants of the study may have had encounters with persons with not only physical disabilities, but with different types of disabilities. The expert panel also suggested that all statements referring to “other people” were replaced with “persons without disability”. Statement 17, in Section C was changed as it contained a double negative in the sentence to read as “most persons with disability are satisfied with themselves”. No further changes were made to Section C and was tested during the pre-pilot phase.

4.5.6 Pre-piloting of the measuring instrument

After the development of the measuring instrument and revision after the expert panel input, it was decided to pre-pilot the revised measuring instrument before the pilot study. Pre-piloting is considered as an effective method for improving validity in quantitative data collection (Hurst, Arulogun, Owolabi, Akinyemi, Uvere, Warth & Ovbiagele, 2015), and involves simulating the data collection process on a small scale to identify most of the major issues and the improvements necessary to the measuring instrument prior to the pilot study (Collins, 2003; Hurst et al., 2015). Taken collectively, the completion of the measuring instrument by the pre-piloting participants and the pilot study ultimately answered whether the questions on the measuring instrument effectively captured the topic under investigation (Collingridge, 2014; Hurst et al., 2015).

4.5.7 Participants for the pre-pilot study

The measuring instrument was distributed to ten police officers similar in terms of rank, experience and work context to those police officers included in the pilot study. Their biographical information is set out in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7:

Biographical Information of Participants: the Pre-pilot Study (N = 10)

Participant	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Female	Female	Male
First Language	isiZulu	English	Afrikaans	English	isiZulu	English	isiZulu	English	English	English
Second Language (s)	English isiNdebele isiXhosa	-	English	Afrikaans	English	isiZulu	English isiXhosa	-	-	Afrikaans
Age	40 years	42 years	39 years	48 years	33 years	25 years	37 years	43 years	43 years	51 years
Highest level of education	Degree in Criminology	Diploma	Diploma	Certificate	Grade 12	Grade 12	Certificate	Diploma	Grade 12	Grade 12
Years of experience in the SAPS	12 years	23 years	12 years	28 years	10 years	8 years	12 years	25 years	23 years	31 years
Years of experience in the Detective Unit	13 months	4 years	11 years	25 years	7 years	5 years	10 years	11 years	19 years	27 years
Rank	Constable	Warrant Officer	Sergeant	Warrant Officer	Constable	Constable	Constable	Captain	Warrant Officer	Warrant Officer

4.5.8 Materials

The materials used included a copy of the consent form and the measuring instrument. Please see the final version of the measuring instrument in Appendix I.

4.5.9 Procedures

The researcher arranged to meet with the participants at their offices at one of the police stations. Written consent was obtained from all the participants prior to data collection for the pre-pilot. The researcher read through the consent form with the participants and informed them that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time without any consequence to them. Participants completed the measuring instrument in their own time and returned the completed measuring instrument to the researcher. The researcher was on hand if any of the participants needed assistance in completing the measuring instrument. After the analysis of the completed measuring instrument, it was established that some of the questions and statements needed to be changed, some rephrased due to language and word ambiguity and some deleted. A summary of the changes made after the pre-pilot is provided in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8:

Adaptations made to the Measuring Instrument Following the Pre-pilot

Section B			
No	Old question	New question	Type of change required and justification
Section B Question 2.	There are many facts and myths about persons with disability. From the list below, tick which one you consider to be a fact and which one you consider to be a myth.	There are many different words to describe persons with disability. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a person in a wheelchair?</i> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a paraplegic person?</i> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a retarded person?</i> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a brain damaged person?</i> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a handicapped person?</i> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a mute person?</i> • <i>What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a crazy person?</i> 	The majority of the participants had the answers correct on this question, resulting in the ceiling effect (Salkind, 2010). This indicated that the majority of participants were familiar with what was termed as facts and myths related to persons with disability. Based on the results, it was decided to reword the question completely and make it an open-ended question for the pilot study.
Section D			
No	Old question	New question	Type of change required and justification
Section D Statement 2.	When I have asked who, what, where, when and why about the crime from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime I have everything to complete the statement.	My statement is complete when I have asked who, what, where, when and why about the crime from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	The researcher rephrased the statement and used simpler language as participants seemed to have difficulty with the language used in this statement. In rephrasing the statement, it was ensured that the rephrasing reflected the wording as per the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013).
Section D Statement 3.	Facts refer to what is seen, and hearsay refers to subjective supposition.	Facts refer to what is seen.	The researcher found that in reading the statement about facts as set out in the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013), she misunderstood the implication of what facts referred to in the accuracy of a statement.
Section D Statement 5.	When I can establish only certain facts from a person with a communication	This statement was deleted.	All the participants answered this question correctly, indicating that it was insufficiently difficult to measure the true knowledge of the police officers thus, the indication of this was that the police

	disability reporting a crime, it will be considered an effective statement.		officers had the knowledge to answer this statement creating a ceiling effect (Salkind, 2010). This statement was therefore deleted.
Section D Statement 6.	The person with a communication disability reporting a crime does not have to put him/herself on an imaginary platform when reporting a crime.	This statement was deleted.	It was established that this statement seemed to confuse the participants as the phrase “imaginary platform” did not seem to be familiar to them although this phrase is used in the Leaner’s Guide (SAPS, 2013). This statement was deleted.
Section D Statement 7.	My emotions can influence the content of the statement when it is a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	I can allow my emotions to influence the content of the statement when it is a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	The researcher rephrased the statement as most of the participants did not understand the implication of the statement.
No	Old question	New question	Type of change required and justification
Section D Statement 12.	When I take a statement from a person with a communication disability, the sentences I write down needs to be long as it is the only way to help explain the facts	This statement was deleted.	This statement was deleted for the pilot study as the police officers had the knowledge to answer this statement correctly (Salkind, 2010).
Section D Statement 13.	I do not need to understand the meaning of English words when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime, as English words mean the same to all persons with a communication disability.	This question was deleted.	A high proportion of police officers provided a correct answer to this question before any training and the statement was deleted (Salkind, 2010).
Section D Statement 14.	A person with a communication disability reporting a crime does not have to be honest in their statement because they cannot tell you the facts relating to the crime.	I do not need to be honest when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability when I find that they are not being honest.	This statement was rephrased to relate to the honesty of both the police officer and the person with a communication disability (SAPS, 2013) as this statement alluded to persons with communication disabilities as being dishonest.
Section D Statement 8.		I can ask closed questions from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime if the person goes astray during the interview.	The statement on closed questions was included as closed questions are used to gather information, give clarity, gain focus and narrow the area of the discussion. Closed questions also help to bring the person back to the conversation when he/she goes astray during the interview (SAPS, 2013).

In summary, Table 4.8 showed the adaptations that were required to the measuring instrument before piloting it. The new version of the measuring instrument was piloted after which additional changes were made for the main study.

4.6 DEVELOPMENT OF THE TRAINING EVALUATION FORM

Goldstein and Ford (2002) define training evaluation as the systematic process of collecting empirical data and information to determine whether a training programme was effective. Allen (2002) expanded on this definition by adding that the ultimate outcome of training evaluation is to improve training programmes and enhance the learning of participants. Evaluation is thus used to provide feedback on learning and training and to ensure that the acquisition and practice of skills will be effective and useful (Pellegrino, Chudowsky & Glaser, 2001).

Evaluation can be described as “the process of determining the worth or significance of an activity, policy, or programme. [It is] as systematic and objective as possible, of a planned, on-going or completed intervention” (Morra Imas & Rist, 2009, p 9). The aim of programme evaluation is to evaluate and help improve training programmes. The development of the ECTP training evaluation form is set out in Table 4.9. This table highlights the number of each statement, the statement area, the statement formulation/question, and the types of questions aimed at the ultimate outcome of the ECTP and provide feedback on the learning of participants.

A custom-designed training evaluation form was used to evaluate the ECTP at the end of both Day 1 and Day 2 of the training. The training evaluation form was based on the widely used and accepted model by Kirkpatrick et al. (2016) and the adaptations proposed by Tamkin, Yarnall and Kerrin, (2002).

4.6.1 Level 1

Reactions to the training programme were measured by the participants responding to statement areas on the training evaluation form. This included how they perceived and evaluated the content, materials, relevance and quality of the training programme and their overall satisfaction as measured by Questions 1 to 16 (programme objectives, programme

materials and programme content) and Questions 21 to 27 (personal opinion) of the training evaluation form.

4.6.2 Level 2

In the training evaluation this was measured by Questions 17 to 20, pertaining to the effects of training, i.e. improvement of effectiveness, results and understanding of the subject of persons with CCN.

Table 4.9:

Everyone Communicates Training Programme Evaluation Form

No	Statement area	Statement/Question formulation	Type	Level
Everyone Communicates Training Programme evaluation form				
The evaluation form starts with 20 statements in four domains answered on a four-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree). These four domains were programme objectives, programme materials, programme contents, and effects of the training. Next, five open-ended questions were asked followed by two closed-ended questions with a six-point Likert scale (1 = too many; 2 = just right; 3 = too few; 4 = very relevant; 5 = satisfactory; 6 = not at all relevant)				
1	Programme objectives	The objectives were clearly outlined	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
2		The outlined objectives were met	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
3	Programme materials	The language used was easy to understand	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
4		The material was easy to navigate	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
5		The programme followed a planned sequence	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
6	Programme content	The content was easy to understand	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
7		Content relating to attitude, knowledge and skills were clearly defined	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
8		Definitions to explain concepts were adequate	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
9		Communication activities were relevant for each module	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
10		Case studies were appropriate for each module	4-point Likert scale	Level 2
11		The class discussion time was adequate	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
12		The question-answer time was adequate	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
13		There were more than enough opportunities for me to demonstrate my knowledge	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
14		There were more than enough opportunities for me to demonstrate my skills	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
15		Communication boards were clearly set out	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
16	Communication boards were easy to understand	4-point Likert scale	Level 1	
17	Effects of training	The information I learned will improve my effectiveness	4-point Likert scale	Level 2
18		The information I learned will improve my results	4-point Likert scale	Level 2
19		The information I learned improved my understanding on the subject	4-point Likert scale	Level 2
20		I will recommend the programme to others with similar needs to mine to attend this programme	4-point Likert scale	Level 1
21	Personal opinion	What did you like best about the programme?	Open-ended	Level 1
22		What did you like least about the programme?	Open-ended	Level 1
23		What do you think should be added to the programme	Open-ended	Level 1
24		What do you think should be taken out of the programme?	Open-ended	Level 1
25		What are your views on the handouts that you received?	6-point Likert scale	Level 1
26		What are your views on the Power Point slides?	6-point Likert scale	Level 1
27		What other comments are there about the training programme that have not been covered that you would like to make?	Open-ended	Level 1

4.6.3 Evaluation of the ECTP training evaluation form by the SAPS stakeholder group and the healthcare expert panel

The SAPS as a stakeholder and the healthcare expert panel were asked to review the evaluation form for the training programme. The evaluation form was e-mailed to the stakeholder group and expert panel at the same time as they were e-mailed the ECTP. This allowed for the evaluation form to be completed after each stakeholder and expert worked through the ECTP. The evaluation forms were returned via e-mail at the same time as the ECTP. No changes were suggested to the evaluation form and the consensus was that the evaluation form covered all aspects related to the training programme and that “it was easy to understand and complete”. The evaluation form thus remained the same for the pilot study.

4.7 STAGE 2b: PILOT STUDY

4.7.1 Aim of the pilot study

A pilot study was used as a small-scale test in preparation for the main study (Pilot, Beck, & Hungler, 2001) to point to errors in cross-cultural use of language and any word ambiguity that may exist (Hurst et al., 2015). Researchers in the literature also suggest that piloting is repeated with similar participants as the participants in the main study until all the major changes to the questions, instructions to the participants, clarity of language used, or structure of the measuring instrument have been made (Collins, 2003; Hurst et.al., 2015; Sullivan, 2011). In the present study, the overarching aim of the pilot study was to test the measuring instrument and the contents of the ECTP and the training evaluation form to be used in the main study (Baker, 1994). If there were questions or content that were misleading or unclear, or there was material that was repetitive or redundant or unrelated to the training programme or measuring instrument, it would have become evident during the pilot study (Simon, 2011).

4.7.2 Description of the setting

The venue chosen for the pilot study was at an independent facility. The decision was made to take the police officers out of their working environment into an environment where optimal learning could take place without the distraction and interference of work and other police officers that could have access to the venues at any police station. The aim was to create an atmosphere where the police officers could relax in an environment that was non-threatening. The venue for the pilot study was close to most of the police stations and easily

accessible via various routes. In the venue, the room was set up in a U-shape. The projector and screen were positioned in such a way that each participant could see the PowerPoint presentation. The facilitator and co-facilitator were visible to all participants for the duration of the training on each of the training days. On both training days participants interacted during the training sessions, which created a relaxed atmosphere as the participants felt no threat or judgement in asking and answering questions and in participating freely in the communication activities and role plays. It was therefore recommended that the setting be kept the same for the main study.

4.7.3 Training duration

The training took place over two consecutive days. Each day commenced at 8h00 with tea and refreshments and ended at 16h00. Tea breaks were scheduled for 10h00 to 10h15 and 14h45 to 15h00 every day, and lunch was served between 13h00 to 13h45.

4.7.4 Materials

Participants received a consent form (Appendix L) to complete and a copy of the measuring instrument (please note Appendix I is the final copy of the measuring instrument used in the main study), a pre-test and post-test, and they completed a training evaluation form (Appendix K) at the end of training on Day 1 and Day 2. All participants received training packs that included a note book; a black pen; envelopes with the various cards used in the communication activities; a blank piece of A4 paper; a set of stickers; communication boards and a packet of sweets. All participants received a copy of the ECTP, which included the introduction and all three modules of the ECTP.

4.7.5 Role of facilitators

During the training there were two facilitators. The main facilitator (researcher) was responsible for presenting core information and activities as set out in Table 4.3. The co-facilitator (person using AAC) participated in the communication activities, case studies and acted as a role play participant demonstrating the use of AAC. She also directly interacted and engaged with the police officers and offered input and suggestions as they applied the various strategies learned to take a statement from a person with CCN.

4.7.6 Participants

The participants were recruited from the FCS units. An e-mail was sent out to the various FCS unit commanders in the greater Durban area asking for the nomination of members of their units. As the response to this invitation did not yield sufficient numbers for the pilot study, participants were nominated by the unit commander from the detective unit and reservists at a local police station. Five police officers from the FCS unit confirmed for the pilot study, three from the detective branch, and one reservist. Due to the duties of police officers and the criterion that the study should not impact on police officers' daily responsibilities, two of the participants did not arrive on the morning of the pilot study. These police officers had to appear in court and could thus not attend the pilot study. Seven participants (four were female and three male) participated on both days of the pilot study. The biographical information of the participants is presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10:

Biographical Information of Participants in the Pilot Study (N = 7)

Participant	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
First Language	English	isiZulu	isiZulu	isiZulu	English	isiZulu	English
Second Language (s)	Afrikaans isiZulu	English isiXhosa	English	English Siswati isiXhosa	Afrikaans	English	Afrikaans
Age	43 years	35 years	36 years	43 years	50 years	42 years	55 years
Highest level of education	National Diploma in Policing	Diploma in Public Administration	Certificate in Education	National Diploma in Policing	B.A Degree	Diploma in Marketing	Grade 12
Years of experience in the SAPS	24 years	9 years	10 years	15 years	27 years	14 years	12 years
Years of experience in specific unit	4 years Detective	5 years Detective	2 years FCS unit	14 years FCS unit	19 years FCS unit	14 years FCS unit	12 years CPF and Reservist
Rank	Warrant Officer	Constable	Constable	Sergeant	Captain	Sergeant	Constable

4.7.7 Procedures

The same procedures as those intended for the main study was used. On Day 1, tea and refreshments were served at 8h00, after which the participants completed a consent form to participate in the training. The facilitator read through the consent form with the participants and informed them that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time without any negative consequences. All the participants completed the

measuring instrument pre-training. The training programme commenced at 8h45. The introduction to human rights, policies and legislation, the SAPS Code of Conduct and the White Paper on Human Rights Principles were completed before the tea break at 10h00. At 10h15 Module 1 was introduced and completed before the lunch break at 13h00. Module 2 was introduced after the lunch break. The contents of Module 2 up to the section on “Communication partners and the criminal justice system”, concluded the training material for Day 1. At 15h30 the participants completed the training evaluation form, after which they dispersed for Day 1.

On Day 2, participants enjoyed tea and refreshments at 8h00, after which the second part of Module 2 commenced. This part of Module 2 concluded at 10h00 when a tea break was called. At 10h15 Module 3 was introduced, which took participants up to the lunch break at 13h00. Module 3 was concluded after lunch at 15h00. This allowed for the participants to complete the post-test questionnaire, excluding section A, the biographical questionnaire, which was only completed on Day 1, as well as the training evaluation form at the end of Day 2. Participants dispersed at 16h15.

4.7.8 Objectives, procedures, results, recommendations and changes following the pilot study

The objectives, procedures, results, recommendations and changes following the pilot study are set out in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11:

Objectives, Procedures, Results, Recommendations and Changes Following the Pilot Study

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
		Measuring instrument	
To determine the appropriateness of the questions included in the measuring instrument.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Original Question 9, Section B: Communication difficulties may be experienced by persons with a communication disability reporting a crime and also by the police officer taking the statement. Tick if you agree, disagree or uncertain. ● <i>Persons with a communication disability will always understand when you ask them questions.</i> ● <i>Persons who use sign language will report a crime as they are fully able to communicate the crime to the police.</i> ● <i>Police officers base their responses to persons with a communication disability on their previous experiences.</i> ● <i>When persons with a communication disability report a crime, it is obvious that they have a disability.</i> 	A ceiling effect was reached with this question indicating prior knowledge.	This question was deleted from the measuring instrument.
To determine the appropriateness of the statements included in the measuring instrument.	<p>1) Statement 3, Section D: Facts refer to what is seen.</p> <p>2) Statement 5, Section D: I can allow my emotions to influence the content of the statement when it is a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.</p>	<p>The researcher found that in the formulation of this statement that she omitted a part of the statement. It was thus confusing to the participants and the statement was rephrased to reflect the wording as per the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013).</p> <p>A ceiling effect was reached pre-training indicating that the police officers had the knowledge to answer this question correctly pre-training.</p>	<p>New statement:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>In taking a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime, the person's communication disability will impact on the facts that relate to the case.</i> <p>This statement was deleted.</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
	3) Statement 10, Section D: I do not need to understand the meaning of English words when I take a statement as English words can mean the same to all persons with a communication disability.	This question was insufficiently difficult to measure the true knowledge of the police officers as the question was answered correctly pre-test and post-test by all the police officers, reflecting a ceiling effect.	This statement was deleted.
	4) Statement 11, Section D: I do not need to be honest when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability when I find that the person is not being honest.	As with statements 5 and 10 a ceiling effect was reached prior to training, which indicated police officers had prior knowledge to answer this question.	This statement was deleted.
	5) Statement 12, Section D: I can use meaningless words when I do not understand the person with a communication disability reporting a crime.	This question yielded a ceiling effect pre-training and was rephrased using words reflected in the Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013).	New statement: <i>In taking a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime, I can use vague words to describe the crime as the person may not be able to communicate clearly.</i>
	6) Statement 10, Section D: New statement.	A new statement was introduced into the measuring instrument. The Learner's Guide (SAPS, 2013), clearly states that all statements need to be clear, neat and comprehensible to whoever reads the statement. It is indicated in the Participant's Guide that during the presentation of evidence opinions are formed by prosecutors, attorneys and the judicial officer about the police officer and his/her reliability as a witness in the case. No statements captured this aspect.	New added statement: <i>The contents of my statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime will reflect on my reliability as a witness.</i>
Everyone Communicates Training Programme			
To evaluate the appropriateness of the learning objectives.	Participants were informed of the learning objectives per module (Modules 1, 2 and 3) as per the ECTP material supplied. The objectives were read aloud to the participants.	Participants were made aware of what they were to learn during Modules 1, 2 and 3.	No recommendations were made to the list of learning objectives and they will remain the same for the main study
To evaluate the effectiveness of the practical activities used during training.	<i>Module 1: Communication activity card game:</i> question and listening skills. Participants were each given a card with information printed on the card. Some	The participants milled around at first with the cards in their hands. As soon as one participant started the process the rest got involved and started looking for the person with card that	This card game was effective in creating a relaxed atmosphere. The objective of participants using questions and listening to answers to obtain information from one

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
	<p>cards had questions and some cards answers. Participants had to walk around and find the person that would have either a question or an answer to their card. Participants were not allowed to show their cards to each other. They had to ask questions and listen to answers to find the person who matched their card.</p> <p><i>Module 1: Communication activity longest line:</i> difference in perception and beliefs from what we observe. Participants were each given a card with two lines drawn on the card. This card was also presented in the Power Point Presentations for the participants to get clearer picture of the lines. Participants had to decide which is the longest line and give reasons for their choice.</p> <p><i>Module 2: Communication activity card game:</i> different ways of communicating without using speech. Each participant chose a card from a pack of cards. Each card had a different drawing, picture or gesture printed on the card. Participants took turns to communicate to the group what was on their respective cards. However, the participants were not allowed to use any form of communication that involved speech.</p> <p><i>Module 2: Communication activity – the basic communication model and active listening.</i> Participants were each given a blank piece of paper. They were instructed to close their eyes and follow the verbal instructions of the facilitator. The</p>	<p>matched their card. There was a relaxed atmosphere and lots of questions being shouted to find their matching card. When participants found their matching card, they were asked to sit down. Participants then shared their questions with the matching answers.</p> <p>A lot of shouting and pointing ensued in what participants perceived for themselves to be the longest line. Participants were engaged in the activity and from the high levels of participation it was evident that This card game was effective in illustrating that although they all looked at the same lines, their perceptions and beliefs in what made them choose a particular line were different.</p> <p>This activity was enjoyed by all the participants with loads of laughter and shouting in trying to understand what was being conveyed to the group. Questions were asked of the person demonstrating what was on their card. This at times got the person to have to rethink in how they were conveying their information as at times their indications became confusing. In the end, the participants could identify what was on each card.</p> <p>From the start some questions were posed to the facilitator for e.g. which way should the paper lie. It was very evident to observe that when their eyes were closed that they became stuck with the simplest of instructions. This led to some participants asking clarifying questions when they were unsure of what to do next. It</p>	<p>another was met. This activity will remain in its current format for the main study.</p> <p>The objective was met in illustrating that the length of the two lines did not change although the arrows on the lines pointed in different directions, the lines were the same length. The same context thus can be perceived differently based on the perceptions and beliefs that a person holds. This activity will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>Participants were made aware of the different means of communication that can be used to convey information. This was a very successful activity in that various methods and means were illustrated by the group in conveying their information. This activity will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>A group of people may listen to one speaker and all hear different messages. In this exercise the same set of instructions were given to participants in the group however, the end results were all different. This also illustrated the importance of asking questions and clarifying when instructions are unclear. This</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
	<p>participants were taken through nine steps in which they were instructed how to fold the piece of paper.</p> <p><i>Module 3: Communication activity:</i> difficulty in communicating information without words or aids. Participants paired up with the person next to them and had to find out one interesting/unknown/or uncommon fact about the person. The one participant then had to communicate this fact to the other participants in the group.</p> <p><i>Module 3: Communication activity marshmallows in mouth:</i> understanding a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.</p> <p>Participants had to split into pairs. One participant was given marshmallows to put in their mouth. The participant with the marshmallows had to describe a crime to their partner. Participants could use any technique, device or communication support that have learned about throughout</p>	<p>was also observed that the questions from other participants needing clarification caused even greater confusion for some. It was obvious that these questions broke the concentration and focus of some of the participants in the group. At the end of the exercise they had to unfold their papers and show the group what they had created from the facilitator's instructions.</p> <p>There was discussion amongst some of the participants as to who would be the person sharing information and who would be demonstrating the information. It was obvious that there was uncertainty in the group as to how they were going to do this. In some instances, the participants could not communicate the facts gathered to the rest of the group. Some participants became creative and used some of the tools they had acquired throughout modules 1 and 2 to help them in communicating the information. Some participants expressed that they were unsure of how to approach this activity and felt that all the resources they had, disappeared when they could not use words or props.</p> <p>There was a lot of laughing and stuttering happening in the group as soon as the marshmallows were placed in their mouths. Some participants became very creative and used signs from SASL language they had learned during the training programme to illustrate their message. Others tried in talking through the marshmallows only, to convey their information. During the discussion, it became clear that both partners had difficulty in completing the activity as they could not understand each other in this communication exchange. Questioning and clarifying of facts</p>	<p>activity was explained to the group using the basic communication model and relating each step of the paper folding exercise to the steps of the communication model. This activity will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>The objective of the activity was met in the illustration of how difficult it was when then usual means of communication that we are familiar with is taken away from us. The feelings of uncertainty and not knowing how the information was going to be put across to the group illustrated the fact that how difficult it can be for the person with a CCN to report a crime when the person may only have one way of communicating and it is not understood by the receiver of the message. This activity will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>The objective was met in this activity to illustrate the difficulty in understanding the detail of what a person is communicating when there is a communication disability present. This activity will remain for the main study. As this is the last activity in the training programme, it is also an activity which is enjoyed by all and elicits a lot of laughter and joking amongst the participants. It is a successful activity to bring the training programme to its conclusion.</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
To evaluate the effectiveness of the materials used during training.	<p>the training programme to communicate the information to their partner.</p> <p><i>Module 1:</i> - Training pack including a note book and black pen. - Envelope with cards.</p> <p><i>Module 2:</i> - Envelope with cards.</p> <p><i>Module 3:</i> - Communication boards depicting various different themes to assist them in taking statements from persons with CCN.</p>	<p>were once again a very important skill that was used to gather information and facts.</p> <p>Participants used the notebook to make extra notes during the training sessions. Participants were given either a card with a question or an answer printed on the card. Participants had to find the matching card to theirs without telling other what was printed on their card.</p> <p>Participants had to draw a card from a stack of cards. Each card had either a drawing or picture on it. Participants had to tell the group what was on the card without any speech being used. The boards were effective in showing the participants the different uses of the boards. One participant indicated that this can give him ideas to make his own boards to use with different pictures and drawings.</p>	<p>The usefulness and appropriateness of the material means that the training pack will remain in its current format for the main study.</p> <p>Materials used will remain the same for the main study, as participants clearly found them interesting and useful.</p> <p>Materials used will remain the same for the main study as they were effectively utilised during the communication and role-play activities.</p>
To determine the suitability of the training content for the purpose of the training.	<p><i>Introduction:</i> The facilitator worked through the introduction with the participants.</p> <p><i>Module 1:</i> The facilitator worked through the content with participants. There were question and answer sessions and time for various explanations on the topics covered in this module.</p> <p><i>Module 2:</i> The same procedure was followed as for Module 1. In addition, the facilitator demonstrated how to activate the “Accessibility” function on participants</p>	<p>It was established at this point that the participants did not know the eight principles of an effective statement as set out in the Learner’s Guide (SAPS, 2013).</p> <p>Participants indicated that they gained a lot of new information especially about barriers and facilitators that persons with disability experience in their environment. Participants expressed that the case study was appropriate to the module and it gave them the opportunity to apply what they had learned during the module to help answer the case study questions.</p> <p>The participants thoroughly enjoyed the Communication partner model and how this model fits into the work that they do. This part elicited many questions and interesting discussions. Much fun and laughter ensued with</p>	<p>The researcher decided to include the principles of an effective statement into the introduction part of the training programme. No other recommendations were made for this section of the training programme and it will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>No changes were made to Module 1 and it will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>No recommendations were made to this module and will remain the same for the main study. Using the co-facilitator with CCN to demonstrate the accessibility function on their phones should also be maintained.</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
	<p>Smart Phones. The person with a CCN (co-facilitator) helped the participants to navigate through the app on their Smart phones.</p> <p><i>Module 3:</i> The facilitator worked through the content with participants. The participants were shown various communication boards and what each board could be used for and how the boards can assist in taking a statement from a person with a CCN who reports being a victim of crime.</p>	<p>phones “going off” and “talking” at the most inopportune times and the person with CCN showed them how to “silence” the “talking” phones. The case study was deemed appropriate as participants could yet again apply the knowledge gained in answering the questions posed relating to the case study.</p> <p>This was an enjoyable activity as participants tried using the sign language to describe words to each other. Many meanings got lost in the signs, but it also made participants realise that SASL is a fully-fledged language, and difficult to learn and comprehend. The case study was again deemed appropriate and participants could apply their knowledge about different assistive devices and boards in answering the questions.</p>	<p>The researcher found that there was an overlap of two topics namely, i) steps to ensure clear and respectful communication with a person with a CCN who reports being a victim of crime and ii) different ways of assisting the person with a CCN who reports being the victim of crime. It was decided to combine these two topics into one under the heading of “<i>Steps to ensure clear and effective communication with a person with a CCN who report being the victim of crime</i>”. No other recommendations were made to this module and will remain the same for the main study.</p>
<p>To determine the effectiveness of the modules.</p>	<p><i>Module 1:</i> Working through various activities, question and answer sessions and giving participants the opportunity to share information and how they experienced different situations, helped participants to learn from one another.</p> <p><i>Module 2:</i> Allowing for free discussion afforded the opportunity for interaction and learning to take place. The facilitator allowed for participants to tell stories and share ideas and in doing so free and relaxed learning took place without a set time constraint.</p>	<p>Participants indicated how much they had learned about person first language, how to refer to a person with disability and the basic human rights of persons with disability.</p> <p>Participants shared freely with the group and were very comfortable with one another especially towards Day 2 as they had to get to know each other. The interaction with the person with a CCN taught the participants about how a person can communicate, how to be patient when she was talking and being at ease with her. This interaction helped the participants immensely in gaining confidence and skills in how to approach a person with a CCN.</p>	<p>No changes were suggested for this module and it will remain the same for the main study.</p> <p>This module should remain the same for the main study. The importance of including a person with CCN in the training was highlighted.</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
	<p><i>Module 3:</i> The facilitator demonstrated the use of the communication boards. Various SASL signs were demonstrated to the group and they were encouraged to learn how to fingerspell their names.</p>	<p>Participants tried to spell their names and use some of the signs from the communication boards. The various different boards given to the participants helped them to realise that there are many and various forms to communicate that can be used in interacting with a person with a CCN.</p>	<p>A suggestion was put forward to use video clips to demonstrate SASL. A video clip was therefore incorporated into this module for the main study.</p>
Training evaluation form			
<p>To determine the relevance in terms of the ECTP objectives.</p>	<p>The facilitator worked through the objectives of the ECTP with participants.</p>	<p>Participants indicated that the ECTP objectives were clearly outlined.</p>	<p>No changes were made to this part of the evaluation form and it will remain the same for the main study.</p>
<p>To determine the relevance in terms of the ECTP material.</p>	<p>The training programme followed a planned sequence. English in the first person was used to personalise the ECTP and to ensure a user-friendly training programme.</p>	<p>Participants indicated that the language used was easy to understand and definitions used to explain concepts were clear.</p>	<p>No changes were made to this part of the evaluation form. It will remain the same for the main training.</p>
<p>To determine the relevance in terms of the ECTP content.</p>	<p>The theoretical part of the training programme followed a planned sequence with content matter linking and following one after the other. Definitions were explained, and communication activities were presented. Case studies were adequate, and the use of the communication boards were explained.</p>	<p>Participants demonstrated and used their knowledge gained with different case studies. Participants indicated that the discussion times and question and answer sessions afforded them enough time to clarify concepts and discuss ideas. Participants demonstrated their knowledge and skills gained throughout the training programme during the different activities. Participants stated that the communication boards were easy to understand and navigate.</p>	<p>The evaluation form was effective in capturing the different components of the training programme and will remain the same for the main study. The researcher used case studies that crossed the participants job barriers and work roles and that the participants could relate to.</p>
<p>To determine the effectiveness of the ECTP.</p>	<p>Information presented on disability related issues were of such a nature that it was easy to understand and learn.</p>	<p>Participants indicated that they felt the information learned provided would improve their effectiveness and results in working with persons with a CCN reporting a crime. They also indicated that there was an improved understanding on the topic of disability. All indicated that they would recommend the training programme to other police officers.</p>	<p>No recommendations were set forth to the effectiveness of the ECTP and this part of the evaluation form will remain the same for the main study.</p>
<p>To determine which aspects of the ECTP</p>	<p>Presentation of ECTP: Introduction and Modules 1 to 3.</p>	<p>Participants stated that knowledge gained will help with tasks when working with persons with disability. Participants also indicated that they</p>	<p>No recommendations were included in the participants responses and remained the same for the main training.</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
<p>appealed most to participants.</p>		<p>learned patience during the training programme in working with the person with a CCN. The realisation that obstacles can be overcome when the person with disability is treated with respect and given the most effective facilitators to participate in daily activities, was also highlighted. Furthermore, participants commented on the friendly co-participants which made the group work enjoyable and the opportunity to learn from other people's experiences. They commented on and an enhancement of skills in taking a statement from a person with a CCN e.g. communication boards (Appendix Q). Participants felt that the information was well communicated by the facilitator thereby creating important interaction opportunities for all the participants. They also mentioned that the facilitator was very clear and communicated well throughout the days. In conclusion, they found the training programme greatly insightful and beneficial.</p>	
<p>To determine which aspects in the ECTP should be changed.</p>	<p>Presentation of ECTP: Introduction and Modules 1 to 3.</p>	<p>Participants were complimentary regarding the training programme and indicated that it was well presented. They also indicated that they enjoyed each day. However, one participant indicated that he did not enjoy sharing information. One participant suggested more video clips to be included in which persons with a CCN demonstrates how they communicate.</p>	<p>This suggestion was considered. The researcher however felt more video clips were not necessary as the co-facilitator would be able to demonstrate how she communicated and for the participants to interact with her directly facilitating learning through first-hand experience, was more beneficial than observations from a video.</p>
<p>To determine the participants views on the training pack received.</p>	<p>Training pack with cards, note book and pen. SASL handouts with signs.</p>	<p>The participants indicated that the training pack and handouts received were relevant and useful and added as a memory cue.</p>	<p>No changes were recommended.</p>
<p>To determine the participants views on the Power Point.</p>	<p>Presentation of ECTP: Introduction and Modules 1 to 3.</p>	<p>Participants indicated "just right" and "very relevant".</p>	<p>No changes were made and the Power Point and will remain the same for the main training.</p>

Objectives	Procedures	Results	Recommendations and changes
<p>To determine any further suggestions that had not been captured on the evaluation form.</p>	<p>Presentation on disability related issues, including CCN, AAC, communication boards and SASL boards.</p>	<p>Most participants indicated that they would not add anything to the programme. Results included the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>”persons with different disabilities should participate in the training”;</i> ● <i>”commanders and management as their leaders should also attend this training programme”;</i> ● <i>”the programme should be rolled out to the Community Service Centre as they are the first point of entry when a crime is reported”.</i> ● One participant indicated that he would like to learn more basic SASL signs for everyday use. 	<p>The main aim of the ECTP is to impart information on communication with a person with a CCN. For this reason, the training programme excluded other types of disability and a co-facilitator with CCN. A high-ranking police officer in the ETD of the SAPS, in a personal communication to the researcher indicated the following: <i>“There is a definite scope for it, especially in our Community Service Centres of the Police Stations”</i> and <i>“The pitch of the programme is good and accommodates all levels of participants found in our organisation”</i>, dated 02/06/2016. All communication boards and SASL boards remain unchanged for the main training.</p>
<p>To determine the participants views on the facilitator.</p>	<p>The facilitator engaged with the participants and guided them through the ECTP.</p>	<p>Question 7 showed that the participants used this question to give their views on the skills of the facilitator and her engagement with them during the training programme.</p>	<p>Question 7 remained unchanged for the main training. The facilitator however included four additional statements to the evaluation form where participants could rate the facilitator, to ensure that Question 7 would be answered to evaluate the ECTP as such. The statements were as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>No 21: “The facilitator illustrated and clarified points that were not clear or understood”.</i> ● <i>No 22: “The facilitator maintained a friendly and helpful manner throughout the training days”.</i> ● <i>No 23: “The facilitator kept the sessions alive and interesting”.</i> ● <i>No 24: “The facilitator summarised the contents covered in the different modules at the end of each training day”.</i>

Table 4.11 highlighted the objectives, procedures, results, recommendations and changes following the pilot study. These were applied to the ECTP in preparation for the main study.

4.8 FINAL DEVELOPMENT

Following the initial development (Stage 2a) and the subsequent pilot study (Stage 2b), final changes and adaptations were made based on the recommendations (Stage 2c).

4.9 SUMMARY

This chapter focussed on Phase 2, Stage 2a–c, which described in detail the refinement of the instruments that were used during the main study in Phase 3. The main aim of the study and the sub-aims for Phase 2, the development of the training programme, the measuring instrument and the training evaluation form were discussed. Stage 2a included the input from stakeholder groups and an expert panel on the ECTP, the measuring instrument and training evaluation form. In Stage 2b, the measuring instrument was pre-tested with police officers, after which adaptations and changes were made for the pilot study. The pilot study was followed by the finalisation of the ECTP and the training evaluation form for the main study. Stage 2c entailed the final compilation and refinement of the ECTP for the implementation during Phase 3.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Phase 3: Implementing and Evaluating the ECTP

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The schematic outline of the complete study is presented in Figure 5.1, highlighting Phase 3, which is the focus of this chapter. The chapter begins with the main aim and sub-aims of the study, followed by a discussion of the non-randomised pre-test post-test group design used in Phase 3. Next, a description of the setting, participant sampling, recruitment, selection, group assignment, participant description and group equivalence is given. The materials and procedures are discussed, including the ethical considerations and the results of the training evaluation. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument and the statistical methods used for data analysis.

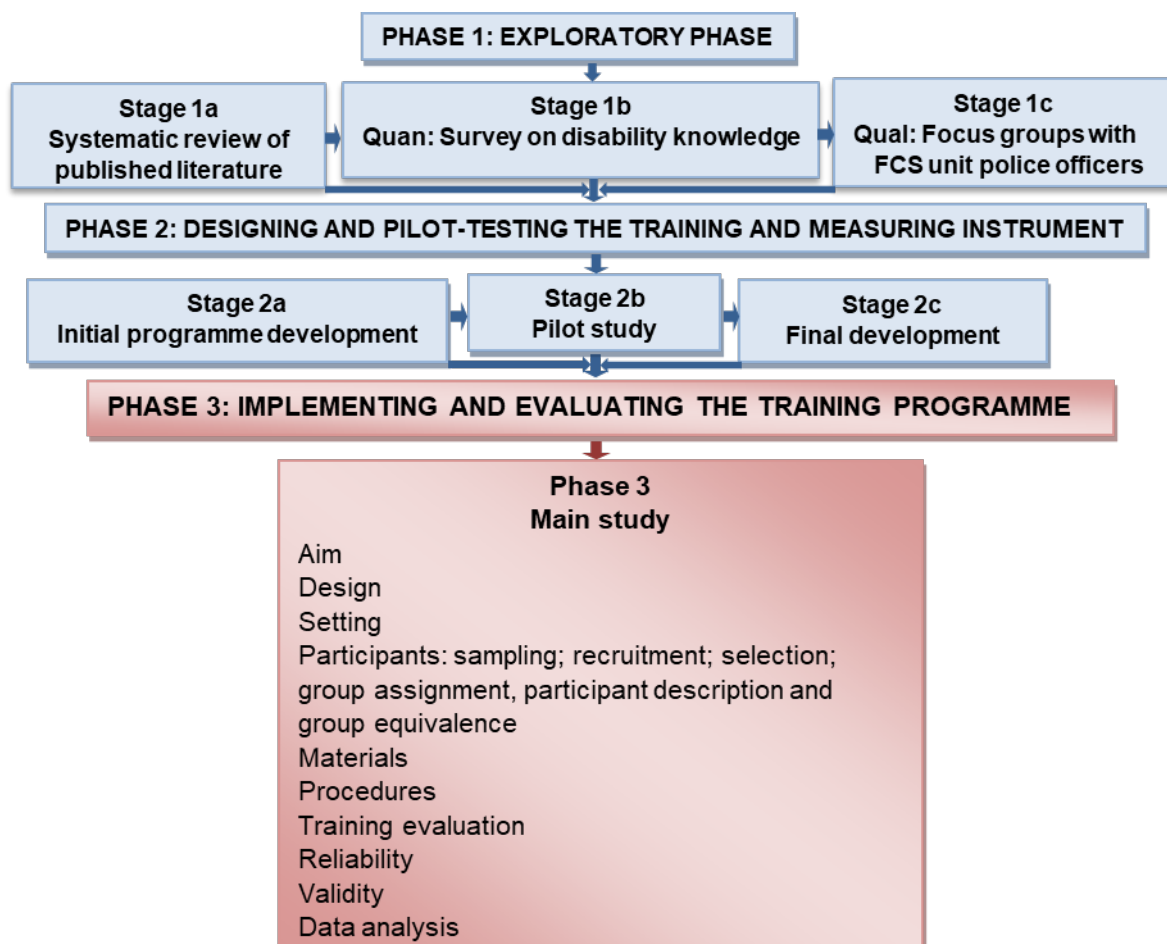


Figure 5.1: Schematic outline of study: Emphasis on Phase 3

5.2 AIMS

The overall aim of the study was divided into specific sub-aims related to the three distinct phases of the study.

5.2.1 Main Aim

The main aim of the study was to determine the effect of a custom-designed disability training programme on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of police officers when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

5.2.2 Sub-aims

In order to address the main aim and the design of the study, three sub-aims were formulated that are applicable to Phase 3:

- i) to determine the effect of the training programme on the knowledge of police officers regarding statement taking from persons with CCN (by investigating the interaction effect between time and group and the main effect of time between pre-test and post-test and the main effect of group as measured post-test);
- ii) to determine the effect of the training programme on the perceived skills of police officers regarding statement taking from persons with CCN (by investigating the interaction effect between time and group and the main effect of time between pre-test and post-test and the main effect of group as measured post-test); and
- iii) to determine the effect of the training programme on the attitudes of police officers regarding statement taking from persons with CCN (by investigating the interaction effect between time and group and the main effect of time between pre-test and post-test and the main effect of group as measured post-test).

5.3 DESIGN

Phase 3 of this study used a quasi-experimental design with a non-randomised pre-test post-test group design with an experimental and control group. Intervention studies such as the present one often does not randomly assign participants to the experimental group as this could prove to be impractical. In this study, the experimental and control groups were compiled in a non-randomised way and dependent variables were observed in the experimental and the

control groups pre-test and post-test (Pilot & Beck, 2008; Skidmore, 2008). The non-randomised control group pre-test post-test design is presented in Figure 5.2.

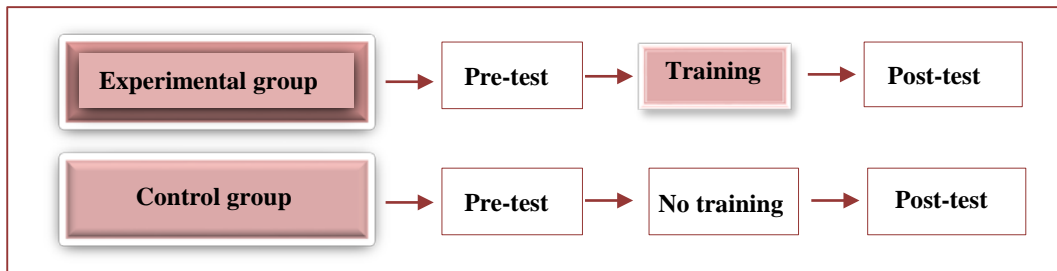


Figure 5.2: Non-randomised pre-test post-test group design (Adapted from Portney & Watkins, 2015)

Using a control group helps to account for threats to internal validity from historical trends, regression to the mean and the learning curve (Axelrod & Hayward, 2006; Onguewubuzie, 2000). This quasi-experimental design allows for many comparisons such as between groups and pre- to post-intervention in one group (Axelrod & Hayward, 2006; Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003). The statistical power can be increased by using the pre-test measure as a covariate to statistically equate the groups (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003; Portney & Watkins, 2015), as was done in the current study.

However, a non-randomised pre-test post-test group design also has some disadvantages. The main disadvantage is the potential for bias from confounding variables (Axelrod & Hayworth, 2006). For example, a unit commander could have decided to nominate his best performing officers for the experimental group to ensure that the training has the optimal opportunity to work, thereby increasing these police officers' productivity. With this design the researcher can never be sure that unmeasured or incorrectly measured variables (e.g. social, cultural, economic or educational variables) do not account for the apparent treatment effect that is observed (Axelrod & Hayward, 2006). More details on these aspects are provided in the reliability and validity section. As this study was designed with a pre-test post-test component, the results from this study can only be generalised to situations where the pre-test is administered. Another principle problem of this design is concerned with the participants' reactivity to pre-testing, which may have sensitised them to the topic of persons with disability.

This could have resulted in higher scores on the post-test in the control group even without any training having been administered (Beaumont, 2009).

5.4 DESCRIPTION OF THE SETTING

South Africa's nine provinces are shown in the geographical map (Map A) below. KwaZulu-Natal, the province where the study was conducted, is indicated with a dashed line.



Figure 5.3: Map A: Geographical boundaries of SA

5.4.1 SAPS Employee and FCS unit Member Numbers

The SAPS has a total of 194 730 employees. There are 1 140 police stations nationally serviced by 151 834 SAPS Act police officers of different ranks and 42 896 Public Service Act employees who make up the total number of SAPS employees (SAPS, 2015/2016).

5.4.2 Areas, Cluster Numbers and Police Stations



Figure 5.4: Map B: Areas of KwaZulu-Natal



Figure 5.5: Map C: Location of the Clusters that Participated in the Main Study

The participants for the main study were drawn from the FCS units across the KwaZulu-Natal province, highlighted in Map B (Figure 5.4). The province is divided into clusters, which refers to an identified number of police stations in a specific geographical area. The cluster is demarcated by the application of the criteria, norms and standards used to form a cluster. A cluster is managed by the cluster commander who oversees the whole cluster (SAPS, 2017). Although there are 17 clusters in KwaZulu-Natal, only 10 participated in the study and this is

indicated on Map C (Figure 5.5). The area of Ethekewini Inner South is divided into two clusters, namely Brighton Beach and Chatsworth, with a cluster commander each. The area of Ugu is divided into two clusters, namely Port Shepstone and Margate, with only one unit commander for both clusters. Currently, the 17 clusters in KwaZulu-Natal have a total of 342 FCS detectives and 14 forensic social workers. shown in this table. The areas, cluster numbers, stations and number of police officers per unit were supplied by the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Head Office authority letter 25/7/12/2/3 (307), dated 2017/11/18. The areas, cluster numbers and number of FCS detectives for the main study that participated in the main study are set out in Table 5.1 as per the protocol observed in the instruction from the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Head Office as to what the researcher could report in Table 5.1. Although participants from the areas of Ethekewini South (Cluster 6), Umlazi, Ilembe (Cluster 9), KwaDukuza and Umgungundlovo North (Cluster 11), also attended the training, detailed information on the number of unit members and forensic social workers were not supplied by the provincial head office.

Table 5.1:

Areas, Cluster Numbers, FCS unit, Stations and Number of Police Officers per Unit

Area	Cluster number	FCS unit	Stations in the cluster	Nr of police officers	Participants main study (N = 58)
Ethekewini	2	Durban Central	Berea, Durban Central, Durban North, Point	Data not available	Exp = 4 Control = 11
Ethekewini Inner North	3	Inanda	Greenwood Park, Inanda, Kwamashu, Newlands East, Ntuzuma, Sydenham	25	Exp = 2
Ethekewini Outer North	4	Phoenix	Phoenix, Tongaat, Verulam	14	Control = 7
Ethekewini Inner South	5	Brighton Beach	Brighton Beach, Cato Manor, Mayville, Montclair, Umbilo and Wentworth	14	Exp = 3 Control = 4
	5	Chatsworth	Bayview, Bellair, Chatsworth, Kwandengezi, Lamontville, Malvern, Marian Hill	22	Exp = 5 Control = 1
Ethekewini Outer South	6	Umlazi	Umlazi, Amanzimtoti, Bhekithemba, Folweni, Isipingo, Kwamakhuta, Umbumbulu, Umkomaas	Data not available	Exp = 3
Ethekewini Inner and Outer West	7	Pinetown	Hammarisdale, Hillcrest, Inchanga, KwaDabeka, Mpumalanga, Pinetown, Umsunduzi, Westville	15	Exp = 2 Control = 1
Ilembe	9	KwaDukuza	KwaDukuza, Glendale, Ndwedwe, Newark, Sundumbili, Umhlali, Nyoni, Mandeni, Maphumulo, Nsuze	Data not available	Exp = 2
Ugu	10	Port Shepstone	Port Shepstone, Mehlomyama	15	Exp = 3 Control = 5

Area	Cluster number	FCS unit	Stations in the cluster	Nr of police officers	Participants main study (N = 58)
	10	Margate	South Port, St Faiths, Hibberdene, Msinsini, Scottburgh, Dududu, Sawoti, Umzinto, Umkomaas, Ixopo, Highflats, Donnybrook, Creighton, Umzinkhulu Margate, Port Edward, Gamalakhe, Ezingoleni, Paddock	6	
Umgungundlovu North	11	Howick	Mountain Rise, Howick, Mooi River, Boston, Cramond, Dalton, Wartburg, Harburg, Impendle, Mpophomeni, New Hanover, Nottingham Road, Bishopstowe, Rietvlei	Data not available	Exp = 2
Umgungundlovu South	12	Pietermaritzburg	Pietermaritzburg, Alexandra Road, Plessislaer, Town Hill, Camperdown, Thornville, Hilton, Prestbury, Mid Illovo, Richmond, Taylors Halt	16	Exp = 3

Exp – Experimental group

As can be seen from Table 5.1, eleven cluster commanders nominated police officers for the experimental group, bringing the total to 29 police officers. However, not all of the 33 nominated police officers attended the training programme due to unforeseen work-related matters. Of the three participants nominated by Inanda (Cluster 3), only two attended. Similarly, of the three nominated by Pinetown (Cluster 7), only two attended, and of the three nominated by KwaDukuza (Cluster 9), only two attended. Howick (Cluster 11) nominated three officers of whom only two attended. Six cluster commanders nominated police officers for the control group, which resulted in a total of 29 police officers. All nominated officers participated.

Although the researcher initially attempted to recruit specific clusters for either the experimental or the control group in an attempt to avoid possible data contamination by officers from the two groups discussing the ECTP with each other, this was logistically not possible. In an attempt to reduce potential contamination as much as possible, participants were requested not to discuss the training with their colleagues until all data collection had been completed.

5.5 PARTICIPANTS

5.5.1 Sampling

Purposive sampling was used in this study as participants from a specific setting were deliberately selected for the information they could provide, that could not be obtained from other sources (Maxwell, 1997). Their selection was based on a specific purpose rather than randomly (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010) as police officers had to have specific qualities, namely be FCS unit members as discussed in Section 5.5.3. It was a deliberate selection of participants for their knowledge and experience in sexual and violent crimes against victims from vulnerable groups such as persons with disability. The sample size was set according to the recommendations of at least 30 participants per group (Creswell, 2015; Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009).

5.5.2 Recruitment

An e-mail was sent to the head of the FCS unit at the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Head Office with all the relevant documentation outlining the purpose of the study and the permission granted by the SAPS Head Office, Gauteng (Appendix A), for the research to be undertaken within the KwaZulu-Natal FCS units (Appendix B). Thereafter, the provincial head office of the FCS unit sent out an e-mail to all the FCS unit commanders requesting them to nominate police officers to attend the training. Next, commanders nominated officers to attend the two-day training programme based on their availability, work schedules, court appearances, other workshop requests and leave days. In cases where the unit commanders could not release the police officers to attend the training, they nominated the officers for the control group at their own discretion.

5.5.3 Selection of Participants

The participants for the main study were selected from the FCS units across KwaZulu-Natal. The selection criteria are set out in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2:

Participant Selection Criteria

Criteria	Method	Justification
Active SAPS members working in the FCS units in KwaZulu-Natal.	Participants were nominated by unit commanders.	FCS unit police officers investigate sexual and violent crimes against persons with disabilities as they have additional specific training in taking statements from vulnerable populations (SAPS, 2016a).
Speak and write English.	Participants indicated their language abilities on the biographical questionnaire.	Court records are only written in English (Chabalala, 2017). It is therefore assumed that all police officers are proficient in speaking, reading and writing English when they take a statement from a victim of crime. Training was conducted in English.
Minimum of two years work experience in the FCS units.	Participants indicated the years of experience in the FCS unit on the biographical questionnaire.	Participants with more than two years of experience should have reasonable knowledge in statement taking and investigating crimes against vulnerable populations (SAPS, 2016a).

5.5.4 Participant Assignment

This study made use of a pre-existing group, namely FCS unit members (Dimitrov & Rumhill, 2003) and participants were non-randomly assigned by the cluster or unit commanders to either attend the two-day training programme or to form part of the control group. There was a total number of 33 police officers nominated for the training. However, on the morning of Day 1, only 29 police officers arrived for the training. The total cohort of 29 returned on Day 2, so there was no attrition of participants. Twenty-nine police officers were nominated for the control group, and all nominated participants completed both the pre-and post-test. The descriptive information for both the experimental group and control group is set out in Table 5.3. This non-random assignment ultimately determined which police officers were in the experimental group and which were in the control group and is shown in Figure 5.6.

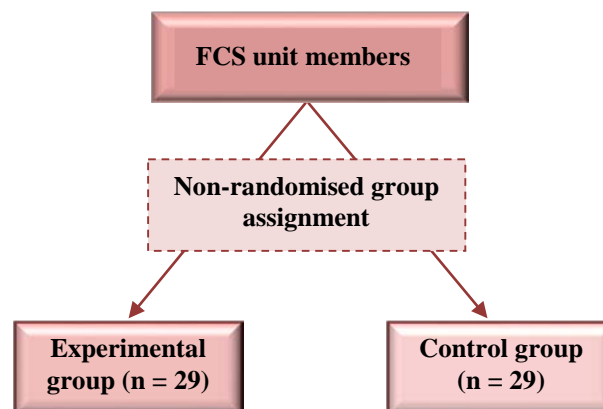
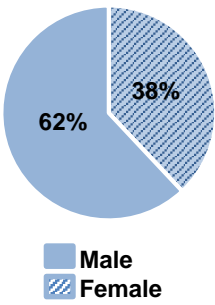
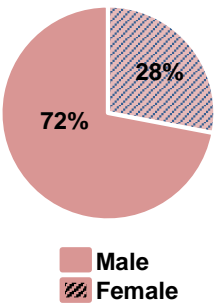
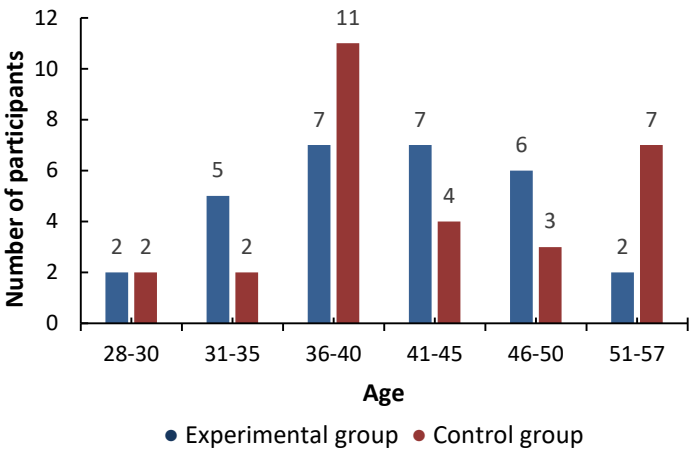


Figure 5.6: Participant Assignment

The descriptive information pertaining to the participants for both the experimental group and control group is set out in Table 5.3.

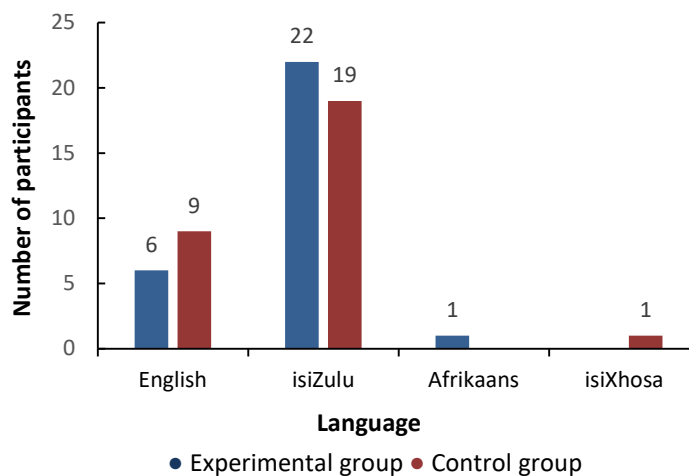
Table 5.3:

Participant Description: Experimental Group (n = 29) and Control Group (n = 29)

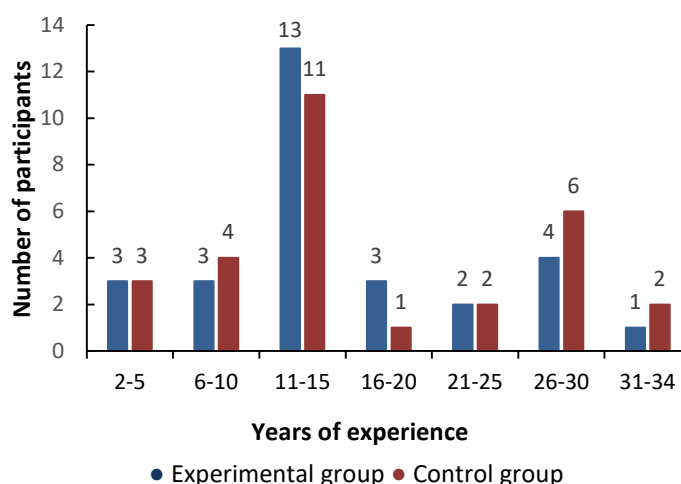
Variable and description	Results (N = 58)																						
<p>Gender:</p> <p>Of the 58 participants, 19 (33%) were female and 39 (67%) were male, resulting in a male:female ratio of 2:1. Gender equity in the SAPS is at a ratio of 65/35 (male:female). The sample was therefore relatively representative of police officers in the SAPS (SAPS, 2015).</p>	<p>Experimental group</p>  <p>62% Male 38% Female</p>	<p>Control group</p>  <p>72% Male 28% Female</p>																					
<p>Age:</p> <p>For both the experimental and control groups the ages ranged from 28 years to 57 years. The average age was 41.65 years. Almost a third of the participants (31%) were in the 36- to 40-year-old category, followed by 19% in the 41- to 45-year-old category.</p>	 <p>Number of participants</p> <p>Age</p> <p>● Experimental group ● Control group</p> <table border="1"> <caption>Age Distribution Data</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Age Group</th> <th>Experimental group</th> <th>Control group</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>28-30</td> <td>2</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>31-35</td> <td>5</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>36-40</td> <td>7</td> <td>11</td> </tr> <tr> <td>41-45</td> <td>7</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>46-50</td> <td>6</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>51-57</td> <td>2</td> <td>7</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Age Group	Experimental group	Control group	28-30	2	2	31-35	5	2	36-40	7	11	41-45	7	4	46-50	6	3	51-57	2	7
Age Group	Experimental group	Control group																					
28-30	2	2																					
31-35	5	2																					
36-40	7	11																					
41-45	7	4																					
46-50	6	3																					
51-57	2	7																					

Variable and description**Results (N = 58)****First language:**

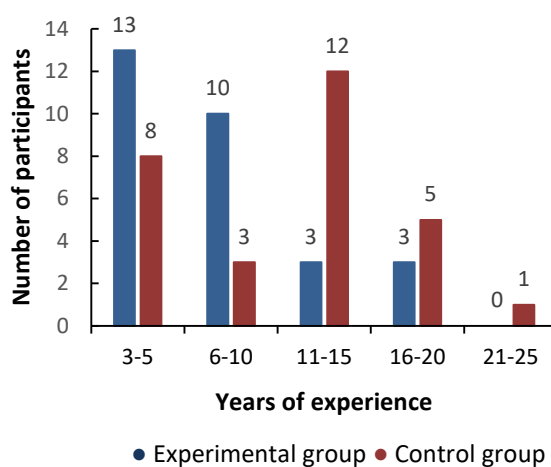
The majority of the participants in both groups indicated that isiZulu was their first language (71%), followed by English (26%) and one participant each spoke Afrikaans and isiXhosa (2%). The police officers' first language reflects the first language of the majority of the population (79%) of the KwaZulu-Natal province ((BusinessTech, 2018).

**Years of experience in the SAPS:**

Overall the mean years of experience was 16.24 years, with a range from less than 5 to 34 years. There was an equal distribution of participants who had between 2–5 years (10%) and 21–25 years (7%) experience. Almost half of the participants had between 11 and 20 years (48%) experience.

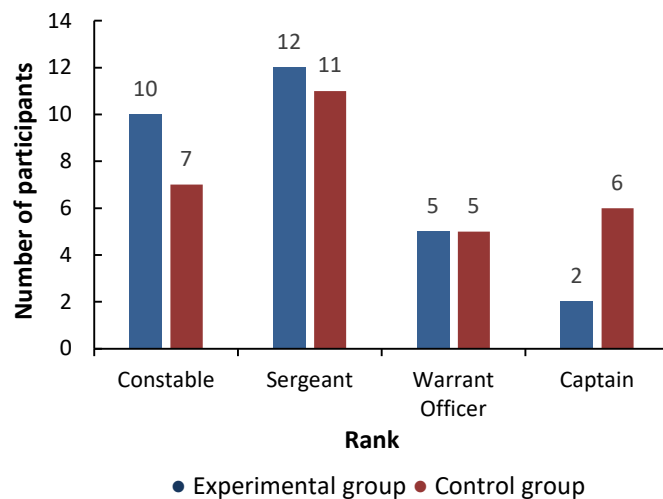
**Years of experience in FCS unit:**

The overall mean years of experience was 9.58 years with a range of 3 to 25 years. Most of the participants had between 12 and 13 years of experience, with one participant who had 25 years of experience.

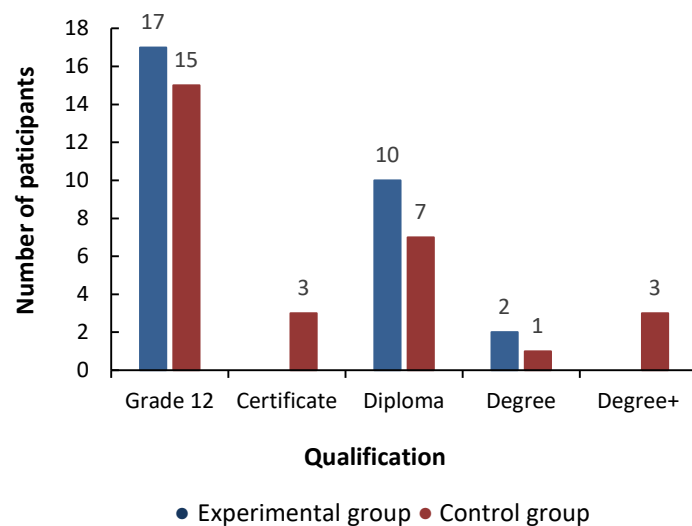


Variable and description**Results (N = 58)****Rank:**

The participants ranged from the lowest rank of constable to the highest rank of captain for both groups. Most of the participants (40%) held the rank of sergeant, followed by the rank of constable (29%), warrant officer (17%) and then the rank of captain (14%).

**Highest qualification:**

Slightly over half of the participants (55%) in both groups had obtained a Grade 12, the minimum qualification for police officers. Twenty-six participants (45%) had a certificate, degree or diploma of which 14 participants (24%) held a diploma in policing. In the SAPS, 25% of employees have post-Grade 12 qualifications (SAPS, 2015).

**5.5.5 Group Equivalence**

In an effort to determine the comparability of the experimental group and the control group, functional equivalence was determined for the variables of sex, language, age, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS, years of experience in the FCS unit and rank. The group equivalence was determined through single factor ANOVA and is presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4:

Group Equivalence

Variables	Description	Experimental group (n=29)	Control group (n=29)	p-values
Gender	Female	11	8	0.41019
	Male	18	21	
Language - First language	isiZulu	22	19	0.14116
	English	6	9	
	Afrikaans	1	0	
Second languages	isiXhosa	0	1	0.24424
	English	23	20	
	isiZulu	3	2	
Additional languages	Afrikaans	5	2	1.00000
	isiXhosa	12	6	
	Siswati	1	0	
	Ndebele	0	1	
	Afrikaans	2	6	
Mean years age	28–57 years	40.69	42.62	0.32949
Qualification	Grade 12	17	15	0.74401
	Certificate Diploma	0	3	
	Degree	10	9	
	Degree +	2	5	
		0	2	
Mean years in SAPS	5–34 years	15.38	17.10	0.44052
Mean years in FCS unit	5–25 years	7.48	11.68	0.00319*
Rank	Constable	10	7	0.12618
	Sergeant	12	11	
	Warrant Officer	5	5	
	Captain	2	6	

*p < 0.05

Results show that there were no statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups with regard to the six different variables, namely sex, language, age, qualification, years in the SAPS and rank on the 5% level of confidence ($p < 0.05$). This was despite the fact that non-randomisation was used to assign participants to the different groups. Only one variable, namely years of experience in the FCS unit, showed a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control group, with participants in the control group having more years of experience. Years of experience in the FCS unit may influence results on the measuring instrument due to the knowledge and skills already possessed by these police officers. Yet, it must be taken into consideration that these qualities may also be found in any of the less experienced police officers (Donovan, 2017). Thus, years of experience in the FCS unit may not necessarily have advantaged police officers in the control group.

5.6 MATERIALS

Materials have been described in detail in Chapter 4 and will therefore not be repeated in this section. All participants in the experimental group completed a consent form (Appendix L), the biographical form and the pre-test (Appendix I) prior to training and received a training pack that included a note book; a black pen; envelopes with various cards used in the communication activities; a blank piece of A4 paper; a set of stickers; and a packet with various sweets. All participants received a training manual that included the introduction and all three modules of the ECTP. The post-test (Appendix I, excluding Section A of the measuring instrument, the biographical information) was completed at the end of Day 2 of the ECTP. Participants completed the training evaluation form at the end of Day 1 and Day 2 of training (Appendix K).

Participants in the control group completed a consent form (Appendix M) prior to the completion of the biographical information and pre-test (Appendix I) of the measuring instrument on Day 1. The post-test (Appendix I, excluding Section A of the measuring instrument) was completed on the morning of Day 3.

5.7 PROCEDURES

5.7.1 Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained institutional approval from the SAPS (Appendix A) and from the Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Humanities at the University of Pretoria (Appendix C) prior to conducting the study. Ethical considerations for Phase 3 of the study included the following principles, namely: i) the principle of free and informed consent; ii) the principle of confidentiality; iii) the principle of veracity; and iv) the principle of justice and inclusiveness.

5.7.1.1 *The principle of free and informed consent*

The researcher ensured that participants had a complete understanding of the purpose and methods to be used in the training. Participants were informed of what was expected of them during the training, their involvement in activities, and any risks involved (Best & Kahn, 2006). Self-disclosure as a technique was discussed with the participants as it was used in the communication activities where participants were encouraged to discuss their feelings, attitudes, and experiences. As not all participants may be comfortable with self-disclosure, the

researcher made sure that participants understood that they had the right to withdraw from any of these activities or from the study at any time without any negative consequence (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011). Direct consent was the preferred manner in this study as agreement was obtained directly from the participants involved in the study (Drew, Hardman & Hosp, 2007).

5.7.1.2 *The principle of confidentiality*

The researcher took precautions to safeguard participants' privacy and to protect sensitive information. Collecting and analysing data concerning the participants' attitudes, beliefs and opinions about persons with disability, both as individuals or as a group, calls their right to privacy into question (Drew et al., 2007). Confidentiality and privacy were ensured by using a numeric coded system to protect the identity of each participant. In obtaining sensitive information of this nature, the researcher informed and ensured participants that all data collected would be held in strict confidence, removed from any public view or knowledge and stored at the Centre for AAC in Pretoria (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004). Furthermore, data is only reported at a group level, not at individual level, further protecting individual identities of participants.

5.7.1.3 *The principle of veracity*

This principle places an obligation on the researcher to be open and honest about the research. In an effort to ensure that the principle of truth telling was adhered to, the researcher explained the relevant information to the participants to enable them to make the choice to participate in the study or to withdraw (Drew et al., 2007). No information that could have affected this decision was withheld or omitted. All information was explained in a clear and easily understood English and all information not understood was explained by the researcher. All practices pertaining to this study were planned and conducted in an open and transparent way.

5.7.1.4 *The principle of justice and inclusiveness*

Taking into consideration the scope and objectives of the main study, the researcher indicated to the KwaZulu-Natal provincial head of the FCS units that all police officers working in the relevant FCS units had the opportunity to be selected as participants for the ECTP. If they met the selection criteria (see Table 5.2), no participant would be excluded on the basis of attributes such as language, culture, sex, or qualification (Orb et al., 2000). Further

fairness and equity were achieved for all participants in that participants had to be sworn in and in-service police officers.

5.7.2 Experimental Group and Control Group Venues

The same venue used for the pilot study was used for the main study. The room was again set up in a U-shape as this proved to contribute to successful learning as per the pilot study results. The projector and screen were positioned in such a way that all participants could clearly see the PowerPoint presentation. The facilitator and co-facilitator were seated at a table visible to all the participants for the duration of the training on both days. This set-up allowed for the facilitators to move around freely among the participants and was conducive for an interactional learning environment.

The venues for the control groups were at the offices of the various FCS units and a room was made available to conduct the process. There were chairs available for the participants to sit on and these were arranged differently in each setting according to the space available, but in such a way that all the participants could see the facilitator and could not copy each other's responses on the measuring instrument.

5.7.3 Experimental Group Procedures

On Day 1, tea and refreshments were served on arrival and the day commenced at 8h00 after participants had completed an attendance register. The attendance register was also signed at the start of Day 2. Participants completed a copy of the consent form prior to training on Day 1. Participants were provided with a unique numeric participant number. This step was taken to ensure the privacy of the participants and ensured that the researcher could link the completed pre-test and post-test to each of the participants at the end of the ECTP. Each participant received a copy of the measuring instrument, after which the researcher explained the various sections of the measuring instrument to the participants. The researcher was available during the pre-test administration to control for participants talking or copying from one another, and to answer any potential questions the participants could have had regarding the measuring instrument. Participants started with Section A of the measuring instrument and worked at their own pace and progressed from one section of the measuring instrument to the next. The participants completed the measuring instrument in a time slot of ± 40 minutes, after which training on the ECTP commenced. Participants were requested not to discuss the training

with other police officers outside of the experimental group to avoid possible data contamination.

The ECTP commenced at 8h45. The introduction to human rights, policies and legislation, the SAPS Code of Conduct, the White Paper on Human Rights Principles of Policing and the eight principles of a credible statement were completed before the tea break at 10h00. At 10h15 Module 1 was introduced and completed before the lunch break at 13h00. Module 2 was introduced after the lunch break. As the number of participants were more than in the pilot study, the researcher adjusted the time schedule accordingly as the case studies and question-and-answer sessions led to much longer and detailed discussions. This meant that a part of Module 2 could not be completed on Day 1 and had to be continued on the morning of Day 2. At 15h30 the participants completed the training evaluation form, after which the participants dispersed for Day 1 at 16h00.

At the commencement of Day 2, participants enjoyed tea and refreshments on arrival and Module 2 commenced at 8h15. The latter part of Module 2 concluded at 10h30 when a tea break was called. At 10h45 Module 3 was introduced, and this took participants up to the lunch break at 13h00. The participants and facilitator agreed to a shorter lunch break to ensure that all the material in Module 3 had been covered. Lunch ended at 13h30. Module 3 was concluded by 15h15. This allowed ample time for the participants to complete the post-test questionnaire and the training evaluation form at the end of Day 2. Participants dispersed at 16h15.

5.7.4 Control Group Procedures

A unit commander suggested that the measuring instrument be distributed after the morning meeting at the various FCS units. In order to allow at least 30 hours between the pre-test and post-test, similar to the main study, it was decided to collect data on Day 1 and Day 3 for the control group. The researcher distributed the measuring instrument after the morning meeting on Day 1 and Day 3 to ensure the control group participants were available to complete the pre-and post-test. This ensured that there was no attrition of participants.

The researcher arrived at the various FCS units on the morning of Day 1 and Day 3 to distribute the measuring instrument. These sessions started after the morning meeting at approximately 8h00 and concluded at approximately 9h00. What was expected of the participants was explained in detail. The participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time without any negative

consequence to them. All participants completed a consent form prior to the completion of the measuring instrument pre-test. As mentioned earlier, participants were also provided with a unique number to ensure the privacy of each participant and this also ensured that the researcher could link the completed pre-test and post-test to each of the participants for the control group at the end of Day 3. Each participant received a copy of the measuring instrument, after which the researcher explained each of the sections of the measuring instrument to the participants. The researcher was available during the administration to control for participants talking or copying from one another and to answer any questions the participants had regarding the measuring instrument. Participants started with Section A of the measuring instrument on Day 1 and worked at their own pace and progressed from one section of the measuring instrument to the next. On Day 3, only Sections B to D were completed. The participants completed the measuring instrument in about 25 to 55 minutes.

5.7.5 Participant Evaluation of the ECTP

At the end of both Day 1 and Day 2 of the training, the 29 participants in the experimental group completed the ECTP training evaluation form. The responses pertaining to the programme objectives, programme materials, programme content, effects of the results and the facilitator, were scored on a 4-point Likert scale of 1 = *strongly disagree*; 2 = *disagree*; 3 = *agree* and 4 = *strongly agree*. All statements were worded positively. Therefore, a higher score (3 or above) indicated a positive experience for participants. Questions 25 to 28 and question 31 were open-ended questions, whereas questions 29 and 30 were closed-ended questions. The results are presented in Table 5.5.

The effectiveness of the ECTP was measured according to the New World Kirkpatrick Four-Level Training evaluation model (Kirkpatrick et al., 2016) as discussed and applied in Chapter 4. The reaction level (Level 1) measured how participants felt about the training. This included aspects such as how well the training was received and how participants reacted to the training programme, the degree to which they were actively involved in and contributed to the learning experience and the relevance of what they have learned. The learning level (Level 2) measured the levels of knowledge, skills, and attitude gained through the training programme. A pre-test and post-test measured the learning that took place over the two-day ECTP. This included participants' knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking, perceived knowledge of statement taking, perceived skills in statement taking and attitudes

towards persons with disability. Table 5.5 shows the results from the participants evaluation of the ECTP.

Table 5.5:

Results from the ECTP Training Evaluation

No	Statement	Level	Day1 (N = 29)		Day 2 (N = 29)	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Programme Objectives						
1	The objectives were clearly outlined	Level 1	3.28	0.65	3.38	0.50
2	The outlined objectives were met	Level 1	3.34	0.56	3.44	0.51
Programme Material						
3	The language used was easy to understand	Level 1	3.38	0.56	3.59	0.50
4	The material was easy to navigate	Level 1	3.34	0.67	3.55	0.51
5	The programme followed a planned sequence	Level 1	3.24	0.87	3.52	0.51
Programme Content						
6	The content was easy to understand	Level 1	3.52	0.51	3.41	0.50
7	Content relating to attitude, knowledge, and skills were clearly defined	Level 1	3.55	0.57	3.45	0.51
8	Definitions to explain concepts were adequate	Level 1	3.41	0.51	3.41	0.57
9	Communication activities were relevant for each module	Level 1	3.00	0.96	3.45	0.51
10	Case studies were appropriate for each module	Level 1	3.31	0.54	3.50	0.51
11	The class discussion time was adequate	Level 1	3.03	0.95	3.41	0.57
12	The question answer time was adequate	Level 1	3.14	0.70	3.38	0.56
13	There were more than enough opportunities for me to demonstrate my knowledge	Level 1	3.10	0.56	3.45	0.57
14	There were more than enough opportunities for me to demonstrate my skills	Level 1	3.10	0.82	3.50	0.60
15	Communication boards were clearly set out	Level 1	3.21	0.50	3.55	0.51
16	Communications boards were easy to understand	Level 1	3.20	0.80	3.52	0.51
Effects of Results						
17	The information I learned will improve my effectiveness	Level 2	3.45	0.56	3.60	0.50
18	The information I learned will improve my results	Level 2	3.41	0.57	3.52	0.51
19	The information I learned improved my understanding of the subject	Level 2	3.50	0.51	3.55	0.51
20	I will recommend the programme to others with similar needs to mine to attend this programme	Level 1	3.41	0.57	3.50	0.81
Facilitator						
21	The facilitator illustrated and clarified points that were not understood or clear	Level 1	3.55	0.51	3.45	0.60
22	The facilitator maintained a friendly and helpful manner throughout the training days	Level 1	3.59	0.50	3.52	0.51
23	The facilitator kept the sessions alive and interesting	Level 1	3.52	0.51	3.52	0.51
24	The facilitator summarised the contents covered in the different modules at the end of each training day	Level 1	3.50	0.51	3.50	0.51

Responses were marked on a 4-point Likert scale from 1 to 4, with 2.5 being midrange and a higher score indicating greater levels of agreement, while scores of 2 and lower would

indicate disagreement. The results from Table 5.5 show that the mean score for individual items for Day 2 was higher than for Day 1, indicating greater satisfaction over the two-day training programme. Statements with the lowest means were related to time as a factor during the two-day training programme and statements with the highest mean related to the information learned as increasing effectiveness on the job.

For Day 1 and Day 2 combined, Question 25, “What did you like best about the programme?” elicited the following responses: “learning Sign Language”; “how to communicate with persons with disability”; “the communication model was very good”; “information was clear and easy to understand”; “explanations were easy to understand and in simple terms”; “learning about human rights”; “presentation, tools and activities were very interesting and informative”; “communication and interaction between the facilitator and amongst each other were good”; “facilitator explanations were very clear and spontaneous”; “learning about barriers and facilitators”; and “how to make use of communication partners” and “co-facilitator and to learn from her about communicating with a person with a CCN”. The co-facilitator was a person with CCN who used AAC, as per the suggestions from Phase 1 and 2 of the study that a person with disability should be included in the training programme as a facilitator.

In response to Question 26, “What did you like least about the programme?”, 23 participants did not answer the question on Day 1, while 22 participants left it blank on Day 2. Of the remaining participants who did comment, two commented on Day 1, and five commented on Day 2. They felt that although the course was well managed, it should have been presented over a longer time span to allow for more time to work through the modules and topics presented. On Day 1, one participant responded that “I did not like the teamwork and the activities” and two participants felt they needed more time to equip themselves with the methods of communication. On Day 2, one participant commented that he/she did not enjoy the manual signs from SASL, while one participant commented that the other participants did not adhere to the class rules. On Day 2, 22 participants did not comment on this question.

In many instances the participants who stated that the time frame for the course was too short in response to Question 26, gave identical responses to Question 27, “What do you think should be added to the programme?” Other comments included that more videos, case studies and criminal case studies ($n = 6$) and more SASL examples ($n = 5$) should be included. A

number of participants did not comment on this question for Day 1, ($n = 15$) and for Day 2, ($n = 12$).

The response to Question 28, “What should be taken out of the programme?” was universally responded to as “nothing” ($n = 29$) by participants on both the training days.

The responses to Question 29, “What are your views on the handouts that you received?” over the two days of training, participants indicated that the handouts were just right, very relevant and satisfactory, although five participants felt there were too many.

Responses to Question 30, “What are your views on the PowerPoint slides that were used?” over the two days of training revealed that the participants felt that the slides were very relevant ($n = 21$) and just right ($n = 20$), although two participants felt there were too many and one felt that there were too few.

Question 31 asked participants “What other comments are there about the training programme that have not been covered, that you would like to make?” Comments were varied and mirrored the content of training, namely: “The training is relevant to the SAPS”; “It is a very informative training programme and influential”; “It should be circulated to all government departments”; “Client Service Centre to be trained as front runners”; “Prosecutors should attend a course like this”; “SAPS to adhere to human rights”; “I learned what to call persons with disability”; “I am transformed”; “I gained good knowledge, skills and courage”, and “The training programme was very good, clear and straight to the point”.

5.8 RELIABILITY

5.8.1 Instrument Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the consistency, stability and repeatability of participants’ responses to an instrument. It ensures that the participants interpreted questions in the way that the researcher intended and that irrelevant items had been excluded or changed. A well-designed measuring instrument and the proper execution of the data collected increased the levels of reliability and validity in this study (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). The researcher developed a custom-designed measuring instrument to measure knowledge and perceived skills as there were no existing measuring instruments available that could be used. Section C of the measuring instrument used the existing ATDP-R to measure the attitudes of police officers

towards persons with disability. A questionnaire was also developed to evaluate the training (training evaluation form). These instruments were field tested and adapted following a rigorous pre-testing (see Chapter 4, Table 4.8) with police officers in the pilot study (see Chapter 4, Table 4.11).

As the measuring instrument included an open-ended and closed-ended response format, it was more difficult to code the open-ended responses. The pilot study assisted in ensuring that the scoring rubric that was developed was viable for use in the main study. For Section B of the measuring instrument, which consisted of open-ended questions (Questions 1-3 and 9) and allowed for free-form answers (answers in their own words), interrater reliability was used to increase the consistency of how responses were categorised (Farrell, 2016). By arriving at consensus decisions regarding response categorisation, interrater reliability was increased, and confidence was placed in the coding of results as per the data entry reliability as set out in Section 5.8.2. The Kuder-Richardson-20 (KR-20) as an alpha analysis was not used to calculate reliability as these questions did not have a dichotomous response scale of yes/no or true/false. Cronbach's alpha was not used as an alpha analysis to calculate reliability as the items did not have several response options (for example 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

The ATDP-R scale was used to measure participants' attitudes toward persons with disability. As the ATDP-R scale (Yuker et al., 1970) is a reliable scale, with a median stability coefficient within the range of +.71 to +.83. The ATDP-R seems to be sufficiently reliable and sufficiently correlated with appropriate measures when used with groups of participants to understand the dynamics of attitudes towards persons with disability. Test-retest reliability was not undertaken as the participants in the experimental group had received training on the ECTP, which may have affected the measurement of their attitudes towards persons with disability. In the control group, the priming effect may have resulted in the slightly higher post-test scores from the pre-test scores. In the decades that have passed, there have been changes in how society views persons with disability. Thus, the ATDP-R might not cover aspects relevant to today's norms or culture as people are interacting more and more with persons with disability in for example work environments, social networking and in using the internet (Lam et al., 2010). As the ATDP-R scale uses old terminology, for example "disabled people" and "physically normal people" the language for this study was changed to person first (as discussed in Section 4.5.3.3.). The ATDP-R scale may not be reliable across cultures and populations and

that adaptations such as testing in different settings and the development of different language versions may be necessary for the use of the ATDP-R scale.

The Kuder-Richardson-20 (KR-20) as an alpha analysis was used to calculate the reliability of Section D as it consisted of binary questions (Correct = 1; Incorrect = 0). In social science, the acceptable α value is .60 (Ghazali, 2008). However, there are different reports about the acceptable values of alpha, ranging from 0.70 to 0.95 (Cortina, 1993). This section consisted of 10 statements that participants in both the experimental and control groups answered pre-test and post-test. The value for $\alpha = .457$, pre-test ($n = 58$) and the value for $\alpha = .507$, post-test ($n = 58$). The mean score for all 10 statements pre-test was 3.96 and the $SD = 1.89$, and the mean score for all 10 statements post-test was 4.51 and the $SD = 2.07$. The mean and standard deviations for all 10 statements pre-test and post-test are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6:

Kuder-Richardson (KR-20) for Applied Knowledge of Statement taking from Persons with CCN

Statement	Pre-test (N = 58)		Post-test (N =58)	
	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation
S1	.6379	.48480	.5690	.49955
S2	.2241	.42066	.4310	.49955
S3	.2759	.45085	.4483	.50166
S4	.4138	.49681	.4310	.49955
S5	.1897	.39545	.2586	.44170
S6	.2586	.44170	.2759	.45085
S7	.3276	.47343	.5172	.50407
S8	.3276	.47343	.3793	.48945
S9	.7414	.44170	.7586	.43166
S10	.5690	.49955	.4483	.50166

Correlations of each statement with each other statement in the pre-test and post-test showed negative correlations between the following statements:

- vii) S1 has a negative correlation with S2, S4, S8 and S9.
- viii) S2 has a negative correlation with S1 and S10.
- ix) S3 has a negative correlation with S8.
- x) S4 has a negative correlation with S1, S7 and S10.
- xi) S5 has a negative correlation with S8 and S10.
- xii) S6 has a negative correlation with S9.
- xiii) S7 has a negative correlation with S4.
- xiv) S8 has a negative correlation with S1, S3, S5 and S10.

- xv) S9 has a negative correlation with S1, S6 and S10.
- xvi) S10 has a negative correlation with S2, S4, S5, S8 and S9.

Even with the deletion of a statement on the scale, the alpha level did not increase much. Thus, when interpreting the Cronbach alpha on the applied knowledge of statement taking it is suggested that the “rule of thumb for the listed estimates” be applied to results (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). A high level of α may indicate that the items in the test are highly correlated, however, α is also sensitive to the number of items in a test (Drost, 2011; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The low value for α in this study (pre-test = 0.457 and post-test = 0.507) may have been affected by: i) the difficulty of the statements presented; ii) that there were not enough statements in this section (only 10 statements were presented in this section); iii) that participants may have been guessing the correct answers; iv) that participants may have skipped a statement inadvertently, or v) that the low α resulted from conceptual heterogeneity (the items measured different things) rather than low reliability (Drost, 2011; Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006).

5.8.2 Data Entry Reliability

Double data entry of all data is the ideal situation to ensure reliability. However, this was not a feasible option in this study given time limitations and qualified people required to do so. The researcher entered all the raw data onto Microsoft Excel Spreadsheets. A research assistant checked 41% of the entered data for reliability. The responses for twelve participants across both groups were checked. This included Sections B, C and D of the measuring instrument. The research assistant checked the responses on the participants’ forms item by item to the responses recorded by the researcher for each of the twelve participants in both groups and the percentages of agreement were calculated.

According to Landis and Koch (1977), a value range of between 80%–100% indicates a substantial and almost perfect agreement level. The level of agreement was calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage agreement} = \frac{\text{Number of agreements}}{\text{Total number of items (50) x participants (12) = 600}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

The results for the data entry reliability for the twelve participants of both the groups pre-test and post-test, are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7:

Inter-rater Reliability Agreement of Item Responses

Test	Experimental group (N = 12)	Control group (N = 12)
Pre-test	$\frac{591}{600} = 98.5\%$	$\frac{589}{600} = 98.71\%$
Post-test	$\frac{594}{600} = 99\%$	$\frac{593}{600} = 98.83\%$

The overall results of the agreement on item responses between the raters are regarded as a sufficient benchmark for the reliability of data entries as the values indicate an almost perfect level of agreement. Items where disagreement occurred were discussed and the raters came to an agreement on adapting some of these items.

5.9 VALIDITY

Validity is concerned with the quality and accuracy of the data collected and the analysis used to explain the data (Denscombe, 2010; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). Many group design experiments aim for conclusions to be drawn about cause and effect relationships. However, to do so, they need to rule out alternative explanations. Thus, before the researcher could infer any causal relationships between variables, opposing hypotheses had to be controlled for. Only the relevant validity aspects to this study are discussed in the sections to follow.

5.9.1 Instrument Validity

5.9.1.1 Content validity

Content validity was established by means of the input from the SAPS stakeholder group and the healthcare expert panel as to the appearance, relevance and representativeness of the items on the measuring instrument and the training evaluation form. This entailed the rigorous checking of the language used in both these instruments, the content area, the proper sequence of questions and that the questions were relevant to the study (Burton & Mazerolle, 2011; Siegle, 2015). The content validity was further established and strengthened by the pilot study and the subsequent revisions.

5.9.1.2 Construct validity

Construct validity was necessary in this study as it entailed the construction of a new measurement instrument and the revision of an existing measurement instrument namely the ATPD Scale (Yuker et al., 1970). Psychometric properties are important as the soundness of the method has an obvious impact on the validity of conclusions drawn (Antonak & Livneh, 1988). Evidence for validity of the ATDP scale is based largely upon construct validity. Construct validity seeks to confirm a series of predictions pertaining to the relationship of the variable being measured to other variables. Valid measuring instruments represent an adequate operational definition of attitudes towards persons with disability (Yuker et al., 1970). In presenting the correlates of such attitudes, a clearer picture of the meaning of the attitudes and the utilisation of such measures in practice and research may be obtained. These discussions serve to illustrate the validity of the ATDP as a measuring instrument (Yuker et al., 1970). Results obtained with other attitude measures are then comparable to those obtained with ATDP and these results can be interpreted as additional indications of the validity of the ATDP (Yuker et al., 1970).

Knowledge, skills and attitudes were set out consistently with theoretical definitions in the literature, reflecting the context in which the constructs were applied. Construct validity was further established through the SAPS stakeholder group and the healthcare expert panel in that they assisted the researcher to establish the degree to which the measuring instrument and training evaluation form correlated with the training programme under investigation. The measuring instrument, the ECTP and the evaluation form was pilot-tested before the main training was presented to further strengthen the construct validity. This process of validation provided the researcher with confidence that the measuring instrument and training evaluation form accurately measured what it was intended to measure. It also allowed for the researcher to draw inferences from the results of the SAPS stakeholder group and the healthcare expert panel that the measuring instrument and training evaluation form were meaningful and appropriate for the study (Burton & Mazerolle, 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

5.9.2 Internal Validity

Threats to an experiment's internal validity may involve the following factors: history; maturation; testing; selection bias; mortality; statistical regression to the mean, and the

interaction of these effects with selection (Beaumont, 2009; Campbell, Stanley & Gage, 1963; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009).

5.9.2.1 History effects

Events that happen in the participant's environment that could have had an effect on the study did not necessarily only occur in the past but could have occurred just prior to the study taking place and even during the study, independent of the training (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002). This could for example include contact with a person with disability or a family member or friend with disability. Events that occurred just prior to the study have the greatest impact. Typically, these events are unpredictable, and participants could not have planned for this. In the present study, this would affect the pre-test scores of the study. On Day I of the training, one group of participants arrived late due to a traffic accident on their way, while another group took a wrong turn and had to reroute, which cost them time. These events had a ripple effect on the start of the day as these participants were anxious and stressed about arriving late and other participants in the group were concerned about the time frame of the training day and the possibility that the training would run over the estimated time. In order to create a calm and nurturing atmosphere, participants were reassured that there was sufficient time to complete the study, and they were offered refreshments to help them relax. The short duration of the training programme minimised the opportunity for history effects.

5.9.2.2 Maturation effects

Maturation effects do not only take place in the long run but can take place in the short term within a few hours or days and such effects can influence post-test results and findings (Dimitrov, 2003; Shadish et al., 2002). Participants could have been fatigued at the end of the second day of training, which could have influenced how they answered and completed the post-test at the end of the two-day training course. Some of the participants also had to leave home early in the morning to make it on time for the start of each training day, which could have resulted in fatigue, inattention and lack of concentration (Shadish et al., 2002). Some participants may have not felt well physically or psychologically, which could also have influenced how well they would have participated in training and completed the tests. Participants may also have been concerned about court appearances and their workload piling up due to two days away from their usual duties. These participant-led factors were difficult to

control, but the researcher also took cognisance of the fact that some of these factors could have been the result of the training.

5.9.2.3 *Testing effects*

Testing effects can occur in pre-test and post-test research designs such as the current study (Shadish et al., 2002; Siegle, 2015). The fact that the participants were tested more than once could have influenced the post-test scores. The researcher was aware that this could have had a confounding effect on the results in that the differences in scores on the dependent variable, and therefore a control group, was used. Learning effects could have resulted in increased post-test performance as the participants became familiar with the topic from the pre-test (sensitisation) and the fact that they better understood the format of what was expected of them. Furthermore, the police officers became familiar with the training environment and the facilitators. Their anxiety levels could have been lower during the post-test, which would have impacted positively on the outcomes.

5.9.2.4 *Attrition effects*

Participants frequently drop out of training and the reasons could include for example that the participant no longer wants to take part or that the participant might not be available for the following days of training. In this study there was no drop-out from either the experimental group or control group as all participants participated and completed the pre-test and post-test measures. For the experimental group this could possibly be attributed to the fact that training was short (2 days), that it was conducted on two consecutive days and that participants found the first day of training useful and meaningful and thus wanted to continue with the training.

5.9.3 External Validity

The main idea in any research sampling is to obtain a representative subset of the population of interest. When the sample is not representative of the intended population, the external validity of the study is compromised. External validity threats involve the extent to which the results could be generalised beyond the participants (population validity) and settings (ecological validity) (Siegle, 2015). Another likely threat to external validity was the type of training provided as well as the testing interaction. The following types of validity were

considered for this study: population validity; ecological validity; and treatment and testing interaction.

5.9.3.1 *Population validity*

The participants were recruited from the FCS unit, which is a homogenous group based on qualifications, their particular job description, and being a specialised unit. They are most likely to come into contact with persons with disability who report being victims of sexual offenses. Results can therefore not be generalised to the SAPS, but only to the FCS units.

5.9.3.2 *Ecological validity*

Ecological validity refers to the extent to which the results of the ECTP could be generalised from the training environmental conditions created by the researcher to other settings and conditions (Siegle, 2015). The ECTP is a programme that does not rely on a specialised environment and can be presented in other environments conducive to learning. The only equipment used was a standard projector and screen. All modules of the training programme as well as the PowerPoint presentation can be replicated for training purposes as the detailed description of all materials makes it replicable thereby increasing the ecological validity. Although this is a stand-alone programme, the important role of the facilitator and a co-facilitator (a person with CCN who uses AAC), should not be underestimated in the delivery of this training programme. Skills of any facilitator in presenting workshops play an important role in the successful delivery of content and the engagement of participants in an interactive workshop. The skills of the co-facilitator in having participated in various different workshops and platforms contributed greatly to the interaction between herself and the participants. The facilitator and co-facilitator effect are factors that should be borne in mind when this study is replicated as these were important aspects that contributed to the success of the ECTP.

5.9.3.3 *Treatment and testing interaction*

The training and the method of testing (using a pre-test post-test) could have influenced the results. For example, Section C of the measuring instrument focuses on attitudes toward persons with disability. The fact that the participants completed this section during the pre-test could have created an awareness or change in their behaviour (independent of training), which could have influenced their responses in the post-test due to it being addressed in the pre-test. Using a control group, as was done in this study, is one way to detect such an effect.

Sensitisation could have either decreased or increased the effect of the training which means that the results may have to be interpreted with caution, taking the trends noticed in the control group into consideration (Bargh & Chartrand, 2000; Siegle, 2015). Post-test sensitisation strengthens generalisation in that the post-test may cause certain ideas and issues presented during the training to work in the favour of the participants when they go back into their usual working environment.

5.10 PROGRAMME INTEGRITY

Programme integrity in this study refers to the degree to which the training programme procedures were implemented as intended, planned and designed (DuBois, Chibnall, Tait & Vander Wal, 2018). When intervention effectiveness is the basis for training practices, it is critical for those implementing the programmes or interventions to do so with high treatment integrity or as it is referred to in this study, as the programme integrity of the ECTP. Five variables outlined by Dane and Schneider (1998) that influence treatment integrity were adapted and applied to outline the programme integrity of the ECTP. These five variables were: the adherence to procedures; the quality of delivery; the exposure to the ECTP; the participant responsiveness and the ECTP training differentiation.

5.10.1 Adherence to Procedures

The facilitator followed a procedural checklist (Appendix N) to ensure that the proposed outline for the ECTP was followed. An independent observer was used on Day 1 and Day 2 of the training to ensure that the steps set out on the procedural checklist were followed and the researcher covered the content as set out in the ECTP.

The procedural checklist was completed as the training programme content was covered step by step. The procedural checklist consisted of 108 items to be covered over the two days of training. Due to starting much later than anticipated on Day 1, a part of Module 2 – Communication, had to be carried over to Day 2. This meant that the training programme content for Day 1 (54 items) could not be completed. On Day 1 only 47 of the items were covered. This meant that the remaining 7 items on the procedural checklist was added to Day 2, which then had to cover 61 items.

According to Landis and Koch (1977), a value range of between 80%–100% indicates a substantial and almost perfect agreement level. The level of agreement was calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Procedural adherence} = \frac{\text{Number of steps executed correctly}}{\text{Total number steps on the protocol per day}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

The results for the procedural checklist are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8:

Procedural Adherence for Day 1 and Day 2

Day	Items	Procedural adherence
Day 1	Register, Measuring instrument, Introduction, Module 1, Module 2, Evaluation form	$\frac{47}{54} = 87.04\%$
Day 2	Module 2, Module 3, Measuring instrument, Evaluation form, Closing	$\frac{54}{54} = 100\%$

The overall results of the procedural adherence were calculated using the procedural checklist, which is regarded as a sufficient benchmark for the reliability of the adherence to the procedures set out for Day 1 (87.04%) and Day 2 (100%) of the ECTP.

5.10.2 Quality of Delivery

The quality of the delivery of the ECTP was evaluated using the training evaluation form (Appendix K) at the end of Day 1 and Day 2 of the training. This was described at length in Section 5.6 in this chapter. Participants rated the training delivery and the facilitator as “good” and “very good”, which showed that the participants reacted positively to the quality of the delivery of the programme and objectives, the materials used, the programme content, the effects of the results and the facilitator.

5.10.3 Exposure to the ECTP

A pilot study was undertaken prior to the main study. The pilot study showed that a two-day training exposure from 8h00 to 16h00 each day had the desired effect on changes observed from the pre-test to the post-test, indicating that programmatic outcomes had been achieved (Dane & Schneider, 1998). This timeframe also seemed to fit in well with the restricted time that the FCS unit members had available to attend the training programme due to court

appearances, other planned training workshops, annual leave, sick leave or administrative duties.

5.10.4 Participant Responsiveness

Participants responsiveness and engagement was evident during the training programme as participants asked questions, role-played and completed the communication activities. Participants became actively involved in the SASL section of the ECTP and demonstrated what they had learned in some of the communication activities. This was also an indication of an increase in knowledge and perceived skills when the results of the pre-test were compared to that of the post-test.

5.10.5 ECTP Training Differentiation

One of the reasons for monitoring programme integrity was to ensure that changes that occurred after the training programme were due to the intervention only and not extraneous components. Thus, the programme integrity enhanced both the internal validity of the ECTP as the programme was delivered as intended, and the external validity in that the ECTP can be replicated and applied to other units within the SAPS, for example the Client Service Centre. To control for extraneous components, the researcher used a control group who did not receive any training and did not have the opportunity to learn from a person with CCN in the same way as the experimental group. Enactment of learning was evident in the behavioural changes of the participants towards the co-facilitator with CCN and their engagement with her and the improvement in the communication activities as the participants progressed over the two days of training.

5.11 DATA ANALYSIS

All raw data were recorded on the measuring instrument (pre-test and post-test). All the data were first encoded by the researcher and entered on a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet. The data were analysed using a variety of statistical procedures including descriptive and inferential statistics. Data were presented using tables, bar graphs and pie charts. The results for the measuring instrument are discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

5.11.1 Descriptive Statistics

Percentages of the different variables were calculated and compared. Mean scores and standard deviations were calculated to provide information on the central tendency and the spread of the distribution. Data were presented in table format as this provided a quick method to make comparisons between different data sets and to identify the smallest and largest value changes from pre-test to post-test.

5.11.2 Inferential statistics

Hypothesis testing was undertaken to determine with what probability a particular outcome on the post-test could be attributed to the influence of the training programme rather than other factors. To compare the results between the means of the experimental and control groups, a mixed factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. The level of probability for the collected data was specified at the alpha level of $p < 0.05$. Paired sample t-tests were used to compare the means of each participant in both the experimental and control groups between the pre-test and post-test to determine whether there was statistical evidence that the mean difference between the pre-test and post-test observations were significantly different from zero. The exact probability of obtaining the test statistics was calculated using SPSS.

5.11.2.1 Mixed factorial ANOVA

A mixed factorial ANOVA of analysis was used as it is an “analysis of dependencies”. It tests an assumed cause-effect relationship between two or more independent variables and the dependent variables (Turner & Thayer, 2001) to establish if each of the independent variables had an effect on the dependent variable, also called the main effect. It assumes that the dependent variables are measured on an interval or ratio scale, but it can also be used with ordinal scale data. This allowed the researcher to establish if the main effects were independent of each other. Three statistical tests were performed – one for each of the two main effects and one for the possible interaction effect. Research hypotheses were set for all three effects. For the major tests in the factorial ANOVA, hypotheses were posed and tested as part of the statistical inferences. Hypotheses were tested separately for each of the dependent variables, namely knowledge, skills and attitude. Three null hypotheses and three research hypotheses were tested, namely:

1st Null Hypothesis – Interaction effect

H₀: There is no significant interaction effect between time and group in terms of the score on knowledge, skills and attitude.

Research Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant interaction effect between time and group in terms of the score on knowledge, skills and attitude.

2nd Null Hypothesis – 1st Main effect of time

H₀: There is no significant difference in the scores of knowledge, skills and attitude between pre-test and post-test.

Research Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in the scores of knowledge, skills and attitude between pre-test and post-test.

3rd Null Hypothesis – 2nd Main effect of group

H₀: There is no significant difference in the scores of knowledge, skills and attitude between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Research Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in the scores of knowledge, skills and attitude between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

This analysis gave a single F-statistic and one p-value to support or reject the null hypotheses (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). A significant interaction indicated that the change in the true average response for a level of the post-test, depended on the level of the pre-test. Apart from the interaction effect, the two main effects (namely time and group) were also tested separately (Howell, 2012), and reported in this study according to the three hypotheses posed.

5.11.2.2 Assumptions of the mixed factorial ANOVA

Assumptions of the mixed factorial ANOVA looked at three factors: first, normality – the dependent variable is normally distributed; second, independence – observations and groups were independent of each other; and third, equality of variance – the population variance were equal across factors (Gravetter & Wallnaue, 2017; Howell, 2012). Although not a requirement for two-way ANOVA, there was an equal number of participants in the experimental group ($n = 29$) and control group ($n = 29$), referred to as a balanced design. This increased the power of the factorial ANOVA. Repeated measures ANOVA (within subjects) were performed to detect any overall differences between related means. In this study the between group variable was time, as the measurements were repeated over time, namely pre-test and post-test. The pre-and post-tests must be equated before meaningful comparisons can be made between scores. Thus, the dependent variable estimates on the post-test were compared with the estimates from the pre-test and were examined with reference to the pre-test information (Dimitrov & Rumill, 2003). Between-subjects measures were also performed to compare the means between the experimental and control group for the pre-test and the post-test and reducing error variance, which produced a more powerful test than designs with no pre-test data. The power of the test represented the probability of detecting differences between the groups being compared when such differences existed (Wuensch, 2017).

5.12 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 focussed on Phase 3 of the study, namely the implementation and evaluation of the ECTP. The main aim of the study and the sub-aims for Phase 3 were discussed. This was followed by a discussion of the non-randomised pre-test post-test group design, which included a control group, highlighting the advantages and disadvantages thereof. The criteria for participant sampling, recruitment, selection, group assignment, participant description and group equivalence were discussed. The biographical information for both the experimental group and the control group were visually presented and discussed, highlighting that the two groups were equally matched on all variables except years of experience in the FCS unit, with the control group showing more years of experience than the experimental group. The setting, materials and procedures for both the experimental and control group were discussed. The training evaluation results were set out and discussed in detail, followed by a discussion of the ethical principles as they applied to this study. Finally, reliability and validity are discussed with application to the study. The chapter concludes with a description of the statistical

methods, including descriptive and inferential statistics used for data analysis. The presentation, interpretation and discussion of the results of the measuring instrument are discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the results of Phase 3 of the study. The results are presented according to the sub-aims of the study. Firstly, the effect of the ECTP on FCS unit police officers' knowledge is discussed. The ECTP was divided into i) knowledge of disability; ii) knowledge on statement taking from persons with CCN; and iii) applied knowledge on statement taking from persons with CCN. This is followed by a discussion of the effect of the ECTP on perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN. Lastly, the ECTP's effect on attitudes towards persons with disability is discussed. For each of these variables, descriptive statistics are presented, followed by statistical inferences. Data are not only organised and analysed but are discussed and interpreted so that conclusions could be drawn on the effectiveness of the ECTP. The aim was to achieve specific outcomes, namely to increase police officers' knowledge of disability (Section B, Questions 1–4); to increase their knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN (Section B, Question 9); to help them apply knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN (Section D, 10 statements); to improve their perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN (Section B, Questions 5-8) and attitudes towards persons with disability (Section C, 30 statements).

6.2 DIFFERENCES IN KNOWLEDGE BEFORE AND AFTER TRAINING

Firstly, sub-aim 1 is addressed, namely, to determine the effect of the ECTP on the knowledge of police officers with respect to statement taking from persons with CCN. This section discussed the data according to the three different variables as per the measuring instrument, namely knowledge of disability, knowledge in statement taking from persons with CCN and applied knowledge in statement taking from persons with CCN. Hypotheses for each variable were posed. The level of significance for this study was set at the 5% level of confidence.

6.2.1 Knowledge of disability

The overall score for the section on knowledge of disability (Section B, Questions 1–4) was out of 33, with scores ranging from 0–33, with a higher score implying more knowledge of disability. The results for the pre-test and post-test for within-groups and across groups are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1:

Results for Knowledge of Disability Pre-test and Post-test for Both the Experimental and Control Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Pre-test	Experimental	29	11.4828	3.42908
	Control	29	8.9655	3.49982
Post-test	Experimental	29	21.7586	4.08530
	Control	29	7.4828	3.12388

The results for across-groups showed that the mean for the experimental group pre-test ($M = 11.48$; $SD = 3.42$) was higher than the mean for the control group pre-test ($M = 8.96$; $SD = 3.49$) and the within-group results showed that the mean for the experimental group increased from 11.48 pre-test to 21.75 post-test, while the post-test score for the control group did not increase ($M = 7.48$; $SD = 3.12$).

A mixed design was used with time as the within-group variable and the experimental and control groups as the between-group variable. The purpose was to assess the effect of a training programme on participants' scores on knowledge of disability across two different time periods (pre-training and post-training), and with two groups (experimental and control groups).

Three null hypotheses and three alternative hypotheses were set for knowledge of disability, namely:

1st Null Hypothesis – Interaction effect

H_0 : There is no significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on knowledge of disability.

Alternative Hypothesis

H_1 : There is a significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on knowledge of disability.

2nd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of time

H_0 : There is no significant difference in scores on knowledge of disability between the pre- and post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on knowledge of disability between the pre- and post-test.

3rd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of group

H₀: There is no significant difference in scores on knowledge of disability between the experimental group and the control groups as measured during the post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on knowledge of disability between the experimental group and the control groups as measured during the post-test.

With respect to the first null hypothesis that focussed on the interaction effect between time and group, multivariate tests showed an interaction between time and group. Results showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups ($F(1,56) = 109.104, p < .001, \eta^2 = .661$), which indicates that the interaction effect was significant at the .05 significance level. Figure 6.1 shows that there was a slight decrease in knowledge of disability for the control group pre-test ($M = 9.00, SD = 3.49$) to post-test ($M = 7.50, SD = 3.12$), while the knowledge of disability of the experimental group showed a clear increase from pre-test ($M = 11.50, SD = 3.42$) to post-test ($M = 21.76, SD = 4.08$). It is evident from the results that the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

For the second null hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between the two time periods (pre-test and post-test) for the experimental group, univariate within-group results showed that there was a significant difference between pre- and post-test ($F(1,56) = 61.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = .52$). Inspection of mean scores showed that the post-test score ($M = 14.62, SD = 8.05$) for the group as a whole was higher than that of the pre-test ($M = 10.22, SD = 3.70$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

Regarding the third null hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between the two groups, the univariate tests showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups after the intervention ($F(1,56) = 127.5, p < .001, \eta^2 =$

.695). Mean scores on the knowledge on disability show that the experimental group had a mean score of ($M = 21.76$, $SD = 4.08$) compared to the control group post-test ($M = 7.50$, $SD = 3.12$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

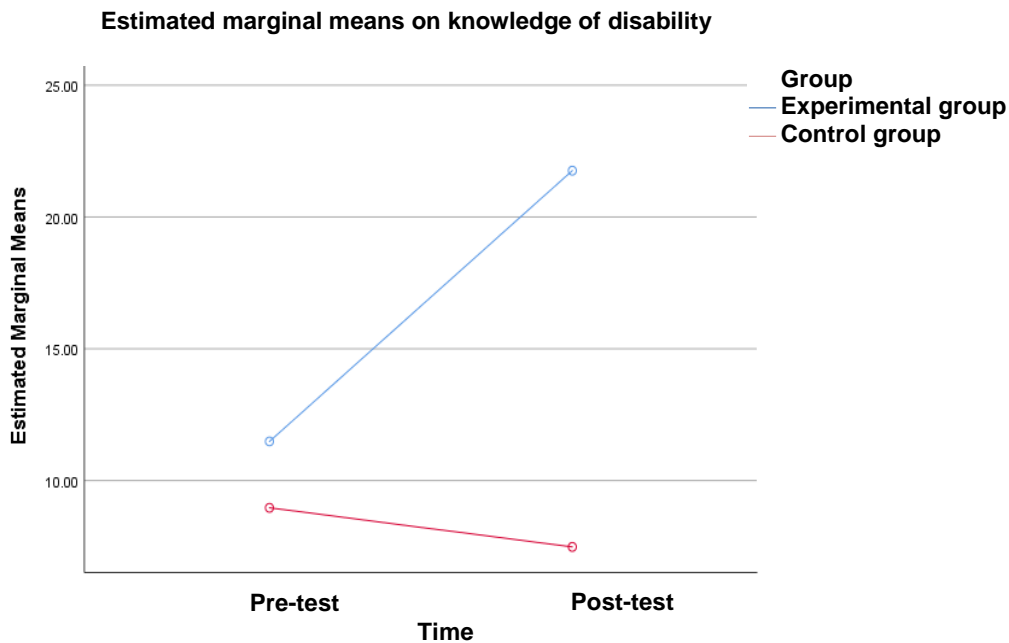


Figure 6.1: Estimated marginal means on knowledge of disability

Figure 6.1 shows ordinal interactions as the lines from the interaction results do not cross. If the slope of the lines is not parallel in an ordinal interaction, the interaction effect will be significant given enough statistical power. If the lines are parallel, then there is no interaction effect (Stevens, 2007).

6.2.2 Knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime

In the section on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN (Section B, Question 9), the overall score for the question was out of 10, with scores ranging from between 0 and 10, with 0 the lowest score and 10 the highest score that participants could achieve. As with the previous variable, a high score is indicative of more knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. The results for the pre-test and post-test for both the experimental and control groups are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2:

Results for Knowledge of Statement taking Pre-test and Post-test for Both the Experimental and Control Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Pre-test	Experimental	29	2.8276	1.33815
	Control	29	2.2414	1.92085
Post-test	Experimental	29	5.5862	1.50041
	Control	29	1.7241	1.19213

The across-group results show that the mean for the experimental group post-test ($M = 5.58$; $SD = 1.50$) was higher than the mean for the control group post-test ($M = 1.72$; $SD = 1.19$) and the between-group results showed that the mean for the experimental group increased from 2.82 pre-test to 5.58 post-test, while the post-test score for the control group did not increase ($M = 1.72$; $SD = 1.19$)

As with the previous variable, the same mixed design was used with time as the within-group variable and the experimental and control groups as the between-group variable. The purpose was to assess the effect of a training programme on participants' scores on the knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN across two different time periods (pre-training and post-training), and with two groups (experimental and control groups). Three null hypotheses and three alternative hypotheses were set for knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN reporting being a victim of crime, namely:

1st Null Hypothesis – Interaction effect

H_0 : There is no significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN.

Alternative Hypothesis

H_1 : There is a significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN.

2nd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of time

H_0 : There is no significant difference in scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the pre- and post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the pre- and post-test.

3rd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of group

H₀: There is no significant difference in scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Regarding the first hypothesis that focussed on the interaction effect, multivariate tests between groups showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups ($F(1,56) = 55.661, p < .001, \eta^2 = .498$), which indicates a significant interaction effect at the .05 significance level. Figure 6.2 shows that there was a slight decrease in knowledge of statement taking for the control group pre-test ($M = 2.24, SD = 1.92$) to post-test ($M = 1.72, SD = 1.19$), while the knowledge of statement taking of the experimental group showed a clear increase from pre-test ($M = 3.00, SD = 1.33$) to post-test ($M = 6.00, SD = 1.50$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

For the second hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between the two time periods (pre-test and post-test) for the experimental group, the univariate within-group results showed that there was a significant difference between pre- and post-test ($F(1,56) = 26.06, p < .001, \eta^2 = .318$). Inspection of mean scores showed that the post-test score ($M = 3.65, SD = 2.40$) for the group as a whole was higher than that of the pre-test ($M = 2.53, SD = 1.70$). The null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

Regarding the third null hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between the two groups, the univariate tests showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups after the intervention ($F(1,56) = 45.133, p < .001, \eta^2 = .446$). Mean scores on knowledge of statement taking showed that the experimental group

had a mean score of ($M = 5.60$, $SD = 1.50$) compared to the control group post-test ($M = 1.72$, $SD = 1.20$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

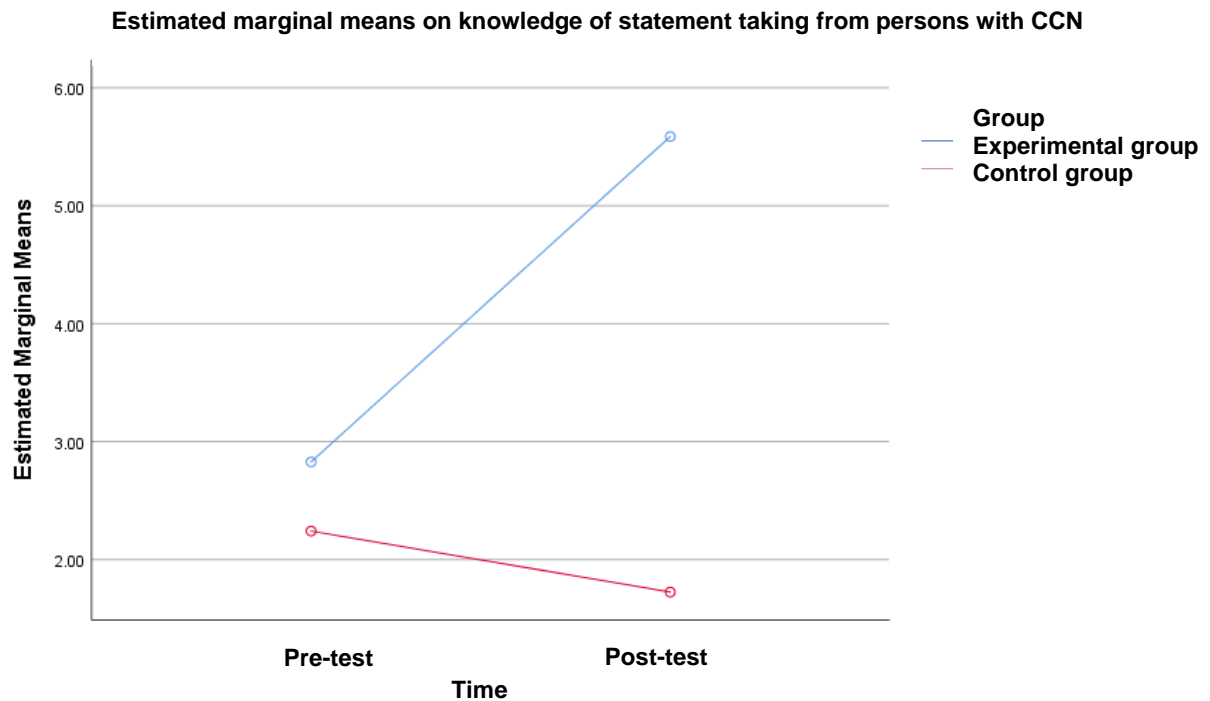


Figure 6.2: Estimated marginal means on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN

The less parallel the lines are as shown by the ordinal interactions of the lines from the interaction results, the more likely it is that there is a significant interaction effect (Stevens, 2007).

6.2.3 Applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime

For applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN (Section D), the overall score for this section was out of 10, with scores ranging between 0 and 10, with 0 the lowest score and 10 the highest score. A higher score again implies good applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. The results for the pre-test and post-test for both the experimental and control groups are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3:

Results for Applied Knowledge of Statement taking Pre-test and Post-test for Both the Experimental and Control Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Pre-test	Experimental	29	4.3102	2.13982
	Control	29	3.6207	1.52160
Post-test	Experimental	29	5.0000	2.08738
	Control	29	3.7586	1.86423

The across-group results show that the mean for the experimental group post-test ($M = 5.00$; $SD = 2.08$) was higher than the mean for the control group post-test ($M = 3.75$; $SD = 1.86$). The between-group results showed that the mean for the experimental group increased from 4.31 pre-test to 5.00 post-test, while the post-test score for the control group also increased by a small margin ($M = 3.62$; $SD = 3.75$).

The same mixed design was used with time as the within-group variable and experimental and control groups as the between-group variable. The purpose was to assess the effect of a training programme on participants' scores on their applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN across two different time periods (pre-training and post-training), and with two groups (experimental and control groups). Again, three null hypotheses and three alternative hypotheses were set for applied-knowledge in statement taking, namely:

1st Null Hypothesis – Interaction effect

H_0 : There is no significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN.

Alternative Hypothesis

H_1 : There is a significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN.

2nd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of time

H_0 : There is no significant difference in scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the pre- and post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the pre- and post-test.

3rd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of group

H₀: There is no significant difference in scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Regarding the first hypothesis that focussed on the interaction effect between time and group, multivariate tests showed an interaction between time and group. Multivariate results between groups showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups ($F(1,56) = .764, p = .386, \eta^2 = .013$) at the .05 significance level. Figure 6.3 shows that there was a slight increase in applied knowledge of statement taking for the control group pre-test ($M = 3.62, SD = 1.52$) to post-test ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.86$), while the knowledge of the experimental group showed a clear increase from pre-test ($M = 4.31, SD = 2.13$) to post-test ($M = 5.00, SD = 2.08$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

For the second hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between the two time periods (pre-test and post-test) for the experimental group, the univariate within-group results showed that there was no significant difference between pre- and post-test ($F(1,56) = 1.718, p = .195, \eta^2 = .030$). Inspection of mean scores show that the post-test score ($M = 4.40, SD = 2.05$) for the group as a whole was slightly higher than that of the pre-test ($M = 4.00, SD = 2.00$), therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Regarding the third null hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between the two groups, univariate tests between groups showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups after the intervention ($F(1,56) = 6.043, p = .017, \eta^2 = .097$). Mean scores on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN

show that the experimental group had a mean score of ($M = 5.0$, $SD = 2.09$) compared to the control group post-test ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.90$). The null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

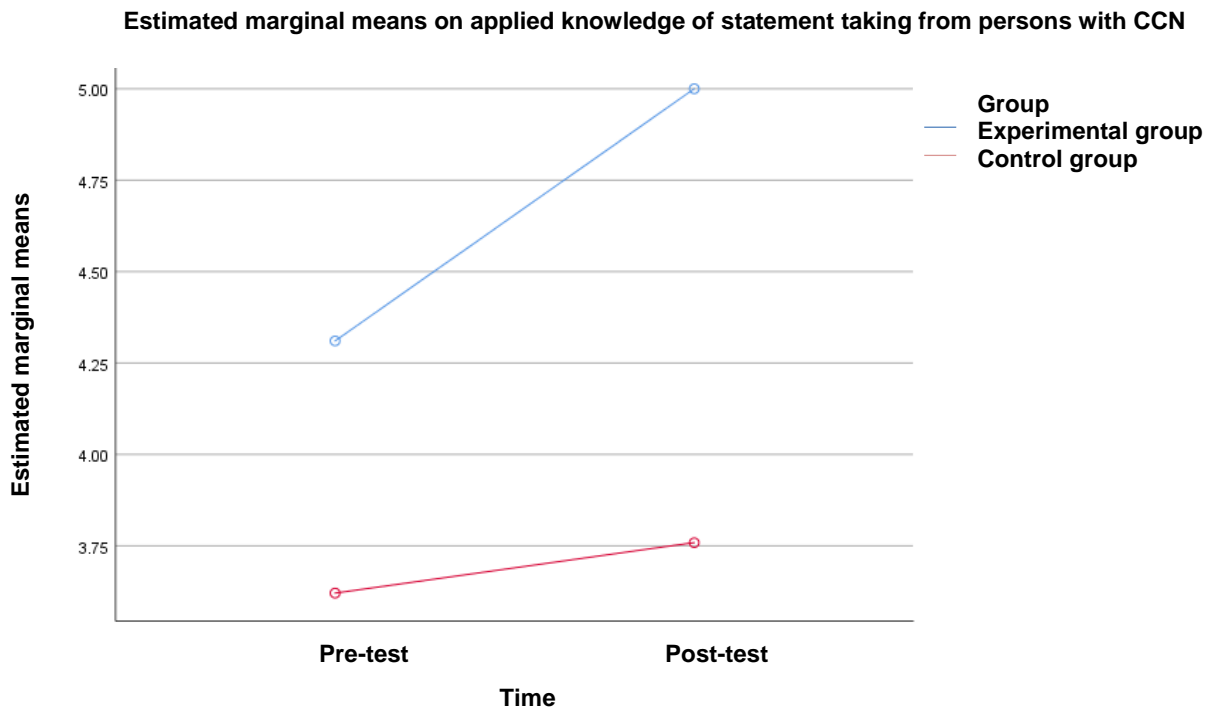


Figure 6.3: Estimated marginal means on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN

When the lines are parallel, the interaction effect is not significant (Stevens, 2007).

6.2.4 Changes in perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime from pre-to post-training

In this section, the second sub-aim is addressed, namely, to determine the effect of the ECTP on the police officers' own perceived skills regarding statement taking from persons with CCN. In the section on perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN (Section B, Questions 5-8), the overall score was out of 40, with scores ranging between 0 and 40, with 0 the lowest score and 40 the highest score that participants could rate themselves. A high score is indicative of high perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN who want to report being a victim of crime. The results for the pre-test and post-test for both groups are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4:

Results for Perceived Skills in Statement taking Pre-test and Post-test for Both the Experimental and Control Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Pre-test	Experimental	29	13.3793	8.70720
	Control	29	10.9310	8.34921
Post-test	Experimental	29	27.5862	7.28755
	Control	29	8.7931	8.37249

The within-group results show that the mean for the experimental group post-test ($M = 27.58$; $SD = 8.70$) was higher than the mean for the control group post-test ($M = 8.79$; $SD = 8.37$). The between-group results showed that the mean for the experimental group increased from 13.37 pre-test to 27.58 post-test.

The same mixed design was used to test perceived skills in statement taking, with time as the within-group variable and experimental and control groups as the between-group variable. The purpose was to assess the impact of a training programme on participants' scores on their perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN across two different time periods (pre-training and post-training), and for two groups (experimental and control groups). Three null hypotheses with alternative hypotheses were set for perceived skills in statement taking, namely:

1st Null Hypothesis – Interaction effect

H_0 : There is no significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores for perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN.

Alternative Hypothesis

H_1 : There is a significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores for perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN.

2nd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of time

H_0 : There is no significant difference in scores for perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN between the pre- and post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores for perceived skills in statement taking between the pre- and post-test.

3rd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of group

H₀: There is no significant difference in scores for perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Alternative hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores for perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Regarding the first hypothesis that focussed on the interaction effect between time and group, multivariate tests showed an interaction between time and group. Results showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups ($F(1,56) = 43.332, p < .001, \eta^2 = .436$). The interaction effect was significant at the .05 significance level. Figure 6.4 shows that there was a decrease in perceived skills in statement taking for the control group pre-test ($M = 10.93, SD = 8.34$) to post-test ($M = 8.79, SD = 8.37$), while the perceived skills in statement taking of the experimental group shows a clear increase from pre-test ($M = 13.37, SD = 8.70$) to post-test ($M = 27.58, SD = 7.28$). The null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

Regarding the second null hypothesis, univariate within-group results showed that there was a significant difference between the pre- and post-test for the experimental group ($F(1,56) = 23.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .28$). Inspection of mean scores showed that the post-test ($M = 27.58, SD = 7.28$) score for the group as a whole was higher than that of the pre-test ($M = 13.37, SD = 8.70$), therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

The third hypothesis focussed on the main effect between the two groups. Univariate tests between groups showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups after the intervention ($F(1,56) = 36.50, p < .001, \eta^2 = .394$). Mean

scores of the perceived skills in statement taking showed that the experimental group had a mean score of ($M = 27.60$, $SD = 7.29$) compared to the control group post-test ($M = 8.80$, $SD = 8.40$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

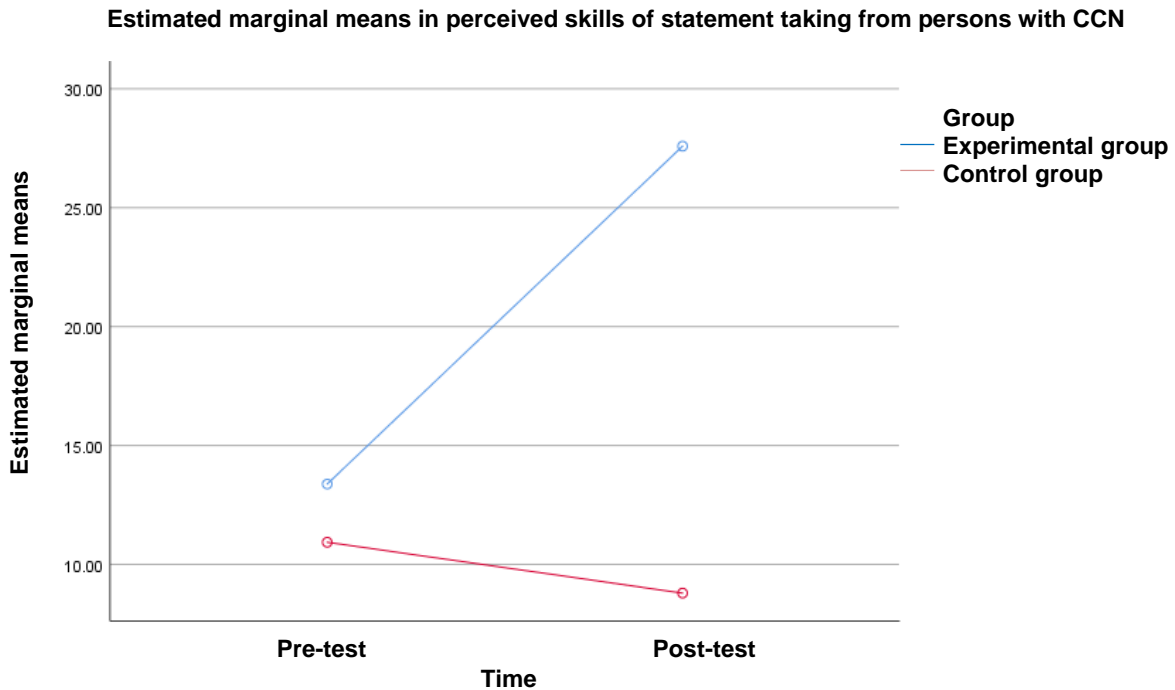


Figure 6.4: Estimated marginal means in perceived skills of statement taking from persons with CCN

The interaction effect as presented in Figure 6.4 was significant as the slope of the lines is not parallel in an ordinal interaction given enough statistical power (Stevens, 2007).

6.2.5 Changes observed between pre-and post-training on attitudes towards persons with disability

The third sub-aim of the study was to determine the effect of the training programme on the attitudes of police officers regarding statement taking from persons with CCN. In the section on attitudes towards persons with disability, which used a standardised measure Form A of ATDP-R scale, the overall score ranged from between 0 and 180, with 0 the lowest score and 180 the highest score a mid-range score of 90. Any score below 90 would indicate negative attitudes towards persons with disability, and the higher the score above 90, the more positive the attitudes towards persons with disability would be (Yuker et al., 1970).

Table 6.5:

Results for Attitudes Towards Persons with Disability Pre-test and Post-test for Both Experimental and Control Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Pre-test	Experimental	29	127.4828	11.70049
	Control	29	129.6207	14.34128
Post-test	Experimental	29	133.1379	13.95330
	Control	29	134.8621	20.00486

The results show that the mean for the experimental group post-test ($M = 133.13$; $SD = 13.95$) was minimally lower than the mean for the control group post-test ($M = 134.86$; $SD = 20.00$). The between-group results showed that the mean for the experimental group increased from 127.48 pre-test to 133.13 post-test.

The same mixed design was used with time as the within-group variable and the experimental and control groups as the between-group variable. The purpose was to assess the impact of a training programme on participants' scores on their attitudes towards persons with disability across two different time periods (pre-training and post-training), and two groups (experimental and control groups). Again, three null hypotheses with alternative hypothesis were set for attitudes towards persons with disability, namely:

1st Null Hypothesis – Interaction effect

H_0 : There is no significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on attitudes towards persons with disability.

Alternative hypothesis

H_1 : There is a significant interaction between time and group in terms of the scores on attitudes towards persons with disability.

2nd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of time

H_0 : There is no significant difference in scores on attitudes towards persons with disability between the pre- and post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on attitudes towards persons with disability between the pre- and post-test.

3rd Null Hypothesis – Main effect of group

H₀: There is no significant difference in scores on attitudes towards persons with disability between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Alternative Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant difference in scores on attitudes towards persons with disability between the experimental group and the control group as measured during the post-test.

Regarding the first hypothesis that focussed on the interaction between time and group, multivariate tests showed an interaction effect between time and group. Results showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups ($F(1,56) = .011, p = .916, \eta^2 = .000$). Figure 6.5 shows that there was an increase in positive attitudes towards persons with disability for both the experimental group from pre-test ($M = 127.48, SD = 11.70$) to post-test ($M = 133.13, SD = 13.95$) and the control group pre-test ($M = 129.62, SD = 14.34$) to post-test ($M = 134.86, SD = 20.00$). Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Regarding the second null hypothesis that focussed on the main effect between two time periods for the experimental group (pre-test post-test), univariate within-group results showed that there was a significant difference between pre- and post-test ($F(1,56) = 7.739, p < .01, \eta^2 = .121$). Inspection of mean scores show that the post-test score ($M = 133.13, SD = 13.95$) for the group as a whole was higher than that of the pre-test ($M = 127.48, SD = 11.70$), therefore the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

The third hypothesis focussed on the main effect between the two groups. Univariate tests showed that there was no difference between the experimental and control groups after the intervention ($F(1,56) = .302, p = .585, \eta^2 = .005$). Post-test mean scores on the attitudes towards persons with disability show that the experimental group had a mean score of ($M =$

133.13, $SD = 13.95$) compared to the control group post-test ($M = 134.86$, $SD = 20.00$), and therefore the null hypothesis was accepted.

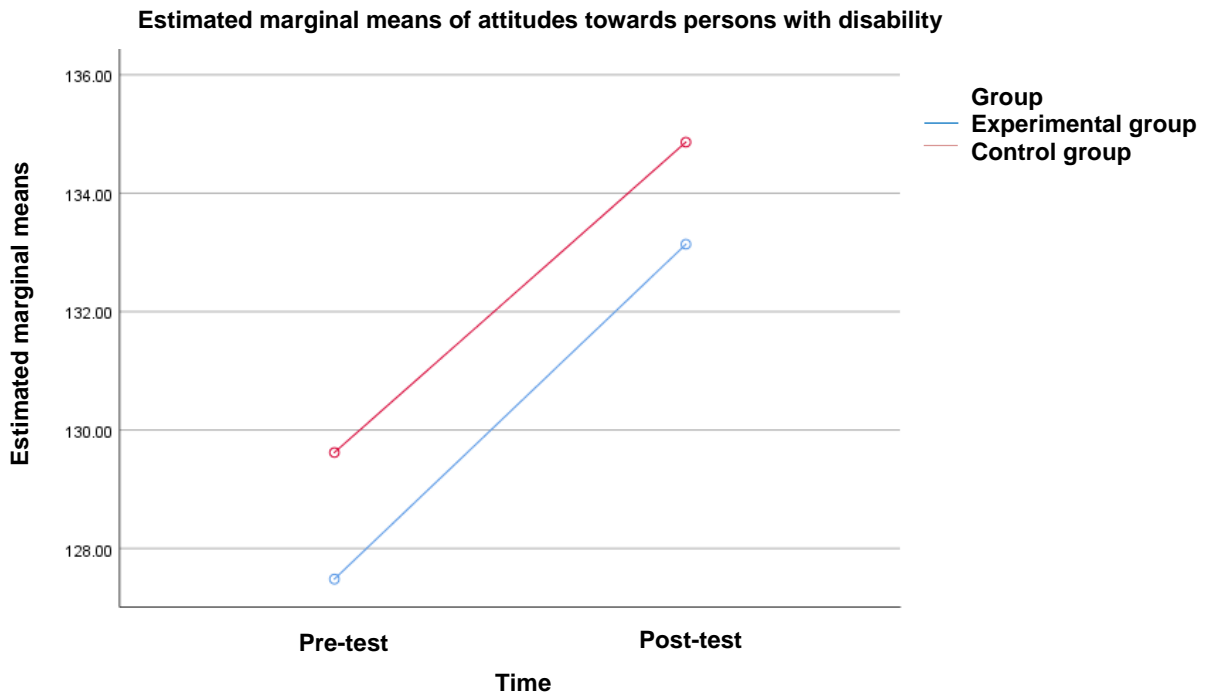


Figure 6.5: Estimated marginal means of attitudes towards persons with disability

If the lines are parallel or near parallel as in Figure 6.5, the interaction effect is less or not significant (Stevens, 2007). Results indicated that both groups' scores were higher than 90 for the pre-test, thus positive attitudes towards persons with disability were already present. This could be an example of the Hawthorne effect in which participants modified this aspect of their behaviour in response to their awareness of being evaluated (McCambridge et al., 2014). The fact that even the control group's attitude improved at the second testing, could be the effect of priming (due to the pre-test effect of sensitising the group to the issue).

A summary of results is presented in Table 6.6, indicating the main effects (between groups and between time) and the interaction effect for each of the dependent variables, with the null hypotheses that were either rejected or accepted.

Table 6.6:

Summary of Results of the Interaction Effect and Main Effects (within-groups and between-groups)

Variable	Interaction between time and group		Main effect of time (within-groups)		Main effect of group (between-groups)	
	p – value	Null hypothesis	p – value	Null hypothesis	p – value	Null hypothesis
Knowledge of disability	p < .001*	Rejected	p < .001*	Rejected	p < .001*	Rejected
Knowledge of statement taking	p < .001*	Rejected	p < .001*	Rejected	p < .001*	Rejected
Applied knowledge of statement taking	p = .368	Accepted	p = .195	Accepted	p < .017*	Rejected
Perceived skills	p < .001*	Rejected	p < .001*	Rejected	p < .001*	Rejected
Attitudes towards persons with disability	p = .916	Accepted	p < .007*	Rejected	p = .585	Accepted

* p ≤ 0.05 indicating statistical significance at the 5% level of confidence

6.3 VARIABLES THAT MAY HAVE INFLUENCED CHANGES IN THE KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ATTITUDES OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP FROM PRE- TO POST-TRAINING

Group equivalence was shown between the experimental and control groups (see Table 5.4) for gender, age, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS and years of experience in the FCS unit. In order to determine which of these variables could have influenced a change in participants' knowledge (including knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN and applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN), as well as their perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN and attitudes towards persons with disability, these five variables were tested using the Mann-Whitney U Test. The post-test scores for each variable were compared and the p-value for each variable is noted. The results are presented in Table 6.7 to Table 6.11. In Table 6.7 the influence of gender on the post-test scores on the five dependent variables are set out. Gender was differentiated into female and male.

Table 6.7:

Influence of Gender on the Post-test Scores on the Dependent Variables

Variable Gender Female (n = 11) Male (n = 18)	Post-test mean	Standard deviation	Mann-Whitney U Test p-value
Knowledge on disability			
Female	20.64	3.69	p = .340
Male	22.44	4.25	
Knowledge on statement taking			
Female	5.45	1.80	p = .740
Male	5.66	1.32	
Applied knowledge on statement taking			
Female	4.71	1.55	p = .521
Male	5.16	2.38	
Perceived skills in statement taking			
Female	26.64	7.87	p = .550
Male	28.16	7.70	
Attitudes towards persons with disability			
Female	139.45	14.18	p = .102
Male	129.27	12.67	

* $p \leq 0.05$ indicating statistical significance at the 5% level of confidence

From the above results it is evident that did not have a statistically significant influence on police officers' knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who want to report being a victim of crime, applied knowledge of statement taking, perceived skills in statement taking attitudes towards persons with disability on the dependent variable measures post-test. In this study the ECTP affected both the female and male police officers equally.

In Table 6.8 the influence of age is set out on post-test scores on the dependent variables. Participants were divided into the age group of ≤ 40 years and 40+ years. This cut-off point was used as it ensured that the two groups were equally matched in terms of the number of participants per group (n = 15 and n = 14 respectively).

Table 6.8:

Influence of Age on the Post-test Scores on the Dependent Variables

Variable Age ≤40 years (n = 15) 40+ years (n = 14)	Post-test mean	Standard deviation	Mann-Whitney U Test p-value
Knowledge on disability			
≤ 40 years	22.20	4.36	p = .511
41+ years	21.28	3.87	
Knowledge on statement taking			
≤ 40 years	5.60	1.45	p = .477
41+ years	5.57	1.60	
Applied knowledge on statement taking			
≤ 40 years	5.13	1.95	p = .033*
41+ years	4.85	2.28	
Perceived skills in statement taking			
≤ 40 years	29.53	7.04	p = .983
41+ years	25.50	7.19	
Attitudes towards persons with disability			
≤ 40 years	134.86	14.75	p = .505
41+ years	131.28	13.33	

* $p \leq 0.05$ indicating statistical significance at the 5% level of confidence

Age did not have any statistically significant influence on four of the dependent variables, namely knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking, perceived skills in statement taking and attitudes towards persons with measures post-test. However, there was a statistically significant difference on applied knowledge of statement taking post-test between the two age groups, with the ≤40-year-old age group scoring higher on this dependent variable when compared to the 41+ age group.

In Table 6.9 the influence of qualification on the pre- and post-test scores on the dependent variables are set out. Levels of education ranged from Grade 12 to Grade 12+ (which included participants with certificates, diplomas and degrees). Participants were divided into two groups, namely those who only had Grade 12 (n = 17) and those who had Grade 12 plus any form of additional qualification (n = 11).

Table 6.9:

Influence of Qualification on the Post-test Scores on the Dependent Variables

Variable Qualification	Post-test mean	Standard deviation	Mann-Whitney U Test p-value
Grade 12 (n = 17)			
Grade 12+ (n = 12)			
Knowledge on disability			
Grade 12	21.76	3.89	p = 1.000
Grade 12+	21.75	4.51	
Knowledge on statement taking			
Grade 12	5.82	1.46	p = .325
Grade 12+	5.25	1.54	
Applied knowledge on statement taking			
Grade 12	4.70	2.28	p = .471
Grade 12+	5.41	1.78	
Perceived skills in statement taking			
Grade 12	28.88	7.13	p = .263
Grade 12+	25.75	7.41	
Attitudes towards persons with disability			
Grade 12	131.88	13.98	p = .984
Grade 12+	134.91	14.33	

* $p \leq 0.05$ indicating statistical significance at the 5% level of confidence.

Qualification did not have a statistically significant influence on knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who want to report being a victim of crime, applied knowledge of statement taking, perceived skills in statement taking and attitudes towards persons with disability on the dependent variable measures post-test. The ECTP had the same effect on participants with a Grade 12 qualification than on participants with a Grade 12+ qualification.

In Table 6.10 the influence of years of experience in the SAPS on the post-test scores on the dependent variables are set out. Years of experience were divided into those who had ≤ 15 years of experience (n = 19) and 16+ years of experience (n = 10). These cut-off points were chosen as this resulted in the most equally divided groups for the purposes of analysis.

Table 6.10:

Influence of Years of Experience in the SAPS on the Post-test Scores on the Dependent Variables

Variable	Post-test mean	Standard deviation	Mann-Whitney U Test p-value
Years in SAPS			
≤15 (n = 19)			
16+ (n = 10)			
Knowledge on disability			
≤15 years	22.78	4.14	p = .069
16+ years	19.80	3.32	
Knowledge on statement taking			
≤15 years	5.78	1.47	p = .332
16+ years	5.40	1.77	
Applied knowledge on statement taking			
≤15 years	4.94	2.19	p = .735
16+ years	5.10	1.96	
Perceived skills in statement taking			
≤15 years	27.89	6.94	p = .875
16+ years	27.00	8.25	
Attitudes towards persons with disability			
≤15 years	134.10	13.12	p = .804
16+ years	131.30	15.97	

* $p \leq 0.05$ indicating statistical significance at the 5% level of confidence.

Results show that years of experience in the SAPS did not have any statistically significant influence on knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking, applied knowledge of statement taking, perceived skills in statement taking and attitudes towards persons with disability on the dependent variable measures post-test.

In Table 6.11 the influence of years of experience in the FCS unit on the post-test scores on the dependent variables are set out. Years of experience were divided into ≤5 years of experience and 6+ years of experience. This cut-off point was chosen as this resulted in the most equal number of participants in each group for the purposes of analysis (n = 13 and n = 16 respectively).

Table 6.11:

Influence of Years of Experience in the FCS unit on the Post-test Scores on the Dependent Variables

Variable	Post-test mean	Standard deviation	Mann-Whitney U Test p-value
Years in FCS unit			
≤5 (n = 13)			
6+ (n = 16)			
Knowledge on disability			
≤ 5 years	21.61	4.14	p = .983
6+ years	21.87	4.73	
Knowledge on statement taking			
≤ 5 years	5.53	1.72	p = .914
6+ years	5.62	1.36	
Applied knowledge on statement taking			
≤ 5 years	5.07	1.80	p = .948
6+ years	4.93	2.35	
Perceived skills in statement taking			
≤ 5 years	28.76	7.63	p = .329
6+ years	26.62	7.08	
Attitudes towards persons with disability			
≤ 5 years	137.75	15.35	p = .351
6+ years	130.50	12.46	

* $p \leq 0.05$ indicating statistical significance at the 5% level of confidence.

Years of experience in the FCS unit did not have a statistically significant influence on knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime, applied knowledge of statement taking, perceived skills in statement taking and attitudes towards persons with disability on the dependent variable measures post-test. The ECTP had the same effect on participants with ≤ 5 years of experience than on participants with 6+ years of experience.

6.4 SYNOPSIS OF RESULTS

A synopsis of the findings that emerged from the data analysis is presented below:

- i) Knowledge of disability significantly increased between pre-test and post-test ($p < .001$) and there was also a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group on post-test measures ($p < .001$).
- ii) Knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN increased significantly between the pre-test and post-test ($p < .001$) and there was also a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group on post-test measures ($p < .001$).

- iii) Applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN did not increase between the pre-test and post-test ($p = .195$), but there was a significant difference between the experimental group and control group on post-test measures ($p < .017$).
- iv) Perceived skills in taking statements from persons with CCN increased significantly pre-test to post-test ($p < .001$) and there was also a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group on post-test measures ($p < .001$).
- v) Attitudes towards persons with disability increased significantly pre-test to post-test ($p < .007$), but there was no significant difference between the experimental group and control group on post-test measures ($p = .585$).
- vi) There was no significant difference between subgroups of participants in the experimental group as divided by gender, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS and years of experience in the FCS unit on the post-test scores on knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN, applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN, perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN and attitudes towards persons with disability. When participants were grouped by age, post-test scores also did not differ significantly at any of the measured dependent variables, except for applied knowledge on statement taking from persons with CCN where the age group of ≤ 40 scored significantly higher ($p = .033$) than the age group of 41+ years.

6.5 DISCUSSION

In this study the implied theory of change was based in reality and the intervention (the ECTP) was designed with specific activities in mind to make a positive difference (Mayne, 2015). The logic of the ECTP was based on the assumptions: i) that the facilitator and co-facilitator would offer quality training; ii) that the participants in the experimental group would actively participate in the learning activities throughout the training programme; iii) that training would increase the knowledge, perceived skills and attitudes of police officers in the FCS unit who take statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime following the detailed programme development process as set out in Phases 1 and 2 of the study. The assumptions as stated above are usually referred to as capacity changes, as these assumptions imply changes in knowledge, perceived skills and attitude (Mayne, 2015). Thus,

the theory of change as applied to this study consisted of predictive assumptions about the outcomes of the ECTP on the knowledge, perceived skills of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime and attitudes towards persons with disability by FCS unit police officers. Theories of change are models of how change is expected to happen (*ex ante* case) or how the change has happened (*ex post* case) (Mayne, 2015). In this study, *ex ante* was postulated setting out that if the training was implemented as designed and if the assumptions associated with the theory of change held, then the desired outcomes would be reached. With *ex post*, the theory of change was verified in that outcomes predicted were realised and that the training programme led to observable outcomes.

6.5.1 Knowledge constructs

From the results it was noted that there were statistically significant improvements post-test for the experimental group when compared with the control group on the following variables, namely knowledge of disability and knowledge of statement taking from persons with a CCN who want report being a victim of crime, indicating capacity change (i.e. the capacity to do things differently) at these two knowledge levels. There was no significant difference on the variable of applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with a CCN who report being the victim of crime post-test for both the experimental and control groups. The behavioural change assumptions, namely the actual practical changes effected in practice when the FCS unit police officers are back on the job were outside the scope of this study (Levels 3 and 4 of the New World Kirkpatrick Model, Kirkpatrick et al., 2016).

The first component in this study, namely knowledge of disability, was operationally defined as the ability to define disability with appropriate and accurate language, the ability to use person-first terminology to refer to persons with disability, and the ability to describe at least five barriers and facilitators that persons with disability experience in their daily lives. Results from this section on knowledge of disability showed that the ECTP had a positive influence on knowledge of disability for the experimental group. Before the training, participants answered only about a third of the questions about disability knowledge correctly, while they answered about two-thirds of the questions correctly after training. The pre-test results thus showed the gaps in the existing knowledge of the police officers on disability. The ECTP was designed with well-defined objectives and strategies that facilitated adult learning in a collaborative learning environment as per the andragogical approach. The changes noted after the ECTP were an indication that the needs of the police officers on this

knowledge construct were met as confirmed by the reported positive results regarding the knowledge construct.

The second component regarding the knowledge construct focussed on knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. In discussing the variable of knowledge, Gage and Berliner (1992, pg.43) define knowledge as "the ability to remember – recall or recognise – ideas, facts, and the like in a situation in which certain cues, signals, and clues are given to bring out effectively whatever knowledge has been stored". During this part of the ECTP the police officers were given the opportunity to share their experiences of how to take statements from persons with CCN and apply the newly learned information during the group discussions. Results indicated an increase in the knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN pre-test to post-test, which is an indication that the ECTP successfully addressed the police officers' positive orientation to learning through andragogical principles. This had a positive effect on their knowledge in statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

The final knowledge construct focussed on the applied knowledge variable. Transfer of learning is the term used to describe the application of what was learned in one situation to another in a different context (Ferlazzo, 2015). In answering Section D of the measuring instrument post-test, participants had to evaluate the statements set out in this section and apply the knowledge gained from the ECTP to the changing context of that which now involved persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. From the main effect of time (pre-test and post-test) it was evident that the FCS unit police officers had difficulty transferring their situational knowledge about problem situations in which they have taken statements from persons in general, to that of persons with CCN. Despite the ECTP, participants in the experimental group experienced difficulty in integrating their existing knowledge and identifying which knowledge was relevant from a vast array of what they had previously learned, and to then integrate this new knowledge and apply it in the context of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime (Dweck, 2002). The police officers were expected to make connections between prior knowledge and to activate this knowledge in a different situations of statement taking. It became evident that many of the FCS unit police officers in the experimental group could not gauge how to transfer their acquired and cumulative knowledge and how to apply this knowledge in the context of statement taking from persons with CCN (Anderson, Conrad & Corbett, 1989).

Even though the principles of a credible statement formed part of the ECTP as a refresher for the participants in the experimental group, change in applied knowledge post-training did not occur at this level as the researcher had anticipated. This is referred to as the “knowing-doing gap”, which refers to translating knowledge into action (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). Even after the ECTP, the knowledge did not seem to transfer into the application of answering the statements in Section D post-test. *Ex ante*, it is evident that the intended contribution to the outcomes were not realised in this section and these results were contrary to the prediction of the effectiveness of the ECTP in increasing applied knowledge post-test.

6.5.2 Perceived skills construct

Skills were measured by focussing on police officers’ own perception of their skills. Using a pre-test and post-test questionnaire in measuring the police officers own perceived skills or competence in taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime meant that it provided a subjective measure of the participants’ skills or competence without any objective measure of their actual skills for comparison (Moharrer, 2011). In responding to the questions on perceived skills, participants may have rated themselves too high in their statement taking skills, while some who may not feel proficient in statement taking may also have rated themselves high in statement taking to project a better image of themselves (Moharrer, 2011). In the control group, the police officers rated their perceived skills in statement taking from a person with CCN higher pre-test and lower post-test. This may be due to participants’ overestimation or self-enhancement (Moharrer, 2011) of their own perceived skills in statement taking from a person with CCN. The pre-test might have sensitised participants to the fact that their skills were not as high as they originally thought. However, the increase in perceived skills in statement taking may also be attributed to the andragogical principles of the police officers’ positive learning orientation during the ECTP, the communication activities and case studies, which were problem-focused and placed in the context of real-life situations working with persons with CCN. Thus, *ex post*, it is verified that change did occur as evidenced by the results as the experimental group’s mean score increased from pre-test to post-test (Mayne, 2015).

6.5.3 Attitudes towards persons with disability construct

As discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis, there is no universally accepted definition of what attitudes are. However, researchers seem to agree on certain aspects, namely the assumptions that attitudes are constructs with affective, cognitive and behavioural

components (Olson & Zanna, 1993). When these three assumptions are applied to attitudes towards persons with disability, the cognitive component would refer to the police officers' ideas, thoughts, perceptions, beliefs, opinions or mental conceptualisations of persons with disability. The affective or emotional component would reflect the extent of positive or negative feelings towards persons with disability (Antonak & Livneh, 1988) and the behavioural component would relate to a person's willingness to respond to, interact with or behave positively towards persons with disability (Noe, 2002). An attitude is thus formed towards persons with disability based on police officers' beliefs and thinking, which is often uninformed. This in turn predicts their behaviour and actions towards persons with disability.

In self-report measures such as Section C of the measuring instrument, the basic human tendency is to present oneself in the best possible light. Unfortunately, this can significantly distort the information gained from self-report measures (Fisher, 1993; Kim & Kim, 2013) and threatens the validity of the measure (Kim & Kim, 2013; Marquis, 2015). Thus, responses to self-report measures such as attitude measures are influenced by response styles such as the perceptions of respondents of what they think is correct or more socially acceptable. This phenomenon is called social desirability, acquiescence or the Hawthorne effect and is constituted of two separate factors namely self-deception and other-deception (Nederhof, 1985). Many persons behave in a socially desirable way towards persons with disability so as to not draw attention or criticism from others (Longoria & Marini, 2006). In measurements when items are formulated in such a way that participants have a choice for the upper or lower part of the rating scale, participants generally agree on items that are desirable (Konstabel, Aavik & Allik, 2006). In the present study both the experimental and control groups' pre-test scores were already positive (>90), which meant they may have become sensitised to the topic and this resulted in higher pre-test scores (Beaumont, 2009).

The literature of social psychology demonstrates that the type of contact a person has with a particular group is sometimes of crucial importance to the attitude construct. It is argued that persons who interact with persons with disability would typically hold more positive attitudes towards persons with disability than those who have no interaction (Brownlee & Carrington, 2000). Interaction with peers who have disabilities has been named as one of the most powerful methods for changing the attitudes towards persons with disability (Stewart, 1991). One might predict differences in attitudes as a result of contact with a relative with disability, a friend or acquaintance with disability, a co-worker with

disability, or the contact of professional staff working with persons with disability in rehabilitation and nursing settings or a function of specific experiences with one person with disability. That is, one may expect that an individual whose only contact with a person with disability was either a positive or negative experience, to then generalise their attitudes towards persons with disability in general based on this contact (Brownlee & Carrington, 2000).

In this study the exposure of the experimental group to the co-facilitator as a person with CCN who uses AAC, could have influenced the minimal increase in their scores on attitudes towards persons with disability. Participants interacted directly with the co-facilitator and gained first-hand knowledge about a person with CCN. This direct and actual contact with the co-facilitator may have lowered their prejudice towards persons with disability and increased their positive attitudes so that they answered the post-test more favourably, even if it was only by a small margin. The exposure of the experimental group to the co-facilitator again afforded a problem-focused learning experience that the police officers could relate back to a real-life situation the realisation that this learning information could be important to them in their encounters with persons with disability and persons with CCN as per the implementation of andragogical principles. However, since an increase in scores was also seen in the control group when comparing pre-and post-test scores, it is more likely that the pre-test itself sensitised the participants to their attitudes towards persons with disability, and their subsequent post-test responses may therefore have been more positive towards persons with disability. This is often referred to as the “priming effect” (Bargh & Chartrand, 2002), which is an unconscious process that occurs because of learning. From the results it can be deduced that change did not occur as predicted *ex ante*, as the outcomes predicted were not realised by the attitude measure. *Ex post*, results fail to support the prediction that the ECTP had a significant effect on police officers’ attitudes towards persons with disability.

In a study by Raczka, Theodore and Williams (n.d.) on brief training (45 minutes) on the effect of police attitudes towards persons with learning disabilities, it was found that there was no significant difference in the police officers’ total attitude score pre-test to post-test on the Mental Retardation Attitude Inventory-Revised. Results from a one-day training programme with police officers by Krameddine, Aavik, Hassel and Silverstone (2013) suggest that their training programme was successful in meeting the training goals set, but

results showed that there was no underlying change in the attitudes of the police officers towards those with mental illness. Changing police officers' attitudes on important issues such as attitudes towards persons with disability may require a longer period of training and may require a broader change in police officers' attitudes towards persons with disability, which may only be achievable through significant changes in their day-to-day living and working environment in how they interact with persons with disability.

Thus, from the above discussion on attitudes towards persons with disability and persons with CCN, the development of attitudes is hypothesised to be a function of the dynamic interplay of a complex range of factors (Seewooruttun & Scior 2014, Vilchinsky et al. 2010, Werner et al. 2012). As was evidenced from the literature, changing the attitudes of police officers towards persons with disability may require a longer period of training or even changes to the training content presented, which brings to mind that more seminal developments in training would have to happen to bring about positive changes in attitudes towards persons with disability.

6.5.4 The variables of gender, age, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS and years of experience in the FCS unit

The variables of gender, age, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS and years of experience in the FCS unit were examined. It must be borne in mind that the sample used in this study is reflective of a small group of FCS unit police officers and the general characteristics reflected here is not reflective of all FCS unit police officers across the country.

The dependent variables were not affected by and showed no statistically significant difference in any of the five dependent variables when comparing female and male participants. The andragogical principles are thus effective for both the female and male adult learners as the ECTP affected the female and male participants equally. However, a study by Lam (1985) showed that female learners were more concerned that their specific background and interests had to be met in the andragogical programme design and that they were more sensitive than their male counterparts to the type of learning climate.

There were no statistically significant differences for four dependent variables (knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN, perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN and attitudes towards persons with

disability) when comparing participants per age group. There was, however, a statistically significant difference between the age group of ≤ 40 years of age scoring higher post-test than the 41+ years of age group. This could be attributed to the fact that the older police officers were still trained with pedagogical principles where learning and activities were planned and directed by the teacher or facilitator and that in the transition to andragogical principles of learning it is not easy for the older police officers (Tam, 2014). This lends support to the value of implementing andragogical principles.

No statistically significant differences across the five dependent variables measured were noted when dividing the group according to educational level. However, it was noted from the results that 17 (59%) of the 29 participants only had a Grade 12 level of education with no further technical or university training. With high unemployment rates in SA, the entry level for the SAPS is only a Grade 12 level of education, which offers many citizens the opportunity to join the SAPS. However, having said that, many persons also join the SAPS who bring with them degrees and work experience in for example forensics or human resources. With policing changing drastically in the last 30 years, it has become evident that modern policing departments need more highly educated detectives who can use a multi-disciplined approach to policing (Bond, 2014). Following on this statement, the SAPS encourages its members to study further while in service in the SAPS. Higher education for police officers has also now been linked to community policing, which is thought to require a greater aptitude for innovation and resourcefulness among different levels of police officers to enable them to serve their communities optimally (Rydberg & Terrill, 2010).

On the variable of years of experience in the SAPS (Table 6.10), no statistically significant differences were noted between the participants with ≤ 15 years of experience and the participants with 16+ years of experience on the dependent variables measured post-test. Prior related work experience is believed to confer knowledge and skills that can be applied to the police officers' every day work context (Dokko, Wilk & Rothbard, 2009). However, with the changes in modern policing it may be difficult for police officers whose experiences span decades to change their assumptions and behaviours about how work should be done. The ECTP was thus equally of benefit to participants with less than ≤ 15 years of experience and those with 16+ years of experience.

When dividing participants into two groups (those with ≤ 5 years of experience in the FCS unit and those with 6+ years of experience) no statistical difference was noted for any of

the five dependent variables. FCS unit detectives actively apply to work in the units, making career path decisions to specialise in this area of investigation and undergo the specialist training that qualifies them as FCS unit detectives. This training in all matters related to family violence, child protection and sexual offences seems to be the one qualifying criteria that put these detectives on a level playing field when years of experience are compared.

The results discussed in this chapter provided evidence that the ECTP was effective to improve change across three of the dependent variables, namely knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime and perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. Further results presented evidence that the ECTP did not have the expected or planned effect on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime and attitudes towards persons with disability. This could perhaps be attributed to factors such as that the activities designed for the purpose of bringing about learning may not have been adequate to show that learning took place and that the two days allowed for training were not enough to bring about changes in attitude towards persons with disability as demonstrated by previous research on training on the impact of police attitudes towards persons with disability (Krameddine et al., 2013; Raczka et al., n.d.). *Ex post*, the results showed that change did not occur for the variables of applied knowledge in statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime and attitudes towards persons with disability.

6.6 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed and interpreted the research results based on the aims of the study. The statistical methods applied to the study, namely descriptive statistics and the mixed factorial ANOVA, were discussed and based on this discussion, the proposed research hypotheses for each variable were tested according to the sub-aims. The results for each variable were discussed according to within-group and between-group scores and the interaction effect between time and group. A discussion followed on each dependent variable, namely knowledge on disability, knowledge on statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime, applied knowledge on statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime, perceived skills in statement taking form persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime, attitudes towards persons with disability and social desirability and how this was applied to further explain the findings of the study.

Lastly, the variables of gender, age, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS and years of experience in the FCS unit was discussed. The next chapter outlines the implications for practice, provides an evaluation of the study and offers recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

As outlined in Chapter 3, the main aim of this study was to determine the effect of a two-day, custom-designed disability training programme (ECTP) on the knowledge, perceived skills and attitudes of FCS unit detectives when taking statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. Chapter 7 presents a summary of the results according to the three phases of this mixed-method sequential exploratory research design. This is followed by a description of the clinical implications of the results for practice. Next, the strengths and limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, recommendations for further research are suggested.

7.2 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The summary of results presented below is organised according to the three different phases.

7.2.1 Phase 1

Phase 1 comprised three distinct stages. First, the systematic review on published literature between 1980 and 2015 regarding disability training programmes provided to police officers either as new recruits during training or as part of their ongoing in-service continued training indicated a dearth of published literature. Only three studies matched the inclusion criteria, but none of these focused specifically on CCN. This gap in the available body of research necessitated the development of a new training programme. Principles for training programmes were sourced from published studies and these were employed in the development of the training approach. Principles included the following: i) developing a collaborative teaching approach that included a person with CCN who uses AAC; ii) employing a problem-based and experiential learning approach; and iii) designing a programme that included three distinct outcomes, namely knowledge, skills and attitudes towards persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

Secondly, the results of the survey using the *Police officers' knowledge and perceptions of disability questionnaire* (Modell & Mak, 2008) highlighted police officers' lack of knowledge about disability. Results showed a lack of competence in dealing with persons with disability as the majority of participants rated themselves below the midpoint of the

competence scale. This result also corresponded with the indication of police officers' lack of training on disability issues.

Thirdly, the data from two focus groups revealed gaps in police officers' initial training and ongoing professional development with respect to disability aspects such as identifying persons with disability and how to relate to persons with CCN. These police officers indicated that they are ill equipped to take statements from persons with CCN. Further results showed that these police officers self-identified a need for formal disability training as they generally base their interactions on previous experiences and interactions with persons with disability. The urgency of disability training at all levels of the police force was emphasised. The results from the credibility tests on the eight principles of a credible statement indicated that the participants had a basic knowledge and an understanding of a statement, but they could not name the principles.

The first phase of the study revealed that only three disability training programmes were available for police officers and that they focussed on disability in general. None of the studies in the systematic review of published literature focussed on training police officers on how to communicate with persons with CCN. The survey data corroborated this and indicated that there is a gap in their knowledge about disability and that many of the police officers perceived themselves as lacking competence in working with persons with disability. The two focus groups highlighted the challenges that the FCS unit detectives face in assisting persons with CCN when taking statements from them. Training regarding disability and specifically statement taking was highlighted as the first step to access to justice in all three stages of Phase 3. This lack of training and knowledge had the ripple effect that police officers felt ill equipped to take statements from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

7.2.2 Phase 2

Phase 2 commenced with developing the training programme based on an integration of literature, the quantitative information collected by means of the knowledge-based questionnaire and the qualitative focus group data obtained in Phase 1. The initial development of the ECTP was embedded in the human rights model of disability and the andragogical principles of learning. This included the principles of the police officers' self-concept of learning; their work experiences; their need to know and understand why they are learning new concepts; fostering the right motivation and orientation to learning so that

police officers become actively involved in communication activities; question-and-answer sessions; and role play. The concept of adult learning was incorporated into the development of the ECTP based on the requirements of effective training programmes and programme design as set out by Cafarello (2002) and the Kirkpatrick Model (Kirkpatrick et al., 2016). The ECTP was evaluated by two stakeholder groups and the healthcare expert panel and based on their suggestions, changes were made to the training programme.

The measuring instrument was developed and reviewed by the healthcare expert panel to measure its feasibility. After pre-piloting the measuring instrument with a group of police officers ($n = 10$), further changes were made to the measuring instrument. The measuring instrument was then pilot tested ($n = 7$). The results from the pilot study revealed that although the measuring instrument was easy to use, changes were needed to some questions. These changes were made to the measuring instrument before it was employed in the main study.

Next, the ECTP training evaluation form was developed and reviewed by both the SAPS stakeholder group and the expert panel. No changes were needed to the training evaluation form for the main study.

7.2.3 Phase 3

During Phase 3, a pre-test post-test control group design was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the ECTP to improve the knowledge, perceived skills and attitudes of FCS unit detectives towards persons with disabilities, in particular with respect to statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. A total of 29 FCS unit police officers participated in the training (experimental group), while a further 29 FCS unit police officers acted as a control group ($n = 58$). Overall, the results showed that the ECTP had a statistically significant effect on the FCS unit detectives' knowledge of disability ($p < .001$), their knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN ($p < .001$) and their perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN ($p < .001$). There was no statistically significant increase in scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime or a significant improvement in attitudes toward persons with disability from pre-test to post-test for the experimental group. The scores for attitudes towards persons with disability revealed an already positive score pre-test compared with the post-test scores for both the experimental and control groups. In an effort to evaluate

the influence of other variables that could have influenced the dependent variables of the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, further statistical analyses were performed.

Results from the Mann-Whitney U-test showed that the variables of gender, age, qualification, years of experience in the SAPS and years of experience in the FCS unit did not yield any statistically significant differences that could have affected the scores post-test for the experimental group. Next, analysis of the training evaluation form was undertaken. Results indicated a highly favourable and positive evaluation of the ECTP, the training packs and the Power Point slides. There was, however, as expected, an indication that a longer training period should be allowed to afford participants more time to practice their newly acquired knowledge and skills by means of the communication activities and practical exercises.

7.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The support of the SAPS in participating in this research reflects the organisation's willingness to incorporate training to empower its police officers to assist persons with disability and to provide them with access to justice. This is a further indication of the SAPS's efforts to link police legitimacy, procedural justice and the SAPS Code of Conduct by fair and just treatment of persons with disability and by recognising the basic human rights of persons with disability and their equal access to justice like all other citizens of South Africa.

The main implication for practice is that the short two-day training programme can be used successfully in the in-service training of FCS unit detectives. Explaining complex and unfamiliar concepts about disability in an adult learning environment linked to experiential training (e.g. communication activities, case studies and role play), could increase their knowledge and self-perceived skills.

The findings suggest that the ECTP boasts subject matter, namely persons with disability and their access to justice, that is relevant to training and beneficial to police officers' statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime. The ECTP had a positive effect on the FCS unit detectives' knowledge and perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN and this could mean that more persons with disability could be given access to justice. What is more, the quality of the statements will adhere to the principles of a credible statement, which in turn can lead to the successful

prosecution of reported cases. What is evident is that learning should go beyond the classroom with continuous reinforcement through learning by doing.

In responding to the self-report measures of attitudes towards persons with disability, the attitudes of both the experimental and control groups were already positive pre-test. However, although positive pre-test, the scores on the attitude scale increased post-test for both groups, indicating that exposure to the pre-test (priming effect) already had a positive effect on how participants rated themselves in their attitudes towards persons with disability. This could also have been the influence of the response style of the police officers in responding in a correct or more socially acceptable and desirable way, which also could have led to more positive post-test scores.

The emphasis on human rights and access to justice as set out in the ECTP can effectively equip police officers with knowledge about the rights of persons with disability and their access to justice, as many police officers are not aware of the human rights of persons with disability. A deeper understanding would not only increase their knowledge base but would also influence police officers' attitudes towards persons with disability.

Overall, the results of this study support the conclusion that it would be timeous for the SAPS to roll out the ECTP to its members at the induction stage of new recruits and to its existing in-service police officers. However, a first roll out of the ECTP to the charge office police officers as the first point of entry to access to justice may be a starting point.

7.4 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

The section below provides an evaluation of the strengths and the limitations of the study.

7.4.1 Strengths

An innovative rigorous programme development process was followed to deal with the apparent paucity of disability training programmes for South African police officers. It included a systematic review of disability training programmes offered to police officers, a quantitative survey on disability knowledge and perceptions about persons with disability, two qualitative focus groups, pre-piloting of the ECTP and the measuring instrument, and a pilot study. The programme development was further strengthened by a review of stakeholder groups and a healthcare expert panel who reviewed both the ECTP and the training

evaluation form. Section C of the measuring instrument was evaluated by the expert panel who are practitioners in the field of disability.

The use of the sequential exploratory mixed method design yielded a wealth of information to be used in the development of the ECTP. The systematic review (Appendix P), that was published as part of this study identified that there is a lack of disability training programmes for police officers with respect to persons with CCN. The researcher had the opportunity to interact with police officers from various units within the SAPS to gain insight into their knowledge and perceptions towards persons with disability through a survey, and to establish what training they received regarding statement taking from persons with disability during focus group discussions. A gap in police officers' training was thus identified, not only from the systematic review of published literature, but also from the results of the survey on police officers' knowledge and perceptions towards persons with disability and the focus group discussions.

The training approach incorporated six andragogical adult learning principles that adhere to the concept of self-directed learning as it applied to this study. This experiential learning environment encouraged the FCS unit detectives to take responsibility for their own learning and included interventions that were designed to enhance learning that contributes to problem-solving and that would allow them to share experiences. This in turn motivated them to be further invested in knowing why learning new information is important. Learning was further accomplished through the communication activities, case studies, role play and discussions throughout the ECTP.

The results of this study are encouraging. The FCS unit detectives' knowledge was shown to have increased following the ECTP and the various perceived skills associated with successful interviewing were found to have been enhanced significantly in the simulated communication activities. The evaluation of the ECTP also suggested that experiential training methods, for example the communication activities together with the written material provided in the course, were effective in producing positive learning outcomes. These, if acted upon, would ensure that statements taken from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime will conform to principles of a credible statement.

The results from the measuring instrument showed that three of the five dependent variables, namely the participants' knowledge of disability, knowledge of statement taking

from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime, and perceived skills in statement taking from persons with CCN who want to report being a victim of crime showed a statistically significant increase in the post-test scores compared to the pre-test scores for the experimental group. These results are encouraging as it showed that the ECTP had an impact. This was measured using a pre-test post-test measuring instrument (with a control group). The training evaluation questionnaire also showed high levels of satisfaction with the ECTP, and satisfaction has been successfully linked with andragogical adult learning (Knowles et al., 2015).

The research design included a control group that served as a baseline to compare the experimental and control groups and to assess the magnitude of effect of the ECTP. The use of a control group helped to establish the internal validity in an attempt to determine causality and if the results were true within the sample examined, namely the FCS unit detectives. The possibility of making an erroneous conclusion was thus reduced. The control group allowed for meaningful comparisons between the experimental group and control group. The statistical equivalence of the groups was established through single factor ANOVA. The Mann-Whitney U-test showed that there was only one statistical difference between the participants of the experimental and control groups and that was the years of experience in the FCS unit. The control group had more years of experience than the experimental group.

The reliability of the data entries was checked by using an independent coder to check the research entries. The values indicated a substantial and almost perfect agreement level of 98.71% and 98.83% from pre-and post-tests respectively.

A high level of programme integrity was achieved as a procedural checklist was used on both days of training with a procedural adherence of 87.04% on Day 1 and 100% on Day 2.

7.4.2 Limitations

A relatively small sample size was used in Phase 3 ($n = 58$) due to logistical constraints such as court appearances, annual leave or other workshop attendance by police officers. This affects the generalisability of the results to other police units.

Participants were not randomly assigned to the experimental group or control group but were selected based on who could be granted leave to attend the training. Commanders

nominated participants who would be available based on their availability due to court appearance, annual leave, sick leave or due to the attendance of other workshops. Randomised assignment of groups is the best way to assure that potential confounding variables are equal on average among the experimental and control groups. Non-random assignment could lead to either consciously or unconsciously unbalanced groups. In an effort to counter this implication in terms of internal validity, the statistical equivalence of groups was determined to ensure that the experimental and control groups were equal on average. Despite non-randomisation, the groups were equal for gender, age, qualification and years of experience in the SAPS as explained earlier. It was only on the variable of years of experience in the FCS unit that the control group presented with more years of experience than the experimental group.

Due to the strategic decisions around inclusion criteria, such as the literacy level and the consent provided by the SAPS, only FCS unit detectives were included in this study. The results of this study are limited to the responses of this specific group and may not be generalised to all police officers working in the SAPS, such as those in the charge office.

Due to high caseloads and other work demands, the decision was made to present the training content in the shortest possible time period, namely over two days. However, in analysing the training evaluation outcomes, the participants' comments showed that a two-day training programme was not long enough to absorb all the training content and practise their skills acquired during the training. A longer training period may have allowed more time for the practical application and/or demonstration of skills acquired during the training programme. A longer training period may also have an influence on higher post-test scores on applied knowledge of statement taking from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime and attitudes towards persons with disability.

Despite attempts to refrain from recruiting participants from the same FCS units for the experimental and control group, this was not logistically attainable. Therefore, the researcher requested that the experimental group not discuss the training programme with the control group. Despite these precautions, this was a factor that could not be controlled and that could have affected some of the results in this study.

The use of the ATDP-R scale (Section C of the measuring instrument) showed that there were no statistically significant changes in attitudes towards persons with disability

from pre-test to post-test for either the experimental or control groups. Administering the pre-test could thus have influenced the participants and that may have led to extra sensitivity towards persons with disability. Another factor to take into consideration was the response style of the participants as they may have responded to statements in what they perceive as a correct or more socially desirable way, referred to as the Hawthorne effect (McCambridge et al., 2014). This could also have attributed to the high scores pre-test. The results could have been influenced by this fact as both the experimental and control groups had scores above 90 pre-test, showing an already positive attitude and resulting in a ceiling effect. Changing of attitudes on disability may require a longer period of training as the theory of change implies that a relationship between the desire to change and the actions that produce change both need to be present to actually effect the change in attitudes of police officers towards persons with disabilities.

The fact that the effects of training were only measured at Levels 1 and 2 of Kirkpatrick's New World Model (Kirkpatrick et al., 2016) is another limitation. Even though the majority of the participants in the experimental group indicated that they were satisfied with the training and post-test results indicated an increase in knowledge, this did not necessarily mean that they would apply this newly acquired knowledge and skills in their work context. This study also did not evaluate whether their increase in knowledge and perceived skills would contribute to the SAPS police legitimacy or the access to justice for persons with disability. Many organisational factors in the SAPS, for example managerial support, reinforcement and performance appraisal, determine the impact of the training. The reinforcement and monitoring of the newly acquired knowledge and perceived skills could thus not be evaluated once the FCS unit detectives returned to their jobs.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Police officers need to be sensitised and exposed to training on how to deal with persons with disability generally and persons with CCN specifically, and on how to take statements when they report being the victim of crime. Studies that serve to address specific training guidelines for disability training should be presented and incorporated into the initial training of new recruits where the focus of such a study can provide critical information on how to respond to crimes involving persons with CCN and the different AAC devices that persons with CCN use to communicate and facilitate access to justice for persons with disability, specifically persons with CCN. This exposure to persons with disability can help

change attitudes, challenge stereotypes about disability, build confidence and provide a basis on which further learning can take place.

The ECTP could be examined for its sustainability by following up on the same group of police officers who formed part of the experimental group longitudinally and re-administering the same measuring instrument. The post-test results of the experimental group on the measuring instrument can be used as a baseline to compare whether the ECTP had the desired outcomes on their knowledge, skills and attitudes when the measuring instrument is administered again over time.

A comparative study into disability training could utilise the findings of this study as a baseline to extend the ECTP over three days and then compare the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained by participants between the shorter two-day programme and the longer three-day programme to determine optimal length of training for maximum effect. The extended time on the training programme could offer police officers the opportunity to more fully absorb the new learning material and may give them time to practice and hone their skills in statement taking from persons with CCN (for example when a person with CCN is utilised as a co-facilitator). It would also allow for more time and direct interaction with the person with CCN who uses AAC. Re-administering the post-test after a wash-out period could provide information about the maintenance of the effects.

More specific research can be undertaken to specifically focus on the human impact of including a co-facilitator with disability in the training and determining the sustainability of this input on participants. This inclusion of a person with disability would mean that the person participates in activities with participants and interact on an equal basis (as was done in the current study). This learning about disability in an interactive training environment is more than just hearing or seeing the same thing, it is about experiencing it together and sharing in the experiences with each other. This can be investigated with a cross-over design where one group of police officers receive training from a person with disability and the other group does not to determine the effect of this on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the participants in the group that is facilitated by a person with disability.

As Level 3 (behavioural level) and Level 4 (results level) of the evaluation of the Kirkpatrick New World Model (Kirkpatrick et al., 2016) was not possible in this study, future research should include the measurement of these two levels. In practice this would mean that

the effect of the ECTP should be measured to establish, firstly, the performance of the FCS unit detectives after training, and secondly, the impact on the organisation.

Although there are policies and legislation in place for police officers to follow when assisting persons with disability generally, the levels of awareness, knowledge and implementation of these policies seem to be low. A short training programme that focuses solely on these policies and legislation could be beneficial to police officers. It could raise their awareness and knowledge of the difficulties that persons with disability encounter when they attempt to access justice and enter the police station to make a statement to report being a victim of crime. These policies and legislation could be printed on an information pamphlet that could be attached to the wall of the charge office, just like the SAPS Code of Conduct is printed and attached to the wall for all citizens to see when they enter the charge office.

7.6 SUMMARY

Chapter 7 offered the conclusions based on the results of this study. The implications of the ECTP on general policing were discussed. The strengths and limitations of the study were highlighted in an attempt to evaluate the study. Finally, recommendations for further studies were suggested to add to the existing body of knowledge on statement taking by police officers from persons with CCN who report being a victim of crime.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONAL APPROVAL SAPS



PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SAPS

RESEARCH TOPIC: STATEMENT TAKING PROCEDURES BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH (LNFS) WHO REPORT BEING THE VICTIM OF A CRIME

RESEARCHER: MS E NEL

Permission is hereby granted to the researcher above to conduct research in the SAPS based on the conditions of National Instruction 1 of 2006 (as handed to the researcher) and within the limitations as set out below and in the approved research proposal.

This permission must be accompanied with the signed Indemnity, Undertaking & Declaration and presented to the commander present when the researcher is conducting research.

This permission is valid for a period of Twelve (12) months after signing.

Any enquiries with regard to this permission must be directed to Lt. Col. Peters or SAC Linda Ladzani at PetersNS@saps.gov.za / Ladzanim@saps.org.za.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS / BOUNDARIES:

Research Instruments:	Questionnaires
Target audience / subjects:	Police Officials / FCS Detectives
Geographical target:	FCS Units
Access to official documents:	No



DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG
DS DE LANGE

MAJOR GENERAL

DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS



SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Private Bag / Privaatsak X 57, BRAAMFONTEIN, 2017

Reference Verwysing	3/34/2(201500034)
Enquiries	Lt. Col. Peters
Navrae	SAC Linda Ladzani
Telephone Telefoon	(011) 274- 7529
Fax number Faksnommer	(011) 547- 9189

OFFICE OF THE
PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
GAUTENG

2015-10-08

- A. The Provincial Head: Legal Service
S A Police Service
GAUTENG
- B. The Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Crime Detection
S A Police Service
GAUTENG
- C. The Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Human Resources Management
S A Police Service
GAUTENG


APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MS ERNA NEL: STATEMENT TAKING BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH (LNFS) WHO REPORT BEING VICTIM OF A CRIME

- A-B: For your recommendation
- C: For approval

1. Attached herewith is an application of Ms E Nel to conduct research within the South African Police Service.
2. The application has been evaluated by the Provincial Research Office (Strategic Management) as per attached Annexure and found to be in compliance with National Instruction 1 of 2006: Research.
3. In the opinion of the Research Office, the research will assist the South African Police Service as police officers will be sensitized to taking statements from people with severe communication difficulties. The Disability Sensitive Training Program (DSTP) will increase awareness and understanding of the types and nature of different disability that police officers may encounter in line of their statement taking. The Disability Sensitive Training Program will equip officers with skills and knowledge to circumvent these difficulties or minimize their effect.

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MS ERNA NEL: STATEMENT TAKING BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH (LNFS) WHO REPORT BEING VICTIM OF A CRIME

4. Participants will be drawn from the Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offence Unit (FCS) Units within Gauteng.
5. In line with National Instruction 1 of 2006, you are afforded the opportunity to comment on the relevance and feasibility of the proposed research within your area of responsibility. Any objections against the research will be noted and you will be requested to clarify and motivate those with the Provincial Head: Organisational Development & Strategic Management.
6. In order to ensure the effective and efficient finalisation of this application you are requested to forward your comments back to Strategic Management office within the allocated timeframe.
7. Your cooperation and assistance is appreciated.



PROVINCIAL HEAD: ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT & STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG
SIPHETO
Date: 20/10/20

BRIGADIER


PROVINCIAL HEAD: ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT & STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG

SIPHETO

Date:

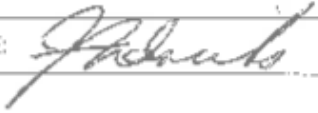
APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MS ERNA NEL: STATEMENT TAKING BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH (LNFS) WHO REPORT BEING VICTIM OF A CRIME

COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATION: PROVINCIAL RESEARCH CENTRE


i	OFFICIAL FILE NO.	3/34/2 (201500034)		
	FILE COMPUTER REFERENCE NO:	7304439		
ii	MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To establish the effect of a disability sensitive training programme on the attitude, knowledge and skills of police officers when assisting individuals with LNFS who report being the victim of a crime. 		
	APPLICATION FOUND TO BE COMPLETE:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
	INDEMNITY / UNDERTAKING SIGNED	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
iii	APPLICATION PERUSED BY:	SAC ML Ladzani		
	CONTACT NO:	311 274 7529		
	SIGNATURE:	 M. Ladzani		
	DATE:	2015. 10. 07		
				7003079-1
iv	APPLICATION VERIFIED BY:			
	APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
	CONTACT NO:			
	SIGNATURE:			
	DATE:			

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MS ERNA NEL: STATEMENT TAKING BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH (LNFS) WHO REPORT BEING VICTIM OF A CRIME

A. RECOMMENDATION BY THE PROVINCIAL HEAD: LEGAL SERVICE
TIME ALLOCATED: 3 days

COMMENTS WITH REGARDS TO ANY LEGAL OBJECTIONS AGAINST THE RESEARCH WITH ANY ADDITIONAL LIMITATIONS TO RESEARCHER:			
APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
SIGNATURE: 	DATE: 2015/10/14		

B. RECOMMENDATION BY THE DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: CRIME DETECTION
TIME ALLOCATED: 3 days

COMMENTS WITH REGARDS TO THE RELEVANCE AND FEASIBILITY OF THE RESEARCH WITHIN YOUR ENVIRONMENT			
The application is recommended			
APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
SIGNATURE: 	DATE:		



PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SAPS

RESEARCH TOPIC: STATEMENT TAKING PROCEDURES BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH (LNFS) WHO REPORT BEING THE VICTIM OF A CRIME

RESEARCHER: MS E NEL

Permission is hereby granted to the researcher above to conduct research in the SAPS based on the conditions of National Instruction 1 of 2006 (as handed to the researcher) and within the limitations as set out below and in the approved research proposal.

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This permission is valid for a period of Twelve (12) months after signing.

Any enquiries with regard to this permission must be directed to Lt. Col. Peters or SAC Linda Ladzani at PetersNS@saps.gov.za / Ladzanim@saps.org.za.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS / BOUNDARIES:

Research Instruments:	Questionnaires
Target audience / subjects:	Police Officials / FCS Detectives
Geographical target:	FCS Units
Access to official documents:	No

 A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'DS De Lange', is written over a circular stamp or seal.

DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG
DS DE LANGE

MAJOR GENERAL
DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG

**APPENDIX B: SAPS PROVINCIAL HEAD OFFICE KWA-ZULU
NATAL APPROVAL**

**South African Police
Service**



**Suid-Afrikaanse
Polisiediens**

Umbutho Wamaphoyisa Aseningizimu-Afrika

Our Reference / U-Yenwysing / Inkomba Yakhohlo

My Reference / My Yenwysing / Inkomba Yami

Enquiries / Nawasa / Buzi

Telephone / Telefoni / Ucinga

Fax No / Faksa/No

25/712/2/3 (307)

Colonel A.D. van der Linde / CAC R. Moodley

031 – 325 4041 / 6116

031 – 325 6022

THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER

KWAZULU-NATAL

P O BOX 1965

DURBAN

4000

Ms E. Nel
c/o Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication
University of Pretoria
Private Bag X20
HATFIELD
0028

Dear Ms Nel

RE: RESEARCH REQUEST: STATEMENT TAKING PROCEDURES BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH WHO REPORT BEING THE VICTIM OF CRIME: PHD: UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA: RESEARCHER: MS ERNA NEL

Attached, please find Head Office minute 3/34/2 dated 2015-09-23 regarding permission to conduct the above-mentioned research.

Recommendation to conduct the said research has been granted in terms of National Instruction 1/2006 (SAPS Research Policy).

Approval from the office of the Divisional Commissioner: Detective Service as well as Provincial Commissioner: KwaZulu-Natal is hereby granted to conduct the said research only at the following FCS Units, Brighton Beach; Chatsworth; Durban Central; Phoenix; Inanda; Pinetown; Port Shepstone; Margate and Pietermaritzburg.

RE: RESEARCH REQUEST: STATEMENT TAKING PROCEDURES BY POLICE OFFICERS WHEN INTERVIEWING INDIVIDUALS WITH LITTLE OR NO FUNCTIONAL SPEECH WHO REPORT BEING THE VICTIM OF CRIME: PHD: UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA: RESEARCHER: MS ERNA NEL

Paragraph 4 of minute 3/34/2 dated 2015-09-23 from the Office of National Strategic Management must be adhered to.

Attached, please find statement of undertaking that must be completed and returned to this office (MoodleyRohine@saps.gov.za) prior to the commencement of the research study.

For any queries, please contact Colonel A.D. van der Linde on the following numbers:

Office: 031 325 4841
Cell: 082 496 1142

Thank you.



.....MAJOR GENERAL
DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: PHYSICAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT:
KWAZULU-NATAL
P.E. RADEBE

DATE: 2015-11-18

APPENDIX C: ETHICS APPROVAL UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Research Ethics Committee

4 November 2015

Dear Dr Dada

Project: Statement taking procedures by police officers when interviewing individuals with little or no functional speech who report being the victim of a crime

Researcher: E Nel

Supervisor: Prof J Bornman

Department: Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication

Reference number: 82308111 (GW20150822HS)

Thank you for the response to the Committee's correspondence of 1 September 2015.

I have pleasure in informing you that the Research Ethics Committee formally **approved** the above study at an *ad hoc* meeting held on 4 October 2015. Data collection may therefore commence.

Please note that this approval is based on the assumption that the research will be carried out along the lines laid out in the proposal. Should your actual research depart significantly from the proposed research, it will be necessary to apply for a new research approval and ethical clearance.

The Committee requests you to convey this approval to the researcher.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

Prof. Karen Harris
Acting Chair: Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: karen.harris@up.ac.za

Kindly note that your original signed approval certificate will be sent to your supervisor via the Head of Department. Please liaise with your supervisor.

Research Ethics Committee Members: Prof KL Harris(Acting Chair); Dr L Blokland; Dr JEH Grobler; Ms H Klopper; Dr C Panebianco-Warrens; Dr C Puttergill; Prof GM Spies; Dr Y Spies; Prof E Taljard; Ms KT Andrew (Committee Admin), Mr V Sithole (Committee Admin)

APPENDIX D: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION AND SURVEY ON KNOWLEDGE OF DISABILITY

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research is to determine what information police officers think should be included in a disability sensitivity training programme to equip police officers to the level where they can meet the needs of persons with disability with whom they may come in contact with as part of their duties. This training programme will include education and information on the various disabilities and how to recognise individuals' disabilities.

Declaration: By returning the completed questionnaire, I give permission that the information may be used for research purposes. Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

Please contact the researcher (Erna Nel at erna.nel1@absamail.co.za) for further information.

PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS

Please answer the questions by placing an **X** in the box deemed the most appropriate or according to the specific instructions

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1) What is your gender?

Female		Male	
--------	--	------	--

2) What is your first language?

Afrikaans		English		isiNdebele		isiXhosa	
IsiZulu		Sesotho sa Loba (Sepedi)		Sesotho		Setswana	
SiSwati		Tshivenda		Xitsonga		Other, specify	

3) What other languages do you speak? Please mark all that apply.

Afrikaans		English		isiNdebele		isiXhosa	
IsiZulu		Sesotho sa Loba (Sepedi)		Sesotho		Setswana	
SiSwati		Tshivenda		Xitsonga		Other, specify	

4) What is your age? _____

5) What is your highest qualification?

Grade 12	1 year post Grade 12	2 years post Grade 12	3 years or more post Grade 12

6) How many years experience do you have working in the police service? Please write your answer in the blocks provided.

Years		Months	
-------	--	--------	--

7) What is your current rank?

Constable		Captain		Brigadier		Non-functional member	
Sergeant		Major		Major General		Administrative	
Warrant Officer		Lieutenant Colonel		Lieutenant General		Other, specify	
Lieutenant		Colonel		General			

8) In what unit do you work?

Client Service Centre		FCS Unit		Crime Intelligence		Serious and violent Crimes	
Detectives		Dog Unit		Crime Prevention		Organised Crime	

If any other unit not indicated, please specify _____

9) Do you have a family member or know somebody with a disability? Yes No

If yes, please state the type of disability and your relationship with the person.

10) Have you had contact with a person with a disability in your line of duty? Yes No

If yes, please state the nature of the disability.

11) Do you have a disability yourself? Yes No

If yes, please state the disability

SECTION B: QUESTIONNAIRE ON DISABILITY

*Please answer all the questions even if you are not certain of an answer.
There are no right or wrong answers to the questions.*

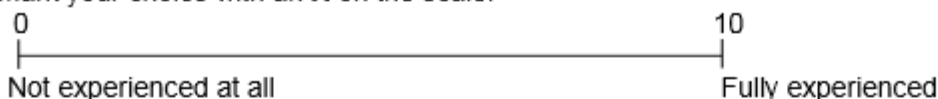
- 1) When you first hear the word disability what thoughts come to mind?

- 2) What differences do you see if any, between mental retardation and mental illness?

- 3) Distinguish between physical disabilities and intellectual disabilities.

- 4) What does the term Autism mean to you?

- 5) On a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 = not experienced at all to where 10 = fully experienced, how experienced do you think you are to handle a case with a person with a disability?
Mark your choice with an **X** on the scale.



- 6) What special skills and knowledge do you feel a police officer in your position should have in dealing with cases involving people with disabilities?

- 7) Did you receive training regarding people with disabilities? If yes, please describe the previous training.

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

- 8) Which do you think a person with a disability is more likely to be? Mark only one.

A victim of crime		A perpetrator of crime	
-------------------	--	------------------------	--

- 9) Would you be interested in receiving training in how to deal with persons with disabilities?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

APPENDIX E: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE FOCUS GROUP



Faculty of Humanities

Appendix D: Consent to participate in focus group

PARTICIPANT NUMBER

--	--	--	--

Research Title: Statement taking by police officers from persons with complex communication needs who report being a victim of crime.

Researcher: Erna Viljoen PhD Student
Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication
University of Pretoria

Supervisor: Prof. Juan Bornman

Co-Supervisor: Dr. Kerstin Tönsing

I _____
Name and surname and rank

I consent to take part in this study.

I understand that my consent is voluntary and that I may withdraw from participation in the study at any time. I understand that I will be one of 10 police officers who will participate during this study. I understand that I will be expected to complete a questionnaire including biographical information and participate in the focus group discussion and complete a free writing exercise on statement taking. All data collected will be via paper and pen/pencil questionnaires. An audio recording and transcription will be made of the focus group discussion. I understand that the data will be stored for 15 years at the Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication. I understand that the data may be used for analysis. I understand that all data obtained in this study will be treated as confidential and no names made public.

OR

I do not give consent to participate in this study.

Signature

Date

Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

Centre for Augmentative and Alternative
Communication, Room 2-36, Com path
Building, Lynnwood Road
University of Pretoria, Private Bag X20
Hatfield 0028, South Africa
Tel +27 (0)12 420 2001
Fax +27 (0) 86 5100841
Email saak@up.ac.za
wwwcaac.up.ac.za

APPENDIX F: PROCEDURAL FOCUS GROUP SCRIPT

Welcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thank you for making your time available to attend this Focus Group. • Introduce yourself and co-facilitators. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>My name is Erna Nel; I am a psychologist in private practice and worked in the South African Police Services(SAPS) from 2002 to 2004 in the Helping Professions now called the Employee Wellness Program. I am a PhD student at the Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication (Centre for AAC) at the University of Pretoria. My colleagues today are Prof.Juan Bornman, head of the CAAC and Dr.Ensa Johnson, lecturer at the CAAC. Both have worked on other projects within the SAPS and are thus familiar with the workings of the SAPS. Both are here today to support us with the focus group as this is the first focus group for this research project that we will be conducting in the SAPS. The area that we are interested in is the statement taking of police officers from people with little or no functional speech who report being the victim of a crime. People with little or no functional speech are people who experience communication difficulties such as not being able to express what has happened to them, or not being understood when they are telling their story.</i> • Introduction of Participants <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Can you please introduce yourselves by stating your name to us?</i> • What we want to do and achieve in the focus group – Short introduction to discuss the aims of the project: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>The aim of this study is to investigate how statements are taken from persons with a disability who report being a victim of crime to the FCS Units.</i> • How the participants can help us to achieve this goal and why the participants are suitable for the task. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Your help and knowledge are very valuable, because you can share with us your wealth of experience that you may have in working with persons with disability who report being a victim of crime.</i> • Details about focus group <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Please ensure that you complete the consent and bibliographical information forms before you leave today. (Forms are printed back-to-back)</i> ✓ <i>Please be aware that the discussions of the focus group will be audio taped.</i> ✓ <i>Your comments will be typed up and projected on the screen for you to see how we understand it.</i> ✓ <i>The focus group will take no longer than 1 ½ hours.</i> ✓ <i>Please can we ensure that all cell phones are placed on silent for the duration of the focus group.</i> ✓ <i>Please be aware that what is said in this focus group remains confidential.</i> ✓ <i>Remember that you have the right to withdraw from the session at any time.</i>
Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carefully word the questions before the question is addressed by the group. Then, facilitate discussion around the answer to the question. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. First part of session <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>“What are your experiences of persons with disability and more so people that you have encountered that had difficulty in communicating with you,</i>

	<p><i>either as a victim and you had to take a statement or investigate a case. Or as a perpetrator that you have to take a statement from?(Prompting questions that elicit direct reporting of experiences related to the two key topic areas statement taking and communicating will be prepared.)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ (NOTE CARDS) ✓ <i>To establish validity of data, member checking will be used at the end of each session. Statements are jointly reviewed, duplications excluded, and participants will be asked two further questions: “Do these statements accurately represent your experience?” and “Is there anything we have missed that you feel should be included?” Specific questions can be asked for statements that require further clarification. (10-15 min)</i> <p>B. Second part of session (after a short break)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>“How do you manage to support and take statements from people who have come to report a crime? (Prompting questions concerning personal and technical solutions may be asked.)</i> ✓ <i>To establish validity of data, member checking is will be used at the end of each session. Statements are jointly reviewed, duplications excluded, and participants will be asked two further questions: “Do these statements accurately represent your experience?” and “Is there anything we have missed that you feel should be included?” Specific questions can be asked for statements that require further clarification.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure even participation. If one or two people are dominating the meeting, then call on others.
Closing of session	<i>Thank you for your valuable time used to take part in this focus group.</i>

APPENDIX G: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE SAPS POLICE OFFICERS

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS

Code #

--	--	--	--

Please answer the questions by placing an X in the box deemed the most appropriate or according to the specific instructions

1) What is your gender?

Female		Male	
--------	--	------	--

2) What is your first language?

Afrikaans		English		isiNdebele		isiXhosa	
IsiZulu		Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi)		Sesotho		Setswana	
SiSwati		Tshivenda		Xitsonga		Other, specify	

3) What other languages do you speak? Please mark all that apply.

Afrikaans		English		isiNdebele		isiXhosa	
IsiZulu		Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi)		Sesotho		Setswana	
SiSwati		Tshivenda		Xitsonga		Other, specify	

4) What is your age? _____

5) What is your highest qualification?

Grade 12	1-year post Grade 12	2-years post Grade 12	3-years or more post Grade 12

6) How many years of experience do you have working in the SAPS? Please write your answer in the blocks provided.

Years		Months	
-------	--	--------	--

7) How many years of experience do you have working in the FCS Unit? Please write your answer in the blocks provided.

Years		Months	
-------	--	--------	--

8) What is your current rank?

Constable		Captain		Brigadier	
Sergeant		Major		Major General	
Warrant Officer		Lieutenant Colonel		Lieutenant General	
Lieutenant		Colonel		General	

APPENDIX I: MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Code #

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SECTION B

Please answer all the questions, even if you are not certain of an answer

- 1) In your own words, how would you describe a person with disability?

- 2) There are many different words to describe persons with disability.

- a) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a person in a wheelchair?

- b) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a paraplegic person?

- c) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a retarded person?

- d) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a brain damaged person?

- e) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a handicapped person?

- f) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a mute person?

- g) What do you think is a more appropriate word to describe a crazy person?

- 3) Persons with disability may experience barriers that restrict their participation in everyday activities. Please name at least five barriers that you can think of.

Barriers:

SECTION C

Read each statement and put a **tick (✓)** in the **column that shows your answer**

	STATEMENT	I disagree a lot	I disagree	I disagree a little	I agree a little	I agree	I agree a lot	Score
1	Persons with disabilities are often unfriendly.							
2	Persons with disabilities should not have to compete for jobs with persons without disabilities.							
3	Persons with disabilities are more emotional than other persons.							
4	Most persons with disabilities are more self-conscious than other persons.							
5	We should expect just as much from persons with disabilities as from persons without disabilities.							
6	Employees with disabilities cannot be as successful as other workers.							
7	Persons with disabilities usually do not make much of a contribution to society.							
8	Most persons without disabilities would not want to marry a person who has a disability.							
9	Persons with disabilities show as much enthusiasm as persons without disabilities.							
10	Persons with disabilities are usually more sensitive than persons without disabilities.							
11	Persons with disabilities are usually untidy.							
12	Most persons with disabilities feel that they are as good as							

	STATEMENT	I disagree a lot	I disagree	I disagree a little	I agree a little	I agree	I agree a lot	Score
	persons without disabilities.							
13	The driving test given to persons with disabilities should be more difficult than the one given to persons without disabilities.							
14	Persons with disabilities are usually sociable.							
15	Persons with disabilities usually are not as thoughtful as persons without disabilities.							
16	Persons with severe disabilities probably worry more about their health than those who have moderate disabilities.							
17	Most persons with disabilities are satisfied with themselves.							
18	There are more misfits among persons with disabilities than among persons without disabilities.							
19	Most persons with disabilities are not easily discouraged.							
20	Most persons with disabilities resent persons without disabilities.							
21	Children with disabilities should compete with children without disabilities.							
22	Most persons with disabilities can take care of themselves.							
23	It would be best if persons with disabilities would live and work with persons without disabilities.							
24	Most persons with severe disabilities are just as ambitious as							

STATEMENT		I disagree a lot	I disagree	I disagree a little	I agree a little	I agree	I agree a lot	Score
	persons without disabilities.							
25	Persons with disabilities are just as self-confident as persons without disabilities.							
26	Most persons with disabilities want more affection and praise than persons without disabilities.							
27	Persons with a physical disability are often less intelligent than persons without disabilities.							
28	Most persons with disabilities are different from persons without disabilities.							
29	Persons with disabilities don't want any more sympathy than persons without disabilities.							
30	The way in which persons with disabilities behave is annoying.							

SECTION D

Please *tick* (✓) if you agree or disagree with the following statements

	STATEMENT	I Agree	I Disagree	Score
1	The accuracy of my observations will depend on my senses I use when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability.			
2	My statement is complete when I have asked who, what, where, when and why about the crime from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.			
3	It is easier for me to use the "telegram style" when I take a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime as the person may not be able to communicate clearly.			
4	I can only ask open-ended questions from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime.			
5	A statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime is comprehensive when I report most of the important facts.			
6	In taking a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime, the person's communication disability will impact on the facts that relate to the case.			
7	In taking a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime, my statement need not be comprehensive as the person may not be able to communicate clearly.			
8	I can ask closed questions from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime if the person goes astray during the interview.			
9	In taking a statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime, I can use vague words to describe the crime as the person may not be able to communicate clearly.			
10	The contents of my statement from a person with a communication disability reporting a crime will reflect on my reliability as a witness.			

APPENDIX J: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PILOT STUDY



Faculty of Humanities

PARTICIPANT NUMBER

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Research Title: Statement taking by police officers from persons with complex communication needs who report being a victim of crime.

Researcher: Erna Nel PhD Student
Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication
University of Pretoria
Supervisor: Prof. Juan Bornman
Co-Supervisor: Dr Kerstin Tönsing

I _____
Name and surname and rank

I consent to take part in this study.

I understand that my consent is voluntary and that I may withdraw from participation in the study at any time. I understand that I will be one of 10 police officers who will participate during this study. I understand that I will be expected to complete a questionnaire including biographical information and pre-test and post-test questions and answer all the questions. I understand that I will complete an evaluation form at the end of each day of the two-day training programme. All data collected will be via paper and pen/pencil questionnaires and evaluation forms. No audio recordings will be made. I understand that the data will be stored for 15 years at the Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication. I understand that the data may be used for analysis. I understand that all data obtained in this study will be treated as confidential and no names made public.

OR

I do not give consent to participate in this study.

Signature

Date

Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

APPENDIX K: TRAINING EVALUATION FORM

Training Programme Evaluation Form

Please answer all the questions

Code #

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Please tick (✓) if you agree; disagree; strongly disagree or strongly agree

STATEMENTS	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
PROGRAMME OBJECTIVES				
The objectives were clearly outlined				
The outlined objectives were met				
PROGRAMMEME MATERIALS				
The language used was easy to understand				
The material was easy to navigate				
The programme followed a planned sequence				
PROGRAMME CONTENT				
The content was easy to understand				
Content relating to attitude, knowledge, and skills were clearly defined				
Definitions to explain concepts were adequate				
Communication activities were relevant for each module				
Case studies were appropriate for each module				
The class discussion time was adequate				
The question-answer time was adequate				
There were more than enough opportunities for me to demonstrate my knowledge				
There were more than enough opportunities for me to demonstrate my skills				
Communication boards were clearly set out				
Communications boards were easy to understand				
EFFECTS OF RESULTS				
The information I learned will improve my effectiveness				
The information I learned will improve my results				
The information I learned improved my understanding of the subject				
I will recommend the programme to others with similar needs to mine to attend this programme				
FACILITATOR				
The facilitator illustrated and clarified points that were not understood or clear				
The facilitator maintained a friendly and helpful manner throughout the training days				
The facilitator kept the sessions alive and interesting				
The facilitator summarised the contents covered in the different modules at the end of each training day				

1) What did you like best about the programme?

2) What did you like least about the programme?

3) What do you think should be added to the programme?

4) What do you think should be taken out of the programme?

5) What are your views on the handouts that you received? Put a (√) next to your choice.

Too many		Just right		Too few	
----------	--	------------	--	---------	--

Very relevant		Satisfactory		Not at all relevant	
---------------	--	--------------	--	---------------------	--

6) What are your views on the Power Point Slides that were used? Put a (√) next to your choice.

Too many		Just right		Too few	
----------	--	------------	--	---------	--

Very relevant		Satisfactory		Not at all relevant	
---------------	--	--------------	--	---------------------	--

7) What other comments are there about the training programme that have not been covered, that you would like to make?

APPENDIX L: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP



Faculty of Humanities

PARTICIPANT NUMBER

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Research Title: Statement taking by police officers from persons with complex communication needs who report being a victim of crime.

Researcher: Erna Nel PhD Student
Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication
University of Pretoria
Supervisor: Prof. Juan Borman
Co-Supervisor: Dr. Kerstin Tönsing

I _____
Name and surname and rank

I consent to take part in this study.

I understand that my consent is voluntary and that I may withdraw from participation in the study at any time. I understand that I will be one of 35 police officers who will participate during this study. I understand that I will be expected to complete a questionnaire including biographical information and pre-test and post-test questions and answer all the questions. I understand that I will complete an evaluation form at the end of each day of the two-day training programme. All data collected will be via paper and pen/pencil questionnaires and evaluation forms. No audio recordings will be made. I understand that the data will be stored for 15 years at the Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication. I understand that the data may be used for analysis. I understand that all data obtained in this study will be treated as confidential and no names made public.

OR

I do not give consent to participate in this study.

Signature

Date

Fakulteit Geesteswetenskappe
Lefapha la Bomotho

APPENDIX M: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE CONTROL GROUP



Faculty of Humanities

PARTICIPANT NUMBER

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Research Title: Statement taking by police officers from persons with complex communication needs who report being a victim of crime.

Researcher: Erna Nel PhD Student
Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication
University of Pretoria
Supervisor: Prof. Juan Bornman
Co-Supervisor: Dr. Kerstin Tönsing

I _____
Name and surname and rank

I consent to take part in this study.

I understand that my consent is voluntary and that I may withdraw from participation in the study at any time. I understand that I will be one of 35 police officers who will participate during this study. I understand that I will be expected to complete a questionnaire including biographical information and pre-test and post-test questions and answer all the questions. All data collected will be via paper and pen/pencil questionnaires and evaluation forms. No audio recordings will be made. I understand that the data will be stored for 15 years at the Centre for Augmentative and Alternative Communication. I understand that the data may be used for analysis. I understand that all data obtained in this study will be treated as confidential and no names made public.

OR

I do not give consent to participate in this study.

Signature

Date

APPENDIX N: PROCEDURAL CHECKLIST

TIME		TRAINING SESSION CONTENT	TICK ON COMPLETION
INTRODUCTION			
8h00 – 9h30	Learning objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The facts and statistics on disability in SA and internationally; ● The policies and legislation on disability; ● The definition of disability used in SA as articulated in the CRPD; ● The South African Police Service's Code of Conduct (Part 3); ● The White Paper on Human Rights Principles of Policing; ● The training programme and the aims of the three modules; ● The graphic symbols to indicate core information and activities used throughout the ECTP TRAINING PROGRAMME. 	
	Materials and equipment	Each participant received a training manual covering the introduction. Power Point Training slides created for the presentation of the introduction.	
MODULE 1 – General information on disability			
10h00- 13h00	Learning objectives	<p>This module will enable you to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● List some general characteristics of persons with disability; ● Understand the definition of disability from a human rights perspective; ● Understand attitudes, myths and misinformation about persons with disability; ● List barriers that restrict and facilitators that increase a person with disability's environmental participation; ● Complete a case study and questions. 	
	Communication activity	<p>Card Match</p> <p><i>Description:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● You will each be given a card with information on it. Some of the cards will have questions and some of the cards will have answers. <p><i>Presentation:</i></p> <p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p>	
	Outcomes		
	Key information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What is disability? ● Activities; participation and human rights – context and life activities explained ● Activities and participation explained according to: domestic life; relationships; work and education; leisure; learning and thinking; ways of coping; communication; mobility and self-care. ● How would you describe a person with disability? ● Attitudes, myths and misunderstanding about persons with disability. ● Disability and language – illustrating the correct use of language when referring to persons with disability. ● What are barriers that restrict a person's participation in activities and what are facilitators that increase a person's participation in activities? <p>Examples of signs and graphic symbols to indicate various facilities and allowances for persons with disability</p> <p><i>Activity:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Do you know the appropriate word to use in place of the unacceptable words listed? <p><i>Case study: Sam</i></p> <p><i>Discussion questions:</i></p>	
	Example		
	Activity		
	Case Study Outcomes		

TIME		TRAINING SESSION CONTENT	TICK ON COMPLETION
	Communication activity Outcomes	Which line is the longest? <i>Description:</i> You will be shown two lines on a card. <i>Presentation:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You must decide which of the two lines is the longest. <i>Discussion questions:</i>	
	Definitions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is disability? Definition of disability used in SA. Human rights-based definition common elements explained. 	
	Materials and equipment	Each participant received an envelope with all the cards included that were used for the communication activities in Module 1. Power Point Training slides created for the presentation covering Module 1.	
MODULE 2 – Communication			
13h30 – 15h30	Learning objectives	This module will enable you to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Define communication and understand the basic communication model; List the general and specific features of communication; Understand CCN and the causes of CCN; Know what a communication partner is and what his/her role is in the reciprocal communication exchange; Understand the communication barriers experienced by the person with CCN who reports being a victim of crime and the police officer taking a statement from the person with CCN who reports the crime; Know what AAC means, who uses AAC and the different systems/strategies of AAC; Complete a case study and questions. 	
	Communication activity Outcomes	Non-verbal communication card game <i>Description:</i> - You will choose a card from a pack of cards presented. Each card will have a different drawing or picture on it. <i>Presentation:</i> <i>Questions:</i> <i>Questions to the group</i> <i>Questions to the person communicating</i> <i>Questions to the person listening</i> <i>Question to the group</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What do you think the purpose of this communication activity was? 	
	Key information Outcomes Key information Activity Outcomes Case study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communication. How does communication take place – the basic communication model is explained. Who or what is a communication partner? – Communication partner model explained. <i>Discussion questions:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communication partners and the criminal justice system. Communication barriers experienced by a person with CCN who reports being a victim of crime. Communication barriers experienced by the police officer taking statement from a person with a CCN who reports being a victim of crime. What does AAC mean? Who uses AAC? What are the different forms of communication support? What is a communication friendly environment? You are each presented with a card with sentences typed on the card. You are to read the sentences. Once you have deciphered what the sentences mean, and you have written them down, the meaning of the sentences will be discussed in the group. <i>Discussion questions</i>	

TIME		TRAINING SESSION CONTENT	TICK ON COMPLETION
	Outcomes	<i>Case study:</i> Buzi <i>Questions:</i>	
	Communication activity Outcomes	Paper folding exercise <i>Description:</i> <i>Discussion questions:</i>	
	Definitions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition of communication. • Definition of CCN. • Definition of AAC. • Definition of who or what a communication partner is. 	
	Materials and equipment	Each participant received an envelope with all the cards included that were used for the communication activity in Module 2. Blank piece of A4 paper. Power Point Training slides created for the presentation covering Module 2.	
MODULE 3 – Communication access, techniques and tools			
8h00 – 10h00	Learning objectives	This module will enable you to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand what is meant by the lack of communication access. • Communicate clearly and respectfully with persons with CCN. • Know the different ways of assisting persons with CCN when reporting a crime. • Use communication boards in taking a statement from a person with a CCN. 	
	Communication activity Outcomes	Non-verbal information sharing <i>Description:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pair up with the person sitting next to you and ask your partner one thing that is interesting/uncommon/unknown about him/her. <i>Presentation:</i> <i>Discussion questions:</i>	
	Key information Example Outcomes Case study Outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of communication access. • Steps to ensure clear and respectful communication with a person with CCN. • Different ways of assisting persons with CCN who report being the victim of crime. Communication Boards <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What happened boards? <i>Discussion question:</i> <i>Case study:</i> Elizabeth <i>Discussion questions:</i>	
	Communication activity Outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do I understand you correctly? <i>Description:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You will split into pairs. You will be given marshmallows to put in your mouth and then you must describe a crime to your partner. <i>Discussion questions:</i>	
	Definitions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is a communication board? 	
	Materials and equipment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Various communication boards. • South African Sign Language boards. • Marshmallows. • Power Point Training slides created for the presentation covering Module 3. 	

**APPENDIX O: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE SAPS
STAKEHOLDERS AND HEALTHCARE EXPERT
PANEL**

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS

Code #

Please answer the questions by placing an X in the box deemed the most appropriate or according to the specific instructions

1) What is your gender?

Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
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2) What is your first language?

Afrikaans	<input type="checkbox"/>	English	<input type="checkbox"/>	isiNdebele	<input type="checkbox"/>	isiXhosa	<input type="checkbox"/>
IsiZulu	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi)	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sesotho	<input type="checkbox"/>	Setswana	<input type="checkbox"/>
SiSwati	<input type="checkbox"/>	Tshivenda	<input type="checkbox"/>	Xitsonga	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, specify	<input type="checkbox"/>

3) What other languages do you speak? Please mark all that apply.

Afrikaans	<input type="checkbox"/>	English	<input type="checkbox"/>	isiNdebele	<input type="checkbox"/>	isiXhosa	<input type="checkbox"/>
IsiZulu	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi)	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sesotho	<input type="checkbox"/>	Setswana	<input type="checkbox"/>
SiSwati	<input type="checkbox"/>	Tshivenda	<input type="checkbox"/>	Xitsonga	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, specify	<input type="checkbox"/>

4) What is your age? _____

5) What is your highest qualification?

Grade 12	1-year post Grade 12	2-years post Grade 12	3-years or more post Grade 12
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6) What is your current profession? _____

7) How many years of experience do you have working in your current profession? Please write your answer in the blocks provided.

Years	<input type="text"/>	Months	<input type="text"/>
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APPENDIX P: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

Postprint of the article:

Viljoen, E., Bornman, J., Wiles, L., & Tönsing, K. M. (2016). Police officer disability sensitivity training: a systematic review. *Police Journal: Theory, Practice and Principles, Early onli*, 1–8. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0032258X16674021>

POLICE OFFICER DISABILITY SENSITIVITY TRAINING: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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Abstract: This paper presents a systematic research review regarding disability sensitivity training programmes provided to police officers. Thirteen databases between 1980 and 2015 were searched. After records screened, 19 full-text studies were assessed. Three studies met the eligibility criteria. Quality appraisal was undertaken using the McMaster tool. Data were synthesised qualitatively using narrative summaries. Limited evidence for the effectiveness of training programmes in improving knowledge and skills of police officers towards people with disabilities exist. This review highlights the need for custom designed training with a demonstrated evidence base. Further research should be conducted to develop, implement, and evaluate such programmes.

Keywords: disability, law enforcement officers, police, training.

1. INTRODUCTION

Globally, the prevalence of disability is estimated at about 15 per cent (Mitra and Sambamoorthi, 2014, World Health Organisation, 2011), which is larger than earlier predictions (Murray and Lopez, 1997). While variations and limitations among methods used to classify and measure disability can make accurate descriptions of global disability profiles difficult, as well as regional differences, it appears that issues with mobility and participation restrictions, cognition, independent living, vision, communication, and self-care are probably among the most common types (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2015). There is increasing emphasis on the inclusion of people with disabilities into full and effective participation in society. Generally speaking, for the one billion people worldwide with disabilities, positive health and social inclusion outcomes for them can be optimised by improving community knowledge and attitudes toward disability (Scior, 2011). There is evidence which suggests that education and training programmes can successfully improve disability-related knowledge and attitudes (Murray *et al.* 2011, Scior, 2011). It is therefore vital to improve communities' understanding of disability and confront negative attitudes, beliefs and perceptions about people with disabilities. Among other interventions such as legislation and creation of services for people with disabilities, training programmes can play an important role in fostering the acceptance and inclusion of people with disabilities in the wider community (World Health Organisation, 2011).

People with disabilities are more likely to come into contact with the criminal justice system (including contact with police officers) than members of the general population (Hughes *et al.* 2011, Primor and Lerner, 2012). While the reasons for this are complex and multifactorial, it appears that increased vulnerability arising from developmental and communication difficulties, ignorance, stereotypes, stigma and negative beliefs are all factors that can increase a person's risk of becoming a victim of crime (Hughes *et al.* 2011, Jones *et al.* 2012, Modell and Mak, 2008, Primor and Lerner, 2012). In fact, it is known that the prevalence and risk of crime and violence against both children and adults with disabilities is substantially greater than those which are estimated for the general population (Hughes *et al.* 2012, Jones *et al.* 2012). Difficulties associated with and experienced by police officers when confronted by people with disabilities pose a significant challenge for modern policing. Many negative attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and stereotypes exist around disabilities, stemming from limited knowledge, information and exposure to people with disabilities (Daruwalla and Darcy, 2004, Modell and Cropp,

2007). These barriers contribute to, for example, incomplete information gathering from people with disabilities who are victims of crime, and compromise the successful apprehension and prosecution of perpetrators (Hughes *et al.* 2011, Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission, 2014). Irrespective of whether police officers have contact with people with disabilities as victims, witnesses or perpetrators, they need to be sensitised, educated and trained to understand and recognise the features of disability, and be equipped with skills to handle any challenges that may arise (Daruwalla and Darcy, 2004, Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission, 2014). Results from this review will be used to develop a disability sensitivity training programme based on existing research evidence of best training content, pedagogy and principles (e.g. related to group size, duration of training and training format) to achieve optimal outcomes.

2. METHOD

2.1 Search strategy

The systematic search aimed to identify a comprehensive list of published literature on training programmes regarding disabilities provided to police officers. The search strategy was developed using a hybrid of conceptual (Sampson *et al.* 2009) and objective (Hausner *et al.* 2015) approaches and pilot tested across two different databases (Academic Search Complete and Criminal Justice Abstracts). The search strategy followed the PICO format (population, intervention, control or comparator and outcome), and employed keywords and MeSH terms related to each of these four components. With input from an academic librarian (Sampson *et al.* 2009), 13 electronic databases were considered relevant and thus searched during December 2015 from their year of first availability (1980), namely: Academic Search Complete; Criminal Justice Abstracts; ERIC; EJournals; Family Social Science; Index to Legal Periodicals; Teacher Reference Centre; Emerald, Proquest; Scopus; SAePublications and Oxford Journals. Additional sources included those pearled from reference lists of screened records and searches of relevant grey literature using Google Scholar.

2.2 Study eligibility

A summary of the eligibility criteria is presented in Table 1. Studies were eligible for inclusion in this review if they met the following criteria:

Table 1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria based on each of the PICO components

Component	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria	Rationale
Population	Police and law enforcement officers active in any police service departments, either as new recruits or in-service officers	People from other professions who work with police, including those who work in drug enforcement; traffic officers; dog handlers; hostage negotiators	Focus on disability sensitivity training for police who are likely to be first responders and have direct contact with people with disabilities
Intervention	Training programmes related to any of the following types of disability, namely: Autism Spectrum Disorders Children, adults and elderly with disability Congenital and/or acquired disability Intellectual disability Learning disability Physical disability Sensory disability (deafness and/or blindness) Speech, language & communication disabilities Victims, suspects and perpetrators with disability	Training programmes related to suicide; physical training; drug dependency; alcoholism Conduct disorders Human trafficking (if not specific to disability) Medical conditions (cardiovascular disease, diabetes, obesity, HIV, tuberculosis) Mental illness/mental health disorders (mood disorders, anxiety disorders, personality disorders) Training programmes not focussed on police officers	Training programmes tailored to the needs of police officers but not related to disability Mental disorders and mental health issues were not regarded as the focus of this study as it was felt the needs of these individuals are highly specialised and may differ from those of people with other forms of disability People with disability as defined by the present study is a vulnerable and often neglected group
Comparator/ Control	All studies were included irrespective of the presence or absence of comparator or control groups		
Outcome	Different types of outcomes (knowledge, skills, attitude, awareness, perceptions, beliefs and behaviour concerning individuals with disabilities) were included if the study focussed on disability issues	Studies not reporting any outcomes	Given the scope of this review, it was considered important to capture a broad range of different outcomes assessed in existing literature

2.2.1 Study design, publication date and focus

All relevant published scholarly studies using qualitative, quantitative or mixed-methods designs were eligible for inclusion. Only empirical studies reporting on original data regarding the effect of disability sensitivity training programmes presented to police officers were included. Review articles and editorials reporting secondary data were excluded, as were studies relating to policies or policy implementation. Studies also needed to be published in English, between January 1980 and December 2015, and report on disability sensitivity training programmes provided to police officers as part of induction of new recruits or as part of in-service continuing education. No restrictions were placed on the type of training programmes in terms of content, duration or outcome.

2.2.2 Participants

Participants were police officers at any level of experiential training and development, which implied that they could be new recruits or experienced police officers.

2.2.3 Intervention

All forms of training programmes which focussed on or covered a broad range of disability types affecting individuals of all ages (children, adults and the elderly) were included. Due to the lack of an internationally accepted definition for disability, people with disabilities were defined as people with a physical (including sensory) or intellectual disability that substantially limits one or more of the major life activities, for example, walking, standing, seeing, speaking or hearing (National Council for Support of Disability Issues, 2009). Disability types included congenital and acquired disabilities, such as autism spectrum disorders, intellectual disability, learning disability, physical disability, sensory disability (deafness and/or blindness), as well as speech, language and communication disabilities. Mental disorders (also referred to as mental illnesses or psychiatric disorders) were excluded from this review. A mental disorder is a diagnosis of a behavioural or mental pattern that can cause suffering or a poor ability to function in ordinary life, and would include mood disorders, anxiety disorders and personality disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Training programmes could focus on victims, suspects and perpetrators with disability.

2.2.4 Comparator/control

All studies were included irrespective of the presence or absence of comparator or control groups.

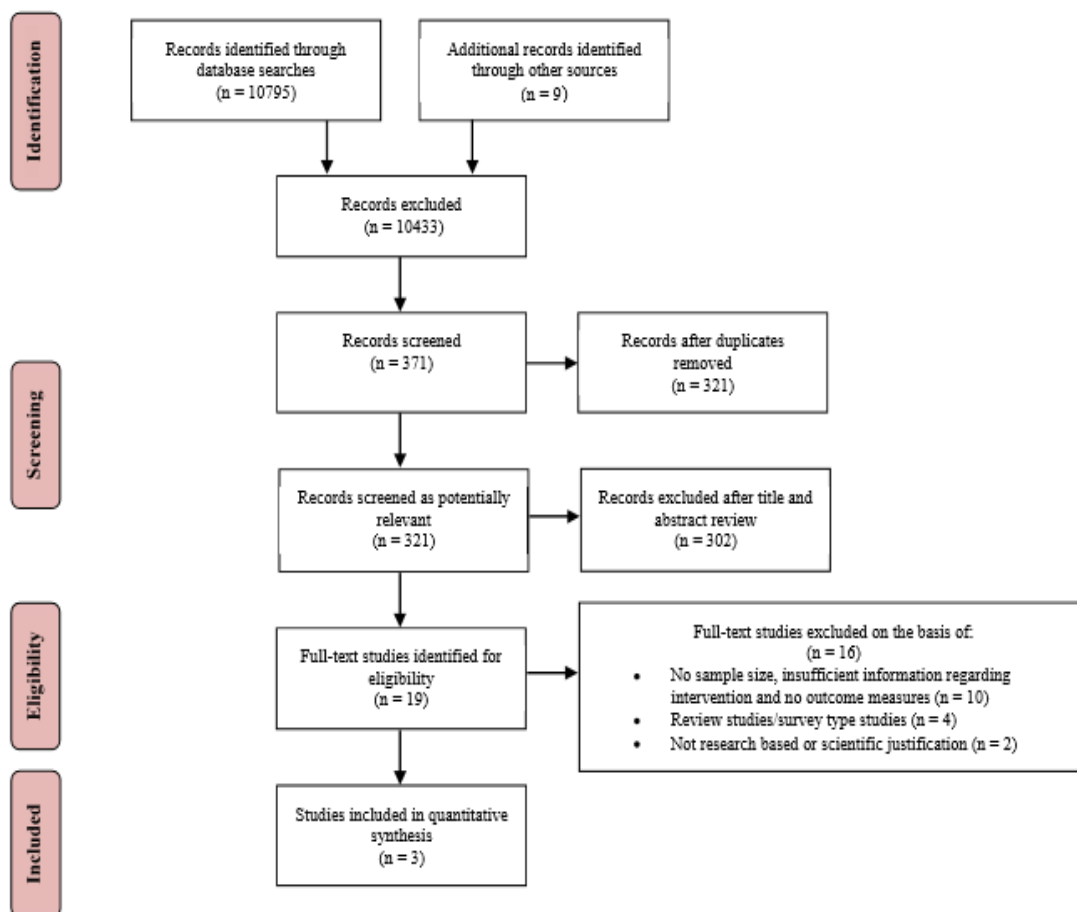
2.2.5 Outcomes

No restrictions were placed a priori on the type of outcomes. Due to the scoping nature of this review, all possible outcomes were included (e.g. knowledge, skills, attitude, awareness training, perceptions, beliefs and behaviour) with the proviso that the study focussed on disability issues.

2.3 Study selection

A four-phase process was used to assess studies for inclusion and is presented as a PRISMA flow diagram (Figure 1).

Figure 1: PRISMA flow diagram indicating the flow of included and excluded studies



- Phase 1 - Identification: Two reviewers (E.V. and J.B.) independently screened all the identified potential studies at title level. They discussed their recommendations and reached consensus on the title level of studies for inclusion.
- Phase 2 - Screening: The two reviewers (E.V. and J.B.) independently screened studies at abstract level to determine relevance for this review, utilising the same procedure as in Phase 1. Consensus was reached at abstract level of the studies for inclusion by the reviewers.
- Phase 3 - Eligibility: This phase comprised the extraction of full text studies to be reviewed by the reviewers (E.V., J.B. and L.W.) Data from the 19 studies identified were extracted onto a specifically designed template. The first reviewer (E.V.) screened all 19 studies for consistency, and formed a pair with the second

(J.B) and third (L.W.) reviewers, who screened 10 (E.V. and J.B.) and nine (E.V. and L.W.) articles respectively.

- Phase 4 – Included studies.

2.4 Data extraction

Data was extracted onto a specifically designed data extraction protocol. Data was extracted independently by each of the reviewers (E.V., J.B. and L.W.) and recorded on the data extraction protocol. Any disagreements in the data extraction process were resolved by discussion and consensus reached between the reviewers. The following information was extracted verbatim from each included study and noted on the data extraction protocol:

- Publication demographics: author, year of publication, country of study and study design
- Participants: police officers at induction level or continuing education, law enforcement officers and group size
- Intervention: training aims, target group, training format, training content and training duration
- Control: details of control conditions
- Outcomes: description of training outcomes, constructs measured, training evaluation, limitations and suggestions for future training.

3. RESULTS

This section will present information in four sub-sections according to (i) search results; (ii) study demographics, (iii) critical appraisal for bias of the included studies, and (iv) main findings.

3.1 Search results

Full texts on the 19 studies were retrieved and assessed for eligibility according to a data extraction protocol of inclusion criteria. Of these, 16 studies did not meet the inclusion criteria. Four studies were identified as review/survey studies; two studies were not research based, scientific or peer reviewed and offered no interventions; and 10 studies did not include any sample size, contained insufficient information regarding interventions and lacked details regarding outcome measures. The paired reviewers

reached a consensus in identifying three studies eligible for inclusion (two from 10 reviewed by E.V. and J.B., and one from nine reviewed by E.V. and L.W).

3.2 Study demographics

A summary of data extracted from the three studies is given in Table 3. All three studies were conducted within the last 15 years and in high-income Westernised countries. Study 1 (Bailey *et al.* 2001) and Study 2 (McAllister *et al.* 2002) were conducted in Northern Ireland, while Study 3 (Engelman *et al.* 2013) was conducted in the United States (US). The Northern Ireland studies were published in consecutive years (2001 and 2002), and involved two of the same authors. The US-based study was the most recent (2013). Both Study 1 and Study 2 employed quasi-experimental designs with the presence of a control group. In contrast, Study 3 conducted a pilot mixed-methods evaluation of a training workshop using two semi-structured focus groups. Additional information regarding data on the PICO constructs is provided below.

3.2.1 Population

Studies varied in terms of the diversity of participants recruited, from a relatively homogenous group of police officers at similar stages of post-foundation training (Study 1), to police officers and other law enforcement personnel (Study 3), and a transdisciplinary group which also included social workers (Study 2) (Table 3). Samples were not described in much detail – background information such as age or ethnicity was not provided. The overall sample size among studies was small, ranging from 28 (Study 2) to 65 (Study 1) participants with variable comparability in the number of participants allocated to treatment and control groups (e.g. 31 versus 34 in Study 1 and 17 versus 11 in Study 2). A total of 34 participants took part in Study 3.

3.2.2 Intervention

In Study 1, an awareness training event was conducted by the Royal Ulster Constabulary to measure the impact of training on police officers' attitudes towards people with intellectual disability (ID). In Study 2, an evaluation of a pilot scheme training event was conducted by the Police Service of Northern Ireland and the Homefirst Community Trust to examine the impact of training for police officers and social workers on attitudes towards people with learning disability (LD). In Study 3, an evaluation of a law enforcement training event in Oakland, California was conducted to

promote a better response to domestic violence emergencies involving the deaf and hard of hearing (Deaf/HH).

In both Study 1 and Study 2, role-play exercises were conducted in which police officers in the treatment group were allocated roles as people with intellectual or learning disabilities. Observation by remaining participants and discussions followed. Training content reported in these two studies primarily covered the exploration and discussion of potential stereotypes held about and experienced by people with disabilities, specifically during investigative processes, as well as wider issues they may experience in the community (Study 1 and Study 2). In Study 3, a two-hour educational outreach and training certification workshop approach was employed. While the study did not specifically report the training content of their intervention programme, its focus was aimed at promoting better responses to domestic violence emergencies involving people who were deaf or hard of hearing.

3.2.3 Comparator/control

Two studies (Study 1 and Study 2) included a control group. The control conditions comprised no specific information or training related to vulnerable people and those with disabilities (Study 1 and Study 2), and no training regarding the new Joint Investigation of Crimes Committed Vulnerable Adults protocol and policy (Study 2).

3.2.4 Outcome measures

All three studies evaluated the effect of the training programmes on attitudes towards people with a range of disability types (intellectual, learning and hearing) as the primary outcome. In addition, Study 3 reported outcomes on knowledge of communication and translation needs of people with deafness as well as outcomes regarding knowledge of federal and state-level policy and law.

Both Study 1 and Study 2 used a validated measuring instrument, namely the Attitude towards Mental Retardation and Eugenics (AMRE) scale as a pre- and post-measure. Use of the AMRE scale is supported by acceptable psychometric properties with a high level of reliability among items on the scale and a high degree of internal consistency (Antonak *et al.* 1993). In contrast, Study 3 developed a purpose-designed instrument which was pilot-tested with experts in and affiliated to the people living in the community with deafness. The items within the survey included a measurement of attitudes, including perceived capabilities of deaf people, with six items such as “Deaf

people can make their own life decisions” and efficacy when working with the Deaf/HH, with 10 items such as “I feel confident I could figure out a way of communicating with Deaf people in an emergency”. This data was supplemented with data collected via two post-training focus groups conducted with six and 13 of the training participants respectively.

3.3 Critical appraisal for bias of the included studies

The McMaster quantitative and qualitative critical appraisal tools were used for appraisal of the studies. All 15 domains on the McMaster tool were allocated a score (1 = Yes; 0 = No or not addressed) (Table 2). There was 100 per cent agreement between the scores’ two reviewers (E.V. and K.T.) for this phase of the process. Critical appraisal scores ranged from 8 (53.33%) to 11 (73.33%) out of a maximum of 15 (mean 9.3,

Table 2: Quality scores for critical appraisal for bias of the included studies

McMaster critical appraisal tool items	Included studies		
	Study 1 Bailey et al., (2001)	Study 2 McAllister et al., (2002)	Study 3 Engelman et al., (2013)
1. Was the purpose clearly stated?	1	1	1
2. Was relevant background literature reviewed?	1	1	1
3. Was the study design described?	1	1	1
4a. Was the sample described in detail?	0	0	0
4b. Was the sample size justified?	0	0	0
5a. Were the outcome measures reliable?	1	1	0
5b. Were the outcome measures valid?	1	1	0
6a. Was the intervention described in detail?	1	1	0
6b. Was contamination avoided?	0	0	0
6c. Was co-intervention avoided?	0	0	0
7a. Results were reported in terms of statistical methods?	1	1	1
7b. Were the analysis method(s) appropriate?	1	1	1
7c. Was clinical importance reported?	1	1	1
7d. Were dropouts reported?	1	1	1
8. Conclusions were adequate given the study methods and results?	1	0	1
Total score (/15)	11 (73.33%)	9 (60.00%)	8 (53.33%)

The key to scoring was set out as: 1 = Yes; 0 = No or not addressed, and the item was deducted from the overall score for not applicable. A total maximum score of 15 could be allocated.

62.2%) (Table 2). Common methodological problems across all three studies related to inadequate description and justification of the sample size, and insufficient reporting about the avoidance of contamination and co-intervention.

3.4 Main findings

A synopsis of various components of the three disability sensitivity training programmes is shown in Table 3. Studies consistently reported statistically significant improvements in participants' attitudinal scores following training, and in comparison with the control groups (Study 1 and Study 2).

Table 3: Analysis of relevant items for a disability sensitivity training programme

Authors	Study 1 Bailey et al., (2001)	Study 2 McAllister et al., (2002)	Study 3 Engelman et al., (2013)
Country	Northern Ireland	Northern Ireland	United States
Study design	Quasi-experimental	Quasi-experimental	Mixed methods
Training aims	Evaluation of an awareness training event conducted by the Royal Ulster Constabulary in terms of its impact on the attitudes of police officers towards people with ID	Evaluation of a training event conducted by Northern Ireland Police and Homefirst Community Trust (social workers) exploring attitudes towards people with LD and skills development around investigative interviewing	Evaluation of a law enforcement training event in Oakland to promote better response to domestic violence emergencies involving the Deaf/HH
Target group	Trainee police officers undertaking post-foundation training during a statutory two-year probation period, all at a similar stage of their post-foundation training	Police officers and social workers	Police officers and other law enforcement personnel, including police dispatchers
Training format	Role-playing exercise where residents of a group home attended a community meeting Police officers in the treatment group were allocated a number of roles, including that of a person with ID Discussion group	Role-playing investigative interview with one participant playing an adult with LD and another playing a police officer Observation by the remaining participants Discussion which focussed on stereotypes and prejudice	Educational outreach/training certification workshop Focus group activities
Group size	65 participants Treatment group (n = 31) Control group (n = 34)	28 participants Treatment group (n = 17) Control group (n = 11)	34 participants
Training duration	Once-off training event	Duration not mentioned	Two-hour educational outreach/training certification workshop
Training content	Exploration of stereotyped views held about people with ID Trusting witness accounts provided about people with ID Wider issues regarding living in community settings	Discussion of stereotypes and prejudice vulnerable adults may experience	Promoting of better response to domestic violence emergencies involving the Deaf/HH

Authors	Study 1 Bailey et al., (2001)	Study 2 McAllister et al., (2002)	Study 3 Engelman et al., (2013)
Training outcomes	Attitudes of the treatment group were significantly more favourable to ID and eugenics post training as reflected in their AMRE scores compared to those of the control group ($t = 2.98, p = 0.004$). This shows significant impact by training on eugenics attitudes towards people with disabilities Treatment group scores changes significantly after training ($t = 3.81, p = 0.001$)	Positive association between training and favourable attitudes towards people with LD ($t = 2.98, p = .004$) Baseline attitude scores towards people with LD did not differ between the control and treatment groups AMRE score in the control group did not change ($t = 0.68, p = 0.51$) Treatment group scores changes significantly after training ($t = 5.65, p = 0.00$)	Participants gained cultural competency skills post-training. Perceived self-efficacy, and knowledge of communication and translation needs efficacy when working with the Deaf/HH also increased The attitudes subscale showed a positive impact on general attitudes towards the Deaf/HH, including perceived self-efficacy when working with Deaf/HH ($t(33) = -05.02, p < 0.01$) reflective of cultural competence, but not on perception of capabilities of the Deaf/HH ($t(33) = 0.34, p = 0.74$)
Constructs measured	Attitude	Attitude	Attitude Knowledge
Training evaluation	Administration of AMRE questionnaire at the start of a two-week training course and repeated at the end of the programme	Administration of AMRE questionnaire 4 weeks before and immediately after the training programme	Pre and post-test survey administered immediately before and after training two semi-structured focus groups post-training
Limitations	Small sample size Only one area of the UK and from a discreet professional group The impact of attitudes on the actual behaviour of the police officers to people with ID is unclear Simulation exercise did not involve a person with ID directly	Small sample size Simulation exercise did not directly involve a person with LD	Small sample size Single evaluation of a training programme Newly developed evaluation instruments – not proven validity and reliability Attempts to strengthen instruments by pilot testing with experts in, and affiliated with the Deaf community Lack of theoretical justification for constructs
Suggestions for future training	Providing opportunities to meet people with ID Awareness exercise and assist police participants in recognising their own attitudes as well as how they stigmatise people who have ID A longitudinal study to gauge whether this improvement in police attitudes to ID is stable over time	General awareness-raising training is required in relation to LD and other vulnerable adults Specific specialist training is essential for police and other investigators Attitudes of staff to LD and sexual assault should be further explored in future research	Training events for emergency, police and law enforcement officers and first responders should include people with disability and the accessibility and involvement of the Deaf/HH in the training and exercises

Key to abbreviations: ID: Intellectual Disability; LD: Learning Disability; HH: Hard of Hearing; AMRE: Attitudes towards Mental Retardation and Eugenics

4. DISCUSSION

There appear to be few primary research studies reporting and evaluating disability sensitivity interventions for police officers, as only three studies were identified by our search. All studies were published within the last 15 years (2001, 2002, 2013), and while

training programme target groups comprised predominantly police officers, participants also included other law enforcement personnel and social workers. Programme content and outcomes focused on three disability types, namely intellectual (Bailey *et al.* 2001), learning (McAllister *et al.* 2002) and hearing (Engelman *et al.* 2013).

Attitudes of training programme participants towards people with disabilities were the primary outcome of interest. All studies reported statistically significant improvements post-training (Bailey *et al.* 2001, McAllister *et al.* 2002, Engelman *et al.* 2013) and in comparison to a control group (Bailey *et al.* 2001, McAllister *et al.* 2002). However, before drawing conclusions about these results it is important to consider caveats to these study findings. Sample sizes were uniformly small across all included studies, amplifying potential effects of participant self-selection bias (Nabatchi, 2012). Only two of the three included studies employed comparator conditions (Bailey *et al.* 2001, McAllister *et al.* 2002), which did not stipulate whether group allocation was randomised. The use of a placebo-type control intervention was also not reported, which makes it difficult to determine whether participants' attitudes improved as a function of Hawthorne and similar research participation effects versus the specific characteristics of the tested training programmes (McCambridge *et al.* 2014). Outcomes in all studies relied on self-reported measures and the measurement tools varied in their psychometric properties. A purpose-designed instrument was developed and used in the study by Engelman *et al.* (2013) which, although pilot-tested with experts in and affiliated with people with hearing disabilities, did not undergo formal validation testing procedures. Bailey *et al.* (2001) and McAllister *et al.* (2002) both used the Attitudes towards Mental Retardation and Eugenics (AMRE) scale, which assumes a single hypothesised construct for attitude and is reported to have high reliability and internal consistency (Antonak *et al.* 1993, Bailey *et al.* 2001). That said, in the decades that have passed since its development there have been substantial changes in the way society views disability, as well as advances in conceptualising attitude as a dynamic and multidimensional construct (Lam *et al.* 2010, Seewooruttun and Scior, 2014, Vilchinsky *et al.* 2010, Werner *et al.* 2012). This may bring into question the current internal and external validity of the AMRE as an outcome measure.

Collection of both quantitative and qualitative data across a range of outcomes can allow researchers to calibrate and compare study findings, as well as present perspectives and provide broad context for the phenomena of interest (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). In this review it is not possible to judge the real-life importance of study findings as

statistical analyses stopped short of effect size calculations and, where relevant (Engelman *et al.* 2013), content analyses of focus group data. Consequently, this precludes the ability to quantify and benchmark the magnitude of changes observed, or describe and explore wider pedagogical concepts and themes. Furthermore, the use of unidimensional repeated short-term pre-post measures of attitude did not offer the opportunity to investigate longitudinal patterns in this body of literature, or determine whether attitudes are associated with and can translate to objective changes in knowledge, behavioural and wider practical outcomes (Seewooruttun and Scior, 2014, Werner *et al.* 2012). This is a considerable constraint of studies in this review, given the plethora and range of tools now available to measure attitudes towards disability (Palad *et al.* 2016).

Consistent with other relevant literature, a range of training formats and intensities were used in our sample of included studies (Ison *et al.* 2010, Morgan and Lo, 2013, Seewooruttun and Scior, 2014, Scior, 2011, Shields and Taylor, 2014). Coupled with the variable levels of detailed reporting within this body of literature of training programmes which had already been developed, it is difficult to make comment on which programme components, characteristics and modalities are most effective (Cotton and Coleman, 2010). On a conceptual level, we can surmise that because the development of individuals' attitudes, knowledge and behaviours is hypothesised to be a function of the dynamic interplay of a complex range of factors, it may be reasonable to expect that time and repeated exposure to interventions may be required in order to effect a change (Seewooruttun and Scior 2014, Vilchinsky *et al.* 2010, Werner *et al.* 2012). That said, it would seem the duration of training in studies in this review was quite short, with once-off events employed by Bailey *et al.* (2001) and McAllister *et al.* (2002), and a single two-hour training and outreach programme used in the study by Engelman *et al.* (2013). Interestingly, while mostly variable in nature (Seewooruttun and Scior, 2014), some other disability sensitivity type programmes in the literature have reported intervention periods of up to eight (Shields and Taylor, 2014) to 12 weeks (Morgan and Lo, 2013). We found the use of role play by Bailey *et al.* (2001) and McAllister *et al.* (2002) to be somewhat surprising as a vehicle for effecting attitude change. There is some suggestion in the literature that simulated and imagined interactions can produce positive perceptions (Crisp and Turner, 2009) and reduce implicit prejudice (Turner and Crisp, 2010). However, stronger empirical evidence exists for direct and actual contact with people with disabilities to facilitate improvements in knowledge and attitudes (Seewooruttun and Scior, 2014, Shields and Taylor, 2014). Therefore, it would seem appropriate for training

programmes to include modules which allow practical experience and application of learnings over time.

5. PRACTICAL APPLICATION

This systematic review of published disability sensitivity training programmes has a number of practical implications for police training. Firstly, it shows that when attempting to train police officers, collaborative teaching approaches from multi-disciplinary professionals (e.g., mental health professionals, social workers, psychologists, police officers and people with a disability themselves) should be used (Coleman & Cotton, 2010; Hatfield, 2014; Vermette et al., 2005). Secondly, a problem-based and experiential learning approach should be used which combines information gathering activities and group discussions. While training programmes could include role-play, simulation and the use of video and film media (Coleman & Cotton, 2010; Hatfield, 2014), where available, direct contact with people with disabilities is preferable as it may promote longer-lasting training effects as well as opportunities for shared learning (Crisp & Turner, 2009). Thirdly, the disability training programme should cover a wide spectrum of disabilities to promote greater recognition and acceptance, while at the same time highlighting specific factors which may be unique, or of greater importance, to sub-groups within the population of people with disabilities. Ideally, training programmes should include comprehensive content on methods for recognition and techniques for how to respond effectively and empathetically to persons with a variety of disability profiles. Learning is not a one-time event and therefore renewal and reinforcement of material through ongoing and repeated exposure is recommended. Fourthly, studies should employ measures beyond those of attitudes alone, and include aspects such as knowledge, skills and behaviours of police officers towards people with disabilities. In the fullness of time, it may also be possible to investigate practical outcomes of interactions between police officers and people with disabilities (such as auditable records of reports and incidents), and levels of staff and community satisfaction.

6. LIMITATIONS OF THIS REVIEW

The findings of this review are limited to the components and scope of the review question, and therefore generalisations cannot be made outside of these contexts. Included studies varied in the standards with which they were conducted and reported, and

therefore findings are a reflection of these methodological issues. The overall approach of this review was, however, strengthened by the development of an *a priori* protocol and adherence to the PRISMA statement (Moher *et al.* 2009).

7. CONCLUSION

A comprehensive search spanning three-and-a-half decades of literature identified only three studies which empirically investigated the effects of disability sensitivity training programmes for police officers. A range of training programmes were employed and included studies were characterised by the use of short-term attitudinal measures only, methodological issues and variable standards of reporting. While this review has shown that more empirical evidence is needed in order to establish effective disability sensitivity training protocols for police officers, it is hoped that this body of work will help to raise awareness and act as the catalyst for further research in this area. Future research must incorporate the learnings from other related literature to explore longitudinal trends across a wider range of meaningful outcomes, test interventions which are collaborative, multifaceted and practically-based using rigorous study designs.

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APPENDIX Q: COMMUNICATION FOR ALL: ENGLISH YOUNG COMMUNICATION BOARD

How 	burn 	get 	sad 	in 	family 	night 	I can't speak, but can hear and understand you.
what 	don't 	know 	angry 	out 	home 	food 	I will point where...
when 	help 	look 	forced 	under 	I/me/mine 	gun 	Please contact my family
where 	please beg 	sex 	scared 	man/him/he 	police 	money /sweets 	Ask me questions if you need to, but please wait patiently for my answers
who 	stop 	Scream 	alone 	sore 	toilet bathroom 	mother 	
they 	tell 	steal 	ashamed shy 	woman 	alcohol 	secret 	
not on this board 	touch 	swear 	bad 	clothes 	car 	school work 	
hit/punch 	bleed 	threaten 	friendly 	doctor 	day 	father 	

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