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CRIME PREVENTION, A CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF MSINGA MUNICIPALITY IN THE UMZINYATHI DISTRICT, DUNDEE

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December 2017.
DECLARATION

I Lawrence Musa Zondi declare that:

The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Criminology and Forensic studies.

This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

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Signature of the candidate

On the...............day of ....................2017

.............................................................

Supervisor

Prof Shanta Balgobind Singh

On the...............day of ....................2017
DEDICATION

This piece of research work is firstly dedicated to my family, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, but most importantly to our honourable MEC, Mr T.M. Kaunda, Head of Department, Mr C.T. Mavundla, for allowing this research project to take place; and Senior Managers, entire staff, as well as my local church Grange Assembly of God.

I will also like to pay tribute to my late parents; Mr Andries Zondi and my mom Mrs Zilandile Witness Zondi for their role they play in nurturing, guidance and bringing me up. Although we grew up in rural areas, however my mother was a pillar of strength to the entire family, you used to wake up in the morning to work and you always make sure that you bring food and our meal on the table. It is with great regret that both of you now you are nomore and you are with the Lord, but in any event I will see you tomorrow where we will love each other and smile with the Lord and our Lord Jesus will wipe our tears away from our cheek.

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To my two daughters; Sindiswa and Nokulunga and three sons Senzo, Elvis and Sibusiso, thanks you people God bless.
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ABSTRACT

Crime affects the quality of life for our communities. All South Africans are directly or indirectly affected by criminal acts and increasing violence that has become associated with these acts. Internationally it has found that crime and violence erodes social cohesion, limits mobility and erodes citizens’ trust in the state to protect them (Crime Prevention Management Course 2014:14). Reducing and building safer communities must be a priority in South Africa. In order to achieve this, crime prevention must be initiated at the community level. Safety is a core human right. It is necessary condition for human development, improving the quality of life and enhancing productivity. Early strategies regarding the provision of safety and security in the country centred on installing collaborative working relationships among key government departments and stakeholders. The holistic approach was articulated in the 1996 National Crime Prevention Strategy. This strategy was geared towards the development of integrated crosscutting programmes.

The role played by community safety structures cannot be underestimated in terms of fighting crime. These structures involved inter alia: Community Policing Forums (CPF’s), Community Safety Forums (CSF’s), Community crime prevention association (CCPA), Volunteer social crime prevention programme (VSCPP), Ward Safety Committees, VD Safety teams and Street Committees. The National Development Plan recognises that crime and violence is not just a security issue, but it is multi-faceted. Addressing these cannot be seen as the mandate of the criminal justice system alone, but rather requires the involvement of all government departments, particularly those within the social and economic clusters. The National Development Plan recognises that crime and violence is not just a security issue, but has deep social and economic roots consequences (National Development Plan, Vision 2030).

Social crime prevention means the prevention of social crime (that crime such as domestic violence, rape, murder, robbery, assaults and theft. Sometimes the concept also encapsulates the crime prevention programmes and approaches that are implemented by our society, organisations, communities and by people who are not part of the criminal justice system and its ultimate objective is to remove the reasons or cause of crime so that it does not take place.

Over time, theorists and practitioners have realised that the most effective way to address crime is to prevent it from happening, rather than to respond to it once it has been committed. Social crime prevention addresses factors that influence an individual’s likelihood of committing a crime, such as poverty, unemployment, inequality, poor health care, and low educational performance (Crime Prevention Training Manual, 2013).

The role-played by Amakhosi, izinduna, different government departments, criminal justice system and civil society in terms of fighting crime cannot be overemphasised and should be the priority of government at this day and age. The study will highlight the fundamental role of
community safety structures such as CPF, CSF, CCPA, VD Safety Teams, Street Committees, etc, and meaningful contributions played by Amakhosi in the fight against crime in our communities. The combination of these community safety structures with the Criminal Justice System will add value in our endeavours to prevent crime. It must be remembered that these structures are not getting the attention and support they deserve from our government in the sense that they should be provided with sufficient resources such as stipend, offices, computers and motor vehicles. Some of these structures are not even highly recognised by members of the SAPS at the station level, and they are always called or referred to, the people of the CPF Coordinators. Sometimes the station commanders and senior members from the police do not even bother to attend CPF meetings at the police stations.

Fundamentally, it remains the responsibility of the government to make sure that these community safety structures are continuously receive training, workshop in order to function and operate under the parameters of the law. It is our responsibility as law enforcement agencies to continuously capacitate them to avoid lawlessness and vigilantism in our communities.

Violence and crime can change social networks and interactions and create mistrust, not only of the state, but also within communities. This will result to our communities more vulnerable to crime and subsequently perpetuates crime and violent crime (Crime Prevention Management Course 2014:14).
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ACRONYMS

ADR: Alternative Dispute Resolution
ANC: African National Congress
BUFAC: Building a united front against crime
CCPA: Community crime prevention association
CPF: Community policing forum
CSC: Client Service Centre
COSATU: Congress of South African Trade Union
EEG: Electroencephalogram
DCSL: Department of Community Safety and Liaison
FCS UNIT: Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Unit
JCPS: Justice, crime prevention and security cluster
SAPS: South African Police Services
UNODC: United Nations Office on Drugs and crime
UNEG: United Nations Evaluation Group
UDF: United Democratic Front
UCR: Uniform Crime Reports
KZNCCPA: KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association
MINMEC: Ministers and Members of Executive Council
MBD: Minimal Brain Dysfunction
IFP: Inkatha Freedom Party
VSCPP: Volunteers Social Crime Prevention Programme
NCPS: National Crime Prevention Strategy
SARA: Scanning, analyzing, response and assessment

NDP: National Development Plan

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

VOCS: Victims of Crime Survey

IDP: Integrated Development Plan

COGTA: Cooperative government and Traditional Affairs

HSRC: Human Science Research Council

CIDP: Communities in Dialogue Programmes

NMT: National Monitoring Tool

NFP: National Freedom Party

RAG: Resource Allocation Guide
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1. Introduction

Crime affects the quality of life for communities. Reducing crime and building safer communities must be a priority in South Africa. In order to achieve this, crime prevention must be initiated at the community level (Manual for Community Based Crime Prevention, 2000). Safety is a core human right. It is a necessary condition for human development, improving the quality of life and enhancing productivity. When the communities do not feel safe and live in fear, the country’s economic development and the people’s wellbeing is highly affected, hindering their ability to achieve their potential (National Development Plan, 2011: 349).

The area of Msinga under Umzinyathi district in Dundee is growing at a fast pace and the high levels of violent crime have traumatised many people e.g. a number of people have lost their lives in this area because of local and long distance taxi association wars and stock theft wars. Because of this violence, innocent people such as passengers have lost their lives during the crossfire.

Thus, crime includes inter alia antisocial acts, which are harmful to the individual and to the society in which the individual lives. Some of these acts are punishable by law, while others, although morally disapproved of, are not necessarily transgressions of the law. The distinguishing features of a crime can be described as follows: it is a conduct which is legally forbidden, which may, in principle be prosecuted only by the state and which always results in the imposition of punishment (Ndabandaba, 1987:1). Crimes of violence include attacks on people in their own residence; attacks on farms and smallholdings; hijackings; crimes against international tourists; armed bank robberies; cash in transit robberies; taxi-related violence, and murder of police officials.

The role of the South African Police Service is fundamentally critical especially in a young democracy. The Constitution of South Africa guarantees that everybody is equal before the law. Therefore, the role of the police is to render the service throughout the African society impartially. The advent of democracy brought about the concept of monitoring and evaluation in the Department of Community Safety and Liaison.

The Department has been mandated to provide the service of monitoring and evaluation of police conduct since the police have been given the authoritative powers such as the arrest and detention of suspects; these powers need to be constantly reviewed and checked from time to time in order to ensure that they are still in line with our constitutional imperatives. Criminals continue to victimise and terrorise the fabric of society. Therefore, the organs of state such as the Department of Police and Department of Community Safety and Liaison should continue to protect and defend the weak and vulnerable groups.
1.2. Background and outline of research problem

Umzinyathi District consists of the following local municipalities, namely: Nquthu local municipality, Ndumeni local municipality, Msinga local municipality and Mvoti local municipality. All these municipalities are found in deep rural areas. As such poverty, unemployment and lack of development is most prevalent in these municipalities. Conspicuously most of the people make their living by seeking job opportunities in places like Johannesburg and Durban. The women and children are the backbone of many families and some of them dependent upon social grants and small-scale farming.

Other area such as Isandlwana, where the Anlo-Zulu war was fiercely fought, is very rich in traditional history and heritage. This place is a well-known tourist destination. Every year people come in numbers across the length and breath of the country, others from overseas, to commemorate this monumental place, which enjoys good memories in the hearts and souls of many people (Bernard 2002).

Dundee also witnessed great wars and battles where the Anglo-Zulu wars were fearlessly fought for the sake of power and authority in order to ruling and command the Natal colony and grazing land. It should not be underestimated that though the place is rich in history, it must be mentioned that places like Msinga, Dundee and Nquthu have been highly affected by crime such as murder, rape, drugs, robbery, stock theft and theft in general. Research also indicates that most of the culprits that are involved in taxi violence are commonly found at Msinga. When the black on black violence was still dominant in Kwazulu-Natal, some of the dangerous weapons such as AK 47, R1, 303 Rifles and shot guns, were hidden at Msinga. Msinga area is situated next to Uthukela River. It is a predominately-black area and densely populated, and is characterised by prominent poverty, and unemployment.

The area has experienced the turmoil of killings of councilors between the IFP and NFP. This was one of the areas that were highly contested between the two parties since it was previously known as IFP stronghold. In 2013, the family of Mkhize suffered a huge loss when eight (8) family members were gunned down on allegations that they were highly involved in stock theft cases. Subsequently eight members of a well-known organization in the area called Isikebhe were killed whilst they were following their stolen cattle in the place, which is regarded as a habouring area for stolen livestock; Mahlaba area. Both incidents shook the global community and they demanded that the law should take its course (Ukhozi FM and Ilanga Newspaper, 2013).

The National Development Plan recognises that crime and violence is not just a security issue, but has deep social and economic roots and consequences. Addressing these cannot be seen as the mandate of the criminal justice system alone, but rather requires the involvement of all government departments, particularly those within the social and economic clusters. These departments will, in executing their respective legal mandates collectively and individually, contribute to a safe and secure environment of all South Africans. It also acknowledges that the contribution of government has to be completed by an active citizenry, civil society and private sector (National Development Plan, Vision 2030, 2011). Crime is intertwined in a complex relationship with the presence of other social problems. It is well known, for example, that the area with the greatest number of inter-personal crimes is also areas, which are socially depressed.
like the area of Umsinga. In terms of their socio-economic profile, these areas tend to have few recreational facilities, a high unemployment rate, and families struggle to create healthy bonds.

There is usually a high prevalence of alcohol outlets and the level of substance abuse is very high in the area under investigation. The area of Msinga has been highly affected by crimes of stock theft, drug abuse, rape, murder, robbery and taxi violence. Most of the hitmen (izinkabi) are probably found in this area and sometimes they mysteriously leave the area and hide in places like Johannesburg and Durban. However, the most common place where they used to hide immediately after commission of an offence, are hostels.

It is against this background that the Department of Community Safety and Liaison has come up with a number of strategies to prevent the escalation of crime in the area. These crime strategies include inter alia: establishment of community safety structures such as community policing forums, ward safety committees, street committees, community crime prevention associations, Community Safety Forums and voting district safety teams.

Much work has been done in an attempting to create an understanding of the various factors, which give rise to the crime levels that we see in South Africa today. In the light of what we know about the crime challenges facing KZN, the KZN MEC for Transport Community Safety and Liaison has come up with the most popular concept known as Building a United Front against Crime (BUFAC). This is a call for the mobilisation and involvement of all sectors in a concerted and sustained campaign to significantly reduce crime levels in the Province. This is a deliberate move away from merely seeing the crime challenge as cause to lament. It is rather, a call to considered, unified and unswerving action. However, most importantly, it is a call to action equally for government and civil society (BUFAC 2009:01).

Official crime statistics provide the authority with information about crimes reported to the police and suspects, arrested by the police. Victimisation data gathered in surveys show that much crime is not reported to the police, making it difficult to construct a more complete picture of the data. Crime is also measured by self-reports, which are questionnaires filled out by people who admit to their own violations of the law (Conklin, 1989:55). The SAPS crime information management center identifies ten (10) factors that may play a role in the incidence of crime: (Naude & Van der Hoven 2001:58).

As the security measures aimed at preventing car theft are increased, offenders are inclined to hijack vehicles and / or to abduct the driver in order to get their hands on the vehicle. Organised crime networks exploit the shortcomings of the criminal justice system and inadequate penalties for serious offences, which do not serve as a deterrent for potential offenders. Inadequate control at the South African borders makes it easier for offenders to come in and out of the country.

Virtually every province in South Africa and its neighbouring countries has a different type of registration system, which makes the task of motor vehicle theft by syndicates much easier and limits the likelihood of arrest to a minimum. Large numbers of unlicensed, illegal firearms and ammunition are available and are often used in committing crime. Some state and provincial government officials in South Africa and its neighbouring countries are corrupt and facilitate this. Forged or stolen official documents (identity documents, visas, and passport and vehicle
registration certificates) are freely available on the black market. Some owners of the businesses and vehicles commit insurance fraud by paying criminals to arrange for their assets to be “stolen” in order to claim compensation from the insurance companies. Syndicates commit this type of offence in an organised manner and employ sophisticated methods to distribute assets for sale across Africa and even European countries.

Community members may co-operate with syndicates because of unsatisfactory working conditions or unemployment. Other crimes that are common in South Africa include: crimes against international tourists, armed bank robberies, cash-in-transit robberies, taxi-related violence, murder of police officials, political violence, domestic violence, forms of women abuse, physical abuse, sexual maltreatment (abuse), psychological or emotional abuse and sociocultural abuse. All crimes are usually reported to the police and formally referred to criminal courts for adjudication or prosecution. Sometimes official statistics do not reflect reality due to the problem posed by under-reporting of crime, which results in a large amount of unreported and undiscovered crimes known as the dark figure of crime. The reason for the under reporting of crime is varied.

The victim may be unaware that he/she has been victimised e.g. a victim whose cash was stolen by pickpocket may assume that he misplaced his wallet, the victim may think that the police cannot do anything to solve the crime, the victim may believe that the crime is not very serious or that the police will be annoyed or bothered with a trivial complaint. Often, the crimes are not reported because the victim is afraid of what the police may discover if they investigate; the last reason is especially common if the offender and victim are known to each other (Ndabandaba 1987:62).

The effort to keep criminal victimisation a private matter is particularly common in crimes of assault, since much such offences occurs between intimates, including husbands and wives. Furthermore, crimes that lack victims or more accurately crimes that lack complaints e.g. prostitution, gambling and homosexuality may not be reported to the police because the participants believe that no one has been wronged.

The crime victim may also be too confused or dazed by the experience to report the crime. Self-report studies confirm the conclusion of victimisation surveys that the dark or hidden amount of crime is large the so-called phenomenon of the “dark figures” of criminal violence should be seen not just as an accounting questions of the known and unknown acts of violence, nor exclusively in terms of the degree of perceived social deviance with different reference groups, but also in terms of the norms of those operating the criminal justice system i.e. violent conduct not legally labelled as such by authority (Ndabandaba 1987:64).

It is obvious that the police record not all crimes, which take place. There is much evidence of substantial ‘dark figure’ of unrecorded crimes. Before a crime is recorded, at least three things must happen: It must come to someone’s attention that a crime has taken place; it must be reported to the relevant police station and the police station must be willing to accept that the law has been broken (Ndabandaba 1987:64).
1.3. Rationale of the Study

In South Africa, the term rural is usually used to denote communities in country districts outside of urban or peri-urban communities, as defined by a country lifestyle based on agricultural activities. In other words, farming communities centered on small towns and villages serving those rural areas that are usually sparsely populated and away from urban areas. However, what has become obvious over the years is that rural farming communities in South Africa are not dissimilar to urban in terms of experiencing various forms of crime and violence. For instance if one looks closely at so called farm attacks that most often result in robbery, assault, physical injuries and sometimes death; all categories of crime that occur in the cities and are largely replicated in rural areas. (Minnaar 2016:1). Nevertheless, where rural crime becomes more rurally distinctive is when one looks at the nature of those crimes that occur in the farming communities where those rural crimes represent a distinct direct impact on farming livelihoods and rural communities. The Community Safety Forums are formed on the premise that increased co-operation and interaction would improve the functioning and deliberations within the criminal justice system and delivery of crime prevention projects. This resulted in the Community Safety Forum concept evolving as a replica structure for integrated problem solving at local level destined to provide means for sharing information and coordinating an interdisciplinary approach to crime prevention. This approach is inclusive of collaboration and responses from all departments in the justice, crime prevention and security cluster and other relevant organs of state (Maree 2010:256).

The Community Safety Forum (CSF) does not in any way replace or duplicate any existing structure or forum at local level. It will serve as a coordinating structure for collaboration and integrated planning and implementation at local level. Therefore, the main intention remains the replication of the coordination and monitoring function of the criminal justice system (JCSP) structure to streamline and enhance integrated planning at local government level (Crime Prevention Management Course Book 1, 2014:04).

Since the CSF concept is closely related to the Community Policing Forum (CPF), a clear distinction between them needs to be drawn. Community Safety Forum is meant to facilitate the delivery of a multi-sectorial government approach on safety in local communities and is distinguished from CPF through its jurisdiction and tasks. CPF is a legal community structure established in terms of the South African Police Act, and is mandated to facilitate community police relations within a specific police station precinct (Crime Prevention Management Course Book 1, 2014: 04).

This study is of significance because; there is a paucity of scientific research conducted on the phenomenon of the crime in semi-rural areas in South Africa. Thus, this research project will add value not only to the discipline of Criminology and Forensic Studies but will also try to provide solutions to the crime phenomenon in semi-rural areas such as the Umsinga and Umzinyathi districts. Working in silos of different stakeholders such as Community Policing Forums, faith based organisations, non-governmental organisations and the business sector, does not yield positive results in terms of addressing crime. A holistic approach is required.

The creation of a solid foundation among the police, civil society, relevant stakeholders and
private security companies in the fight against crime will assist the state to make sure that new strategies and techniques will remain relevant. Though the police and law enforcement agencies are mandated to take the lead in the fight against crime, this battle cannot be won unless all sectors of the civil society work together in a war against crime. Through research, we develop and accumulate the results to answer our research questions and gain a deeper understanding of research problem (Maree, 2010: 256).

1.4. Research problem and objectives

The main objective of this research project is to critically analyse the criminal environment in the Msinga municipality. The important role and responsibility played by community safety structures in terms of fighting crime will be highlighted. Essentially, the primary objectives of the study will be identifying how these community safety structures such CPF’s, CSF’s, CCPA’s, street committees and ward safety committees would assist the law enforcement agencies in dealing with crime.

It must be borne in mind that the notion of placing trust and hope into the hands of police will not take our country forward and it is not sustainable since the police have their own limitations when it comes to resources. Linden (2000:2) opines that for much of this century, citizens have placed the primary responsibility for crime prevention in the hands of the formal system of criminal justice. However, in recent years the limitations of this approach have been recognised.

Criminal justice professionals, politicians, and members of the community have realised that the patrol and investigative resources of the police are limited in preventing many types of crime and courts and prisons have only a small impact on crime rates. Due to this, there has been a greater emphasis on crime prevention programmes that involve close operation between those working in the criminal justice system, other professionals, business people and community at large (Linden 2000: 02).

In discussing crime, the danger is to focus on policing as the only solution. It is necessary to move from a narrow law-enforcement approach to crime, safety, to identify, and resolving the root causes of crime. To achieve this, South Africa needs to mobilise state and non-state capacities at all level, which requires an integrated approach, with active citizen involvement and co-responsibility (National Development Plan Vision 2030).

One needs to highlight that the Premier of Kwazulu-Natal whilst he was still the MEC for Department of Community Safety and Liaison, came up with a well-known concept: Building a united front against crime. The concept seeks to mobilise all community sectors such as NGO’s, FBO’s, and civil society, business sector, to assist the State in the fight against crime. Subsequently, organisations such as KZNCCPA, street committees and ward safety committees came into existence. These structures play a significance role more particularly in rural areas where the role of the police services are not sufficiently covered the entire space due to limited resources.

Section 12 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, provides that everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right to be free from all forms of
violence from either public or private sources, not to be tortured in any way, not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way. Section 198 of the Constitution requires national security to reflect the resolve of South Africans, as individuals and as a nation, to live as equals, to live in peace and harmony, to be free from fear, want, and seek a better life.

As mentioned earlier, the National Development Plan (2011) opines that in discussing crime, the danger is to focus on policing as the only solution in dealing with crime. It is necessary to move away from this narrow law-enforcement approach to crime and safety, to identifying and resolving the root causes of crime. To achieve this, South Africa will have to mobilise state and non-state capacities at all levels, which requires an integrated approach, with active involvement and co-responsibility.

The major objective for the study is to further scientific understanding of the concept of crime prevention. The role of the criminal justice system and community safety structures that have been established to deal more specifically with the prevention of crime will be discussed and highlighted. The involvement of traditional leaders and the role of civil society in crime prevention will also be highlighted. Perhaps it will add value in this discipline and make sure that the traditional approach in fighting crime needs the commitments of all the relevant stakeholders.

The research will make sure the sector policing plays a role in the prevention of crime in our society. The research will make sure that it is strengthened and cement the relationships between the police and community in the fight against crime. Crime and its causes, for the most part, can only be defeated through multi-agency actions that bring to bear the required combination of skills and resources to effectively address crime and its causes.

The ability to obtain, assimilate and apply the right knowledge effectively has become a key skill for anyone who wants to succeed in life at this day and age. We do research because we want to add new information about a topic or issue by addressing the gaps in existing knowledge. Sometimes the researcher’s is to replicate existing knowledge by testing the old results with new participants at the new research sites.

Research is conducted whenever we want to expand our knowledge by researching new ideas or practices or when we want to inform existing practices by developing new ideas. Through research we can also broaden our perspectives by introducing the voices of the social groups whose views have not been heard or have been silenced for quite sometimes.

The report on the World Bank Country Assessment on Youth Violence, Policy and programmes in South Africa (June 2011) states the following in respect of the drivers of crime: the drivers of crime are varied and complex, but the models of behaviour to which young people are exposed and the levels of care and the support they receive also play a key role. The research conducted by World Bank 2011, shows that violence is for many young people a part of life, it is a feature of their homes, schools, and communities, and has become an accepted component of young people’s social interactions. Many poor children are also growing up in home environments where they lack the developmental investment needed to become healthy, well-adjusted adults. These drivers are compounded by shortfalls in childcare, afterschool care and recreation, which could help to steer children toward more prosocial models of behavior;
parenting practices that promote violence and young peoples’ limited opportunities for personal growth (Centre for study of violence and Recreation, 2007). Many poor children are also growing up in home environments where they lack the developmental investment needed to become healthy, well-adjusted adults. These drivers are compound by shortfalls in children, afterschool care and recreation, which could help to steer children toward more pro-social models of behavior, parenting practices that promote violence, and young people’s limited opportunities for personal growth. These findings prove that indeed there is a significant correlation between the age and violent crime (Crime Prevention Management Course, book 2, 2014:08). The Social ecology theory, an outgrowth of the the Chicago School of sociological thought, which flourished during the 1920s and 1930s posited a link between physical location and crime. A modern perspective, called crime prevention through environmental designed, bears a strong resemblance to earlier ecolological theories. Because defensible space concepts are being increasingly applied to the design of physical facilities, including housing, parking garages, public buildings and even entire neighbourhoods, it is highly likely that applications of CPTFD will accelerate throughout the twenty first century, (Bachman & Schutt 2009:111).

1.5 Research Questions

The researcher has formulated the following questions in order to generate more information about the problem of crime in the area under research. This research will ask the following questions:

- Do community safety structures such as CPF, CSF, and CCPA exist in the Msinga municipality?
- What is the relationship between these community safety structures and the police?
- Does a relationship exist between the community safety structures and traditional leaders?
- Do these structures have any significant impact in preventing crime in Msinga municipality?
- What are the prevalent crimes in Msinga?
- How can these crimes be addressed and prevented?

1.6. Literature Review

A review of literature is aimed at contributing to a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the problem that has been identified. Unfortunately, not all researchers or potential researchers are automatically convinced of the necessity of a literature review as an integral part of the research process (De Vos 2011:134). Experience has taught us that some researchers become aware only very late in the research process of the need for a thorough background knowledge of the phenomenon under review in this instance is crime, in order to conduct a meaningful piece of research. Only once a researcher really comprehends the very important purpose of the literature review is it given its rightful place in the project (De Vos 2011:134).

During the past two decades, a number of surveys related to crime, crime victims and users of services provided by the safety and various service providers in South Africa have conducted security cluster departments. Statistics South Africa conducted its first Victims of Crime Survey (VOCs) in 1998, followed by the surveys in 2003 and 2007, which were conducted by the Institute for Security Studies. The government regards crime prevention and safety as a high
priority, the results from Victims Of Crime Survey aim to assist the government to measure the extent and levels of crime (Victims of Crime Survey 2015/16:01). The total population in South Africa is estimated to 55 563 654. There are nine provinces in the Republic of South Africa and the distribution of population according to the provinces stands as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kwazulu-Natal</td>
<td>11 065 240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>2 834 714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>4 335 964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-West</td>
<td>3 748 436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>1 193 780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>6 996 976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>5 799 090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>6 279 730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>13.5 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Umzinyathi District**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local municipalities</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wards</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinics</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police stations</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional leaders</td>
<td>19 (Males: 18; Female: 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners</td>
<td>156 673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FET Colleges</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This information was derived from Statistics South Africa 2016, Department of Basic Education (2011, 2013, 2016), KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education 2013, COGTA, Department of Community Safety and Liaison and Integrated Planning: Monitoring and Evaluation delivered by Dr MJ Maseko September 2016.

Situational crime prevention has a long history in criminology and its practical utility, if not its relevance to criminological theory, has been widely recognised. The attraction of such measures lies in their apparent simplicity and practicality. Instead of trying to change criminal motivation or offender-self- control both of which are regarded by traditional criminologists as deep-seated behavioural tendencies, and either of which has responded conspicuously well to do intervention by the criminal justice system-situational crime prevention attempts only to regulate their active expression by way of criminal behavior (Cornish, 2010: 153). Situational prevention stands apart from developmental prevention by its singular focus on the setting or place in which criminal acts take place as well as its crime specific focus. Related to this is the widely held finding that crime is not randomly distributed across a city or community, but is instead highly concentrated
at certain places known as crime hot spots (Welsh & Farrington, 2012:220).

Situational crime prevention has been defined as a preventive approach that relies, not upon improving society or its institutions, but simply upon reducing opportunities for crime. Reducing opportunities for crime is achieved essentially through some modification or manipulation of the physical environment in order to directly affect offender’s perspective of increased risks and effort and decreased rewards, provocations, and excuses (Cornish & Clarke 2003).

All countries experience crime violence and victimisation. This may lead to some of the following situations: countries with high proportions of young men who are killed before they become adults; societies with families who lose a parent or have members in prison, who are living in poverty and without access to support or legitimate sources of income; neighbourhoods experiencing gang wars or where there seems to be little public protections and security; women who are subjected to violence in their home or who are at risk of sexual assault in public spaces (United Nations office on Drugs and crime 2010). Crime is a serious problem in this country. Solutions that work are cost effective and must be found. Crime prevention is just this sort of solution. A community crime prevention strategy is a framework for the crime prevention activities that will make your area safer (A Manual for Community Based Crime Prevention 2000: 03).

High levels of crime pose a serious threat to our emergent democracy. Violent crime often leads to a tragic loss of life and injury, and the loss of possession and livelihood due to crime is incalculable. Crime results in the deprivation of the rights and dignity of citizens, and poses a threat to peaceful resolution of differences and rightful participation of all in the democratic process (National Crime Prevention Strategy 1995).

Crime casts fear into the hearts of the South Africans from all occupations and prevents them from taking their rightful place in the development and growth of our country. It inhibits our citizens from communicating with one another freely, from engaging in economic activity and prevents entrepreneurs and investors from taking advantage of the opportunities, which our country offers. For these reasons, the government regards the prevention of crime as a national priority. This applies to not only the cabinet, and the departments concerned with security and justice, but also to all other national departments, which are able to contribute to a reduction in crime levels. It is also expected that the provincial government will work hand in cloves with the national government to implement the national crime prevention strategy (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1995).

Crime statistics are a vital aspect of the study of crime. Theories of crime causation are grounded in crime statistics and popular and professional perceptions of the extent and distributions of crime are shaped by this information. Public response to crime and criminals probably is largely based upon views regarding the seriousness and magnitude of the crime problem. Most communities regard crime as a serious social problem that affects the quality of life of everyone in society. Consequently, violent offences receive a great deal of publicity in the media, and this often creates the impression of an exceptionally high incidence of violent crime involving increased brutality and cruelty.
This in itself creates a sense of insecurity among citizens. Violent crime in particular creates a sense of fear and helplessness, as well as the perception that such crime is out of control and that the state is unable to deal with the crime problem (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001: 3-4). Violent crimes and hijacking of motor vehicles in South Africa is a daily occurrence. In the majority of reported hijackings, the most common weapon that is being used is firearm such as 9mm pistol and sometimes AK 47. Taxi-related violence in KwaZulu Natal, on the other hand, is characterised by sporadic clashes between taxi operators, whereas bus services and tension within the executive structures of tax organization also play a role, especially in end around Durban, Pietermaritzburg and even at Umsinga.

The province of KwaZulu-Natal is presently leading in terms of killing police officials, followed by Gauteng and lastly the Eastern Cape. For the past two decades, South Africa has been in the grip of the most violent period of its history. The country has become renowned for its high level of violence. While many white South Africans have been isolated from the political violence, members of the black communities are exposed to; violence on a daily bases (SAPS Crime statistics for March 2015/16). Violent offences account for some ten (10) percent of all criminal convictions in Canada and in the USA. South Africa has much high violent crime rate, as evidence by the fact that 16.5 percent of all conviction for 1993/1994 were for violent crimes (Murder, rape, aggravated assault and robbery). The drop in the number of incidents of serious crime in KwaZulu-Natal over the years can be attributed to the strategies implemented by the South African Police Services and other agencies to ensure safety. The high visibility of police officials at shopping centers, the city centers and in the community can thwart criminal plans (SAPS Crime statistics for March 2015/16).

Some researchers suggest that the high rate of sexual incidents in South Africa can partly be ascribed to the fact that sexual abuse has received high priority in the South African media since 1994 with the police and many organisations encouraging victims to report sexual offences to the police. The topic was chosen because it is indeed relevant to problems facing the community of Msinga. In the final analysis, this piece of research will address the plight of this community, introduction of different crime prevention strategies and the active involvement of the community at large; will be able to deal with those challenges.

Crime statistics for March 2015/2016 released by SAPS, has shown that crime is on the rise in KwaZulu-Natal particularly contact crime like murder, sexual offences and assault as well as serious crimes like carjacking, robbery and residential robbery. In Msinga, murder has significantly increased by 24, 2%, and at Nhlanhleni police station has shown an increase of 160, 0%. Serious crime such as carjacking, robbery at residential premises and robbery at non-residential remain a disturbing factor. It really shows that the law enforcement agencies and community safety structures should work as a united front like never before. For as long as the community keep on buying stolen goods, for as long as the market for stolen goods, is still open, it really means that the war against crime will never be won since our community members will continue to buy stolen goods.

1.6.1 Theoretical Framework

The broken window theory was developed by Wilson and Kelling in 1980 and is based on the assumption that a comparatively harmless phenomenon, like littering the streets, spraying graffiti
or selling abandon cars, can lead to much worse signs of disorder like a total state of neglect with high rates of violent and property crime. Environment factors which could signal the beginning state of neglect and decay of street or a neighborhood are for example discarded cigarette butts on the street, full bags of domestic refuse on the pavement, graffiti on the walls of the houses or dismantled fences which are not repaired (Austrup, 2011:03).

The present study aims at dealing with the problem the broken window theory from another perspective. It tries to explore in which environmental factors influence the intrapersonal psychological process, which could then lead to the occurrence of criminal behavior (Austrup, 2011:03). However, how can neighbourhood be safer when crime rate has not gone down, in fact, may have gone up? The findings may require firstly that we understand what most often frighten the people in public places.

Many citizens are often frightened by crime, especially crime of violence. When the first window is not fixed, there is a great possibility that another window may be broken. In simple term, if the small problem is not attended to, it can escalate to a serious one and eventually causes havoc (Wilson and Kelling, 1982: 01). At the community level, disorder and crime are usually inextricably linked, in a kind of developmental sequence. Social psychologists and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken and is left unrepaired; all the rest of the windows will soon be broken. This is as true in well-developed neighbourhoods as in rundown ones. Window breaking does not necessarily occur because some areas are inhabited by determined window breakers whereas others are populated by window lovers, rather, one unrepaired broken is a signal that no one cares, and so breaking costs nothing (Wilson & Kelling, 1982: 08).

The community safety structures such as CPF, Youth Desk, Ward Safety Committees, CCPA, and CSF, etc; will work with the community of Msinga in order to address the problem of crime in the area. The community members will be urged to join and support these structures to curb and prevent crime at Msinga. The objectives of this research are:

- To identify the nature and extent of complaints on police service delivery at Msinga
- To analyse and explore the role of the Department of Community Safety and Liaison as a civilian oversight body mandated to monitor and evaluate police service.
- To assess the effectiveness of community safety structures that exists at Msinga.
- To ascertain the relationship between the Traditional Leadership and the Criminal Justice System in terms of crime prevention.

For the purpose of this study, the following hypothesis were formulated:

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a significant relationship between gender and propensity to commit crime

Women and the elderly may perceive that they are more vulnerable to crime and that they are less able to protect themselves from violent predators than men and the youth. Research indicates that compared with men, woman take far more precautions to protect themselves. Worldwide, women commit fewer offences than men do, especially when it comes to violent crime. In the USA, men commit 95% of all violent offences. In 95% of domestic violence cases in Canada and the USA, women are victims. In South Africa, Glanz and Smith (cited in Van der Hoven, 2001:14) found the crime ratio to be 14: 1 in the case of murder and attempted murder.
and in the case of robbery.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between the number of reported violent crime incidences and safety.
Violent crime is one of the most serious social problems facing our society across the board. The research has discovered (Van der Hoven 2001) that blacks are more frequently victims of violent crimes that take place in Townships, shebeens and joyous places such as nightclubs, which are predominantly frequented by blacks. Such instances are very rare in suburbs or in area, which were previously dominated by the whites.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between court sentences imposed and incidences of violent crime.
This approach requires the community to become more actively involved in the criminal justice system by demanding for example, that persistent serious and violent offenders be permanently incarcerated in order to protect the community from their harmful behaviour. Citizens can also demand impartiality in the administration of justice by monitoring and researching the criminal justice system and by insisting on changes in the criminal laws, such as better control of firearms to prevent violent crimes (Schurink, 1997: 466).

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between the community crime prevention structures and crime.
It is generally recognised that the attitude of the public on matters concerning the law and law enforcement are extremely relevant to the work of the police. The importance of good community crime prevention structures cannot be over emphasised. Police rely largely on the public in their fight against crime. Most of the reports on crime and that are received by the police come from the public (Van der Hoven et al. 2001).

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between age and the incidents of violent crime
Young people are disproportionately more likely to be victims of crime, especially young groups. The reason is that most of the time young people frequent dubious places such us nightclubs and shebeens. A comprehensive study by Van der Hoven et al. (2001) showed that young people under the age of 18 years are responsible for one in ten violent offences committed in the USA. The majority of developing countries have a high percentage of young people under the age of 34 years in their population and this contributes to a high level of violence in these countries.

1.6.2 Significance and Contribution of the Study
Prevention of crime is an element of criminology; a scientific discipline analysing the offender and victim personality as well as potential ways of limiting or controlling crime. It is an empirical, more practical than theoretical, multidisciplinary discipline. One of the main elements of the national security policy is the key tool to reduce crime, eliminate criminal and pathological phenomena, work with offenders and protect and assist victims of crime (Crime Prevention Strategy 2008:02). Unlike the penal policy, the prevention policy uses non-repressive methods, administered by a range of causes of crime, preventive measures which impacts many areas of public life, such as
social policies, employment, education, leisure activities, crisis intervention, or urban planning (The Czech Republic, Crime prevention strategy, 2008-2011: 02).

Patterns, themes, theories, assumptions and generalisations that emerge from the questionnaires and interviews will be used to inform theory and practice of crime prevention in Umsinga and Umzinyathi Districts. Very little research has been conducted on crimes of violence especially in this place of Umsinga and Umzinyathi districts. There are, therefore, very few publications in this field. The criminological research has three basic purposes, viz.:

➢ To objectively discover the causes of crime,
➢ To use that knowledge to predict behaviour, and
➢ To facilitate decision making in all phases of the criminal justice system.

In order to deal with crime in a very decisive manner, all the community safety structures should come on board and assist the law enforcement agencies to address the issue of crime in a meaningful way. All existing structures should be utilised in a professional way so that they will assist the police in dealing with crime since they have limited resources now. It is hoped that the roster of criminogenic conditions analysed in this research project will provide the reader with some idea of the causes, reduction, prevention and cost of crimes of violence especially in black semi-rural areas. The researcher has been attached to the Department for Community Safety and Liaison for a long time and as such, crimes have been observing the problem of violent crimes in rural areas and in contemporary societies. This phenomenon has been perpetually harassing the very fabric of our society and even the criminal justice system could not provide a permanent solution.

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison has made a concerted drive, which is underway to streamline and integrate the departmental programmes, which will lead to targeted and sustained intervention in identified problem areas. In practice, this will involve identified problem areas and moving in with relevant interventions involving all stakeholders. The department has for years been playing a pivotal role in bringing about closer collaboration and cooperation with the Provincial’s criminal justice machinery. It has also been an active partner with other sector role-players in improving the quality of life for citizens of our province. It is envisaged that closer alignment and integrated deployment of its services will take its impact to a higher level (Building a united front against crime, concept document, 2011:03).

The study to be undertaken is regarded as necessary to our understanding crime prevention and management of violent crimes. The following served as an overall aim and goal of the study:

➢ To assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the community safety structures in the area of Msinga in terms of crime prevention. These community safety structures are include inter alia: community police forums, ward safety committees, community crime prevention association, street committees and voting district safety teams.
➢ To explore which crime prevention strategies are effective in the area under investigation and device some means of continuously improving those strategies.
➢ The role played by the criminal justice system, different government departments and Traditional Leaders in the fight against crime.
The role played by Amakhosi and Local municipalities cannot be underestimated. The police cannot handle some of these crimes yet they have negative impact in our society such as abduction, which is popular known as ukuthwala and other directives issued by Traditional Authorities. When these directives and orders are directed well, they will have positive impact in our society and play a meaningful role in terms crime prevention.

1.7. Research Methodology

Research methods form the backbone of any research project. These methods make fieldwork possible and provide a systematic guide to the data collection processes in which the goals of the research project can be met. Research methodology may be considered as the set of procedures designed to achieve clear thinking. It is indeed a method of data collection, such a survey, experiment or interview. A methodology is a whole philosophical perspective about how research should be conducted, the reason it should be conducted, and how it should be used (Gordon 2016:10). The purpose of qualitative and quantitative phases will be to test whether the existing community safety structures that were established by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, add value in reducing crime at Msinga in the Umzinyathi District, and whether there is a good cooperation between these structures and the entire criminal justice system. This research will be explorative in nature and the methodology that will be used is a mixed methodology comprising both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. A qualitative or categorical variable indicates to which group a subject belongs or the absence or presence of some or other quality. The quantitative variables take on numerical values and are usually obtained by measuring or counting (De Vos, 2002:224-225). This research will be undertaken in two phases.

1.7.1 Phase 1

The qualitative research, which will involve several methods of data collection: such as focus group, field observation, in depth interviews and case studies. In some cases, qualitative research has certain advantages. The methods allow a researcher to view behaviour in a natural setting without the artificiality that sometimes surrounds experimental or survey research (Bachman et al.2009). The researcher has conducted several sessions with Amakhosi of Msinga, the station commanders of Msinga police station, Pomeroy Police Station and Dundee Cluster office; officials from the Criminal justice system such courts and Correctional Services. The qualitative approach will seek to achieve an insider’s view by interviewing the research subjects and observing their behaviour in a subjective way. The use of a qualitative method facilitates a more in-depth understanding of factors that would be difficult to obtain through a quantitative survey alone. Subjective factors such as opinion, attitude, personality, emotion, motivation, interest, personal problems, mood, drive and frustration are relatively more complex, and hence more difficult to capture quantitatively than variables that can be empirically verified (Baumgartner & Strong, 1998:248).

1.7.2 Phase 2

Furthermore, the quantitative research will involve several methods of data collection, such as
telephone surveys, mail surveys, and internet surveys. In these methods, the questioning is static or standardised— all respondents are asked the same questions and there is no follow up questions. Thus, as indicated a combination of methodology will be utilised. According to De Vos (2002), the analysis phase normally makes use of the quantitative approach while the evaluation phase is more of a qualitative nature. Research methodology requires skills and sophistication merely to determine the kind of results that one endeavours to establish. It can be seen that the research methodology requires experience and information about the topic being examined. One must know as much as possible about the functioning of agency operations and the structure of a particular agency in order to conduct research on program innovation or to measure the impact and importance of existing operations.

The researcher will use a data collection instrument such as questionnaires and interviews, and the community members from Umsinga and Umzinyathi district will be asked to answer five-point semantic differential scales with respect to each dimension of crime and crime prevention. The in-depth interview guide will consist of questions that are based on variables of crime prevention and that will facilitate answers to the research questions and achievement of the research objectives. These data collection techniques will allow respondents to share their perceptions of crime prevention and crime levels in a natural environment, which will enable them to relate their experiences.

1.7.3 Sample

For the quantitative component of the study, the researcher to ensure that the sample is representative will use probability sampling. The sampling frame will be selected through simple random sampling and includes individuals from the community and law enforcement officials. A questionnaire will be sent to senior officials at police stations and community members. A letter explaining the study’s purpose, requesting them to participate and informing them that the results will be shared, will accompany this questionnaire. Non-probability sampling will be used for the qualitative component of the study. Once the research commences the number of police officials in the area at that specific time will be determined. The study will be located at Msinga area under Umzinyathi District Municipality. The Msinga local municipality is situated in a deep rural area and at the heart of the Zulu nation. This area is very rich in African history and many battles and faction fight took place here in this area.

1.7.4 Sample size

A broad cross-section of the Umsinga community with a minimum of 100 participants will be requested to complete the questionnaire. The sample of participant for this study also includes police officials (e.g. Station Commanders, Branch Commanders and CPF members). These community members and officials within law enforcement agencies are readily available and accessible to the researcher.

1.7.5 Data analysis

Factor analysis and thematic analysis will be used to address the research questions identified
earlier. Factor analysis will be used to detect underlying patterns of correlation in the quantitative data. Factor analysis group’s variables into a smaller number of components and will be conducted through SPSS software. It deals robustly with diverse samples and does not need any a priori assumptions about the cases. For the qualitative data, verbatim will be analyses through thematic analysis to create, elaborate on and validate theory. (Hair et al, 2011:277). This will be done mainly through the manual method. All the notes will be physically sorted and placed according to the respondents names in an alphabetical order. The themes will be identified, marked and categorised for analysis.

1.7.6 Ethical Considerations

An informed consent form will be attached to the survey questionnaires and all the respondents will be informed that their participation is voluntary and they may withdraw from the study at any time.

Strict confidentiality of responses and comments will be maintained, and any statements or comments made during the interview cannot be linked to a particular participant. Measures will be put in place to safeguard that the respondents are not physically or psychologically harmed during the research. The respondents will be thoroughly informed beforehand about all the potential emotional impacts of participating in the study because it is often difficult to predict emotional harm. The researcher is a trained and experienced senior police officer and will ensure that the respondents are protected from any physical harm.

Evaluation research can make a difference in people’s lives while it is in progress, as well as after the results are reported. The fact that the research will also focus on the role played by the police, the impact of community safety structures such as CPF, CSF, Street Committees, VD Safety Teams, NGO, FBO, etc, and the distribution of resources has a direct impact on ethical consideration. Although the particular criteria that are at issue and the decisions that are most ethical vary with the type of evaluation research conducted and the specifics of a particular project, there are always serious as well as political concerns for the evaluation researcher. Assessing needs, determining evaluability and examining the process of establishing of the community safety structures, have special ethical consideration Bachman, Ronet and Schutt 2009:265). In our country today, crime receives the highest priority along with other critical developmental imperatives. From the highest office of the land, the call has come to intensify the fight against crime by building cohesive, caring and sustainable communities. As provincial government, in responding to the crime challenges we face as a province, we are embarking on a concerted drive to streamline and integrate programmes which will lead to targeted and sustained interventions in problem areas (Programme Conceptual Document:2010:01).

Preventing crime has been a priority for all government departments and culminated in the launching of the National Crime Prevention Strategy in 1996. The NCPS emphasizes the prevention of crime, rather than entirely relying on the criminal justice process to arrest and convict offenders. It is based on the idea that the South African Police Service alone cannot reduce crime. The involvement of community safety structures such CPF’s, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs
and respective government departments are equally responsible for reducing crime. The NCPS has laid a foundation that provides regulations to various relevant departments to develop strategies that are aligned to existing approaches so as to avoid duplication of services. In dealing with crime, more emphasis is placed on an inter-sectorial and comprehensive approach (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy 2011:08). In his State of the Nation address President Zuma outlined five key priorities for his government that would be achieved for the next five years. These five priorities include among other things: rural development/agrarian reform and food security, creating decent jobs and economic growth, fighting crime, education, health and nation building and good governance.

In his state of the nation address, the former State President Thabo Mbeki cited the following regarding the thorny issue of crime in our country: In addition to the many ongoing programmes that we have been implementing, governments will this year:

- Continue to improve the remuneration and working conditions of the police, and start the process of further expanding the personnel of the South African Police Service to bring their total number to over 180 000 within three years, and ensure optimal utilization of the electronic monitoring and evaluation system that has just been introduced.
- Intensify intelligence work with regard to organized crime, building on the successes that have been achieved in the last few months in dealing with cash –in-transit heist, drug trafficking and poaching and abalone.
- Utilize to maximum effect the new technology that has been provided to justice system and generally improve management of courts and prosecution service, in order massively to reduce case backlogs.
- Improve our analysis of crime trends to improve our performance with regard both to crime prevention and crime combating. In this regard, we must respond to the cold reality that, as in other countries, the overwhelming majority of violent crimes against the person occur in the most socio-economically deprived areas of our country and require strong and sustained community intervention focused on crime prevention.

As we have already said, these and other measures will succeed only if we build an enduring partnership in actual practice within our communities and between the communities and the police, to make life more and more difficult for the criminals. Safety and security is a fundamental human right enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, and a necessary condition for human development, improved quality of life and enhanced productivity.

The National Development Plan recognises that crime and violence is not just a security issue, but has deep social and economic roots and consequences. Addressing these issues cannot be seen as the mandate of the criminal justice system alone, but rather requires the involvement of all government departments, particularly those within the social and economic clusters (Crime Prevention Management Course Book 1, 2014:06).

1.8 Problem statement

Communities are experiencing crime and the police performance is indeed a serious problem, not only in bigger cities such as Durban or Dundee but in the whole country is in crisis. The high
The crime rate in South Africa has had a negative impact not only on nation economic growth, investor confidence and tourism, but also on the safety and security of its citizen and residents (Moeketsi et al. 2001:5). The crime at Umzinyathi District has significantly increased; this has been witnessed recently, through the brutal and merciless killing of eight family members at Embangweni, at Ematimatolo, outside Greytown.

The gruesome incident occurred on 04 October 2017 during the night where members of the Sibiya family were attacked and their house, torched. The attack left eight female members dead including children aged 2 and 16 years. Their bodies were also burnt beyond recognition. A similar incident few years ago (2013) where eight (8) members of Isikebhe were gunned down whist were following their stolen cattle at Mahlabo next to Pomery next Msinga. Two years later, (2015), at Muden, another 8 family members belonging to Mkhize were also killed on allegations that were involved on stock cases (Ukhozi FM 2013).

Crime has become a front-page news item in the daily lives of many South Africans. What has given to raise this and how can it resolved? These are questions that are being asked by politicians and social scientists (Moeketsi, Schurink, Molefe & Bruce, 2001:5).

There are many factors that can contribute to violent situations, among other things that can contribute to violent crimes are poverty alcohol, abuse, unemployment illegal fire arms, change of lifestyle, to mention but a few. Throughout the country, there is a huge outcry about the general performance of the police, and there is a popular believe that the police are failing to deal with crime decisively in South Africa this has followed by shocking news that the two former National Commissioners of the South Africa Police Service were embroiled in criminal scandals and subsequently were removed from their positions. As a result, the community has lost faith with the police. It is also believed that South African laws are in favour of the criminals than with the victims. The criminals are given light sentences and they are treated with kid gloves, even once in they are in correctional centres.

As the level of violent crime increases, womenand children find themselves unprotected and vulnerable. In many instances when their male counterparts are stressed and frustrated, they abuse woman and children without any valid cause. This kind of violence may result in children becoming homeless or the child may be traumatised and suffer psychologically. The issue of violent crime in this area is also problematic as it is mirrors the predicament around the country. Many people are starting to lose patience and in certain quarters of the community, have started to take the law into their own hands with the view to solve the problem of crime in the country. The former State President Thabo Mbeki has been the target of a wave of public criticism after saying in a national television interview that crime was not out of control and his police chief Jackie Selebi said he could not understand ‘what the fuss about crime’ was.

The First National Bank initiated an advertising campaign aimed at encouraging the government and the president to do more about crime. However, before the advertiseent could be aired, the campaign was aborted because of alleged pressure from the government and big business (Daily News, 19 February, 2007:1). It is perceived that the government is not winning the battle on crime hence there is clarion call that the president of the country must prioritise the issue of crime in its political agenda. In rural areas like Msinga, Nquthu and Mabomvini the problem of stock
theft and high proliferation illegal firearms remain a thorny issue in the mind of these communities.

These communities still believe that the government should come up with meaningful programmes to deal with crime in rural areas, especially when their livelihoods are affected by stock theft. The issue of domestic violence and rape in these communities should not be underestimated. Hence, the levels of reported rapes are increasing and even rural areas are beginning to break the silence and report the crime to the police. The media has played a meaningful role in terms of educating women and children about their rights and responsibility of reporting crime to the authorities, through campaigns like 16 days of activism.

According to Rankel cited in Schmuck (2006:18), the research design lays the steps of systematic problem solving. The basic idea is that a problem is a discrepancy between a current situation and the goal for that situation, between a less than satisfactory present situation and more desirable goals for a future situation. The problem is being worked on as paths are found from the current situation to a future goal. Schmuck (2006:18) specified seven problem-solving steps as follows:

- Specify the problem. A problem is a discrepancy between your actual situation and your preferred goals. The following questions should be asked: what is wrong with the way things are now? In addition, what would like to accomplish that you are not accomplish now. Your interest is why the present situation falls short of your goals.
- Assess the situation with the force field analysis. Each situation has facilitating forces, which help us reach our goals. The situation is in dynamic equilibrium when the opposing forces are equal in strength.
- Specify multiple solutions. Brainstorm ways to increase the facilitating forces and to decrease the restraining forces. Be creative and inventive.
- Plan for action. Be critical and hardnosed in selecting only the brainstormed ideas you think are feasible and realistic.
- Anticipate obstacles. Think carefully about the barriers or hindrances that could arise as your plan unfolds.
- Take action. Implement your action plan. Reflect on the present, the here and now.
- Evaluate. Tally the strengths and weaknesses of your actions. With your evaluation, specify a new problem and recycle the seven steps of problem solving to engage in continuous improvement (Schmuck, 2006:18-19).

1.9 Choice of the research

Primarily the study of crime prevention has been conducted elsewhere not in this area. The population of Msinga is estimated to 58 000. People are flocking to this area for numerous reasons such as looking for job opportunities, expansion of business opportunities and the new mall that has been established in the area of Msinga. Whilst the government has earnestly focused on creation of job opportunities and development, crime is beginning to increase. The research result will add value to the study of criminology. It will also assist the government by creating contemporary crime prevention strategies to minimise or eliminate violent crime in the area.
Reference will be made to three (3) basic research aims, namely: exploration, description, and explanation.

The research will pay more attention to violent crimes that are prevalent in the area such as murder, attempted murder, assault, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm rape, robbery with aggravating circumstances, car hijacking, etc. The research will also try to describe, analyse, explain and recommend prevention measures and strategies to curb escalation of crime in this region. Crime in all its manifestation has increased in such a measure in South Africa that it has converted the new democracy into one of the most dangerous countries in the world. South Africa has also become the rape capital of the world. South Africa’s high rate of crime and violence within a context of increased urbanisation, calls for more acute measures to address urban violence and crime by both the South African government and non-government players.

Supporting this call is the fact that safety and security feature in the three concerns of South Africans across class and racial divides in South Africa (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:06). The analyses of South African rape statistics (Journal for contemporary history, volume 27, P.101-118); while the growth of criminality in the society began in the early 1980s, it peaked – in common with other societies attempting to move from authoritarian rule to democratise governance, during the year of transition. Nevertheless, South Africa’s system of criminal justice is all prepared to face the challenges of rising crime (Journal, for contemporary history volume 27, p101-118).

Citizens are responding in their own ways. For wealthy (and generally white) citizens, this means greater use of the burgeoning private security industry, while for less fortunate communities, it increasingly raises the possibility of taking the law into community hands through vigilante action. All South Africans are directly or indirectly affected by criminal acts and increasing violence that has become associated with these acts. Internationally it has been found that crime and violence erodes cohesion, limits mobility and erodes citizens’ trust in the state to protect them. Research has pointed towards the connection between poverty and crime being a complex one. While severe poverty may motivate people towards criminality not all poor, people commit crime. In fact, the majority do not (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:14).

Govender & Killian (2001:1–11), studied adolescent youth living in the townships of Middleland region of KwaZulu–Natal. Subjects have lived within violence stricken communities for most of their lives. It was assumed that all participants were also victims of poverty and social discrimination. For different communities, with varying profiles of political and criminal violence, combined with varied access to resources resources were selected. Results indicated that a number of individual and community variables are likely intervening variables. This led to the development of an integrationist model, which indicates that, a number of mediating and/or moderating variables operate in societies, which enhance resilience or alternatively place an individual at greater risk for the development of psychopathology. These include cognitive attribution, meaning of the violence to the individual and the community as well as the nature of the enemy.

Pietermaritzburg is a relatively new capital of Kwazulu- Natal and as such is its economy is growing very fast, such that this has also provided a fertile ground for crime and criminality.
This township faces enormous challenges such as economical as well as social development. Business communities, big and small companies have found home in terms of investment. Whilst business flourish and expand, the criminals also exploit those opportunities as well. Historically, the Province of KwaZulu-Natal is characterised by a large population, which is estimated to be ten million. Mostly this province is highly affected by high levels of crime, unemployment, poverty, inequality as well as HIV/AIDS. This pandemic is predicted to contribute to major increase in youth crime by creating conditions, which make youth much more vulnerable to crime, as victim and perpetrators of crime.

This province is also rich in heritage, monument and Zulu history. It also engulfs places such as Emakhosini Valley, which in Zulu means “Place of Kings.” This is the place where great leaders such as King Shaka, the real founder of the Zulu Nation, were born and bred. Great wars such as British and Zulu war at Esandlwana and Anglo-Boer war were fought and the battle of Blood River. (Karin 2000 & Dhlomo 1952). Crime myths have numerous effects on individual is perceptions; sometimes it may not even be conscious that they are at work.

Myths tend organise our views of crime, criminals and the proper operation of the criminal justice system. They provide us with a conceptual framework from which to identify certain social issues as crime related, develop our personal opinions on issues of justice, and apply readymade solutions to social problems. The organisation of views through crime myths contributed to the cataloging of crime issues into artificial distinctions between criminals, victims, crime fighters and viable social responses to crime (Fattah, 1997:3). Although the nature of the crime problem may seem apparent, perspectives are varied and diverse among criminologists, as well as among the public. A review of competing definitions of crime and criminology will be an important part of this study, as the foundation is developed which the issues within the field of criminology can meaningfully analysed (Brown, Esbensen and Geis, 1991:1).

Criminal law is one essential ingredient of the criminological superstructure (Brown et al. 1991:2). Both the origin and content of criminal law are pertinent, although some criminologists are more concerned with why particular acts are made illegally or outlawed, while others are more concerned with understanding why people engage in conduct that is against the law. A sound criminological perspective is equally informed by the content of criminal law and by its origins. A scientific perspective has powerfully influenced criminology. The scientific method heavily relies upon accurate measurement of the matters of interest to criminologists. Consequently, the success of criminology often rests upon adequacy of efforts to measure the quantity, location and other features of crime (Brown et al. 1991:2). Crime, criminals and the punishment of criminals pervade both the news and entertainment media. These matters fascinate almost everyone sometimes in a perverse romanticised manner and other times with a sense of fear or, perhaps of righteous indignation. Crime appears to draw readers, listeners and viewers from all lifestyles (Brown et al. 1991:2).

Whether this interest in crime is normal and healthy or morbid and harmful is debatable. One thing seems certain: the fascination with crime cuts across class, age, gender and race boundaries. For those who own or manage the press or the electronic media, reporting and
sensationalising crime seems to be sure ways of increasing circulation, regaining audience, improving sagging popularity and securing a higher on the Nielsen ratings (Fattah 1997:13). It is important to note that this area of the province of KwaZulu-Natal is unique in the sense all people who are living in this province are regarded as subjects to His Majesty the King. Therefore, the research must also test the attitude, behaviour and perception of the respondents with regard to crime in the province. In rural areas, most of the people there still believe in their cultural customs such as rituals and stick fighting. Sometimes during their cultural activities faction fighting crops up and eventually ends up being violent crime.

In other instances when a thief is caught, he is punished severely before being handed over to the police. This is tantamount to taking the law into their own hands. At the present moment Department for Safety and Security is fully engaged in crime prevention campaigns whereby the MEC for Safety and Security in KwaZulu-Natal addresses thousands of people in the road shows with a view to encourage the people of KwaZulu-Natal to actively participate in terms of prevention crime in this Province. Policing remains centralised, unresponsive to local needs and requires the upgrading of detection services. Urgent reform is also required in the areas of presentation, sentencing and incarceration. The National crime prevention strategy, the key response of the new government to growing levels of crime, while important and reliant on Pretoria led rather than local initiatives. (Show, 2003: 156 – 175).

1.9.1 Exploration

Much of social research is conducted to explore a topic, to provide a beginning familiarity with that topic. In this case the researcher will attempt to familiarise himself with the phenomenon of crime in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. This purpose is typical when the researcher is examining a new interest or when the subject of study is itself relatively new and unstudied (Babbie (b), 1992: 90). Exploration studies are most typically done for three purposes:

- To satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding; and sociological theories. However, the modern study of crime involves more than an include the sociology of law, which analyses why some acts and not others are defined as crimes, which examines why some people are processed. These areas of focus are not always separable.
- To test the feasibility of undertaking a more careful study, and
- To develop the method to be employed in a more careful study.

This is conducted to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual. The need for such a study could arise out of the lack of basic information on a new area of interest, or in order to become acquainted with the situation to formulate the problem or develop a hypothesis. As such Neuman (De Vos et al. 2000: 109) point out, exploratory research may be the first stage in a sequence of studies. The answer to a ‘what’ question would, according to Mouton (De Vos et al. 2000: 109), constitute an exploratory study. Generally, exploratory research has a basic research goal, and researchers frequently use qualitative data.
1.9.2 Description

A major purpose of many scientific studies is to describe situation and events. The researcher observes and then describes what was observed. Because observation is careful and deliberate, however, scientific descriptions are typical or more accurate and precise than casual descriptions (Babbie, 1992:91).

Exploratory and descriptive approaches have some similarities, but also differ in many respects. Although they might blend in practice, descriptive research presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship, and focuses on “how and why” questions. The researcher therefore, begins with a well-defined subject and conducts research to describe it accurately, whereas in exploratory studies, the researcher aims to become conversant with basic facts and to create a general picture of conditions.

Descriptive research can have a basic or applied research goal and can be quantitative or qualitative in nature. In qualitative studies according to Rubin and Babbie (De Vos et al. 2000:109), description is more likely to refer to a more intensive examination of phenomena and their deeper meanings, thus leading to thicker description, and research applicable. In quantitative studies, description typically refers to the characteristics of a population and survey design is popular.

1.9.3 Explanation

The present study envisages analysing and explaining the nature and extent of crime in KwaZulu-Natal. In the final analysis, the feelings as well as the perceptions of the respondents regarding the phenomenon of crime in KwaZulu-Natal will be gauged. Alant, Lamont, Marirt and Van Eeden (1982: 199) define ontology as a philosophical view of the “world” as it is, in other words, how things relate to one another in society. In the present study of crime in KwaZulu-Natal will be related with the respondent’s perceptions and their reaction thereof.

According to Hughes (1980:16), positivistic orthodoxy refers to philosophical epistemology (i.e. the nature of phenomena procedures for determining their existence), which present the intellectual approach in social science. Epistemology also refers to the nature of things and phenomena (serious crime) and the procedure employed for establishing their existence. The police around Muden and Greytown seized the SAPS statistics that has been released on 2014/15 showed that over 80 firearms, including AK 47 automatic rifles and countless ammunition. On 10 June 2015, the police arrested three suspects and recovered 5 firearms and 49 rounds of ammunition in Msinga and Ingome area. Again, on October 2015, the police have arrested an 81-year-old suspect in the greater Msinga area for possession of 2 unlicensed firearms; a 9mm pistol and shotgun plus 83 rouns of ammunition. Recent crime statistics also show that Msinga has the highest number of illegal firearms cases, 159 cases in the 2014/15 financial year. The United Nations has placed it on record that illegal firearms are used to main and kill thousands of men, women and children worldwide. The United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs stated that insurgents, armed gang members, pirates, and terrorists, multiply their force with unlawful acquired firearms (Media briefing on 03 October 2015).
1.10 The necessity and desirability of the research

The research project will contribute to the discipline of criminology and the community of Msinga stands to benefit in terms of improved service delivery. The research will make sure that the people from the rural areas will be also being afforded with an opportunity to actively participate in the research project and in crime prevention generally. Most of time when the research of this magnitude is conducted, people from the rural areas are always marginalised and they cannot contribute to the solution of crime. There is a popular belief that people from the rural areas are not affected by crime like people from urban areas, and this is a contemporary research, will deliver new information to the problem, and will add value to the discipline of criminology.

The research will attempt to analyse the immediate goal of the present study. Firstly, the study will attempt to un-pack the types of crime that are prevalent in the area. These crimes include murder, rape, robbery, assault, and assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, car hijacking, and political violence and taxi violence. Secondly, the study will explore the crime prevention strategies to address the problem at Msinga. The underlying causes of crime that affect the community of KwaZulu-Natal will be highlighted as well as the role and significant contribution of the criminal justice system in terms of addressing this phenomenon. In line with this, the study will attempt to measure the feeling of the community of KwaZulu-Natal when it comes to issues of crime and trust towards the South African Police Services. Some of the prevention strategies that will be explored by the present study will entail beefing up security personnel in hot spots, patrolling the affected areas, drug abuse campaigns, encouraging gun free campaigns, active participation of the community in terms of crime prevention structures such as CPF.

In this regard, the researcher is heartened by the resolve shown by leaders of the business and religious communities further to strengthen such partnerships on the ground, and to give of their time and resources to strengthen the fight against crime. Government will play its part to ensure that these partnerships actually work, and that we all act together to discharge the responsibility to protect our citizens. I should mention in this regard that the Ministry of Safety and Security and the Police Service are working on proposals further to improve the functioning and effectiveness of the vitally important Community Police Forums (Sunday Tribune, Quintal, Momberg and Daniels, 4 February 2007:7).

Most communities regard crime as a serious social problem that affects the quality of life of everyone in society. Consequently, violent offences receive a great deal of publicity in the media, and this often creates the impression of an exceptionally high incidence of violent crime involving increased brutality and cruelty. This in its self creates a sense of insecurity among citizens. Violent crime in particular creates a sense of fear and helplessness, as well as the perception that such crime is out of control and that the state is unable to deal with the crime problem (Naudé & Van der Hoven, 2001:3-4). Violent offences account for some ten (10) percent of all criminal convictions in Canada and in the USA. South Africa has much high violent crime rate, as evidence by the fact that 16.5 percent of all conviction for 1993/1994 were for violent crimes (Murder, rape, aggravated assault and robbery), (Naudé & Van der Hoven 2001:06). The high rate of sexual incidents in South Africa can partly be ascribed to the fact that sexual abuse has received high priority in the South African media since 1994 with the police...
and many organizations encouraging victims to report sexual offences to the police. This probably resulted in victims being more willing to report and acknowledge sexual offences. This confirmed by the fact that 27.5 percent of sexual incidents were reported to the police by the South African victims, while in Uganda only 13.8 percent and in Zimbabwe only 12.2 percent reported sexual incidents to the police (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001:6).

The main section of this chapter include inter-alia: methodological problems, goal of the study, are actuating questions, rational of the researcher, hypothesis, theory, research process, literature review and the criteria for a good literature review. Very little research has been conducted on crimes of violence especially in this place of Msinga. There are, therefore, very few publications in this field. The criminological research has three basic purposes, viz.: to objectively discover the causes of crime, to use that knowledge to predict behavior, and to facilitate decision making in all phases of the criminal justice system.

1.11 Topicality of the issue

Crime in South Africa is currently a serious issue, affecting communities both urban and rural. Whilst there has been considerable research and studies on urban crime prevention and management, studies on rural areas are still lacking. Hence this study is both relevant and necessary. This research focuses on an important rural area in Kwazulu-Natal. The main objective of this study is to critically analyse the criminal environment in the Msinga municipality. The research through both qualitative and quantitative analysis, examines the role and responsibilities played by community safety structures in terms of fighting crime. The research also examines the relationship between communities and the police in crime prevention and management. These are significant issues given the fact that crime prevention is not only the responsibility of the police only. Hence this thesis examines these critical issues which make this study viable and relevant.

Never before the issue of crime, prevention had received much attention in our country in such a manner and the criminologists and scientists are expected to provide concrete solutions to solve this social problem. Seven years ago, this country held the most prestigious event ever, the FIFA World Cup and the level of crime in the country was gauged using the world standard barometer. The value of the research and its application will change the lives of the ordinary people and perhaps it will try to change their perception as well when it comes to the issue of crime. It is high time that the government realises that the problem of combatting crime should not be the business of the police alone but conversely the non-governmental organization, civil society, CBO’S, church, and the community at large should be involved.

1.12 Interest of the researcher

In contemporary society, government is often blamed for the scourge of crime; however, communities fail to take initiatives to combat the activity. People are not interested in reporting crime to the police, they do not want to come forward and testify in court, and they do not want joint relevant structures like Community Policing Forums in order to address the problem of crime in their communities. The present research has uncovered that the community members feared to report crime because they will become victims of crime, feel that the police will inform
the criminal who has reported the crime to the police, and others feel that the witness protection program is not effective enough simple because one the time frame has elapsed, they will go back to their communities. The victims also feel that the suspects will always get away with the crime they have committed and they feel double victimization in that sense that once they report crime, once the suspect has been released on bail, he will come back to him or her and continue victimize him. Several studies have found that over half of all crimes in a city are committed at a few criminogenic places within communities. Even within the most crime-ridden neighbourhoods, it has been found that crime clusters at a few discrete locations while other areas remain relatively crime free. The clustering of violent crime at particular suggests that there are important features or dynamics at these locations that give rise to violent situations. As such, focused crime prevention efforts should be able to modify these criminogenic conditions and reduce crime and violence (Bachman et al. 2009:258).

1.13 Availability of information

The researcher is attached to Department of Community Safety and Liaison whereby the researcher is actively involved in the oversight role of the SAPS in terms of solving crime in the province. The research came at the time when the Department of Community Safety and Liaison was finding its footing at the district level in which it was coming closer to the community by providing service delivery closer to the community, establishing community safety structures, bringing forth the relatively new concept of Building A United Front Against Crime, and the vehicle of implementing this concept in our communities was through Operation Hlasela. This new and exciting programme gives expression to our government’s programme of action and includes inter alia: rural development/ agrarian reform and food security; creating decent work and economic development; fighting crime; education; health and nation building and good governance.

The building a united front against crime programme contributes directly to the following outcomes as determined at national government level: a long and healthy life for all South Africans; all people in South Africa are and feel safe; sustainable human settlements and improved quality of household life; create a better South Africa, a better Africa and a better world; responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system; an efficient, effective and developmental oriented public service and an empowered, fair and inclusive citizenship (Building a United Front Against Crime, Programme Conceptual Framework, 21 January 2010). Enough information will be gathered through crime reports, crime statistics and of course through the distribution of questionnaires in the area of Msinga.

1.13.1 Aim of the research project

Much research has attempted to investigate the prevalence of crime, however there has been no research done in the area of Msinga. This piece of research will provide the respondent with an opportunity to air their views in the research and most probably, the respondent will be afforded with an opportunity to come up with possible strategy of solving the issue of crime. Information gleaned will be used to gain more insight into the phenomenon. This information will be shared with the justice system and the police with the hope of curbing the problem of crime in the area.
The different research aims, which one can identify, are as follows: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. In the present study, the aims of research are exploratory and descriptive. Exploratory research could be done by means of several methods like studying existing literature, interviews and questionnaires. Descriptive research includes in types of research such as in-depth description, historical descriptions, etc. The most important aim is however is to describe the thoroughly and accurate. The research will attempt to solicit the views of the community in the entire research project, and it will stimulate further research in the field of criminology. Once the research project has been completed, its findings will also be shared with the community and they will be requested to support the research project by completing the set of questionnaires and make any necessary comments and recommendations with regard to the fight against crime at Msinga.

It is hoped that the roster of criminogenic conditions analysed in this research project will provide the reader with some idea of the causes, reduction, prevention and cost of crimes of violence especially in black townships. The researcher has been attached to the Department for Safety and Security for a long time and as such crimes has been observing the problem of violent crimes in rural areas and in contemporary societies. This phenomenon has been perpetuating harassing the very fabric of our society and even the criminal justice system could not provide a permanent solution.

The study to be undertaken is regarded as necessary to our understanding and management of violent crimes. The following served as an overall aims and goals of the study: the crime prevention programs such as CPF, CCPA, and Ward Safety Committees are in existence and functional, are the community members are aware of them. Do they actually participate in them or not? Do they benefit out of those structures? What is the role-played by the police, court, and correctional services as well as government departments, in the fight against crime? The study of this phenomenon will assist the state to revive these structures, invite the community members to fully participate in these structures and expand the budget for these programs. Our communities are confronted on a daily basis by crime and they always live by fear; the aim of the research study is to highlight violent crimes, as they presently exist in this area and to recommend what can be done to regain a life of quality for those affected by violence.

1.13.2 Why a National Crime Prevention Strategy?

The high level of crime poses serious threats to our young democracy and as such, it remains everybody’s “responsibility to make sure we prevent it. Violent crime often leads to a tragic loss of life and injury and loss of possessions and livelihood due to crime is incalculable. Crime results in the deprivation of the rights and dignity of citizens, and poses a threat to peaceful resolution of differences and rightful participation of all in the democratic process (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996: 03). Crime casts fear into the hearts of South Africans from all lifestyles and prevents them from taking their rightful place in the development and growth of our country. It is against this background that the government regards the prevention of crime as the national priority (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996: 03). The researcher has accepted that some of the causes of crime are deep rooted and relate to the history and socioeconomic
realities of our society. For this reason, a comprehensive strategy must go beyond providing only effective policing. It must also provide for mobilisation and participation of civil society in assisting to address crime (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996: 03).

1.13.3. Methods used in gathering information for research

The nature of an investigation (research) determines also the methods, which will be used in the study. The information of the study can be obtained from a literature study, interviews, yearbooks, and correspondence. In this study, literature and interviews were used to obtain the information. The main aim of using this method was to try to reach as many people as possible in the research project. The researcher has gathered information through empirical information by means of conducting interview with station commanders.

1.13.4 Selection of target groups

Msinga was selected as a target group simple because many people as one of the places under the spotlight view it since it is in the heart of the Zulu nation. It is called ‘Valleys of the Kings,’ and at one stage, it was a prominent site of faction fighting. It is one of the developing areas in part of Kwazulu-Natal. As such, people from different part of the country come looking for better job opportunities and as result criminal’s sees opportunity as well. This kind of information is very important for the research because as much as the government is willing to address the problem of unemployment and poverty, criminality finds opportunity as well.

1.13.5 Demarcation of the investigation

Since the research will be conducted in both rural and urban areas, the demographic information will be highlighted in this regard. This kind of information will add value to present study because it will indicate exactly the kind of problem they experience in their vicinity. The data that will be collected can also indicate what the actual crimes that is prevalent in the area and possible solutions thereof to this problem. The causes of crime may differ from one place to another hence different approach will be adopted as a strategy to alleviate the problem or to prevent crime. Therefore its case will be treated on its own merit. The study will also attempt to highlight the role of community safety structures that have been established at Msinga such as CPF, CCPA, Ward Safety Committees and our volunteers, are effective enough to deal with crime in the area of Msinga. The role of traditional leaders in fighting crime, the role of the criminal justice system and other law enforcement agencies in dealing with crime and their partnership. The study has uncovered that the following crimes are prevalent in the area of Msinga: stock theft, housebreaking, robbery, theft, rape, murder, illegal firearms, taxi violence and sometimes-political violence.

1.14. Definition of key concepts

1.14.1 Violent crime
The concept of “violent crime” is not easy to define. It is a social contract and therefore may vary from country to another and between cultural groups. Another community (Naude and Van der Hoven 2001:4-5) may regard violence that may be acceptable in one community as illegal or culturally unacceptable. A large variety of behaviour may be described as violent, ranging from aggressive and physical violence such as murder, homicide, sanctioned killing of the enemy in a war, assault, rape and deliberate or accidental death or injury of a victim while committing another crime, to subtle forms of violence such as the violation of human rights and mental torture.

The South African police service (SAPS) differentiates between the following categories of crimes of violence: violent crimes, which includes murder, attempted murder, and robbery with aggravating circumstances; social fabric crimes, which include rape, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm and common assault; violence aimed at property, which includes arson, malicious damage to property, car hijacking, hijacking of trucks, robbery of cash in transit and bank robbery (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001: 4-5).

The research will be conducted in deep rural areas particularly in the UMzinyathi region. This the second biggest district after Zululand in terms of the population. The data will be collected by means of interviews and questionnaires. The respondents of the aforementioned area will be a representative sample. In selecting a probability sampling techniques, the researcher ensures that he or she will be able to make confident generalisation. A researcher draws a sample from a larger pool of cases or elements. There are many research techniques, which the criminological researchers use over and above the research methods; these include inter alia, prediction techniques, questionnaire and social control techniques.

1.14.2 Violence

The term violence is used for physically destructive of damaging activity. A clear example of an act of violence would to attack and kill another person (Naude & van der Hoven, 2001: 4). Violence is defined as the intentionally use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation (Krug et al. 2002:05).

1.14.3 Aggression

Aggression is a more general term than violence. A hostile behavior is intended to distress or in some way emotionally afflict others. Bandura (Naude van der Hoven 2001: 4) defines aggression as behaviour perpetrated or attempted with the intention of harming another individual physically or psychologically or psychologically. In general, aggressive behavior is merely one of the many forms of human behaviour. As possible exceptional forms of behaviour, it is more often merely a way in which an individual tries to achieve a specific objective. It is therefore becomes clear that before aggressive behavior may be regarded as crime, it has to be a forbidden act executed intentionally and punishable by law (Van Der Westhuizen, 1982:54). Although such behaviour may be regarded as anti-social, it is not necessary classifiable under criminal behavior. To be labeled as a crime of violence, it must have all the characteristics of a legal definition of crime:
• The violator must be a responsible person who manifests the necessary intent to commit the crime.
• The deed should be a violation or neglect of a commandment and should have specific consequences.
• The consequences should be injurious, and acknowledge by the community.
• The deed should be punishable by the person in authority.
• There should be a specific or potential victim.
• The law pursues a certain objective in inflicting the punishment (Van Der Westhuizen, 1982:54).

1.14.4 Rape

In terms of the legal definition, a man having international and lawful sexual intercourse with a woman without her consent commits rape. In July 1999 the South African Law Commission proposed a new formulation of the crime of rape (Naude & van der Hoven, 2001:116): ‘any person who intentionally and unlawfully commits an act of sexual intercourse with another person, or who intentionally and unlawfully causes another person to commit such as act is guilty of an offence; for the purpose of this act, an act of sexual intercourse is prima facie unlawful if it takes place in any coercive circumstances; no marriage or other relationship shall be a defense against a charge of an offence under this section; no person shall be charged with or convicted of the common-law offence of rape in respect of an act of sexual offence.’

For the purpose of the study the researcher will continue to draw on the proposed definition of the South African Law Commission and thus view rape as a form of sexual violence and abuse involving the penetration of a person’s genital anus or mouth by another person’s genitals or an object in a manner that simulates sexual intercourse (National Prosecuting Authority of South Africa, 2002:28).

1.14.5 Crime

From the outset, the reader must realise that the concept “crime” can be approached from various standpoints. “What is crime?” is a question that has been answered by practitioners of different sciences, namely: theologians, psychologists, philosophers, sociologists, criminologists, jurists and others (Van der Walt, Cronje & Smit, 1985:22). Different researchers have defined crime in the juridical sense of the word. Carver (Van der Walt et.al. 1985:22) describes crime as “……any act or omission to act, punished by society as a wrong against itself.” Crime may be defined as any act, which subjects the doer to do legal punishment. A final set of definitions: Burcher and Hunt (Van der Walt et.al. 1985:24): crime is “ conduct which common or statute law prohibits and expressly or implied subjects to punishment remissible by the state alone and which the offender cannot avoid by his own act once he has been convicted (Van der Walt et.al. 1985:24). Based on all these definitions, a crime is a contravention of the law to which a punishment is attached and imposed by the state. Crime is a violation of the criminal law; while deviant behavior is a violation of social norms specifying appropriate behaviour under a particular set of circumstances. It is important to realise that deviant behaviour is a broad category, which often include which often includes crime (Schmalleger, 1997:77).
1.14.6 Murder

Murder is the unlawful and intentional causing of the death of another human being (Snyman 1995:421).

1.14.7 Malicious injury to property

Malicious injury to property consists in unlawful and intentionally damaging property belonging to another person or damaging one’s own insured property with intention to claim the value of the property from the insurer (Snyman, 1995:401).

1.14.8 Robbery

Van Rooyen and Snyman (Mqadi, 1992:111) define robbery as the unlawful, intentional violent removal and appropriation of a movable thing belonging to another. It is theft by means of violence in which the perpetrator must have the intent to overcome the victim’s resistance by means of violence. Robbery is a serious violent offence, which is associated with murder and theft, and is committed mainly by male offenders. The offence implies some measures of force, courage of the victim if there is resistance with the aim of dispossessing him of property, usually money or a valuable possession (Glasser, 1974:77).

1.14.9 Assault

Assault is an unlawful attach by one person on another (Conklin 1989:41). Assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, all the requirements for an assault set out above apply to this crime. Whether grievous bodily harm is in fact inflicted on the victim is immaterial in determining liability (though it is usually of great importance for the purpose of sentence), (Snyman, 1995:442). Assault consists of unlawful and intentionally applying force to another person; inspiring a belief in another person, that force is immediately to be applied to him or her (National School Safety Framework, 2014).

1.14.10 Housebreaking with intent to commit a crime

Housebreaking with intent to commit a crime is committed when a person breaks open a house or similar structure, enters the premises, or inserts part of his body or an instrument by means of which he wishes to control something inside the premises (Mqadi, 1992:01). The criminal law of South Africa provides that if a charge of housebreaking with intent to commit a crime, a specified offence cannot be proved, the accused may be charged alternatively with malicious injury to property.

1.14.11 Arson
The unlawful burning of a residence, or other dwelling, arson attracts the attention of the people in the surrounding vicinity and often in the crowd is the offender who perpetuated the crime (Voight, Thornton, Bassila & Seaman, 1994:320).

1.15 Presumption of the research

Research will be focused in Umzinyathi District Municipality. The following will play role in highlighting the problem of crime.

Chapter 1 : Introduction and background
Chapter 2 : Literature Review
Chapter 3 : Research Methodology
Chapter 4 : Theoretical framework
Chapter 5 : Government Framework: Legislation, policies, and regulations
Chapter 6 : The role of criminal justice in crime prevention
Chapter 7 : Monitoring and Evaluation
Chapter 8 : Presentation, analysis and interpretation of data
Chapter 9 : Findings, conclusions and recommendations

1.16 Rationale for the study

Traditionally research, development, and building of a distinct theory of crime in rural area has been the poor cousin of mainstream criminology and largely ignored or neglected. Most often researchers, scholars and academics have merely borrowed from the research designs and criminological theory bank of the research approach to crime, victimology and policing of densely populated urban settings, the cities, without examining the different and unique circumstances, not only in terms of population densities but also in types of crime, victimization variations and policing responses as applicable to the rural environment (Minnaar 2016, Southern African Journal of Criminolgy 29 (I) 2016.

The rationale for the study is to further the scientific approach and discourse on the impact of crime in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, with particular focus on Msinga. If criminology is the science of crime, this researcher started by asking this question: Why study crime? What is so important or specific about crime that makes it necessary to have a distinct and specialized field of study devoted to it? The popular answer, found in most criminology textbooks, that crime is a
major social problem masks the enormous variations in the levels of fear of crime and concern about crime among the general population (Fattah, 1997:3). We live in a complex world. To navigate it and adjust to it successfully we need to build our knowledge about this world. The transition from the information age to the knowledge age makes additional demands on the quality of such knowledge. Research, if designed and conducted rigourously, helps us extend our existing knowledge base and ensures that our understanding of real world issues and problems is accurate. Through research we develop and accumulate the results to answer our research questions and gain a deeper understanding of research problems (Maree, 2010:256).

Creswell (Maree 2010:256) outlines four reasons why conducting research is important and how it can extend our knowledge base: we do research because we want to add new information about a topic or issue or issue by addressing the gaps in existing knowledge; sometimes we want to replicate existing knowledge by testing the old results within new participants at new research site; we do research when we need to expand our knowledge by researching new ideas or practices or when we want to inform existing practices by developing new ideas; through research we can also broaden our perspectives by introducing the voices of the social groups whose views have not been heard or have been silenced (i.e. under-represented groups such as the homeless).

1.17 Rationale of the researcher

The problem oriented policing strategies are increasingly utilized by urban jurisdictions to reduce crime in this high activity crime space. Problem oriented policing challenges officers to identify and analyse the causes of problems behind a string of criminal incidents. Once the underlying conditions that give rise to crime problems are known, police officers can then develop and implement appropriate responses (Bachman et al.2009:258). The problem of crime can only be reduced provided we have good research work in place, which will be used as a model whenever preventative strategies are being developed and subsequently implemented to resolve the issue pertaining criminality. The study will add value to criminal justice system as well as SAPS because at the present moment the police are still grappling with the correct strategies that can be utilised in terms of dealing with crimes.

The role-players such as Community Policing Forums, business leaders, church leaders, the councilors as well as the Amakhosi and Izinduna have not yet been effectively utilised strategies to curb the escalation of crime in South Africa. This phenomena does not seem to be the issue directed to the community per se, however, later it seems as if even the police as well as political leaders are affected by the crime. Just recently the province of KwaZulu-Natal had witnessed the killings of policeman and even politicians. The Premier of Kwazulu-Natal has set up the Commission of Enquiry to look into the killings of the people of Kwazulu-Natal more importantl the assassination of the politicians. All the political parties in Kwazulu-Natal have welcomed the establishment of this commission that is headed by Justice Moerane and they hoped that it would find the lasting solutions for the killings of the people in Kwazulu-Natal (Ukhozi FM).

The study of crime, criminals and criminal law is of ancient origin. Historically the primary focus has been on attempts to explain the behaviour of criminals. The causes of crime are
explored through discussions of biological theories, but the modern study of crime involves more than an attempt to understand why people violate the law (Reid, 1994:33). As South Africa enters its 10th year of democracy, a wide – ranging survey of attitudes has found that 80% of South Africans believe our democracy will survive – up from just 5% five years ago. South Africans across all racial groups appear to be depressed about rampant crime, the HIV/AIDS epidemic, racism, corruption, unemployment and inefficient public service. Crime is cited as a new source of oppression with just over 50% of those interviewed saying that they or someone close to them has been a victim of crime in the past five years. Eight out of ten respondents saw crime as a serious threat to democracy. Some black respondents even said they would trade democracy for safety (Mercury, 1 April 2007).

Crime continues to be the problem in the province of KwaZulu–Natal for blacks and whites. It soared during the 1990s, from townships like Soweto to the wealthy suburbs of Johannesburg to isolated farming communities in rural KwaZulu – Natal. In 1994, slightly more than two million crimes were recorded nationally, according to the government statistics. In 2002, that figure had grown to 2.5 million, a 25% increase. The number of violent crimes grew even faster, although recent statistics suggest that the crime rate may have stabilised.

The talk is similar in rural KwaZulu – Natal; where the rolling hillside planted with sugar cane and the casual waves of people at a passing car suggest security and peace. “The goats of my neighbour have been stolen last week by the young people – people are stealing the goats from in front of our doors! And it is getting worse every month,” said Adriana Mbambo, 54, of Emthonjaneni (Mercury, 1 April 2007).

Crime in this area ranges from public violence, child abuse, abduction, stock theft, arson, drug related crimes and illegal possession of firearms and ammunitions. It cannot therefore be underestimated that violent crimes such as murder, robbery, rape, assault, and assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm do take place in this place. Staying at Msinga sometimes becomes a problem especially when taxi violence erupts. In most cases, the taxi owners are not directly involved in this kind of killings. Rather, they hire hit men (Izinkabi) to eliminate the rivalry group. In the event of a shootout, not only are taxi drivers or rival groups harmed, but passengers as well. The availability of shebeens and dubious places also contribute to promoting fear of crime and high levels of violent crime. The abuse of alcohol may result in an increase of crimes such as assaults, rape or even robbery. Grinnell, Rothery and thomlison (De Vos, 2001: 8) state that the goals of social work research studies differ according to whether the study can be described as pure or applied. The goal of pure research studies is to develop theory and expand the social work knowledge base; the goal of applied studies is to develop solutions for problems and application in practice; the distinction between theoretical results and practical results marks the principal different between pure and applied research studies.

1.18 Summary

The role of the South African Police Service is critical, especially in our young democracy. The Constitution of our country guarantees that everybody is equal before the law. Therefore, the role of the police is to render the service throughout the South African society impartially. The advent of democracy brought the relatively new concept in our society; monitoring and evaluation.
Since the police have been given absolute powers such as the arrest and detention of suspects; these powers need to be reviewed from time to time in order to ensure that they still in line with our Constitutional imperatives. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison has been mandated to provide the service of monitoring and evaluation of the police conduct. Crime continues to victimise and terrorise the fabric of our society in our daily lives. Therefore the organs of state such as Department of Police and Department of Community Safety and Liaison should continue to protect and defend the weak.

For much of this century, citizens have placed the primary responsibility for crime prevention in the hands of the formal system of criminal justice. However, in recent years the limitations of this approach have been recognised. Criminal justice professionals, politicians and members of the community have realised that the patrol and investigative resources of the police are limited in preventing many types of crime and that the courts and prisons also have only a small impact on crime rates. Because of this there has been a greater emphasis on crime prevention programmes that involve close cooperation between those working in the criminal justice system, other professionals, business people, and community residents (Linden 2000: 02). It is indeed clear that the fight against crime correctly remains one of the top five priorities of the government, as is captured in a number of strategic government documents, including the National Development Plan and Provincial Growth and Development Strategy.

Crime in its various forms is an injury to the rights to human dignity, equality, life, security of the person, privacy, property and education. In this way, it presents a barrier to the advancement of the human rights in the Bill of Rights. At the same time, criminality goes against the very fibre of the rule of law. The founding values of our country are therefore under attack. The profound effect of crime on our democracy highlights the significance of the role of those charged with fighting crime efficiently and effectively. As one of the organs of state made responsible for guarding our democracy against criminality, it is unfortunate that the department continues to be the most underfunded of all provincial departments (Budget Vote Speech, 2016/2017).

The Community Safety Forums emanated from the requirements outlined in the National Crime prevention strategy of 1996 and the White Paper on Safety and Security. Both sought to improve, amongst others, the functioning of the criminal justice system (and in particular the police) in the local domain and to enhance crime prevention activities. Whilst the National crime prevention and White Paper created the opportunity for integrated approaches to preventing crime and increasing the efficiency of law enforcement, it fails to articulate around the methodology and structural arrangements as to exactly how the Community Safety Forum concept must be implemented.

Community Safety Forums are based on the premise that increased co-operation and interaction would improve the functioning and deliberations within the local criminal justice system and the delivery of crime prevention projects. This resulted in the Community Safety Forum concept evolving as a replicate structure for integrated problem solving at local level destined to provide means for sharing information and co-coordinating an inter-disciplinary approach to crime prevention. This approach is inclusive of collaboration and responses from all the government departments in the justice, crime prevention and security (JCPS) Cluster and other relevant organs of state (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:04).
The National Development Plan states that safety should be measured by the extent to which the most vulnerable in society feel and are safe from crime and violence and the conditions that breed it. Safety refers principally to the state of an area and is determined based on the real and perceived risk of victimization. Unsafely therefore refers to areas characterized by the significant prevalence of violence and crime. The 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security was developed in the context of the need to respond to the challenge of enhancing the transformation of the police so that they are able to function effectively within the new democracy; and enhancing social crime prevention activities to reduce the occurrence of crime.

This requires, on the one hand, focusing on issues relating to the role of the police within the constitutional order, their legitimacy and the delivery of an effective services to the public. On the other hand, this also requires a dedicated focus on preventing citizens from becoming victims of crime. The approach advocated by the White Paper recognises the importance of inter-sectorial consultation and collaboration using integrated digitised systems; effective and integrated service delivery; and community engagement and accountability; at a local level, provincial and national sphere, to achieve safe communities. The collection of reliable data to inform evidence-based approaches is thus an essential component of a crime and violence prevention approach (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:32).

The distinction between quantitative and qualitative methods involves more than just the type of data collected. Quantitative methods are most often used when the motives for research are explanation description, or evaluation. Exploration is the most common motive for using qualitative methods, although researchers also use these methods for descriptive and evaluative purposes. Whereas quantitative researchers generally accept the goal of developing an understanding that correctly reflects what is actually happening in the real world, some qualitative researchers instead emphasise the goal of developing an authentic understanding of a social process or social setting. As important as it is, we should not put more emphasis on the distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods because other social scientists often combine these methods to enrich their research (Bachman & Scutt, 2008:17). In quantitative research, we try to make better sense of the world through measurement and numbers. Sometimes the numbers represent aspects of the observable, physical world, such as the weights of concrete objects, the growth rates of invasive species, or the number of people engaging in particular activities. We may also use numbers to represent nonphysical phenomena, such as how much students learn in the classroom, what beliefs people have about controversial topics or how much influence various news are perceived to have (Leedy & Ormorod, 2015:229).
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

There has been increased recognition, including within the context of the Post-2015 Development Agenda process, that peaceful, non-violent and inclusive societies, based on respect for all human rights including the right to development, are a cornerstone for sustainable development. With urbanisation continuing at rapid pace in many parts of the world, ways to fight crime and violence in cities require member states urgent attention and resources. As shown in the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) Global Studies on Homicide (2011-2013), urban areas tend to have higher rates of homicide than ones do, and cities tend to be home to both risk factors as well as protective factors of crime. Such risk factors in urban settings cities may include high levels of income inequality, the potential for anonymity within a dense population and the existence of gangs or organised criminal groups.

Crime prevention and community safety in the context of cities and urbanisation has been one of the important issues under deliberation at the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. This is evidenced in particular by a number of resolutions in the area of crime prevention, such as Guidelines for prevention of urban crime, Strengthening prevention and Action to promote effective crime prevention. All of these standards and norms contain guidelines on urban and or crime prevention issues and promote the need to bring together those responsible for housing, social services, education, the police and the law, in order to confront the circumstances that generate or facilitate crime and address the risk factors of crime (United Nations Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice 27-29 May 2014).

Historically, Msinga started as a small town during the early seventies, but due to its development, people around the area come to this small town and sell some vegetables and a few items such as shoes, clothing and fruit to make a living. The newly established mall and the presence of popular stores such as Spar and Shoprite have increased more job opportunities for the people of Msinga. The police statistics has revealed the highest number of illegal firearms at Msinga. Consequently, the police made 899 arrests for illegal firearms; they recovered 1117 firearms and 10585 rounds of ammunition. Working with the communities and police, the government will be intensifying and redoubling its efforts to recover these illegal firearms through various campaigns aimed at detecting and recovering these tools of anarchy (Media briefing on Tuesday, 03 October 2015:2).

The government has assisted a lot by establishing a local municipality in this area and some of the communities enjoy services provided by this municipality such as water, electricity and housing. This on its own has changed the area dramatically as such many people were able to put bread and food on the table. Simultaneously however, the level of crime started to increase since the number of people flocking to the area, including criminals have occupied that space to
explore criminal activities. The status of the town changed dramatically in terms of business opportunities and investment.

The research conducted a few years ago, shows that the residents of Msinga, feel very unsafe at night and fear criminal victimisation. Most often, the criminals strike at night after drinking alcohol in nightclubs and shebeens. They were found to commit crimes in the inner city and in townships such as Msinga Top and Pomeroy.

It would be naive for this research not to mention the scourge and trauma that have left many people with hatred, anger and animosity due to the high level of violence crime in the area. A number of people have lost their lives in this area because of local and long distance taxi associations. Because of this violence taxi drivers, owner and even innocent people such as passengers lost their lives during the cross-fire incidents.

2.2 Why do criminologists conduct and write literature reviews

The existing literature does not produce the desired results in terms of crime prevention. Crime in South Africa remains thorny in the flesh of the criminal justice system. Everyday when one opens the newspaper you are always confronted by the glaring heading: crime is on the rise in South Africa. The country has witness the killings of innocent people more particularly the politicians in KwaZulu-Natal. What even pains and worries the nation is that the police are unable to track down the suspects. In his opening address to Parliament on 25 June 1999, South Africa’s president committed the government to take measure to strengthen the Community Police Forum to improve their capacity to mobilise the people against crime and improve cooperation between the people and the law enforcement agencies (Challenges of CPF in SA 1999:01).

It is easy now, as South Africa’s infant democracy begins to grow and strengthen, to forget the pain of its birth. However, to form a coherent understanding of community policing in South Africa, it is necessary to look back on that experience. For it is here, in the vicious political violence cycle, that engulfed the country shortly after the unbanning of the liberation movements in February 1990 that the shape of South Africa’s community policing was set. There was always a gap between the police and community, and there was a popular believes that the police were used as the puppet for the apartheid government and the level of mistrust and confrontation were unbelievable. It then became necessary to close this gap by formulating this kind of a structure in order to bridge this gap. The National Peace Accord provided a code of conduct for the police, which emphasised that the police have an obligation to preserve the fundamental and constitutional rights of each individual in South Africa, to secure the favour and approval of the public; to use the least possible degree of force, to be sensitive to the balance between individual freedom and collective security, and to act in a professional and honest way (Challenges of CPF in SA 1999:02).

The National Peace Accord signed in 1991 contained general provisions which included: the police shall be guided by the belief that they are accountable to society in rendering their police service and shall therefore conduct themselves so as to secure and retain the respect and approval of the public. During this early period, the SAPS responded to this by attempting to initiate their own type of community policing and established liaison forums which was run and chaired by police officers. These initial liaison forums never really got off the ground not only because the
forums themselves lacked representativity but also because the police were often reluctant to be responsive to the views and needs of the communities (Community Police Forum 2013). The development of community crime prevention association came at the time when number of community organisations was frustrated by the level of crime in their communities. These organisations were operating outside the framework of the CPF and were regarded as vigilante groupe and were prone to take the law into their own hands. The government therefore had to recognise the constitutional right of these organisations to exist as long as they operate within the confines of the law. Government also had to recognise that CPF’s are not the only structures in existence which are concerned with policing and crime prevention and that in fact Chapter 7 of the the South African Police Services Act of 1995, provides specifically that the South Police Service may liaise with the community by means other than through community police forums and boards (Community Police Forum Pocket Guide 2013:22).

The aims and objectives of the CCPA’s are: encourage social network in the fight against crime within the confines of the law. Promote broad public participation in government initiatives to fight crime, including taking part in CPF actities. Foster partnerships with SAPS, civil society organisation and business to fight crime and lead the campaign police killings and police brutality (Community Police Forum Pocket Book 2013:22).

The Civilian Secretariat for Police Service Act, requires provinces to develop community safety partnerships and safety structures, thereby giving legislative life to the Building a United Front Against Crime programme, initiated by the Kwazulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison in 2009. In order to formalise the implementation of this programme, the Executive Council of KZN has approved the holistic framework for community engagement through which the government can reach partners, develop partnerships, develop safety models and drive safety initiatives (Community Liaison Framework 2011).

The study is bringing the new philosophy of policing our contemporary society. The study is adding value in the disciple of criminology in that the entire community should be mobilse and galvanise to fight against crime. The study envisages that the government should provide financial support to these community safety structures because they act as buffer zone between the police and the community, infact they are regarded as local police in our communities. The sustainability and viability of these structures solely depend upon the government to provide financial support, capacitate and continuously provide necessary and relevant training for them.

The literature review is not optional for any project and must be done. Empirical research is always informed by previously published research. The literature review ultimately enriches a project and is a vital in the process, because it:

- Saves you from saying that you are doing something new when you are not;
- Shows you are familiar with the topic;
- Helps you to formulate and refine a research question;
- Enables you to connect analysis to the discipline of criminology.

### 2.2.1 Identifying gaps and developing research questions

At the outset of the process, any criminologist will ask himself or herself a fundamental question: what are the aims or objectives of my research? You must ask yourself this too. When answering this question, you will be identifying a gap in the existing literature. A gap in this context is an
issue that has not been examined before, or a question that remains unanswered before or needs revisiting in order that it can be updated.

This will entail some reflection on theoretical assumptions such as the relative importance attached to particular views about what causes people to steal, that is, because they are greedy or because they are mentally ill and not in full control of their thought and actions. Although setting a question seems like a straightforward task, you need to spend considerable time in getting this absolutely right or your research will never take off and even if it does, it will, in all likelihood, never be satisfactorily finished (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:20). Epistemology is concerned with how we know what we know. In cultivating knowledge about social world, researchers normally hold a set of assumptions. You could argue that the social world can be understood objectively in a similar way to the natural science. The former position, which seeks to identify the social world with the natural sciences, is known as positivism (Baille, 2003). Ontological issues are closely related to those of epistemology. Both epistemology and ontology are concerned with questions about the cultivation of knowledge and understanding, but ontology is specifically concerned with question of how we can observe and understand the social world. At its heart is a debate over whether the social world is something that exists externally to its actors, or whether it is something that is constructed by them (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:41-42).

What counts as literature in criminological research?
Books are an obvious source of information about a subject area. You should be reading academic books rather than text intended for the general reader, although for those of you interested in populist or media representations of crime about gangsters or serial killers, references to publications of this kind are unavoidable and exceptions can be made, texbooks often an introductory and hopefully balanced overview of the area it covers but little more than that. Other, more advanced books, such as monographs that are narrowly focused and edited collections based on particular themes or conference proceedings, are often useful resources for a research project. There are many kinds of journal and this type of publication tends to be more specialised and contain more up-to-date, innovative research that stands as an original contribution to knowledge.

There are general criminological journals that cover the breadth and depth of the discipline and others that concentrate on key areas of the criminal justice process like the police and correctional or prison and probation services. Grey literature is work that either is in progress or unpublished such as conference proceedings (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:18).

2.2.2 Msinga Region

The Msinga Local Municipality is an administrative area in the Umzinyathi District of Kwazulu-Natal. The name Msinga means a current in the sea where air movement causes ripples on top of water surface and ends up influencing the nearby climate conditions through its breeze. Msinga is largely located in deep gorges of the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, isolated from the immediate surroundings municipal area. The population dynamics result in a growing rural area and a declined urban area in Msinga, contrary to most other areas in the country. This can be attributed to the fact that the urban areas of Msinga are small and are unable to provide the normal range of goods and services provided in urban areas (The Local Government Handbook: a complete guide to municipality in South Africa 2014).
It is a large rural area, with 70% of its area being traditional authority land held in trust by the Ingonyama Trust. The remaining 30% of land is commercial farm land, all of which is located north of Pomeroy. Due to the rural nature of the municipality, approximately 99% of the population lives in traditional areas. The strong traditional culture, particularly prevalent in Msinga, is a valuable asset that must be preserved and valued. These traditional areas provide a support mechanism for the communities, as well as living custodians of the culture (The Local Government Handbook: a complete guide to municipalities in South Africa). The prevalent crimes that are predominant in Msinga include inter alia: illegal firearms, murder, armed robbery, taxi violence, housebreaking and stock theft. Loose networks of stock thieves are believed to be more common place than well-organised syndicates.

There is a strong perception that some police officials, local criminals and community members are involved in these criminal networks. Local community members are believed to collude with stock thieves by arranging pick-up points. In Vryheid for example, stock is taken to the Kwabanakile area from where it is transported further. Similarly, stock stolen in Nqutu is believed to be taken to the Mahlaba area from where it is transported elsewhere (Stock Theft in KZN 2007:13).

A few years ago, eight members of Isikebhe were gunned down while were following their livestock at Mahlaba. This incident did not only draw the attention of local media but the international media as well. Through the great co-operation between the police and the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, a few suspects were apprehended and right now they are still behind bars and are attending court cases.

Respondents also indicated that stock thieves are well armed and people are scared to confront them for fear of their lives. One survey conducted among victims of crime found that 15% of victims of stock theft in the study witnessed crime. Most (53%) said that threats were made by the perpetrators and nearly half (47%) reported the use of violence. Typically in such cases of armed robbery of stock, stock thieves approach a homestead, make the residents aware that they are armed and steal livestock while residents are too fearful to react (Stock Theft in KZN 2007:13). The nature of the topography is such that Msinga is largely located in deep gorges of the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers. This effectively isolates the area from the immediate surrounding municipal area. Msinga is accessible via the R33, linking it with Dundee, Ladysmith, Pietermaritzburg, Kranskop, and Weenen. The strong traditional culture prevalent particularly in Msinga is a valuable asset that must preserve and valued. These traditional areas provide support mechanism for the communities, as well as living custodians of culture.

Economy: Msinga is a poverty stricken area with few economic resources and little economic activity. The little economic activity within Msinga is greatly affected economic pull factors external to the municipality. These factors are predominantly towards Greytown, Dundee and to some extent Ladysmith. Social services and private households generate 29% of the income for the area. This indicates a heavy reliance on government grants to provide to provide infrastructure to the area. Msinga functions as a dormitory area the economic activities oriented towards Greytown, Dundee and Kranskop. Trade and commerce, mainly in Pomeroy, Msinga and Keates Drift, accounts for 11% of economic activity, and appears to relatively stable (The Local Government Handbook, South Africa 2014). The population of Msinga amount to
161 894 with a total of 32 592 households, and this is according to Stats SA in 2007. Most of the young people are unemployed in this area and it is unfortunate that some of them are deeply involved in drugs, substance abuse and criminal activities. It is against this background that these young people should be channelled to these community safety structures such as CPF, CSF, CCPA, Ward Safety Committees and Street Committees so that they will actively participate in crime prevention programs.

Population demographics: according to Statistics SA the population of Msinga in 2007 was 161 894 with a total of 32 592 households. The population is largely concentrated around the town of Keates Drift, Pomeroy and Tugela Ferry. Regarding gender, 57.7 percent of the population are female and there is a percentage male absenteeism in the employment group 20-64 years of age (The Local Government Handbook, South Africa 2014). The population dynamics result in a growing rural area and declining urban area in Msinga, contray to most other areas in the country. This can be attributed to the fact that the the urban areas of Msinga area very small and are unable to provide the normal range of goods and services provided in urban areas. Most of the community survives through social grants from the governmet. Around the town of Msinga, indigenous women earn living by selling fruit and vegetable, others of couse do hand work such as beed work, hand crafts and selling livestock such as cattle, sheep and goats. However, this alone cannot accommodate the needs of Msinga community, hence some because of economics constraints, find themselves on the wrong side of the law, by opening up illegal shebeens, selling dagga and substance abuse, especially young people.

The historical background of Msinga is known for its notorious faction fights which resulted to massive loss of lives in the past years. The area is also known for its high rate of proliferation of illegal firearms and most of the serious crimes such as murder, rape, armed robberies are committed by means of illegal firearms. With interventions from various stakeholders, including government and amakhosi, the spiral of violence has gone down and the entire area has over the years been experiencing peace and stability. This also culminated into cleansing rituals between various clans and communities in the area, which, traditionally marks and end to the era of war and conflict. The stability has over years been visible even though there were serious safetybconcerned during Easter and Festive season.

There would also be pockets of incidents which will manifest itself through killings and tension at hostels, mainly in Gauteng hostels by people who have migrated from Msinga to look for job opportunities. These in the main have been individual families or those who are involved in the taxi industry. Despite the prevailing peace and stability over years, those people who were involved in the faction fight conflict have changed their syndicates to focus on stock theft, taxi violence and other forms of criminality which presently threatens the live and safety of the community.

During the month of December 2017, January and February 2018; 24 murder cases have been reported at Msinga Police Station. The modus operandi for these killings is different from the previous wars in Msinga where it was clear which groupings were involved in the conflict. The recent killings traces their origins to the feud between two Madondo brothers in September 2016, who were both involved in the taxi industry, operating mainly in Msinga and Gauteng. This feud resulted to the family splitting in the middle and each faction mobilizing support. The extent however of this conflict now is such that even families who are not involved in the taxi industry are now implicated in the on-going killings, which are mainly happening in Msinga and Gauteng.
The police have managed to arrest six suspects and again still following seven suspects who would assist them in cracking down this sophisticated conflict. During this period, the police have managed to recover twenty two illegal firearms in the area of Msinga (Communities in Dialogue held on 02 March 2018 at Msinga).

The community safety structures at Msinga are operational and functioning. The operations that are being conducted mainly are intelligence driven and subsequently yielding positive results. These structures are working with the law enforcement agencies in order to keep and maintain peace in the area. Though these structures are effective and operational, however, they are challenges that are prevalent and manifest themselves and they negatively impact in terms of service delivery. Among other challenges involve inter alia: some of the police members view these community safety structures as the threat in their careers and thought they encroach their territory and feel threatens. Some of these structures feel that they do not get the support they deserve from the police and as such believe that the best way to resolve crime in their areas is to take the law into their own hands.

Others believe as law unto them and subsequently become vigilante groups. Hence it becomes fundamental that these structures should work under guidance and supervision of the police. It cannot be underestimated that the members of these community structures are not at all safe. They are viewed as the puppets of the police and regarded as izimpimpi. Some are killed and become victims due to their involvement in the fight against crime. Sometimes the live span of these structures is not guaranteed and sustainable due to the fact that the government has not been investing on them and they do not receive any financial support from the state. The young people should be encourage and motivated to actively participate in these community safety structures. Some of the members of these structures are not well educated and sometimes pose a challenge.

Therefore it becomes imperative for the government to continuesly capacitates and trains them so that they will work within the parameters of the law. Their programs should be designed in such a way that they are aligned with the programmes of the police. These programs should be able to address the community needs. The government should encourage members of these structures to form cooperative so that they will be able to render basic service to the state as well. Once they gained relevant and sufficient experience, they should join private security companies and encourage opening their security companies in order to create job opportunities. The role and responsibility of these structures in our communities cannot be overlooked. The National Development Plan recognizes that crime and violence is not just a security issue, but has deep social and economic roots consequences. Although there are links between South Africa’s high poverty rate and crime levels, crime is linked to more than poverty. Many people especially the poor ones do not quickly resort to crime. It is recognized syndicate that launders money, deal in drugs and smuggle guns. These mob-like criminals are not necessarily from poor communities (National Development Plan, Vision 2030, 2011:349).

The government has acknowledged that poverty has a strong contribution in the causation of crime. Most crime occurs in underdeveloped and poor areas where unemployment is high, economically depressed surrounding and poorly serviced neighbourhood without any recreational and other social facilities. The government call on communities to stand up and unite in a public display of disapproval as this will encourage ordinary members of society to join the campaign of zero tolerance to crime in our communities. Let each victim or survivor of crime find support and comfort in our community and each perpetrator must rejection and pain
of their conduct. Families and communities must expose criminals and cooperate with police in supplying information that can assist the police investigation (BUFAC 2010:10).

2.2.3 Tourism opportunities at Msinga

Although the area has its own challenges, there are historic sites, beautiful scenery and interesting topography in some parts of Msinga, suitable for cultural and eco-tourism. Furthermore, the local communities are generally creative in arts, crafts and music - Umaskandla. Attention must be given to the formation of local partnerships for the development and marketing of local tourism potential. To this end, the Msinga Community Tourism Organisation has been established. The municipality has opportunities to develop existing ventures such as existing game farms to the northwest of the municipality linking with the Rocke’s drift and Isandlwana battlefield attractions, and the Tugela Biosphere to the southwest of the municipality. Rock’s Drift is situated 46 km southeast of Dundee, and is the site of one of the most famous battles of the Anglo-Zulu war. At Rockes Drift the men were rewarded for their bravery in the army with no less than 11 Victoria Crosses, the most Victoria Crosses ever to be won in a single battle. Today the centre is also a remarkable for its Zulu handicrafts (The Local Government Handbook; a complete guide to municipalities in South Africa, 2014).

2.2.4 Research ethics and ethical awareness

Research ethics is all about the moral principles that underscore research activity and they are there to guide researchers to ensure that no one comes to any physical or emotional harm, including the researcher and the people or organisation they are researching. Although academics disciplines, for example criminology, sociology, psychology and law, have for many years published ethical guidelines to govern social scientific research in general, and criminological research in particular, they have come to the fore in 2001 and now have greater impact on research (Crowther-Dowey and Fussey, 2013). Research ethics exist to protect the researcher and research. This partly comes out of a concern with the health and safety and welfare of parties, yet it is also an effect of living in an increasingly litigious society where people are not shy about suing, and attempting to prosecute organisations for causing harm. To undertake empirical work, research committee will require the researcher to reflect on ethical consideration and complete some paperwork.

Evaluation research can make a difference in people’s lives while it is in progress, as well as after the results are reported. Educational and vocational training opportunities in prison, the availability of legal counsel, and the treatment for substance abuse are all potentially important benefits, and an evaluation research project can change both their type and their availability (Bachman, Ronet & Schutt 2009:265). Under the research in question, the assessment of the existing community safety structures at Msinga, their functionality, the effectiveness in terms of fighting crimes and proper support from government departments and good cooperations amongst government departments, are the example of ethics in evaluation.
2.2.5 A criminal record

If the research involves vulnerable individuals, including children or young people less than 18 years of age, adult with learning difficulties and some disabled persons, it is likely that your criminal record will have to be checked out (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013). It is imperative that people with credible records in our community should be given a space to participate in the research project. Eventually these respondents will share objective information.

2.2.6 Sensitive issues

Criminological research, by default, explores issues of a sensitive nature and raises politically sensitive questions. It is worth speaking to lecturer or your supervisor about the range of sensitive issues that your research question may provoke and try to make contingency plans that will avoid those (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013).

2.2.7 Confidentiality

There are limits to confidentiality, particularly in qualitative studies where large chunks of data are presented in a study. For example, you might interview a prison officer and quote what they say, which means that what they say is not confidential because it appears in a report that is read by several people. However, the source of the material will remain anonymous because the identity of the participant will not be known. Because criminal justice research is potentially contentious, participants need to have their identities are protected (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:30-31).

2.2.8 Consent

When the research refers to consent, it means that a research participant needs to be aware of and agree to their involvement in a research study. The researcher should ask the participants to sign a consent form that states that their involvement in the study is voluntary and they have been fully informed about its aimed and objectives. Participants must also be informed that they can exercise the right to have their data withdrawn from a project without any repercussions (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:31). The participants at Msinga were requested to sign a consent form as an indication that their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw at any given time if they feel like withdrawing.

2.2.9 Harm

Harm may be direct-being physically hurt or indirectly, such as a damaged reputation, and it can impact on the researcher and the participants. For instance, when administering an interview, the researcher should not invite participants to his or her own home or agree to interview them at their own home, instead, meet in a public space at the university or, if the participant is a practitioner, at their work place (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey 2013).
2.2.10 Disclosure of harm or crime

If a participant makes a declaration of current criminal activity or something that is planned in the immediate future, you need to report this. When planning the research, the researcher should also assess whether there is any risk that participants may disclose evidence they have committed or are about to commit a criminal offence (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey 2013:32).

2.3 A typology of crime

A theory that explains why number of crime is committed may not explain theft very well. A treatment method that works well for a rapist may be ineffective for gangster. Because crimes and criminals differ from each other in important ways, criminologists have developed typologies, or set of categories of crimes and criminals. An important aspect of the preparation for research consists in the use of literature. Every serious piece of research includes a review of relevant literature. Although the researcher’s idea is personal, largely the idea stems from the collective body of prior work, referred to as literature. Reference to literature helps to uncover the following:

- ideas about variables that have proven important in a given field of study;
- information about the work that has already been done and which can be meaningfully extended or applied;
- the status of work in a field in terms of conclusions and applications; meaning of and relationships between variables that the researcher has chosen and wishes to hypothesise about (Ndabandaba 1987:5).

Crime includes all antisocial acts, which are harmful to the individual and to the society in which the individual finds himself. Some of these acts are punishable by law, while others, although morally disapproved of are not necessarily transgressions of the law. The distinguishing features of a crime can be described as follows: it is a conduct which is legally forbidden, which may, in principle be prosecuted only by the state and which always results in the imposition of punishment (Ndabandaba, 1987:1).

Originally, crimes were not defined. They involved no official action because they were private matters. Individuals who were wronged would take action against the wrong doer or the wrong doer’s family. The system broke down when the family structure changed, societies became more complex and people become mobile. Later, the concept of crime developed but was confined to acts committed against the king. Private revenge remained the only punishment for acts against private citizens. Eventually the king representing the state realized that the peace of the community was at stake and decided that the act of wronging a person should be reported to him. Anyone who injured one of the king’s subjects was considered to have injured the king, and the phrase “keeping the peace with the king” developed (Reid 1991:4). Gradually the payment of compensation to the victim by the offender replaced family fending and other forms of private revenge.

The impact of crime can be noted in lifestyles that are made because of the threat of crime. People restrict their normal activities and alter behaviour in response to the fear of crime. Many
countries in the Western world have been grappling with the reality of high levels of crime for a number of decades. The crime problem is closely related to the general stability and economic position of a country (Reid 1991:4).

2.4 A typology distinguishes among four major kinds of crime, South African Police Central Statistics:

2.4.1 Conventional crimes

Crime and criminals capture the attention of nearly everyone. The public’s fascination with these matters has not escaped the news and entertainment media (Brown, Esbensen and Geis, 2013:03). The crimes of violence include among other things: murder, forcible rape, robbery and assault. Conventional crimes are usually divided into two groups, crimes of violence (also called crimes against the person) and property crimes. Even this simple division creates a few problems. For instance, robbery is the theft of property from a person by force or threat of force, making it both a property crime and a crime of violence (Conklin, 1989:36).

A second problem with the crime of violence property crime distinction is that once crime event may involve multiple offences. Thus, after committing a rape the offender may steal the victim’s car to get away. Law enforcement officials would count only the more serious offence, forcible rape, in recording the crime (Conklin 1989:36). For the purposes of our typology, we would say that two different offences occurred, a forcible rape and a motor vehicle theft.

2.4.2 Crimes of violence

The four major types of violent crimes are murder, rape, robbery and assault. Gangsters in organised crime may commit contract killing, and a few corporate executives have been convicted of murder for allowing their employees to work in lethal conditions. However, even when gangsters and executives commit violence offences, reference can only be made on the following crimes: murder, rape, robbery, assault, burglary, larceny, motor vehicle theft, arson, vandalism (Ndabandaba 1987:1).

The crime of violence may be defined as the unlawful, intentional infringement of the rights of others by the forcible conduct of the aggressor or aggressors. In our common law, a distinction was made between public and private violence, but it is doubtful whether this distinction would still be maintained today. In practice the state will not charge a person with private violence, but will, as a rule, charge him with a more specific crime e.g. assault, malicious injury to property, etc. committed in the course of the violence in question (Ndabandaba, 1987:1).

2.4.3 Types of violent crime

These forms of violence are the following:-: attacks on people in their own residence; attacks on farms and small holdings (involving murder, rape and robbery); hijackings; crimes against international tourists; armed bank robberies; cash in transit robberies; taxi-related violence, and the murder of police officials.
2.4.4 Attacks on people in their own residents

Serious and violent against people in and around their own homes and smallholdings and farms are still increasing. The violent nature of these attacks confirms that criminals of this type have lost respect for life and human dignity. During the month of January and May 1996, 490 (31, 2%) cases were reported in Gauteng; 436 attacks (27; 7%) in KZN and 232 cases (14%) in Eastern Cape. The primary motive for attacks on people in and around their homes was to steal their belongings or property such as motor vehicles, radios, televisions, jewellery and other valuable property. In most instances, the offenders use firearms to commit these kinds of crime.

Figure 1 Experience of crime: Personal Questions 9.1 to 9.5 of the Questionnaire from the present research, explored participants’ individual experiences of crime and questions 10.1 to 10.5 explored participants’ families’ experiences of crime.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Crime</th>
<th>n (experienced crime)</th>
<th>% of sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stock Theft</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted Murder</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car Hijacking</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 8 EXPERIENCES OF CRIME: PERSONAL

Notably in Figure 1, assault and theft are by far the most prevalent crimes experienced. Given the number of female participants in the sample, the reported rape figures are relatively low. The abovementioned table reflects that 24% of the respondents confirm that the issue of this crime is still regarded as a major problem in Msinga. This has been supported by the previous crime report from the SAPS the period of 2005/2006, where cases of murder were recorded, were 387, rape was 775, attempted murder was 318 and assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, was 3126. According to crime statistics released recently on Msinga, it showed that contact crimes such as murder, attempted murder and robbery with aggravating circumstances, were high. The total number of crimes reported is 20 320 (The Mercury 4 July, 2007: 2).

2.4.5 Attacks on farms and small holdings

In South Africa the term ‘rural’ is usually used to denote communities in country districts outside of urban or peri-urban communities, as defined by a country lifestyle based on agricultural activities (Naude & Van der Hoven 2001:49). In other words farming communities centred on small towns and villages serving those rural areas that are usually sparsely populated and away from urban areas. However, what has become obvious over the past years is that rural farming communities in South Africa are not dissimilar to urban areas in terms of experiencing various forms of crime and violence. For instance if one looks closely at so-called ‘farm attacks’ that most often resultant in robbery, assault, physical injuries and sometimes death (murder); all
categories of crime that occur in the larger cities and are largely replicated in rural areas, (Minnaar 2016:1).

Where rural crime becomes more rurally distinctive is when you look at the nature of those crimes that occur in the farming areas where those rural crimes represent a distinct direct impact on farming livelihoods and rural economics. For example, other primary rural crime, namely livestock theft, has a tremendous impact not only on commercial farmers’ livelihoods (and by association that of farmworkers and their families) but also on the thousands of subsistence farmers in tribal authority communal lands where the traditional cattle wealth economy is still of great importance. Hence the theft of cattle from such subsistence families has a greater impact on their daily survival in comparison to urban city dwellers that might or might not be involved in the formal and informal urban economy (Acta Criminolgica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1), Marelize Schoeman 2016:01).

The high incidence of violent crime especially on farms and smallholdings is a matter of great concern. Serious and violent crime against people in and around their own homes and on smallholdings, and farms are still increasing. Attacks on farms and smallholdings are acts aimed against the person of residents on farms and smallholdings, whether with the intent to murder, rape, rob or inflict bodily harm. The number of recorded incidents of attacks on farms and smallholdings increased substantially between January and December 1999, some 361 people were murdered in 2030 separate attacks on farms and smallholdings. During 1999 most attacks on farms and smallholdings occurred in Gauteng (224 attacks), following by Mpumalanga (169) and KZN (141 attacks), (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001: 49).

Five men have pleaded not guilty to murdering a man who interrupted them during the course of a robbery at the father’s house on the Umvoti Heights Farm, Rietvlei. Andreas Simelane (36), Thembinkosi Dlomo (27), SPhamandla Sibiya (36), Lungiseni Mchunu (32) and Thandukwazi Nyembe (45) anre alleged to have killed David Boyd Varty in March 2005, with the exeption of Sibiya who lived in Nkandla, all the other accused lived near Pietermaritzburg. It is alleged that the accused who face four charges to which they have pleaded not guilty to at the Pietermaritzburg High Court, travelled to the farm belonging to David Boyd Vart’s father Henry Barry Vart, on March 23 at around midnight. They forced themselves into the room of security guard Blatmu Gasa and handcuffed him. They then forced Gasa to show them the room of domestic worker Busisiwe Lembethe. There they kept guard ove Gasa and Lembethe until the next morning. At about 7.30 am on March 24, the attackers forced Lembethe to accompany them to Henry Varts house. The men held Varty at gunpoint and demanded money. He handed over the keys to the safes and the attackers removed cash and guns. Varty was taken to a toilet, where he was detained with Gasa and Lembethe.

While the attackers were still in the house, David Varty entered and confronted them. A shoot-out and a scuffle occurred and Nyembe was shot in the shoulder. David Varty and the attackers left the house and the scuffle continued in the garden. Eventually, David was overpowered and shot in the head. He had been shot in the shoulder and upper arm too. The attackers stole eight fire-arms, jackets, watches, binoculars, sunglasses and R200 cash. They put all the stolen items into the vehicles they went to the farm in and in David Vary’s isuzu Bakkie and sped away. The bakkie was later found abandoned (The Witness, 15 March 2007:3). King Goodwill Zwelithini
said the on-going killings of white farmers should not only be condemned by the white community, but should be the concern of the entire nation.

Delivering his speech at the official opening of the Kwazulu-Natal legislature in Pietermaritzburg on 01 March 2017; the King also challenged the rest of South Africa to speak out against racism instead making it only the problem of those who were being discriminated against. He said social cohesion and reconciliation, the country’s two nation-building projects, had failed because people saw themselves as belonging to a group instead of being part of South Africa. If a farmer has been killed, there should be widespread condemnation of such acts, not only from white farmers, but from all us because the victim is a South African irrespective of where he comes from (The Mercury, Bongani Hans, and Wednesday, March 1, 2017).

2.4.6 Hijackings

Hijacking of motor vehicles in South Africa is a daily occurrence and remains one of our country’s most violent crimes. Hijackers appears to attach a low value to people lives and do not hesitate to kill their victims, even if they do cooperate and do not offer any resistance hijackers of vehicles seems to be a crime peculiar to South Africa. Crime syndicates are often involved in the hijackings of the cars and running of “tjop shops” where the cars are dismantled and rebuilt. A total of 13 all hijackings were reporting were reported to the SAPS during 1997, which represent an increase of 1.2% over the previous year. This trend continued between January and March 1998 when a total of 7073 vehicles were reported hijacked. Gauteng remains the province with highest incident of hijacking, followed by Kwa-Zulu Natal.

Firearms were used in the majority of the reported hijackings for instance, in Kwa-Zulu Natal, 87 percent of hijackings were committed with firearms. Vehicle hijackings are characterised by unnecessary and senseless brutally and armed by attack on motorists and truck drives. One of the robbers responsible for bringing construction to a standstill for two weeks on the road between Ulundi and Empangeni, as workers feared their lives and belongings, has been jailed for 30 years. Habitual hijacker Mzamiseni Mazibuko was involved in nine aggravated robberies that he committed as part of a gang who terrorised in the Umfolozi area. He pleaded guilty on Friday at the Pietermaritzburg High Court to the crimes committed June last year to January. Three of the vehicles he stole belonged to sub-contractors who were working on the road and another vehicle belonged to a security guard on the site (The Natal Witness, 5 March 2007:3).

2.4.7 Factors contributing to the increase in car-hijackings

The crime information management centre of the SAPS (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001: 58) identified ten (10) factors that may play a role in the incidence of hijackings:

- As the security measures aimed at preventing car theft are increased, offenders are inclined to hijack vehicles and / or to abduct the driver in order to get their hands on the vehicle.
- Organised crime networks exploit the shortcomings of the criminal justice system and in adequate penalties for serious offences, which do not serve as a deterrent for potential offenders.
• Inadequate control at the South Africans borders makes it easier for offenders to take stolen vehicles out of the country.
• Virtually every province in South Africa and its neighbouring countries has a different type of registration system, which makes the task of motor vehicle theft syndicates much easier and limits the likelihood of arrest to a minimum.
• Large numbers of unlicensed, illegal firearms and ammunition are available and are often used during vehicle hijackings.
• Certain state and provincial official in South Africa and its neighbouring countries are corrupt.
• Forged or stolen official documents (Identity Documents, VISAS, Passport, and vehicle registration certificates) are freely available on the black market.
• Some owners of the vehicle commit insurance fraud by paying criminals to arrange for their vehicles to be “stolen” in order to claim compensation from the insurance companies.
• Syndicates commit this type of offence in an organised manner and employ sophisticated methods to distribute vehicles for “sale” across Africa and even European countries.
• Truck drivers may co-operate with the hijackers because of unsatisfactory working conditions and wages poor selection of employees and the fact that truck drivers are often not involved in the decision-making proven of the particular organisation.

The number of vehicle hijackings in KwaZulu-Natal has increased by 11% over the past two years, in contrast with lower national trends. Toyota Hi Ace, Toyota Hilux and Nissan 1400 Vehicles are among popular targets, according to a tracking and recovery company’s statistics. Drivers are most likely to fall victims to car thefts or hijackings in the Durban South and Durban North areas (The Mercury, February 23, 2015: 1).

These were among the facts to emerge from a Mercury investigation into the number of hijackings and circumstances surrounding them. On a national basis, hijacking has fallen 15% over the past two years, with large decline in Gauteng, according to South African Police Service statistics quoted by institute for Security Studies researcher Anthony Altbeker. Altbeker said the increase reflected the state of the local market for stolen vehicles and did not necessarily mean there had been a displacement of hijackers from Gauteng to KwZulu-Natal (Naude & Van der Hoven 2001).

Netstar KZN operations database statistics showed the company had attended to more than 120 hijackings incidents in South Durban in 2005, more than any other area of KZN. Durban North of the Umgeni River was the second-highest, with more than 80 incidents motorists were next most likely to be hit in Umfolozi, the midlands, Uzimkhulu, Ulundi and Thukela. Database statistics from another company, Tracker, showed that in 2005; hijacking in KZN was at its lowest in March, with eight monthly incidents. It rises again towards the end of the year, with 28 incidents in December 2005. This statistic is relevant to the study to indicate the background about the status of crime ten years ago to correct the future.

The statistics also revealed that most hijackings and theft responded to (averaging five a day) occurred on Wednesday, Saturday, Mondays and Fridays. The research pointed out that hijackers were driven by the demands and nature of the stolen – car market. Hijackings were sometimes carried out not with the intention to steal the car, but rather for contents such as wallets.
cellphones and car batteries (Naude & Van der Hoven 2001:59). There are specific markets, for example 4x4’s which are hijacked or stolen and sold outside our borders. There is also a market for older cars because people need second-hand car parts. Carel Nolte, spokesman for Hollard insurance, said it had found different frequencies in hijacking of certain models. Investigations had suggested this was for spare parts. Cash-in-transit heist criminals have been known to use BMW’s and Mercedes Benzes in their heists. The criminals used these type of cars because of their speed, strength and safety features like airbags, which cut down on injury when ramming into money vans (The Mercury, February 23, 2006:1).

2.4.8. Crimes against international tourists

Serious crime committed against foreign visitors to the country emphasises the urgency in addressing attacks on international tourists. This is not only in the interest of the tourism industry, but also in the interest of the South African economy as a whole. South Africa has tremendous tourism potential which can contribute to the economic development of the country. As a result of the negative image that the high crime rate creates among prospective visitors, this potential cannot be realised. The prominence of attacks on tourists in the media also sabotages attempts to promote the tourism industry (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001: 59).

Tourists are conspicuous targets for criminals and can easily be identified because they carry cameras and road maps and wear expensive jewellery. Tourists who visit South Africa are soft targets for attackers who know that the charges against them are often withdrawn once the tourists have left the country. A popular modus operandi is for offenders to approach tourists at an airport and offender to transport them to their destination. The tourists then are being robbed at a later stage. In Ulundi next to uMfolozi Game Reserve, tourists from overseas were robbed and their valuable assets were taken, subsequently their assailants murdered them and dumped their bodies next to the main road leadings to Empangeni (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001:59).

2.4.9 Armed bank robberies

According to the South African police service (SAPS), a total of 584 bank robberies were reported nationally between January 1997 and March 1998. The provinces of Gauteng and Kwa-ZuluNatal accounted for 58% of all South African bank robberies. These two provinces are singled out as they are the main financial provinces, more densely populated than other provinces in the country and high unemployment and crime rates.

Handguns are the favoured firearm used by criminals in the robbery of banks or financial institutions because they are easily concealed and light –weight. AK-47 assault rifles were used in 6.5% of reported robberies while hand-grenades were used 61% of reported robberies. In 3.1 % of robberies shot-guns were used. In 7.8% of reported robberies, the victim was handed a note of instruction without any armed hold-up occurring (Naude & Van der Hoven, 2001: 62).

2.4.10 Cash-in-transit robberies

The theft of in-transit is a form of armed robbery owing to its violent nature and the prominent media attention it receives, has been declared a priority crime by the SAPS. In most of cash-in-
transit robberies assault rifles (eg. AK-47, R4 and R5) are used. This differs fundamentally to crimes in which the perpetrators commit hijacking and bank robberies, and tend to use hand-held firearms.

One of the distinguishing factors at these type of robberies is that the level of concealment is low, making the nature of cash-in-transits robberies in South Africa quite brazen. Interestingly the display of force is overt, there is little attempt by the culprits to minimise the public witnessing of these incidents, and rifles as opposed to hand-guns are used. Of these, automatic rifles are the preferred weapons as they have a relatively greater fire power (Naudé and Van der Hoven, 2001:6). The SAPS gives special attention and channel all their resources into the investigation and prevention of crime. Crime analyst at Excellerate (Enforce) Security Services, Caitlin Naylon, said there had been a noted increase in violent crimes over the last few months, especially business robberies and cash-in-transit heists (The Mercury, Tuesday, 15 August 2017:01).

### 2.4.11 Taxi-related violence

A total of 224 people were killed and 390 injured during incident of taxi related violence during 1995 compared with 199 deaths and 346 injured reported during 1994. During the first six months of 1996 a total of 396 taxi-related incident of violence were reported. The most popular areas that are predominately by taxi violence include but not limited to Msinga and Pomeroy (Naude and Van der Hoven 2001:68).

The provinces most affected by taxi-violence are the Eastern Cape (38.6%), the western Cape (26.8%), Gauteng (13.1%) and KwaZulu-Natal (8.8%). A total of 136 people (1.2%) were killed and 281 (2.1%) attempted murders were injured in taxi-related violence during the period in question. There has been a marked increase in the number of incidents related to taxi violence in the Eastern Cape when compared with the 90 incidents reported during the first six months of 1995. In these provinces, taxi-related violence is characterised by competition between a number of organisations, as well as the role of hit squads operating in the industry. Many of the hitmen (izinkabi) is also involved in other criminal activities, such as car hijacking, intimidation, etc. A further obstacle in the way of finding solutions to violence in these provinces is the involvement in gangs in the taxi industry operating protection rackets by offering protection to operators during times of violence (Naude & Van der Hoven 2001:68).

Taxi related violence in KwaZulu-Natal, on the other hand, is characterised by sporadic clashes between taxi operators, whereas bus services and tension with the executive structures of taxi organisation also play a role, especially in and around Durban and Pietermaritzburg. In general taxi-related violence stems fierce competition, market situation, in adequate regulations and infrastructure within the industry.

Taxi-related violence is moreover increasingly motivated by sheer greed and is being linked to other criminal activities such as car hijackings. The situation is being aggravated by the easy availability and use of firearms as well the hit squad activities in the industry. The elimination of interests in court cases, the alleged involvement of members of the SAPS in taxi violence and increasing calls for action against violence which may lead to vigilant actions by communities.
are some of the trends in taxi conflict that are causing concern (Naude & Van der Hoven 2001: 68).

The province of KwaZulu-Natal has witnessed the shedding of blood through taxi violence especially in places such as Pomeroy, Durban, Ladysmith and Maphumulo. The victims of taxi violence are not only the taxi owners nor taxi drivers, but even passengers find themselves on this snare. Two years down the line the MEC for Transport in KwaZulu-Natal has established a Taxi Commission which yielded a fruitful result. It discovered that hitmen (izinkabili) had been hired to eliminate other taxi owners or taxi drivers to eliminate competition. The commission also reveals that even senior police officers are involved in this taxi violence.

2.4.12 Murder of police officials

Police work is a high-risk career, particularly in South Africa with its high level of violent crime. Police officials are most at risk at violent attacks and even murder. This is reflected in the high number of murders of members of the SAPS. A total of 1411 police officials were killed between 1994 and 1999. On average, 235 police officials were killed per year over the past six years, of these, most were killed of duty, an average of about 151 (64%) were killed while off duty and 84 (36%) were killed in the line of duty (Van der Hoven 2001).

There has been a decrease of 23% in the number of police officials killed between 1994 and 1995. The number of police killed while off duty has been slowly decreasing; whereas the number police official killed performing their duties remained constant over the six year period. This figure is very high in comparison with countries such as New Zealand and Australia. Policing in South Africa is also far more dangerous than in the United States of America. The rate of police officers killed while off duty in South Africa for 1999 was 76.6 per 100 000 in consumption 21 per 100 000 in the United States of America. This means that Southern police officials are three and a-half times more likely to be killed than their USA counterparts (Naude and Van der Hoven, 2001: 68).

The province of KwaZulu-Natal is presently leading in terms of killing police officials, followed by Gauteng and lastly Eastern Cape. The MEC for safety and security in KZN was enraged in 2004 by the number of police officials that were killed on line of duty. He suggested that the police should respond with fire if they are confronted by criminals armed with firearms. The rate of police killings has reached an alarming situation in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. A province summit on police killings was held in Durban on 13 May 2003 to develop a provincial submission to the National summit that was held in Pretoria on 20 May 2003. This document attempts to consolidate the inputs made by the various stakeholders in the summit’s three commissions, which were convened under the following themes: Proactive measures, Reactive measures and Partnerships (Van der Hoven 2001:68). One could hardly pick up a newspaper and not find a report of an armed robbery or murder in it. A Pietermaritzburg High Court Judge said on Friday in sentencing a security guard to life plus 15 years for the September 2005 murder and robbery of a Pinetown businessman. Judge Kate Pillay told Oswil Muzikayise Hlongwa, 31 of KwaNdengezi near Marianhill, that society was outraged and revolted by those types of crimes. There was no respect for human life, irrespective of the age or race of the victim, said Pillay (Mercury, Monday 12 March 2007:4).
The One Million Voices signature campaign was initiated by the Honourable Premier of KZN Mr TW Mchunu with a view to curb the police killings in Kwazulu-Natal. The One Million Voices against crime and police killings campaigns is a holistic program that addresses the serious topic of crime in our communities. The campaign is one of transformation—a shift in mindset and call to action for communities to actively get involved in fight against crime in their communities. The campaign has the following key objectives:

- Obtain community and civil society support on crime free KZN and stop killing of police through various means such as participating in community police forum, reporting a crime.

- Creating partnerships and driving integration of community safety initiatives with civil society and government structures and programmes.

- Aggressive calls to action media communication of need to building a united front against crime.

- Create awareness of positive stories and continuous communicating to impact behavioural change.

- The communication of the current crime stats will also create responsibility and knowing consequences thereof and subsequently will sensitize the community to actively participate crime prevention programs.

2.5 Political violence

Now that they no longer need to spend their time battling apartheid, South African’s churches have found another common enemy the nation’s spiralling crime rate. Crime has overtaken political violence as the major preoccupation of politicians and general public. According to official figures, a murder is committed every three minutes in South Africa (Century, volume 113, 1996). In 1994 more than 800 000 violent crime were committed, including 18 000 murders, 67 000 armed robberies, 150 000 assaults and 30 000 rapes an official rapist stated recently.

For the past decades, South African has been in the grip of the most violent period of its history. The country has become renowned for its high level of violence. While many white South Africans have been isolated from the violence, members of the black communities are exposed to violence on daily basis. AK 47 and necklacing with car tyres become the weapons death in virtually every black community. During the 1990’s political parties came into conflict with one another. In the early 1990’s violence took the form of: massacres (when five or more people are killed in an attack by one specific group); political assassinations aimed in particular at the moderate community leaders; large scale intimidation and forced mobilisation; acts of intimidation by township youths operating within the self-defence units (Sdu’s); attacks on train commuters; minibus taxi wars; appearance of warlords in informal squatter camps.

The research (Segal 2005:190) that was conducted prior to the first democratic elections in 1994, highlighted that the increased incidence of violence during the period from 1990 to the elections
in April 1994. Since the beginning of 1990 there has been an increase in selective assassinations especially in KwaZulu-Natal on members of opposition’s parties such as the ANC and IFP (Naude and van der Hoven, 2001:75). Structural elements such as the migrant labour system, single accommodation, and poor living conditions contribute to and actively promote violence. To investigate political violence associated with hostels, (Segal, 2005:190) conducted interviews at a factory where hostel dwellers worked. Four main areas were explored: community relations, hostel dweller association, rural connections, and, age and determination.

It was found that hostels are generally isolated, hostel dwellers view themselves as members of the township community, the predominant form of association involves burial societies, and migrants have a decidedly rural orientation. Age division within the hostel community played a noticeable role in the violence. Hostel dwellers believed they could not trust others and indicate violence has shattered their lives (Segal 2005: 190). According to official statistics, more than 86 000 incidents of civil unrest took place in the period from September 1984 to September 1992. During this period more than 20 000 people were injured and 10 206 people died in incidents of civil unrest. From January to September 1992 more than 6800 incidents were injured and 1746 were killed.

The high level of uncertainty brought about by the political situation resulted in increased militarisation of communities. For the purpose of self-protection, residents armed themselves and organised themselves into paramilitary structures. Factors that have contributed to communities aiming themselves have been the illegal trade in firearms and loss of confidence in the ability or the security forces of the state to protect residents against the flood of violence. This mistrust in the state’s formal institutions of law and order also extends to the criminal justice system (Van der Hoven et al, 2001: 75).

There is no other province which has witnessed a political tumult like the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. The old political rivals in this area are IFP and ANC. Even before the first democratic elections took place these two political rivals were in loggerheads. Thousands and thousands of houses were burnt down in places such as Kwa-Mashu, Estcourt, Embali in Pietermaritzburg and people fled from their respective homesteads because of political instability in these areas. In those days it was known as black on black violence where the IFP and the ANC were at loggerheads, and numbers of people lost their lives in the process. It took the leadership of both parties to create a platform and engaged at the political level to resolve this impasse.

By the end of February 1988 the official death toll in Pietermaritzburg township in the confrontation between IFP, on the one hand, and UDF and COSATU on the other hand, stood at about 400. However, unofficial sources estimate the figure at more than the official one. The violence in PMB has been the most publicised in the country during the second half of 1987, and yet the least understood in terms of the political dynamics behind it (Gwala, 1989).

2.6 Domestic violence

Until the 1960’s most people considered domestic violence, and in particular, women abuse as a rare phenomenon. Today, many people have come to realise that the indeed domestic violence and especially woman abuse, is globally a very serious social phenomenon. Abuse has a devastating effect on its victims physically, emotionally, spiritually and financially. The crime
against women and children has reached an alarming rate in South Africa recently, there were
many instances where women have been beaten or killed by their boyfriends or partners; 62
women have been killed in Gauteng province, while the province of KwaZulu-Natal has
registered almost 13 women. This is a very bad situation because school children are included
among those recently killed in South Africa. Karabo Moekoea has been killed by her boyfriend
in Gauteng (SABC, Ukhozi Radio Station, and May 2017).

2.6.1 Forms of women abuse

Brinegar (Van der Hoven et al 2001: 103) identifies five main types or forms of domestic
violence, namely physical abuse, sexual abuse, psychological or emotional abuse, destruction of
property or pets and socio-cultural abuse.

2.6.2 Physical abuse

It covers incidents such as physical attack which may take the form of physical and sexual
violations, such as punching, choking, stabbing, throwing boiled water or acid and setting fire.
The consequences may range from bruising to killing. Abuse also conveys the message to a
woman that she is inferior. This year (2006) the Supreme Court in Pietermaritsburg sentenced a
woman for life imprisonment after throwing boiling water to him whilst he was sleeping. The
husband died instantly, (Natal Witness, 06 January 2006).

2.6.3 Sexual maltreatment (Abuse)

Sexual abuse or maltreatment can occur in the form of sexual harassment or rape. Sexual
violence is a deed of hatred and aggression and it leaves the wife with a sense of having lost
control over her life situation, a feeling of betrayal and loss of trust in her husband. It influences
a woman is basic ability to trust a man with whom she may enter into a subsequent relationship.
A wife who has been raped by her husband has to continue living with the rapist. This amounts
to rapist victimisation (Van der Hoven et al., 2004:104).

2.6.4 Psychological or Emotional abuse

The boundaries of psychological and emotional abuse are often hard to define. Emotional goes
far deeper than common swearing, argument, blame, threats or manipulation. It includes
humiliation, denial of basic needs and means, woman’s self-esteem. Physical abuse may evolve
into psychological abuse. The wounds inflicted by psychological or emotional abuse are far
deeper than physical wounds and it takes much longer to recover from emotional abuse. Denial
of affection or love and tenderness may cause severe tension in a marriage or relationship.
Psychological or emotional abuse is behaviour sufficiently threatening to the women for her to
believe that her work, her interaction with the family or society or the enjoyment of good
physical or mental health, have been or might be threatened (Van der Hoven et al, 2001: 104).
2.6.5 Sociocultural abuse

Abused women are subjected to secondary victimisation by members of their own households, the community at large and the judicial process, as well as professionals who provide assistance, in that the victim is often blamed for the situation. It is common course that the woman must have done something wrong and deserves to be treated in that manner (Van der Hoven et al., 2001: 104).

Judge’s strong warning to rapists.

Rapists should be aware that they would be severely punished, Pietermaritzburg High court Judge Kevin Swain said yesterday as handed down a 20 years jail sentence to a man convicted of rape and murder. In his guilty plea, Mxolisi Sifade, 26, said that on New Year’s Day he had gone to a tavern at Harding, where he had met Mavis, Sdudla Mbiko, 53. They had been drinking been together when Mbiko asked Sifade if he had money to buy more alcohol. ‘I replied that I did and she said… that if I bought her the drink she would give me something. It was clear to me…. That there she had in mind that we would engage in a consensual sexual act.’

On the way to Sifede’s home, Mbiko to tell him she did not want to have sex. This upset and angered me and I forced her to have sex with me. She told me she was going to tell her sons that I had raped her. I put my hands around (Mbiko’s) neck, strangling her, to frighten her so that she would not tell her sons. Sifede then realised that Mbiko was dead and fled, hiding in the bush until January 3 Sifede was sentenced 15 years for rape and 20 years for murder to run concurrently (The Mercury, January 12, 2005: 5)

2.7 The nature and extent of crime

Crime and safety remain foremost in the minds of all citizens of our beautiful province. Their circumstances place them either at risk of perpetrating crime, or of becoming victims. When speaking about crime, it is therefore not useful to review all crime phenomena through the same lens. In respect of violent crimes, the research can distinctly identify the causal drivers and contributors as our society’s problematic relationship with alcohol, drugs and firearms. These continue to drive the high levels of murder, attempted murder and serious assault witnessed daily in our province (Budget Vote Speech, 2017/2018:08).

Official crime statistics provide the authority with information about crimes reported to the police and suspects, arrested by the police. Victimisation data gathered in surveys show that much crime is not reported to the police, and this data could be used to construct a more complete picture. Crime is also measured by self-reports, which are questionnaires filled out by people who admit to their own violations of the law (Conklin, 1989:55).

The research will also investigating the physical harm caused by crimes of violence. All crimes of violence are usually reported to the police and formally referred to criminal courts for adjudication or prosecution. Sometimes official statistics does not reflect the true position due to the problem posed by under reporting of crime, which results in a large of unreported and undiscovered crimes known as the dark figure of crime. The reason for the none or under reporting of crime is varied, but may include the following:
• The victim may be unaware that he has been victimised e.g. a victim whose cash was stolen by pickpocket may assume that be misplaced his wallet.

• The victim may think that the police cannot do anything to solve the crime.

• The victim may believe that the crime is not very serious or that the police will be annoyed or bothered with a trivial complaint.

• The crimes are not reported because the victim is afraid of what the police may discover if they investigate. Related to this is the fear that the offender will take reprisals against the victim if the police.

• The last reason is especially common if the offender and victim are known to each other (Ndabandaba 1987:62).

The effort to keep criminal victimisation a private matter is particularly common in crimes of assault, since many such offences occur between intimates, including husbands and wives. Furthermore, crimes that lack victims or more accurately crimes that lack complainants e.g. prostitution, gambling and homosexuality may not be reported to the police because the participants believe that no one has been wronged. The crime victim may also be too confused or dazed by the experience to report the crime.

Self-report studies confirm the conclusion of victimisation surveys that the dark or hidden amount of crime is large the so-called phenomenon of the “dark figures” of criminal violence should be seen not just as an accounting questions of the known and unknown acts of violence, nor exclusively in terms of the degree of perceived social deviance with different reference group, but also in terms of the norms of those operating the criminal justice system i.e. violent conduct not legally labelled by authority (Nabandaba,1987:64).

2.8 The dark figure of crime

Victimisation surveys have uncovered a substantial dark figure, the number of crimes that actually occur but are not recorded by the police. The dark figure exists for many reasons, especially the failure of victims to victims to report crime and the failure of the police to record all reported crimes. The dark figure has several important consequences. One is to keep cases, usually the least serious ones, out of the criminal justice system. The victims are not as likely to report less serious crimes, and so those offences that come to the attention of the police are likely to be completed crimes, to involve larger losses of property and greater personal injury, and to be committed with firearms (Conklin, 1989:78).

Offenders who commit crimes that are not reported to the police cannot be brought to trial reducing the deterrent effect of punishment. Police and court resources are sometimes allocated on the basis of how much crime is recorded in a community, and thus differences in crime reporting from one area to another could to a misallocation of resources. Victim compensation programs and insurance programs may also be affected by the failure to report and record crime, for benefits and premiums may be based on a distorted picture of how crime occurs (Conklin, 1987:78).
2.9 Dynamics of violence

Benini, Minnaar and Pretorius conducted a study on political crimes and offences in KwaZulu Natal. This study uses data on KwaZulu Natal for the period from 1993 through 1995. The geographical limitation is justified by a substantive concern they wished to understand the dynamics of the conflict that prompted warnings of uncontrollable violence in the context of the local elections in this province. The limitation in time is motivated by a focus on what happened after the national elections and by the assumptions that the 1993 data validly capture the important variable “age of conflict.” The Human Science Research Council (HSRC) database includes 10,585 records of violent incidents (involving 8,069 deaths) that took place in the entire of South Africa during the three years period. KwaZulu – Natal accounts for 4,087 of the incidents (4,324 deaths).

The record contains information on the data and allocation of the incident, a free text field with descriptive accounts, sources of reports, the number of persons killed, injured and arrested, the affiliation or social group of the attackers and victims, and types of weapons used and the type of conflict. For statistical analysis, only the data on dates, location, sources, and number of persons killed are reasonably complete. In the fewer than twenty instances in which the date was known only by the month or several days, the researchers coded for the earliest possible date, generally the first of the mouth (Benini et al, 1998:46).

2.10 Nature of violence

Nature of violence presented in news reports after reviewing the titles and contents of the 220 news articles, it was established that the majority of articles focused on political (N = 108) and criminal (N = 93) violence. Ten of the news reports highlighted domestic violence including child abuse and rape, and six (6) reported on gang related violence. The remaining three (3) reports covered white-collar criminal violence located predominantly within acts such as fraud and corporate theft (Seedate 1999:29).

Bold headlines echo the constructed message that violence is a criminal cum – political phenomenon that threatens the physical security of individual citizens and political stability and economic growth of the country. In the 1987 /90 period, which was marked by a state of emergency and an array of other repressive measures, headlines such as “killings in Natal continue” “I was tortured by police,” “20 years old dies in Hand Grenade attach,” “Tortured in Detention,” “Faction fight cased Blaze,” “Offices, Homes are bombed,” and young children Burning Houses, Throwing stones” place the accent on political violence. These news reports convey images of police brutality interorganisation.

2.11 Left realism

In terms of Clinard’s definitions, crime and delinquency are the most obvious form of deviance (Haralambos and Holson, 1995:385). Crime refers to those activities that break the law of the land and are subject to official punishment. Delinquency refers to acts that are criminal, or are considered anti-social, which are committed by young people. Crime is present in all types of society; indeed the crime rate is higher in the more advanced, industrialised countries. According
to Durkheim, (Haralambos & Holborn 1995), crime is an integral part of all healthy societies. It is inevitable because not every member of society can be equally committed to the collective sentiments (the shared values and moral beliefs of society).

Crime is not only inevitable, it can also be functional. Durkheim argued that it only becomes dysfunctional (harmful to society) when its rate is unusually high or low (Haralambos & Holborn 1995: 389). Since the early 1980’s a number of sociologists have developed a perspective on crime and deviance usually referred to as a left realism. Amongst the most prominent supporters of this perspective are Jack Young, John Lea, Roger Matthews and Richard Kinsey. Left realism originated in Britain but has begun to influence criminologists in other parts of the world including Canada and Australia. Left realist criminologists are critical of perspectives which see longer sentences and more prisons as the solution to crime, but they also oppose the views of what they term leaf realism.

One of the basic tenets of left realism is that white collar crimes are a serious problem and they need to be explained and tackled. Left realist counter a number of arguments which criminologists have advanced to suggest that such crime are not serious (Haralambos and Holborn 1995:426). Jack Young argues that there has been a real and significant increase in street crime since the Second World War. According to this view criminology has undergone an aetiological crisis (crisis of explanation) resulting from the rapid increase in officially recorded street crimes in most democratic industrial societies. Some sociologists have advanced the view that the chances of being the victim of street crime are minimal. Lea and Young point out that while the average chances of being a victim are small, particular groups might face high risk. It is not the rich who are the usual targets of muggers or thieves, but the poor, the deprived, ethnic minorities or inner-city residents (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995:426).

Crime is widely perceived as a serious problem in urban areas and this perception has important consequences. Left realists have carried out a considerable number of victimisation studies examining such issues as the extent of crime and attitudes towards crime. In the Province of KwaZulu-Natal there is high incidence of women abuse and children abuse more especially in the rural areas.

Lea and Young attack the idea that offenders can sometimes be seen as promoting justice. They deny that muggers can be seen as stealing from the rich and redistributing income to the poor. Left realists do not deny the importance of white-collar and corporate crime. Recent victimisation studies carried out by left realists have started including questions on such crimes and they accept that they are commonplace and serious. Left realists also acknowledge the importance of other crimes which tend to be emphasised by left-wing and feminist criminologists and perhaps neglected by the police (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995:427).

2.12 Unrecorded crime

It is quite obvious that not all crimes which take place are recorded by the police. There is much evidence of substantial ‘dark figure’ of unrecorded crimes. Before a crime is recorded, at least three things must happen:

- It must come to someone’s attention that a crime has taken place;
It must be reported to the relevant agency;
That agency must be willing to accept that the law has been broken;
Not all crimes, though, have a specific victim who is aware that they have been wronged (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995: 399).

2.13 Production of crime statistics

Crime statistics are vital aspect of the study of crime. Theories of crime causation are grounded in crime statistics and popular and professional perceptions of the extent and distributions of crime are shaped by this information. Public response to crime and criminals probably is largely based upon views regarding the seriousness and magnitude of the crime problem.

During the 1970’s and early 1980’s, the United States was said to be experiencing a crime wave. According to media reports, derived from the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) statistics, crime was growing at an alarming rate (Brown, Esbensen & Geis, 1991:127). This is the very same situation here in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal that led to this kind of a research. Most of the crimes are reported to the police, others to the social workers and sometimes to Izinduna or Amakhosi (Traditional Leaders) in the case of rural areas. The national statistics reveal alarming increases in 12 categories of crime. Up from last year (Brown et al. 1991:127), are murder, by 2.4%, aggravating robbery (4.6%), bank robbery (118%), business robberies (25%), cash-in-transit heists (22%), truck hijackings(8%), car hijackings(6%), commercial crimes(13%),driving under influence of liquor(14%), drug related crimes (8%), and illegal possession of firearms (6%). In 2006, national murder figures had dropped by 2%. Yet, Nqakula said the 2006/2007 figures showed crime levels had continued to drop. The Minister said that they are deeply concerned, though, that crime continues to be rife and that the crime rate continues to be high. The statistics demonstrated that poor social conditions impacted on crime. Poor communities experienced more violent crime than the wealthier ones. Murder, attempted murder, rape, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, common assault, indecent assault, aggravated robbery and other robbery accounted for one-third of all recorded crimes (The Mercury 4 July 2007: 1).

2.14 The victims of violent crime

The first victimisation surveys were conducted in the mid-1960’s and 1993, and sponsored by the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (Brown et al, 1991:153; Haralambos & Holborn, 1995:399). The best known of the three major early studies is the survey conducted by the National Opinions Research Centre. This work had sample F 10.000 households (33.000 individuals) in the continental United States. A representative of the household would be requested to answer questions on behalf of his or her family members, unless there had been a criminal victimisation. In that case, the interviewer would question the victim about the incident. These early surveys found that victimisation for Index crimes was substantially greater than the crime rate reported by the Uniform Crime Reports. The victimisation rate for rape, for example, was eight times greater than the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) figure, while the surveys indicated about five times as many assaults. The study confirmed that the criminal statistics are highly unreliable.
Information was collected on vandalism, burglary, theft in dwellings, theft from motor vehicles, theft of motor vehicles, bicycle theft, wounding, robbery and theft from other persons and sexual offences (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995:399). Once an offence had been reported the police did not always accept that an offence had taken place. For example, about a third of all crimes against property reported were not recorded by the police. The survey found that the official figures on the different types of crime taking place were very misleading. Although victimisation studies provide an indication of trends in crime and an estimate of how many crimes remains unrecorded, the data from them are not entirely reliable. Joch Young points out three main problems with victimization studies:

- In most victimization studies a substantial immunity usually 20-25 per cent, refuse to cooperate with researchers. Those who do not take part are likely to be untypical of the population as a whole and their absence from the data is likely to distort the figures.

- Victims may be more likely to conceal certain types of crime because of embarrassment or a misplaced sense of guilt. Crimes such as domestic violence and sexual crimes might be particularly prone to under-recording.

- Changing public perceptions might affect the willingness of the public to regard acts as criminal; for example; people may have become less tolerant to crimes of violence or acts of vandalism and they would therefore be more likely to report less serious acts to researchers (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995:401).

Given these problems, the trends revealed in victimisation studies should be treated with caution, although they are probably more reliable than those shown in official statistics. It is clear then that there are many offences, which are not known to the police, or are not recorded by them. It is possible; at least in theory, that the people caught, trialed and convicted are a representative cross-section of all those who committed offences. On the other hand, it could be that some sections of society are much more likely to be convicted than others, irrespective of whether they have committed more crimes.

A number of sociologists have devised an alternative to official statistics for discovering the characteristics of criminals. Self-reporting studies use questionnaires or interviews to collect information about individuals, and to ask them to admit to the number of crimes they have committed. The data collected can then be compared with official conviction rates to discover which offenders are the most likely to be convicted.

Of course it is possible that those replying to questionnaires or interviews might not be truthful about the amount of crime they commit. Various tests have been carried out to check on results of these studies. These tests range from the use of lie detectors, to questioning adolescents’ friends about crimes they claim to have taken part in (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995:401).

Crime has a multiple impact on serving victims, their families and friends, and the community. According to Glanz (Van der Hoven et al. 2001:23) the impact of victimisation may be measured in terms of the negative consequences of violent crime on the victims themselves, their families, friends and community, in respect of aspects such as quality of life, financial loss suffered as a
result of the offence (loss or damage to property, medical costs), injuries sustained and the emotional and psychological consequences of victimisation. Violent crime gives rise to feelings of fear and insecurity in the community and hampers socio economic development and productivity. Even a synoptic of the major works that have marked the development of victimology reveals that a number of important concepts are currently available such as victim precipitation. Moreover, a variety of typologies have been constructed as well as some important models and theories (e.g. lifestyle and opportunity theories of criminal victimization) (Schurink et al, 1992:37).

The concepts, typologies models and theories help the researcher to get a grip with victimisation. A second observation regarding the available literature is that victimology has roots in various discipline, for example criminology, law, social psychology, and the sociology of deviance, social work and medicine. Thirdly, from the brief overview of the victim logical literature the research finds that this young field study does not have a comprehensive theory. Fourthly, the review of the relevant; literature reveals that there is no single, unanimous way of looking at victim phenomena in the contemporary field of victimology (Schurink et al, 1992:37). There are a number of factors that can be attributed to the cause of crime. Among others things, are unemployment, street kids, scarce or limited resources, environmental factors, such as neighborhood and slums; political violence, taxi violence, police killings, unlawful forearms, gangsters in townships, matric dropouts, the impact of HIV/AIDS especially in the youth, drugs and harmful substances.

The importance of these factors in determining safety outcomes is reflected in the National Development Plan, which states that safety and security are directly related to socio-economic development and equality, and requires an environment conducive to employment creation, improved educational and health outcomes and strengthen social cohesion. A simple causal relationship between crime, violence and poverty is often drawn. This is misleading as the relationship between crime, violence, poverty, deprivation and inequality, is more complex. There is little evidence to show that poverty causes crime, while there is substantial evidence to show how those living in poverty are particularly vulnerable to and affected by, crime and violence. This is evident in the risk factors of crime. Those living in communities characterised by a lack of services, with little or poor access to water and sanitation, to childcare and health facilities, educational and employment opportunities, or who are marginalised or excluded, are at the same time most vulnerable to falling victim to crimes of violence, most at risk for engaging in crime, and are usually those least able to access the criminal justice or victim support services. The poorest of the poor are therefore those who are most at risk, most vulnerable to, and most affected by, high levels of crime and violence.

2.15 Dealing with substance abuse

Successful prevention, reduction and treatment of substance abuse not only relieve poverty, but also reduce other social ills, such as crime and violence, that are part and parcel of it. Prevention and reduction of substance abuse also contribute a great deal to the prevention and reduction of interpersonal violence, domestic violence, child abuse and neglect, and unnecessary deaths on the roads caused by driving under influence of alcohol or drugs. Furthermore, alcohol and drugs not only act as drivers of crime and violence, but also make victims and more vulnerable to such
acts and cause people, especially young people, to lose their inhibitions, and engage in all kinds
of risky behavior, including unprotected sex. Alcohol consumption is deeply entrenched in many
cultures within South African society.

On an annual per capita consumption is estimated at between 10,3 and 12,4 litres including home-
brewed alcohol, equating expenditure of R41 billion in 2006, which translates to R16 out of
every R100 being spent on alcohol. This country has one of the highest levels of alcohol
consumption per drinker anywhere in the world (Parry et al. 2008). A strong link between alcohol
abuse, crime and violence has been established. In South Africa, 58% of homicide deaths and
57% of road-traffic accidents are associated with alcohol. This results in alcohol being the third
largest contributor to death and disability after unsafe sex/sexually transmitted infections and
interpersonal violence. There are several indications that the abuse of alcohol along with other
drugs plays an important role in driving the high levels of violence in South Africa. Demographic and health survey data suggest that alcohol use significantly increased the risk of
being exposed to violence (Doolan, 2006).

2.16 HIV&AIDS, and health programmes

There is an increase in the number of parents dying because of the HIV&AIDS pandemic.
Consequently, a high number of children are left behind, which in most cases, results in child-
headed households. Given the fact that the Department of Social Development’s mission is to
enable the poor, the vulnerable and excluded within South African society to secure a better life
for themselves, normal surrogate care has been made accessible, in partnership with orphans
themselves and all those who are committed to building a caring society. Orphans are often
provided with basic requirements such as shelter, food, medical care, support, love and
education. In addition, a number of communities based care initiatives are being established to
address the plight of children affected by HIV/AIDS.

Furthermore, guidelines have been developed, in order to develop and implement approaches
that effectively capacitate and mobilise children, families and communities to combat many of
the effects of the HIV/AIDS pandemic to ensure children who are affected by the pandemic will
have access to integrated services that address their basic needs, to strive to address the
immediate and urgent needs of affected children; to develop a long term strategy that will
prepare South Africa for future challenges; to establish an inter-sectoral strategy that will
necessitate a proactive response to the clientele, and link with and build on the existing
government strategies, in order to bring about effective and common understanding responses to
HIV/AIDS. South Africa is the country with the largest number of HIV/AIDS infected people in
the world. The country’s Department of Health estimates that 18, 3% of adults were living with
HIV in 2006. It was indicated that 55% of all South Africans infected with HIV reside in KZN
and Gauteng provinces. Rising death rates lowered life expectancy at birth from 59 years in 1990
to 43,8 years in 2009 for male and from 67 years in 1990 to 42,7 years in 2009 for females. HIV
prevalence among pregnant women is the populous in KZN province (37%) and the lowest is
Western Cape with 13%, Northern Cape (16%) and Limpompo (18%) provinces. In the five
other provinces (Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, Mpumalanga and North West) at least 26%
of women attending antenatal clinics in 2006 tested HIV positive (Embassy of the Kingdom of
the Netherlands, Pretoria, South Africa, 2011).
The large numbers of people in this province are unemployed. This has resulted in increasing the rate of crime both in urban and rural areas. Before the 1994 elections people were promised jobs, free education, free water and electricity and free medication by the government. However, these promises have never been met and released, and consequently that has caused a major frustration from the community. Young females/girls are forced to practice prostitution in order earn a living, young males/boys find themselves engaging in drugs such as alcohol, mandrax and marijuana, etc. such behaviour can expose young people to rape, juvenile delinquency and even HIV/AIDS. Just recently the entire country has been engulfed by fees must fall public protests which was largely accompanied by violence and huge destruction of state property. This action has caused the state millions and millions of rands. The destructions and damages have far greater than the demands of our students and it will take the government decades to repair such damage.

Aids activists plan to sue pharmaceutical giants. The largest nonprofit specialty medical service provider for people with HIV/Aids in the United States, Aids Health care Foundation, intends suing pharmaceutical giant Glaxo Smith Kline over the firm’s alleged profiteering policies in respect of antiretroviral drugs. Michael Weinstein, President of the foundation, said Aids advocates would ask GSK to establish a R1 billion fund for free Aids drug programmes in South Africa. A spokeswoman for GSK said it was regrettable that the foundation was choosing this route when the government billions available for treatment of aids patients (The Mercury, Friday November 14, 2003:2). The rape victims are likely to be infected with HIV/AIDS, there anti-retroviral drugs are strongly recommended for them.

The impact of victimisation may be measured by reference to objective and subjective criteria. Objective measures concentrate on material losses: valuables taken, days lost from work, the cost of physical injuries. Subjective measures concentrate more on the psychological impact on crime. It suggests that a theoretical framework for understanding the psychological impact of victimisation needs to take into account the extent to which a victimising experience calls into question three (3) fundamental assumptions with which human beings operate on a day – to – day basis that the human beings are invulnerable, that the world is a meaningful place and that on the whole the human beings view themselves in a positive light.

A victimising experience renders victims vulnerable, may be something that we struggle to make sense of and may result in our questioning our own contribution to that event. Considerable evidence has been gathered focusing on the impact of rape and the impact of serious physical assaults. Here attention will be focused on referring to the routine way in which people respond to victimisation, along to the objective and subjective criteria as they have been employed by the criminal victimisation survey (Walklate, 1989:42). Although HIV/Aids cannot be attributed as the cause of violent crime it is indirectly linked in the sense that a person suffering from it can rape under age child due to popular belief in some cultures, that he can be cured from this deadly disease.
2.17 Tackling crime and addressing the underlying causes of crime

The government of South Africa is committed to building better and safer communities and to the improvement of the quality of life for all citizens. It is for this reason that the government has identified the fight against crime and corruption as one of its key priorities. This is based on recognition that crime and violence pose serious threats to our democracy, freedom and the social fabric of our society. Acknowledging the serious challenges that crime and violence pose to development and attainment of better life for all, our government recognises that reducing the current levels and preventing future crime is a responsibility of all levels of government and social partners in our society. The White Paper for Safety and Security 1998, defines social crime prevention as all efforts to reduce the social and environmental factors conducive to particular types of crime. The social crime prevention strategy is based on that causes are complex and therefore successful prevention will require a range of appropriate approaches that are tailor made to address specific conditions (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011:07).

The strategy is based on the principle that crime prevention is everybody’s responsibility. To be successful, initiatives directed at social crime prevention must be coordinated and linked with measures to address broader social challenges at community level. Priority issues in the strategy include community participation, implementing developmental preventive diversion programmes, improving community safety, strengthening families, building social cohesion and improving the quality of life of all people.

Most commonly, researchers rely on a combination of theories and the following causal factors: a culture of violence exists, where violence is normative as the way to resolve conflicts and frustrations; violence is an expression of anger and a means of asserting power; the legacy of apartheid (which was characterised by high levels of poverty in African communities, lack of access to service and opportunities, marginalisation and militarisation of men); the institutionalization of violence during the apartheid years resulted in communities steeped in chronic levels of violence, exceptionally high levels of drugs and alcohol abuse, and dependence exist, high level of availability of guns; the perpetuation of violence, which is the product of untreated victimization and trauma on grand scale; disintegration of families, lack of discipline by parents, absent parents, more particularly father; unemployment; moral decay; changing roles within families (child-headed household); poor academic performance; school drop-out; peer pressure; media; entertainment (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy 2011: 15-16).

An understanding of whether society is premised on love and nurturing, or not, is a crucial aspect when developing strategies to address the root cause of violent criminal behaviour. A fragmented and dysfunctional family is the starting point for neglect and abuse of vulnerable people, particularly children, the elderly, and the disabled and poor women. Interventions for pregnant women and girls provide services at the earliest possible stage to access the family into which a child will be born.

Monitoring and evaluation of such interventions is an investment which will ultimately yield increasing and positive returns by preventing individuals, families and societies from being exposed to or involved in criminal and violent behaviour. It is therefore against this background that criminal and violent activities may sometimes cause anger, grief, sadness, a sense of loss,
guilt, worthlessness, depression, an inability to look forward, lack of trust, extreme emotional swings and hopelessness (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011:16). Von Hentig states that, “Experience tells us that the relationships between perpetrators and victims are much more intricate than the rough distinction of criminal law. Here are two human beings, as soon as they draw to one another, male or female, young or old, rich or poor, ugly or attractive- a wide range of interactions, repulsions as well as attractions is set in motion. By this external criterion, subject and object, a perpetrator and a victim are distinguished” (Walklate, 1989:1-2).

Von Hentig’s approach focused on the role of the victim in the perpetration of a criminal event. In so doing he was primarily interested in how the victim will primarily contribute to the creation of a crime. In pursuing this interest he created thirteen classes of victim: the young, the female, the old, the mentally defective, immigrants, those belonging to minorities, dull normal, the depressed, the acquisitive, the wanton, the lonesome and heartbroken, the tormentor and fighting victim (Walklate, 1989:2). These classes refer to psychological as well as sociological variables, which can be related to situations or persons. In this province one needs to highlight that there are also political victims, taxi violence victims, domestic violence victims and victims who belong to ordinary crimes such as robbery, murder and rape. This has contributed immensely in crime statistics and increase of crime in general.

2.18 Explaining the pattern of crime

The statistics from victimisation surveys confirm the long – held suspicion that particular groups of people are more vulnerable to exploitation and injury than others. However, victimologists cannot agree among themselves exactly what characteristics victims have in common that make the relatively more susceptible than non-victims (Karmen, 1990:93 – 94).

2.19 The determinants of vulnerability

Someday, it will be possible to compute a vulnerability index to predict the possibility of a given individual’s becoming a causality of a specific type of crime. The calculation would take into account characteristics like sex, age, race, income, occupation, marital status and locality, since these factors have proven to be correlated with victimisation rates. Personal attributes may play a part in determining vulnerability (Schurink et al 1992:145). The mentally retarded, newly arrived immigrants, uneducated people and inexperienced people appear to be unusually exploitable by criminals employing deception and fraud. Situational factors may play a part as well. People are more susceptible at certain times, periods, or phases that at others. For example, tourists are a notoriously vulnerable group. Offenders pray on them with impunity, knowing that because of consideration of money, time, or both, few tourists will be willing and able to return to the jurisdiction of the crime to take part in the criminal justice process, even if their assailants are caught red – handed by the police. A tourist’s average length of stay of a few days to a few weeks is invariably too brief to see a case through to its conclusion. As a result, charges against defendants are usually dropped or drastically reduced because of the absence of a key witness or the complainant.

More recent surveys in Umlazi and KwaMashu revealed a very high incidence of robbery, aggravated assault, common assault, theft and rape or attempted rape. The victimisation rate of 247 per 1000 for the five types of crime suggests that each person 12 years or older living in
Umlazi and KwaMashu at a time of the survey stood a one–in–four chance of becoming a victim of one of these (Schurinket et al, 1992: 145).

But most victimologists are not satisfied with explanations of variations in rates that emphasise vulnerability factors are biological (like gender, age and race, psychological (like loneliness or greediness), social (like income and occupation, or situational (like being an immigrant or a tourist). Victimology has been charged with a theoretical empiricism. In spite of abundance of date, there is a lack of convincing explanations for observed patterns, trends and group differences. To counter this criticism, three more elaborate answers have been developed.

The first is that observed differences in murder and robbery risks might be accounted for by difference in lifestyles. The sociological term ‘lifestyle’ refers to how people involve themselves in daily activities and special events on a predictable basis. It encompasses how people spend their time and money at work as well as at leisure, and the social roles (like business traveler, student or homemaker) they play. Lifestyles largely determine the quantity and quality of the contacts between potential victims and criminally inclined individual who might harm them. Differences in lifestyle lead to differences in exposure to risks.

A second explanation for variations in victimisation rates is the ‘routine activities approach.’ This analysis emphasises the vulnerability of people when they must venture away from their homes. Victimisation by predatory strangers can occur when criminally inclined persons are able to isolate suitable targets when they are not adequately guarded (Karmen, 1990:95). The routine activities approach ties together several major themes within criminology and victimology that social conditions continuously create offenders motivated to harm others, that opportunities for committing crimes multiply as stealable property proliferates, that target hardening measures and official policing and unofficial guardianship may prevent offender from striking, and that certain lifestyles exposes people to heightened risks. The theory can be further strengthened by adding that a great many victimisations tend to be concentrated at a limited number of “hot spots” in urban settings, and that everyday routines govern the social ecology of victimisation. What kinds of people will be harmed, in what manner, at what time, and at which locations?

A third explanation for variations in victimisation rates portrays victims in a less sympathetic light. It stresses that vulnerability can result from the pursuit of amusement and excitement. Activities such as cruising, hanging out, partying, and frequenting bars and social clubs include elements of danger. The most likely persons to be attached or robbed are precisely those who involve themselves in daring, delinquent and illicit activities (Karmen, 1990:96).

The proponents of the lifestyle approach are keen to point out that they are presenting a model of personal victimisation in which the concept of lifestyle refers to routine daily activities, both vocational activities and leisure activities. The model proposes that any individual is constrained by role expectations and structural characteristics, the nature of which will be connected to demographic variables: age, sex, race etc. Individuals adapt to these constraints and their adaptations are reflected in their daily routines, lifestyle. There is a direct link, the proponents argue, between an individual’s routine daily activities and exposure to high – risk victimisation situations. Personal victimisation follows from such high – risk exposure (Walklate, 1989:6).
2.20 Conventional victimology, key concepts

Sparks (Walklate, 1989:13) lists six features of the victimisation process which the researcher believes to be important at a theoretical level. These six features build on some of the material already highlighted and draw together some threads of the more recent developments in victimology.

2.20.1 Precipitation

This concept is clear enough and could be applied to incidents of interpersonal violence including rape, though there might be some operational difficulties in doing this.

2.20.2 Facilitation

Even if the victim does not take anything that could be called an active part crime, he or she may still facilitate its commission by deliberately, negligently or unconsciously placing him or herself at special risk. Sparks likens this motion to that employ by Normandeau. It is a view which suggests that those who fail to protect themselves when they know, for example, that burglary rates in an area are high, are increasing, through their own behaviour, the chances of being burgled (Walklate, 1989:14)

Facilitating victims inadvertently assist the offender and therefore share a minor amount of blame. They increase their blame and open themselves up to trouble by their own thoughtless actions. If it is assumed that the criminal who chooses them as targets was looking for someone to victimise, them victim facilitation is not in any sense a root cause of crime. Facilitation is more like a catalyst in a clerical reaction, which, given the right ingredients and conditions, speeds up the interaction. Facilitating victims attract climatically inclined people to them and there by influence the distribution of crime.

Auto theft and burglary are crimes most often cited by victimologists in discussions of the problem of facilitation. A motorist who carelessly leaves the keys dangling in the car’s ignition is considered guilty of facilitation if a juvenile joyrider impulsively hops behind the wheel and drives off. Similarly a residential burglar is considered victim facilitated if force is not used to enter the premises because a homeowner or apartment dweller left the door unlocked or a window wide open (Karmen, 1990:111).

2.20.3 Vulnerability

This notion is derivable from some of the classes of victims listed by Von Hentig. It refers to a state in which the victims do nothing to put themselves at special risk but find themselves at risk because of the attributes they possess such as being frail, being very young.
2.20.4 An absence of opportunity

At one level the absence or presence of opportunity is obvious, without video records there would be no video recorder theft. The motion of opportunity also implies, however, risk management behaviour. An old person who rarely goes out is unlikely to be victim of street crime.

2.20.5 Attractiveness

Some houses are more attractive than others to prospective burglars, namely those in which there is little opportunity for surveillance and access appears easy. Some, it appears, promote such attractiveness in the form of conspicuous displays of wealth. Ultimately an attractive target is one which promises greater benefits to the offender.

2.20.6 Impunity

Some people are chosen as victims precisely because they are less likely to report an accident, homosexuality, for example. Variations in proneness to victimisation among different types of persons, places, organisations, situations, etc., where proneness in turn in defined in terms of differences in the a priori probability of victimisation or a crime taking place. Thus precipitation, facilitation, and vulnerability the probabilities of crime or victimisation are higher with some situations than with others (Walklate 1989:15).

2.20.7 Causes of risk factors

The identification of causes and phenomena associated with crime is one of the most popular goals in criminology, especially in view of its pragmatic value and the belief that such identifications are useful when seeking to correct or control criminal behaviour. The utility of discovering causes must, however, be qualified. Knowing what causes crime is not necessarily the same as reducing or addressing crime. Causation refers to factors or phenomena that have to be present (i.e. necessary or sufficient conditions) to precipitate crime. Dicristina argues (Maree, 2002:2) that causal relationships are images created out of one’s past experience rather than observed reality: “no force can be directly observed coming poverty, economic inequality or deviant friends that drive a person to commit a crime.”

Binder et al. (Maree 2002:2) agree that the precise meaning of “crime” remains complicated. “Cause” can be defined as something that brings about an effect or a result. For example, a person with criminal intent or situation (such as dysfunctional family) can bring about an action (criminal behavior). Dicristina (Maree 2002:2) however, feels that it might be more appropriate to focus on the probability of an association of certain phenomena. Probability refers to the likelihood (approximations) that two or more phenomena will occur together in the future by generalising (extrapolating) their observed degrees of association (i.e. the frequency at which they occur in relation to each other). Criminogenic risk factors represent variables within the individual or her environment. The link may be causal or merely statistical, but the presence of the factor is associated with a heightened risk of antisocial behaviour. Svensson (Maree, 2002:2)
uses the term “risk factors” when discussing factors that indicate an increased risk of criminal behaviour, and he does not refer to “causes of crime”.

2.21 Type of risk factors

The following have been identified as one of the risk factors:

Static risk factor: These represent variables that are not amenable to change, e.g. a history of conduct disorders, large family size and ethnicity; dynamic risk factors: These variables are amenable to change, but they are subject to modification. Some of the dynamic risk factors also constitutes need factors, as they represent conditions that, if changed, reduce the probability of the negative outcome associated with the risk factors; criminogenic need factors. These are the factors specifically associated with antisocial behavior. If these factor or conditions change, it may in antisocial behavior or containing with criminal activities.

Responsivity factors; These factors refer to conditions that affect the way in which the individual responds to intervention efforts, although they may not themselves be directly related to the negative outcome. Cognitive style, reading ability and motivation from treatment are examples of factors that are not directly related to taken into account in selecting an intervention. Protective factors; protective factors represent characteristics of the individual or his or her circumstances that mediate or buffer the effects of the risk factors. The factors are associated with the concepts of resilience and desistance (Maree, 2002:3).

2.21.1 Social risk factors

Criminogenic risk factors on a social level can occur in four domains: the family, school, community and peer groups. The factors discussed above do not function independently but affect one another. For example, one can argue that weakened communities with struggling households (families) produce schools that have a tenuous place in those communities and a limited capacity to prepare learners for participation in mainstream society, or for establishing healthy extra-family relations and personality types, thus contributing to an increased risk of youth coming into conflict with the law.

2.21.2 Community / neighbourhood variables

The community/neighbourhood variables include risk factors on a macro level: economic deprivation, community disorganisation, the availability of substances (such as drugs and alcohol), pro-criminal attitudes, beliefs and criminal involvement, as well as a climate of violence. These factors will be explained by referring to research findings from other countries and South Africa, focusing on the implications of the risks thus created for the youth.

2.21.3 Economic deprivation

Economic strain and relative deprivation are universally accepted as factors contributing to crime. It is not poverty per se that contributes to crime, but how people experience their financial
situation within their social environment. The majority of poor people do not commit crime, but those who feel deprived will often resort to crime. Countries characterised by huge income disparities, as are most developing countries in transition – especially if these occur across racial or other social stratification barriers – often have high crime rates, e.g. America, Australia and Africa (Naude et al, 1999:44). Therefore, high levels of crime are more prevalent in countries where there are large proportions of people who feel economically deprived.

The effect of income inequality in society will depend on the individual’s relative income position (Fajnzylber et al, 2002:8). It is likely that in case of the rich, an increase in inequality will not induce them to commit crime. However, in the case of the poor, an increase in inequality may be crime inducing, because such an increase implies a larger gap between the wages of the poor and those of the rich, thus reflecting a larger difference between the income from criminal and legal activities. During an interview a bank robber noted that he obtained more money with one robbery than working for a whole month (Maree, 2002:4). A rise in inequality may also have a crime-inducing effect by reducing the individual’s moral threshold. Therefore, a rise in inequality will have a significant impact on (at least some) individual’s propensity to commit a crime.

2.21.4 Community disorganisation

Until recently Africa’s urban population growth had been the slowest compared with those of industrialised countries. Urbanisation in South Africa has escalated over a very short period of time since the abolition of influx control in 1986. It is internationally accepted that urbanisation of the youth and the accompanying social processes are extremely conducive to crime. The role of rapid, abnormally high rates of urbanisation (and urban unemployment) should never be underestimated.

When urbanisation occurs suddenly and on a large scale, coinciding with a massive influx of youth work-seekers (economic refugees in particular, usually from neighboring countries), ideal conditions for crime is created. For instance, young people from as far field as Nigeria, Morocco, Europe and China have recently flocked to South African cities, where a large number of undocumented immigrants now live. Large informal settlements around major cities in developing countries are also particularly detrimental to effective policing and crime control. This factor is the direct result of the disorganised move to the cities. In the new communities, it is difficult to uphold traditional norms and values and informal control and discipline of the family circle deteriorate.

Parents tend to lose control over their children and they may become easy victims of crime. Although the majority of young people are unemployed in overcrowded rural situations, they can rely on the extended family (social network) and subsistence economy to meet their relatively basic needs for food, clothing and shelter. Rural life is also simpler, with no real relative deprivation or extravagant aspirations (Maree, 2002:3). In urban areas, although the peer group may at first assist in meeting basic needs, new arrivals are soon drawn into the youth culture characteristic of cities, which may motivate them to become involved in criminal gang activities (Maree, 2002:3).
This kind of a situation is happening in this area whereby number of people are flocking the place and as a result, the level of crime will rise because of these people who are have criminal backgrounds. The reasons for flocking the area are twofold: seeking job opportunities and to settle with their families.

2.21.5 Availability of alcohol and drugs

The high level of substance abuse not only contributes to crime, but the existence of profitable criminal activities also means that the expected loot from crime is more attractive in certain counties, such as South Africa and Latin America. The most important example of profitable criminal activity is the illicit drug trade, especially in countries where the raw materials for illicit drugs are easily obtained, such as South Africa in the case of cannabis (dagga) and Colombia, Bolivia and Peru for cocaine. Countries that are located close to high drug consumption Centres (such as Mexico in relation to the United States) have frequent and highly profitable opportunities for criminal activities. The activities consist not only of drug production and trade themselves, but also (Maree 2002), involve the elements of violence and official corruption required for these activities to occur. Young people in need of an income easily fall prey to involvement in drug dealing.

Dependency on drugs or alcohol and other social vices are expensive and drive people to crime if they have no other means of supporting their habit. Property crimes are widely associated with an addition to illegal substances (Maree, 2002:3). Substance abuse and even alcohol use may also directly contribute to violent crime if taken in excess, especially if taken in a group context where there is strong social pressure to conform to the group’s rules, and where rituals are evident. It is a well-known phenomenon that gangs may have certain initiation rituals involving serious crimes of a violent nature such as rape and murder, thereby precipitating not only opportunities for violent crime but also the coincidental use of drugs. People under the influence of alcohol or drugs or who abuse drugs often behave in an irresponsible and reckless manner, which may spill over into serious crime: “Taking drugs does not necessarily initiate criminal careers, it tends to intensify and perpetuate them. A positive association is thus to be expected between alcohol/drug abuse and recidivism” (Maree, 2002:4).

2.21.6 Pro-criminal attitudes, beliefs and crime involvement

Social transformation means that an old system has been abolished and results in a situation where norms, values and social control are forgotten or pushed to the background. The biggest disadvantage of social transformation is the change from an authoritative community to a democracy, and that the old system is rejected before new norms, values and laws are implemented. This leads to a situation of anomie (Maree 2002), or normlessness, and this weakening of social control makes the committing of crimes so much easier.

There appears to be a pervading belief amongst many South Africans of all cultures in this country that committing some crime is acceptable as long as one does not get caught. The importance of culture as a cause of crime or a prevention against crime may be the factor, which distinguishes the South African society from many others in Europe and the Arabian World. A person who lives in a community in which crime is accepted and endured will not experience the
social control that a person living within a culture, which finds the commission of crime unacceptable, would. The preoccupation of the SAPS with political unrest in the last few years of apartheid (late 1980s and early 1990s) gave the criminal element the opportunity to take advantage of the likelihood of not being caught and to increase their criminal involvement. Political intolerance also increases conflict and violence, as is evident in the KwaZulu-Natal province (Maree, 2002).

2.2.1.7 Climate of violence

As a result of political instability and unrest in South Africa, the crime rate has soared since 1990. The rate of violent crime is still high, especially in informal dwellings. Children grow up in an extremely violent environment and in a culture of survival. For some children, vandalism, stealing and violence have become internalised and part of everyday living - almost normal and acceptable. When looking at the prevailing value system in some communities, more often than not, a strong moral foundation is absent and the moral fibre of the community is questionable.

2.2.1.8. Family variables

A family is a group of persons united by the bonds of marriage, blood, adoption or cohabitation, characterized by a common residence (household) or not, interacting with one another in their respective family roles, maintain a common culture and governed by family rules. Consultation regarding the definition of family took place country as part of the developmental process of the draft South African National Family Policy. This definition is in line with the AU Plan of Action on Families in Africa, 2011; which cites three dimensions of the family, namely; a psycho-biological unit where members are linked together by blood ties, kinship relationship, personal feelings, and emotional bonds of its members, a social unit where members live together in the same household and share tasks and social functions and responsibilities; and a basic economic production unit (Integration Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011:22).

The HSRC Report (2004) stipulates that families in South Africa are subject to tremendous challenges (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy 2011) and that they continue to experience difficulties in fulfilling their social roles, due to the challenges they are facing. The research further stipulates that dysfunctional behavior within the family and the disintegration of family life, impact on the well-being of family members, and lead to moral decay in families, thereby affecting the fibre of our society. This is particularly so where there are high levels of poverty and unemployment. The family or parents is usually the first institution an individual interacts with. The importance of family the in socialising young people, teaching the rules of behaviour in society and taking the appropriate steps to keep them within those rules cannot be overemphasised. The lack thereof creates a risk of coming into conflict with the law.

The following variables that contribute to putting young people at risk will be discussed based on research findings from various countries: low socio-economic status, an incomplete family, lack of parental supervision, parent and sibling criminality/antisocial behaviour, family violence and abuse, and life on the street. The following programmes form the basis for services to families: family strengthening as first priority; enhancing family resilience and family preservation; focusing on families at risk and providing care to vulnerable members; engaging traditional and
religious leaders; provision of social services; peace and security programmes; human rights and democracy; linking family strengthening to moral regeneration campaigns; growing the economy and sustaining human development; and employment creation or expansion of job opportunities for our needy communities. (Integration Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011:23).

2.21.9 Low socio-economic status

Economic deprivation increases the level of stress experienced by the parent and this, in turn, may negatively affect the parent’s affective relationship with the child and the quality of parenting. The latter has a direct impact on antisocial behaviour. As a result of a family’s low socio-economic status, children (Maree 2002:05), may develop a negative self-concept and feelings of inferiority, shame and guilt. Decades of debate have still not achieved consensus about the true relationship between social class and youth misbehaviour. It is commonly accepted that a child is unlikely to avoid delinquent activity if he or she comes from a neighbourhood where crime prevails, or from a poverty-stricken family in which the parents are unable to provide for basic needs, or from an environment where friends are involved in and arrested for delinquent acts. Consistent with this reasoning, juvenile arrest rates are higher in economically deprived and socially disorganised communities. Yet, the empirical reality is that the availability research data still do not consistently support a relationship between social class and crime. Overcrowded living arrangements are indicative of low socio-economic status and class. Overcrowding leads to a lack of privacy, irritation with one another and children who may tend to wander around and even desert the home. They may land in bad company, be tempted and may begin to use alcohol or substances. Crime is usually the inevitable outcome (Maree 2002).

2.21.10 Incomplete family

An incomplete family refers to the absence of the father or mother. Homes without both parents, together with poverty, were the two main issues that youths spoke about as having influenced their decision to commit crime. Research in Dar es Salaam (Maree, 2002:5) indicates that youths from a single-headed household, with ruptured family ties and families without a father figure are more at risk of engaging in antisocial behaviour. Results of the study show a close correlation between youths originating from broken homes and families riddled with tensions and their involvement with crime.

Research findings (Maree, 2002:5) emphasise the implications of incomplete families for the youth. In a study, 25 young serious offenders all reported a background that differed considerably from living with a father and mother. Many had no father figure at all or were brought up by aunts, uncles, stepparents or grandparents. The 1999 Princeton University study on father absence and youth incarceration (cited in Maree, 2002:5) showed that “as the incidence of father absence grows, community disintegration and crime, especially youth crime, will continue to grow.” It further reports that the father accounts for 93% of incarcerated parents. Considering the large, mostly male, prison population in South Africa, a great number of children in South Africa has an imprisoned father, leaving the family incomplete. This contributes to the risk of youths becoming involved in criminal activities.
For many years, the migration system was an important part of the South African workforce and economy. Migration work implies that people, mostly men, leave their homes to seek work elsewhere, such as the mines. Although the money these fathers earn supports their households and families in the rural areas, the absence of a father figure has a negative effect on socialising process, especially with regard to boys. In some households in South Africa mothers are absent as a result of work responsibilities. Some mothers are employed a distance from home and therefore spend many hours travelling. They leave home early in the morning and return late in the afternoon or evening. Others stay in town during the week, near the workplace, away from their spouses and families.

They often visit their families only one weekend per month. In some of these households, guardians such as the grandparents or older brothers and sisters have to look after the children. These children may lack parental love and care and tend to show signs of behavioural problems from an early age. Sometimes the presence of a stepmother results in relationship problems with adolescents. The children may consider her an outsider and disobey her rules and authority. Children may run away from home to life on the streets or become involved in gang activities, misbehaviour and crime (Maree 2002:5).

2.2 Individual risk factors

The first level identifies biological and personal history factors that increase the likelihood of becoming a victim or perpetrator of crime. Some of these factors are age, education, income, substance abuse, or history of abuse. Prevention strategies at this level are often designed to promote attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours that ultimately prevent crime. Specific approaches may include education and life skill training (Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, 2015). Variables discussed in this section are age, gender and race as biographical factors, and biochemical, neurophysiological and genetic factors as biosocial variables.

One methodological problem is that most knowledge about risk is mainly based on variation between individuals, whereas prevention requires variation (change) within individuals. Kraemer el al. (1997) argued that only risk factors that can change within individuals can have causal effects. It is not always clear that findings within individuals would be the same as findings between individuals. To take a specific example, unemployment is a risk factor for offending between individuals, since unemployed people are more likely than employed people to be offenders. However, unemployment is also a risk factor for offending within individuals, since people are more likely to offend during their periods of unemployment than during their periods of employment. The within-individual finding has a much clearer implication for prevention, namely that a reduction in employment should lead to a reduction in offending. This is because it is much easier to demonstrate that a risk factor is a cause in within-individual research (Welsh and Farrington, 2012: 07).

The research highlights the importance of urban safety for successful urban development in the South African context. The complex global challenge of urban violence and crime being experienced worldwide is recognised as being the consequence of interrelated environmental, institutional and social risk factors that converge, resulting in the manifestation of various forms of violence. Focus is placed on the urban setting, as it is determined that urban centres are not
only critical nodes for development but that experiences of violence and crime are largely concentrated in urban areas, South Africa being no exception.

South Africa’s high rate of crime and violence, which is disproportionately concentrated in urban areas, requires more effective and integrated intervention strategies by government and non-government organisations. The causes of violence and crime in South Africa result from the combination of range of factors including poverty and inequality to economic exclusion and unemployment as well as weak governance, the challenge of urbanisation and resultant poor urban design. Violence and crime is manifest across spatial, institutional and social dimensions, and these characteristics require an integrated development plan that promotes urban safety in consideration of socio-spatial and socio-economic aspects of urban life in South Africa (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 2, 2014:04).

2.22.1. Biographical variables

2.22.1.1 Age

Youth make up a considerable percentage of various countries’ population rate. In Namibia, almost half the population is under the age of 15 years, compared with 39% in Kenya. In Tanzania, 20.6% of the population are between the ages 15-21 years and in South Africa 44% of the population are under 20 years of age (Maree, 2000:6). A high crime rate may be attributed to the high percentage of crimes committed by young people, as criminal careers of the youth usually start during adolescence and early adulthood (17-20 years) and peak during adulthood (30 years of age). Maree (2002:6) reports that the least delinquent boys were the youngest with a median age of 14.65 and the most delinquent were the oldest, with a median age of 15.83 years. Maree (2002: 6) states that self-reported studies confirm that committing an offence in the teenage years is relatively common. The peak of offending is higher for males (18 years) than it is for females (15 years).

Age on its own cannot be as a criminogenic risk factor. Age is not a personal characteristic but an index of the likely stage that someone has reached in a partly predictable sequence of development, and is an indicator of social standing. Maree (2002: 6) argues that the explanation for the age lie in the detailed process of development and in association meanings and social roles. Some tendencies, termed personality traits, such as impulsiveness, excitement seeking, assertiveness, modesty and dutifulness, may influence bahaviour in particular ways in particular situations.

A bewildering number of constructs referring to a poor ability to control behaviour include impulsiveness, hyperactivity, restlessness, clumsiness, not considering consequences before acting, a poor ability to plan ahead, short time horizons, low self-control, sensation seeking, risk taking, and a poor ability to delay gratification. Various studies found a link between aggressiveness in childhood and later criminality because of a combination of characteristics including both aggressiveness and hyperactivity (Maree, 2002:6). Similarly, a longitudinal study conducted in Sweden showed that hyperactivity at the age of 13 years predicted police-recorded violence up to the age of 26 (Maree, 2002:6). A longitudinal study conducted in New Zealand
on the link between childhood temperament and later offending, found that a dimension of temperament was being undercontrolled (restlessness, impulsive, with poor attention), which predicted aggressiveness, self-reported acts of delinquency and convictions in the age group of 18-21 years (Maree, 2002:6).

2.22.1.2 Age and violent crime

Scholars who have career criminals (Reid 1994:69), have reported that the normal biological and socio-psychological maturation process decreases criminal activity; that age enables people to calculate the probability of success in crime more accurately. Most criminals do not have great financial gains over a long period of years; nor do they avoid arrest conviction, and incarceration with treats success. Whatever the reasons, it appears that “the volume of crimes diminishes substantially as offender get older” (Reid 1994: 69). There is more crime among the elderly, however. Although the figure is insignificant when compared with the total number of arrests, crimes of the elderly could become critical in view of their increasing percentage in the populations. Attention must be given to processing the elder offenders as well as custodial care for those who are incarcerated. The greatest numbers of arrest of the elderly are for larceny-theft. Most of these arrests are for shoplifting, a crime described as alarming and reaching epidemic proportions, among the elderly.

2.22.1.3 Gender

Male criminals completely outnumber female criminals. Officials arrest statistics, victimisation data and self-reported studies show that adolescent female are involved in less frequent and serious delinquent acts than adolescent males (Maree, 2002:6). Only 26% of all youth under 18 years arrested in America during 1998 were female (Maree, 2002:6). According to the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa the same applies here since the number of sentenced youths in custody in May 2002 was 14 600 males, compared with 285 females. When considering gender as a risk factor, the focus should be on characteristics associated with the young, such as impulsivity, rebelliousness and deceitfulness. Girls do not necessarily experience these variables to a lesser extent, but boys are more exposed to criminogenic factors than girls. Patterns of delinquent offending by females are changing globally. Males generally live in a wider geographic area than girls, spend more time outside the home, have greater freedom of physical movement and engage less in adult role activity compared with young females, and may therefore also become engaged in antisocial activities. Young males also tend to act more aggressively than young females, with the result that some become involved in violent types of crime such as assault, rape and malicious damaging of property. The changing role of females in society and the differential handling of female offenders by the justice system play a part in accounting for the increase in female youth crime.

Gender-based violence and domestic violence not only affect the most vulnerable in society but can also contribute to the normalisation of violence and a situation where violence is seen as an acceptable and valid means of self-assertion and ensuring cooperation. Protection of individuals and communities must also be central to strategies aimed at reducing incidences of gender-based violence (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book, 2014:14).
2.22.1.4 Gender and violent crime

Even though a man is much more likely than a woman to be a crime victim, many studies indicate to be violent crime is greater among women, mainly because of the crime of forcible rape. Female violent crime victims may be victimised further by the reactions (or lack thereof) the criminal justice system to the types of violent crimes that victimise women more often than men. In addition to forcible rape, more often women are the victims of family violence, a crime that is gaining more attention of late (Reid, 1994: 74).

The victim and witness of a crime of violence the point of departure in respect of the victims is that, Hans Von Henting (Van der West Westhuizen 1982: 72) confirms this view in his findings that victims could, in certain respects, predispose violent offenders to specific conduct. In crimes of violence, the victim-offender relationship is a highly complex process of collectivity and reciprocity. Various researchers emphasise the potential important role of the victim. This may be deduced from the many classifications of victims according to their causative share in crime, for example, Mendelone, the equally guilty one, and the one whose share in crime is greater than that of the offender. In other classifications, reference is often made to the aggressive victim, from which it may be deduced that this type of victim plays a significant part in acts and crimes of violence (Van der Westhuizen 1982:73).

It is also interesting to note that, in practice, the potential victim crime of violence, especially in cases of robbery with aggressive circumstances, tends to remain passive so as to prevent injury or possible loss of size. Although such crimes are not necessarily accompanied by physical violence; however; the victim’s contribution to the consequences of such crime is related largely to the individual’s reaction in the crisis situation, this type of crime is indeed regarded in a very serious light, to which sleeper’s death sentence bears without (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:73).

The following are some of the most important related aspects: the impersonal process of interaction caused by the social structure and milieu, especially in urban areas; the structure and the mature of the community are not always successfully directed at warm, intimate, personal co-existence; members of, in particular the middle class are not socialised to take steps against criminal behaviour-action against crimes of violence is regarded as the responsibility of the police; involvement in aggressive behavior and crimes of violence in a subcultural context, accepted from expression, and the large scale familiarisation with violence in the mass media, together create a feeling of indifference and unwillingness to become involved (Van der Westhuisen, 1982: 73).

2.22.1.5. Racial or ethnic background

Studies based on official statistics have reported that African Americans are over represented in arrest, conviction and incarceration rates with respect to their population base. In contrast, most studies using self-reported measures show that African Americans are more likely to be officially delinquent, but not significantly worse than whites in their prevalence or frequency of offending (Maree, 2002:6). Textbooks reveal that race in America is strongly related to official delinquency but no to self-reported delinquent activity (Maree, 2002:6). Maree (2002:6) concludes that few, if any, substantial and consistent differences exist between the involvements of different racial
groups in delinquency. It seems that the differences in official responses to offenders, rather than
difference in delinquent bahaviour, explain the difference in arrest rates, conviction and
incarceration figure.

Race also affects the relationship between gender and criminal behaviour. Official statistics
document that African American females violate the law more frequently and seriously than
white females do (Maree, 2002:7). Self-reported studies indicate that African American females
are much more likely than white females to admit to committing to theft of US&50 or more or
the offences of auto theft, aggravated assault and robbery, whereas both groups were about
equally involved in incidences of burglary. African American females had a higher rate of
involvement than white males for robbery, and the two were about equal with regard to
aggravated assault. According to Maree et al. (2002:7), there are no actual criteria for inclusion in
a racial group. Many individuals have mixed racial backgrounds that confound analysis. Racial
differences in the rate of violent crime diminish when socio-economic status is considered. The
same situation exists among the different cultural groups in South Africa who have mixed racial
backgrounds and, because of the political policy before 1994, live in substandard socio-economic
areas.

2.22.1.6 Race and violent crime

The national commission on the cause and prevention of violence report in 1969 that African
American crime rates were four times higher than white crime rates for the four major violent
crimes of homicide, rape, robbery and aggravated assault. Recent data on crime and race indicate
that although 69% of all arrests in 1991 were of white persons, compare with 29% of African
Americans, the percentages were much closer in the serious crimes, the greater differences
occurring in arrests for less serious offences. When analysing the data, we must realise that even
in cases in which the arrest rates are higher for white than for African Americans, they may still
be disproportionate, as African American constitute only approximately 11% of the total
population.

African Americans are more likely than other non-whites, and whites to be crime victims,
especially violent crime victims. In rural areas, however, the violent crime rate is higher among
whites than among Africans Americans. When the variables of race and gender are compared,
the highest rate of victimisation for violent crimes is among the African American males,
followed by white males, African American females, and white females. African Americans, compared with which and other minorities, are more often victims of serious
crimes, and they are most victimised by other African Americans. Black on black homicide, for
example, is a major cause of death among Africa Americans males (Reid, 1994: 73).
2.23 Biosocial factors

2.23.1 Biochemical factors

The chemical composition of the body is controlled by diet, blood chemistry and allergies, which have an effect on personality traits such as aggressive tendencies and depression. The role of these factors in criminal behaviour is discussed below (Maree 2002:7; Maree 2002:7).

A diet with a high intake of artificial colouring in food, milk and sweets, and high levels of sugar and caffeine causes hyperactivity and aggression in children. Vitamins and minerals such as magnesium, copper and zinc may also influence aggressive behaviour. Although the relationship between the intake of sugar and deviant behaviour remains unclear due to conflicting research findings, it was found that the diets of young people in detention differed from those of non-offending young people. The role of food and diet in producing criminal behaviour, however, has not been well established.

Hypoglycaemia is a condition that arises when glucose levels in the blood drop below an acceptable level and impairs the function of the brain, resulting in headaches, anxiety, confusion, exhaustion and aggressive behaviour. More recent studies have linked excess consumption of refined sugar to hyperactivity and aggressiveness. To some degree, courts have accepted the notion that excess sugar consumption may be linked to crime. One study, however, seemed to contradict the notion that sugar may lead to hyperactivity (Maree, 2002:7). To date, the evidence concerning sugar’s impact on behaviour is less than clear.

According to Maree (2002:7), an association exists between episodes of violent behaviour and abnormal levels of males sex hormones known as androgens. Other androgen-related male traits that are also related to antisocial behaviour are sensation seeking seeking pleasure all the times. Boys with high levels of the male sex hormone, testosterone (the most abundant androgen which controls secondary sex characteristics such as facial hair and voice tone), show less tolerance of frustration and are more likely to display antisocial behaviour. Samples of inmates indicate that testosterone levels were higher in men who commit violent behaviour than in other prisoners (Maree, 2002:8). Although the relationship between the female menstrual cycle and criminal behaviour has been found to be vague and indirect, a drop in serotonin levels in the female brain prior to menstruation might explain the agitation and irritability sometimes associated with the premenstrual syndrome. Serotonin is also referred to as the behaviour-regulate chemical, since animal studies have demonstrated a link between low levels of the neurotransmitter present in the brain and aggressive behaviour.

Low serotonin levels in human have been linked to impulsive crimes (Maree, 2002:7). Maree (2002:7) indicates that a significant number of incarcerated females committed the crimes during the premenstrual phase and that at least a small percentage of wombs appear vulnerable to cyclical hormonal changes, which makes them more prone to anxiety and hostility. However, the overwhelming majority of women who do suffer anxiety relations prior to, and during, menstruation do not actually engage in violent criminal behaviour.
2.23.2 Neurophysiological factors

Neurophysiology focuses on the study of brain activity. Some researchers believe that neurological and physical abnormalities are acquired during the perinatal stage or through birth delivery trauma, and that these control behaviour throughout the person’s life cycle (Maree, 2002:7). Research findings indicate that a significant relationship exists between aggressive behaviour and impairment in executive brain functions such as abstract reasoning, problem solving skills and motor behaviour skills. This relationship can be detected at a young age. Children who suffer from measurable neurological deficits at birth are more likely to become criminals later in life (Maree, 2002:7). The electric impulses given off by the brain are measured with an electroencephalogram (EEG).

According to Maree (2002:7) violent criminals have far higher levels of abnormal EEG readings than non-violent or on time offenders. About 50-60% of adolescents with known behavioural disorders have abnormal readings. The neuroendocrine system that controls brain chemistry provides a key for explaining aggressive behaviour. Antisocial behaviour and drug abuse are associated with a chemical imbalance in the chemical or hormonal activities of the central nervous system. Neurological functions associated with aggression and violence is a complex process. Children with behavioural disorders may have identifiable neurological defects, such impairment in the prefrontal lobes, thalamus, medial temporal lobe, superior parietal at left angular gyros areas of the brain (Maree, 2002:7). Behaviour includes poor impulse control, inadequate social skills, hostility, temper tantrums, destructive behaviour and hyperactivity. Investigations have associated slow brain activity with young offenders.

A neurological pattern called minimal brain dysfunction (MBD) exists, and is an abnormality of the brain structure that results in behaviour which is detrimental to a lifestyle and social adjustment. A learning disability is one specific type of minima brain dysfunction. MBD includes perceptual impairment, brain damage, dyslexia and developmental aphasia, to name a few. Research findings differ with regard to learning disabilities as a risk factor for youths to become involved in criminal activities (Maree, 2002:8). Organic brain disorders caused by traumatic brain injuries, brain tumours and psychomotor epilepsy lead to disrupted neutral functioning which, in turn, causes disorders in thinking, often resulting in feelings such as fear, anxiety, anger, depression and unexpected outbursts. Depending on the location of the brain tumour, certain personality changes such as irritability, fear, slovenliness and outbursts of anger can contribute to the risk of becoming involved in aggressive behaviour.

2.24 Genetic factors

Genetic factors refer to an inherited aggressive predisposition and inherited conditions associated with crime, such as an impulsive personality. In Chapter 5, a discussion of individual positivism can be referred to regarding the belief that criminality runs in families. The focus in this discussion will be on the criminal personality. Personality includes the individual as a whole person, i.e. his or her biological characteristics, intelligence, temperament, attitude and self-image in a specific situation.
Maree (2002:8) identified 52 “errors of criminal thinking” that form the criminal’s personality. Some of these are a lack of interest in schooling; intense anger that can be constant, sometimes expressed or often just under the surface; manipulativeness; an inflexible, high self-image; chronic lying; super-optimism; a view that other people’s property is their own; great energy; fear of injury; rejection or death; present orientation and no thought of long-term consequences; the deriving of enjoyment from reckless and law-violating behavior, such as vandalism.

2.25 Social Factors

One of the main causes of crime is situated in the social environment of man. The social environment includes home, the neighbourhood, the school and unemployment. Social violence also refers to ethnic violence, disputes among peers, or territorial or identity-based violence linked with gangs. Economic violence, in contrast, is motivated by material gain manifested in violence associated with street crime, including mugging, robbery, and violence linked with drugs and kidnapping. Closely related is institutional violence, perpetrated by state institutions, such as the police and judiciary, sector ministries such as health, and education, as well as extra-state institutions such as social cleansing vigilante groups (Moser and Mcilwaine, 2005:93).

There are no generally valid answers or absolute declarative model to use as basis for predicting, with certainty, whether or not, and why, a crime will be committed in specific circumstances. This shortcoming, if it is one, is caused by the fact that human behaviour, and thus crime as well, is the result of a rich variety of variables and combinations of variables. The criminologists’ systematic investigations into the cause of crimes of violence are aimed at finding a causative relation between the many factors, in order that criminality may be predicted and explained with a greater degree of accuracy (Van Der Westhuizen, 1982:55). Modern declarative models in criminology are based on the assumption that the criminal, as a human being, functions within a specific, surrounding milieu. Crime is the result of continuous interaction between the individual-human and surrounding social factors. In a theoretical perspective, therefore, the psych-criminological and the socio-criminological approaches must be meaningfully integrated any attempt at explaining how and why crime is committed (Van Der Westhuizen, 1982:55).
The South African Police Services has recently released crime stats on contact crimes during the month of March 2017. The tables below depict that contact crimes have decreased significantly more particularly on Quarter 1, Quarter 2 and Quarter 3. For instance, in 2015/16 the total number of crimes reported was 138,528 (2.2%), while in 2016/17 the total number of crimes recorded was 141,597.

Quarter 2: in 2015/16 the stats showed that 153,859 (-1.7%) cases were recorded; while in 2016/17, there were 151,200 cases reported, which shows a significant decrease as compared to the previous year. Quarter 3 reveals that in 2015/16, 177,955 cases were reported while in 2016/17, 168,546 (-1.7%) cases were recorded.

The province of KwaZulu-Natal has recorded 73,933 (-2.2%) cases and the stats reveal that the province of Gauteng is leading with 131,536 9 (-0.55) cases reported. In Quarter 1, 4,154 (0.6%) cases of murder were recorded in 2015/16, while in 2016/2017 only 4,180 cases were reported. In Quarter 2, 2015/16, 4,683 (1.9%) cases were recorded, while 2016/17 only 4,773 cases were reported.

The tables below show and depict the steadily decline of contact crimes. Assault with intent to commit grievous bodily harm, common robbery, sexual offences and common assault have decreased, but unfortunately, murder, attempted murder and robbery with aggravating circumstances have increased.

Farming contributes 18% of income for the area, approximately 30% of the municipal area to the north comprises commercial farmland. Subsistence agriculture is practiced in areahe Tgelatyi.
Figure 2.1: SAPS Crime Stats released on March 2017

Table 3.1 clearly depicts that in 2014/2015, 467 145 cases were reported, in 2015/2016, the report shows a significant increase of reported cases of contact crimes by 470 342, while on 2016/2017, the Table shows a steady decline of 461 343 (-1, 9%) of reported cases. The general perception of the public is that contact crimes in our country remain a problem and the government needs to do something in order to correct the situation.
Figure 2.2: Contact crimes: Provincial overview: SAPS Stats released on March 2017

Figure 2.2 shows a steady decline in reported cases in KZN by 72 284, (-2.2%), while other provinces such as Mpumalanga reported 25 152 (3.0%) cases which indicates or shows an increase of contact crimes. The distribution of contact crimes according to various provinces, varies, the Gauteng, and Western Cape remain the main contributors with 130 904 and 86 224 reported cases respectively.
Figure 3.3 shows that violent crime in our country still a challenge, our media is dominated by murder and violence crime. Other countries regard South Africa as the most dangerous country when it comes to violence. Just recently our country has witnessed the shocking of political leaders more particularly in our province. The Premier of Kwazulu-Natal has appointed the Commission of enquiry to investigate the killings of people in this province.
Figure 2.3 shows that 4 154 (0.6%) murder cases reported on 2015/2016, on 2016/2017, 4 180 reported murder cases during Quarter 2, and Trimester has shown 14 343 murder cases reported on 2015/2016 and 2016/17 has seen a steady declined by 14 333 (-0.1%).

There is a growing concerned about the killings and murdering of politicians in Kwazulu-Natal, hence the government has established the Commission that will look into the perpetuating of the kilings in this province. In the hostels, the reports show that about 90 people have been killed in Glebe hostel and this is cause for concern.
Figure 2.4: Sexual Offences; SAPS Statistics Released on March 2017

Figure 3.4 has seen on 2015/2016, 11 962 (-6.9%) of sexual offences that have been reported, whilst on 2015/2016 in the same Quarter 1, has seen a steady decline of 11 135 reported case on sexual offences. Trimester 2015/16 has seen 40 143 sexual offences and on 2016/2017, has reported a sharp decline of reported case of 37 630. Our country has recently experienced the rape and killings of women by their partners, and this has caused an alarm to our communities.
Figure 2.5: Sexual offences: SAPS Stats released on March 2017

Figure 2.5 clearly indicates the provincial distribution which shows that 7 362 (-2.0%) reported cases of sexual offence in the Gauteng Province, this was followed by our province, KZN, by 6 448 (-5.8). The killings of women in our country have sent a very bad message and it really shows us that women are still regarded as vulnerable and they are not at all worthy of being saved.
Figure 2.6: Sexual assault: SAPS stats, released on March 2017

shows that the three provinces have shown a steadily decline of sexual offences and these provinces are KZN, LP and FS, whilst six provinces which include: GP, NC, EC, WC, NW and MP. In a country where violence against women and children is increasing at alarming rate, the criminal justice system and law enforcement agencies have an obligation to make sure that its citizenry remain confidence about the state justice cluster.
Figure 2.7 shows that Trimester 2014/15 received 4,829 sexual offences that were reported, 2015/16 has seen a sharp decline by 4,817 and in 2016/17 a significant decrease by 4,815. Although Figure 3.7 has shown that Trimester 2014/15 had high number of reported cases, however, Trimester 2015/16 indicated 4,817 contact crimes reported, whereas Trimester 2016/17 has shown a steady decline of 4,815 reported cases.
Figure 2.8

Figure 2.8: Quarter 3 shows us that on 2015/16, 5 051 attempted murder cases were reported, the following year, in 2016/17 a steady decline of 4 893 cases were reported. Trimester 2015/16 has seen 13 806 cases reported, but on Trimester 2016/17 a slight decline by 13 698 were reported. Although in other instances, the figure shows steady decline, contact crime in our country still remains a cause for concern.
The police have been entrusted with the responsibility of maintaining law and order and they should create strategies to deal with crime and violence. It is therefore important that the government and the civil society should work together to deal with this scourge and also find a lasting solution for this problem. Victim of Crime Survey 2016/17 cited among other things that sexual offences include rape, grabbing or touching without consent. Not many respondents sampled had been victims of sexual offence. It is also possible that some victims among the respondents did not want to share their experience due to trauma, stigma or fear associated with this type of crime. An estimated 50 883 or one in a thousand individuals, mostly women, had experience sexual offences during 2016/17. It would have been useful to estimate the number and percentage of victims who reported the crime to the police, among other things, but no meaningful estimates can be obtained due to the small number of victims in the survey (Victims of Crime Survey, 2016/17:40).

2.26 The role of KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison in partnership with community safety structures in terms of crime prevention

Safety is a core human right. It is a necessary condition for human development, improving quality of life and enhancing productivity. When communities do not feel safe and live in fear in their vicinity, the country’s economic development and the people “wellbeing is affected, hindering their ability to achieve their potential (NDP 2011).” The National Planning Commission Diagnostic Report underlined the reality that high crime levels have slowed South Africa” social and economic development. Violent crime, contact crime and property crimes are
so common that many South Africans live in fear (National Development Plan, 2011: 349). When people feel unsafe it makes it harder for them to pursue their personal goals, and to take part in social and economic activity. The vision 2030, visualises people living in South Africa feeling safe and having no fear of crime. They are safe at home, at school, at work and enjoy an active community life free of fear. Women can walk freely in the streets of KwaMashu, Umlazi, Soweto and even in Gugulethu, having no fear in her mind. Achieving this vision requires a well-functioning criminal justice system, in which the police, judiciary services work together to ensure that suspects are caught, prosecuted, convicted if found guilty and securely incarcerated.

2.26.1 Building a united front against crime

The former MEC for Department of Transport, Community Safety and Liaison, and now the Premier of Kwazulu-Natal, Mr TW Mchunu had crafted a conceptual document commonly known as Building a United Front against Crime. Its fundamental intention was to mobilise all communities and civil society to fight crime together with the police. The research has accepted that some of the causes of crime are deep rooted and related to the history and socio-economic realities of our society. For this reason, a comprehensive strategy must go beyond providing only effective policing. It must also provide for mobilisation and participation of civil society in assisting to address crime. To effectively reduce crime, it is necessary to transform and reorganise government and facilitate real community participation. In line with this, there has been renewed emphasis on the relevance of a united, multi-pronged approach in the fight against crime, which combines aspects of crime prevention, crime combating, and the improvement of socio-economic conditions and strengthening of human solidarity among citizens.

Much work has been done in attempting to create an understanding of the various factors which give rise to the crime levels we see in South Africa today. In the light of what we know about the crime challenges facing KZN, the KZN MEC for Transport, Community Safety and Liaison is spearheading a drive to build a united front against crime in the province of KZN. This is a call for the mobilisation and involvement of sectors of society in a concerted and sustained effort to significantly reduce the level of crime in the province.

This is a deliberate move away from merely seeing the crime challenge as cause to lament. Rather it should be a call for considered, unified and unswerving action. Importantly, it is a call to action equally for government and civil society (Bufac 2009: 01). This remains the flagship programme of the department through which, over past years, the research has intensified our efforts towards the mass mobilization of communities against crime, solidified partnerships between the police and various communities against crime, established and continued safety structures at all levels of our society. This multi-faceted programme is the fulfillment of the constitutional imperative of promoting good relations between the police and community and legislative imperative to promote community safety partnerships contained in the Civilian Secretariat for Police Service Act of 2011 (Budget Vote Speech, 2015/2016:07).

2.26.2 Elements of a united front against crime: (BUFAC, 2009:03)

The family as a basic unit in society; responsible citizenship; empowered, aware and caring community; civic mindedness and building of community cohesion; crime reporting and
information sharing; interactive, responsive and caring government; committed and creative civil society formations; ethical involved and generous business community; effective community-based crime prevention programmes which protect young people from dangers that may prevail in their moral and social environment; restoring healthy community life, and improvement of the physical and moral environment (Bufac, 2009:03).

2.26.3 Provincial Framework for community engagement on crime prevention and policing

The Civilian Secretary for Police Service Act (2011) makes provision for provinces to develop community safety partnerships, thereby giving legislative life to the Building a united front against crime programme, that was initiated by the KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison in 2009. It was imperative for the MEC to approve the holistic framework for community engagement in order to successfully implement this programme. This program was designed in such a way that the government can reach partners, develop partnerships, develop safety models and drive safety initiatives.

Again this framework was also crafted to accommodate, liaise with communities and stakeholders from the provincial level down to voting district level and at the same time, create synergy among different stakeholders, sectors and structures operating within the criminal justice system. This framework is aimed at ensuring effective community crime fighting partnerships by ensuring a security conscious and capable community in which: CPF is established, holding regular meetings, engaging with police on community concerns on criminality and police functioning; ward safety committees are fully established, meeting regularly at least once a month, able to account for each household in their ward as having no who is a criminal or harbouring any criminal; Operation Sukum Sakhe is established, conduct regular meetings at least once a month, and the ward safety coordinator attends to discuss safety issues; Each ward has at least two crime fighting volunteers; CCPA is established that patrol communities together with the police on identified days and which also assists the police to track down the suspects in their wards (Budget Speech, 2015:17).

2.26.4 Kwazulu-Natal Council against crime

The Honourable Premier of KZN Mr SE Mchunu and National Minister Nkosinathi Nhleko, launched the KZN Council against crime on 11 December 2014. On a provincial level, there was no existing structure which could be used as a vehicle between the Provincial government, civil society and national structures in pursuance of all the mandates of the department and to improve the scope and effectiveness of its programmes.

2.26.5 The Council comprises of the following representatives:

- The Premier
- Members of the Executive Council
- The Justice Crime Prevention and Security Cluster
- The House of Traditional Leaders
- Religious leaders
- Business sectors
• Youth formations
• Organised labour
• The Provincial Commissioner
• The Provincial Police Board
• The KZNCCPA: Kwazulu-Natal crime prevention association
• The Private Security Industry

2.26.6 The key elements of the terms of reference of the council are:

• To provide strategic advice and guidance on, and assist in the development of safety and crime, and assist strategies for the Province of KwaZulu-Natal;
• To facilitate, guide and contribute to safety and crime prevention research and project activities;
• To facilitate support to key government and non-government organization in the pursuance of their safety and crime prevention strategist;
• Initiating and facilitating such working groups as may be necessary to assist in the development, encouragement and promotion of safety and crime prevention programmes and activities, and
• Facilitating, encouraging and promoting broad societal education programmes for people of all ages in KZN on the prevention of crime in the communities, with the initial focus on those who are involved in crime fighting structures (Community Police Forum, Pocket Book 2014:8).

2.26.7 Communities in Dialogue Programme (CIDP).

The department continued to mobilise communities using the CIDP to resolve intra and inter-community conflicts. During 2014/2015, the CIDP was used to deal with political violence around 2014 general elections. The pre-election period focused on the revival of the Provincial Multi-Party political intervention at Umthshezi and KwaMashu. The post-election period saw a youth integrated dialogue session between senior citizens and the youth on crime, as well as CIDP interventions at Mooi River and Pomeroy, among others Budget Vote Speech 2015/2016. The Communities in Dialogue programme has contributed positively at Umsinga where eight members of the well-known group called Isikebhe have been murdered whilst they were on their way chasing their herd of cattle at Mahlaba area. The area of Mahlaba is situated between Pomeroy and Nquthu. This is place where stock theft criminals used to hide all sorts of stolen stock in the area. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison had implored this program with a view to bring together rivalry on board to resolve the impulse.

2.26.8 KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA)

This is the brain child of the MEC for Department of Transport, Community Safety and Liaison, Mr TW Mchunu. When he took office in 2009, he took a daring and audacious stance of mobilising all communities including informal structures at the community level, to assist the department in terms of fighting crime. These structures have been operating in the community and some of them had unfriendly relationships with the community itself, but most importantly were very antagonistic with the police. What is commonly interesting, however, was the fact that
all these structures were fighting crime on a parallel basis with the police; they were fighting for one enemy, which is criminal. KZNCCPA comprises of the following organisations:

- FEDCO
- Umkhumbi
- Qedubugebengu
- Julukatsotsi
- Amanqe
- Amabutho
- Bhasobhatsotsi
- Vimbhangaphambili
- Sambulela
- Isikebhe
- Ottawa
- Siyabaphelekezela
- Umfula ongashi
- Field Rangers
- Inkanyamba

The KZNCCPA has been highly effective in assisting in crime prevention throughout the province. Some communities have tangible results in their interventions and preventing crime. Their success has been visible in the following places such as uPhongolo, eMatheni, Umbilo, eDumbe and kwaNibela. The CCPA has worked closely with the police in tracking down crime. In rural areas such as eMatheni, they were able to end the community conflict and they are still cooperating with the police track criminals right up to Johnnesburg. In kwaNibela, due to the intervention of the KZNCCPA, stock theft has decreased drastically. Kwazulu-Natal Meat Producers Organisation had commended the good work done by KZNCCPA, in that the level of stock theft has been reduced tremendously since the intervention of this group. This structure has meaningfully contributed a lot in terms of resolving number of conflicts in our communities, stock theft cases, stolen vehicles cases and even in taxi violence cases.

2.26.9 Establishment of a community police forum (CPF)

The new state aimed to create a statutory framework for such mobilisation through the creation of Community Policing Forums through the South African Police Service Act of 1995. It made station commanders responsible for convening CPF’s in their precincts. Their purpose was, firstly, to allow local communities an opportunity to express their priorities about crime interventions with the police, secondly, to become active partners in crime prevention projects (Steinberg, 2001). CPF’s have a critical role to play in building relations between the police and the communities they serve. This approach was adopted after 1994 to build trust and legitimacy, particularly in those areas in which the relationship between the police and the community had been characterised by mistrust and conflict. CPF’s have been established at some police stations across the country to ensure that station commanders are held accountable to their communities they serve (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book1, 2014:37). The role of CPF’s has been clearly defined by prescripts as follows: building cooperative relations between the police and communities; to ensure effective communication between the police and communities; to share
information regarding crime in order to assist the police and educate the communities; to act as instrument of building local community with the police; and to ensure that the police are accountable to the local communities they serve (Community Police Forum Pocket Guide, 2014).

A station commander must, subject to the instructions of the Provincial Commissioner, take all reasonable steps to establish a police forum which is broadly representative of the community in the station area under his or her jurisdiction. In order to establish a community based organisations, institutions and interest groups in the station area under his or her jurisdiction, they must determine a suitable date, time and venue for a meeting of all interested persons to establish a community safety forum. It remains the responsibility of the station commander to inform those who will attend the meeting the main objective of the CPF. The station commander should also assist the steering committee to draft the constitution of the CPF (CPF Pocket Book 2014:187). The Community Policing Forum constitutes the second pillar of the strategic focus, which seeks to establish robust and functioning of community police forum structures throughout the province. By way of background, the Provincial Board was elected in October 2012 and is now fully functioning with 25 clusters. A CPF Seminar in August 2014 resolved to roll out training programmes for CPF in the 25 clusters in respect of conflict resolution, the legal framework for CPF as well as criminal justice system and procedure. The roll out has been completed; another milestone achieved by the department relates to the One Million Voices against crime and police killings, this is a project launch by the department in November 2014 during safety month. The police killings have remained a thorny issue not only in the province but throughout the country. There is a strong submission from civil society that those who are involved should be charged with treason since the killing of the police tantamount to high treason.

2.26.10 Establishment of a community police sub-forum

A community police sub forum may be established: in respect of any part of a station area; to deal with policing matters mainly affecting the members of significant section of the community within that particular policing station precinct; a community police forum may, after having taken into account; of the size of the station, the population, the degree of operation independence of satellite police station and crime tendencies within the station area and how these tendencies influence a particular part of the station area (CPF Pocket Book, 2014: 189).

2.26.11 Establishment of Provincial Community Police Boards

A Provincial Commissioner shall, subject to the directions of the member of the Executive Council, be responsible for establishing a provincial community board. The provincial community board shall consist of representatives of cluster community police boards. The Provincial Commissioner and members designated by him/her from time to time for purpose, shall be members of the provincial community police board (CPF Pocket Book 2014: 139). The objectives of community police boards are as follows:

- establishing and maintaining a partnership between the community and the service;
- promoting communication between the service and community;
promoting co-operation between the police and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding the police;
- improving the rendering of police services to the community;
- improving transparency in the police service and accountability of the police to the community; and
- promoting joint problem identification and problem-solving by the police and community (CPF Pocket Book 2014: 138).

2.26.12 Community Safety Forums (CSF)

Community Safety Forums emanate from the requirements outlined in the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) of 1996 and White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998. Both sought to improve, among others, the functioning of the criminal justice system in the local domain and enhance crime prevention activities. Whilst the NCPS and the White Paper created the opportunity for integrated approaches to preventing crime and increasing the efficiency of law enforcement, it failed to stipulate around the methodology and structural arrangement as to exactly how the CSF concept must be implemented.

The Community Safety Forum is based on the premise that increased co-operation and interaction would improve the functioning and deliberations within the local criminal justice system the delivery of crime prevention projects. The CSF does not aim to replace or duplicate any existing structure or forum at local level. It will solely serve as a coordinating structure for collaboration and integrated planning and implementation at local level.

Since the CSF Concept is closely related to community policing forum, a clear distinction needs to be drawn. The former is meant to facilitate the delivery of a multi-sectorial approach on safety in local governmental approach on safety in local level, whilst the latter, is legal community structure established in terms of the South African Police Service Act. It is mandated to facilitate community police relations within a specific police station precinct and serves as the mouthpiece of the community with the police and vice versa on policing matters and other relevant safety issues (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book1, and 2014: 04).

2.26.13 Youth Desk

Youth desk refers to the youth desk referred to in Section 3 of the Constitution. The aims and objectives are as follows: establish and maintain a partnership between the youth and the police service; promote effective communication between the police service and the youth; promote cooperation between the police service and the youth to fulfill the needs of the youth regarding policing; improve the rendering of police services to the youth; improve transparency in the police services and accountability of the police services to the youth; promote joint problem identification and problem-solving by the police service and the youth; promote community policing among the members of the youth in that policing precinct; consult with and advise the Community Policing Forum, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison and Station Commander with regard to all matters pertaining to community policing among the youth in that particular policing precinct (Community Police Forum Pocket Guide, 2014:297).
The safety of young people should be of interest to all involved in shaping the future of the country. Most young people around the world would like to express themselves in places and spaces of their choice and cherish the freedom to enjoy their youth. If they feel unsafe and are hindered by violence or threats to life and property, a very significant stage of their lives is stifled. In South Africa, the youth are often the main victims and perpetrators of crime (CPF Pocket Book 2014).

2.26.14 Composition of youth desk

The Executive Committee of the youth desk consists of the following members:

- Chairperson
- Deputy Chairperson
- Secretary
- Deputy Secretary
- Treasurer
- Public Relations Officer
- Community Police Forum Coordinator of the SAPS
- Eight additional members.

2.26.15 Powers and Functions of Executive Committee

The Executive Committee is responsible for the management of the affairs of the youth desk and it has the authority to attend to any matter that could or might be attended to by the youth desk; without in any way limiting the powers and authority of the Executive Committee and they have the following powers and functions:

- To pass any resolution or take any decision, that may be necessary or expedient in order to achieve the objectives of the youth desk;
- At such intervals as the Executive Committee may require, but at least once every financial year, to cause the accounting records of the youth desk to be audited by an independent auditor appointed by the Executive Committee;
- Subject to approval at a meeting of the youth desk, to form sub-committees from the members of the youth desk for special, general or ad hoc purposes and to delegate to any such sub-committee all or any of the powers conferred on the Executive Committee by this Constitution;
- Subject to approval at a meeting of the youth desk, to institute, conduct, defend, oppose, settle or abandon any legal proceedings, by or against the youth desk, or otherwise concerning the affairs of the youth desk, and to settle or allow time for payment in satisfaction of any debts or any claims or demands by or against the youth desk.
- Subject to approval at the meeting of the youth desk, to invest, reinvest and deal with any monies of the youth desk, not immediately required for the purposes of the youth desk, upon such securities and on such terms as it may deem fit, and from time to time to vary or realize such investments;
- Subject to approval at a meeting of the youth desk, to sell, lease, alienate or otherwise dispose of part or parts of the movable or immovable property or any right of the youth
desk, as it may think most beneficial to the youth desk, and to apply the consideration arising therefrom as it may think most advantageous to the youth desk;


2.26.16 For the CPF’s to be effective, the following must be addressed:

SAPS must fully participate in the CPF meeting at local level. This participation should involve station management and not an individual or individuals assigned to CPF’s; CPF’s must be an inclusive structure and the process of establishing CPF’s needs to address this more effectively; local police stations need to be involved in the establishment of CPF’s but should not run this process; the process should be run through the Provincial Secretariats based on a clear scoping of communities. The structures need to be inclusive rather than based on individuals; a National budget framework must be developed that speaks to the role and functions of CPF’s and budget should then come through Provincial Secretariats; the Civilian Secretariat for the Police needs to assist provinces in this regard; SAPS need to review the training and performance measures regarding community policing and elevate the training of SAPS management in this regard; a national training and induction manual must be developed and implemented by Provincial Secretariats; this should include annual training sessions. Local government structures should be encouraged to support and participate in CPF’s through elected officials (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:38).

The youth remains important partners in the war against crime and the research continue to work with them in this regard. Therefore our efforts have been focused on developing resilience and healthy lifestyles for young people. The Department for Community Safety and Liaison has also been focusing on capacitating CPF Youth Desks in the development of a Youth Safety Strategy (Budget Vote Speech 2016-2017: 09). The department, the police and other stakeholders had successfully held a Youth Summit against crime to enhance the functioning of the youth desk. The department also facilitated the youth desk’s strategic planning session and assisted in hosting of the crime prevention youth dialogue in November 2015 (Budget Speech 2016/17).

2.26.17 The role of the Ward Safety Committee

The Ward Safety Committees are basically located in the ward and they are working hand in hand with ward committees. These structures though formulated under the auspices of the local municipality, should function in a very coordinated fashion with various stakeholders such as CPF, SAPS and CCPA in a ward with sole purpose of dealing with crime. The critical challenge facing these structures is that some other members of the police do not recognise them as legitimate structures as such they do not get full support they deserve even though they were formally put under one umbrella body known as KZNCCPA.

The Ward Safety Committees should work hand in hand with Ward Committees in order to strengthen the service delivery and make sure that communities are safe and secure in their respective wards. The role of the police and municipality is critical in this exercise for these structures to function effectively and efficiently on the ground. It is imperative that the
Department of Community Safety and Liaison should ensure that this community safety structures to work harmoniously and smoothly, and should not compete with one another. There is a tendency that exists whereby certain structure sees itself better than the other and eventually loses focus and derails the process of nation building. Relations at provincial level are driven and coordinated through law enforcement agencies including provincial based safety structures. The Provincial CPF Board, which includes the Youth Desk, enhances the fight against crime in various communities in the province.

The Kwazulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA), is a group of community safety structures which plays a significant role in terms of reducing stock theft more importantly in rural areas. Ward Safety Committees were established through the Holistic Community Liaison Framework which is one of the pillars in the strategic partnership against crime (MINMEC Quarterly Report, KZN, 30 January 2017:02). A model framework is proposed whereby the residents in each voting district shall form a safety team of approximately 10 members and elect from among themselves a coordinator. The terms of reference of the safety team would be to:

- Identify community safety needs in the voting district, including needs relating to infrastructure and environmental design to improve safety;
- Identify policing priorities in the voting district;
- Identify crime trends in the voting district;
- Monitor visible policing on the voting district;
- Forming street committees/community crime prevention association for each street in the voting district comprising 10 members to undertake, street, village and hot spot patrols (Strategic Planning Session, 2017/2018:06).

2.26.18 Rural Safety

The general safety of rural communities in South Africa has remained on the forefront of debates due to the high levels of crime in rural areas and the impact this crime has on rural development. Government and SAPS in particular remain acutely aware of importance of ensuring the safety and security of rural communities and this led to the development of a comprehensive and holistic rural policing strategy. This approach principally aims to contribute towards the creation of a safe rural environment and ensure food security. Current policing strategies aimed at curbing the problem have been framed based on the historical context on how safety was provided to these communities. The rural safety strategy was developed after consultations with key role players and seeks to provide a coherent approach and guidelines for achieving safety and security within the rural environment. Importantly, rural development will be prioritised along with safety (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:29).

Access to justice and safety of rural and farming communities demand special attention. Farming communities and rural areas are very far from national and provincial government, business and non-governmental resources which expose them crime and safety risks. Rural police stations are often isolated and responsible for vast areas. Attendance to domestic violence complaints and child protection are affected by distance and availability of resources. Infrastructure, telephony or roads for example, impact police responses times which increase the risks to potential
Distances from courts impose a burden on witnesses and availability of legal aid could compromise the administration of justice. The full bouquet of services from the criminal justice system therefore, is not readily available to rural and farming communities compared to services to urban areas (Crime Prevention Management, Project Management, 2014:401).

2.26.19 Justice crime prevention and security cluster

Justice crime prevention and security cluster continues to provide strategic inputs in the operation of the South African Police Service through quarterly meetings at the provincial level. JCPS further contributes in the coordination of provincial crime prevention programmes and initiatives which are subsequently implemented by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison. Provincial Joints use to hold regular meetings which use discuss all crime related matters affecting the province. The relations have been strengthened by the presence of traditional leadership in rural areas. The strategic move improved the performance of the police in fighting stock theft in farming community of the province.

Public confidence in the criminal justice system is a necessary and important step in preventing crime and increasing level of safety. The likelihood of crime being committed is increased if the system is regarded as inefficient. Strengthen the criminal justice system comprises the seven point plan. The plan contains seven critical change areas:

- Adopt a single vision and mission leading to a single set of set of objectives, priorities and performance measurement targets for the criminal justice system by the justice crime prevention and security cluster.
- Establish, through legislation or by protocol, a new and realigned single coordinating and management structure for the system, flowing seamlessly from cabinet to each court. Appoint a person from the executive as head of the structure with coordination and management functions, but not executive powers.
- Make substantial changes to the present court process in criminal matters through practical, short and medium term proposal to improve to improve the performance of the courts, especially the regional courts.
- Put into operation key priorities identified for the component parts of the system, which are part of the new court process, especially as it pertains to improving capacity.
- Establish integrated and seamless national criminal justice system information and technology database or system, or both, containing all information relevant to criminal justice system. Review and harmonise the template for gathering information relating to the criminal justice system.
- Modernise, in an integrated and holistic way, all aspects of system and equipment. This would include fast tracking the implementation of current projects and modernization initiatives.
- Involve the public in the fight against crime by introducing changes to community policing, including expanding its role to deal with all matters in the system, such as policing and parole board (National Development Plan, Vision 2030: 351).

Extra police patrols in high crime hot spots reduce crime in those places. Repeat offender units that reduce the time on the streets of mown high risk repeat offenders by monitoring them and
returning them to prison more quickly than when they are not monitored reduces their crimes. Incarceration of offenders who will continue to commit crime prevents crimes they will commit on the street, but the number of crimes prevented by locking up each additional offenders decline with diminishing returns as less active or serious offenders is incarcerated (Sherman, Gottfredson, MacKenzie, Eck, Reuter & Bushway, 1998:08).

Police effectiveness has traditionally been measured by the reactive capabilities of the police in dealing with the crime that has already been committed. Although crime prevention has been regarded as a critical function of the police, not much research has been done on the way the police should be measured on this function. Even though the police crime statistics indicate the overall success largely of crime prevention capabilities of the police, at operational level, police effectiveness is mostly measured by factors such as reaction time, clearance rate and arrest. These well-established traditional methods of measuring police performance, are important factors for crime prevention through general deterrence, and will be indicated in this research project (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1), Marelize Schoeman 2016:98).

Measuring the crime prevention activities of the police will ensure that the performance of the police as a whole is precise. Apart from their support and management functions, police forces were traditionally divided into two core areas of operational activity, namely: patrol (usually uniform) and investigations. The functions of these two roles are so different that independent sets of indicators are required for each. Although no one can argue that the measurement of police performance through statistics on arrests is essential and important, no police scientist or practitioner could argue that statistics on arrests made, lean more heavily towards the measurement of reactive than proactive unit.

There is a need to develop a comprehensive method of measuring the performance of the police to ensure that both the proactive and reactive activities are accurately measured. This could make the police see the value of value of performing well in crime prevention activities and inculcate the holistic crime prevention culture which will ensure that there is a correlation between police effectiveness, efficiency, crime and the public fear of crime (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1), Marelize Schoeman 2016). In any democratic dispensation, public participation is a widespread concern and highly topical to guide a discourse on openness, transparency and inclusiveness in governance. The South African Constitution and the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, stipulate that the notion of public participation in South African Police Service is embedded in an approach focusing on community policing. This type of policing is generally more community centered and aims to encourage the active involvement of community member in the affairs of the police.

The National Rural Safety Strategy of the South African Police Service, a comprehensive strategy, should be implemented in its totality. The stakeholders who were party to the drafting of the plan should assist in monitoring the implementation of the strategy to ensure the effectiveness there of and new stakeholders such as farm workers committees and farm watch should be brought on board. Communication tools and early warning systems should be prioritised to address the impediment of distance and infrastructure. Safety and crime prevention training and capacity building workshops should be provided to farmers and farm workers jointly. Safety plans for each farm should be developed taking on board the safety needs of
everyone especially the most vulnerable and most exposed (Crime Prevention Management, Project Management, 2014:402).

Traditional African societies have a unique worldview about justice that is often in opposition to Western judicial philosophies. Differences are also evident in the conceptualization of justice. Omale (Journal of Criminology 29 (1)/2016:35, Marelize Schoeman 2016), postulates that the introduction of Western-based criminal justice system during the colonisation of Sub-Saharan Africa resulted in the disintegration of Africa’s rich indigenous justice traditions. Consequently, traditional restorative-orientated practices were replaced with a Western individualistic and retributively-oriented justice system. Notwithstanding these westernised influences, traditional justice practices associated with Ubuntu philosophy still remain relevant in the shaping of South African’s current legislation and practices.

Traditional African customs and laws are grounded in the Ubuntu philosophy. The concept Ubuntu is present in most African cultures and represents ontological awareness of what it means to be an African. Ubuntu is a moral philosophy that, on an ontological level, encompasses African life relating to the essence of being, identity and living. Ubuntu therefore also shaped people’s perceptions about crime and justice and, in the past, served as the foundation for control and justice in the African societies (Journal for Criminology 29 (10/2016:35), Marelize Schoeman 2016:35.

2.27 Summary

Crime is a serious problem in our country. Solutions that work and that are cost effective must be found. Crime prevention is just this sort of solution. A community crime prevention strategy is a framework for the crime prevention activities that will make areas safer (Community Based crime prevention 2000:03). The National Crime Prevention Strategy is based on the four pillars, namely: the criminal justice process aims to make the CJS more efficient and effective; reducing crime through environmental design focuses on design system to reduce the opportunity to crime and increase the ease of detection and identification of criminals; public values and education concern initiatives aimed at changing the way communities react to crime and violence; trans-national crime prevention aims at imposing the control over cross border traffic related to crime and reducing the refuge which the region offenders to international crime syndicate (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996).

The National Development Plan, Vision 2030 has set five priorities for the achievement of its vision: strengthen the criminal justice; make the police service professional; demilitarise the police; build safety using an integrated approach, and build community participation in safety (National Development Plan Vision 2030).

The household crimes measured in VOCS are theft of motor vehicles, housebreaking or burglary, home robbery, theft of livestock and other animals, theft of crops planted by households, murder, trafficking in persons, theft out of motor vehicles, deliberate damaging/destruction of dwellings, motor vehicle vandalism/deliberate damage of motor vehicles and theft of bicycles. In KwaZulu-Natal the percentage of households and individuals affected by crime was 7,5% in 2015/16, while in 2016/17, it was 7,8% (Victims of Crime Survey 2016/17:05).
The types of violent crime have been highlighted in this chapter and it was highlighted that serious and violence against people in and around their own homes and on small holdings and farms is still increasing. The number of recorded incidents of attacks on farms and small holdings increased substantially between 1997 and 1998. Hijacking of motor vehicles in South Africa is a daily occurrence and remains one of our country’s most violent crimes. In the majority of reported hijackings, the most common weapon that is being used is firearm such as 9mm pistol and sometimes AK 47s. The cases of hijacking especially in areas such as Jozini, Mlabuyalingana and Mpanageni remain stubbornly high. According to SAPS statistics, the criminals are nowadays targeting government departments, and double cab or 4X4 bakkies. Most of the time, these stolen vehicles go to our neighbouring countries such as Mozambique and Swaziland. This problem has compelled the province of KwaZulu-Natal to devise a prompt strategy by deploying additional soldiers and volunteers from the Department of Community Safety and Liaison.

Taxi-related violence in KwaZulu Natal, on the other hand, is characterised by sporadic clashes between taxi operators, whereas bus services and tension within the executive structures of tax organisations also play a role, especially in and around Durban, Pietermaritzburg and even at Msinga. The province of KwaZulu-Natal is presently leading in terms of killing police officials, followed by Gauteng and lastly the Eastern Cape. For the past two decades, South Africa has been in the grip of the most violent period of its history. The country has become renowned for its high level of violence. While many white South Africans have been isolated from the political violence, members of the black communities are exposed to violence on a daily basis.

The substantial drop in the number of incidents of serious crime in Kwazulu-Natal over the festive season (December 2007/January 2008), can be attributed to the excellent strategies implemented by the South African Police Services and other agencies to ensure a safe and secure festive season. The high visibility of police officials at shopping centres, the city centres and the beach thwarted the attempts of criminals from preying on visitors as well as the residents of the province. Thus far the police have managed to arrest 11 309 suspects in the following serious cases during the operations: murder, attempted murder, aggravated robbery, common robbery, rape, assault GBH, assault common and car hijacking.

The literature review is not optional for any research project and must be done. Empirical research is always informed by previously published research. At the outset of the process, any criminologist will ask himself or herself a fundamental question: what are the aims or objective of my research. There are general criminological journals that cover the breadth and depth of the discipline and other that concentrate on key areas of the criminal justice process like the police and correctional or prison and probation services (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:18). There is a correlation between SAPS statistics and South Africa on Victims of Crime Survey, 2015/16 with regard to contact crimes. The general safety of rural communities in South Africa has remained on the forefront of debates due to the high levels of crime in rural areas and the impact this crime has on rural development. The state and the police in particular remain acutely aware of the importance of ensuring the safety and security of rural communities and this has led to the development of a comprehensive and holistic rural policing strategy (Crime Prevention Management Curse, Book 1, 2014:29). In rural areas, the rural safety forum plays a significant
role in terms of curbing crime such as stock theft, veld fires and theft in general. Such kinds of crime prevention have started to bear much fruit, and we have started seeing even farmers association beginning to actively participating in these forums.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

There are several issues involved in the balance between creative opportunity and maintaining scientific principles: creative exploration makes qualitative research we all do in everyday life; as in the rest of everyday life; researchers, like other people, are ideologically motivated. Approaching the research setting appropriately involves interaction between the culture of the setting and culture of research; accounting for the research strategy; to demonstrate how the judicious balance is maintained; requires careful articulation which resides in the conventions of research language; and all in all, qualitative research is a learning culture (Holiday, 2016:09). In many ways qualitative research is what we all do in everyday life. We continually solve our problems about how we should behave with other people in a wide range of settings. To do this we need to research not only how others behave but also how we should behave with them. This would involve analysing behaviour and language, working out how and when to be formal or informal, learning new technical terms, specialist turns of phrase, what constitute humour, when to be serious and when not; attitudes, values, and relative status (Holiday, 2016:09).

All of us every day try to see patterns in what goes on around us. We want to understand, and we want some ability to predict what will happen in the future. At the least we’d like some idea about the likely consequences of the various options available to us. Social research is an attempt to make sense of our social life. Social research of course services many purposes, namely; explorations (Babbie (a) 1992: 90). A clear distinction exist between a research design is the plan, recipe or blueprint for the investigation, and as such provides a guideline according to which a selection can be made of which data collection method will be most appropriate to the researcher’s goal and to the selected design.

Quantitative data collection methods are often regarded as measuring instruments. It is thus essential that the researcher understand certain concepts and principles that are fundamental to measurement before considering the specific measuring instrument, namely questionnaires, checklist, indexes and scales. Later in this chapter, the researcher will briefly discuss the following concept and principles in this regard:

- The concept of measurement
- The validity and reliability of measuring instrument; and
- Level of measurement (De Vos, Straydom, Fouche & Delport, 2002: 165)
3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 Research Methodology

Research methodology is what makes social science scientific. Research methodology aims at the following:

- Study of research procedure and setting of standards,
- Selection of suitable research procedure and techniques, and
- Facilitating the task of the researcher in the selection of the subjects, clarification of terms, explication of research procedure, systemization of empirical findings and writing of reports.

Research methodology thus enables the researcher to select his research methods and research techniques. Research methodology is what makes the social science scientific. The question is an important one, with a long historical debate. A question for which there are multiple answers do not mean anything goes, it means that social researchers choose from alternative approaches to science. Its approach has its own set of philosophical assumptions and principles and its own stance on how to do research. Carl Couch (Neuman, 1997:61) summarised it as follows: “The ontological and epistemological positions of these... research traditions provide the foundation of one of the more bitter quarrels on contemporary sociology... Each side claims that the frame of thought they promote provides a means for acquiring knowledge about social phenomena, and each regard the efforts of the other as at best misguided... They differ on what phenomena should be attended to, how one is to approach phenomena, and to how the phenomena are to be analyzed.”

Research methodology is not simple. It requires skills and sophistication merely to determine the kind of results that you want to examine and what to make of them. It can be seen that the research methodology requires experience and information about the topic being examined. You must know as much as possible about ins and outs of agency operations and the structure of a particular agency in order to conduct on research on program innovation or to measure the impact and importance of existing operations. Unless you or others with whom you can consult freely, are thoroughly acquainted with the organization, you may overlook some very important result of the work or of the change that you are interested to examining (Neuman 1997:61). Research methodology may be considered the set of procedures designed to achieve clear thinking. To achieve goal of clear thinking and systematic decision-making, procedures to be employed always use observable data collected in manner that others can duplicate.

3.2.2 Research Procedures

Criminologists have approached the study of crime by using a variety of types of approaches and research methods. It is the nature of investigation, which inter alia, determines the procedure to be used. Each research method used implies a unique independent approach to crime as a phenomenon and must of necessity lead to particularistic findings and utterances. Since the criminological research is expected to produce generally valid and acceptable findings and
conclusions, criminology needs its own unique analysis methods. Such methods should however not lead to bias (Ndabandaba, 1981:5).

3.3 Different Research Procedures

3.3.1 Analysis of literature

An important aspect of preparation consists in the use of literature. Every serious piece of research includes review of relevant literature. Although the researcher’s idea to some extent is personally generated, to a large extent, the idea comes from a collective body of prior work referred to as literature. Reference to literature helps to uncover the following:

- Idea about the variables that have proven important and unimportant in a given fields of study
- Information about work that has already been done and which can be meaningfully extended or applied
- The status of work in terms of conclusion and application.
- Meaning have and relationship between variables that the researcher has chosen and wishes to hypothesize about (Ndabandaba, 1981:5).

3.3.2 The Statistical Methods

The collection of statistic material on crime is one of the most common features of criminology research. The criminologist that uses statistical techniques often limits himself or herself to the most elementary of such techniques. Much of this work in these fields consists of drawing fairly obvious. Though often useful conclusions from the figures presented makes it easier for the researcher to grasp the significance of the conclusion and to follow the crime movements over a period of time.

From the official statistics, the researcher can further elaborate the picture given in the official volume, for instance, by determining inter alia, the age and sex ratio of crime over a period of years for specific offences thereby laying the foundation for future research. This method serves to quantity process, sum up and condense specific characteristics and quality of phenomena or problems (Ndabandaba 1981). The rationale of statistical description resides mainly on:

- An endeavor to obtain exactitude in the scientific practice of criminology
- The need to lay down the numerical ground plan on which higher order research Analyses (explanation, prediction and control) can be built
- The realisation to work with universe (total population) is often either impossible or impractical (Ndabandaba, 1981).

3.3.3 The Socio-historical Method

One type of research that is similar to comparative research in contemporary societies is historical research. Instead of studying crime in number of today’s societies, the socio-historical
method examines crime at different times in the past of one society and looks at the way in which crime has changed with the economic and development of that society.

The socio-historical method usually requires reliance on non-statistical material. The researcher therefore uses accounts by observers of time, legislative hearings, and narrative material from court records and other documentary evidence to learn about in the past (Ndabandaba 1981).

3.3.4 The Comparative Method

This method involves relating data to other and is also employed for retrieving the findings of different investigations. Only through the comparison of results and views of different investigators in the same field, is it possible to arrive at a fuller meaning of and insight into the problem of crimes in KwaZulu-Natal.

Another application of the comparative method is to compare one phenomenon with the same phenomena at different times and places. The criminology researcher may be subject to certain reservations, compare crimes of violence in one area with those in another area, or the incidents of crime of one racial group with that of another (Ndabandaba, 1981:6).

3.3.5 Interpretation and integration of data

Data analysis is categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising of data to obtain answers to research questions. Analysis is accompanied by a closely related procedure interpretation, which means to explain or find meaning. The findings of research study are interpreted on two levels. Firstly the relations within the data of the study are explained. The second level of interpretation is the one that places the findings in broader perceptive. Linking one’s result to other knowledge, particularly to other findings and theory, does this.

In the explanatory investigation (analysis) various types of relationships are hypothetically postulated and then tested for validity. The following explanatory techniques are available to the researcher for hypothesising and rejecting the relationships, and making tabular and correctional analyses. Integration, unlike interpretation is the processes that begins in the first phase of an investigation and continues until the last (Ndabandaba, 1981:8).

3.4 Research Techniques

There are many research techniques, which the criminal justice researchers use over and above the research methods as discussed. These include, inter alia, prediction techniques, questionnaires and social control techniques.

3.4.1 Prediction Techniques

In this study, two types of techniques will be focused on namely, predicting group and individual behaviour. They are known as categorisation and extrapolation. In the process of process of categorisation, a group of people is juristically dichotomised into a criminal and non-criminal
group. In extrapolation, the behaviour, feelings or thoughts of individuals over a reasonable period of time are represented graphically in order to observe tendencies of progress or otherwise and then make predictions (Ndabandaba, 1981:8).

Prediction, while not only an object of scientific endeavour, is certainly among its most important ones. All those concerned with the administration of criminal justice have been trying to predict throughout the year consciously or unconsciously, but it is only in the course of the present century that their efforts have been subjected to systematic and scientific scrutiny. Whereas the follow-up studies are essentially backward looking, by its very nature looks forward, but has to use material supplies by follow-up work (Ndabandaba 1981:8).

### 3.4.2 Selecting the sample

As the concept of sampling is one of the most important elements of the total research endeavour, it is imperative that the researcher should understand it clearly before selecting a sampling plan and conducting the pilot study and main research. Kerlinger (Schaik, 2002:197) offers the following comments, which may be helpfully our initial attempt.

In order to learn something about people, for instance, we take several people whom we know or do not know and study them. After the “study” the researcher will certainly come up with conclusions, often about the people in general. Some such method relies on much folk wisdom. Commonsensical observations about people, their motives and their behaviours are derived, for the most part, from observation and experiences with relatively few people.

Indeed most of the world’s knowledge is based on samples, most often inadequate samples. A process of constant comparison is necessary to understand all instances of the cases under investigation. Extreme or deviant cases are necessary to understand all instances of the cases under investigation. Extreme or deviant cases that illustrate maximum variety on variables are of major importance, especially as far as the qualitative research is concerned, where smaller numbers are utilised. Sampling, according to Kerlinger (De Vos et al. 2000:198), therefore means taking any portion of a population or universe. This definition does not say that the sample taken or drawn, as researcher’s say- is in fact considered to be representative.

Under normal circumstances, it is impossible if not difficult to involve everyone in the entire population in the research project, for simple two main reasons, namely: cost and time. In the majority of surveys, especially where the population that is being studied is fairly large, we normally make use of a sample. Since the goal of a survey is to use the sample to learn about the population, it is very important for the sample to be drawn in such a way that it would be valid to generalise its results to the population (Maree 2010: 1720).

A sample can be viewed as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which we are interested. We study the sample in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn (De Vos 2002: 199). There are two major classes to which sampling methods belong. These are probability methods and non-probability methods. The probability methods are based on the principles of randomness and probability theory, while non-probability methods are not.
3.4.3 Probability sampling

Two major groups of sampling procedure exists, the first one is probability sampling, which is based on randomisation while the second one, non-probability sampling, is done without randomisation. In the most general sense to Seaberg (De Vos et al. 2000: 203), a probability sample is one in which each person or other sampling unit in the population is based on some sort of random procedure. The best known kinds of probability sampling are simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling and panel sampling. In sampling methods belonging to this class, each element in the population has a known, non-zero probability of being selected. Also the selection of elements is completely random. This means that an objective mechanism is used in the selection procedure.

3.4.4 Simple random sampling

In this situation, each individual case in the population theoretically has an equal chance to be selected for the sampling. The following may serve an example: list the site numbers or the street numbers of all respondents. Decide on the sample size required, e.g. 50. If all members consist of one, two, or three digits, for example and they are no duplicate numbers, a random table of three figures can be used. Starting at any chosen point in the table, taking three digits at the time in regarding horizontal or vertical, set of three digits are chosen and written down (De Vos et al. 2000: 205).

3.4.5 Systematic sampling

Here, only the first case is selected randomly, preferably from a random table. All subsequently cases are selected according to a particular interval, e.g. each fifth or tenth case on a list of names depending on the percentage sample needed. Alternatively the researcher can decide from the beginning that each tenth case on an alphabetical list will be selected, e.g. numbers 10, 20, 40, and 50 and so on. Effort is saved by this method, but it entails the danger of bias in that the selected interval could accidental core inside with one or another characteristic of the study group (De Vos et Al 200: 205).

3.4.6 Stratified random system

This type of sampling is suitable for heterogeneous populations because the inclusion of small subgroups, percentagewise, can be ensured. Stratification consists of the universe being divided into a number of strata that are homogeneous mutually exclusive, and the numbers of which are homogeneous with regard to some characteristics such as gender, home language or age. This kind of sample is mainly used to acquire sufficient representation in the sample. The desired number of persons is then selected proportional to the population within each of the different strata (De Vos et al. 2000: 205).

3.4.7 Cluster sampling

This type of sample is sometimes used when a sample frame such as a list of names is not available, but only a map of the relevant geographical area is available. Cluster sampling is also
employed when economic considerations and cluster criteria are significant for the study. This
method also has the advantage of concentrating the field study in a specific selection of the
greater geographical area, and thus helps save cost and time. The researcher must attempt to
retain areas that are naturally grouped together, such as suburbs or streets. Each cluster on its
own must represent the whole population, but variation between clusters must be small.
Vander der Watt (De Vos et al 2000: 206), states that sampling in this case consists of the
creation of a number of externally homogeneous but internally heterogeneous clusters in the
relevant population, and subsequently random selection of one or another of this clusters in the
sample. Suppose there are nine suburbs in a city, which is part of the investigation, and that,
three of them are homogeneous with regard to the age of residents. One of each of the three
categories can be selected in the sample, i.e. three suburbs from nine are thus involved.

The more clusters that are included in the study, the more representative of the population the
sample obviously is. Seaberg (De Vos et al 2000:206) also mentions that the more clusters are
drawn, the less error will occur, but the higher the cost factors will be. Alternatively, the fewer
clusters, the less representative the sample is of the population.

3.4.8 Panel sampling

A panel sample means that a fixed panel of persons is selected from the population of persons
involved in particular issues. This panel naturally has to be proportional. If a certain group of
chain res, for example, want to compose a panel from their clients to test a certain product, this
method of sampling can used (De Vos et al, 2000:206).

3.4.9 Sampling techniques

In selecting probability-sampling techniques, the researcher ensures that he or she will be able to
make confident generalisation. A researcher draws a sample from larger pool of cases or
elements. A sampling element is the unit of analysis or cases in a population. It can be a person,
a group, an organisation, a written document, or simply a message or even a social action (e.g. an
arrest, a divorce, a kiss) that is being measured (Newman, 1997:202). The large pool is the
population, which has an important role in sampling.

Probability sampling allows the researcher to specify the probability that a unit in the total
population will be included in the sample. Probability samples that rely on random process
require more work than random ones. A researcher must identify specific sampling element (e.g.
Person) to include in the sample (Babbie, 1990:70).

Non-probability sampling techniques are employed when precise representativeness is not
required. Non-probability sampling is less expensive and can be conducted on the spur of the
moment (Bailey, 1987:92). Neuman (1997:204) had tabulated three examples of non-probability
sampling: hazard, accidental or convenience sampling.
3.4.10. Hazard Sampling

Can produce ineffective, highly unrepresentative samples and is not recommended as such samples are cheap and quick, however, bias and serious misrepresentation can result.

3.4.11 Quota Sampling

Is an improvement over haphazard sampling but it too is a weak type of sampling. Quota sampling is an improvement because the researcher can ensure that population differences are in the sample. Quota sample is often used by market researchers. The main purpose is to draw a sample that is as close to a replica of the population as possible and that represents the population as such. The categories can be gender, age, or occupation. Babbie (De Vos 2002:207), adds that the researcher must be fully aware of, for example the relationship between the gender and age in the relevant population. Quota sampling is one of the first surveys that attempt to bring a scientific approach to survey research (Treadwell, 2011: 109).

3.4.12 Dimensional samples

Dimensional sampling is viewed by Bailey (De Vos, 2002:207) as a multidimensional form of quota sampling. The idea is to specify all variables in the population that are of interest to the investigation and then see to it that each dimension is represented by at least one case.

3.4.13. Target samples

This is mainly a strategy for obtaining systematic information when random sampling is impossible and when accidental sampling cannot be strictly implemented as consequence of the hidden nature of the problem. Waters and Bienacki (De Vos, 2002: 208) define a target sample as a purposeful, systematic method by which controlled lists of specific population within geographical districts are developed, and detailed plans are designed to recruit adequate numbers of cases within each of the targets.

3.4.14. Snowball sample

Snowball involves approaching a single case that is involved in the phenomenon to be investigated in order to gain information from other similar persons. In turn, this person is required to identify further people who could make up the sample. The searcher proceeds in this way until he reaches the sufficient number of cases to make up his sample (De Vos, 2002: 208). The term ‘snowball’ is used most often in academic research. In private sector research, it is known as referrals (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011: 94). Snowball sampling involves the researcher asking participants if they know of other people, friends, work colleagues or members of the family who might be willing to be interviewed (Merril & West, 2009:108).

3.4.15. Spatial sample

This type of sample is used in cases of highly temporary populations, eg. a sporting event or the scene of an accident. Researchers should decide before hand, as far as possible, how this
population will be approached in order to get more or less representative views from respondents (De Vos, 2002:208).

**3.4.16. Purposive or Judgmental Sampling**

Purposive sampling is an acceptable kind of sampling for sampling special situations. It uses the judgment of an expert in selecting cases or it selects cases with specific purposes in mind (Neuman, 1997:206). For the purpose of this study, quota sampling was used not only to collect data from the respondent but also to enrich the study. Maxfield and Babbie (1995:206) opined, “…Occasionally it may be appropriate to select a sample on the basis of the researcher’s own knowledge and population, its element and the nature of research aims—in short based on the researchers judgment and the purpose of the study.”

The nature of the research approach is exploratory, descriptive and comparative. The research is explanatory in that it seeks to gather information and gain insight into the phenomenon of violent crime, which considered being a major social problem. It is descriptive in that it seeks to identify and verify the influence of various factors on violent crimes. The research is also comparative in that it makes a systematic and explicit comparison between the numbers of factors which contribute towards criminal victimization (Van Velzen, 1998:16).

This method involves relating data to other data and is also employed for reviewing the findings of different researchers. Only through the comparison of results and views of different researchers in the same field, is it possible to arrive at a fuller meaning of and insight into the problem of crimes of violence. Another application of the comparative method is to compare one phenomenon with the same phenomenon at different times and places. The criminological researcher may, subject to certain reservations, compare crimes of violence in one area with those in another area, or the incidence of violence of one racial group with that of another.

Empirical research methods in behavioural science, most investigators would agree, include a wide variety of laboratory and non-laboratory procedures. Taking a broad view, we might say that the procedures that are available are employed in three general kinds of empirical investigation:

- Descriptive research investigations
- Relational research investigations
- Experimental research investigations (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991:9-10)

Descriptive research refers to an investigatory focus that tends to have as its goal the careful mapping out of a situation or set of events in order to describe what is happening behaviourally. This focus does not by definition directly concern itself with causal explanations, except perhaps speculatively. This is what is meant by rational research, which has its focus on the description of how and what happens, along with changes in some other set of observations. Research is rational when two or more variables or conditions are measured and related to one another. That is what is generally meant by experimental research, the focus of which is the identification of causes, i.e. what leads to what. Rational research can only rarely provide such information and then only under very special conditions.
The term validity can be defined in several different ways. One way of defining it refers to the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure (test validity), and another way refers to whether a particular construct is an appropriate image or idea as an explanatory term (construct validity). In another set of studies, the investigators sought to extend these concepts of validity with regard to the Markowe-Crowne scale and the construct of need for social approval.

The method used was a derivative of a conformity procedure pioneered by Social Psychologist, Solomon Asch. A group of subjects were required to make judgments on specific issues. Each judgment was to be stated aloud, as the purpose of this procedure was to permit an assessment of the effects of earlier subjects’ judgment on the judgment of subsequent subjects.

In order to control the judgments made earlier, accomplices of the experimenters served as pseudosubjects. All the pseudosubjects made the same uniform judgment, but it was one that was quite clearly in error. Conformity was defined as the real subject’s “going along with” (conformity to) the majority in his or her own judgment rather than giving the objectively correct response (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991:17).

3.5. The gathering of information.

3.5.1 Interviews

Interviews are one of the most widely used tools in criminological research. An interview is a serious conversation directed to definite purpose other than satisfaction in the conversation itself. The setting of the interview may be formal or informal but in every case seeks to obtain information, give information and influence or be influenced by others.

In comparing interviews with questionnaires, Nachmias (Nachmias 1992:340) state the following:
The interview allows greater flexibility in the questioning process. To the degree that the flexibility increases, the less structured to the interview. The interviews also allow greater control over the interviewing situation. An interview can, for example, ensure that the respondents answer the questions in the appropriate sequence. The interview result in a higher response rate than the mail questionnaire because respondents who normally would not respond to a mail questionnaire can be easily be reached and interviewed. The interview can collect supplementary information about the respondent, which can aid the researcher in the interpretation of the results. However, the cost of interviewing is significantly higher than that of questionnaires. Moreover, the lack of standardisation in the data collection process makes interviewing highly vulnerable to the bias of the interviewer Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991:17).

3.5.2 Questionnaires

In this study, questionnaires will be used as one of tools that is necessary to collect data from the respondents. Like interviews, questionnaires also rely upon self-report by the respondent. Unlike the interviews; however, questionnaires are for written responses and are normally self-administered. Contrasting questionnaires with interviews brings to light the following: the
researchers should be able to convert into data the information directly given by a subject or respondent i.e. his knowledge, values, preferences, attitudes and beliefs, use questionnaires and interviews; questionnaires and interviews are used by the researchers can also be discover what experiences have taken place and what is occurring at the present time. Questionnaires and interviews are a way of obtaining data about person by asking them questions and observing their behavior.

In preparing questionnaires, a researcher should be guided by the following question: to what extent might a question influence respondent to show him or herself in good light?; to what extent might a question influence respondents to be unduly helpful by attempting to anticipate what researchers want to hear or find out?; to what extent might a question be asking for information about respondents that they are not certain, and perhaps, not likely to know about themselves (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991: 18).

The questionnaires were distributed in and around Umsinga area to give the respondents an equal opportunity to participate in the research project. The services of the volunteers from Department of Community Safety and Liaison were utilised and they were able to reach out to communities in places such as Msinga mall, pension pay outs, and community meetings. The questionnaires were also distributed to the officials from Department of Justice, Correctional Services and Department of Police. The last batch was distributed to CPF’S, Community Crime Prevention Association (CCPA), Izinduna and Amakhosi.

3.6 Theory and research

The purpose of scientific theory is to summarise in a systematic and formal manner the available knowledge in a given realm of inquiry. A theory consists of a set of assumptions, concepts regarding events, situations, individuals and the group and proposition that describe the interrelationship among the various assumption and concepts. A theory attains its status by drawing inferences from observation, deducing consequences, testing those consequences and then modifying and inferential structure (Binder & Geis 1983:4).

Theories are sometimes capable of organising facts that seem widely disparate into the position that explains all of them. For instance, a single theory of the operation of gravity explains such diverse things as the movement of tides, the erect posture of trees, and difficulty of writing on the ceiling with the ballpoint pen (Binder & Geis, 1983:4). The purpose of theory is to summarise and organise knowledge. The purpose of research is to refine that knowledge.

In criminal justice, we might want to know under what conditions the addition of new officers to the police department leads to decreases in crime levels, the morale of members of the department and, perhaps, more favourable attitudes among citizens about the adequacy of protection that they being afforded. Perhaps all these ends will be achieved by increasing the number of sworn officers in departments. On the other hand, the crime rate may be reduced but morale many suffer because there are now too many places in what earlier were smaller, more comparable groups of law enforcement officers were strongly recommended.
Moreover, it is likely that increasing the personnel in a police departments leads to other outcomes that were unanticipated in the initial planning of the research but, nevertheless, extremely important. Because of the seemingly limitless possibilities for self-deception displayed by human beings, an elaborate set of procedures has evolved over the years to make the research endeavour as immune to human failings as possible. That set of procedures is widely referred to a research methodology which seeks to guide against the following:

3.6.1 Error of observation

Humans not only fail to see important features in given scene but also often invent false observations. Attend session of a court in your neighborhood and observe how inadequately witnesses remember the details of events and person that they are attempting to describe. Experiments have been carried out which attempt to have people who report that there was an interval of two minutes between first and second criminal episode close their eyes and not reopen them until they believe that two minutes has elapsed.

3.6.2 Selective observation

It is notable that different people viewing the same event or phenomenon will notice different things, according to their interest and their biases. That is, we all tend at times to see those things that we want to see, rather than the true picture of what we are looking at. In addition, we also select for observation matters that are of importance to us.

3.6.3 Error of interpretation

Our personal biases, our fears and our inclinations determine not only what we observe but also how we interpret what we have observed. A further source of misinterpretation lies in failure to be aware of alternative explanations for the relationship between phenomena (Binder & Geis 1983:6).

3.6.4 Incorrect Generalisation

This error results in large parts from failure to attend scrupulously to the materials, which forms the basis of conclusions. It may involve inadequate ability to think and reason logically, or it may involve the tendency to come to conclusions that are desired rather than those that are dictated by available information (Binder & Geis 1983).

3.6.5 Dependence on Authority

Many (if not most) of our beliefs are based on the statements of people we consider authorities. In the instance of criminal activity, our decision-making is frequently based on the positions of the chief police or prosecuting attorney, rather than on careful analysis of events and relationships. In criminal trials, we tend to rely on what we read in daily newspapers and seen on television newscast. Notethe observation of Felix Frank, a former Supreme Court justice: “it is my habit not to read accounts of trials as reported in the press unless the press purports to report the trial verbatim.My experience during those years about trials in which I took part as I saw
them reported even in the best papers was distortion, mutilation and at best opaque accounts of what took place in the courtroom (Binder & Geis, 1983:6-7).

3.6.6 Inappropriate use of evidence

Data may be based upon perfectly accurate observation and seem appropriate evidence to support the certain decision, yet actually may misrepresent the phenomena. To illustrate: if we are interested in measuring the subsequent criminal behaviour, we cannot rely with too much assurance on police statistical reports, because the police do not apprehend all offenders. In addition, those persons that they do catch most certainly represent a particular kind of criminals or delinquent population (Binder & Geis, 1983:71). If we resort to self-reports of criminal activity, we are faced with a host of similar kind of problems in obtaining the accurate indication of criminal activity in order to conduct good research. For one obvious thing, some people we talk to will lie to us, either out of uncertainly about what we intend to do with the information they are reporting or perhaps because they want to exaggerate their badness or criminal reputation.

3.7 The Research Process

Much of social research is conducted to explore a topic, to provide a beginning familiarity with that topic. In this case the researcher will attempt to familiarise himself with the phenomenon of crime in KwaZulu-Natal. This purpose is typical when a researcher is examining a new interest or when the subject of study is itself relatively new and unstudied. The researcher will also start this project with the focus on crime in KwaZulu-Natal.

Research methodology is what makes social science scientific. Research methodology aims at the following: studying the research procedure and setting of standards; selection of suitable research procedure and techniques; and facilitating the task of the researcher in the selection of subjects, clarification of terms, explication of research procedures, systematisation of empirical findings and writing of reports. Research methodology thus enables the researcher to select his research methods and research techniques (Van der Walt, Cronje & Smit 1982:169).

The goal of every research study is based on the assumption that all behaviour and events are orderly and that there are effects, which have discoverable uses. Research is thus a formal, intensive systematic appreciation of the method of the study problems; a systematic attempt to provide answers to questions and a research of truth. The scientist in research employs scientific methods in order to explain, predict and control the phenomena. The scientist’s aim in research cannot be reached unless he uses the research methods. A scientific method is a way of planning, verifying and systematising action (or work) that serves as a method of work (possibly assisted by aids) with the use what is scientifically knowledgeable to form science, verifies and systematises knowledge. A method may therefore be regarded as the way by which the perceptible generalisation is transformed into tested and systematised theories. Research methods are of importance in any investigation. Through their use, the researcher can realise the phases of the research process which include the collection of data, systematisation, processing and explanation (Van der Walt, Cronje & Smit, 1982:168-169).
3.8 The study of crime

The study of crime, criminals and criminal laws is of ancient origin. Historically the primary focus has been an attempt to explain the behaviour of criminals. The cause of crime is explored through discussion of biological, psychological, economic and sociological theories (Van der Walt et al. 1992). However, the modern study of crime involves more than an attempt to understand why people violate the law. The discipline of criminology includes the sociology of law, which analyses why some acts and not others are defined as crime, and a study of the social response to crime, which examines why some people are processed through the system which others who commit the same acts are not processed. These areas of focus are not always separable.

Crimes which are *mala in se* are those that are evil in themselves such as rape, murder, robbery, arson and aggravated assaults. There is a general agreement that such acts are criminal. Conversely, *mala prohibita* crimes are such as public drunkenness, urinating in public, etc., is considered evil because they are forbidden. Historically there was a little difference between *mala in se* and *mala prohibita* crimes, because in most primitive societies, morality, sin and law are not distinguished (Van der Walt et al. 1982).

3.9 The role of the researcher

When we study criminological research the researcher’s role must be the major role. The role of researcher is not only the role researchers have common but it is also the role in which they perhaps have most experience and rank highest. The researcher can scarcely divest themselves of this view, but some groups in the community may regard this as alien idea. The esteem in which research and researchers are held must spring from their contributions to the community and from the degree in which their fellow citizens of varying kinds appreciate their achievements. One field of research may be held in greater steam than others and be appreciated to some extent by other groups of society (Boalt, 1969:6).

The present study will try to unpack the main causes of crime in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The environmental, social as well as political factors will be deeply analysed with the view to address this kind of phenomenon including the nature and extent of crime and the underlining causes of crime in the region.

This province has experienced vast violation of women and children’s rights such as domestic violence and raping of young children. Domestic violence, especially in the Zulu culture is regarded as a norm because women are always treated as children. The Zulu speaking people predominately occupy the province and this practice normally happens in both rural and urban areas (Ilanga Newspaper 2016). The high level of young babies being raped is always accompanied by a cultural belief and myth that if you rape a young child then you will be cured from HIV/AIDS. In rural areas the traditional healers make people believe that they can treat the pandemic. This phenomenon has exerccabated by the fact that renowned Pastor in Durban from Nala Ministry has publicly informed the people that he can cure the pandemic through his water bottle that he has prayed for. This has angered the MEC for KZN Health Department Dr
Sibongiseni Dlomo, and he has condemned this comments as malicious and misleading the public (Ukhozi FM 2016).

The province is unique in the sense that it is closely related or situated with well-known borders such as Golela, Mahamba next to Swaziland as well as Suthu boarders. Sometimes these borders are used to transport illegal firearms, stolen goods such as motor vehicles, stock theft, etc., drugs and harmful substances. The study will also make some recommendations to strengthen the cross border patrol between KwaZulu-Natal, Swaziland and Lesotho.

The study will also recommend the bilateral talks between these countries even at Government level with a view to address the level of crime in this Province. The study will try to analyse and address the high level of police killings in the region. The interviews will also be conducted with the Provincial Commissioners, Station Commanders, Cluster Commanders, Station Commanders as well as SAPS Trade Unions such as SAPU, POPCRU and NEHAWU. Reflective practice, problem solving, and action research are three phases of continuous improvement for individuals and organisations. The researcher thought that systematic reflection offers a fresh design for the teaching and learning professions. For your professional reflection to be systematic, the research pointed to procedures like force field analysis, situation-target-path concept, brainstorming and critical thinking, and self-confrontation. Reflection often precedes problem solving and action research, but it also can be an integral part of both (Schmuck, 2006:18). There are three recognized approaches for the procedures for conducting research, namely:

- Quantitative methods
- Qualitative methods
- Triangulation methods

3.9.1 Quantitative research approaches

In quantitative research, an investigator relies on numerical data to test the relationships between the variables (Maree, 2010: 257). A typical type of research study that employs quantitative research would be an experiment or a survey study. Quantitative research tests the theories about reality, looks for cause and effect patterns and uses quantitative measures to gather data and test hypotheses. Quantitative studies are either descriptive or experimental. A descriptive study establishes only associations between variables, while an experiment establishes probable causality (Maree, 2010: 257). The quantitative research is seen as having an almost constant obsession with the triad of validity, reliability and generalisation (De Vos, 2002: 339).

3.9.2 Key characteristics of quantitative research

The goal of quantitative research is to describe the trends or explain the relationships between the variables. The researcher asks for specific, narrow research questions or formulates hypotheses about the variables that can be observed or measured. Sometimes a quantitative researcher uses convenience sampling to select the individuals who are available and willing to participate in the study. The major quantitative designs include experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational and survey research design (Maree, 2010:339).
3.9.3 Qualitative research approaches

In contrast to quantitative approach, qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding where a researcher develops a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting. A typical type of study that employs qualitative procedures would be a study in anthropology in which the researcher goes out into the field where the individual lives, gathers their stories and writes a persuasive, literary, account of their experiences (Maree, 2010: 259).

Cresswell (De Vos, 2002: 340), believes that the process of data analysis and interpretation can best be presented in a spiral image such as a data analysis spiral. The researcher moves in analytical circles rather than using a fixed linear approach. Qualitative researchers, more than quantitative researchers, pay special attention to understanding life as the participants see it, so you may find the researcher in this case reporting that people who knew the subject in question also mentioned that he or she was prejudiced. Some qualitative researchers prefer to use the term ‘credibility’ in the place of validity in this context. This is done as a caution against the older, positivistic view that social concepts represent real phenomena, existing objectively and independent of human thought. Reliability is a reasonable criterion of quality with the regard to qualitative research, though it needs to be applied appropriately (Babbie, 2011:415).

Qualitative research looks deep into the quality of social life. It locates the study within particular settings, which provide opportunities for exploring all possible social variables, and self manageable boundaries. An initial foray into the social setting leads to further, more informed exploration as themes and focuses emerge. While quantitative research seeks to control and pin down, the qualitative mode maintains that we can explore, catch glimpses, illuminate and then try to interpret bits of reality (Holiday, 2016:07).

3.9.4 Key characteristics

The goal of qualitative research is to explore and understand a central phenomenon, which is the concept or process explored in a qualitative research study (Maree, 2010: 259). The major qualitative designs or traditions of qualitative inquiry include case study, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and narrative research. The qualitative researcher collects words and images about the central phenomenon. The data is collected from people immersed in the setting of everyday life in which the study is framed (Maree 2001: 259).

The distinctive features of qualitative data collection methods are also reflected in the methods used to analyse the data collected. The focus on text, on qualitative data rather than on numbers, is the most important feature of qualitative analysis. The text that qualitative researchers analyse is most often transcripts of interviews or notes from participant observation sessions, but text can also refer to pictures or images that the researcher examines. Good qualitative data analyses are distinguished by their focus on the interrelated aspects of the setting, group, or person under investigation, the case, rather than breaking the whole into separate parts. The whole is always understood to be greater than the sum of its parts, and so the social context of events, thoughts, and actions becomes essentials for interpretation (Bachman and Scutt, 2008:196).
3.9.5 Triangulation

The concept of triangulation is regarded as a combination of the quantitative and qualitative approach. According to Mouton and Marais (Maree, 2010:365), the term triangulation, originally coined by Denzin (1978), refers mainly to the use of multiple methods of data collection, and not specifically to the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. The term triangulation describes using mixed methods or combination of methods in a single research project.

In this mixed methods design, quantitative results provide a general picture of the issue, while qualitative results aim to explain, refine and extend the general picture. This applied research aims to contribute towards practical issues of problem solving, decision making, and community development by investigating how, for example, an accent may be grounds for discrimination. It is fairly standard to introduce qualitative research by distinguishing it from quantitative research. This is an unadventurous way to begin with, but necessary because when asked, ‘what is research?’ Most people think it is refer to the more familiar, traditional quantitative research. Also, it is often argued that a major binding feature of qualitative research is its opposition to positivism, the philosophical basis for quantitative research. Qualitative research will always involve quantitative elements and vice versa (Holiday, 2016:01-02).

Traditionally, research and development and building of a distinct theory of crime in rural areas has been largely overlooked or neglected. Most often researchers, scholars and academics have merely borrowed from the research of victimology and policing of densely populated urban settings (the cities) without examining the different and unique circumstances, not only in terms of population densities but also in types of crime, victimisation variables and policing responses as applicable to the rural environment (Journal of Criminology, 29 (1)/2016), Marelize 2016.

Utilising a mixed method research approach allows for construction of knowledge about real world issues based on pragmatism, which places more emphasis on finding answers to research questions than on the methods used (Creswell et al. 2012). Quantitative data was analysed with one sample t-test, chi-square, and anova, with the dependent variable as the believability of each simulated witness. The two focus groups provided opportunities for the discussion of complex and contradictory ideas, allowing for a variety of views to be explored. Audio-recordings of the groups were transcribed for inductive, thematic data analysis and interpretation (Journal of Criminology, 29 (1)/2016:21), Marelize Schoeman 2016:21.

Another novel approach to the study of violence, specifically of homicide, was recently undertaken by Miethe, Regoeczi, and Drass, (Bachman & Schutt, 2008:204), in their book, Rethinking Homicide. Instead of focusing on the victim or offender, they analyse the homicide situation as the unit of analysis, exploring the structure and process underlying the lethal outcome. They state that the nexus of offender, victim, and offence elements define homicide situations in time and space. It is the combination of these elements, not their operation in isolation, which provides the context for lethal violence. To analyse the homicide narratives from cases from four large cities in the United States, Miethe and colleagues used Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA). As an analytical method for case comparisons, qualitative comparative analysis (QCA), considers cases holistically, as complex configurations of attributes.
measured by a set of variables. It also assumes that events or outcomes are produced by variables acting together in combination.

It is beyond the scope of this research to detail the process of qualitative comparative analysis here. The qualitative comparative analysis actually combines elements of quantitative and qualitative analysis, and as such is a hybrid of sorts. For example, similar to a statistical analysis, qualitative comparative analysis requires the specification of a model relating a set of independent variables to an outcome variable. But it examines the data holistically by developing typologies across a complex arrangement of cases and variables.

After their QCA analysis of over 400,000 homicides, Miethe and colleagues concluded that most homicides occur in situational contexts that have changed little over the past three decades. They found expressive homicides involving disputes and arguments to be more prevalent than instrumental homicides. Like other research, they found that these conflicts often involved what many call, trivial altercations, where alcohol would often play a part, and the victim often provoked the offender in some instances, e.g. The victim would insult the offender (Bachman & Schutt, 2008:205). Another reason for using qualitative methods in evaluation research is the importance of learning how different individuals react to treatment or rehabilitation. Qualitative methods can also help in understanding how social programs actually operate. Complex social programs have many different features and it is not always clear whether it is the combination of those features or some particular features that are responsible for the program’s effect or for the absence of an effect. The more complex the social program, the more value qualitative methods can add to the evaluation process (Bachman et al. 2009:264).

3.10 Summary

To deal with this challenge the research will begin by questioning the fetish-like idea of science as truth which had been transmitted to the researcher per se as a cumulative, linear complex of confirmed rules and absolute laws. Science is socially constructed; therefore it is subjected to reinterpretations, revision and enrichment. If the researcher could discover a way to bring about a convergence between popular thoughts and academic science, then the researcher could gain both more complete and a more applicable knowledge, especially by and for the underprivileged classes which were in need of scientific support.

Intellectual harmonisation was eased by appealing to those pioneers who had deviated somewhat from logical empirisationism (Reason & Bradbury, 2001:28), ANC parliamentary caucus spokesman, Mpho Lekgoro, said while there was an acknowledgement in caucus that the government had done a lot in reducing crime in the past five years, a lot still needed to be done. In some categories crime has declined, but of course, violent crime is rising. Crime should be the business of all people and not just the business of the police (Sunday Tribune, 4 February 2007: 7).

The safety and security of KwaZulu-Natal continues to be a priority that is uppermost in the minds of all who live, work and invest in this province. The department of Community Safety and Liaison has been mandated in terms of the Constitution of South Africa, to ensure effective civilian oversight over the South African Police Service. The effective combating of crime in the
province will have a direct impact on the creation of fresh opportunities that will contribute greatly to the effective and sustainable economic growth.

In the department’s attempt to influence key role-players towards provincial government’s vision for peace, safety and stability, it will be drawing on integrated partnership with all role-players in the crime, justice, safety and security arenas. Much focus and attention will be given to raising the cooperation of communities to expose criminals and close market for crime (Strategic Plan for the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2008/2009).

Every research question in criminology should be grounded in the existing empirical literature. By grounded we mean the research we do must be informed by what others before us have done on the topic. Whether you formulate a research question because you have been stimulated by an academic article or because you want to investigate a current public policy problem, you must turn to the criminological literature to find out what has already been learned about this question (Bachman & Schutt, 2009:31).

Evaluation research that attempts to identify the effects of a treatment, law, or program typically is quantitative. It is fair to say that when there is an interest in comparing outcomes between an experimental and a control group, or tracking change over time in a systematic manner, quantitative methods are favoured. But qualitative methods can add much to quantitative evaluation research studies, including more depth, detail, nuance and exemplary case studies. Perhaps the greatest contribution qualitative methods can make in many evaluation studies is investigating program processes, finding out what is ‘inside the black box.’ Although it is possible, even recommended to track the process of service delivery with quantitative measures like staff contract hours, frequency of complaints, and the like, the goal of finding out how clients experience the program can often best be achieved by observing program activities and interviewing staff and clients intensively (Bachman & Schutt, 2009:263).
CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Introduction

A scientist seeks to develop an accurate understanding of empirical reality, the reality the researcher is encountering at firsthand, by conducting research that leads to valid knowledge about the world. The goal of research conducted by social scientists who are investigating issues related in criminology and criminal justice is not to come up with conclusions that people will like or conclusions that suit their personal preferences. The goal is to determine the most valid answers through empirical methods (Bachman & Schutt 2009:22).

Sociological criminology is often divided into two major perspectives, namely the structural and the processual. The structural viewpoint studies crime as it relates to the social structure or organisation of society. It is primarily concerned with discovering conditions within a society that lead to or cultivate criminal behavior. Structuralists ask “what social factors causes crime?” They usually answer by describing demographic characteristics of criminal groups, including their ecological and economical features.

The processual approach is concerned with how people become criminals. Sociological process theories general emphasises the way individual learn behaviour, both criminal and non-criminal. Among the prominent process theories is Edwin H Sutherland’s theory of differential association (Bartol, 1991:14). The classical school of criminology, neoclassical criminology and the positive school of criminology will be highlighted in this study. Classical criminology emerged in the later parts of the eighteenth century as part of the enlightenment. The proponents of this school of thoughts were Cesare Beccaria and Jeremy Bentham, and it stressed a fair and rational response to crime, asserting that human beings could be deterred from criminal behaviour (Brown et al, 1999:241). The rise of positive criminology most frequently attributed to Cesare Lombrose, introduced three major shifts in criminology thinking. It refocused attention from crime to the criminals.

4.2 The theories of violent crime

The fundamental purpose of theory is to explain things that can be observed. The scientific approach requires that theory be subjected to the test of observation. Propositions that facilitate predictions of the phenomena of interest should be derivable from theories. If a proposed explanation or theory fails the test of observation and prediction, then it should be rejected. Criminological theories seek to arrive at explanations that account for behaviour defined as criminal. If, for example, a theory (assuredly a far-out theory) implicates blue eyes as a causal factor in embezzlement, but blue-eyed persons do not appear disproportionately in representative samples of embezzlers, the theory is discarded. New ideas for the explanation of embezzlement can then be advanced as the scientific endeavors of theory and research continue (Brown et al, 1991:205-206).
Criminologists study crime, criminals and societal reactions to crime and criminals, accumulating in the process an abundance of facts. These facts should be used as building blocks for theory constructions because it is theory that provides meaning to what often seems to be unrelated facts. Theory incorporates propositions that relate two or more concepts in such a fashion that they then can be subjected to the test of observation and prediction. Thus, the scientific approach is self-correcting in the sense that theories failing to explain and predict should be discarded or revised. Without informed theory development and testing, myths regarding the causes of crime are apt to flourish. This brings us to the pragmatic justification for the study of theories of crime: its implication of this study for crime-related public policy. It is important to recognize that virtually everyone holds some view about the causes of crime and, by implication, about how to prevent, control, and respond to it.

4.3 The classical school of Criminology

An emphasis on free will and human rationality in the realm of criminal behaviour has its roots in classical criminology. Classical theorists believed that crime was an expression of a person’s rational decision-making process; before committing a crime, a person would weigh the benefits of crime against the costs of being apprehended. Therefore, if punishments were stringent enough to outweigh the benefits of crime, they would dissuade people from committing the crime in the first place (Gaines & Miller, 2005:40). The arbitrary administration of justice and the cruel punishments in medieval Europe, which continued into the eighteenth century, provided fertile ground for the emergence of the classical school of criminology. This school offered the first naturalistic explanation of crime and superseded centuries of interpreting crime as a supernatural phenomenon. The classical school was the dominant perspective for approximately a century but then fell into disrepute, particularly among Americans criminologists, with the surge of positivism. Many criminologists, however, still highly regard classical thought because it represented a tremendous humanitarian reform. The main proponents of this school of thought were Cesare Beccaria and Jeremy Bentham (Brown et al, 1991:215).

At the heart of classical thought is the notion that it is better to prevent crime than to punish criminals. Prevention was to be accomplished through the mechanism of deterrence, which was founded upon certain assumptions regarding human nature. Deterrence employs threats of punishment to influence behaviour. It assumes that people that are rational, that this behaviour is a product of free will and that they are hedonistic, i.e. that their goal is to increase their own pleasure and or to reduce their pain. Bentham applied his theory of utilitarianism to the law by contending that punishment should use the threat of pain against criminal individuals to assure the pleasure of society as a whole. As result, Bentham felt that punishment should have four goals: to prevent all crime; when it cannot prevent crime, to ensure that a criminal will commit a lesser crime to avoid a harsher punishment; to give the criminal an incentive not to harm others in the pursuits of crime; and to prevent crime at the least possible cost to society; (Gaines & Miller, 2005:40).

Bentham advocated that punishment should not be guided by retribution, but rather by the aim of preventing crime as an offense detrimental to the community. At the heart of Bentham’s punishment philosophy was utilitarianism, which is referred to as the greatest happiness
principle. According to this principle, actions should be judged according to whether, on balance, they contribute to the happiness and benefit of human kind.

4.4. Neoclassical criminology

Neoclassical thought introduced a number of shifts in criminal policy. There was an identification of degrees of criminal responsibility. Juveniles and mentally ill, for instance, were deemed incapable of forming intent to commit crime and were consequently absolved of responsibility. Another change, closely related to the introduction of the idea of criminal intent, was the return of a limited degree of discretion to judges. If free will is not absolute, then providing for extenuating circumstances is understandable. Following this line of reasoning, criminal codes began to specify ranges of punishments. The shift from classicism to neoclassicism was evolutionary rather than abrupt. This theory does not now win any favour from the community because there is a huge outcry that the justice system is lenient to criminals and there is great fear that the community might take justice into their own hands. This is what is happening in South Africa especially when the rape criminals and those who are responsible for the murder of young babies appear in court (Brown et al. 1991).

4.5 The positive school of criminology

A researcher’s philosophical perspective on reality and on the appropriate role of the researcher also will shape their choice of methodological preferences. The researchers with a positivist philosophy believe that there is an objective reality that exists apart from the perceptions of those who observe it; the goal of science is to better understand this reality (Bachman and Schutt, 2008:18). The proponent of this theory regards a school of social science that sees criminal and delinquent behavior as the result of biological, psychological and social forces. Because wrongdoers are driven to deviancy by external factors, they should not be punished but rather, treated to lessen the influence of those factors. By the end of the nineteenth century, the positivist school of criminologists had superceded classical criminology. According to positivism, criminal behaviour is determined by biological, psychological, and social forces and is beyond the control of the individual.

The Italian physician Cesare Lombroso (1835-1909), an early adherent of positivism who is known as the Father of Criminology, believed that criminals were throwbacks to the savagery of early humankind and could therefore be identified by certain physical characteristics such as sharp teeth and large jaws. Positivist theory lost credibility as crime rates began to climb in the 1970s. If crime was caused by external factors, critics asked, why had the proactive social programs of the 1960s not brought about a decrease in criminal activity? (Gaines and Miller, 2005:41).

After dominating criminological thought for roughly a century, the classical and neoclassical perspectives were preempted by the positive school. Focus on fair and consistent punishment had failed to reduce crime to levels deemed acceptable. More pertinent, thoughts were changed in social thought.
Positivism presumes that knowledge can be discovered only through sensory experiences. In other words, we can find answers to our questions only through observation and experience. Social scientists, including criminologists, must utilise the scientific method of the physical sciences to seek answers. The rise of positivism shifted the focus from crime to criminals. While classical criminologists concentrated on the administration of criminal justice, assuming that appropriate strategies (i.e. certainty, celerity and severity of punishment) would prevent crime, positivists turned their attention to the offender. Positive criminology concentrated on one fundamental question: What causes criminality? (Brown et al. 1991:231).

There are other theories of crime which are also relevant to this study, however they are not mentioned. For the benefit of this research the focus will be directed to social structure theories of crime because they can add value to the study. Sociologists envision crime, delinquency and deviant behaviour as the product of social forces rather than individual differences. Most sociological theories, then, fit the positivistic mode in that they contend that these social forces push or influence people to commit crimes. Even at this broad level of categories, however, the perspectives are not pure.

Sociobiology, for instance, combines social and biological variables to explain crime. Many sociologists also incorporate psychological factors in their theories and both economists and sociologists are currently pursuing classical explanations of crime (Brown et al, 1991:295). Although specific sociological theories often represent a blend of structure and process factors to account for crime, those that are most appropriately characterised as social structure theories depict crime as a product of the structure of society.

Structural features that contribute to poverty, unemployment, poor education and other deprivations of the lower class are viewed as indirect or root causes of high crime rates among members of those groups. Theories of this variety, however, are not intended to imply that only poor people commit crimes, nor do they mean that people located in the lower levels of the social structure have no choice or are devoid of responsibility for misconduct. These theories do, however, assume that crime is primarily a lower-class problem and points to flows within the social structure that increase the odds of a person within that social stratum resorting to illegal behaviour (Brown et al. 1991:296).

### 4.6 The broken window theory

The broken window theory is based on the premise that if the first broken window in a building is not repaired, the people who like breaking window will assume that no one cares about the building and more windows will be broken. Soon the entire building will have no windows (Shelden, 2003: 01). Like this, crime flourishes because of lax law enforcement, according to the classic deterrence argument. Among other assertions, they contend that if rude remarks by loitering youth were left unchallenged, such youth will be under the impression that no one cares and their behaviour will likely escalate to more serious crimes. In other words, take minor problems and nip them in the bud, before things get worse.

This view ignores the fact that millions of teenagers engage in all sorts of rude, and other obnoxious behavior in front of adults yet never become career criminals. One results of such a
view have denied that broken windows is the same as zero tolerance (Shelden, 2003: 02). At the community level, disorder and crime are usually inextricably linked, in a kind of developmental sequence. Social psychologists and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken and is left unrepaired; all the rest of the windows will soon be broken. This is as true in nice neighbourhoods as in rundown ones.

Broken windows do not necessarily occur on a large scale because some areas are inhabited by determined window-breakers and others are populated by window-lovers; rather, one unrepaired broken window is a signal that no one cares, and so breaking more windows costs nothing (Wilson & Kelling, 1982:20). Austrup’s (2011:2) broken window theory predicts that when disorder is present in a surrounding, people will behave in an antisocial way. How exactly does a disorderly environment affect a person and which mechanisms could make the person behave in an anti-social way? Approaches regarding that topic are mostly dealt in the context of the broken windows theory. The popularity of this approach ranks behind its controversy. The goal of Austrup’s study was to assess the influence of the environment and camera surveillance on human behaviour, moderated by personality traits. The influence of environmental factors was stronger in people who feel their lives were being controlled by external factors, meaning they had an external locus of control (Austrup 2011: 02).

The broken window theory which holds that physical deterioration and increase in unrepaired buildings leads to increased concerns for personal safety among residents. Heightened concerns, in turn, lead to further decreases in maintenance and repair and to increased delinquency, vandalism, and crime among local residents, which spawn even further deterioration both in a sense of safety and in the physical environment (Bachman et al. 2009:111).

4.7 Strain theories

Strain theories are at the very heart of the sociological bid to account for crime. The thrust of this theoretical agenda avers that stress, frustration or strain (as the name suggests), engendered by failed aspirations, increases the prospects of norm violations. These theories argue that norms are violated to alleviate the strain that accompanies failure.

Key goals of strain theories, therefore, are the specifications of sources of strain and deviant adaptations. Most strain theorists reason that the structure of American society creates the greatest pressure within the lower social echelons and consequently these theories focus on explaining lower-class crime. Emile Durkheim and Robert Merton was the most proponent of this theory (Brown et al. 1991:305).

4.8 Emile Durkheim: origin of social structural theory

Durkheim suggested that in preliterate societies, social groups were relatively isolated and self-sufficient and that within each group, members were similar to one another. Little families largely tended to their own needs, such as growing food and making clothing.

Crime may be seen as a normal an even a necessary part of society, but under some conditions crime ceases to be functional. Durkheim claimed that as a society moves toward an organic state
of solidarity, law serves to regulate interactions between diverse members of the whole. When the legal structure is unable to control transactions and interactions between various social groups, a pathological state of anomic exists (Brown et al, 1991:300). Anomic is a term derived from the Greek word meaning lawlessness. In other words, anomic refers to a state or a condition in society in which the norms are no longer affective in regulating behaviour.

4.9 Robert K Merton: Social Structure and Anomic theory

Merton postulated that all societies have a cultural system that denotes socially approved values and goals and that details acceptable norms or institutionalised means for achieving these cultural goals. Not only do these prescribed goals and means enable societal members to pursue success in appropriate ways, but at times they also exert pressure on some segments of the society to engage in nonconformist behaviour in an effort to achieve success. This happens when the goal of success is emphasised more than acceptable ways of achieving that success (Brown et al, 1991:305).

In this environment, some segments of society are at a greater disadvantage than others. In other words, the legitimate means for obtaining wealth are differentially available throughout the class structure. Members of the upper class have greater access to education, important interpersonal contents that will enhance their opportunities and socialisation that prepares them for compensation in the struggle to achieve wealth and status. Members of the lower class, therefore, experience greater stress or strain in their attempts to make money legitimately. That is also why, Merton argued, members of the lower class experience greater stress or strain in their attempt to make money legitimately and are found in disproportionate numbers among the criminal population, the mentally disturbed and other deviant groups. This conflict between the institutionalised means and the culturally specified goals is what causes anomic.

Merton identified five individual modes of adoption: conformity, innovation, ritualism, retreatism and rebellion. Innovation is probably the most common form of adoption to structural stress induced by the inability legitimately to achieve cultural goals. Innovators are individuals that aspire to attain conventional goals but use illegal means to succeed because the individuals do not perceive themselves as having legitimate opportunities.

Ritualists can be thought of as opposite of innovators, they abide by the rules but have abandoned the pursuit of their goals. Ritualists go through the emotions but lack commitment to the attainment of wealth or status (Brown et al 1991). Retreatists or societal dropouts are people who neither aspire to cultural goals nor abide by the institutionalised means. Their dropout status is characterised by transience, drug addiction and homelessness.

Rebellion occurs when a person rejects the goals and the means of society. Unlike the retreatists, however, the rebel substitutes a new set of values and norms for the discarded ones (Brown et al, 1991:309). Since Msinga is highly affected by unemployment and poverty, people are unable to realise their goals such earning good salaries and having decent homes and according to this theory, these factors will compel them to commit crime.
4.10 Differential association theory

Differential association as an explanation for criminal behaviour is based on the premise that criminal behaviour is learned in the same way that any other behaviour is learned. Edwin H. Sutherland, sometimes referred to as the core theory of American Criminology. Sutherland’s theory has nine statements, introduced the term:

- First, criminal behavior is learned, the behaviour is not inherited.
- Second, criminal behavior is learned, in interaction with other persons in a process of communication.
- Third, the principal part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs within intimate personal groups.
- Fourth, the learning of criminal behavior includes:
  (a) Techniques of committing crime, which are sometimes very complicated, sometimes very simple.
  (b) The specific direction of motive, drivers, rationalisations and attitude.
- Fifth, the specific direction of motive and drivers is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favorable or unfavorable.
- Six, a person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favorable to violation of low over definitions unfavorable to violation of low Sutherland stated that people learn positive and negative as well as neutral behaviour.
- The seventh statement is that differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority and intensity. This is a crucial statement in Sutherland’s theory and it mean that associations with criminal and non-criminal behaviour vary in terms of those four elements.
- Eighth, the process of learning criminal behaviour by association with criminal and anti criminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other leaning.
- The last statement of Sutherland’s theory is that while criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and value, non-criminal behaviour are an expression of the same needs and value (Reid, 1994:233).

4.11. Social policy and sociological theories

Theoretical approaches that fault the social environment as the root cause of crime, point in the direction of social action as a panacea. A contemporary example of intervention efforts based on sociological theories can be found in Targeted Outreach, a program operated by the boys and girls club of America. The program’s philosophy is based on studies undertaken at the University of Colorado that showed that at-risk youths could be effectively diverted from the juvenile justice through the provision of positive alternatives (Bachman & Schutt 2009:112).
4.11.1 Social process theories

While psychological approaches to crime causation seek to uncover aspects of the personality hidden even from the mind in which they reside, and while sociological theories look to institutional arrangements in the social world to explain crime, social process approaches focus on the interaction between individuals and society. Most social process theories highlight the role of social learning. They build on the premise that behavior, both good or bad, are learned and they suggest that bad behaviour can be unlearned. Social process theories are probably the most attractive to contemporary policymakers because they demand that responsibility be placed on the offender for actively participating in rehabilitation efforts and because they are consistent with popular cultural and religious values centred on teaching right from wrong (Bachman & Schutt, 2009:112-113).


Some of the most recent perspectives on crime causation belong to a subcategory of social process thought called social development theory. According to the social development perspective, human development occurs simultaneously on many levels, including psychological, familial, interpersonal, cultural, societal and ecological. Theories that fall into this category, however, tend to highlight the process of interaction between individuals and society as the root cause of criminal behavior. According to this theory, the criminal tends to follow a certain pattern or modus operandi when committing crime throughout a person’s life cycle (Bachman and Schutt 2009:117).

4.13 Control theory

Criminals’ behaviour is rational, that it is the response of people who have decided what they want and who have calculated the costs. Crime is more attractive than achieving the goods or services by legitimate means. Sociologists and psychologists have developed other explanations of how behaviour can be controlled. According to control theorists, deviance results when social controls are weakened or broken down. When controls are strong, deviance does not occur. The problem is to try to explain what can be done in a positive way to elicit appropriate behaviour. The question is not how to train people to engage in law-abiding behaviour. This training is done through control theory, which begins with the assumption that all persons have to be trained to behave properly (Reid, 1994:249). Travis Hirsch emphasised the bond between individuals and society as the primary operative mechanism in his social control theory. Hirsch identified four components of that bond: emotional attachments to significant other; a commitment to appropriate lifestyles; involvement or immersion in conventional values and a belief in the correctness of social obligations and rules of the larger society. These components act as controls on deviant and criminal behaviour; as they weaken, social control suffers, and the likelihood of crime and deviance increases (Bachman et al. 2009:115).
4.14 Containment theory

One version of control theory is containment, which stresses that we live in a society that provides a variety of opportunities for conformity or non-conformity. Not everyone chooses the illegal opportunities, thus social—structural theories that stress the availability of illegal and legal opportunities, the existence of a subculture, the location of goods and services within the city, density and other variables cannot explain all criminal behaviour.

The question then is why do those phenomena affect some people and not others? There are two types of containment: Outer containment and inner containment. Outer containment might be called social pressure, and in simple societies, this kind of social control works well. It depends on social roles and the norms and expectations that apply to them. People who occupy significant roles in society find themselves insulted by deviant tendencies (Bachman et al. 2009:110). The community’s social norms are taught to new members, who internalise them but who are restrained by the community’s reaction to their violation. Social ostracism may be the most effective social control in such societies or communities, but as societies become more complex, outer containment is not so effective. People must develop inner containment, which refers to our ability to redirect ourselves, which is related to the self-concept. Reckless (Reid 1994:251) emphasised that the components of external and internal containment are buffers, not causes. They operate to help the individual refrain from succumbing to pressures to violate laws. If the buffers are strong, the individual is law abiding. But if they are weak, he or she commits a crime.

4.15 The anomic situation

From a socio-criminology point of view, this theory is based on the hypothesis that criminal conduct, including crimes of violence, is indicative of dissociation between culturally inculcated aspirations and social aspirations as well as structural possibilities to realise objectives. Researchers (Ndabandaba 1987:26), confirm the fact that crime causation does not stem from the individual’s pathology, but is the result of the socio-cultural structures influence on individual situated at the various levels of the community. The implications are that crime is caused by social environmental conditions in which a particularly high premium is placed on individuals achievement, which is greatly hampered by the absence of available means for the achievement of desirable objectives.

Individuals are thus socialised to have idealised elevated objectives, and any hindrances in the pursuit of these objectives create predispositions to crime. Rebellion is however, particularly significant in the causation of crimes of violence. In contemporary societies, rebellion is aimed at the revision of cultural standards for success and the establishment of a new order that provide other needs (Ndabandaba, 1987: 26).

These adaptations do not describe personality types. Rather they describe an individual’s choice of behavior in response to the strain of anomic. Some adaptation, such as the law-level bureaucrat who responds to her situation through ritualism, may occasionally innovate by stealing small amounts from her employer, or she may occasionally retreat through the use of alcohol (Vold and Bernard, 1986: 192).
4.16 Home and family

The home environment exerts a powerful influence on the individual. From the moment of birth the child is supported and secured by the family (Stevens, 1987: 16). When one of the parents in the family does not play his or her role in molding a child, the child may deviate and eventually may commit a crime. Sometimes if the child with other children who are involved in drugs, heavy drinking, there is a likelihood that the child may become a criminal. Broken homes, divorced families, housing conditions (over crowded homes) as well as the migratory families may also play a major role in causation of crime. There is great likelihood that a child who grew up in this kind of an environment could end up being a criminal. Where the condition of the home is bad, the child loses his self-respect and develops a feeling of inferiority. The child is ashamed to receive his friends at home and rather meets them on the streets. In an overcrowded home it may happen that older children have to sleep in the same room as their parents. That brings them in contact with the intimate side of married life at a very early age. Consequently, this may lead to sexual misbehaviour or incest. Migratory families often move around, never possess a home and never respect other people’s property. This may also lead to a child to take with drugs, alcohol and commit crime (Steven, 1987:16).

An understanding of whether society is premised on love and nurturing, or not, is a crucial aspect when developing strategies to address the root causes of crime and violent behaviour. A fragmented and dysfunctional family is the starting point for neglect and abuse of vulnerable people, particularly, the disabled and poor women. Interventions for pregnant women and girls provide services at the earliest possible stage to access the family into which a child will be born. Monitoring and evaluation of such intervention is an investment which will ultimately yield increasing and positive returns by preventing individuals, families and societies from being exposed to or involved in criminal and violent activities. It is, therefore against this background that criminal and violent activities may sometimes cause anger, grief, sadness, a sense of loss, guilt, worthlessness, depression, an inability to look forward, lack of trust, extreme emotional swings and hopelessness (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:16).

4.17 The Neighbourhood

It has been calculated that 80% of all juvenile delinquents come from cities (Steven 1987:20) indicates that cities can be regarded as the breeding ground of iniquity slums, poverty, prostitution, gangs, the use of drugs and the non-contractive use of leisure time are characteristic of life in the large cities. Life in the big city is also characterised by its lack of personal warmth. People lose their identities and become part of the masses. Nobody seems to know anybody else, and people care less about what others do (Steven, 1987:20).

The South African Constitution aims at transforming the exclusionary nature of the urban spatial fabric and economy. The neighbourhood development programme of the National Treasury aims at large scale transformations in South African urban fabrics and to present extensive potentials to promote urban safety with a focus on the vulnerable groups and poor people. Its main strategy is the integration of underserved residential neighbourhoods eg. former townships, in South African cities by leveraging private sector investment through catalytic investment. The strategy of this substantial programme is a combination of targeted interventions in townships and
activities to integrate township areas into the urban fabric through activity corridors/ linkages to central business districts. Supports neighbourhoods development projects that provide community infrastructure and create the platform for private sector development and that improve the quality of life of residents in targeted areas. (Crime Prevention Management Course, book 2, 2014:25).

4.18 The school

Violence in South African schools is not a new phenomenon. It is likely that as long as formal schools have existed, violence of some form has taken place within the physical walls of the environment (Burton and Leoschut 2012:1). School violence has undoubtedly predated the school safety literature and initiatives that have emerged over the past ten years. It is only in the last decade in South Africa that school violence has become a national concern. Schools, which should be a safe haven for young people, and where children of school-going age spend three-quarters of their waking hours, are instead sites where young people are apparently at risk of falling victim to violence as they are in homes and communities in which they live (Burton and Leoschut, 2012:01). Violence at or around school is arguably one of the most important dangers affecting young people in South Africa today. Its importance goes beyond the immediate physical harm that can result for the learner, or the psychological harm attached either directly or indirectly victimisation. In fact, the long-term consequences of violence associated with school far outlast the short term outcomes.

The relationship between violent victimization and later aggressive behaviour is well documented (Burton and Leoschut 2012:4). Those who are being victimised at a young age are at great risk of themselves engaging in violent and antisocial behaviour as they get older. School violence can also erode the ability of victims to form healthy, pro-social and trusting relationships with peers and adults. This is predominantly the case when violence is experienced at the hands of adults, particularly those placed in a position of care over the child, such as educators. Furthermore, such violence including all forms of corporal punishment as well as exposure to violence can reinforce the message that violence is the most appropriate way of resolving conflict and instilling discipline. These messages are internalised and acted upon as the young person grows into adulthood (Burton & Leoschut, 2012:04).

This monograph documents the results of the second sweep of this national study, conducted in 2012. The results show that more than one million of the country’s secondary school learners had experienced some form of violence related to school, in the 12 months preceding the study. The data that have been gathered during the study also shows that for many, experiences of violence at school are inextricably linked to violence in their homes and communities.

While they are many features specific to the school environment that fuel risk for violence, any intervention strategy hoping to stem the tide of violence in schools, needs to extend beyond the school itself and should address all components that constitute the school community, as well as broader communities. The research also points to the need for violence-based approaches of prevention, rather than those implemented intuitively or instinctually. Only through such approaches will schools become places of safety, rather than places that increase the risk of violence for young people (Burton & Leoschut, 2012). The contemporary environment dictates
that in order to make a good living one needs to focus earnestly to education. The constitution of our country enforces compels that all children must receive formal education. South Africa has the highest number of street children because most of them decided on their own not to peruse formal education. Most of these children at a later stage will become criminals. A number of factors emanating from the research, over and above the levels of violence themselves, presented cause for significant concern. These included:

- The classroom being the site where most forms of violence takes place;
- Corporal punishment, though banned, continues to be experienced by one half of secondary school learners;
- Bullying is experience by more one in ten learners;
- Most violence, of any form, is perpetrated by learners and peers from the school, rather than from young people or others from outside the school environment;
- Sexual violence in particular remains common, and is experience at the hands of both of fellow learners and educators; and
- Learners receive very mixed messaging when it comes to acceptance of, and approaches to violence, particularly messages provided by educators and principals (National school safety framework, 2010:7).

Like the family, the school plays a major role in socialising young people and is an important predictor of delinquency (Linden 2000:12). For most of the year, children spend all day in classes and return to the school after classes to participate in sports and social activities. More importantly, the school is an arena in which a child’s performance is constantly being judged. Those who are successful are given prestige by teachers, parents and other adults, as well as by many of their classmates. For those who succeed in school and who enjoy their educational experience, the school reduces the chance of delinquency (Linden, 2000:12). Over the past year, the MEC for the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, built on the initiatives resulting from the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding between our Department, the Department of Education and South African Police Services last year.

This Memorandum binds the Department of Education to establish School Safety Committees and implement the National School Safety Framework (NSSF) with the support of the Department of Community Safety and Liaison as well as SAPS. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison will continue with the formal monitoring of police stations in respect of compliance with the National School Safety Framework and the training of School Safety Committees on the legal framework for crime prevention and criminal justice (Budget Vote Speech, 2017/2018:15).

4.19 Unemployment

Obviously if the unemployment rate is high, the level of crime will also increase. If people are not fully employed they will seek pleasure and excitement through alcohol, drugs and even sexual misbehavior. Unemployment and crime are common fellows. Due to a high level of unemployment other people find themselves involve in criminal activities such as robbery, hesits and they often justify it by saying that the government does not provide job opportunities and hence they commit crime. The drivers of violence and crime result from a combination of factors...
including poverty and inequality to economic exclusion and unemployment as well as weak governance, the challenge of urbanization and resultant poor urban design. Within the framework of these drivers, violence and crime is manifest across spatial, institutional and social dimensions. The distinction between the drivers and dimensions of violence and crime are not clear-cut and therefore constitute an assortment of causations and effects that cannot be neatly separated (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 2, 2014:9).

4.20 Lack of criminal justice system

Due to the high crime rate in South Africa, its citizens are, if not directly, vicariously exposed to crime through the experiences of others or even the news media. Although not everything that happens in society revolves around crime and violence, it tends to influence individual’s actions and how they perceive their life world. With this in mind, it needs to be asked to what extent people’s experiences of crime influence their perceptions of what justice should be. In our country, such as South Africa, with high crime rates and levels of violence, research has shown that its citizens tend to become desensitised resulting in diminished emotional responsiveness towards crime and violence. As a result of repeated exposure to such adverse stimuli, crime and violence can become normalised and perceived by some people to be a usual part of our daily lives (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1), Marelize Schoeman 2016:33).

There is a huge outcry from the community that the justice system is not doing its work properly. The criminals are not arrested timeously, and even if they are arrested, they are given bail easily. The convicted criminals are treated well in jail and they are released early before the completion of their sentences. Some of the police are suspected in criminal activities like the case of the National Commissioner Jackie Selebi who is associated with well-known drug dealers like Glen Agliotti. There is a popular view that the criminal justice system is quite expensive and consequently, the poor and marginalised community could not access it adequately. The present research has uncovered that the rich people often get away with crime, for example the high profile cases that received high coverage not only in our country but throughout the world; such as Oscar Pistorius and a well-known business person from England (Shrien Dewani) who killed his wife, but unfortunately he was not criminally prosecuted well in this country.

4.21 Advanced technology

Technological solutions must enhance the optimal functioning of the police and also integrate seamlessly with the CJS systems, particularly the e-docket and case management systems. Technology must support proactive policing and allow for improved efficiency in terms of crime investigation and analysis of current and future trends. The optimal use of technology is dependent on the regular maintenance thereof and ensuring interoperability across departments and functions. The large financial businesses in the country are presently experiencing major problems because their ATMS are bombed daily by the criminals. Since 1994, high levels of violent crime have received considerable focus considering its impact on feelings of safety and security in a developmental state. However, during the same period, the opening up of South Africa’s borders coupled with rapid development of technology meant that the country became vulnerable to organised crime and cyber-crime (Crime Prevention Course, Book 1, 2014:51).
This is a new phenomenon in our country and it spread like a wild fire all over. Others use the internet to defraud bank companies. The department of social welfare and population is experiencing major problems because the criminals at the moment are using a chain with bulb wire on the road in order to affect the tyres of the vehicles that transport the pension funds. In this process the criminals then easily commit heists. The 1998 White Paper identified organised crime and corruption as emerging threats that warranted a more dedicated focus by the police. Over the past 20 years crimes such as cybercrime have become more prevalent. The impact of globalisation and rapid advances in the development of information communication technology, together have created the space for the establishment of intricate networks of criminal activity. The costs of these crimes to business and economic growth and stability are far-reaching and the SAPS must remain current in its policing approach to respond appropriately to a constantly shifting criminal landscaping (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:28).

4.22 Domestic violence and victim empowerment programmes

The prevention of domestic violence plays an important role in breaking the cycle of crime and violence, because it will prevent violence from being normalised by individuals, families and societies. Research and literature on domestic violence acknowledge that, although to a lesser degree, women do play some role as perpetrators of domestic violence. The deadly nature of domestic violence becomes even more glaring when considered alongside the HIV/AIDS pandemic. A study conducted by the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) in 2003 highlighted that HIV is generalised in the South African population, leaving no race, sex, age, province or locality unaffected (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011:26).

Victims of domestic abuse, who are at risk of sexual violence, are at a particularly high risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. In abusive relationships, there is an imbalance of power, which sees the victims, mainly women, being largely unable to negotiate safe sex practice with their violent intimate partners. The pervasive and ongoing nature of domestic violence in South Africa should be viewed in the broader context of the country’s exceedingly high levels of violent crime, in general. Given the high levels of crime and violence in the country, the notion of a culture of violence looms large (Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011: 26).

Households’ perceptions about change in violent crime levels between 2011 and 2015/16 have been outlined by Victims of Crime Survey 2015/16. The research reveals that 41.8% were of the view that violent crime in their area had increased in the last three years as compared to 31.7% in 2011. Over the period 2001-2014/15 the percentage of households, who felt that violent crime levels had increased, grew steadily while those who felt the levels of violent crime decreased declined. The majority of households perceived housebreaking/burglary as the most common crime type followed by street robbery, home robbery and assault. The percentage of households who thought that housebreaking was the most common crime increased steadily from 52.6% in 2011 to 66.0% in 2014/15 and then declined to 58.8% in 2015/16. On the other hand, the perception that any other type of crime is the most common has either been declining or remained constant during the same period (Victim of Crime Survey, 2015/16:07).
Similarly, the type of housing variable (Victim of Crime Survey 2015/16:07), shows some interesting results. When compared to the level of education variable it shows that the individual’s level of education does not have a large impact on their type of housing, though there is still a limited significant link ($X^2=11.626, df=4, p=.02$):

**Figure 5.1 GENDERS x EDUCATION CROSS-TABULATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Secondary School</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Post graduate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal / Structured housing</td>
<td>N 4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 3.00%</td>
<td>75.20%</td>
<td>12.80%</td>
<td>5.30%</td>
<td>3.80%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>N 4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 9.50%</td>
<td>61.90%</td>
<td>4.80%</td>
<td>16.70%</td>
<td>7.10%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N 8</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 4.60%</td>
<td>72.00%</td>
<td>10.90%</td>
<td>8.00%</td>
<td>4.60%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5 HOUSING TYPE x EDUCATION CROSS-TABULATION**

Feelings of safety amongst participants

Participants were asked a set of questions which examined how safe they felt living in their community. These questions asked, “How safe are you in your neighborhood?” and “How often do you hear about violent crimes in your neighborhood?”

**Figure 5.2 “HOW SAFE ARE YOU IN YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD?” x “HOW OFTEN DO YOU HEAR ABOUT VIOLENT CRIMES IN YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD?”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Hourly</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Safe</td>
<td>N 10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 37.00%</td>
<td>3.70%</td>
<td>18.50%</td>
<td>3.70%</td>
<td>37.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly safe</td>
<td>N 11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 11.60%</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
<td>7.40%</td>
<td>15.80%</td>
<td>64.20%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly unsafe</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 2.80%</td>
<td>2.80%</td>
<td>2.80%</td>
<td>47.20%</td>
<td>44.40%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very unsafe</td>
<td>N 0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>35.70%</td>
<td>64.30%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most participants in the sample felt *fairly safe* (n=98, 55.1%). A relatively small portion of the population reported that they felt unsafe in any way (n=50, 28.1%). Notably, in Table 5.2, participants who felt *very safe* stated that they rarely (n=10, 37%) or never (n=10, 37%) heard about crime in their area. Similarly, participants who felt *safe* also stated that they rarely – ie on a monthly basis – heard about crime in their area (n=61, 64.2%). This pattern changes when it comes to participants who felt unsafe. Participants who felt *fairly unsafe* and *very unsafe* claimed that they heard about incidents of crime in their area on a weekly basis (n=17, 47.2% and n=5, 35.7% respectively). That said, a causal relationship cannot be drawn from these findings, as participants who are more worried about being the victim of crime would be more likely to pay attention to news sources showing incidents of crime (including belonging to *neighbourhood watch* type initiatives which report on crime in their area). That said, the above table paints a picture of a relatively safe neighbourhood.

**Figure 5.3 “How safe are you in your neighbourhood?” x Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Safe</th>
<th>Fairly safe</th>
<th>Fairly unsafe</th>
<th>Very unsafe</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>18.80%</td>
<td>47.50%</td>
<td>23.80%</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>63.20%</td>
<td>17.90%</td>
<td>6.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>15.40%</td>
<td>56.00%</td>
<td>20.60%</td>
<td>8.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further, as can be seen in Figure 6, there is no real difference between male and female participants in their levels of perceived safety. The majority of participants in both groups felt *very safe* or *fairly safe* (Male: n=53, 66.3%; Female: n=72, 75.8%). There is no statistically significant difference between male and female participants in this regard ($X^2= 4.416$, df=3, p=.220).

**4.23 Hypotheses**

Cohen and Nagel (Smith, 1995:12) point out the following implications of hypotheses with regard to the problem formulations.

- Hypotheses emanate from a thorough knowledge of the nature, intensity and extent of the problem.
- Hypotheses are essential throughout the duration of the research process for structuring purpose.
- Hypotheses must be regarded as tentative solutions/explanations of the problem is formulated.
- Hypotheses must be precisely worded. If they are general and vague, they are of little value.
- The number of hypotheses then can be postulated in a certain problem area is almost infinite.

Hypotheses have not only an explanatory function, but also organising function, in that they guide and structure the research. A hypothesis can be regarded as the link between the theory and the research, which leads to the expansion of knowledge. When a hypothesis, is confirmed by scientific testing, it acquires the status of law of nature (Neuman 1997:108).

A hypothesis is a proposition to be tested or a tentative statement of a relationship between two variables. Hypotheses unfounded predictions or suspected relationships are guesses about how the social world works; they are stated in a value-neutral form. Kelinger (Neuman, 1997:108) noted: “hypotheses are much more important in scientific research than they would appear to be just by knowing what they are and how they are structured. They have deep and highly significant purpose of taking man out of himself, so to speak… hypothesis is powerful tools for advancement of knowledge, because although formulated by man, they can be tested and shown to be correct or incorrect apart from man’s value and beliefs.”

- It has at least two variables;
- It expresses a casual or cause-effect relationship between the variables;
- It can be expressed as a prediction or an expected future outcome;
- It is logically linked to a research question and a theory;
- It is falsifiable; that is, it is capable of being tested against empirical evidence and shown to be true or false;

The first two characteristics define the minimum elements of a hypothesis. The third restates the hypothesis. For example, hypotheses that state that ‘attending religious services reduce the probability of divorce,’ can be restated as a prediction: ‘couples that attending religious services frequently have lower divorce rate than do couple who rarely attend the religious services.’ The prediction can be tested against empirical evidence. The fourth characteristic states that the hypothesis should not be viewed in isolation. It should be logically tied to a research question and to theory.

The research tests hypotheses to answer the research question or to find empirical support for a theory. The last characteristic requires that the researcher use an empirical data to test the hypotheses (Neuman, 1997:109). Smith (1995:12) points out that the objective of many research projects is to test hypotheses that have already been postulated. It should be emphasised that is not always necessary to formulate a hypothesis. Gorn (Smith, 1995:12) is of the opinion that a hypothesis in a research project need only be formulated when it is relevant and necessary. The research states that the postulation of a hypothesis is only necessary in experimental research. In other research strategies, the preference and skills of the researcher, as well as the nature of the data, determine whether an hypothesis will be formulated.
Tentative answers to questions arising from the research problem are implicit in the formulation of the problem. A hypothesis can therefore be defined as tentative answer to the problem as formulated. Cohen & Nagel (Smith, 1995:12) point out the following implications of hypotheses with regard to problem formulation:

- Hypotheses emanate from a thorough knowledge of the nature, intensity and the problem.
- Hypotheses are essential throughout the duration of the research process for structuring purpose.
- Hypotheses must be regarded as tentative solution or explanation of the problem formulated.
- Hypotheses must be precisely worded. If they are general and vague, they are of little value.
- The number of hypotheses that can be postulated in a certain problem areas is almost infinitive.

Hypotheses have not only an explanatory function, but also an organising function, in that they guide and structure the research. A hypothesis can be regarded as the link between the theory and the research, which leads to the expansion of knowledge. When a hypothesis is confirmed by scientific testing, it acquires the status law of nature (Smith 1995:13).

Smith (1995:13) points out a common error in research, namely those hypotheses that are focused on facts. The result is that one hypothesis serves as the point of departure for another hypothesis. Essentially, the less factual value the researcher attaches to the hypothesis, the more scientific the researcher is. Remember, no matter how many empirical observations there are to substantiate the hypothesis, the hypothesis remains a hypothesis, which has to be proven before one, can rely on the facts it purports to formulate (Smith, 1995:13).

In practice, a distinction can be drawn between researcher’s hypothesis and statistical hypothesis. A research hypothesis, also known as a working or operational hypothesis is usually derived from the theory and sets and presumed relationship between the two variables. This is given the form of an explanation, and is the premise that demarcates the field of the research and indicates the direction of the research (Smith, 1995:13).

The research hypothesis is directional if it points to the expected findings for example, ‘men react quicker to visual stimuli than women.’ In hypothesis only refers to visual similarity/connection or difference, it is non-directional. Statistical hypothesis is also called the null hypothesis (HO) and postulates an insignificant difference or similar between two variables. The perceived difference is therefore not a real one, but can be ascribed to incidental factors. The postulation of a null hypothesis makes it possible to implement statistical techniques (Smith, 1995:13).

For the purpose of this study the following hypothesis will be formulated:

**Hypothesis 1: There is significant relationship between gender and violent crime.**

The types of crime that men and women tend to commit also differ. Until recently only men have been charged with forcible rape, and in some jurisdiction, only women could be victims of this
crime by legal definition. Legal definitions are subject to change, of course, and such change will have some impact on the quality of charges laid without changing the behaviours differentially defined. Furthermore, men do rape men, particularly in prison, but the crime in such cases is usually called something else, like sodomy or assault (Nettler, 1984: 105).

Regardless of changes in legal nomenclature, men are universally the more violent, physically violent, of the sexes. This does not mean that females of one culture cannot be more violent than males of another culture. Fear of victimisation seems to be greatest among people who have directly victimized. However, a relatively small percentage of adults perhaps only three percent are injured in crimes of violence during any given year. The threat of crimes seems to cause fear even in the absence of actual victimisation. Sometimes people's fear is greater that seems warranted by the actual risk of victimisation the face (Smith 1995). For instance, women are the victims of crime less often than men are, but they fear crime more, perhaps because of the threat of the sexual assault. Fear of crime among the elderly seems to be a product of many factors including beliefs that they are physically vulnerable and may not the police (Conklin, 1995:367). Fear of crime is not always rational. Changes in levels of fear do not always reflect changes in crime rates, for instance, increases in crime seem more likely to Leighton fear than decreases in crime are to lower fear. Fear is a product of conversations with relatives, friends and neighbours who have been victims of crime, some research even indicates that "vicarious victimisation" predicts an individual's level of fear better than his or her own victimisation experiences (Conklin 1995:367).

Research indicates that women and elderly have the greatest fears of violent crime, but they are less likely than the young and men to become victims. Furthermore, frequently the most fearful are those who have not been attacked recent or at all although there is evidence of and indirect effect of actual victimisation on crating fear of crime, resulting in even greater fear by some groups, such as women and elderly. Women and the elderly may perceive that they are more vulnerable to crime and that they are less able to protect themselves from violent predators than are men and the young. Research indicates that compared with men, women take far more precautions to protect themselves. They are more likely to avoid being on the streets at night and, if on the streets, to use what has been called "Street Savvy", meaning the use of tactics intended to reduce risks when exposed to danger, such as wearing shoes that permit one to run, or choosing a seat on a bus with an eye to who is sitting nearby. They are less likely to go to a public place at night (Reid, 1994:311). Worldwide; women commit fewer offences than men, spatially when it comes to violent crime. In USA men commit 95% of all violent offences. In 95% of domestic violence cases in Canada and the USA, women are victims. In South Africa, Glanz and Smith (Van der Hoven, 2001: 14) found the crime ratio to be 14: 1 in the case of murder and attempted murder and in the case of robbery.

**Hypothesis 2: There is significant relationship between the ethnic group and violent crime**

Race and crime have been inextricably linked throughout American history. Over time, beliefs about the inferiority and criminality of certain groups, including African Americans, Native Americans, White immigrants, and others, fostered the eugenics movement of the early 20th century and the law and order campaign that came later. Although not created to do so, crime data often are used to support beliefs about minorities and crime (Gabbbidon and Greene, 2005).
At a time when the United States is more diverse than ever, the notion of race seems to permeate almost every facet of American life. Before embarking on an overview of race and crime, we must first, set the parameters of the discussion, which includes relevant definitions and the scope of our review.

South African black women are more vulnerable to victimisation to a larger extent than their white counterparts. Black women are first of all disadvantaged was reinforced by certain laws passed in Parliament such as the influx laws which promoted the dependency of black woman on their husbands or any male relative. The fact that they are black and female and are subjected to certain customary practices and belief, has turned them into the victims of society (Schurink, 1992:229)

Violent crime is one of the most serious social problems facing our society. The research has discovered that blacks are more frequently victims of violent crimes that take place in townships, shebeens and joyous places such as nightclubs which are predominantly frequented by blacks. Such instances are very rare in suburbs or in places, which previously dominated by the whites. Although it must appear obvious to anyone who has lived in a large city that violent crime is predominant among blacks, there has been much disagreement among criminologists about whether this is really so. This has become an issue raised especially by black criminologists who have argued that the high statistical rate of violent crime among blacks is a function of police discrimination (Newman, 1979:73).

Four main effects of crime against the elderly have been identified by Haln (Schurink 1992:201) they are as follows:

- Physical damage and suffering: although the elderly are less likely than younger persons to become victims of crime are, research has indicated that the likelihood or risk of injury is greater.
- Financial loss: economic losses form victimisation cannot be easily absorbed by the aged. Those who are poorest, suffer most.
- Emotional Trauma: the emotional reaction to victimisation particularly heightened fear has long-term implication for the elderly. An increase in fear and anxiety and a decrease in morale, following victimisation, can often be noted.
- Changes in Lifestyle: lifestyle changes as result of victimisation take the form of restricting activities, avoiding places isolating one and withdrawing from the normal activities. Changes in lifestyle may lead to a reduction in victimisations, but this is achieved at the expense of worthwhile activities such as visiting friends and family, sitting in parks, walking and shopping.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between the criminal justice system and violent crime.

This approach requires the community to become more actively involved in the criminal justice system by demanding for example, that persistent serious and violent offenders be permanently incarcerated in order to protect the community from their harmful behaviour. Just recently, we have seen from the television and on the media where the community came in numbers in the case of William Nkuna who murdered Constable Francis Rasuge from Themba Police Station near Pretoria (Schurink 1997). The community at large vehemently opposed his bail and demanded that the must be granted life sentence. Although the court had sentenced Nkuna, her
body has not yet been recovered. Citizens can also demand impartiality in the administration of justice by monitoring and researching the criminal justice system and by insisting on changes in the criminal laws, such as better control of firearms to prevent violent crimes (Schurink, 1997: 466).

**Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between the police and crime.**

It is generally recognised that the attitude of the public on matters concerning the law and law enforcement are extremely relevant to the police. The importance of good policing should also be emphasised. Community relations is evident when are considered that the police rely to a great extent on the general public in their fight against crime. Most of the reports on crime and that are received by the police come from the public. The respondents participating in the research project were questioned about their views on the quality of the work being done by the police. Nearly 30% of the respondents indicated that the police are not doing their work perfectly.

**Hypothesis 6: The significant relationship between age and violent crime**

Young people are disproportionately more likely to be victims of crime, especially young groups. The reason is that most of the time young people frequent and hang around in dubious places such as nightclubs, shebeens, cinemas and amabhesh. A comprehensive study by Snyder and Sickmund (Van der Hoven, et al. 2001) showed that young people under the age of 18 years are responsible for one in ten violent offences committed in the USA. In South Africa, the situation is much worse, as reflected by the fact that 24, 1% of conviction for violent offences in 1993/1994 related to young people under the age of 20. The majority of developing countries have a high percentage of young people under the age of 34 years in their population and this contributes to a high level of violence in these countries.

**Hypothesis 7: There is a significant relationship between race and the violent crime**

It appears from a number of studies conducted in the USA, where most research in this regard is carried out, that ethnicity plays a role in violent crime. According to Gottfredsons and Jarjoura (Van der Hoven, 2001: 14) some 70 studies in the USA have been shown that African Americans commit a disproportionate number of violent crimes. Crime is a violation of the criminal law; while deviant behaviour is a violation of social norms specifying appropriate or proper behaviour under a particular set of circumstances. It is important to note that the term deviant behavior is a broad category which often includes crime (Schmalleger, 1997:77).

Many different kinds of theories have been advanced to explain rule-violating behaviour and deviant behaviour. Some observers of the contemporary scene find explanation for modern-day violence and seemingly increased rates of criminal victimisation in the now widespread and common place episodes of evidence in the American media, especially through television, in music and film (Schmalleger, 1997:77).
4.24. Summary

It has been argued that the cause of violent crime in our society varies is multi-faceted. The province of KwaZulu-Natal is experiencing huge unemployment particularly in places like Umsinga and Pomeroy. Since people are not working, many see the opportunity to commit crimes like robbery in order to make a living. Although HIV/AIDS cannot be regarded as the cause of violent crime, people who affected by it can easily rape children with the view that they can be cured of that disease. In our contemporary society, there is huge outcry that crime is getting out of hand. As a result, the office of the president has been inundated by numerous petitions, reports and submissions that the president should prioritise the issue of violent crime in his political agenda. Poverty, inequality and crime are playing an important role in determining safety outcomes and are also reflected in the government strategic policy framework known as National Development Plan, Vision 2030. Those living in communities by lack of services, with little or poor access to water and sanitation, to childcare and health facilities, educational and employment opportunities, or who are marginalized or excluded, are at the same time most vulnerable to falling victim to crime of violence, most at risk for for engaging in crime, and are usually those least able to access the criminal justice system or victim support services. The poorest of the poor are most therefore those who are most at risk, most vulnerable to, and most affected by, high levels of crime and violence (Crime Prevention Management Course 2014:10).

Although unemployment, HIV/AIDS and incomplete families cannot be regarded as the cause of violent crime, these factors may play a role in terms of contributing of it. The high level of substance abuse only contributes to violent crime, and unstable condition in our communities.

It becomes clear that the promotion of urban safety is dependent on multi-sectoral approaches that address the varied drivers and dimensions present that underpin the realisation of cities that are unsafe. In the context of South Africa, the historical basis of planned segregation under apartheid that drove urban development and planning still very much contributes to the present day existence of marginalised, fragile societies characterised by severe inequality, poverty, lack of economic opportunity and resultant unemployment, all of which aid in in perpetuating social hardship and unrest. The spatial characteristics of violence and crime within urban South Africa confirm this point, as former township areas and the continuously growing urban informal settlements experience the highest level of crime.

The nature and extent of violent crimes have become problematic in a contemporary societies and this area is not excluded. Sometimes people do not report crime to the police for fear of victimisation; others have not confidence in the police. An important aspect of the preparation for research consists of the use of literature. Every serious piece of research includes a review of relevant literature. Constant migration and subsequent pressure on scarce resources further destabilises poor communities and contributes to lack of safety. Substance abuse is rife in South Africa, with particular damaging consequences in poor communities, where levels of vulnerability are increased and poor children are at risk of neglect and abuse. This makes the task of the government departments and civil society much more difficult, at the same time increasing the burden on both the health and criminal justice system.

According to the research paper by South African Institute of Race Relations 2011, many
children in South Africa are growing up in fractured families as a result of a number of factors that take a great toll on family life. Factors include HIV/AIDS, drugs and alcohol abuse, poverty and unemployment. Crime and violence were described as more prevalent in paternal rather than maternal orphans. Furthermore, the research conducted by Human Science Research Council (HRC) on the impact of fathers on their children’s development and growth showed that the presence of the father figure was a contributing factor to the child’s cognitive, intellectual functioning and school achievements. The report further emphasised that children who grow up without a father figure are prone to experience challenges and depression, specifically girls who grew up without a father are likely to have a low self-esteem, high levels of risky behaviour and many difficulties in forming and maintaining romantic relationships at a later stage in life. Meanwhile, boys are inevitably prone to display hyper-masculine behaviour such as aggression, violence and criminal activities.

Reference to literature helps to uncover the following:

In its annual report (Natal Witness 2006), the police said media reports gave the impression of an increase in multiple murders in single incidents. Increases in the incidence of robberies at business and residential premises, cash-in-transit robberies and carjacking create circumstances for this to occur. It seems that people are being fatally wounded, because criminals increasingly use heavy caliber firearms. The police said it seems that family murders are increasing, and that they now affect communities with larger families, resulting in a higher murder rate. The police also said they tried but failed to achieve decrease of between 7 and 10% in contact crimes such as murder, rapes and indecent assaults (Natal Witness, 5 October 2006:1). One of the most important findings in criminology is that a small minority of people commit the majority of crimes. Opportunity plays its part, given a tempting target and little chance of being caught, some individuals will commit crime, and some will do so over and over again. But for most types of crime, most people simply wouldn’t consider breaking the law to be an option, however clear the opportunity (Modern Crime Prevention Strategy March, 2016: 17). Situational crime prevention is based upon the premise that crime is often opportunistic and aims to modify contextual factors to limit the opportunities for offenders to engage in criminal behavior (Tony and Farrington, 1995). Situational prevention comprises a range of measures that highlight the importance of targeting very specific forms of crime in certain circumstances. This involves identifying, manipulating and controlling the situational or environmental factors associated with certain type of crime. It is also based upon assumption regarding the nature offending and offenders (Crime Prevention and Community Safety, 2010: 13).

Violence in South African schools is not a new phenomenon. It is likely that as long as formal schools have existed, violence of some form has taken place within the physical walls of the environment. Only in the last 10 years, however, has school violence become a national concern in South Africa. Policy makers, and the general public’s perceptions and responses to school violence have often been swayed by the isolated, high-profile and often very violent incidents that get portrayed in the media rather than being informed by reliable, standardised data on the nature and extent of violence in schools. In 2008, the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention responded to this situation by embarking on the country’s first national school violence study to provide empirical evidence on the extent and nature of violence in schools.
A sub-culture theory consists of a group of people who participate in a shared system of values and norms that are at variance with those of the larger culture. Sub-culture explanations of crime posit the existence of group values that support criminal behaviour (Bachman and Schutt, 2009:110). The broken window theory holds the view that physical deterioration and increased in unrepairsed buildings lead to increased concerns for personal safety among area residents. Differential association views crime as the product of socialisation and sees it as being acquired by criminals according to the same principles that guide the learning of law-abiding behavior in conformists. Some of the most recent perspective on crime causation belongs to a subcategory of social process thought called social development theory (Bachman & Schutt, 2009). The theory of differential association explains crime as a natural consequence of the interaction with criminal styles. Sutherland suggested that children raised in crime-prone environments were often isolated and unable to experience the values that would otherwise lead to conformity (Bachman & Schutt, 2009:113).
CHAPTER 5
GOVERNMENT FRAMEWORK; LEGISLATION, POLICIES, REGULATION AND IMPACT OF CRIME AND VICTIMISATION

5.1 Introduction

Crime tends to increase during periods of political transition, which are characterised by instability and violence. The increase in crime in South Africa over the last decade is consistent with the experiences of other countries undergoing transitions to democracy. As change and democritisation process are reshaped, new areas for the development of crime open up (Van der Hoven, 2001:16). During the process of transition in South Africa, which brought about a restructuring of the criminal justice system, the abolition of certain laws, and the promulgation of new ones, many criminal justice functions have been weakened or compromised. A multitude of apartheid laws and internal security laws which were draconian in nature were promulgated in South Africa between the mid 1950’s and late 1980’s. Behaviour considered normal in a free society was considered as criminal. For example, politically motivated strikes were a criminal offence, as were, living or playing in areas reserved for people of another race and interracial sex. During the apartheid era, many families of coloured and blacks suffered political and institutional violence and their lives were disrupted by mass removals and the migrant labour politics of apartheid (Van der Hoven, 2001: 6).

Reducing crime is one of leading challenges of South Africa’s democratic government. Some success has been achieved in this regard with most categories of recorded crime stabilising from 1996. Appropriate law enforcement and social crime prevention intervention are urgently required to reduce crime from current levels. Recorded crime statistics, while they do not always reflect the true extent of crime in any society, are still useful in representing broad trends. In turn, victim survey—an independent means of verifying police statistics through questioning a representative sample of the population—also provides useful insights into the extent of crime. In South Africa, recent victim surveys suggest that police statistics may be more accurate than has been generally assumed.

*Much effort is being directed within the Department of Safety and Security to ensure that the quality and reliability of crime statistics is further enhanced. South African Police Services statistics suggest that crime in the country increased from 1985. This began to change in 1996 when most categories of crime showed stabilisation. Despite this trend, current level of crime remains high and continues to breed insecurity in the country. Crime has severe implications, which undermine economic and social development. In addition, fear of crime often changes lifestyles, negatively affecting the quality of living (White Paper on Safety and Security, 1999-2004:8).*
5.2. The mandate from government

Currently, the South African government’s strategic objective for the JCPS Cluster is that ‘all people in South Africa are and feel safe’. The Constitution bestows the right on all South African citizens to enjoy an accountable, effective and a service-oriented criminal justice system. It directs the boundaries with adequate security from those who perpetrate crime. Government has shifted its focus from operating in silos within departments to a holistic and collaborative approach amongst the various stakeholders; through the clustering system. There are various structures that have been established on national, provincial and local levels of government that consists of various CJS Departments. The focus of these structures is to provide strategic direction on implementing government policy in a collaborative manner (Community Police Forum Pocket Guide, 2013:206).


The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, is the supreme law of the country and cornerstone of all government’s policies and legislation. Safety and security is so fundamental that is captured both within the Bill of Rights as well as Chapter 11 of the Constitution. The Bill of Rights affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom of expression. Chapter 11 outlines the governing principles of the security services highlighting the roles of key players in criminal justice system, stating in particular that:

“The following principles govern national security in the Republic: national security must reflect the resolve of the South Africans, as individuals and as a nation, to live as equals, to live in peace and harmony, to be free from fear and want and to seek a better life. The resolve to live in peace and harmony precludes any South African citizen from participating in armed conflict, nationally or internationally, except as provided for in terms of the Constitution or national legislation. National security must be pursued in compliance with the law, including international law. National security is subject to the authority of Parliament and the national executive” (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:22).

Section 40 of the Constitution provides that government is constituted in the national, provincial and local spheres and that spheres are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. Section 41 goes further and states that all spheres of government and all organs of state within each sphere must preserve the peace, secure the well-being of the people of the Republic; co-operate within one another in mutual and good faith by, inter alia, assisting and supporting one another and coordinating their actions and legislation with one another (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). Section 206 (3) of the Constitution entitles each province to promote good relations between the police and the community. This cannot be achieved by the relevant provincial organ of state without the concomitant involvement of the national and local spheres of government. The Constitution provides the over-arching framework for policy and legislation. The principles, values and injunctions of the Constitution form the basis for legislation and policies that have a bearing on the provision of safety (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).
5.4. The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995

Among others, the SAPS Act provides for specific roles of the police in relation to community safety. These include the following: establishing and maintaining partnerships with the community; promoting communication with the community; promoting cooperation on policing with the community; improving transparency and accountability to the community; improved partnership with the community; improved service delivery at all levels; and it remains their responsibility to joint problem identification and ultimately problem solving (South African Police Act, 1995).

5.5. The Inter-Governmental relations framework Act 13 of 2005

The Act provides for the establishment of a National Intergovernmental Forum in order to promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations. Its role is to raise matters within the functional area with provincial governments and where appropriate, organised local government and to hear their views on those matters. It is also to discuss performance in the provision of services in order to detect failures and to initiate preventive or corrective action.

In terms of Section 15 of the Act, two or more National Intergovernmental Forums may meet jointly when necessary to discuss and consult on issues that are inter-sectorial in nature. It is submitted that, on a national and provincial level, these joint meetings become important for discussion and agreement on policy and crosscutting matters that have an impact on the provision of safety and security to the communities. In terms of the Act, District Intergovernmental Forums are mandated to discuss, inter alia, the implementation of national and provincial policy and legislation with respect to such matters in the district, the provision of services in the district and coherent planning and development. Intergovernmental technical support structures comprised of officials representing the governments or organs of state participating in the intergovernmental forums provides an avenue for effective functioning of CSF’s (Community Policing Forum Pocket Guide, 2014:208).

5.6. The National Crime Prevention Strategy 1996

The NCPS represents a collation of national and international experience in crime prevention. It has the following objectives:

- The establishment of a comprehensive policy framework which will enable the government to address crime in a co-ordinated and focused manner which draws on the resources of all government agencies, as well as civil society;
- the promotion of a shared understanding and common vision of how we, as a nation, are going to tackle crime; this vision should also inform and stimulate initiatives at provincial and local level; the development of a set of national programmes, which serve to kick-start and focus the efforts of various government departments in delivering quality service aimed at solving the problems leading to high crime levels, particularly in our residential areas; the maximization of civil society’s participation in mobilising and sustaining crime prevention initiatives;
creation of a dedicated and integrated crime prevention capacity, which can conduct ongoing research and evaluation of departmental and public campaigns as well as facilitating effective crime prevention programmes at provincial and local level; and emphasis on greater community involvement in crime prevention (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996).

The National Crime Prevention Strategy is based on the following four pillars:

The criminal justice process aims to make the CJS more efficient and effective. It must provide a sure and clear deterrent for criminals and reduce the risk of re-offending; reducing crime through environment design focuses on designing systems to reduce the opportunity to crime and increase the ease of detection and identification of criminals; public values and education concern initiatives aimed at changing the way communities react to crime and violence. It involves programmes which utilise public education and information in facilitating meaningful citizen participation in crime prevention. Trans-national crime prevention aims at improving the controls over cross border traffic related to crime and reducing the refuge which the region offenders to international criminal syndicate (Community Policing Forum Pocket Guide, 2014:211).

5.7 The White Paper on Safety and Security 1998

The White Paper on Safety and Security has as its objectives to outline: the strategic priorities that specifically deal with crime; the role and responsibilities of various relevant stakeholdes and security spheres; and role of the Department of Community Safety and Liaison within the constitutional framework; the White Paper on Safety and Security makes numerous, specific references to the role of local authorities in crime prevention: the internal prevention of crime ie; within the municipality; working with the local SAPS and CPF’s in setting priorities; aligning resources and objectives within a crime prevention framework; ensuring that development projects take crime prevention principles into account; coordination of crime prevention initiatives operating within the municipal area to avoid duplication; effective enforcement of by-laws; effective traffic law enforcement; assist victims of crime with information as to support services available; initiate target crime prevention programmes; local government to play a lead role in local crime prevention, promoting crime prevention though multi-agency partnerships (Community Police Forum Pocket Guide, 2014:212).

5.8. Community Safety Forum (CSF)

The Community Safety Forum policy provides a framework for integrated, localised safety planning and coordination, with provincial and local government as key players, and community representation in the form of the Community Police Forum. The Community Safety Forum policy of 2011 emanated from the requirements to implement the NCPS and the 1998 White Paper of Safety and Security through better integration among actors in the implementation of crime prevention and safety strategies (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:29). The establishment of CSF’s is intended: to promote the development of a community where citizens live in a safe environment and have access to high quality services at local level, through
integrated and coordinated multi-agency collaboration among organs of state and various communities.

5.8.1 Scope of the Community Safety Forum (CSF) Policy

The scope of the policy relates to the following:

- The policy highlights proper coordination within government departments; and with other relevant agencies; stakeholders, community at large, civil society and other relevant stakeholders.
- Stimulate the identification and development of crime prevention measures and long-term strategies for tackling the causes of crime and lack of safety.
- Ensuring that community safety is a high priority for relevant department, organisations and community formations.
- Providing information, training and opportunities to share and develop good practice on crime prevention and safety.

Community Safety Forums are based on the premise that increased co-operation and integration at the local sphere on a programme that is aligned to a national agenda, would improve the functioning of the criminal justice and the delivery of crime prevention projects.

The above scope will be achieved through dealing with the following:

A local perspective on community safety and crime prevention; social crime prevention; crime prevention through environmental design; encouraging and improving citizen participation in community safety initiatives; promoting restorative justice; reducing re-offending (recidivism); ensuring effective reintegration of ex-offender (parolees) into the community; improving community cohesion; improving community participation in the local economy; addressing gender-based violence and violence against women and children; addressing alcohol and substance abuse; ensuring safer streets and safer schools; ensuring safer human settlements; ensuring access to justice; and ensuring road transport safety and safer public transport (Community Police Forum Pocket Guide, 2014:215).

In terms of Section 152 (1) (d) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the local government should promote a safe and healthy environment. This creates a broad safety mandate for local governments, although municipalities have often limited their safety responsibilities to traffic control and disaster management. Some argue that safety is the exclusive responsibility of the South African Police Services (SAPS). This is a popular view, but it does not take into account the legal obligation of local government through this constitutional mandate. The Constitution does indeed make crime prevention a mandate of the SAPS, but does not limit it to that specific agent of the state. Family cohesion, installing and changing street lights, victim empowerment and substance rehabilitation programmes are among the potential social and environmental crime prevention initiatives that fall outside the mandate of the SAPS. Promoting these initiatives in a coordinated way at local is something that municipalities have to do. Therefore, the Community Safety Forums are a mechanism that enables municipalities to meet their responsibility for promoting a safe and healthy environment (Community Safety Guideline,
Department of Community Safety; Idasa Safety and Security Programme (2010:06). The Constitution also requires municipalities to structure and manage their administration, including budgeting and planning process, to give priority to the basic needs of the community, (section 153 (b). Health and Safety are basic needs and priorities for all South Africans. Their fulfillment is essential to improving the quality of life of residents of any municipalities. Furthermore, the Constitution compels municipalities to provide the essential financial and human resources for the promotion of safety and health. Section 152 (2) requires municipalities to meet all the objectives of local government, including the promotion of safe and healthy environments, using their own financial and administrative capacity. In practical terms, this means that municipalities must find the money to design and implement safety initiatives, and must provide the administrative capacity required to create a safe and healthy environment for all residents (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). Community Safety Forums evolved from an evaluation of how the Community Policing Forum was being implemented in South Africa. In many countries, Community Policing Forums in which police work actively with communities to develop sustainable approaches to enhancing safety are not created by legislation and are therefore not confined to law enforcement (Community Safety Guide, 2010:08).

5.9. Department of Correctional Services

The Department of Correctional Services has been mandated by its Act to correct the behavior of the offenders. Previously these correctional centres were formally known as prisons, and were regarded as the place of torture and humiliation; and especially political prisoners were detained in places like Robben Island for a long period and condition was appalling and was treated in a disdained and degrading manner. Facilitate social acceptance and effective reintegration of ex-offender into the communities; facilitate and manage parole release programmes with communities; facilitate community service programmes. The successful rehabilitation and integration of offenders into communities is vital to the secondary and tertiary prevention of crime models. The Correctional Services Act places this obligation on the Department of Correctional Services (Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998).

5.10. Department of Justice and Constitutional Development

Public confidence in the criminal justice system is a necessary and important step in preventing crime and increasing levels of safety. The likelihood of crimes being committed is increased if the system is regarded as ineffective. The confidence is eroded by perceptions that criminals escape the law, arrests will not lead to convictions, or prisoners escape easily from the courtrooms or correctional facilities the most effective deterrent to criminality is an efficient and effective criminal justice system (National Development Plan, Vision 2030).

- Facilitate and promote access to justice services available to the communities (legal aid board and Thuthuzela Care Centres).
- Empower citizens to understand the Constitution, laws that influence their lives and access all their rights.
- Ensure restorative justice and alternative dispute resolution (ADR) initiatives.
- Ensure that victim empowerment and support programmes are adopted and are run effectively to address victim’s traumatic experiences.
- Conduct face-the-people sessions on bail and sentencing at local level.
- Facilitate, coordinate and ensure functionality of Provincial IJS Development Communities.

5.11. The National School Safety Framework

The Department of Education is committed to preventing, managing and responding to safety incidents, and in so doing, creating a safe and supportive learning environment in all schools. The National School Safety Framework (NSSF) was therefore, developed in order to provide an all-inclusive strategy to guide the national department as well as the provincial education departments in a coordinated effort to address the issue of violence occurring within schools. The overall aim of the framework is to create a safe, violence and threats-free, supportive learning environment for learners, educators, principals, school governing bodies and administration.

To achieve this, school and non-school stakeholders should understand the nature of violence as it affects learners, and should collaborate with each other with clear definitions of their roles and responses to school violence. The board objectives of this framework are as follows:

- Assist the school in understanding and identifying all security issues and threats;
- Guide schools to effectively respond to identified security issues and threats;
- Creating reporting systems and manage reported incidents appropriately; and
- Help the school to monitor their progress over time (National School Safety Framework 2014:06).

There were two notorious schools at Msinga that were known as the main sources of conflict. It was later established that some of the educators were behind this conflict; they wanted to remove the principal from his position. Over the past year, we built on the initiatives resulting from the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding between the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, the Department of Education and the South African Police Services last year.

This Memorandum binds the Department of Education to establish School Safety Committees and implement the National School Safety Framework (NSSF) with the support of the Department of Community Safety and Liaison as well as SAPS. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison continued with the formal monitoring of police stations in respect of compliance with the National School Safety Framework and the training of School Safety Committees on the legal framework for crime prevention and criminal justice. This process will continue during this financial year. A total of 285 schools have been linked with the nearest schools.

The research believes that schools are of the community and it is the responsibility of communities to ensure that schools have a safe environment for learning (Budget Vote Speech, 2017/2018:15). The safety programmes and interventions can address a wide range of issues that reinforce violence within both the school and community, including behaviours, attitudes, patterns and forms of communication, policies and norms. Examples might include conflict
mediation and resolution approaches, programmes that embrace cultural diversity, or healthy masculinity interventions. Furthermore, through participation in local safety forums and structures, schools can play an important role in steering communities towards safety.

Finally, schools that drive school safety programmes, in partnership with local partners e.g. local government, the police, and other stakeholders, can reap tangible benefits for community-level safety beyond the immediate confines of their school, with positive safety outcomes for their own learners and the community in general (Burton & Leoschut, 2012:05).

5.12 National Development Plan Vision 2030

The National Development Plan, Vision 2030 (NDP) recognizes that law enforcement approaches alone cannot address South Africa’s crime problems. In discussing crime, the danger is to focus on policing as the only solution. It is necessary to move away from a narrow law-enforcement perspective to crime and safety, to identifying and resolving the root causes of crime. To achieve this, South Africa will have to mobilise state and non-state capacities at all levels, which requires an integrated approach, with active citizen involvement and co-responsibility (National Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:23).

The National Development Plan establishes ‘Building Safer Communities’ as a key objective, and establishes the following as the vision for the country by 2030. In 2030, people living in South Africa must feel safe at home, at school and at work and enjoy a community life free of fear. Women should walk freely in the streets and children should play safely outside. The police service is well-resourced and professionally staffed by highly skilled officers who value their work, serve the community, safeguard lives and property without discrimination, protect the peaceful against violence, and respect the rights to equality and justice; the NDP sets five priorities for the achievement of the above vision: strengthen the criminal justice; make the police service professional; demilitarize the police; build safety using an integrated approach; and build community participation in safety (National Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:24).

5.13 The Provincial Constitution for the Community Crime Prevention Association

The community crime fighting structures such as KZNCCPA, has welcomed the draft copy of the provincial constitution, which was tabled by Legal Services officials from the Department of Community Safety and Liaison under the direction of the MEC Mr TW Mchunu. The success of the departmental legal services team in drafting the Provincial Constitution for the Community Crime Prevention Association follows the painstaking deliberations with members of the association. The Community Crime Prevention Association is a voluntary structure which was established by various civil society organisations with an aim of contributing to crime prevention and reduction at local level. This initiative forms part of Building a united front against crime (Com. Safety Insider, 2012).

The Provincial Constitution is part of the department’s effort into eradicating vigilantism and towards ensuring that all crime-fighting structures perform their function within the parameters of the law (Com. Safety Insider, 2012). Since the early 1990s, a host of community structures has
emerged to mobilise against crime. They include ant-crime forums, anti-crime committees, neighbourhood watches, vigilantes, Community Policing Forums, Community Safety Forums, residents’s liaison committees, disciplinary committees, mothers against crime, and many others are among the types of structures that have mobilized against crime since 1994. Why are there so many initiatives, and of so many different types? The answer is simple: there is popular belief among the community members that the state has dismally failed to live to people’s expectations to protect them against the criminals (Steinberg, 2001:66).

5.14 The impact of crime on victims and community

There is little to suggest that rape is an expression of sexual frustration on the part of the rapist. Most research demonstrates that it is, rather, an expression of anger, power and control by men who are mostly socially and sexually inadequate and who frequently have histories of non – sexual criminal activities. Equally the main impact of this crime for the victim is a life threatening assault, perverting what is normally a sharing, trusting enjoyable act between two adults, into a dehumanising act of terrorisation. The effect of rape on the victims are similar to those of any act of violence or major disaster which is perceived as threatening, external to the individual’s control and impinging on his or her capacity to cope in an effective way (Maguire & Pointing, 1998:66-67).

A recent self-report study conducted by the HSRC on the impact of crime in Umlazi and KwaMashu reflected the seriousness of rape in South African society in that 57% of the residents of Umlazi and 50.1% of the residents of KwaMashu regard rape as a serious problem in the community. Despite the high incidence of rape in this country no statistical profile of rapists, the victim or of the circumstances in which rape occurs has been constructed. Such a profile is crucial to understanding the pattern of rape and planning of prevention strategies. The largest obstacles in the path of constructing a profile in rape victims are obtaining details of rape cases representatives of all cases of rape in RSA, and obtaining the manpower and funds needed for such a mammoth operation (Schurink et al, 1992: 340).

Family murder is one of the problematic crimes in this province. The researcher has experienced and observed a member of cold blooded murder where by the entire family is wiped out with apparently no reason. In Empangeni two families have experience such a tragic situation. In Matshana area the whole family was murdered; few months ago another family was also murdered next to Dlangezwa area where it was alleged that the main issue was land ownership. In Ngudwini area next to Eshowe, the whole family was gunned down at night on suspicious that the family was involved in faction fighting that took place in the area. Faction fights leave the orphans behind, wreck the rural economy and halt progress in respect of community development. It has also brought death with such regularity that countless lives have been lost (Ndabandaba, 1987:58).

When the general population is broken down into groups according to various attributes, striking differences in robbery rates become evident. To put it bluntly, certain categories of people are robbed more often than others. Starting with gender, the first pattern that stands out is that males were robbed at a rate twice more than that of females. As for race and ethnicity, the rate for black people was more than twice as high as that for white people (Karmen, 1990:64).
Murder is the most terrible crime of all. The damage to victim cannot be undone. The loss suffered by the victim’s survivors is total and irreparable. Homicide is defined as the willful (not negligent) killing of one human being by another. Death caused by carelessness or accidents, and suicides are not classified as homicides. Acts later ruled to be justifiable homicides, and failed attempts to kill are also excluded from the body counts (Karman 1990:67). Victimisation necessarily involves the violation of the victim’s fundamental rights and freedom. Indigenous African law and customs, in dealing with an offender, was more concerned with vindicating the victim and his rights than with punishing the offender. Contemporary criminal justice system, on the other hand, has tendered to be more preoccupied with the offender and his rights than with the victim (Karman 1990:67).

The rapid social changes and urbanization taking place all over Africa is resulting in increasing incidence of crime. This in turn, means the existence of crime, which must be protected from the consequences of crime. Failure to do so might inevitably result in a lessening of public confidence in the justice system, and in the victims being tempted to take the law in their own hands, which will undoubtedly produce negative consequences (Mushanga, 1992: 39). For some time now, South Africans have been swamped by reports of violent crime, and this has often resulted in heated and controversial debate. Furthermore, the violent nature of the area in which citizens of this country live—especially individuals who inhabit black townships and those in rural settlements— is emphasised in reports that appear on a daily basis in the media (Nomoyi 2000:66).

According to the National Crime Information Management Center of the South African Police (Nomoyi, 2000: 66) 20 983 murders were committed during 1997 and 13 698 during the first six months of 1998. The Institute for Security Studies report that Interpol Statistics suggest that South Africa’s rate of murders per 100 000 persons is among the highest in the world. In conjunction with this (Nomoyi, 2000:66) observes that organised crime syndicates present a new kind of menace to South Africa, as it does in most countries undergoing a period of profound political transition. Organised criminal activity, while present before 1994, was not recognised as a concern. Countering organised crime has now become a key goal of government. Police statistics suggest a large number of organised crime syndicate operate in the country (Peltzer 2000:75). These groups, many of whom have regional and international links, engage in a number of illegal activities including the trafficking of drugs and arms, vehicle theft and armed robbery.

Victimisation through crime and related abuses often has not only immediate but also long-term effects. The trauma that criminal incidents may cause can have serious repercussions beyond the event itself. Crimes involving violence, such as assault and robbery, may cause extensive physical injuries, even death, or permanent disability. Violent crime is a predominant contributing factor to the development of mental health problems, most commonly post-traumatic stress disorder (Peltzer, 2000:75). Disturbances following violence are sometimes complicated by the contacts of the victim with the police, newspapers, insurance company personnel and medical authorities.
The first goal of the police, for instance, is solving the crime; not assisting the victim. Their contact with the victims is purely professional; they have to interrogate them and they have to check or prove their statements. There is, therefore, an imbalance in the interests of the police and that of the victim, and it can be especially hard for the latter that already feels himself or herself to be degraded by the act of violence (Peltzer, 2000:76). When the causes of violent crime are examined sometimes one factor is suggested as the real cause. Some investigate to try to find the cause for the crime in the individual himself, while others blame society and the environment. Nowadays, however, many theories and much research focuses on multiple factors which influence criminal acts. The present research will pay more attention to social factors as the main causes of violent crime.

5.15 The measurement of victimisation rates

Although there are multiple techniques for collecting crime data, the three basic methods are inter alia: Uniform Crime Reports (UCR), the National Crime Victimisation Survey (NCVS), and self-report studies. For the purpose of the present research, the main focus will be the National Crime Victimisation Survey. This method of data gathering seeks to tap into the dark figure of crime, or those crimes that go unreported to the police from the victims’ point of view. This interview process seeks to reveal not only the amount of crime that is occurring but also why victims choose not to report their crimes and the impact of the victimisations (Reid, 2012:25).

According to Schmallenger, (1997:52), a second major source of statistical data about crime in the United States is the NCVS, which is based upon victim self-reports rather than on police reports. The NCVS began its operation in 1972 and built upon earlier efforts by both the National Opinion Research Center and the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice in the late 1960s to uncover what some had been calling (Schmallenger 1997:52), the dark figure of crime. Early data from the NCVS changed the way criminologists thought about crime in the United States. The use of victim self-reports led to the discovery that crime of all types was more prevalent than UCR statistics indicated.

Hindelang et al (Zondi 2000:21) notes that personal victimisation (namely: rape, assault, robbery and personal larceny) occurs disproportionately away from the home of the victim, mainly on the street or in other public places. Because persons spend different amounts of time away from their homes, some people are more exposed to the risk of victimisation than others are. Elaborating on this point, an argument was raised, Cohen and Felson, (Zondi 2000:21) that the probability of being outside the home is a function of lifestyle, meaning routine activities pertaining to work and leisure. In this way, lifestyle differences are related to differential exposure to the risk of personal victimisation.

Much the same argument is made by Cohen and Felson (Zondi 2000:21), who contend that routine activities, especially activities spent outside the home, affect exposure to personal victimisation through the convergence in space and time of the three minimal elements of direct contact for predatory violations: motivated offenders; suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians against a violation of the law.
These arguments suggest that there is considerable variation among persons in exposure to the risk of personal victimisation and that exposure varies as a function of lifestyle/routine activities. The impact of crime has been measured in terms of the harm caused to society as a whole by violations of law. With the discovery of crime victims, attention shifted to direct losses experienced by emphasising what is taken away, or what the offender gets away with. The consequences of crime victims are not limited to financial expenses or even physical injuries. The psychological damage that lingers is real as well, although such intangible or less visible costs in the form of pain and suffering may defy measurement (Karmen, 1984:36).

The impact of most crimes on their victims is perceived in an opposite way as a violation of itself and a grim reminder of one’s vulnerability and mortality in a hostile world filled with antagonists’ intent on inflicting harm. Homes are reflections and extensions of oneself — nests as well as castles. Burglaries strike victims, as an invasion, intrusion or frightening breakdown in security, regardless of how little was spirited away. Robberies involve more than the loss of cherished possessions or hard-earned cash. The victim’s sense of independence and autonomy is trampled on as they are forced to surrender and place their fate in the hands of enemies. Victimisation can therefore be viewed as a burden, not just as a loss. Something is left behind as well as taken away. Haunting memories, chilling scenarios, nightmarish images and similar psychological scars are carried about as a crushing mental load. They are oppressive, worrisome, anxiety provoking and encumbering to those who bear them (crime victims) (Karmen, 1984:37).

Just as the researcher can describe and categories offenders, the criminologists can describe and categorise victims. The victims of burglaries own or occupy the premises that are burgled. The victims of larceny own or possess property. Victims of credit card frauds are storeowners. It is more difficult to find common denominators among victims of crimes of violence. Nevertheless, logical research tells us a lot about types and groups of human being who are particularly vulnerable to crimes of various sorts (Zondi, 2000:24).

Previous correlation studies have been limited by the availability of suitable data. Measures of experience with crime require adequate victimisation survey techniques. Many survey are too small to uncover enough victims of personal crime for useful analysis. Studies with a methodologically sound “recall period” for measuring victimisation typically uncover very few — usually about 6% of those interviewed for violent crime. Generally, the more conventionally serious and accident is, the less frequently it occurs (Zondi 2000:25).

Demographics of victims indicate that young, black males are most affected. Youth should therefore be engaged in programmes that promote taking responsibility for their own safety. Resources to do this should be mobilised from the public and private sector, creating a partnership to support a comprehensive long-term programme. The youth can only take co-responsibility if government is seen to be taking the lead to resource and support their initiatives and actions (Crime Prevention Management, Project Management 2014:399).

5.16 The position of crime in South Africa

It is often said that South Africa has the highest levels of crime in the world and that Johannesburg is the World’s crime capital. How true is this? South Africa’s crime situation is
usually compared to that of developed countries, as many developing countries do not keep proper and reliable records on the crimes that are committed there. This is, however, an unfair comparison. Socio-economic conditions, unemployment levels and the state’s ability to help those in need are more favourable in the developed states, concentrated mainly in the Northern Hemisphere (Schonteich 2000:51).

South Africa is a developing country. According to the 1999 Human Development Report, South Africa occupies position 101 out of 174 in terms of human development (where Canada, at position 1, scoring the highest in terms of human development, and Sierra Leone at position 174, the lowest). According to the Human Development Index, South Africa scores the highest among Sub-saharan countries. For example, Namibia is at position 115, followed by Botswana (122), Zimbabwe (130), Kenya (136) and Tanzania (156).

Given South Africa’s location in Africa and the fact that it is largely a developing country, the question that should be asked is: How does South Africa’s levels of crime compare to other developing countries – especially those in Sub-Saharan Africa? Indeed, it is a difficult question to answer, as crime statistics for many African states are notoriously unreliable or non-existent. The two most complete sources for African crime statistics come from the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol), which provides figures on the actual number of crimes reported to the police in various countries, and victim surveys which have been conducted in a selected number of African countries by the United Nations (Schonteich, 2000:51).

Police have arrested a fourth suspect in connection with the murder of Battlefields expert Davis Rattray. Senior Supt Phindile Radebe said the 27 year old man was arrested on 14 March 2007 at Helpmakaar near Nqutu by members of the organized crime unit. He had apparently been hiding at a relative’s home. Two other men involved in the Rattray murder have already confessed to the killing and were sentenced to 25 years imprisonment each. Another suspect, Simphiwe Ndlovu has appeared at the Dundee Magistrates Court but has not pleaded to the charges. He is due back in court in April 2007. Mr Rattray was attacked and shot dead at his fugitives Rorke’s Drift Museum. Nothing was stolen from his house, 26 January 2007 (The Witness, 15 March 2007:3). This highlight the fact that the level of crime has reached an alarming rate in such a way that even other countries feel that Soth Africa has now become a dangerous place to visit. This place (Battlefield) is normally frequented by international tourists.

5.17 Crimes of violence in South Africa

By global standards, South Africa has extraordinary high levels of violent crime, according to 1997 Interpol statistics. In 1997, South Africa had the highest per capita rates of murder and rape, the second highest rate of robbery and violent theft (after Bahamas), and the fourth highest rates of serious assault and sexual offences of the 110 countries with crime levels listed by Interpol. South Africa’s vehicle theft levels are not as favourable as Interpol’s figures indicate. For example, in 1997, some 248 cars were stolen per 100 000 people in South Africa. In France, 552 cars were stolen per 100 000 of the population (Schonteich, 2000:52).

The 1997 Interpol report provides crime data for nine Sub-Saharan countries only (including South Africa). The per capita crime rate for the major violent crimes of murder, rape and robbery and violent theft was substantially higher in South Africa than in the other eight Sub-Saharan
countries. South Africa also had the highest per capita serious assault rate (541 per 100 000 of the population), but this was closely followed by Namibia (497 per 100 000). The crime triangle is very simple but effective way of understanding crime and how to address it. In order for crime to take place, three elements (or angle of the triangle) need to be present. Firstly, there is an offender who is committing the crime. Secondly, the crime is committed against a victim. The third element is an environment (or opportunity) within which the crime is committed. Each element may be tackled in a specific manner in order to reduce the levels of crime and victimisation.

A crime can only take place when there is a victim, an offender and opportunity or place for the crime to be committed. When we understand each of the three elements and the risk factors that contribute to them, then we can plan effective crime prevention programmes (KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison, Crime prevention manual, 2013:06).

The research has revealed that crime and violence has negative effect on children. Not all victims of violence will perpetuate criminal and violent behaviour. Research also shows, however, that the overwhelming majority of violent offenders first experience violence as victims or as bystanders to violence at a tender age. Many research studies (Emmett et al. 2007) make the connection between early childhood trauma and later aberrant or violent behavior. Strong connections and plight of vulnerable children are often ignored, however, until they pose a threat to the rest of our society. Once they become offenders, society demands a punitive response from the criminal justice system. The connection between poverty and crime is complex. Not all poor people commit crime, although deep poverty may drive some people towards criminality. Poverty also greatly increase vulnerability to crime and the impact of crime is often worse for poor people and sometimes they are tempted to commit crime, (Emmett et al. 2007).

5.18 Crime statistics in Msinga

The issue of crime in this area has become an increasing problem not only to its community per se but even to the business communities as well. The social and economic development in Msinga has attracted people from many walks of life to the area. Some of these people left their places of residence because of political reasons; others because of faction fighting. It is against this background that KZN finds itself to be a capital of criminals.

The crime statistics index from the SAPS indicates that assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm is the most problematic crime (3,846), and of course as common assault (2,307). Murder and attempted murder appear to be less problematic crimes as they are recorded to be (476 and 659 respectively) (Crime in the RSA for the period January to December 1994-2002:1). The statistics show that rape appears to be a problem (767) as compared to murder (476). The release of the crime statistics for the year up to March 2006 shows that murder was down by 3.4% in the Midlands area, while rape showed an increase of almost 8%. Robbery of cash in transit vehicles has also spike considerably in the 2005/2006 period, with 16 cases recorded for 2005/2006 as opposed to only one in 2004/2005.
5.19 **Victims of crime**

Police crime statistics are generally considered to be the most accessible source of information on how many crimes are committed in a country. However, police records contain only information on crime, which are reported and recorded or uncovered by the police. For a number of reasons, such information is not sufficient. Because of inadequate recording practices and political agendas, crime statistics sometimes reflect only the police’s performance in recording crimes. Moreover, some crimes are reported but not recorded. This happens when victims call the police and the police judge the crime as not sufficiently serious to warrant its recording.

Crime victims do not report crime for a number of reasons, such as follows:

- fear of victimisation, embarrassment, fear of revenge, in the case of domestic violence or child abuse;
- the offender is a breadwinner; in rural areas perhaps the terrain is untraversable; the matter is too trivial;
- the police are not interested to pursue minor issue and the court procedures too cumbersome or boring.

The propensity to report crimes is likely to differ from country to country and by type of crime. Generally, for serious property-related crimes, especially where the stolen property is insured, the reporting rate is high. However, some violent offences, especially sexual offences, reporting rates tend to be low (Schonteich 2000:54). Victim’s surveys seek to overcome the phenomenon of underreporting of crime and the fact that the police do not record all crimes, which are brought to their attention (Schonteich, 2000:54). Many researchers firmly believe that they understand the causes of crime and what ought to be done about it. Yet despite some surface agreement about the ranking of crimes, South Africa experiences high levels of crime and particularly violent crime, by serious more careful research reveals many differences in public views on crime issues (Brown et al. 2013:25).

5.20 **The international model of victimisation**

According to the International Model of Victimisation, the victims of crime function as biological and personality subsystems, within the social as well as the cultural subsystem. The implication of this is that it is possible to explain the dynamic interaction between the victim and the environment, of which the latter, within the context of this article, allude to the co-ordinations of support services.

Further, this model presupposes that this phenomenon is characterised by a hierarchical flow of energy, information and control of the General Action System, from the biological, personality, social and cultural subsystems and back from the cultural systems to the rest of the General Action Systems (Nomoyi, 1998:96).

The International Model of Victimisation was developed to capture the experiences of victimisation of violent crimes. It thus made it possible for the authors to assess their needs, as well as establish how these requirements could be supported by caregivers. Furthermore, the
study identified problems which co-coordinators of support services required being resolved in order that they could assist victims holistically. According to Van Dijk (Peltzer, 2000:75) most crime victims in South Africa tend to be dissatisfied with the treatment given to them by the police. In relation to this, they are less likely to report crimes to the police. According to the research very few people receive specialised help in South Africa. Half of all victims, however, would have welcomed it.

5.21 Universally recognised factors which contribute to victimology

5.21.1 Economic strain and deprivation

High levels of crime are more prevalent in countries where there are high proportions of people who feel economically deprived. It is not poverty per se that contributes to crime, but how people experience their financial situation (Nomoyi 2001:68). To illustrate this point it can be stated that the majority of people do not commit crime but those who feel deprived, will often resort to it. Countries characterised by huge income disparities, especially if these occur across racial lines, have high crime rates. America, Australia and South Africa are good examples. Economic strain particularly contributes to violent crime as economically deprived males are inclined to commit other types of violent crime such as robbery, serious assault and vehicle hijacking (Alpert & Moore 1993:113).

Another issue of concern, from a criminological viewpoint, as Doener and Lab (Nomoyi, 2000:68) reflect, is crime prevention mechanisms which discriminate between people, and in doing so, contribute to violent crime. To illustration: it is counter-productive to place greater focus on neighbourhoods, which are characterised by a high crime rate and in this way stigmatise persons who belong to the lower socio-economic stratum. When high profile persons commit crime, we rally around them and even write letters to the relevant criminal justice departments to persuade them to be lenient. Questions could therefore arise such as what signals are sending to the traditional criminals; what signals are we sending to society as a whole and what about our commitment to fighting crime?

It must be borne in mind that these conditions have always existed and cannot be seen as the only explanation for the sudden hike in crimes of violence in black townships as well as rural areas. However, they cannot and should not be ignored. According to Alpert and Moore (1993:112-113), measures of trust and confidence in the police should be taken into consideration when measuring police performance. If these measures are not taken into consideration, most people will not see the importance of measuring police performance, because it will not be addressing their fear of crime and victimisation. Alpert and Moore’s views on this matter are supported by Shane (2009:15) who states that the goal of measuring performance is to determine whether the intended outcome is indeed achieved. For example, to control the fear of crime, factors such as crime and criminal victimisation must be reduced; offenders must increasingly be held accountable, and feelings of personal safety must be enhanced.

Consensual transactions, involving illicit drugs, tend to come to light as the result of proactive policing. That is, the more police assigned to a particular area, the more offences those police
will detect. Statistics, which purport to reflect these and other offences, which lack aggrieved victims, tell police management more about police resource allocation than they do about the targeted criminal activity. Victims of more conventional forms of crime such as assault and theft, may for a number of reasons, be reluctant to report offences to the police. The study’s findings appeared to show that such reasons may include the victim’s perception that the matter was so trivial that the police could not or would not be of much assistance, or that further pursuit of the matter would entail unnecessary stress and discomfort (Alpert & Moore, 1993:112-113).

5.21.2 Low educational level

Globally, low education levels are associated with high levels of crime, as these result in low income as well as unemployment. According to Statistics South Africa (Nomoyi, 2000:68), 34% of the economically active people in the country are currently employed while 60% of young people between the ages of 16-25 years are unemployed. Another trend is that there is less sexual violence in countries where women are better educated and financially independent. Low education levels are particularly prevalent in South American and African countries.

5.21.3 High rates of urbanisation

High rates of urbanisation without the state being able to provide the necessary infrastructure such as houses, schools, hospitals, nursery schools, aftercare school facilities, etc. increase all levels of crime. According to Statistics South Africa, 35% of South Africa’s population, currently do not live in formal houses.

5.21.4 The free availability of guns in our society

High levels of gun ownership are strongly related to high crime levels, especially crimes of violence, as was found in numerous studies (Nomoyi, 2000:68). Countries involved in internal conflict, or those involved in liberation struggles or countries bordering such countries, have high crime levels. Fear of crime and the smuggling of illegal firearms make them more vulnerable to crime. The level of gun ownership is also determined by cultural and legal traditions, which make gun control difficult. For example, Afrikaners have a tradition of high gun ownership and the second amendment of the American constitution grants American citizens the right to arms (Dube 2008).

Guns play a significant role in contributing to the lack of safety and feeling safe. The link between guns and violent crime in our society is very clear, and even more so when taking into account the fact that guns the second largest external cause of death in South Africa. The illegal firearm unit confirms that new guns currently entering the illegal pool in South Africa frequently originate from theft and loss from license sources. Between 1999 and 2003, more than 200 000 guns were reported stolen or lost by private owners. It is estimated that each gun in the illegal pool is used about eight times before it is recovered (Dube, 2008).

Effective and trusted law enforcement or the lack thereof, plays an important role in our feelings and perceptions of safety or unsafely. One of the most important ways of reducing society’s fear
of crime is to restore its faith in the ability of law enforcement agents to deal effectively and efficiently with crime and offenders. An effective criminal justice system improves public confidence in the system’s ability to create safer communities and prevent crime. It also inspires confidence among victims and witnesses, encouraging them to participate in the criminal process, which leads to increased arrest and convictions (Badenhorst, 2008). The call made by the African Union that was once led by Dr Nkosazane Dlamini-Zuma, was to let all guns be silenced in Africa, which will drastically reduce intra-conflicts violence, murder, and genocide, which highly affects millions and millions in African countries (Ukhozi FM, 2016). The Premier of Kwazulu-Natal has expressed his feelings about the proliferation of illegal firearms and he has alluded to the fact that illegal firearms are key drivers of murders and mayhem in the province of Kwazulu-Nata. He also highlighted that most of the illegal firearms are found in Msinga, Greytown and Muden (Media briefing document, 03 October 2015).

5.21.5 Population structure

Worldwide, most criminals fall within the age group 15-35 years with the highest peak between the ages of 15-24 years. This age group is more daring and seeks immediate satisfaction of their needs. In conjunction with this, they are physically strong and are also more mobile and therefore more exposed to opportunities for committing crime. Developing countries in Africa and South America have a large number of young people, a fact that contributes to higher crime rates (Nomoyi 2000). Countries undergoing large scale socio-economic and political transition experience an increase in crime as is evident in the old East Bloc countries, South America, and Africa including South Africa.

5.21.6 The weakness of criminal justice system

The problem of institutional weakness and inability of the criminal justice system to deal with crime and general organised crime in particular is reflected in Moolman’s analysis (Nomoyi, 2000:69) of the Nedcor Institute for Security Studies Crime index. This analysis indicates a dramatic decrease in the conviction rate at per 100 000 of the population since 1999-1994.

To illustrate this, Moolman says that only 7, 1% of offenders would serve sentences for every 1 000 crimes committed in South Africa. The rest would escape justice because of the non-reporting of crime by victims, poor detective work in collecting evidence, escapes from custody with the assistance of corrupt officials. Given the above analysis, multinational crime syndicates would find more than enough reason for establishing themselves in country. With reference to the socio-political history of South Africa, imprisonment does not result in any form of social rejection for black offenders. During the apartheid years, social rejection due to imprisonment was neutralised since people were imprisoned for the contravention of passbook laws, with the black community did not regard as morally unacceptable behaviour (Nomoyi 2000:69).

Imprisonment lost its teeth during that era, because incarcerated individuals were looked upon with empathy and were considered to be victims of apartheid. Even if they were guilty of an offence, blacks still believed that the legal system was corrupt and that these prisoners were victims of the system. In some instances, it was regarded as an honour to be imprisoned and was seen as some form of initiation into manhood (Nomoyi, 2000:69). Furthermore, through the
armed struggle in South Africa, a whole generation of people grew up with violence as part of their everyday existence. It is a fact that this violence helped in forcing the apartheid government to abdicate. Violent attacks were launched on various targets by freedom fighters, some of whom were incarcerated and regarded as heroes. The message to this generation that it conveyed was that violence is the means through which goals, which are resisted, can be attained.

To understand crime and criminals, it is essential to know something of the process whereby the law is used to officially label people as criminals. Not all conduct harmful to society is designated criminal, nor can everything prohibited or required by law be justified under the notion of safety and harm society. There are important interdependencies between criminal justice and criminology. The focus of criminology is on explaining crime, while criminal justice is more concerned with societal, and particularly official, reactions to crime and criminals (Brown et al. 2013:56).

By arresting, prosecuting and punishing wrongdoers, the criminal justice system attempts to control crime. In the process, the system also hopes to prevent new crimes from taking place. The prevention goal is often used to justify harsh punishments for wrongdoers, which some see as deterring others from committing similar criminal acts. The criminal justice system entails that all citizens are equal before the law and that they are free from arbitrary arrest or seizure as defined by the law. In other words, the idea of justice is linked with the idea of fairness. Justice and fairness are subjective terms; different people may have different concepts of what is just and fair. If a woman who has been beaten by her husband retaliates by killing him, what is her just punishment? Reasonable persons could disagree, with some thinking that the homicide was justified and she should be treated leniently, and others insisting that she should not have taken the law into her own hands (Gaines & Miller, 2005:11).

5.22 Summary

Crime prevention has been a priority for the government since 1996 when the National Crime Prevention Strategy was launched. This strategy shows that preventing crime, rather than relying on the criminal justice process to arrest and convict offenders is critical to making our communities safer. Community Safety Forums emanated from the requirements outlined in the National crime prevention strategy of 1996, as well as the White Paper on Safety and Security. Both sought to improve, amongst others, the functioning of the criminal justice system in the local domain and to enhance crime prevention activities. Whilst the NCPS and White Paper created the opportunity for integrated approaches to preventing crime and increasing the efficiency of law enforcement, it failed to articulate the methodology and structural arrangements as to exactly how the CSF concept must be implemented. By 2030, people living in South Africa are hoped to feel safe and have no fear of crime. They should be safe at home, at school, at work and they enjoy an active community life free of fear, according to government goals.

Crime prevention cannot be tackled by government alone, or by one sector of government alone. It requires an integrated, multi-agency approach where all relevant departments view crime prevention as a shared responsibility and collective priority (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996). The difficulty of measuring crime prevention activities stems from the fact that crime
prevention should precede the actual commission of crime, which as Parsak (2016:108), states, creates a paradox because if prevention succeeds, crime does not happen, so in a sense it does not precede the commission of crime. The need for comprehensive measurement of police performance should be understood within this paradox and the fact that crime prevention includes broad and multifaceted phenomena, which in some instances will happen, and the police will not even be aware of it. The 2016/17 VOCS data combined with the data from previous years shows a general decline of crime both in terms of the proportion of households that were victimised and the proportion of individuals of 16 years and older that were victimised. However, the rate of decline is very low. When data is disaggregated according to province, the same pattern emerges except for the case of individual crimes in the Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga where there seems to be no improvement over time (Victims of crime Survey, 2016/17:01).

An estimated total of 1,468,278 crime incidents were experienced by 1,153,984 households in 2016/17. The victimised households represent 7.2% of all households in South Africa. Male-headed households had a higher proportion (7.5%) of victimisation compared to female-headed households (6.6%). Estimation according to different population groups showed that coloured households were the most victimised (8.95%) and black Africans were least victimised with 6.9% of households having experienced crime in 2016/17.

The most common crime experienced in 2016/17 was housebreaking or burglary (53%) followed by theft of stock (11%) and home robbery (10%). Last year home robbery was number two at 12% of all household crimes. Theft of personal property tops the individual crime list at 42% followed by assault (18%) and robbery (16%), Victims of crime Survey, (2016/17:01). About 61.7% households perceived the most common crime to be housebreaking/burglary, followed by robbery outside home (42.5%) and home robbery (35.5%). Housebreaking/burglary (50.9%) and home robbery (44.9%) were perceived to be the most feared crimes followed by robbery outside home (41.6%). It appears as if the fear of crime is driven by experience rather than the severity of crime. Housebreaking/burglary and home robbery being perceived as the most common crimes are also the most feared, even more than the severe crimes of murder and assault (Victims of Crime Survey, 2016/17:56).

South Africa has a notoriously high crime rate. It can be expected, therefore, that police officers will be the victims of crime during the course of their work. In 2002 63% of the firearms lost were by the police; 582 of 921 were stolen from officers in the course of their duty or from their homes. Based on the 2002 figures, it appears that only a small number of the firearms lost by police officers are as result of negligence - 42 of 921, or 4%, (Gould & Lamb, 2004:153). Crime is a prominent issue in South Africa. South Africa has a high rate of murders, assaults, rapes and other crimes compared to most countries. A survey for a period 1998-2000 compiled by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime ranked South Africa second for assault and murder per capita and first for rapes per capita. Total crime per capita is 10 out of the 60 countries in the database. South Africa also has a bad record for car hijackings. In some instances it was conspicuously marked on road signs that the area is high risk car-jack zone (Embassy of the Kingdom of the Netherlands Pretoria, South Africa, 2011:07).
CHAPTER 6
THE ROLE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE IN THE PREVENTION OF CRIME

6.1 Introduction

The prevention and control of violent crime is one of the most important and most difficult priorities of the state and in particular, of the country. The prevention of crime is an element of criminology, a scientific discipline analysing the offender’s and victim’s personality as well as potential ways of limiting or controlling crime. The crime prevention policy is one of the main elements of the national security policy, and is the key tool to reduce crime, eliminate criminal and pathological phenomena, work with offenders and protect and assist victims of crime (Crime Prevention Strategy 2008-2011: 02). Crime increases dramatically in South Africa and it is now one of the worst-affected countries in the world, especially with regard to violent crime. Not only does crime harm our image abroad, but it has also turned law-abiding citizens into prisoners in their own homes and on the country’s road (Naude & van der Hoven, 2001: 273). An adequate public health and education police, an effective criminal justice system, economic and job creation policy as well as assistance and support programmes for problem families and high-risk individuals are other important functions of the states in the fight against crime. Various research findings have indicate that high population density, poor housing, unemployment and poverty, dropping out of school, domestic problems, drugs and alcohol abuse and poor socialisation of children are characteristics of an environment with a high level of violent crime and other forms of crime. The role of criminal justice could play a meaningful role in terms of crime prevention and bring back the public confidence.

6.2 What the evidence shows

Evidence suggests the criminal justice system: the police, the courts, prisons and probation services, can prevent crime through four principal mechanisms: deterrence, legitimacy, incapacitation and rehabilitation (Welsh and Farrington 2012:4). Another classification scheme distinguishes four major prevention strategies. Developmental prevention refers to intervention designed to prevent the development of criminal potential in individuals, especially those targeting risk and protective factors discovered in studies of human development. Situational prevention refers to interventions designed to prevent the occurrence of crimes by reducing opportunities and increasing the risk and difficult of offending. Community prevention refers to interventions designed to change the social conditions and institutions e.g. Families, peers, social norms, clubs and organisations, that influence offending in residential communities. Criminal justice prevention refers to traditional deterrents, incapacitative, and rehabilitative strategies operated by law enforcement and criminal justice system agencies (Welsh & Farrington, 2012: 04).

6.2.1 Deterrence

The theory that people should refrain from committing criminal acts as a result of the fear of sanctions, or punishment and so any criminal justice system action which increases the costs or reduces the benefits should act as deterrent. One way of increasing the costs is by increasing the
perceived likelihood of being caught and punished (Modern Crime Prevention Strategy, 2016:21). The deterrence uses punitive sanctions to dissuade person from committing offences in the future. The sanctions can be administered either to teach a lesson to the convicted offender or serve as an example to others of the perils of criminality. Deterrence theory and policy resolves around modes of punishment delivery, and focuses particular attention on police, prosecutorial and judicial operations.

6.2.2 Legitimacy

Theories of procedural justice suggest that by engaging positively with people and treating them fairly, those working in the criminal justice system can increase the system’s legitimacy in the eyes of the public and foster greater compliance with the law. A system review of the evidence on police legitimacy showed a greater impact than a crime, but also indicated that restorative justice conferences involving mediation between victims and offenders can reduce the volume of offending (Modern Crime Prevention Strategy 2016:2).

6.2.3 Incapacitation

Studies have shown that preventing offenders from committing further offences by imprisoning them can reduce crime overall, particularly if the most prolific offenders are targeted and incapacitated in this way. However, the evidence also suggests that the incapacitation effect diminishes as imprisonment rates increase, because a smaller proportion of those imprisoned will be prolific (Modern Crime Prevention Strategy, 2016:2). Incapacitation seeks to reduce or eliminate the capacity of offenders who commit crimes. Capital punishment is only a conclusive means of incapacitating offender. In the past, criminal transgressors were exiled, in part, for incapacitation purposes.

6.2.4 Rehabilitation

There is evidence that some rehabilitation programs delivered through the criminal justice system can be effective in reducing crime and reoffending, particularly where they aim to address the causes of offending such as treatment for drug addiction and programmes improving offender’s cognitive skills, anger-management programmes (Modern Crime Prevention Strategy, 2016:21). Rehabilitation is designed to change offenders’ habits by removing the motivation to engage in criminal behavior. The assumption behind rehabilitation is that altering attitudes, values, skills, or constitutional features that cause criminal behaviour (Brown et al, 2013:57-58) can modify behaviour.

6.3. Integrated social crime prevention strategy 2011:

The Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) 2011 of the Social Development sets out a framework for the promotion of social crime prevention nationally. This strategy sets out as its vision, a safe South Africa, safe families and responsible individuals. The ISCPS targets vulnerable groups of society, including the poorest of the poor, and marginalised and disadvantaged groups and indicates that such should be comprised of children, youth, adults and older persons. The strategy sets out the following focus areas for intervention:
• It focuses of families;
• early childhood development;
• social assistance and support for pregnant women and girls;
• child abuse, neglect exploitation; domestic violence and victim empowerment programmes;
• victim support and dealing with trauma; community mobilisation and development;
• dealing with substance abuse and drugs; HIV/AIDS, feeding scheme and health programmes;
• social crime prevention programmes;
• extended public works programmes;
• schooling; and
• prevention, reduction and law enforcement with regard to gun violence.

6.3.1 Integrated criminal justice system: Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014

The Integrated Criminal Justice System (ICJS) review was proposed in 1998 with the objectives to transform the criminal justice system into a modern, efficient, effective and integrated system. The South African Police Service, Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, Correctional Services was the primary drivers of the ICJS, with the support from Legal Aid South Africa, National Prosecuting Authority and the National Development of Health. A seven point plan with the following components was agreed upon as amended: the alignment through a single vision and mission for the criminal justice system leading to a single set of objectives, plans, priorities and performance measurement targets for criminal justice; establish through legislation or by protocol a new and realigned single criminal justice system coordinating and management structure that flows in a seamless manner from the cabinet to each court to improve the end-to-end coordination of the criminal justice system in conjunction with the current National and Provincial JCPS structures; the practical short and medium term proposal to improve the all-round performance of courts was regarded as essential in order to improve service delivery; the improved component parts of the criminal justice with a focus on areas with serious shortcomings; provision of an integrated and seamless national criminal justice information system to facilitate more informed strategies, plans and decision making as well as to facilitate better day-to day operational management (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:28); justice is an ideal that abstractly pervades the value system of most human societies. The American colonists, imbued with the liberal thought of the European enlightenment, made justice the basis of democratic government (Quinney, 2001:137).

6.4 Primary prevention

Primary prevention focuses on the roots of delinquency and underlying causes of criminal behaviour. It concerns the entire population, adults and children alike (Crime Prevention Strategy, 2008-2011: 03). According to Reckless (Cloete, 1990:219), primary prevention concerns itself with the healthy development of the self and of family relationships, as well as those measures that promote law-abidingness. These means forestalling any criminogenic circumstances or factors from which crime could develop, and eliminating such circumstances or factors where they already exist.
Primary prevention therefore presupposes a correlation between antisocial behaviour and certain predisposing factors and circumstances. The main aim of primary prevention is to avert crime (i.e. prevent it from occurring in the first place) and this model of prevention focuses on people who have not yet committed an offence. Graser (Cloete, 1990:220) states that to prevent development of criminal behaviour it is necessary to gain insight into its possible underlying causes. To date, there is irrefutable scientific proof that specific factors give rise to the development of criminality and in certain quarters, the causative etiological relation between cause and effect in the crime situation is being queried. Nevertheless, experts concerned with adjudication of offenders and the prevention of crime have suggested that certain factors have frequently, been found to be linked the generation of criminal behaviour (Cloete 1990:220).

An effective and legitimate criminal justice system is a vital foundation for crime prevention and protection of human rights. This pillar will be addressed at national level by key programs designed to revamp and energise the criminal justice system as a whole. The key aims of programs in this pillar are: to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of criminal justice system as a deterrent to crime and as a source of relief and support to victims; to improve the access of disempowered groups to criminal justice process, and these include women, children and victims in general; to forge inter-departmental integration of policy and management, in the interests of coordinated planning, coherent action and the effective use of resources; to focus the resources of the criminal justice system on priority crimes; to improve service delivery by the criminal justice process to victims, through increasing accessibility to victims and sensitivity to their needs (National crime prevention strategy 1996:08). This programme is aimed at increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of the criminal justice process, thus increasing the probability of successful investigation, prosecution and punishment for priority crimes. It aims to reduce the period, which elapses between the reporting of a crime and sentencing, hence improving the deterrent quality of the criminal justice system, as well as enhancing public confidence (National crime prevention strategy, 1996: 08).

6.5 Secondary prevention

Secondary prevention focuses on high-risk individuals and groups, defined by age, types of threats, and territory. Its goal is to prevent criminal behaviour and actively encourage socially acceptable behavior (Crime prevention strategy, 2008-2011: 03). According to researchers such as Faust, Carey, Graser, and Reid (Cloete, 1990:225) secondary prevention deals with cases in which problem behaviour or social conditions that may lead to criminal behaviour have already been identified.

This approach entails the timely identification of potential criminals and the safeguarding of persons, who are exposed to such acts of criminality. Secondary prevention incorporates all attempts at discouraging criminal tendencies from finding avenues of expression. Here no crime has been committed, although a possible tendency to criminality has been identified. In other words, secondary prevention concerns itself with intervention in situations or conditions that may result in criminal behaviour. The difference between the two approaches (primary and secondary) is that secondary prevention strategies revolve around the treatment and elimination of conditions that pertain to individual or set of circumstances, and not as the case with primary prevention- the treatment of general conditions that may possibly induce the criminal tendencies.
The point of departure is therefore a particular situation or conditions coupled with a particular offender or offence. Indications are that corrective prevention is the most important faced of secondary prevention.

Van Heerden (Cloete, 1991:226) identified the basis of corrective prevention as the assumptions that criminal behaviour is caused by defined motivations and factors. Corrective prevention therefore centres on the manipulation of social factors as they precipitate in a certain situation; the detention of possible causative factors (motives) on order to eliminate the possibility of criminal behaviour by restructuring the physical, psychological and social environment of the potential offender; and the enforcement of control measures should crime inducing situations or conditions arise from time to time.

6.6 Tertiary prevention

Tertiary prevention includes re-socialisation and re-integration measures toward those who have already engaged in illegal activities, in areas affected by crime and toward victims of crime (Crime prevention strategy, 2008-2011:03). According to the literature, crime prevention on the tertiary level implies rehabilitative treatment outside or inside an institution, after a person has been found guilty of a crime. It therefore focuses on the true offender with objective of preventing further criminal behaviour. In this case the purpose is to prevent recidivism among those who has already lapsed into crime. The accent is on the way in which the individual deals with the consequences of the crime, as well as treatment to prevent recurrence of such criminal behaviour (Cloete, 1990:226).

Prevention by the way of rehabilitation or reform rests on the assumption that an offender’s inclination, attitude and behaviour can be influenced positively so that in future he will identify with law-abiding behaviour patterns. The rehabilitation of adult offenders in an institutional context occurs mainly in prison. In the cases of juvenile offenders, organisations such as reformation and industrial schools have a role to play alongside the prison. A prisoner is one of the objectives of a prison sentence.

Aggressive behaviour and crimes of violence are narrowly interwoven into man’s history. This facet of human behaviour arises from human interaction, and is both now and in the future to receive serious attention. The view point that all violence is to be eliminated will, apart from the fact that it will never become a reality, probably never be accepted. All societies are based on the assumption that a certain amount of violence in specific circumstances is both essential and legal. On the other hand, other forms of violence are regarded as unacceptable and illegal (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:53).

It is therefore essential for all societies to distinguish between moral justifiable and reprehensible and illegal violence. In fact, it is a traditional and important function of the social order, as symbolised in, the community’s authoritative institutions, to establish when violence is acceptable (e.g. self-defence, maintaining law and order, war, etc.) and when it is objectionable and unacceptable (e.g. crimes of violence, revolt, revolution, etc.). One of the more well-known approaches in primary prevention intent of such changes is to increase the risk in offending by enhancing the defensible space. The approach proposes a model which inhibits crime by creating
a physical expression of social fabric which defends itself. The idea is that the physical characteristics of an area can suggest to both residents and potential offenders that the area is owned and cared for, and thus not amenable to criminal activity (Steven 1997:27).

The impact on the residents and offenders is not the same. For, residents the appearance and design of the area can engender a more caring attitude, draw the residents into contact with one another, lead to further improvements and use of the area, and built a stake in the control and elimination of crimes. For potential offenders, the physical improvement and care of an area can prevent an image of high risk due to the presence of legitimate users, the increase surveillance that comes from the use, and perception of community interest in the elimination of crime (Steven, 1997:27).

Given the wide range of causes of crime, preventive measures have an impact on many areas of the public life, such as social policies, employment, education, leisure activities, crisis intervention, or urban planning. The role of preventive measures is often recognised within penal policy as well, where the alternative punishment is more and more frequently used (The National Crime Prevention Strategy, 2008-2011: 02).

An effective and legitimate criminal justice system is a vital foundation for crime prevention and protection of human rights. The key aims of programmes in this pillar are: to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of criminal justice system as a deterrent to crime and as a source of relief and support to victims; to improve the access of disempowered groups to the criminal justice process, this includes women, children, and victims in general; to focus the resources of the criminal justice system on priority crimes; to forge inter-departmental integration of policy and management, in the interests of co-ordinated planning, coherent action and effective use of resources; to improve the service delivered by the criminal justice process to victims, through increasing accessibility to victims and sensitivity to their needs (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996).

6.7 Social crime prevention

Although the true definition of social crime prevention is prevention programmes that take place outsides of the criminal justice system, and are aimed at reducing the causes of crime, there are often two ways of understanding the term ‘social crime prevention’: the prevention of social crimes (those crimes that affect society) such as domestic violence, substance abuse, rape and violent assaults; crime prevention programmes and approaches that are implemented by society, by organisations, communities and people who are not part of criminal justice system (the police, courts and prisons); and aim to remove the reasons or causes of crime so that it does not take place, rather than responding once crimes have already been committed (KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison, Crime prevention training manual, 2013:07).

Over time, theorists and practitioners have realised that the only effective way to address crime is to prevent it from happening rather than to respond to it once it has happened. This focus on prevention through social development and providing alternatives to crime to all community members, and particularly the youth, is called social crime prevention. The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998) states that: social crime prevention not only targets the causes of crime, but
in the longer term, does not in the most cost-effective way. It addresses those factors that contribute to the occurrence of crime. Social crime prevention is aimed at reducing the socio-economic and environmental factors, which lead to criminality through the targeting of particular causal factors conducive to crime. Henry Shaftoe says that a comprehensive social crime prevention programme would contain most of the following elements: support for parents before and after child-birth, by health workers; parenting skills training and family support, by people trained in developmental psychology; good quality nursery and pre-school provision; personal, social and moral education in schools; adequate play and youth activities (of the type that children and young people want); training and employment for people with particular needs or vulnerabilities; help to overcome or reduce the damage caused by alcohol and other drug dependencies; mediation and other community based conflict resolution services (KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison, Crime prevention Training Manual 2013:08).

6.8 Neighbourhood crime prevention

The failure of physical environmental design changes to affect crime and fear may be directly attributed to the ability of such activities to live up to the assumptions of the basic theory. Few authors (Steven 1997:47) claim that changes in the physical design alone will have anything more than a minor impact on crime. By themselves, locks, light, windows and other physical characteristics can only make offending more difficult and lead to alternative means of committing crimes. The key element that will reduce and prevent crime is the ability of the physical features to engender community cohesion and activity against crime.

Neighbourhood crime prevention seeks to directly influence these intervening constructs, and in turn, affect levels of crime and fear. Neighbourhood crime prevention can take a variety of forms that are broader in scope than that of physical design. The possible techniques include neighbourhood watch, neighbourhood advocacy, citizen patrol, street committees, ward committee and physical design (Steven, 1997:47).

A good place to begin studying the plight of America’s underclass from a sociological perspective is by reading Williem Julius Wilson and Elijah Anderson. These authors have documented the life experiences of young inner-city black males, and the picture is grim. On the issue of violence, for example, Anderson has this to say: the inclination to violence stems from circumstances of life among ghetto poor – the lack of jobs that pay living wages, the stigma of racism, the fallout from rampant drug use and drug trafficking, and the resulting alienation and lack of hope for future (Barlow, 1996:4).

Normally neighbourhood watch groups share information about local crime problems, exchange crime prevention tips, and make plans for engaging in surveillance of the neighbourhood and crime reporting activities. Most of neighbourhood watch groups do not engage exclusively in informal surveillance of the streets. A 1985 survey found that only a percent of groups reported that as their sole activity. Other common activities included property engraving, household security surveys, crime tips hotlines, the important of street lights, block parenting, and more general activities related to the community physical environment (Conklin, 1995:390).
Because the causes of crime spring from all of community's social institutions, it follows that crime-coping activities should be just as comprehensive. This simple logic requires constant reinforcement, for too many people are inclined to see crime as a problem solely for the police and the courts. It is similar to the problem of poverty in this respect. Few people think they cause it, therefore, it must be somebody else's job to deal with it. The attitude that ‘it is not my problem until it affects me personally,’ is the real villain in social problems.

Surveillance of neighbour on neighbour is, to be sure, a delicate enterprise and can easily create more problems than it solves. Some training for participants is a good idea, and close liaison with the police is essential, if the police themselves are properly sensitive to the Bill of Rights. In many communities, the results of citizen action have been slow to show up in the statistics, and discouragement had set in. Often it is difficult to secure citizen interest initially. The widespread charge is “public,” particularly when the subjects is crime and involvement with “the law.” Fear of retaliation is one reason frequently mentioned. So is the time it takes and the inconvenience. " Just plain dangerous” is another explanation (Radelt, 1986: 407).

The stability of neighborhood is affected by excessive mobility, unemployment and citizen apathy. It is often difficult for residents of neighbourhoods to be a cohesive force focused on community problem solving and improving the quality of life. Citizen involvement in crime prevention and control is not an unrealistic expectation because, historically, citizenship included the responsibility from maintaining peace and justice. Community policing, of which foot patrol is a part, intensifies police - citizen interaction and may be the necessary method of the future. Crime prevention is cheaper than the reaction to crimes already committed.

6.9 Early intervention and development crime prevention

The early intervention and developmental crime approach believes that the causes of crime are complex and cumulative, they are rooted both the social and personal contexts of the offender, and they are result of various, complex, events that make up the history of the offender (National Development Plan Vision 2030). In order to determine, and thus remove, the factors that give rise to entry into crime, it is important to see each potential young offender as someone who is developing over the course of life and in specific social settings.

Approaches to crime prevention are useful divided into four groups:

- Criminal justice,
- Situational,
- Community (or social), and
- Developmental approaches.

6.9.1 Criminal justice system prevention

Criminal justice prevention refers to traditional deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation strategies operated by law enforcement and the criminal justice system (KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison, Crime Prevention Training Manual, 2013:09). These steps involve the issuing of cautions or fines, making arrests, sentencing of various kinds and
incarceration. The 2007 review of the criminal justice system, led by Advocate Johnny de Lange the then Deputy Minister of Justice, recommended a seven point plan that was adopted by cabinet. The plan sets out how to establish a new, modernised, efficient and transformed system. It included setting up a new coordinating and management structure at every level, from national to local; greater cooperation between the judiciary and the magistracy, the police, prosecutors, correctional services and Legal Aid Board; and other initiatives such as empowering community police forums (National Development Plan, Vision, 2030:351).

Inspiring public confidence in the criminal justice system is necessary to prevent and increase level of safety. Public confidence is eroded by perceptions that criminals escape the law; that arrests do not lead to convictions; or that prisoners escape easily from courtrooms or correctional facilities. The most effective deterrent to criminality is an efficient and effective criminal justice system. The 2007 Review of the South African Criminal Justice System recommends a seven-point plan that was adopted by the cabinet, as mentioned above. The plan includes a new coordinating and management structure at every level, from national to local; greater cooperation among the judiciary and the magistracy; the police, prosecutor, correctional services and the Legal Aid Board; and initiatives such as empowering community police forums. The plan contains seven transformative changes to the criminal justice system and requires full, integrated and holistic implementation to achieve the stated actions. Adopting a single vision and mission, lead to the JCPS creating a single set of objectives, priorities and performance measurement targets for the criminal justice. This established through legislation or by protocol, a new and realigned single coordinating and management structure for the system, flowing seamlessly from cabinet to each court. Other transformative changes include:

Make substantial changes to the present court process in criminal matters through practical, short and medium term proposal to improve the performance of the courts, especially the regional courts; put into operation priorities identified for the component parts of the system, which are not part of, or effect, the new court process, especially as it pertains to improving capacity; establish an integrated and seamless information and technology database or system, or both for the national criminal justice system, containing all information relevant to it; modernise, in an integrated and holistic way, all aspects of systems and equipment. This would include fast tracking the implementation of current projects and modernization initiatives. In addition, technology should be used to increase efficiency across the board, and particularly to eliminate bottlenecks in the criminal justice system. This should include investigation-docket management system, court case management systems and parole management system, including the monitoring of parole to ensure better integration and rehabilitation. Lastly, the changes included involving the public in the fight against crime by introducing changes policing forums thereby expanding its role to deal with all matters in the system, such as policing outcomes, support to correctional supervision of out of court sentences and parole board (Crime Prevention Management, Project Management, 2014:388-389).

6.9.2 Situational prevention

This comprises opportunity-reducing measures that are directed at highly specific forms of crime; involve the management, design or manipulation of the immediate environment in as systematic and permanent way as possible, make crime more difficult and risky, or less
rewarding and excusable as judged by a wide range of offenders (Clarke, 1997:09). Situational crime prevention focuses on reducing opportunities for criminals to commit crime by changing their perceptions of how easy or hard it is to get away with the crime, making it seem harder and riskier. It is closely related to crime prevention through environment design.

6.9.3 Community or social prevention

This refers to interventions designed to change the social conditions or institutions that influence behaviour (Crime Prevention Manual 2013). The key idea is that by changing the community, one may change the behavior of the people who live there. The emphasis is on political action at the local level to empower residents, provide opportunities to young people, strengthen infrastructure and promote social justice. In practice community approaches often draw on the social control theory and focus on programs for at risk or vulnerable youth.

Crime prevention through environmental design theories contend that law enforcement officers, architects, city planners, landscape and their interior designers, and resident volunteers can create a climate of safety in a community right from start (KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison, Crime Prevention Manual, 2013:11). Civil society organisations and civic participation are elements of a safe and secure society. Community problem solving during the xenophobic violence of 2008 is an example of non-state mobilisation to resolve conflict and potential criminality. At the time, the police acted as stabilisers, while civil society and other state departments were problem solvers. The partnership was negotiated through coordinating structures at various levels of the state, community base agencies such as church organisations and civic associations. A sustainable strategy requires greater clarity on various roles and a resourced coordinating mechanism that will bring state and non-state policing agencies together to secure safety and build cohesion (Crime Prevention Management, Project Management, and 2014:404).

6.9.4 The role of private security

As the police sciences developed, public agencies began to assume a more significant role in the investigation of crime and, through increased cooperation among government agencies, the pursuit of suspected criminals. Concurrent with this is evolution of public law enforcement; private agencies shifted their emphases away from investigation and toward crime prevention. The terms private police and private security forces and security personnel are used generically in this report to include all types of private organisations and individuals providing all of security related services, including investigation, guards, patrol, lie detection, alarm and armoured transportation (Fischer & Green, 1992:74).

The hazards against which private security seeks to provide protection are commonly divided into manmade and natural - the former includes crimes against the person for example, robbery or rape or crime against property, while the latter includes fire, flood, windstorm, earthquake and other of nature that could result in building collapse, equipment failure, accidents and safety hazards. Security practices and procedure cover a broad spectrum of activities designed to eliminate or reduce the fall range of potential hazards (loss, damage or injury). These protection measures may include, but are by no means limited to:
• Building and perimeter protection, by means of barriers, fences, walls and gates, protected opening lighting, and surveillance (guards).
• Intrusion and access control, means of door and window security, locks and keys security containers (files, safes, and vaults), visitors and employee identification programs package controls, packing security and traffic controls, inspections and guard posts and patrols.
• Alarm and surveillance systems.
• Fire prevention and control including evacuation and fire response programs, extinguishing systems and alarm systems.
• Emergency and disaster planning
• Prevention of theft and pilferage by means of personnel screening, background investigations, procedural controls and polygraph and PSE (Psychological stress Evaluator) investigations.
• Accident prevention and safety
• Enforcement of crime-or loss-related rules, regulations and polices (Fischer and Green, 1992:76).

Other authorities also recommend the value of aggressive patrol. Aggressive patrol reduces the incidence of robbery and aids in the detection and arrest of robbers. The presence of police in an area can have a deterrent effect. A ratio of one police officer to every one private citizen would clearly deter crime. At the other end of the spectrum, the total elimination of the police would increase crime rates. Even if the police are ineffective in arresting suspects, they may have a deterrent effect if people perceive the risk of apprehension (Ndabandaba, 1987:100).

6.9.5 Proactive measures

Public perceptions from the present research were that in the past SAP was illegitimate and misused as a political instrument. This stigma still lingers in certain quarters and provides criminals with a rationale or pretext to justify the killing of police members. The summit recommended that more needs to be done to legitimise or de-stigmatise the service. In this regard, high profile celebrities could be used in a campaign to market the SAPS image.

6.9.6 Reactive measures

Tight bail procedure: The commission that was established by the government acknowledged the existence of certain grey areas in respect of bail applications, and the circumstances behind the killings of police members should be considered on its own merit. The special multi-disciplinary investigation unit in KZN has already established a “best practice” precedent in this regard with its serious and violent crime unit, which has the mandate and multi-disciplinary capacity to investigate all police killings in the province. This unit works well with the prosecuting authorities and has a near 100% conviction success rate. The present research has revealed that there is a huge outcry that the government should tighten up the granting of bails, especially in contact crimes such as rape, murder, robbery. The criminals do not show any mercy when they kill people, easily get bail and continue to harras the victims. The respondents that were
interviewed clearly indicated that sometimes they were skeptical to come forward and open up cases since they believe that the suspect would be released and come back to harass them and sometimes they fear of being killed as they feel unsafe and unprotected in their homestead.

6.9.7 Partnership

The commission proposed using existing Community Policing Forum (CPF) structures as a platform to build further wide-ranging and multi-level (Local area, Provincial and Government, NGO, Business) partnerships, from which crime-fighting campaigns can be developed and implemented. Such an approach must be aligned with the service delivery obligations as set out in the Batho Pele policy and be seen as part of a coherent crime-combating strategy that is integrated with other campaigns such as the Gun-Free Campaign, stolen goods campaign, crime stop campaign and road show on crime. The research covers a wide range of criminal activity, moving from a dissuasion of the violent crimes considered serious by the law enforcement.

This research begins by highlighting the historical background of the province of KwaZulu-Natal aim of the study and definition of different violent crimes. Explanation of reactions to violence enumerates some of the methods people use to alter or protect their environments. The fact that the fear of crime and the reactions to that fear may be more important than the prevalence of crime reminds the researcher of the quoted statement by the early sociologist W.I. Thomas: “If men believes situations are real, they are real in their consequence: But the fear appears to be out of proportion to the data, especially in the case of women and the elderly. If our fear of being victimised by crime is unrealistic, we should concentrate on programs for reducing fear” (Reid, 1991: 299). We also need to conduct more research on how people respond to their fears of violent crime; much of the current evidence on this issue is anecdotal, not empirical. More research is needed to continually assess the extent and nature of crime of violence and strategies to prevent it (Reid 1991:299).

6.10 Community crime prevention strategies

A study of neighbourhood, (Conklin 1995:395), responses to local drug problems in thirty-six urban communities found that drug problems stimulates confrontation tactics by local residents rather than undermine organised community action. Contradicting some earlier research, the study found that confrontational responses to local drugs problems were most common in poor and minority neighbourhoods riddled with crime. In addition, the prior existence of block clubs and other broad based community organisations encouraged such confrontational measures. There is evidence that people who participate in patrol groups and other community efforts to fight crime are drawn to those organisations not by their fear of crime, but rather by general desire to improve neighbourhood life. Indeed most community crime-prevention efforts develop orientation towards community revitalisation or towards providing services for local youths (Conklin, 1995:393). Neighbourhood watch and similar programs are more successful when they are part of multi – issue, general-purpose community rather than when they focus exclusively on crime. Few crime-reduction programs evolve into general community organisations that empower local citizens to effect neighbourhood change.
One study of community crime-prevention (Conklin 1995:393) efforts explicitly avoided an approach that treats collective responses to crime as the product of fear of victimisation, pointing out that similar levels of crime elicit very different communities. Every community studied by the researchers devoted some energy and resources to fight crime, and people can reduce the crime, and people can everywhere seem to believe that collective efforts can reduce the crime rate. In general the people did not see crime as the crime that could be isolated from other social problems, and so their crime-prevention method efforts were usually part of broader efforts to improve their neighbourhood. Some community followed a “social problems” approach to deal with the general conditions thought to be the source of the crime problem. Other communities used “victimisation-prevention” strategies to deal more directly with crime by increasing surveillance or developing protective measures. Instead of being linked to perceptions of crime rates, participation in these collective efforts to reduce crime seemed to be associated with social and cultural contexts of the community that is, with the family status, socio-economic position and race and ethnicity of the residents (Conklin, 1995:393).

6.11 Police community involvement

The police play a role in community crime prevention activities and organisations. The police may be initiators or leaders of neighbourhood watch and other programs. This is largely because there is interdependence between the police and the citizens. It is important to remember those neighbourhood organisations are not meant to replace the legal authorities. The intent is to supplement police activities with the eyes, ears, and ideas of the community residents. Both residents and the police, therefore, must share the burden of promoting neighbourhood organisation and involvement (Lab 1997:53).

Many crime prevention programs rely heavily on police activity. The National Night Out program (Lab 1997:53) is often coordinated by local police agencies and consist of educational programs, organising, social events, and anti-drug and anti-crime activities. A new direction in policing in recent years has been the idea of community policing. This approach includes a variety of innovative programs, including foot patrols, storefront police stations, victim recontact, and involvement in general community problems. Foot patrol has been suggested as a means of bringing the police and the public together. The idea behind changes in patrol and police practice is to make the police and public more aware of each other and one another’s needs (Lab, 1997:53).

Since the establishment of a democratic dispensation in 1994, the public service in South Africa experienced dramatic systemic changes and transformation. As such, changes in the roles, responsibilities and operations of public service institutions were inevitable. The South African Police Service was no exception in this regard. In response to democratic transformation, section 201 of the interim Constitution of South Africa (1996) and Section 19 to 21 of the SAPS Act (68 of 1995) mandate SAPS to adopt community policing as an approach and system of policing within South Africa. The interim Consitution of South Africa (1993) further points out that, despite community involvement in policing matters, SAPS remains the key role-player to maintain safety and security in the country.
Community policing can be regarded as a management strategy that promotes the joint responsibility of citizens and the police for community safety, through working partnerships and interpersonal contact (Van Rooyen, 1994:20). To give practical impetus to the philosophy informing community policing it is necessary to create mechanisms for the police and the community to work together. For this purpose, Community Policing Forums have been established, based on the premise that effective policing is only achievable through adequate public participation. While community policing seems to be the most outstanding policing model and presents a paradigm shift in transforming the SAPS and which appears to be fit for implementation as a democratic policing model, the important role of the Community Policing Forum seems to be underestimated (Van Rooyen 1994:20).

6.12 Sides effect of crime

The primary interest in neighbourhood crime prevention is in reducing levels of crime and fear of crime. Community crime prevention techniques are aimed primarily at the property offences of burglary, larceny and robbery. Little, if any, impact could be found on crimes of interpersonal violence. The reason for this is that many personal crimes occur between individuals who know one another and within the home.

Increased surveillance will not alleviate crimes when the offender and victim are residents or legitimate users of the area. Neither would appear out of place nor draw attention to them. Only crimes that occur between strangers should experience any great reduction from neighbourhood watch activities. Surveillance plays a central role in the relationship between neighbourhood watch and crime. Areas with higher surveillance should experience less crime. High crime rates can prompt high surveillance. Indeed, it is unlikely that surveillance should police records, due to increased reports of offending. Actual decreases in the amount of crime may not show through reporting (Lab, 1997:58).

6.13 The impact of police patrol

An alternative means for assessing the potential impact of citizen patrols on crime entails the examination of police patrol effectiveness. Both citizen and police patrol share the common goals of reduced crime through protective surveillance. The major difference between the two types of patrols is the expectation that the police will intervene when they see something, whereas citizens are expected to call the police for action. If police patrol has little or no effect on crime, it can be easily assumed that citizen’s patrols, which are not meant to intervene, will also not have an impact. Residents in the foot patrol areas, however, feel safer and see the crime problem as improving. The result of studies on police patrols lends some support and direction to citizen patrol efforts. This is due to the more extensive and in-depth evaluations undertaken on police patrol techniques. The research has reveals that foot patrol appears to influence of crime to the police. Foot patrol also agendas a great sense of safety and concern among the residents in some areas (Lab, 1997:71).
6.14 Community policing

Community policing represents fundamental changes in the basic role of the police officer, including changes in his or her skills, motivations and opportunity to engage in problems solving activities and to develop new partnership with key elements of the community. Community policing as a certain philosophy or approach, requires adequate public input through consultation and participation mechanisms to operationalise SAPS’s constitutional mandate. CPF’s have a critical role to play in building relations between the police and the community they serve. This approach was adopted after 1994 to build trust and legitimacy, particularly in those areas in which the relationship between the police and the community had been characterised by mistrust and conflict. CPF’s have been established at some police stations across the country to ensure that station commanders are held accountable to the communities they serve. Community Policing is a new philosophy and organizational strategy of policing, based on police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways to help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder and neighbourhood decay (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1) 2016). New policy guidelines developed clearly define the establishment of CPF’s, the functioning and roles of the different entities, such as the MEC’s, as well as that of the police and the community (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, and 2014:37). The role of the CPF’s as defined by prescripts should be:

- Building cooperative relations between the police and communities;
- To ensure effective communication between the police and communities;
- To share information regarding crime in order to assist the police and educate the communities;
- To act as an instrument of building local community partnerships with the police; and
- To ensure that the police are accountable to local communities.

For CPF’s to be effective the following must be addressed:

- SAPS must fully participate in CPF meetings at a local level. This participation should involve station management and not an individual or individuals assigned to CPF’s;
- CPF must be an inclusive structure and the process of establishing CPF’ needs to address this more effectively;
- The local police stations must be involved in the establishment of CPF’s but however, should not run this process. The process should be run through the Provincial Secretariats based on a clear scoping of communities. The structures need to be inclusive rather than based on individuals;
- A national budget framework must be developed that speaks to the role and functions of CPF’s and the budget should then come through Provincial Secretariats. The Civilian Secretariat for Police to assist provinces in this regard.
- A national training and induction manual be developed and implemented by Provincial secretariats. This should include annual training sessions. All regulations and prescripts should be compiled into an accessible national manual.
- The local municipalities should be encouraged to support and participate in CPF’s through elected officials (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 01, 2014:37-38).
6.15 Community Involvement

Community policing requires co-operation between the police and other members of the Community. These community members may be individual citizens, citizen groups, business associations, other local agencies such as (Health Department, Building Inspectors, and Community Development Officers, Legislative bodies and many others). Effective community based strategies ought to pay attention to the well-being of neighbourhoods where high-risk individuals and their families live. Community and service stakeholders could use the community development approach to reduce negative social influences and promote healthy community living (NGO, Rossiter & Stewart, 2011:58).

6.16 Problem solving

After having dismantled the authoritarian policing style in operation for almost half a century prior to the advent of democracy, the South African Police Service had to make an important decision regarding a new policing model to be implemented that would serve the South African cultural diversity in a real democratic way. Two questions were put into test here: are police officers fully transformed after the new police act (Act No 68 of 1995) has been put into operation, and would a community (democratic) policing model satisfy the needs of individuals, their responsibilities and expectations of citizens in terms of Constitutional prescriptions (Journal of Criminology Volume 29 (1) 2016:47).

In this respect Reyneke (2016), points to the fact that this philosophy guides the management style and operational strategies of the SAPS by emphasising the building of community-police partnerships and seeking problem solving approaches satisfying the needs of the community. It is therefore based on the premise that the police and community must work in a co-ordinated and co-operative fashion. The emphasis on problem solving is perhaps the most important elements of community policing. Rather than simply dealing with the crime that occurs through investigation and arrest, community policing challenges (and may require) its officers to identify the underlying causes and contributors to the crime, and seek out solutions to those problems. Community policing, therefore, sees crime as symptom or try to address the ultimate cause.

Problem-orientation policing means approaching issues and problems differently based on the uniqueness of each situation. This is a drastic shift from the traditional view that the police should turn to the criminal code to determine how to response to calls for service. If the code prohibits the activity, the police can make an arrest and set the criminal justice system in motion. At best, this response will eliminate further criminal behaviour through either its deterrent or incapacitative effect. The problem-oriented approach argues that the criminal code and legal actions is the only avenue for dealing with issues that police and society are facing. Instead, the individual problem may suggest a myriad of alternative solution or interactions (Lab, 1997:172).

6.17 Crime prevention strategy on cards violent robbery on the rise in South Africa

Although crime in South Africa is on the decrease, more and more people are falling victim to violence, heavily armed street robbers and to sexual predators. This information was revealed when National Commissioner released the national crime statistics for the 2003/2004) financial
The former National Police Commissioner, Jack Selebi, who painted a rosy picture of crime in the country, said that although most violent crimes had decreased, incidents of robbery with aggravating circumstances, indecent assault, rape and child abuse had increased. However, Selebi also admitted that the statistics might not be as accurate as we like. Robbery with aggravating circumstances is the robbery with the use of a weapon. According to Selebi, this was one of the most perturbing crimes in South Africa.

In the South African Police Service’s annual report released to the Cabinet, Selebi said that “unfortunately” robbery with aggravating circumstances had increased. Although robberies such as hijacking cash-in-transit heists and bank attacks had all decreased, other kinds of violent robberies, such as street attacks and mugging, continued to increase. According to the police’s Crime Information Analysis Centre, 133 658 cases of robbery with aggravating circumstances had been recorded throughout the country (Mercury, Peete, 21 December 2004:01).

The centre records crime figures for the whole country. Asked what was being done to prevent such attacks, Selebi said the police were looking at “bigger and better” crime prevention strategies. The police are also looking at ways of getting illegal guns off the streets as this illegal guns is the most common weapon used in those types of attacks sexual crimes, instances of murder and attempted murder had decreased. “This shows that the policemen and women are doing a sterling job in combatting crimes and that the police are beginning to win this war,” he said.

When asked what he meant by saying that crime statistics might not be accurate, Selebi said the police had noticed an alarming trend in the withdrawal sexual offences cases. He said, “Even though a victim may withdraw a rape or indecent assault charge, there is no ways of taking the case off the system once a docket has been opened.” Selebi said this meant that the statistics provided might therefore not be “that accurate.” “We are currently looking at the ways of rectifying, this although it will not be something that happened overnight,” he added.

An olive branch has been extended to all those in possession of illegal firearms and ammunition. The former National Safety and Security Minister Charles Nqakula has announced a three-month amnesty period. The amnesty according to Nqakula and Selebi will run from October to December 2004. It will allow people in possession of unlicensed guns and ammunition to surrender their weapons at their nearest police stations. This it is hoped will play a major role, in decreasing the number of crimes committed with guns. According to statistics released for the 2003/2004 financial year, KwaZulu-natal had the highest number of illegal firearms and ammunition cases, with police opening 4 908 docket (Mercury, 21 December 2004: 01). The most important part of the prevention of crime falls within the domain of government. Once the government is fully convinced that crime constitutes a serious threat, then they should proceed to draw up a comprehensive crime prevention programme which should provide for the following:

Universal and compulsory education for all, for at least up to ten years, in order to reduce illiteracy which reduces unemployability in a rapidly modernising society; the reduction of unemployment among the youth; the creation of employment opportunities through the expansion of the economy by establishing new industries and agricultural projects; the eradication of poverty and all its offshoots of ignorance, disease; backwardness, tribalism,
intolerance and man's humanity to man, the decentralisation of government offices, businesses, industries, educational facilities and supportive programmes; the reduction of the rate or urbanisation, and at the same time, embarking on rural development programmes such as the upgrading of rural roads, electrification and water supply; reduction of corruption, especially among the top leaders among the rank and file of the civil servants, by increasing salaries, provision of amenities and attractive condition of service; prompt investigation of crime, the arrest and prosecution of suspects by competent officials; more use of non-custodial penal sanctions such as fines, weekend prison community labour in lieu of imprisonment and probation. In addition; the abolition of capital punishment for all crime, because it is cruel and unusual punishment which brutalises the society, stigmatised relatives of the offenders and does not help in the deterrence of crime; the restoration and strengthening of family values through home improvement, social security, clearance of neighbourhoods, control of family violence and alcoholism and reinforcement of social control in the field of child socialisation and in making people responsible neighbours (Mushang, 1992: 1-2)

To establish a proper prevention strategy regarding the different types for crime, it is necessary it is necessary to take of the most common factors that may lead to crimes of violence. There is no certainty as to what the most important causes of violent behaviour are. It may be accepted, however, that a combination of social and individual human factors is responsible for aggressive behaviour, and thus also for crimes of violence. Aspects that may play a role in the explanation of violent behaviour are culture, subculture, community structure, an individual's system of values, his mental disposition; his ability to cope with frustration (Naude & Stevens, 1998:165). The role of the family should also not be underestimated as a causal factor in aggressive behaviour. MacDonald (Naude & Stevens, 1988:165) found that violent criminals had been exposed to aggression and brutality largely during their childhood years, while unstable parental care and an unsettled environment had also played a causal role these formative years. Lifestyle, connected with race, sex, age income, marital and personal interaction in the social environment, may contribute to increased vulnerability and exposure to risk situations regarding crimes of violence. Some persons, therefore, fall victim to crimes of violence more easily because of their gender (e.g. women may be raped), others because of their age (e.g. weak, elderly people may be mugged).

6.18 Preventive strategies

6.18.1 Patrols

The value of patrols as a preventive measure has already been discussed, but the necessity of patrolling should once again be stressed in this regard. As stock thefts occur mainly in rural areas, the use of patrols services constitute one of the most important preventive actions. In negotiable areas the usual vehicle patrols are performed, whereas in inhospitable and rough terrain, houses, four wheels drive vehicles and even helicopters are used (Naude & Stevens, 1988:149).
6.18.2 Road blocks

Coupled with patrols, road blocks very often constitute an integral part of the preventive strategy in an area. As soon as a certain pattern is observed on account of an increase of stock theft offences, road blocks are positioned at strategic points (Naude & Stevens, 1988: 150).

6.18.3 Informants

It would be impossible to prevent stock theft without using informants. They play a significant role on the farms and in remote areas. The presence of community safety structures such as CPF, CCPA, Ward Safety Committees and volunteers add value in terms of preventing stock theft in the area. The community of Msinga is solely dependent upon the livestock; therefore any loss to them means a disaster. It remains the responsibility of the SAPS to make sure that the services of the informants are always available in order to solve all critical crimes in our communities.

6.18.4 Community involvement

Community involvement cannot be overemphasised, because stock theft is usually committed in rural areas and the community has a particular interest in the prevention action taken. The decentralisation policy of the police enables the officer responsible for crime prevention to communicate regularly with farmers during the farmers’ union meetings. The farmers are then informed about preventive measures that can be taken. Among other programmes that can be taken include inter alia: branding of livestock, registration of all livestock, counting of the livestock regularly, and controlling the movement of livestock (Naude & Steven, 1988:151).

Community development is based on the premise that changing the physical or social organisation of communities may influence the behavior of individuals who live there. The risk of becoming involved in crime, or being victimised, is greater in those communities that experience high levels of social exclusion or lack of social cohesion. Also underlying the community development approach is the belief that crime in particular community is not primarily or solely the result of the actions of a small number of criminogenically disposed individuals, but the result of the coincidence of a series of structural determinants present within particular communities eg., differential rates of access to housing, employment, education and health services, among other factors (Sagan & Shaw, 2010:18).

Community development strategies can aim to build social cohesion and address factors leading to community disorganisation, empower communities to participate in decision-making processes, increase resources, services and economic opportunities in disadvantaged communities or address low level physical or social disorder that may be a precursor to more serious problems. Community development-type programs are more likely to be effective when they; identify communities at need based on evidence and community consultation, and analyse factors that may contribute to social disadvantage or exclusion; take into account a community’s capacity to implement change and level of social disorganisation; increase opportunities to participate and promote community involvement and consultation in program design and decision making, as well as in the management of activities that impact on, either directly or indirectly, those social
conditions believed to sustain crime in residential settings; encourage representation from diverse groups, particularly those community members most at risk of being marginalised; coordinate efforts between agencies across government and nongovernment sectors to target multiple areas of disadvantage, supported by neighbourhood regeneration; are provided with ongoing support including human, financial and physical resources (Sagant & Shaw, 2010:17). When compared with situational or developmental approaches, there is limited evidence of the effectiveness of efforts to modify community level factors to reduce crime.

6.18.5 Kwazulu-Natal crime statistics

Although incidents in many categories of crime in KwaZulu-Natal have decreased, drug related crime and illegal weapon possession are increasing steadily in the province, 2004. KwaZulu-Natal’s MEC of Transport and Community Safety and Liaison, Bheki Cele said that the province needed to concentrate on decreasing the incidents of crime. “The possession of illegal firearms is a number one priority, and we are putting new efforts into getting hold of more of these weapons,” he said. Referring to the increase in drug-related crime, Cele said this suggested that the police are on top of such crimes, and that of Durban being the biggest port in Africa, the area would naturally see attempts at these sorts of crime.

Another area that reflected steady increasing both provincially and nationally was robbery with aggravating circumstances. This includes car hijacking and house robberies. Common robbery and general theft had increased over previous year, but this year, 2004 they had been reflected as decreasing. The statistics also indicated that business robberies were declining from 1061 reported cases in 2002/2003 to 48 cases for this year, 2004. Ethekwini City Manager Mike Sutcliffe said that one of the City’s focuses was the building of a safer environment.“The city is beginning to see the smaller crimes decreases. The statistics are showing that we’re making some progress,” he said. James Seymour, informative Manager for Tourism KwaZulu-Natal said the reflected decrease in common robberies and general theft will bode well for Durban as tourist destination (The Mercury, Peete, 21 December 2004: 1).

6.19 Crimes in in Kwazulu-Natal that have decreased in the past year (compare with previous year, 2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crime</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>5 199</td>
<td>(5 405)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempt murder</td>
<td>7 196</td>
<td>(8 498)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culpable homicide</td>
<td>2 275</td>
<td>(2 284)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Robbery</td>
<td>14 932</td>
<td>(16 827)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime injury</td>
<td>7 248</td>
<td>(8 044)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abduction</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>(628)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault GBH</td>
<td>34 490</td>
<td>(35 909)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common assault</td>
<td>37 965</td>
<td>(39 266)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary at non-residential premises</td>
<td>0 302</td>
<td>(12 007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary at residential</td>
<td>47 437</td>
<td>(52 582)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stock theft</td>
<td>8 466</td>
<td>(10 389)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft of vehicles/motorcycle</td>
<td>15 059</td>
<td>(16 763)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The research has managed to highlight the full spectrum of crimes of violence as manifested in other counties, in South Africa in Kwazulu-Natal as well as in the rural area. The incidence of violent crime; the impact of violent crime on victims and communities; manifestations of specific types of violent crime in South Africa; the courses of violent crimes; research methodology; contribution to the study of criminology crime, especially violent crime, is regarded by most communities as a serious social problem that affects everyone in society.

Violent crime in particular creates a sense of fear and helplessness, as well as the perception that such crime is out of control and that the state is unable to deal with the problem of crime in our country (The Mercury, Peete, 21 December 2004:01). The majority of our people are law-abiding citizens as compare to the small percentage of criminals who harass our community.

In other countries such as Iraq, Iran, Rwanda, Ivory Coast and Sudan, violence has manifested itself into civil war and faction fighting. As a result, thousands and thousands of people are displaced and others leave their homes to save their lives. In Africa, state violence is used as an instrument to destabilise and overthrow governments, especially the opposition parties. The high violent crime rates in South Africa and in Namibia are the result of protected civil wars, which resulted in the culture of violence as well as the fact that these countries have a multicultural population and have been undergoing a process of political and socioeconomic transformation (Van der Hoven et al, 2001:7).

### 6.20 Stock Theft in Kwazulu-Natal

Stock theft is not a new crime. It is said that it is probably as old as agriculture itself. What is of particular concern however is that certain areas of Kwazulu-Natal feature prominently among the stock theft hotspots in the country. According to SAPS statistics, Ladysmith, Loskop, Intsikeni, Ezakheni and Bergville are among the country’s top 10 hotspot. The province of Kwazulu-Natal continues to develop, implement and review strategies aimed at accelerating growth in all sectors of the economy in line with the province’s socio-economic blueprint, the Provincial Growth and
Development Strategy (PGDS). The crime of stock theft, however, cuts across and threatens both the commercial farming sectors as well as the precarious and survivalist substance farming economy (Stock theft in KZN, 2007:02).

Stock theft has far reaching effects. Rural communities struggle to eke out an existence from meagre incomes in a harsh rural environment. Their livestock is regarded as live wealth and is often their only source of income and sustenance. Hence, when their livestock is stolen, the impact is far reaching, costing many households and small scale farmers their livelihoods. When the delicate economy of small-scale farming is disturbed, people flood to the urban areas exacerbating social problems. Stock theft also has a serious effect on the red meat industry, affecting SA’s competitiveness in international markets. Though the crime of stock theft is almost as old as agriculture itself, there are signs that stock thefts thieves operating in SA are operating in an organised network that invariably involve local criminals. The problem affects small scale subsistence farmers the greatest because in one incident, small scale stock farmers can lose their entire herd.

Umsinga is situated in a deep rural area, and the priority crimes includes inter alia: stock theft, robbery, murder, taxi violence and illegal firearms. A few years ago, the members of Isikebehe were gunned down on their way to Mahlababa following their stolen cattle. Whilst they were on their way, a group of people ambushed them, killing about eight people who died instantly. This incident did not only attract local but even international media as well. The area of Mahlababa at Msinga has been known as the harbour where large number of livestock is conspicuously hidden and later on those cattle will be sold somewhere else with a reasonable price. Well known wanted criminals are used to be located here and some people known as Izinkabi formally known as hitmen at taxi industry are sometimes found here or in Gauteng or Durban hostels.

6.21 Crime combatting

6.21.1 Crime combatting as an overarching concept

The development of a definition for crime combatting and a model, depicting the place of both crime prevention and policing within the broader framework of crime combating, is considered an important contribution to police science. In terms of the proposed model and definition that crime prevention forms part of crime combatting but lies outside the realm of policing, although policing plays a complementary role. In the proposed model of crime prevention, among others, to socio-economic intervention (including so called social crime prevention intervention), crime prevention through environmental design and deterrence through an effective criminal justice system (Burger 2007:140).

In March 2000, the National Crime Combatting Strategy superceded the National Crime Prevention Strategy and advocated a very different approach, focusing on criminal-justice resources. As a result, police were inappropriately envisaged as an all- purpose agency, rather than a highly specialised resource to be deployed strategically. This has led to a police agency that is stretched beyond its capacity, within a mandate that is impossible to fulfill, and disenchanted police officers with fragile authority and legitimacy, followed from planning to
consistent implementation, with monitoring by, and support from, all relevant role players, leadership, coordination, monitoring, reporting and accountability are the elements for success.

An effective criminal justice system is a necessary condition to promote safety and security effectively, but it is insufficient on its own. The police play a significant and vital role in protecting citizens by intervening, using reasonable coercive force where necessary to stop harmful actions, support victims and bring offenders before court. An effective criminal justice system improves safety, conditions of human development (National Development Plan, 2030).

A spike in organised crime including cash heists, business robberies and hijackings in the past two months has hit KwaZulu-Natal. Analysts and police, who spoke to the Mercury the previous day (05 August 2017), said that it appeared that the gangs involved in these crimes were becoming increasingly violent and brazen. This was after a shooting on the M13 the previous day left three suspected robbers dead. The three were linked to cash in Transit heist in Hillcrest. The shoot-out is one of at least five between suspects and police since late July 2017. In a dramatic confrontation on the N2, in Durban, on 05 August 2017, police killed four suspects and injured one.

The Security Company said that the previous Thursday, it responded to its second cash-in-transit heist in four days. The Hillcrest shooting is the incident that shook the community of KZN which involves cash in-transit which recently rock and ravenges our communities. A gang from Kwamashu hostel has been linked to this heist. This gang has been linked to the two recent robberies at the Dube Village Mall, in Inanda. Dr Jean Steyn, policing expert at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, said criminals were no longer scared of police or justice system, they don’t even fear the consequences of their actions (The Mercury, Kamcilla Pillay and Bernadette Wolhutter, Tuesday, 15 August 2017).

**6.22 Crime intelligence**

Law enforcement intelligence is an outgrowth of military and national security intelligence. Intelligence work carries with it the stigma of the use of secret, covert, intrusive methods, a view opposed by Racliffe (2009), who argues that intelligence work is primarily about anticipating risks and improving public safety. There is a difference between national security intelligence and law enforcement intelligence. Law enforcement intelligence should support the development of evidence for prosecution of criminal cases and be able to identify crime risks and crime information that can support policing approaches and efficient deployment of resources. Law enforcement intelligence should support the development of evidence for prosecution of criminal cases and be able to identify crime risk and crime information that can support policing approaches and the efficient deployment of resources. This has allowed officers to operate in areas that traditionally fall within the domain of the State Security Agency. This blurring of the lines between crime intelligence and state security has led to serious tensions and issues relating to a lack of accountability within crime intelligence (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 01, 2014:29).

The argument presented by Racliffe (2009), is premised on information collection, the analysis of information and converting information into actionable intelligence thereby pre-empting risk and threats. Intelligence work therefore differs from ordinary policing which primary functions in
crime preventions, investigation, and arrest of suspected persons and maintenance of public order amongst others. Furthermore, the perception of the secrecy argument in intelligence work according to Coyne and Bell (2011:63) is undermined by intelligence’s increasing use of open source of intelligence information. They argue that secrecy position fails to acknowledge that intelligence collection is a single stage in the intelligence cycle, meaning that once the information is turned into crime intelligence it is then classified and it may assume a position of secrecy. Intelligence-led policing is the application of criminal intelligence analysis as an objective decision making tool in order to facilitate crime reduction and prevention through effective policing strategies. The external partnership projects drawn from an evidential base, further states intelligence-led policing is a business model and managerial philosophy when data analysis and crime intelligence are pivotal to an objective, decision making framework that facilitate crime and problem reduction, disruption and prevention through both strategic management and effective enforcement strategies that profile and serious offenders (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminolgy 29 (1)/ 2016, Marelize Schoeman 2016).

6.23 Summary

Both crime and criminal activities and the organised official approach to counteracting these phenomena are of a major concern in the world today. Within the context of criminology in developing world, account must be taken of the relationship between development and crime. The area under investigation is a developing town, people are flocking in with the purpose of opening up their own business other are seeking for an employment in either the public or private sector. All those involved in criminal justice and socio-economic development are increasingly concerned with the crime- generating influences of development, and for crime prevention controlling industries and costs, themselves influencing allocation of limited developmental resources and energies. New developmental and criminal justice strategies are needed as well as further development of criminology united with, rather than divorced from issues of social structure and social change. In many countries, crime rates have grown to such an extent and have reached such proportions that they indicate the presence of a serious threat to sustainable development. The cost of crime in terms of the formulation and implementation of prevention and control policies and the processing of offenders through the criminal justice system place a very heavy strain on fragile economies while the alarming growth in the phenomenon of juvenile and young adult crime denies nations the manpower necessary to achieve economic and developmental goals (Mushanga, 1992: I). Crime is an enormous problem for every country in Africa just as it is for nearly all countries in the world, and as such, national leaders and their government must be willing to commit not only state funds, but also their personal efforts in order to reduce the volume of crimes particularly violent crimes.
CHAPTER 7
MONITORING AND EVALUATION IN RELATION TO CRIME PREVENTION

7.1 Introduction

Section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa makes provision for the establishment of the national police service that should be structured to function in the national level, provincial and where appropriate, local spheres of government. It provides further that the objects of the police service are to prevent crime, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property. Section 206 of the Constitution further requires each province to monitor police conduct, to oversee the effectiveness and efficiency of the police service, including receiving reports on the police service, to promote good relations between the police and community, and lastly to assess the effectiveness of visible policing.

The Constitutional imperatives also make provision of the Civilian Secretariat for the Police Service Act of 2011, which provides for the functioning of Civilian Secretariat for Police at a national level as well as that of Provincial Secretariat. It goes further to stipulate in Section 4(5), that Provincial Secretariat must perform functions and exercise powers of the Civilian Secretariat in the provincial sphere. In this way, this act reinforces the constitutional powers of the province to exercise civilian oversight over the police and to monitor and review police performance (Budget Speech, 2016/2017: 05).

7.2 Police service delivery evaluation

Oversight visits to the police stations are carried out using the National Monitoring Tool. The Civilian Secretariat reviews the National Monitoring Tool on an annual basis for Police in collaboration with all the provinces. In this regard the Department of Community Safety and Liaison had tried to solicit the services of the retired Provincial Commissioner to assist Kwazulu-Natal to amplify this tool to establish the norms and standards of an optimally functioning police station.

Last financial year, 176 stations out of 183 were evaluated in the Province, constituting 96% of the total police stations in the province. It is the first time the department has been able to evaluate almost all the police stations in the province and it is indicative of the positive impact of the decentralisation and restructuring of the department. The challenge ahead is to improve the quality of assessments and the monitoring of the implementation of recommended remedial measures (Budget Speech 2016/2017). Findings and recommendations emanating from oversight visits inform the Executive Authority and the management of the police service whether a need exists to introduce policy interventions or whether there is a need to develop strategies toward improving policing service delivery. Findings from evaluations carried out in the 2015/2016 financial years revealed the following:
General:

Low level of compliance in terms of Domestic Violence Act; not all stations have a female member on every relief or shift; not all stations have victim friendly facilities that are resourced and functional; community service centres are not user friendly to disabled people; duty officers not complying with the Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act of 2011; not all stations have designated firearm officers (Budget Speech 2016/2017: 06).

7.3 Sector policing

Community policing has been the official policing philosophy of the SAPS since 1994. The basic values of this philosophy have since been deeply imbedded in the SAPS. A need has however been identified to institutionalise these values and pillars into practical policing methodologies and techniques to meet the needs of a democratic, constitutional society. As such, sector policing is not only a practical priority of community policing but also a step towards the development of a modern, democratic policing style for the present century (National Instruction, Sector Policing 2003).

The National Instruction on Sector Policing has the following purposes: support and give effect to the strategic objectives of the South African Police Service; provide a national, uniform framework and guidelines for the implementation of the methodology of sector policing; provide the Station Commanders with a mechanism to facilitate an overall improvement in service delivery, to enhance a proactive policing approach towards crime and to strengthen police-community relations; sector policing not fully implemented at some other police stations, the Cluster Commander to make sure that they are being implemented forthwith; administratively, stations are able to profile sectors and appoint sector managers. However practical implementation is very difficult; shortage of resources such as motor vehicles and human resources makes it difficult for stations to fully implement sector policing (Budget Speech, 2016/2017: 06).

7.4 Detective services

Most stations do not have special interview rooms where detectives can interview witnesses; statement taking is still of a poor quality at some stations; the research observation is that the support to detective work by intelligence has been very poor; last financial year, the department has undertaken to implement a pilot project to evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of the detective services with reference to closed case docket. This project entails the auditing of 50 closed dockets identified by the department in respect of crime categories of property and drug related crimes, contact crimes and sexual offences (Budget Speech 2016/17).

Although the station evaluations are conducted yearly by the department, there is still lacuna especially when it comes to the implementations of recommendations by provincial police. The research also needs to create a platform or forum whereby the provincial office for SAPS and our department will engage and discuss the findings obtained from various police stations on a
quarterly basis. This exercise will not only benefit for the Department of Community and Liaison nor SAPS, but it will indeed enhance service delivery for the whole province.

7.5 Resource management

Staff shortage is still the highest in the visible policing component; absenteeism is at its highest during the month end and weekends; the highest rate of absenteeism was found in the reliefs in the community service centres; there vehicles at some stations that still not fitted with automated vehicle location devices which exacerbate the abuse of state vehicle by police members; the findings of the research project on police allocation and deployment patterns have shown that the United Nations sets a standard of a police to population ratio of 1: 400 police officers. In South Africa, the overall police to population ratio compares favourably with international standards at 1: 346 (Budget Speech 2015/16).

However, 118 police stations, or 64% of Kwazulu-Natal stations, have police to population ratios of above 1:500 with 45% of these having ratios of above 1:700. Given its demographics and its difficult terrain, KwaZulu-Natal would appear to have a shortage of police personnel. This has a major impact on visible policing services at the crime service centres (Budget Speech 2015/16).

7.6 Police Station Evaluations

Stations are evaluated in order to ensure effective community crime fighting partnerships by ensuring properly functioning police stations where the station management compliment is adequate, properly skilled, united and is at work all the time and working optimally. All units are adequately staffed with skilled staff who are at work and operational; community coordinators are in place, skilled and available for day-to-day activities; oversight visits are carried out using the National Monitoring Tool (NMT). A total number of 107 fully fledged police stations and 03 satellite police stations have been evaluated in the province during the 2015/2016 financial year. Conspicuously, the findings from the visited police stations highlighted the following:

- low level of compliance in terms of the Domestic Violence Act; not all stations have a female member on every relief;
- not all stations have victim friendly facilities that are adequately resourced and functional;
- sector policing is not fully implemented at stations due to a shortage of resources such as motor vehicles and manpower;
- not all stations have established functioning community police forum structures;
- not all stations have special interview rooms where detective can interview witnesses; statement taking is still a challenge at some police stations;
- staff shortages are the highest in visible policing component (Budget Vote Speech 2015/2016: 06).

These findings and recommendations have been elevated to the Provincial SAPS management for intervention. In order to amplify the NMT, the Department for Community Safety and Liaison has launched a research project on police allocation and deployment patterns. This research project looked at the effectiveness of police deployment practices and available
resources in terms of the SAPS Resource Allocation Guidelines (RAG). The research conducted by KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison, reveals that the number of personnel deployed by the police within Kwazulu-Natal grew from just over 20 000 in 2004 to 26 000 in 2010 and 2011. However, in the following two years these personnel numbers have declined. In 2013/2014 the total number of personnel was 26 597 with 21 682 being functional SAPS members are deployed to the 184 police stations within the province. At 83 police stations within the province, the police to population ratio are above 1:700 (some of these recording ratios are above 1:800) and at another 35 police stations the ratio of police members to population are above 1:500. This means that in total 118 police stations, or 64% of stations, have police to population ratio of above 1:500 with 45% of these with ratios of above 1:700.

While it is recognised that population to police ratios should not be the only determining deployment numbers, an analysis of the 2013/14 crime statistics reveals that at least 22 of the stations which recorded high police to population ratios also recorded very high levels of contact crimes, including murder, attempted murders, assaults, rape and robberies (Budget Vote Speech 2015-2016:06). Given its demographics and its difficult terrain, KwaZulu-Natal would appear to have a shortage of police personnel. This has a major impact on visible policing and service at the crime service Centre. There are also indications that Crime Intelligence and Detective Unit may have an acute shortage of personnel (Budget Vote Speech 2016/2017).

7.7 Monitoring Domestic Violence Act at the station level

In terms of the Strategic objective for the Department of Community Safety and Liaison and National Instruction from the Secretariat; our department, KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison is expected to monitor the Domestic Violence Act at the station level. Recognising that domestic violence is a serious evil; that there is a high incidence of domestic violence within South African society; that victims of domestic are among the most vulnerable members of our society; that domestic violence takes many forms; that acts of domestic violence may be committed in a wide range of domestic relationships; and that the remedies currently available to the victims of domestic violence have proved to be ineffective (Domestic Violence Act of 1998:01).

For the department to effectively monitor and evaluate the Domestic Violence Act it then becomes imperative to establish a tool kit to be utilised and it was harmonised and made user friendly by the Secretariat. When this process is undertaken at the station, one needs to thoroughly check whether all the necessary documents that accompanied Domestic Violence Act are available and well completed at the station level. When the complainant comes and reports the case at the Service Centre, it is the responsibility of the SAPS member to complete all necessary forms and make sure that the victims is satisfied with the service. Domestic violence means physical abuse; sexual abuse; emotional, verbal and psychological abuse; economical abuse; intimidation; harassment; stalking; damage to property; entry into the complainant’s residence without consent, where the parties do not share the same residence; and any other controlling or abusive behaviour towards a complainant (Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998:02).
A group of men met in Pretoria was called to debate how to end the scourge of murders and gender-based violence. ‘Change starts with me’ was the theme of a national men’s dialogue against the murder of women and children and gender-based violence yesterday (The New Age, Maphumulo, Wednesday, 21 June 2017). The men gathered with Deputy Minister of Justice and Constitutional Development John Jeffery in Pretoria to say enough is enough, every woman’s life matters. They addressed the scourge of violence against women and children in the country, saying it had reached alarming and traumatising levels.

Every week there are reports of gruesome killings of women and children, by their either partners or strangers. More than 30 cases of murders of women have been reported since January 2017. The Minister said the aim of the dialogue was to develop a prevention strategy that would assist the government in dealing with scourge of murder of women and children and gender-based violence. He said the way a boy was raised was extremely important and no child should ever have to witness violence at home. The Statistics South Africa recently released the South Africa Demographic and Health Survey 2016 Key Indicator report, which said that South Africans continued to experience and suffer violent relationships. The worst affected were widowed, those living together and divorced women (40%). The data for women aged 18 and older showed that one in five (21%) women had experienced physical violence by a partner. Younger women were more likely to report physical violence (The New Age, Maphumulo, Wednesday, 21 June 2017:02).

Gender based violence has recently shocked our communities, this follows the brutal attack launched on a defenceless student that was assaulted by a fellow pupil. A harrowing video of a teenage boy that has brutally assaulted his female peer in the corridors of Siyathuthuka High School at Inanda, the story has emerged on the twitter on a women’s day. This comes as the country commemorates women’s month and less than a week after Deputy Minister Mduduzi Manana was seen brutally assaulting a woman at a Johnnesburh nightclub after she has called him a gay, The Mercury, Bernadette Wolhutter, Friday, 11 August 2017).

7.8 SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment)

Eck and Spelman (Lab, 1997:174) offer a four step process for problem solving. These steps are scanning, analysis, response and assessment. Scanning involves identification of the problem, issues and concerns in the community. This information may arise from the observation officers make as they work in the neighbourhood, from residents or business who bring problems to the officers, from other agencies such as (school, hospitals) that operate in the community, or from the systematic study of data and information on the area completed by the police or others.

The second stage is the analysis of the problem. It is particularly important that more than just the police are involved in this activity. The police should work in partnership with an array of individual and agencies depending on the identified problem. For example, if drug dealing is centered in the house, apartment, or public housing building, the police should consider the inclusion of landlords, housing authority personnel, the Health Department, and the city attorney in the problem analysis. If the drug activity centres on youth, it may be advisable to include the schools, probation office, youth groups, or others in the process. The intent is to bring together a diversity of expertise and insight. This diversity will be able to help collect a variety of information and assist in understanding what factors are involved in the problem.
It is from this co-operative interaction that different responses will emerge. As in the analysis stage, the police work with others in implementing the response. In some cases the police may have a little day-to-day involvement in the actual intervention because the identified response requires expertise and the abilities that the police do not have. An example, of this would be the use of civilian legation against owners of property where drug use is allowed to continue.

The final but essential step is assessment. Eck and Spelman (Lab, 1997: 175) note that this entire process can succeed if only the interventions are evaluated for their effectiveness. This evaluation, however, is not meant simply as a means of gaining success. Rather its importance is found in the feedback its provide to the process and improving the intervention.

The entire SARA process revolves around dealing with the causes of the problems, not symptoms. Consequently, assessment of the intervention requires looking at more than just reduced crime, increasing arrests, or other outcomes typically relied on by the police. The public also must alter its expectations for the police if it wants “community policing.” The police cannot be a cornerstone of solving large social problems if they are to be judged by the number of arrests they can make (Lab, 1997: 175). In this instance, the causes of crime in the entire area of Msinga should be looked at. Among other critical issues that may lead to crime, are inter alia: unemployment, poverty and the availability of drugs such as dagga and whoonga. These critical issues are interrelated to the triple challenges raised by the ruling party namely: poverty, unemployment and inequality.

7.9 Developmental and situational programs

There are a great many developmental and situational crime prevention programs and projects that have been evaluated over the years and reported a desirable impact on crime. A smaller number of these effective programs have been evaluated with more rigorous experimental and quasi-experimental designs. This holds true for both situational prevention and developmental prevention. The respective strategies have also benefited from a good number of literature reviews that have assessed the effectiveness of the accumulated scientific evidence on specific program types or modalities or even domains or context in which prevention is delivered. Reviews have also focused on key issues related to effectiveness, including displacement and diffusion effects, anticipatory, and monetary costs and benefits. Many of these reviews have taken the narrative form, providing rich details on which program type is effective, under what conditions or what context it may be effective, and why. Some use rigorous methods for locating, appraising, and synthesising evidence from prior evaluation studies. These are called systematic reviews and they often incorporate the quantitative technique of meta-analysis (Welsh & Farrington, 2012:06).

Development crime prevention initiatives are becoming increasingly popular in Austria (Sagnet and Show 2010:15). There has been considerable investment in early intervention programs in Australia, many of which do not have explicit crime prevention objectives. Development crime prevention is based on the premise that intervening early in a young person’s development can produce significant long term social and economic benefits. While there is evidence of importance of intervening early in life, the focus of developmental crime prevention is on
intervening early at any of a number of critical transition points in a person’s development to lead them on a pathway to prevent future offending (Sagant & Shaw, 2010:15). Early intervention aims to address risk factors and enhance protective factors that impact upon the likelihood that a young person will engage in future offending behaviour. In practical terms, developmental crime prevention involves providing basic services or resources to individuals, families, schools, communities to minimise the impact of risk factors on the development of offending behaviours. Most often, these resources and services are directed towards disadvantaged or vulnerable families with young children.

Several factors have been identified as contributing to the successful implementation of developmental crime prevention initiatives, including: the importance of timing and intervening at critical junctures, such times of stress or when people are open to external influences which may not mean early in life; the need to target multiple risk factors due to their cumulative impact, with bias towards those factors regarded as having the greatest impact, and target multiple offence types; the needs to be sensitive to the needs of the local area including the need to be culturally sensitive involve and power the community in decision making as volunteers and as paid professionals and identified local change agents; the importance of detail assessment of community readiness, the presence of existing partnerships and management structures, leadership stability, community engagement and support for and commitment to prevention, which is a key component of programs such as communities that cares; the importance of strategies to make programs accessible; keep people involved and to avoid stigmatising at risk young people or families; the value of partnership and coordination between new and existing service provider, whether they rely on formal interagency structures or more simple arrangement, and the requirement for longer term investment, as the benefits of developmental crime prevention is not immediate (Crow et al, 2004).

Evidence from a small but growing number of comprehensive evaluation studies has demonstrated the long term effectiveness of early intervention in achieving significant reduction in participant’s involvement in crime, as well as improvements in areas such as educational performance, child maltreatment, workforce participation, child and youth behaviour, income and substance abuse (Crow et al. 2004).

7.10 Developmental crime prevention

In recent years, most developmental prevention efforts have targeted early risk factors for offending. Risk factors are prior factors that increase the risk of occurrence of the onset, frequency, persistence, or duration of offending. Longitudinal data are required to establish the ordering of risk factors and criminal career features. Many risk factors for offending are well establish and highly replicable. For example, a systematic comparison of two longitudinal surveys in London and Pittsburgh showed (Welsh & Farrington 2012), numerous replica predictors of delinquency over time and place, including impulsivity, attention problems, low school attainment, poor parental supervision, parental conflict, an antisocial parent, a youth mother, large family size, low family income, and coming from broken family. Less well established are causal mechanism linking risk factors and offending.
For example, does large family size predict offending because of the consequent poor supervision of each child, overcrowded households, poverty, or merely because more antisocial people tend to have more children than others? (Welsh & Farrington, 2012). The developmental and situational prevention can be delivered in a community setting, but, because they do not address community process, they are not considered community approaches. Most developmental prevention efforts have targeted early risk factors for offending. Less well established are the causal mechanisms linking risk factors for offending.

The area of Msinga has shown that it has been highly affected by unemployment, poverty and inequality. The research has also reveals that there is high rate of illegal firearms at Msinga. The evidence has further shown that most serious crimes that are committed in this area are committed by means of illegal firearms. This revelation is not strange in this area since at once stage was tremendously haunted by faction fights and high level of political intolerance. The illegal importation and smuggling of firearms into South Africa, as well as the theft, or robbery of firearms in legal possessions and legal firearms reported lost, are certainly the most important factors contributing to the apparent general availability of illegal firearms in South Africa. The availability and alarming rise in the theft of firearms and firearms reported lost; exacerbate the incidence of violent crime (Gould & Lamb, 2004:134).

7.11 Situational crime prevention

Situational prevention stands apart from developmental prevention by its singular focus on setting or place in which criminal acts take place as well as its crime-specific focus. In a nutshell, situational crime prevention has been defined as a preventive approach that relies, not upon improving society or its institutions, but simply upon reducing opportunities for crime. Reducing opportunities for crime is achieved essentially through some modification or manipulation of the physical environment in order to directly affect offender’s perceptions of increased risk and effort and decreased rewards, provocations, and excuses (Welsh & Farrington, 2012:22).

The theoretical origins of situational crime prevention are wide ranging, but it is largely informed by opportunity theory. This theory holds that the offender is heavily influenced by environmental inducements and opportunities and as being highly adaptable to changes in the situation. Opportunity theory includes several more specific theories. One of these is the rational choice perspective. This perspective appears to have had the greatest influence on the pragmatic orientation of situational crime prevention, as articulated by its chief architect (Welsh & Farrington 2012:12). The situational approach is also supported by theories that emphasized natural, informal surveillance as key to crime prevention. Eck’s review of situational crime prevention programs is the most comprehensive that has been carried out thus far. It focused on the full range of situational measures implemented in both public and private settings. It included both published and unpublished studies. In keeping with its evidence based approach, it included only the highest quality evaluations in arriving at conclusions about what works and what does not. Some of these first generation situational prevention measures employed weak evaluations that could not support the assertion that the program produced the reported effect (Welsh & Farrington, 2012:12).
Related to this is the widely held finding that crime is not randomly distributed across a city or community, but is instead highly concentrated at certain places known as crime hot spots. Situational crime prevention has been defined as a preventive approach that relies, not upon improving society or institutions, but simply upon reducing opportunities for crime (Welsh & Farrington, 2012:22). The situational approach is also supported by theories that emphasise natural, informal surveillance as a key to crime prevention. For example, Jacobs (1961) drew attention to the role of good visibility combined with natural surveillance as deterrents to crime. She emphasised the association between levels of crime and public streets use, suggesting that less crime would be committed in areas with an abundance of potential witnesses. Lighting improvements, for instance, may encourage increased street usage, which intensify natural surveillance. The change in routine activity patterns works to reduce crime because it increases the flow of potentially capable guardians who can intervene to prevent crime (Welsh & Farrington, 2012:22). From the potential offender’s perspective, the proximity of other pedestrians acts as a deterrent since the risks of being recognised or interrupted when attacking personal or property targets are increased. From the potential victim’s perspective, the perceived risks and fears of crime are reduced.

Some of these first generation situational prevention measures employed weak evaluations that could not support the assertion that the program produced the reported effect (Welsh & Farrington 2012:24). Reducing crime through environmental design focuses on designing systems to reduce the opportunity for crime and increase the ease of detection and identification of criminals. The high incidence of many forms of crime is due to an environment, which provides many opportunities for crime, and where risks of detection or prosecution are low. This pillar will extend the development of security based design of residential areas buildings and shopping centres. Ultimately the objective of this pillar is to ensure that safety and crime prevention considerations are applied in the development of all new structures and systems, and in the re-design and upgrading of old areas (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996).

7.12 Crime and other effects

A related issue is whether an evaluation reports the impact of a program on other measures besides crime. There are many potential costs and benefits to any program. Evidence about these costs and benefits change the overall assessment of whether the program works. This report, however, had a focused mandate from Congress (Sherman et al. 1998; 4), to concentrate on crime impacts. Because Congress provided neither the time nor the mandate to examine the other effects programs might have, the report generally disregarded those issues and excluded any evaluation that lacked outcome measures of crime or crime risk factors (Sherman et al, 1998:04).

7.13 The role of provincial government

The Constitution introduced the concept of cooperative government, structured in the national, provincial and local spheres, which is distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. This implies that all spheres of government must conduct its business within the spirit and principles of cooperative governance and intergovernmental relations. The provincial government has a critical role to play in monitoring of police conduct and service delivery, as well as promoting...
good relations between the police and communities. Section 206 (4) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa; outlines the policing mandate of provincial executives (MEC’s); the MEC is thus responsible for those functions assigned to it in terms of section 206 (3), or those conferred upon it in terms of national legislation or assigned through national policing policy. The MEC plays a pivotal role in terms of ensuring democratic control over the police service. The monitoring and oversight role played by the Provincial Secretariat is considered an important generator of information that informs the inputs of provincial government; through the MEC for Community Safety and Liaison, into the national policy process.

7.14 Implementation forum: Ministers and Members of Executive Council (MINMEC)

The MinMec forum constituted by the Minister, MEC’s of respective provinces and their Heads of Department (HOD’s) is the space to ensure effective coordination and problem solving geared towards securing a delivery agreement. The MinMec forum plays a pivotal role in ensuring policing oversight through regular monitoring and reporting on progress regarding the implementation of the delivery agreement, identifying potential blockage and instituting corrective measures that results in interventions to improve implementation. This is further facilitated through thorough and regular needs analysis to determine whether existing policies to be reviewed or if new ones should be developed. The Civilian Secretariat for Police has the responsibility for the alignment of provincial strategic and annual performance plans with that of the National Secretariat and the integration of strategies and systems of the various spheres of government. Furthermore, there is to be a strong emphasis on collaboration between the provincial and National Secretariats in the areas of research, monitoring and evaluation as well as partnerships to direct and guide anticipated and specific outcomes (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:35).

7.15 Monitoring local government

Each municipality is responsible for promoting a safe and healthy environment within its financial and administrative capacity and in line with national and provincial priorities. The democratisation of policing in South Africa has created the opportunity for safety and security reform and integrated policy aimed at transforming local policing and introducing improved safety and crime prevention thinking at all spheres of government. Through the single police service, national government will provide frameworks to encourage and support crime prevention and implementation must take place at the local level. Safety programming must be put firmly on the agenda at the local level and introduction of Community Safety Forum (CSF) approach aims to facilitate the establishment of appropriate capacity at local level to serve as a coordinating structure of government and civil society, deliberations on local safety and security towards the development of a local crime prevention strategy to guide joint planning and deployment of resources (Crime prevention management course, book 1, 2014:36).

The vision in the 1998 local government white paper is of a developmental local government system in which municipalities are; at the forefront of participatory democracy, involving citizens in meaningful and substantial deliberations regarding governance and development; responsive to citizens’ priorities and enjoying high levels of trust and credibility amongst the public, with employees who are skilled; competent and committed to deliver quality services and
acting in the public good and which operates within a supportive and empowering intergovernmental system (Crime Prevention Management: Monitoring and Evaluation 2014:25-26).

### 7.16 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation are the most important support components of any initiative, particularly community safety. All organisations, including the South African government and other donor agencies, require state institutions to monitor and evaluate the impact they are making with taxpayer’s money. Evidence from monitoring and evaluation is very important for community safety, and the process can, if appropriately conducted, enable the Community Safety Forum over time to show progress, learn from limitations and intervene to correct deficiencies. Monitoring and evaluation are competencies of the CSF’s executive committee. The committee, assisted by a coordination office, must formulate the evaluation framework and decide on the most appropriate instruments. The executive committee should plan project monitoring and evaluation in advance to commence at the same time as project implementation (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:41).

This guideline regards monitoring and evaluation as two distinct yet linked concepts. Monitoring refers to activities that measure progress made on planned inputs, outputs and outcomes. Findings and deliverables from monitoring are normally utilised to inform evaluations. A project plan that outlines project activities, outputs, outcomes and timelines is one reference tool by which progress can be monitored. Evaluation, on the other hand, is conducted at specified intervals to respond to specific questions relating to the implementation process, progress, impact or cost benefit. Projects are also evaluated, in some instances, to determine the worth or merit of an object (Frechtling, 2002:3). Information gathered during project evaluation assists in determining whether the project is proceeding as planned, in line with stated goals and objectives, and according to timelines. There are two types of evaluations, formative and summative. Formative evaluation assesses the initial and ongoing activities of a project and summative evaluation assesses the quality and impact of a completed project (Horn & Miron, 1999:3-4).

### 7.17 Set evaluation purpose and objectives

The evaluation purpose and objectives are formulated once the conceptual model has been finalised and fully developed. The evaluation purpose must clearly outline the reasons why the project needs to be evaluated and what will be done with the evaluation results. For instance, the purpose of the evaluation could be to learn whether a specific intervention works and improves levels of safety, or has unintended consequences. Once the purpose is clearly defined, the CSF’s executive committee will formulate the evaluation objective using SMART principles. SMART (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timely) objectives will assist in determining measurements, methodology and timing for evaluation. For example, if the impact of the project will be felt after six months, it means that the impact can only be measured after six months. Therefore evaluation can be staggered using the process-progress-impact approach to (Phillips, Bothel & Snead, 2002) measure reaction, satisfaction and planned action with the project.
management solution; measure changes in knowledge and skills needed with solution; assess application and implementation of the project management solution; identify impact from the project management solution, and calculate return on investment of the solution (Phillips et al, 2002).

7.18 Monitoring the quality of front-line service delivery

The President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr JG Zuma had a vision of monitoring and evaluation with monitors in the field to assess if service delivery is having the desired impact at service-facility-level. In response, DPME started a programme of unannounced visits to service sites such as schools, health facilities, social grant facilities, police stations, and municipal customer walk-in centers. The objectives are to collect evidence on the quality of services and to work with the relevant departments to demonstrate how to use such monitoring information to inform improvements in the quality of service delivery. Another initiative is a hotline set up in 2009 to allow citizens to log their complaints and queries regarding service delivery. The hotline was transferred to the DPME in 2011 to ensure that the accountability and responsiveness of government to these queries improves and to analyse trends in what concerns citizens. A new initiative is on citizen-based monitoring, which describes an approach to monitoring government performance that focuses on the experiences of ordinary citizens in order to strengthen public accountability and drive service delivery improvements (DPME, 2013).

7.19 Police Service Delivery Evaluation

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison has placed a high premium on the monitoring and evaluating of police performance, police stations and specialised units. This remains a critical feature of the Department’s oversight responsibilities as it enables us to hold the police accountable and to work with them to improve an overall service offered to the people. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison do this important work using the National Monitoring Tool (NMT), which is reviewed on an annual basis by the Civilian Secretariat for Police in collaboration with all the provinces. Last year, we took a strategic position to reduce a number of stations to be evaluated and rather 91 police stations. We did this in order to focus on few with a view of improving the quality of our evaluations (Budget Vote Speech 2017/2018:10).

Skogan (2016:105), states that there two concepts that are used to measure the performance of private and public organisations including the police, namely efficiency and effectiveness. Effectiveness means task performance, effective organisations are those which meet the challenges put them, satisfy demands for service, or solve problems. Efficiency on the other hand, is defined in terms of processing cost.

7.20 Exposition of police performance

Measuring the crime prevention activities of the police will ensure that the performance of the police as a whole is precise. Apart from their support and management functions, police forces were traditionally divided into two core areas of operational activity, namely patrol and
investigations. Although no one can argue that the measurement of police performance through statistics on arrests is essential and important, no police scientist or practitioner could argue that statistics on arrests model, learn more heavily towards the measurement of reactive than proactive units.

There is need to develop a comprehensive method of measuring the performance of the police to ensure that both the proactive and reactive are accurately measured. This could make the police see the value of performing well in crime prevention activities and inculcate the holistic crime prevention culture, which will ensure that there is a correlation between police effectiveness, efficiency, crime and the public fear of crime. The current reliance on arrest statistics does not deal with preventive activities before the commission of crime and thus falls short of guaranteeing the safety and security needs of individual (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1), 2016), Marelize Schoeman 2016.

Asserting that crime prevention is the function of the police implies that the measurement for police performance should rely heavily on their ability to prevent crime. This means that the absence of crime will take precedence over other factors such as crime combating and investigation. According to Alpert & Moore (2016), factors that should be considered when measuring police performance under this school of thought entails patrols, crime combating and crime prevention. The essence of these functions is understood as being to prevent and deter the commission of crime. According to Alpert & Moore (1993:111-112) the public’s fear of crime is another factor that should be taken into consideration when measuring performance.

This is based on the premise that there is a link between the public’s fear of crime, high crime levels and police’s ability to prevent crime. If factors such as the ability of the police to prevent crime are not taken into consideration, it is very possible that police can be seen as performing well when they arrest people who committed crime but the fear of crime and victimization in the society will still be high.

7.21 A brief overview of evaluation in prevention

Evaluating crime prevention practice has become as important for international donors and organisations that provide funding as it is for local and national government. Evaluation practice is now more widespread, as more and more governments emphasise the need to assess the effectiveness and efficacy of programs implemented, and to provide accountability for public funds. These trends bear witness to the growing recognition of the importance in the field of crime prevention and community safety.

The evaluation of crime prevention practice poses numerous challenges. The success of crime prevention programmes is often measured in terms of the absence of criminality, even though it can be difficult to prove that events did not take place because of an intervention (Morgan, Boxall, Lindeman & Anderson, and 2011:159). The United Nations Evaluation Group (UNEG), in 2005 published two guides on the rules and norms for evaluations, and specifies its orientations in relation to the reform and evaluation of the United Nations, the practice of evaluation itself (improvement of practice, methods, norms, and standards), and its professionalisation.
UNEG has compiled a list of eight essential criteria for the conduct of a good evaluation: transparency of evaluation process, expertise, independence, impartiality of evaluation, intentionality that is in terms of the use of the evaluation results. This requires precise planning for each phase, in alignment with future decisions, evaluating, that is, the importance of establishing prior to the evaluation, that the programme has the necessary measurable indicators, quality of the evaluation and follow up of evaluation recommendations. The evaluation of public policies has become a priority: the welfare state and a social welfare approach to dealing with issues such crime, was under challenge from some quarters as being unjust and ineffective. This required the relative success of crime and criminal justice policies to be measured through rigorous (quantitative) experimental methods, providing scientific evidence to their efficacy.

The current use of evaluation in crime prevention varies from one country to another. For the purposes of this report, responses to the 2006 United Nations survey on States implementation of UN guidelines on crime prevention examined. However, responses to the UN survey do not demonstrate common understandings of evaluation amongst respondents. The aims of evaluation better clarified in prevention practices:

- The demonstration of the effectiveness of crime prevention and community safety policies is often used for a more balanced approach to responding crime.
- Evaluation responds primarily to financial or managerial expectations.
- For governments and international organisations, evaluation responds to the managerial need for accountability, in demonstrating the value of a policy or strategy. The evaluation is also used to guide resources allocation and the implementation of national policies.
- Evaluation aims to improve prevention practices.
- Many evaluations give priority to establishing whether the target group of an intervention has been reached (Morgan et al, 2011:163).

7.22 Summary

In our young democracy it is important to substantially entrench it so that our community should enjoy the fruit of our democracy. The Budget speech 2015/2016, among other important highlights were inter alia: discovered that other police stations do not comply with Domestic Violence Act; in other instances, however, no female member is deployed in relief/shifts; lack of victim friendly facilities where vulnerable groups are accommodated; lack of motor vehicles and manpower; no special interview rooms and sector policing not fully implemented. The findings and recommendations, that are usually obtained after station evaluations by the officials of the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, the perception is that are not taken seriously by both the SAPS and Department of Community Safety and Liaison. It is therefore important that these two departments should on a quarterly basis should meet and discuss these findings with a view to implement them. It is also important that during police station evaluations, the team that conducts those evaluations should check the total number of cases reported via the total number of cases referred to court or possibly received convictions.

Several studies have found that over half of all crimes in a city are committed at few criminogenic places within communities. Even within the most crime-ridden neighbourhood, it
has been found that crime clusters at a few discrete locations while other areas remain relatively crime free. The clustering of violent crime at particular locations suggests that there are important features or dynamics at these locations that give rise to violent situations. As such, focused crime prevention efforts should be able to modify these criminogenic conditions and reduce violence (Bachman & Schutt, 2009:258).

Problem-oriented policing strategies are increasingly utilized by urban jurisdictions to reduce crime in these high activity crime places. Problem-oriented policing challenges officers to identify and analyse the causes of problems behind a string of criminal incidents. Once the underlying conditions that give rise to crime problems are known, police officers can then develop and implement appropriate responses (Bachman and Shutt, 2009:258).

The issue of limited resources especially in rural police stations remains a great challenge and lives a lot to be desired. The research has discovered that the area under investigation is policed and managed by two prominent police stations namely: Msinga police station and Nhlanhle police station; formerly known as Pomeroy police station. Umsinga police station is characterised by shortage of proper infrastructure such as charge office which is too small, no boardroom where stakeholders meetings should be conducted, not sufficient for lecture room for the police officials to hold their meetings, lack of basic resources such police vehicles, lack of personnel at charge office or CSC, Crime Prevention Unit and Detective Unit. For as long as lack of these basic resources at Msinga, the philosophy of zero crime in Kwazulu Natal will remain a pipe dream. At the present moment, the post of the Station Commander is vacant and needs to be filled as soon as possible.

These abovementioned challenges are similar to Pomeroy police station. In this station because they do not have even small board room like Msinga and worse part of it they use park home as a boardroom; and there is also no lecture room.

The research has highly recommended that new police station should be erected and builds for Msinga and Pomeroy in order to enhance service delivery. One of the respondents at Msinga highlighted that in his area where he live, they have not reached 1994, meaning that they do not get basic services in his area such as water, electricity and sanitation.
CHAPTER 8
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

Data analysis is one of the most important stages of the research process, yet it is also one that is regularly overlooked during the early stages of the research planning. The analysis of data is a crucial part of generating findings. Analysis underpins the data and informs the conclusions presented to those reading the work. If one is involved in quantitative analyses, coding often involves placing a value on one of the research variables. A variable is normally a theme of the research or something the researcher wishes to measure or otherwise analyse. Themes such as age, class, and ethnicity, length of time in prison, attitudes and beliefs are all examples of variables.

Qualitative data analysis can also involve a process of coding. This process also aims to identify and coherently catalogue key themes within the data, but is carried out in a different manner. As such, qualitative coding, of which one of the most regularly used techniques is known as thematic coding, involves the identification of important themes by systematically reviewing the data. This could involve reading through an interview transcript, or ethnograph field notes, and tagging seemingly important statements or events as they are encountered in data. These tags are then refined in subsequent readings of the data. These tags also variously called nodes or themes (Crowther-Dowey & Fussey, 2013:33). In order to achieve safer communities, reliable and up to date data on a range of health, education, developmental and security measures are required to identify and define the scale and scope of safety problems; identify specific risk and protective factors; develop and test interventions; and then assure widespread adoption at a community level.

Safety is not static, and social and structural factors that contribute to crime and violence may change over time (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:21).

8.2 Understanding safety, crime and violence prevention

The National Development Plan states that safety should be measured by the extent to which the most vulnerable in society feel and are safe from crime and violence and the conditions that breed it. Safety refers principally to the state of an area and is determined based on the real and perceived risk of victimization. Unsafe therefore refers to areas characterised by the significant prevalence of violence and crime. Security as defined in the National Security Strategy of South Africa (2013) refers to the maintenance and promotion of peace, stability, development and prosperity using state power. It also involves the protection of our people and their being free from fear and want; and the preservation of the authority and territorial integrity of the state (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014:07).

Crime and violence prevention then, is a condition for safe communities. When used together, crime prevention and violence prevention is somewhat different: crime prevention is defined by the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime (2002), as strategies and measures that seeks to reduce the risk of crimes occurring and their potential harmful effects on individuals.
and societies, including fear of crime, intervening to influence their multiple causes. Violence is defined in broader developmental terms, as the international use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014: 07).

Substantial evidence exists to show that, in order to effectively prevent crime and violence, a developmental life-course approach, building on the socio-ecological model espoused by the World Health Organisation, is required (Crime Prevention Management Course 2014:7-8). A life-course approach takes into account the full context of and cumulative impact of this context on, a person’s life, including structural, environmental, developmental, cultural and social dimensions of life. Situational crime prevention has, a long history in criminology and its practical utility, if not its relevance to criminological theory, has been widely recognised. The attraction of such measures lies in their apparent simplicity and practicality. Instead of trying to change criminal motivation or offender self-control-both of which are regarded by traditional criminologist as deep-seated behavioural tendencies, and neither of which has responded conspicuously well to intervention by the criminal justice system-situational crime prevention attempts only to regulate their active expression by way of criminal behavior (Cornish, 2010:153).

Situational crime prevention, then, involves the development of techniques to prevent, constrain or disrupt criminal activity. Characteristically, these techniques use a variety of environmental manipulation to alter the risk, efforts and rewards of offending and the methods are rapidly developing in number, range and sophistication. Such intervention relies upon two important requirements: the need to be crime-specific and a familiarity with the procedural aspects-that is the details of crime commission in relation to specific crimes (Cornish, 2010:153).

8.3. The importance of research and data for monitoring safety

One of the first academics or researcher, albeit as a sociologist, to look at rural crime per se was Marshal Clinard in the 1940s with his seminal study on rural criminal offenders. Clinard found some specific characteristics associated with the rural offenders, namely; their extensive mobility, resulting in reckless and irresponsibility (Minnaar 2016, Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminolgy 29 (1)/ 2016). In order to achieve safe communities, reliable and up-to-date data on a range of health, education, developmental and security measures are required to identify and define the scale and scope of safety problems; identify specific risk and protective factors; develop and test interventions; and then assure widespread adoption at community level. Safety is not static, and social and structural factors that contribute to crime and violence may change over time (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:21).

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8.3.1 Quantitative data analysis

This section presents the quantitative results found within the study. It aims to answer the following questions laid out within the research:

- What policing and community safety structures are participants aware of within their community?
- What crimes have participants been the victims of?
- What do participants believe are the most prevalent crimes in Masinga?
- How can these crimes be addressed and prevented?

8.3.2 Demographic profile of the participants

As can be seen in Figure 1, there is a relatively even distribution of male (n=81, 45.5%) and female (n=97, 54.5%) participants. However, nearly half (n=81, 45.5%) of the participants fell into the 21-30 age group, followed by the above 61 age group (n=42, 23.6%). The missing middle categories present a picture of an unbalanced sample. It is most likely that this effect was a result of the data collection methodology, or more specifically, at what time during the day data was collected. Similarly, the vast majority of participants fell within the Single relationship category (n=156, 87.6%). This sample is thus unlikely to be representative of the broader population in terms of their current relationship status, and is again most likely due to data collection procedure.
**Figure 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Participants in the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Groups</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 61 years</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>94.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of Housing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal/Structured housing</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen above, the majority of the sample lives in formal housing (n=139, 72.0%) and has completed their secondary schooling (n=143, 73.0%). The sample was also primarily made up of African participants (n=188, 94.4%). This paints a picture of a relatively homogenous sample. While it is de facto, practice to use variables such as race and marital status when running inferential tests, the highly unbalanced distributions of these variables significantly reduces their utility for this purpose.
**Figure 2: Marital Status x Age Cross-Tabulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
<th>41-50</th>
<th>51-60</th>
<th>Above 61</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>N 8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 25.0%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>N 82</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 51.9%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>N 0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>N 0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>N 0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N 90</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 46.4%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Figure 2, married participants are relatively evenly distributed across age ranges. Inversely, the majority of the single population falls in the 21-30 (n=82, 51.9%) and 61+ (n=42, 26.6%) ranges. The level of education variable shows a clear pattern in which most female participants (n=87, 84.5%) end school at high school level (compared to only 60% (n=56) of male participants), and male participants often do go on to FET (n=31, 33.3%).

**Figure 3: Gender x Education Cross-Tabulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Secondary School</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Post graduate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>N 6</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 6.5%</td>
<td>60.2%</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>N 4</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 3.9%</td>
<td>84.5%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N 10</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 5.1%</td>
<td>73.0%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, the type of housing variable shows some interesting results. When compared to the level of education variable it shows that the individual’s level of education does not have a large impact on their type of housing, though there is still a limited significant link ($X^2=10.596$, df=4, $p=.031$):
**Figure 4 Housing Type x Education Cross-Tabulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Secondary School</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Post graduate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formal / Structured housing</strong></td>
<td>N 4</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>76.3%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informal settlement</strong></td>
<td>N 6</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>63.0%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>N 10</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>72.5%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**8.3.3 Feelings of safety amongst participants**

Participants were asked a set of questions which examined how safe they felt living in their community. These questions asked, “How safe are you in your neighborhood?” and “How often do you hear about violent crimes in your neighborhood?”

**Figure 5 “How safe are you in your neighbourhood?” x “How often do you hear about violent crimes in your neighbourhood?”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Hourly</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very Safe</strong></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fairly safe</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>63.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fairly unsafe</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very unsafe</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most participants in the sample felt *fairly safe* (n=97, 51.1%). A relatively small portion of the population reported that they felt unsafe in any way (n=63, 33.2%). Notably, in Table 5, participants who felt *very safe* stated that they rarely/ monthly (n=11, 37%) or never (n=10, 33.3%) heard about crime in their area. Similarly, participants who felt *safe* also stated that they rarely – ie on a monthly basis – heard about crime in their area (n=62, 63.9%). This pattern changes when it comes to participants who felt unsafe. Participants who felt *fairly unsafe* and *very unsafe* claimed that they heard about incidents of crime in their area on a weekly basis (n=18, 46.2% and n=9, 37.5% respectively). That said, a causal relationship could not be drawn from these findings, as participants who are more worried about being the victim of crime would be more likely to pay attention to news sources showing incidents of crime (including belonging to *neighbourhood watch* type initiatives, which report on crime in their area). That said the above table paints a picture of a relatively safe neighbourhood.

**Figure 6 “How safe are you in your neighbourhood?” x Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Safe</th>
<th>Fairly safe</th>
<th>Fairly unsafe</th>
<th>Very unsafe</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>N 18</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 19.6%</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>N 12</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 11.9%</td>
<td>60.4%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N 30</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 15.5%</td>
<td>51.8%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further, as can be seen in Table 6, there is no real difference between male and female participants on their levels of perceived safety. The majority of participants in both groups felt *very safe* or *fairly safe* (Male: n=57, 62.0%; Female: n=73, 72.3%). There is no statistically significant difference between male and female participants in this regard ($X^2= 6.532$, df=3, $p=.088$).
Figure 8  “HOW SAFE ARE YOU IN YOUR NEIGHBOURHOOD?” x TYPE OF HOUSING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Safe</th>
<th>Fairly safe</th>
<th>Fairly unsafe</th>
<th>Very unsafe</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal / Structured</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>housing</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
<td>54.0%</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, as can be seen in Table 8, the type of housing participants reside in makes no difference in participants level of fear, with again most participants falling into the fairly safe category (Formal Housing: n=74, 54.0%; Informal Housing: n=24, 44.4%). However, there are a significant number of people living in informal housing who feel that they are Very Unsafe (n=12, 22.2%), far more than those living in formal housing (n=12, 8.8%). This creates a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($X^2 = 9.371$, df=3, p=.025).

8.3.4 Experiences of Crime

Questions 9.1 to 9.5 of the questionnaire explored participants’ individual experiences of crime, and questions 10.1 to 10.5 explored participants’ families’ experiences of crime. According to the Victims of Crime Survey (2015/16:08), crimes that were perceived to be the most common and those that were feared by households include inter alia: about 58,8% households perceived the most common crime to be housebreaking/burglary, followed by street robbery (41,5%), and home robbery (38,5%). Housebreaking/burglary (49,2%) and home robbery (45,5%) were the most feared crimes followed by street robbery (41,9%) and murder 35,7%).

It appears that the fear is driven by experience rather than the severity of time. Housebreaking/burglary and home robbery being perceived as the most common crimes are also the most feared, even more than the serious crimes of murder and assault (Victims of Crime Survey 2015/16:08). The total number of trends of housebreaking/burglary, 2013/14-2016/17 776 933 (4), what criminals look for or find during housebreaking may also be of interest to law enforcement authorities and political authorities. It is however, not possible to say whether housebreaking targets some items or whether they simply take what they find during housebreaking. There are 328 677 cases reported to the police, whilst 20 354 reported to private security and 29 254 to insurance company (Victims of crime Survey, 2016/17:17).
**FIGURE 9 EXPERIENCES OF CRIME: PERSONAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Crime</th>
<th>n (experienced crime)</th>
<th>% of sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stock Theft</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted Murder</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car Hijacking</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notably in Figure 9, assault and theft are by far the most prevalent crimes experienced. Given the number of female participants in the sample the reported rape figures are relatively low.

**FIGURE10: QUESTION 9.1-9.5 X GENDER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you been the Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victim of Rape? No</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you been the Yes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victim of assault? No</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you been the Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victim of stock theft? No</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you been victim of Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attempted Murder? No</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you been the Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victim of Car No</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Figure10, while possibly under-reported, the majority of participants who reported that they had been the victims of rape are female. Interestingly, given the social stigma around men acknowledging and reporting acts of sexual violence against them, there is still one male participant who reported under this category. Male and female participants reported being the victim of assault relatively similarly (n=23 and n=21 respectively). However, female participants reported far more cases of stock theft than male participants, and male participants reported higher figures of attempted murder and car hijacking than their female counterparts.
FIGURE 11 EXPERIENCES OF CRIME: FAMILY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Crime</th>
<th>n (experienced crime)</th>
<th>% of sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted Murder</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car Hijacking</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notably in Figure 11, there is a high presence of participants who have experienced the murder of a family member. This reporting is likely not representative of the population, though further investigation would be required. This is a question that needs to be answered by the research methodology itself though. That said, the low levels of reporting on other types of crime are puzzling. Given that family relationships create an almost exponential curve based on the number of degrees relationship separation (each layer of family and extended family grows exponentially based on the number of family members in the previous layer), it seems unlikely that participants would report so few cases of assault and car hijacking.

8.3.5 Preventative Measures

Question 11 asked participants what single preventative measure could best improve the levels of crime in their area.

FIGURE 12: WHAT KIND OF PREVENTATIVE MEASURES IS NEEDED IN YOUR AREA?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patrol the vicinity</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beef up Security Personnel</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establish CPF structures</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage Mpimpa hotline</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No measures are needed</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>99.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen above, there is no clear consensus on what is needed to reduce crime in the area. However, almost all participants (95.4%) believe that something is needed. Notably the two most prevalent answers show very different safety needs. The first category Patrol the vicinity (n=62, 31.6%) shows that participants want a stronger police presence in the area, linking back to the more serious crimes talked about previously. However, the second category Encourage Mpimpa hotline (n=54, 27.6%), which was set up to deal with problems of bad driving. However, the hotline has also found itself fielding broader calls about “fraud and corruption.” It is not a big jump to state that participants answering under this category could be looking for a place for their voices and safety needs to be heard.
**Figure 13: Question 12 Do the local police patrol your neighbourhood?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hourly</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notably, the answers to question 12 show that residents are generally unaware of the police patrol schedule. Their answers are broadly dispersed across the answer categories. That said, 38.8% (n=76) believe that there is no police presence in their neighborhood, and less than 30% of the sample believe that they would see a police patrol on any given day.

**Figure 14: Question 13 What type of community safety structures have been established in your area?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPF</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street committee</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward committee safety</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCPA</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not answer</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question 13 (What Type of Community Safety Structures Have Been Established In Your Area?) shows that a clear majority (46.4%) of participants are aware of the Ward Safety Committee programme, compared to any other programme. This can be seen in part due to the localised nature of the programme within the eThekwini Municipality, compared to structures like the CPF. That said, the SAPS-related Community Policing Forum (CPF) was the second (29.6%) most notable community safety structure for participants.
FIGURE 15: QUESTION 14 MOST EFFECTIVE ASPECT OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component of Justice System is the most effective in your area?</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>83.7%</td>
<td>76.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courts</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Services</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>104</td>
<td></td>
<td>192</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The clear outcome in question 14 is that the police are seen as the face of justice (n=147, 76.6%). Notably however, while both male and female participants have very little faith in the correctional system (9.1% and 10.6% of participants respectively), male participants are far more likely (22.7%) to believe that the court system will adequately deal with offenders and decrease crime than female participants (5.8%). Inversely, while both male and female participants are mostly in agreement that they believe the Police services are the most effective aspect of the justice system, this trend is far stronger among female participants (83.7%), compared to 68.2% of male participants.
When asked about their feelings toward the ways that convicted criminals are sentenced, participants were overwhelmingly unhappy. Across all five types of crime measured within the study, participants answered relatively consistently, with most participants stating that they were unhappy with how the courts managed sentencing (between 42% for the Assault and Grievous Bodily Harm question to a maximum of 47% for attempted murder). This is pushed further when the Inadequate and Unhappy categories are combined, at which point, on average, 61% of participants were dissatisfied with how criminals were sentenced, compared to on average 29% who were either satisfied with sentencing, or thought that the sentences convicted criminals received were adequate. A relatively small percentage (on average 10%) of participants stated that they were unaware of how criminals were sentenced.

Question 16 asks participants about their feelings towards the usefulness of private security; however it needs to be placed into the context of the level of private security presence (that is to say the percentage of homes with private security) in the area. The 47.4% who have no opinion might simply not have private security, and thus cannot answer the question. With this in mind, 22.4% of participants do believe that private security is playing a meaningful and satisfactory
role in preventing crime. However, an additional 30.1% of participants are unsatisfied in the role that private security plays.

**Figure 18** *Question 16 “Are you satisfied with the role played by the private security in terms of reducing violent crimes?”* x Type of Housing Crosstab

| Type of housing/formal structure/ informal housing/informal settlement | Definitely agree | | Agree | | Not sure | | Disagree | | Definitely disagree | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Are you satisfied with the role played by the private security in terms of reducing violent crimes? | | Count | 6 | 13 | 19 | Count | 13 | 11 | 24 | Count | 71 | 20 | 91 | Count | 32 | 9 | 41 | Count | 17 | 1 | 18 | Count | 139 | 54 | 193 |
| | | % within Type of Housing | 4.3% | 24.1% | 9.8% | | % within Type of Housing | 9.4% | 20.4% | 12.4% | | % within Type of Housing | 51.1% | 37.0% | 47.2% | | % within Type of Housing | 23.0% | 16.7% | 21.2% | | % within Type of Housing | 12.2% | 1.9% | 9.3% | | % within Type of Housing | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

As can be seen in Figure 17e, there are significantly different levels of satisfaction when comparing participants living in formal and informal housing. The results show that participants living in informal settlements are generally satisfied with private security (44.5%), while participants living in formal housing are far less satisfied (only 13.7% had a positive outlook on private security, while 35.2% respond as disagree or definitely disagree). Both groups have a relatively large portion that have no opinion (not sure) – 51.1% for formal housing and 37.0% for informal housing.
8.3.6 Effects of Crime

**Figure 19: Question 17 – Impact of Crime**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suffered financial</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffered physical</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffered psychological</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffered emotionally</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not affect at all</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 shows that for the most part, participants felt that the biggest impact crime had on their lives related to emotional effects (n=57, 29.1%) followed by financial effects (24.0%). A significant portion (n=52, 26.5%) of the population stated that they experienced no effect – this can be read in two ways: either the participants did not experience any negative effects from being the victim of crime, or participants had not been the victim of crime. Of the participants who experienced negative financial effects due to crime, the majority were male (29.7% of men) compared to female participants (19.0% of female participants). That said, there was no statistically significant difference ($X^2=3.018, df=1, p=.082$).

Unexpectedly, when comparing the gender of participants who stated that they suffered emotional trauma due to crime, there is no real difference. 28.6% of the male participants stated that they experienced negative emotional effects, compared to 29.5% of female participants. Again, no statistically significant difference was found ($X^2=.021, df=1, p=.884$). This brings into question long held psychological stereotypes like *men don’t cry*, or at least brings into question how men deal with the emotional outcomes of crime.

**Figure 20: Question 18 – Reaction to Crime**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Report to the police</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform the neighbours</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retaliate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run away from crime scene</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do nothing</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 shows that in most instances (n=107, 54.6%) participants’ first reaction to crime was to report it to the police. This links back to question 14, wherein participants place what trust they have in the police as a means to combat and deal with after-effects of crime. Notably, 12.8% (n=25) of the participants’ first reaction to crime is to turn to their neighbors – either so that they can provide immediate assistance, or in order to warn them that they might be at risk. However, both of these outcomes show that a portion of the community is more invested in their community structure than in getting support from official structures.
Notably, a very small portion of participants (n=7, 3.6%) stated that they had retaliated in the face of crime, and all of these participants were male. Inversely, both male (24.2% of male participants) and female (17.1% of female participants) participants similarly stated that they did nothing after being the victim of time, with no statistically significant difference found (X²=1.484, df=1, p=.223).

8.4 Qualitative data analysis

With regard to qualitative data analysis, the researcher has conducted in depth interviews with relevant stakeholders in order to meaningfully include their contributions in this research: amakhosi, criminal justice personnel and the station commanders of Msinga, Pomeroy and Dundee police stations. The crime prevention programs in the area are prevalent and effective, however, it is critical for the government to make sure that these programs remained relevant and functional by financially support them and work closely with civil society.

Both the quantitative as well as qualitative methods in this study do acknowledge the fact that the community safety structures do exist at the community of Msinga and indeed they play critical and pivotal role in terms of crime prevention. However, there is a strong feeling that the government should strengthening them and provide financial support in order to get lovely sustainable and positive impact in our communities.

The study also acknowledges that the distribution of SAPS resources should balance the equation in that sense that the deep rural police station such as Msinga police station and Pomeroy should be given more resources such personnel and motor vehicles. These police stations lack proper infrastructure, such as offices, small Community Service Centres and there are no board rooms and lecture hall for stakeholders to hold their meetings.

The CPF’s, volunteers, and CCPA’s do not have sufficient resources such as offices, computers and vehicles, yet they are expected to support crime prevention unit and other relevant stakeholders in terms of crime prevention. The qualitative method has gone an extra mile by conduct an indept analysis by engaging the Amakhosi who reside at Msinga as well as officials both from the Criminal justice and SAPS, in order to gather more information with a view to enhance the study in investigation.

8.4.1 Interview with Inkosi Mazibuko: Chairperson of House of Traditional Leadership; Umzinyathi District: 30 March 2017

The traditional leadership normally handles the following cases: laws that were formulated under by Traditional Council; land disputes, boundaries, restorative justice; and petty cases. Inkosi Mazibuko highlighted that the relationship between Amakhosi and Community Safety structures is good. However, Inkosi Mazibuko highlighted that they want to see guidelines that regulate these community safety structures; their Constitutions should be discussed with the House of Traditional Leadership; as Traditional Leasers, they are obliged to advice these community safety structures in order to enhance service delivery and bolster cordial relationship with these community safety structures.
Inkosi Mazibuko cited that the issue of crime is everybody’s business and therefore all community safety structures dealing with safety matters should work together to combat crime. As the House of Traditional Leadership, they meet with SAPS on a quarterly basis. He reported that they need to create a platform where they will meet with Department of Justice and Department of Social Development. It is imperative that Department of Justice should come on board to advise them accordingly but so far, they do not have a forum where they share matters of common interests. The prevalent crimes that affect Amakhosi are as follows: stock theft, domestic violence, abuse of women and children, ukuthwala, community disputes, complaints and land disputes. The challenges facing Amakhosi under Umzinyathi District are: social cohesion, social ills such as unemployment, teenage pregnancy, high crime rates, domestic violence, killings of women and children, faction fighting. The issue of stock theft remains a thorny issue especially in rural areas and we need a joint venture whereby all relevant stakeholders should come on board and fight against this scourge. The training of Izinduna is paramount and will add value in terms of crime prevention.

An ongoing community awareness campaign on livestock branding should be encouraged and the state should preach this gospel until the community heed unto this calling. The qualitative method has also highlighted that the area of Msinga faces the following crimes which are prevalent in the area and they include: stock theft, armed robbery, theft, stock theft, rape and murder. The issue of taxi violence and political instability in the area, featured most prominently and as such many people had lost their lives.

8.4.2 Interview with Inkosi Zondi under Umzinyathi District: 09 June 2017

According to Inkosi Zondi; Amakhosi usually handle all cases except criminal matters. As Inkosi in his area, he handles community disputes, family conflicts and sometimes community boundaries. The relationship between community safety structures and Amakhosi is good. As Amakhosi, when these structures are being established, they are initially involved right up until they are presented to the full council. As a result, their day-to-day operations become smooth and they enjoy full support from the traditional council. The prevalent crimes in the area are stock theft, family feuds and sometimes faction fights.

The relationship between Amakhosi and Department Justice is good, sometimes as Amakhosi the Magistrate advises the complainant to refer the matter to the Traditional Court. Sometimes he receives requests from the Magistrate to provide more information on certain cases before the magistrate passes on the verdict. The challenges facing them, as Amakhosi is the dispute between the Councilours and Izinduna where they fight over the powers, for example when the Councilor wants to build a hall in the rural area, but only to find that there was no proper communication between Induna and the Councilor. Faction fights among different villages once engulfed the area of Msinga. Sometimes these conflicts would erupt when izinsizwa were actively involved in traditional dancing or having ritual ceremony or sometimes they were attending traditional event like ijadu, weddings or umamulo.

When these conflicts take place, most of the times the main dominant figure are men. When the conflict has started, the young men and older men, they do not sleep in their homesteads, but, they sleep on the mountain. That is where they would meet with their traditional healers who
would make sure that they would provide them with traditional medicine so that these regiments would become more fearless when approaching their opponents or their enemies. In these conflicts, most of the times, the weapons that are normally used are among other things are assegai, knife and illegal firearms.

In many instances people would lose their lives, many families would become destitute, and consequently, many widows and orphans would be left and found wanting. Violence would beget violence and people who are working in places like Durban and Johannesburg would feel the hit, more importantly those people that are staying in the hostels, would be attacked and shot in the hostels, in the bus stop and sometimes in their respective work. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison had played a significant role in terms of addressing these conflicts in Gauteng through Communities in Dialogue programme (CIDP).

The people of Msinga in Gauteng were abled to reach consensus and memorandum of understanding was signed. This marked the end of killings in Johannesburg; Amakhosi played a pivotal role to monitor the peace process working with izinduna and law enforcement agencies. Amakhosi also raise their concerns about the non-cooperation from other law enforcement agencies. Although Amakhosi handle no criminal matters, however they are always confronted with social ills in the community such as ukuthwala, land dispute, non-supporting of children by male persons and domestic violence matters. Whenever offenders are released from prisons, there is no proper engagement from Correctional Services personnel to prepare the victims and community at large. From a criminal justice perspective, the main concerns were the reluctance of the witnesses to testify before the court of law, intimidation from the offender and fear for revenge by offender.

The police are being criticised for releasing the suspect with bail. However, in actual fact it is the responsibility of the criminal justice, not of the police. There is a popular belief that the criminals get the bail easily and the police and courts are always blamed. While on the other hand, the criminal justice system always is guided by the Constitution of our country. The police are of the view that community safety structures are doing well in terms of crime prevention, however, they need to make sure that they work within the parameters of the law. There is also a great risk that these structures find themselves competing one another and as a result they lose focus. This is coupled with the fact that others like volunteers are getting stipends on monthly basis whilst others are getting nothing. It is therefore imperative for the government to provide liveable financial support for these structures in order for them to maintain economical viability.

8.5 Community safety structures at Msinga

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison five years ago, had established the Community Safety Forum. It was established immediately after nine people who belong to the community organization known as Isikebhe, were gunned down on their way to collect stolen cattle at Mahlabana. The area of Msinga is commonly known as war-torn zone, and was previously engulfed by faction fights, political violence and taxi violence. Had the department not intervened, the bloodshed and faction fight would have continued. Besides the presence of CSF, the following community safety structures were conspicuously prominent in the area; CPF, Ward

These structures are playing a pivotal role in fighting crime at Msinga. It is a well-known fact that the police personnel are not sufficient to do policing each household in our communities. They are prominent during pension payouts, visiting schools, and visible in our ATM’s. They also responsible for reporting possible crimes that are taking place in our communities such as rape, housebreaking, theft, stock theft and common or aggravating assault. Some of the crimes are sorted out in our communities because of the presence of these community safety structures. They work hand in glove with the intelligence from the police and detective services.

The existence of these structures can go a long way for as long as there is a proper coordination between the municipality, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison and the police, as well as other government departments. The people participate in these structures voluntarily and it remains the responsibility of government to make sure that we sustain them and where necessary, provide a stipend.

The community of Msinga feels that they are unsafe in their places of work and home; some feels that they have been the victims of crime and they are not safe at all. Although the research has revealed that there are victim empowerment programmes, SANCA and Khulisa, many community members are not aware of such programmes. The victims of crime need special assistance and it remains the government’s responsibility to create workshops and awareness to make our community aware about these programmes. These community safety structures can play a meaningful role in terms of informing our community about these programmes.

The participants have raised their concerns about social ills in the area of Msinga such as substance abuse, shebeens or liquor outlets, and illegal firearms, and these are main drivers of crime in the area. In his speech, access to justice is increasing; the Deputy Minister of Justice and Constitutional Development John Jeffery explains the multi-pronged effort the department is making to expand citizen’s access to justice system. Justice really is the key that unlocks all the other rights in the Constitution. Often people don’t know their rights or they don’t know how to enforce their rights—that’s where justice plays pivotal role (Public Sector Management, June, and 2017:11).

8.6 Role of local government

Each municipality is responsible to promote a safe and healthy environment within its financial and administrative capacity. Section 152 of the Constitution provides the followings objects of the local government: to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities; to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; to promote social and economic development; and to encourage the involvement of communities and community organizations in the matters of local government (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). In order to give effect to this, Section 154 stipulates that the national and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their affairs, to exercise their powers and to perform their functions. This translates into an obligation that municipalities must participate in national and provincial
development programmes. The White Paper on Local Government later paved the way for policy and legislative reform in the local sphere which led to the enactment of Municipal Structures and Systems Act. The latter Act prescribes that an Integrated Development Plan, must be developed and amongst others, cater for community safety needs. These developments created the opportunity for safety and security policy and reform at local level towards transformation of local policing and introduction of improved safety and crime prevention thinking (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book 1, 2014:65).

The Msinga Local Municipality is a category B municipality in the south-western part of the UMzinyathi District in Kwazulu-Natal. It is one of four municipalities in the district, making up almost a third of its geographical area. The nature of the topography is such that Msinga is largely located in deep gorges of the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers. This effectively isolates the area from the immediate surrounding municipal area. Msinga is accessible via the R33, linking it with Dundee, Ladysmith, Pietermaritzburg, Kranskop and Weenen (The Local Government Handbook 2012).

The local governments throughout the world are in the process of becoming the leading drivers of safety creation through crime prevention and other initiatives. Mayors and safety practitioners around the globe have championed the shift from seeing safety as the responsibility of the police and justice system to viewing it as public good and a human rights issue (Shaw, 2001). This shift has enabled local government to assume bold leadership in the design and implementation of local sectorial plans whose aim is to improve safety.

The change in thinking has been influenced by the following factors: citizens besieged by crime in their residential areas are lobbying local councilors for local leadership of safety measures; policy changes now require local governments to coordinate local multisectoral teams implementing safety plans; increasingly communities expect local government to assume level of responsibility for initiating or directing action against crime scene to be affecting local well-being and quality of life; the growing evidence from already implemented safety interventions points to the effectiveness of locally organised and coordinated crime prevention programmes; local government frequently has the most appropriate management infrastructure and skills base for delivering the multi-agency programmes that are often required; the White Paper on Safety and Security argues that local government should play the lead role in promoting local safety through multi-agency partnerships (Community Safety Guideline, 2010:10).

8.7 Provincial safety and security

The delivery of safety programmes is necessary for development. Such programmes focus on socio-economic factors, which inhibit crime and address the underlying causes of crime in a multi-faced and multi-agency fashion. This paradigm shift was directed at changing the crime and crowd control nature of the apartheid-policing regime towards a more safety and community-oriented approach in addressing crime (National Crime Prevention Strategy 1996). In order to fulfill this function, provinces should take responsibility for:

- Initiating and coordinating safety programmes at a provincial level;
- Mobilising resources for safety (social crime prevention) programmes;
• Coordinating a range of provincial functions-health, education, welfare, and local government, to achieve more effective safety programmes;
• Evaluating and supporting the safety (social crime prevention) programmes at local level;
• In consultation with local government, implement and take joint responsibility for safety programmes in areas where local government is poorly resourced or lack capacity; and
• The establishment of public and private partnerships to support crime prevention, it is critical for the private sector to come to the party since the issue of crime was traditionally been seen as the business of the state alone and they normally stay aloof.

The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was introduced and served as an overriding framework for all social crime prevention or safety initiatives at provincial or national level. Although provinces identified interventions and initiatives, it struggled to secure and cooperation from other sector departments (Crime Prevention Management Course, Book1, 2014:64-65).

8.8 National Crime Prevention Strategy objectives:

• The establishment of a comprehensive policy framework which will enable the government to address crime in a co-ordinated and focused manner which draws on the resources of all government agencies, as well as civil society.
• The promotion of shared understanding and common vision of how we, as a nation, are going to tackle crime, it is also the responsibility of the government to make sure that they create an environment whereby its citizenry will be able to stand up and fight crime. This vision should also inform and stimulate initiatives at provincial and local level.
• The development of a set of national programmes, which serves to kickstart and focus the efforts of various government departments in delivering quality service aim at solving the problems leading to high crime levels, particularly in our residential areas.
• The maximization of civil society’s participation in mobilizing and sustaining crime prevention initiatives, the sustainability and effectiveness of these programs soley depend up the active role play by our communities.
• The creation of a dedicated integrated crime prevention capacity, which can conduct ongoing research and evaluation of developmental and public campaigns as well as facilitating effective crime prevention programmes at provincial and local level, is fundamental.
• It is also important to emphasis on greater community involvement in crime prevention at grass root level (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996).

8.9 Building a safer society: strategic approach to crime prevention

Tonry and Farrington (1995) purposely did not address criminal justice prevention in any substantial fashion. This was because this strategy had been adequately addressed in many other scholarly books. Also there was a growing consensus on the limited effects of this approach (at least in terms of the more punitive elements) as well as the need for governments to strike a greater balance between these emerging and promising alternative forms of crime prevention and the more traditional responses to crime.
The provisions of the 1996 National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) relate to the
development of a coordinated multi-agency response to crime. The NCPS is notable for its
emphasis on the integration and transformation of the criminal justice system as a prerequisite
for effectively combating crime. According to the NCPS, crime prevention should incorporate
and coordinated long-term strategies that involve a range of participants beyond the criminal
justice system. The provision in the 1998 in the White Paper on Safety and Security relates to
local government’s strong coordination role in enabling crime prevention partnerships with a
range of role players including CPFs.

8.10. Social crime prevention

Rather than focusing on the physical environment, social crime prevention is most commonly
directed at trying to influence the underlying social and economic causes of crime, as well as
offender motivation. This approach tends to include crime prevention measures that take some
time to produce the intended results. This may include action to improve housing, and
educational achievement, as well as improved community cohesion through community
development measures.

How does a country like South Africa go about fighting crime? There are many rival answers to
this question. South Africa has inherited a debate that began in earnest more than thirty years ago
in the United States, and which today, shows no signs of reaching solutions. At its broadest and
crudest level, the debate is between the adherents of law and order philosophy on the one hand
and social crime prevention philosophy on the other. Both claim to support both law and order
and social crime prevention (Steinber 2001). But the two sides keep fighting nonetheless. What,
precisely, separates them? At its worst, social crime prevention philosophy is about telling
youngsters how to behave. At its best, it is about creative problem-solving, about capping the
bottle before the milk is spilt. For instance, car hijacking in South Africa would not last long if it
were impossible to forge the registration of vehicles on government’s database. Crime
prevention is about ensuring that social workers visits young single mothers in informal
settlements, it is about building bridges between the formal economy and isolated wasteland at
the edges of our cities. It is animated by the idea that problems can be solved before their
symptoms erupt (Steinber, 2001).

8.11 Analysis of the outcomes

The outcomes of prevention policies and practices are often assessed in terms of three criteria,
namely effectiveness, efficacy and efficiency. The effectiveness of prevention policies or
practice relates to their ability to produce the desired outcomes, usually in terms of reductions in
crime, but can be difficult to measure. The research has conspicuously observed that the
government normally mobilises more resources for developing and launching public policies
than in reporting in implementation, regardless of whether or not they appear to be effective. The
efficacy of the policies and practices concerns their ability to meet the targets they have set.
Analysis of the efficiency of programmes in terms of their capacity to achieve good results at
reasonable cost are rarely undertaken, in spite of the strong demand for the cost effectiveness of
public policies to be assessed (Sagant & Shaw, 2010:08).
In Msinga, the research analysis shows that the community safety structures are well known in the area and they are effective in the sense that they tremendously reduce crime and play a pivotal role in terms of reducing crime. The practical example is the presence of CPF and CCPA in the community of Msinga. The present research has found that these structures play pivotal and they help a lot in reducing the stock theft in the area as we know that Msinga community solely depend upon the livestock, which has been regarded as ‘black bank,’ the source of inspiration and their livelihood.

Although these community safety structures are prominent in the area of Msinga, however, the research has shown us that unless the government provides adequate funding to capacitate them, their sustainability and survival will not be guaranteed in the near future. The police and municipality should make sure that these structures are maintained and well nurtures so that they produce desired results.

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison is presently running the programme formerly known as Volunteer Social Crime Prevention Programme (VSCPP). These volunteers are working at the district level and they are working very close with the community. In terms of its mandate, the department is obliged to these volunteers the stipend of R2100 per month. As the name clearly states, their main role is crime prevention; they share this information with the police, the department and other relevant structures with the view of preventing crime. They mainly patrol the wards, participate in crime prevention activities, visiting problematic and notorious schools that are highly affected by crime; visit pay points where special grants are paid and patrol ATMs in order to prevent them being bombed.

The prevalence of illegal firearms at Msinga poses a serious threat not only in the area under research per se, but however, to the entire province of KwaZulu-Natal. When the researcher had interviewed some of the residents of Msinga, they were vocal and adamant that some of these guns were brought in during the time when the faction fighting was still rife in the area, and subsequently when political violence was predominantly taking place at Msinga. These guns are used in taxi violence, stock theft cases, armed robberies, domestic violence and committing crime in general.

When compared with situational or developmental approaches, there is limited evidence of the effectiveness of efforts to modify community level factors to reduce crime. Community policing as a certain philosophy or approach, requires adequate public input through consultation and participation mechanism to operationalize SAPS’s Constitutional mandate. In this respect, the study points to fact that this philosophy guides the management style and operational strategies of the SAPS by emphasising the building community-police partnerships and seeking of problem-solving approaches satisfying the needs of the community. Community policing is therefore, based on the premise that the police and community must work in a co-ordinated and co-operative fashion. This will enable them to identify, prioritise and solve contemporary problems related to crime, fear of crime and physical order.

Based on the discussion above, the study stresses that the following principles should be considered the cornerstone of community policing: improve the delivery of policing services to the community; strengthen the relationship between the community and the police; promote joint

Roberts (2003:9) explains that the concept of public participation has a long lineage and social science practitioners generally believe that its principle originated in the Greek city-states (polis) through the expression in the Ecclesia of Athens. This Ecclesia comprised an assembly open to all free male citizens aged 18 and above.

The purpose of this assembly was to debate, seek consensus and make democratic decisions on behalf of all community members. These Greek males were elected and mandated to screen socio-political agendas, which included ruling on the constitutionality of proposed measures. Such rulings implied that these ordinary men were actively participating in the government and the ruling of Athens city-state (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1)/2016, Marelize Schoeman 2016).

The words ‘public participation’ is a clear combination of two concepts namely public and participation. According to Camay and Gordon (2016:67), public refers to those individuals who live within a policy and are governed by a constitution and the police. Within this policy, individuals have to fulfill certain obligations in order to make the polity habitable. An example of such an obligation is to participate in the effective functioning of the polity. Other researchers regard participation as an activity of taking part with other members of society in certain social process to achieve a common purpose. In this context of local government, others define public participation on the most fundamental level as participation in the process of local affairs.

Other researchers regard participation in the local sphere as a way that authorities glean opinion, perceptions, and information about local conditions, needs, desires and attitudes. Cloete and Van der Waldt (2016); furthermore, view public participation as an indispensable prerequisite for local democracy seeing that it fosters an open, transparent and accountable process through which communities can exchange views and influence local decision making. Both citizens and police offers must become educated in the dynamics underlying community policing to enable them to become involved in critically analysing the crime problems. It therefore appears that changing from an authoritarian to a democratic policing model lies at the heart of community policing.

8.12 Summary

Data analysis is one of the most important stages of the research process, yet it is also one that is regularly overlooked during the early stages of the research planning. The analysis of data is a crucial part of generating findings. Analysis underpins the data and informs the conclusions presented to those reading your work (Crowther-Dowey and Fussey, 2013). The National Development Plan states that safety should be measured by the extent to which the most vulnerable in society feel and are safe from crime and violence and the conditions that breed it. Crime and violence prevention then, is a condition for safe communities. When used together, crime prevention and violence prevention is somewhat different: crime prevention is defined by the United Nations Guidelines for the prevention of crime (2002), as strategies and measures that
seeks to reduce the risk of violence occurring and their potential harmful effects on individuals and societies, including fear of crime, intervening to influence their multiple causes (Crime Prevention Management Course, 2014).

According to the Victims of Crime Survey (2015/2016:08), crimes that were more perceived to be the most common and those that were feared by households include inter alia: about 58,8% households perceived the most common crime to be housebreaking/burglary, followed by street robbery (41, 5%), and home robbery (38, 5%). Housebreaking/burglary (49, 2%) and home robbery (45, 5%) were the most feared crimes followed by street robbery (41, 9%) and murder (35, 7%).

In Msinga the participants feel that murder (29, 9%) remains stubbornly high, followed by attempted murder (18, 6%) and lastly assault (16, 6%). This is indeed the true reflection of what is happening on the ground. The community feels that contact crime is on the rise again. Figuree 9 clearly shows the possibility of under reporting, however, the majority of participants who reported that they had been the victims of rape are female. Interestingly, given the social stigma around men acknowledging and reporting acts of sexual violence against them, one male participant reported under this category. Male and female participants reported being the victim of assault relatively (n=23 and n=21 respectively. However, female participants reported far more cases of stock theft than male participants, and male participants reported higher figures of attempted murder and car hijacking than their female counterparts.
CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 Introduction

It is estimated that a total of 776 933 housebreaking incidents were reported to the police during the year 2016/17 affecting a total of 647 340 households. This number of households represents 4% of all households in South Africa. Bafﬁolo City in the Eastern Cape tops the proportion of households victimized through housebreaking at 6.9%. (Victims of Crime Survey, 2016/17:1). Fifty-one percent of victims of housebreaking reported to the police. Two main reasons given for not reporting crime to the police: were ‘police could do nothing, and the police would do nothing together accounting for 60% of the households.

There has been a general drop in crime levels in KwaZulu-Natal in the past year, according to official police statistics released the previous day (Mercury, Fana Peete, Thursday, September 22, 2005:10). However, some crimes, such as child neglect and drug related offences, have increased alarmingly in the province. The overall trend in Kwa-Zulu Natal appears to follow a rosier national scenario described by Safety and Security Minister, Charles Nqakula. The Minister told a press conference in Pretoria where figures for the 2004/2005 financial year were ﬁgures for the inroads were being made into the overall crime situation. The KwaZulu-Natal ﬁgures show that the most frequently reported crimes were burglary of homes (42 794 cases), assault in general (with over 33 00 cases of grievous body harm and more then 37 000 common Assault cases, and robbery with aggravating circumstances 25 141). Burglary and robbery showed the biggest decreases in comparison with last year's ﬁgures. Surprisingly, in view of frequent reports of hijacking, the incidence of the crime increased by just ten (10) cases in KwaZulu-Natal. The statistics show worrying increases in drug-related crimes and driving under the inﬂuence of either alcohol or drugs in most regions of the Province.

Drug related crimes increased by more than 5000 cases and driving under the inﬂuence by 2000 cases. Neglect and ill-treatment of children also shared increases. Indecent assault cases across the province increased by close to 25%. Murder and rape cases changed little in most areas. The number of murders reported in KwaZulu-Natal fell by 255 cases. However, rape cases increased by 384 (Mercury 22 September 2005:1). Police seem to be making huge inroads in the ﬁght against theft out of or from motor vehicles, with provincial statistics showing a decrease of more than 6 000 cases. Kwazulu-Natal police spokesman Mr Bala Naidoo said that although the police focus was on decreasing “contact crimes” like rape and murder, they have also concentrated efforts on housebreaking and theft from motor vehicles. Mr Naidoo also credited sophisticated alarm and tracker systems and interactive community policing through community policing forum for the trend.

Using crime statistics, the police do analyses of areas and move their operations accordingly; also, scanning suspects' ﬁngerprints has helped put more people in jail. For example, people caught for housebreaking are sometimes found to want for crime like murder. This reminds us of the year 2000 where there was a turning point in the war against crime in South Africa, when as early as April a distinct drop in levels of serious crime and especially violent crime should have
been noticeable. There is no doubt that those at the helm of the South African Police Service (SAPS) must have instilled hope and confidence in the police's ability to deal with crime. Inspiration is what good leadership is about. The mistake is expressing it in terms of crime statistics. On their own, the police are unlikely to make enough of a difference to overall crime levels to claim the credit convincingly. This is equally true for police leaders in the United Kingdom and the United States, who are lucky enough to govern functional and predictable criminal justice systems (Stuinberg, 2001: 41).

9.2 The role of the Police

The police have been contributing tremendously in terms of crime prevention. To achieve their objectives in crime prevention, the police endeavour to involve the community in being active by, inter alia, establishing crime prevention projects which are proving to be a great success. The police have embarked on programmes such as crime awareness programmes, whereby Umsinga community is made more aware of crime and criminogenic situations. The South African Police Service also impresses it upon the public that the prevention of crime is the responsibility of every member of society.

These programmes involve inter alia: patrolling the shopping centres, conducting road blocks, stop and searches, and also distributing or dissemination of safety and security brochures, pamphlets as well as fliers. Posters with clearly marked messages such as "crime prevention is our business, make it yours too," “together we can fight crime” and “don't do crime, report it,” were largely distributed to the community.

One of the things that this area requires is more effective police patrol especially in those sections which are deemed to be the most dangerous or hot spots. In this regard the police have embarked upon a campaign of selective law enforcement referred to as crime prevention arrest. The philosophy behind such crime prevention arrests is that when the police arrest regularly on a large scale for offences like possession of dangerous weapons, liquor offences as well as possession of dagga, the police are in fact preventing the occurrence of those crimes in future. If a person is arrested for possession of a dangerous weapon, the chances of committing further crimes with that dangerous weapon are eliminated (Ndabandaba, 1987: 99).

Under the heading which read as follows “Police get festive pay rise boost”, (Peete, The Citizen, 2004) the comment was that the SAPS would also initiate a process, that would align the police with other law enforcement agencies to that they close down the space of the criminals, conduct road blocks all over the country and keep an eye on empty houses and premise, and patro farms and rural areas.

What will make a positive impact on crime in the short to medium term in South Africa especially in area? According to Steinberg (2001: 65), there are only five interventions that with improve the crime in South Africa in the short to medium term. They are:

- changing police shift patterns to match staffing of stations with the times of the week in which the demand of their services is highest, namely weekends;
- introducing intensive projects to reduce the negative impact of domestic violence,
• controlling anti-social behaviour in and around shebeens by joint projects between the police and the local community policing forums,
• tackling gun misuse and the scourge of the over-abundance of unlicensed firearms, and
• developing partnerships between the police and civilian initiatives aimed at crime prevention such as neighborhood watches, street committees and ward committees.

An explosion of community initiatives against crime since the early 1990s and many community structures have emerged to mobilise against crime. They include anti-crime forums, anti-crime committees, neighbourhood watches, vigilantes; community policing committees, disciplinary committees. Mothers against crime and many others are among the types of structures that have mobilised against crime since 1994. Why are there so many initiatives, and of so many different types. The answer is simple: the state has been unable (some might say unwilling) to live up to people’s expectations to protect them against the criminals. It does not look as it is going to develop the capacity to do so quickly to protect their families and communities against perceived threats. The rich buy private security and armed response; the poor have little option but to mobilise themselves (Steinberg, 2001: 67). The police will continue to play an important role in our communities by making sure that they maintain law and order and also bring peace and stability to our society.

The KwaZulu-Natal MEC for Department of Transport, Community Safety and Liaison, Mr Mxolisi Kaunda has applauded police in the province for their exceptional performance against those who commit crime against children and women. During the month of April 2017, Family Violence Teams of dedicated investigators from the FCS Units received 598 cases and were in a position to secure 27 convictions during the same period, whilst other cases remain under investigation or at court. Among those convicted, 15 were sentenced to life imprisonment while the others were sentenced to a total of 238 years imprisonment. A total of 316 suspects were also arrested during the same month for various crimes such as rape, sexual assault, child abandonment and robbery. The MEC has welcomed this success, saying the provincial government had prioritised the crime against women and children. “As the government, we have no doubt that these arrests and convictions will send a clear message to criminals no matter where they are. In this regard, we urge members of the community to work with the police to ensure that we deal head on with the crime against the weak, women and children,” said Kaunda (Comsafety Bulletin, Volume 1 Issue 738, and May 2017).

9.3 Community Policing Forums (CPF)

Solutions to the complexities surrounding the police role, since ancient times, have not yet come full circle. The birth of modern policing started with Sir Robert Peel, who laid the foundation for what is known today as partnership policing. Police reform in the United States also led to adopting community-oriented policing (COP) and problem-oriented policing (POP) approaches in the late 1980s to the early 1990s. With the advent of democracy in 1994, the South African Police Service replaced authoritarian policing with community policing (a service orientation closely resembling democratic policing values). However, since 2010, the SAPS has reverted from a service to a force with typical reactive kind of posture and a re-militarised rank structure similar to that of apartheid policing prior to 1994 (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1) 2016:47), (Schoeman 2016:47).
Apparently, all these manoeuvres eventually contributed to endless useful empirical grist for the police manager’s mill, administratively planners and academics to address concerns about the strengths, weaknesses and eventual viability of community policing, calculated to service a diverse democratic-oriented society. The present study is poised to unravel uncertainties that may be present among police officers such as; do they understand the concept community policing in terms of its operational impact on people’s expectations, and how they react to working with diverse communities given the political history of the country, and apparent low level of public trust in policing (Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology 29 (1), Marelize Schoeman 2016).

It has been observed on several occasions that when the state does not deliver services to the satisfaction of communities, citizens take it upon themselves to deliver those services themselves, particularly in the terrain of crime prevention. Several vigilante organisations grew up few years ago with the main objective to protect the community against criminals, and they involve enter alia: the Makgotla, Isikebhe which is presently operating in KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, and Gauteng, people against Gangsterism and Drug (PAGAD), Mapogo a Mathamaga, Mfelandawonye Wamapondomise Burial Society and Ilisolomuzi. They are signals that some sectors of the population believe that more drastic action needs to be taken against crime.

Subsequently, the Cabinet has approved and endorsed the formation of KwaZulu-Natal Crime Prevention Association formally known as KZNCCPA. These are the organisations that previously operated without the parameters of the law and some of them used to take the law into their own hands which resulted in fierce loggerheads with the police. Many improvements have been done in this regards, presently these community safety structures are working harmoniously with the police in terms of fighting crime. These community safety structures are not only helping and assisting the Department of Community Safety and Liaison to reduce crime in the province; however, it helps the police and the entire province of KwaZulu-Natal. The new state aimed to create a statutory framework for such mobilisation through the creation of Community Policing Forums (CPFS) though the South African Police Act of 1995. It made station commissioners responsible for convening CPFS in their precincts. Their purpose was, firstly, to allow local communities an opportunity to express their priorities about crime interventions with the police, and secondly, to become active partners in crime prevention projects (Steinberg, 2001: 69).

In order to succeed, the police must establish partnerships with other government department, citizens, community, leaders, business owners, school, non-governmental organisation, other service providers and other criminal justice agencies. All are considered equal partners that work together in order to improve the quality of life in the community. In adhering to a police / community partnership, the police adopt the key strategy of community consultation. In South Africa, the principle of structured consultation between the community and the police, through Community Policing Forums (CPF's) has been written into the Constitution. CPF's are intended to assist the police to:

- Improve the delivery of police service to the community;
- Strengthen the partnership between the community and their police;
• Promote joint problem identification and problem-solving;
• Ensure police accountability and transparency;
• Ensure consultation and proper communication between the police and the community

It has to be borne in mind that crime prevention is an interdisciplinary field of study, which involves other subject’s disciplines such as psychology, sociology, social work, education, jurisprudence, architecture, and city planning. The whole community, as well as individual members of such communities can and should play an active role in the prevention of crime. Numerous models for crime prevention attempt to product how crime can be prevented, compacted and controlled.

Some of these models for crime prevention take the personality of the offender as a point of departure, while the prevention strategies of other models are based on the environment in which the offender finds himself or herself. Crime prevention can be approached from various angles. In this regard, the prevention of crime on primary, secondary and tertiary levels has proven most popular (Cloete, 1990:212). The importance of robust and functioning Community Police Forums cannot be over-emphasized. Last year (2016), the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, assessed the functionality of all 184 Community Policing Forums from different police stations in Kwazulu-Natal. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison also continued our initiatives to support CPF’s through the facilitation of their Annual General Meetings, induction workshops and other related support. In terms of capacitation, members of CPF’S, Youth Desks, KZNCCPA and Volunteers participated in a Wits civilian oversight training programme (NQF7) which ended in May 2017. We intend extending this programme to as many members as the budget would allow (Budget Vote Speech 2017/2018:13).

9.4 Building a united front against crime

The constitutional imperative of promoting good relations between the police and the community has been interpreted by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison as an obligation to build a partnership to fight crime. Over the past five years, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison has firmly formulated the Building a United Front against Crime programme, and started implementation through Operation Hasela. The intention of the programme was to mobilise and galvanise the relevant stakeholders, such as CPF’s, CSF’s, young people, Faith Base Organisations, Traditional leaders, business community, and the community at large, to work together with the police to fight crime.

With the enactment of the Civilian Secretariat for Police Service Act in 2011, which confirmed our interpretation of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, the department was required to further reposition its strategic focus from merely playing a passive role of evaluating, monitoring and reporting to also being an activist against crime and strategic centre of crime-fighting in KZN. This new strategic outlook of the department rested on namely:

• establishment of the Holistic Community Liaison Framework: this entailed establishing Voting District Safety Teams, Ward/ Local Safety Committees, District Community Safety Forums and the KZN Council against crime;
• revitalizing/restructuring Community Police Forums, re-establishing the Provincial Community Police Board under a new constitution; harnessing/ regulating Voluntary Community Crime Prevention through the establishment of the KZN Community Crime Prevention Association and local CCPA’s under the constitutional framework;
• Societal Crime Prevention Education on subjects such as human rights, criminal procedure and social crime prevention; and
• establishing the Provincial Secretariat of Police with a decentralized structure with district offices, expanded police monitoring capabilities, expanded research capacity, improved capacity to build partnership and better capacity to implement crime prevention programmes (Department of Community Safety and Liaison Strategic Plan, 2014-2019:10-11).

It was through these particular initiatives that led to the establishment of thirteen district offices in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The main reason for these initiatives was to bring the service delivery closer to the community. Through this initiative, the community at large has started to reap the rewards of this decentralisation process. The vision for the Department of Community Safety and Liaison is: the people of Kwazulu-Natal live in a safe and secure environment. Its mission who reads thus also accompanies this; be the lead department in coordinating, integrated, participatory community safety initiatives and promoting police accountability towards a crime free KwaZulu-Natal. The department flagship program of Building a United Front against Crime was established and its implementation thereof was through Operation Hlasela as vehicle for the collective mobilisation from local level to provincial level.

9.5 Community mobilisation and development

Community mobilisation is a capacity and community development process through which local groups or organisations identify needs, develop an outline of an action plan and then implement it (Caine, 2008). Expected outcomes are usually improvement in community well-being, access to services, improved safety and better schooling, among others. Community development is important, not just for preventing negative incidents, but also for promoting positive outcomes in the community to encourage harmony, wellness and healing on all levels: physical, mental spiritual, cultural, social, economic and political.

The community development approach moves away from the usual approach to crime prevention, which involves addressing the results of crime through rehabilitation, community service orders, victim empowerment and substance. This program should focus on promoting social cohesion, youth, families and groups at risk, as well as the implementation of socio-economic interventions to undercut the causes of crime. The promotion of social cohesion most likely refers to conflict resolution, reconciliation and rebuilding the social fabric of our society by promoting institutions that are sources of social capital. Intervention aims at preventing youth crime and victimization are seen as vital to effective social crime prevention. Social crime prevention should focus on economic upliftment and social development. The provisions of more secure employment would affect crime (Ingrid, 2001).
9.6 A holistic view of safety and security

Crime results from several interrelated societal elements that predispose some individuals or groups to certain types of crime. A study by the World Bank in 2010 (National Development Plan 2011), confirms that there has been a growing consensus among policy makers that violence is not simply a security issue but that it has deep social and economic roots and consequences. An effective and efficient response to violent crime requires holistic approach to community safety that takes the causes of crime into consideration and responds to specific triggers or causal factors. This approach is often considered too complex, time consuming and long term. There is no quick fix; however, because sustainable community safety is long term, it requires coordinated efforts, high levels of analysis of crime patterns and trends using crime intelligence and leadership to command and direct policing responses (National Development Plan, Vision 2030).


The main objectives of BUFAC are as follows: building crime fighting structures at community level; mobilising communities against crime and criminals; building working relations between the police and the community in the fight against crime; monitoring and evaluating of South African Police Service performance; addressing service delivery complaints against SAPS; working with municipalities, local leadership, traditional leadership, faith based organisations, business and the wider scope of civil society in the fight against crime (BUFAC, 2011).

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9.7 Fear of crime

Fear is a significant social cost of convectional crime, especially violent crimes. Robbery is the prototype of the kind of crime most feared by the public. People are most afraid of those crimes that occur least often, namely, murder, rape, and robbery. Fear of crimes of violence is not a
simple fear of injury or death or even of all crimes of violence, but at its core, it is a fear of strangers (Conklin, 1995: 70). This time even though the chance of being killed by a stranger is much less than the chance of dying in a car accident or an accidental fall, and even though murder and aggravated assault are committed more often by the people with whom the victim is acquainted than by strangers, fear of crime has many socially harmful consequences. It causes people to stay home, stay out of certain neighbourhoods, move to safer communities, and even avoid traveling to other nations. People spend money on lights, locks, alarms, watchdogs and other majors to protect themselves. Fear restricts their freedom of movement and under mines their trust in others. In school, fear of crime destroys the atmosphere necessary for learning, leading students to avoid dangerous places such as classrooms and increased truancy (Conklin, 1995: 70).

In the mid-1990s, public worries about a sharp spike in juvenile criminal activity were spurred by the use of the catch phrase ‘super predator’, (Gaines & Miller 2005:2) to describe the new breed of young criminals. As a result of these concerns, a number of states passed laws making it easier to prosecute juveniles as adults and send convicted juveniles to adult prisons and jails. Thus, fear of crime can have a significant effect on public policy, even when the fear is based on an unfounded assumption. Indeed, fear of crime has often operated independently of crime data. For example, even after nearly a decade of declining crime rates, more Americans were afraid to walk through their neighbourhoods in 2000 than in 1999, and one in six admitted to curtailing normal activities because of fear of crime (Gaines & Miller, 2005:02). Crime, and the fear of crime, is as old as South Africa itself, and as unpopular as it is to say this round middle class dinner tables, our preoccupation with crime is testimony to how this country was stitched together with violence, to how we worry that malevolence is our most abiding pedigree (Steinberg, 2001).

9.8 Violent crime has brought unstable conditions in South Africa

The political violence that buffeted the country has virtually ended, but rising rates of violent crime have made South Africa most murderous country in the world, according to the World Health Organization. Its murder rates of 53.5 people for every 100,000 are more than five times that of the United States. An armed robbery occurs every five minutes, a burglary every three minutes and murder every twenty-nine minutes (Ransdel 1995:1). Not even the former President Nelson Mandela is immune: a local community hosted some 200 street children at a local amusement park to celebrate his 77th birthday, when armed robbers looted the headquarters of his nonprofit Nelson Mandela Children’s Fund. Before fleeing, the robbers left a note read: “Sorry, Mandela we are hungry,” (Randsell, 1995: 1).

Experts attribute South Africa’s crime rate largely to the country’s 34% unemployment rate. In some black townships, the figure is estimated to be as high as 65%. “Jobs stop bullet” says Mike Mansell, whose gun shop business declined dramatically after the previous elections but is now picking up again. “If there were jobs there, this crime would stop (Ransdel 1995:1).”

To some extent, crime is acting as grim reminder of social levels in the new South Africa. During apartheid, most whites lived in relative safety in segregated neighborhoods. Black Township, on the other hand, were hotbeds of crime, as police concentrated most of the efforts.
on curbing political, rather than criminal, activity. Better-off, middle-class-suburbs, conversely, are much more dangerous. That means they are suddenly being forced to learn the survival skills that have been common place among black township dwellers (Ransdell, 1995:1).

Crime has overtaken political violence as a major preoccupation of the general public. According to official figures, a murder is committed every three minutes in South Africa. “In 1994, more than 800,000 violent crimes were committed, including 18,000 murders, 67,000 armed robberies, 15000 assaults and 30000 rapes,” an official report stated then. The Methodist, Anglican, Roman Catholic, Congregational and Presbyterian churches in Johannesburg, the country’s business center, have been engaged in four-week moral crusades against crime in the region. The campaign is designed to challenge church members to examine their own ethics and value, and ask whether they are helping or hindering the struggle against crime. They are challenged and other dishonestly; tax evasion buying stolen goods and other ways the public assists criminal activity.

The high incident of crime, particularly violent crime, has reached crisis proportions in greater Johannesburg. The report added that mention building in the new South Africa in being held ransom by the criminals. There is need for international focus on the moral and ethical standards of all church members and a rediscovery of the values of honesty and integrity. The report believe that the people in our churches working together, can play a part in taking the initiative from the criminals and restoring dignity and safety to our communities (Century, 1996: 1).

The crime wave that so terrifies our communities and visitors from abroad in fact inflicts far more suffering on the poor than anyone else. It is, at present, a problem without a solution. The number of crimes, especially rape, car high jacking, services assault and common robbery, has been increasing since 1996, and the trend has been sharply upwards since 1998. Though the murder rate has been falling, thanks to reduction in political thugs, the rates for other kinds of violent crime have all been rising since 1999, when about a third of all reported crimes were violent, and the number had increased by over 9% from 1998 (Economics 2005:1).

Why should South Africa have been one of the most violent crimes countries in the world? One answer was that it was always violent: apartheid was a system based on violence, whether it was a matter of forcibly uprooting people, herding migrant’s labourers into hostels or beating confessions out of suspects. Another is that much of the violence is alcohol related, and here too, especially in high-crime areas like Northern Cape, The legacy of the past may be encouraged a culture of drunkenness that persistent this day (Economics, 2005:1).

The lonely planet guide to South Africa notes the paranoia of most white South Africans. Just because you are paranoid does not mean you not being followed, crime is the main reasons given both for why white continue to flee their homeland, and why foreign companies choose motto social and economic problems. The murder rate is actually down in recent years, as the struggles to solve its political occur within family groups, and typically in the proper areas- and South Africa has no shortage of poor areas (Toronto Star, 2000: 01).

The shooting of Richmond Deputy Mayor Thandazile Phoswa during the month of April 2017 has brought back ugly memories of the dark political past, her family has said. It was two
decades ago that Phoswa’s parents, her father Joseph and her mother MaMkhize, and her two siblings were shot dead in front of their nine year old Phoswa, during the political violence in the area. The murders of her family members are among many in the area, which became a hotbed of political killings in the 90s that remain unresolved. Phoswa was also the ANC branch secretary, was shot dead in the early hours of yesterday morning. ANC leaders, members, municipal officials and community members gathered outside Phoswa’s home yesterday, while forensic pathologists were collecting evidence (The Witness, Nompilo Kunene, Tuesday, 04 April 2017).

9.9 Contributions to Criminology and important findings

It is more or less taken for granted that crime rates in South Africa, violent crimes in particular, are very high. Since 1994 there have been numerous initiatives undertaken aimed at ensuring that the state builds an accountable and credible police service and while there has been significant success achieved in both depoliticizing the police and in ensuring a more accountable police service and in ensuring a more accountable police service the overall transformation of the police remains a work in progress. A strongly politicized police force under apartheid was characterized by a lack of credibility, transparency and accountability. The oppressive style of policing meant that the use of excessive force and regular abuses of human rights were the order of the day and common practice (Crime Prevention Management 2014:22).

The ushering in of the new South African Police Service in 1994 brought fundamental shifts in the nature of police service. Civilizing a highly politicized police force was thus a key part of the transformation process post 1994. Equally important was to recognize that the police must be subject to strong and effective oversight in the form of parliament, the executive authority and structures such the the Civilian Secretariat for police and the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (Crime Prevention Management Course 2014:22). Mistrust of the South African police Service (SAPS) by many South Africans and the quality of police record keeping makes definitive statements about crime in South African difficult. The politics of crime statistics took an even more sensational turn in mid-2000. When the late former Minister of Safety and Security, Mr Steve Tshwete, announced a moratorium on the release of crime statistics; the state justified the moratorium, which was lifted almost a year later, by referring to the potential unreliability of the number that SAPS was releasing. This raised some questions among crime analysts, who pointed out that South Africa’s crime statistics, while not without, while not without problems, were the best on the continent, and had been regularly realized to the public since 1994 (SAMARA, 2003: 285).

Problems with the recording of crimes do remain. Crime statistics kept by the SAPS rely on crimes reported to their attention. The dark figure (the crimes that have never come to the attention of the police) will remain a critical factor which also makes the police crime statistics unreliable or accurate as a result. Figures for murder and car theft, for example, tend to be more accurate than figures for rape, domestic abuse and child abuse, which usually occur within the home. In his State of the Nation Address February 2017, President Zuma stated that the fight against crime is an apex priority. The police will increase visible policing, building on the successful patterns of deployments utilized during the Safer Festive Season Campaign. They will also utilise certain specialized capabilities, such as the tactical response teams and national intervention units, to assist in addressing problematic high-crime areas.
Other measures to fight crime nationally will include the establishment of specialized units, focusing on drugs-related crime, taxi violence and firearms and the enhanced utilisation of investigative aids such as forensic leads (State of the Nation Address, 09 February 2017). Reporting is also going to be more comprehensive in urban areas, where police are contracted, than rural areas. Explanations for high crime rates in South Africa cover a range of factors, such as follows:

Rapid political change; increased activity by international crime syndicates since the opening of the borders after 1994, the violent nature of apartheid and the anti-apartheid struggle; an ill-equipped criminal justice system (particularly the police); rising inequality combined with frustrated expectations, and the size of the nation’s youth population. Underdevelopment, poverty, lack of democratic participation and the abuse of human rights are regarded as grave threats to the security of people. Since they invariably give rise to conflict between individuals, communities and countries, they threaten the security of states as well. National security and personal security shall be sought primarily through efforts to meet the social, political, economic and cultural needs of the people (SAMARA, 2003: 286).

Problems with the recoding of crime do remain. Crime statistics kept by the SAPS rely on crimes reported to them or which came to their attention. The dark figure (the crimes that have never came to the attention of the police) will remain a critical factor, which also makes the police crime statistics unreliable or accurate. As a result, figures for murder and car theft, for example, tend to be more accurate than figure for rape, domestic abuse and child abuse, which usually happen within the home. Repotting is also going to be more comprehensive in urban areas, where police are concentrated, than in rural areas. Explanations for high crime rates in South Africa cover a range of factors, such as follows:

In 1996, the Government unveiled its National crime prevention strategy (NCPS) which articulated a set of priorities specifically intended to translate the sentiments around crime into programs and policies. The NCPS emphasises a shift from focusing primarily on crime control, dealing with crimes after they happen, to crime prevention, relying on what it calls four pillars: reforming the criminal justice system for disempowered group; reducing crime through environmental design; public values and education campaigns intended to involve communities in addressing the crime problem, and addressing transnational organized crime. It also outlined seven priority crimes to address: firearm crimes, organised crime, white collar crime, gender / child violence, inter-group violence, vehicle theft and hijacking, and corruption in the crime justice system (SAMARA, 2003: 286-287). The implementation of the NCPS over the last six years has been uneven, with the crime control elements of the strategy drawing more resources than prevention and certain crimes on the list being prioritised more than others.

This strategy did not produce good result in rural areas particularly in this area which is under investigation; the community is not actively involved in terms of crime prevention. They only depended upon the police to do their policing work. In other words, the problem of crime is seen here as the baby of the police alone not for the entire community.
The constitution of South Africa mandates the implementation of community policing and creation of community-police forums (CPF’s). Community policing is a fairly vague concept, but is generally understood to involve police accountability to the community, and partnership with community. The CPF’s are intended to be the institutional link in the relationship between the police and communities, and this far they appear to have been a failure. Reasons given for their failure vary, but the general criticism coming from the communities is that the police who control or try to control the CPF’s are not interested in community input, but rather try and use communities for intelligence gathering, and seen by the police as soft approaches, especially by senior members. There are also examples of CPF’s is corrupted, either by police or gangsters. In short, the CPF’s are not working because they are built on top of the fractured relationship between police and communities. Furthermore, some analysts feel that not only are the CPF’s not working, but that this failure is contributing to a disillusionment with the process as a whole, making a serious setback to improved community-police relations (SAMARA, 2003: 290). Another major problem facing the affective operations of the CPF’s is the budget; now most of these structures are not funded by the government with the exemption of course of the province of Kwa-Zulu Natal. In Kwa-Zulu Natal, the CPF’s receive the budget of ±R 3 Million from the government (SAMARA 2003:290).

The primary problem of the Community Policing Forums in South Africa is that the communities do not trust the police. This presents South Africa with serious problem, as researchers and community activists agree that the greatest deterrent to crime is good relations between the community and police. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison is trying very hard to restore that ruined trust which was lost during the apartheid era, where the police was used to further the aims and objective of the Apartheid government.

9.10 Data analysis of community safety structures

The Ward Safety structures are well known at Msinga, and this is evidenced by by highest score in the present study, 46,2%, followed by CPF with 33,1% and 13,0% street committees. It is worth noting that the Msinga community is well versed in community safety structures and this is the best way to go in terms of dealing with crime, especially in deep rural areas. The evidence shows us that the community has full confidence in these community safety structures. The community safety structures continue to play a meaningful role in our contemporary society, but most importantly in rural areas. It remains a common course that our country does not have sufficient police personnel as such, we solicit our communities to add value in the plight against crime.

Although some of these structures are not fully functional, however, we may bank on the fact that they are willing to work with the law enforcement agencies. It is evidently crystal clear that the more the government provides unwavering support, the more the positive results will unfold.

9.11 The Traditional Leadership and crime prevention

In the olden days, before African colonization, during 1600, the prevention of the households and the entire citizenry rested upon the king and its council. Wealth was accumulated through the wars and battles and subsequently huge amounts of livestock such as cattle, goats, sheep, horses and even men and women were taken as captives once that nation has been defeated and
dominated. The royal house usually enjoyed high security and preferences in as far as safety and security was concerned. During the night, the palace was always guarded by amabutho and oqayinyanga. The security was always tight in the royal house. Nobody was allowed to enter and leave the palace, unless permission was granted. Even the entire country was looked after by amabutho; any stranger was thoroughly questioned, if no adequate answer was given, death would follow. The nation was regarded as strong through the presence and existence of its warriors and amabutho. King Shaka believed in strong regiment and amabutho hence, his nation was strong and most feared.

This is a structure that is recognised worldwide and it is presently in existence through the KZN Traditional Leadership Act of 2005. Section 2 provides that a community may be recognised as a traditional community if it is subject to the system of traditional leadership in terms of that community’s customs; and observes a system of customary law. Amakhosi are also responsible for the handling of matters that fall directly under traditional leadership. Among other issues handled by Amakhosi are inter alia; land issues, family conflict, matters that are not criminal related, cases that pertains to other clans (amacala ezigodi), faction fighting, ukuthwala, boundary issues and ukuziphatha kahle emphakathini (well behaving in our communities). Amakhosi play a significant role in these communities and their presence in these instances contributes to maintain law and order and have positive impacts on the community. The research has revealed that there is a positive relationship between the police and amakhosi in this district. Some of the serious cases are referred to the police by amakhosi, and the communities are continuously capacitated and educated about the cases that handled by traditional leadership and the police.

In olden days, before African colonization, according to our customs, when a man wanted to get married, it was a common practice to take a lady in the river to your household and become your wife. It was the responsibility of the man to make sure that on the same week, he will inform the relevant family that he intends to pay lobola. This customary practice was done in very dignified and professional manner. The main purpose was to get married and nothing else. Amakhosi are also responsible in their communities to ensure that all laws are well respected and people should behave themselves. If people do not observe all those laws, they will eventually penalised and pay cows or goats (ukuhlawuliswa) to the Inkosi.

Izinduna were responsible to see to it that customary functions were carried out accordingly; people behave well in their communities and report all critical matters to the Inkosi. Nowadays abduction (ukuthwala) is no longer allowed because people have embedded it with an element of abuse. As such, it has become a criminal offence, and for as long as there is no consent from the lady, it becomes an offence.

The community has full confidence in these community safety structures and as such they report all cases such as stock theft, murder, theft, rape and assault. The most prevalent crimes in the area are: murder, rape, assault, illegal firearms, housebreaking, robbery and business robbery. The proliferation of illegal firearms at Msinga remains a thorny issue and they continue to cause some havoc in the community.
The province of KZN has been tormented by murder during the month of February 2017: four people who belong to Mzila family have been killed at Mlazi; two suspects have been apprehended and the other one is still at large. Four people at Richmond who belong Chiliza have been killed; no arrest made so far; and three people have been killed at Matimatolo and no arrest have been made (Ukhozi FM, February 2017). On 06 March 2016, the Municipal Manager of Richmond has been killed and the motive for his killing was not yet known and there was no arrest that was effected. A traditional community must transform and adapt customary law and customs so as to comply with the principles enshrined in the constitution, in particular by: preventing unfair discrimination; promoting equality; and seeking to progressively advance gender representation in the succession to traditional leaderships (KZN Traditional Leadership and Governance Act, 2005).

The provisions of the 2003 White Paper on Traditional Leadership and Governance relating to the promotion of and facilitation of strong relationships between the institution of traditional leadership and the different spheres of government, focuses in particular on local government, so that it acts in partnership with local municipalities to ensure service delivery and safety and secure rural areas, and supports municipalities in the identification of community needs. Section 20 (1) of the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework, 41 of 2003, which empowers government departments to use legislative measures or other means to accommodate the roles, including those that are safety related, of the traditional leadership or council.

Boyane Tshehla (2005) notes that traditional leaders have remained on the periphery of crime prevention policy; and that their roles beyond law enforcement should be explicitly defined. Key roles suggested by Tshehla are: championing development initiatives that contribute to crime prevention in areas falling within the jurisdiction of traditional leaders; facilitating the building and maintenance of social institutions, such as schools and health facilities; and leading crime prevention through environmental design;

With the dawn of our democracy and the establishment of the three spheres of government, municipalities assumed a pivotal role in developing communities and providing services. In the seventeen years of local government, municipalities have bought real and meaningful change to our communities. There are, however, some who believe that the official establishment of municipalities brought about a lessening in the role and importance of traditional leadership.

On the surface, such an argument would appear to hold water, but on closer inspection there is clear harmonisation between the two systems, who continue to co-exist in a manner that does not diminish their prospective roles. It is important to note that traditional leaders are still the custodians of cultures and traditions, and better alignment between the two systems would serve to enhance our goal of achieving cutting edge service delivery. Both the local government and the institutions of traditions of traditional leadership are at the coalface of service delivery and they are working together to confront the greatest challenge facing the democratic state and entire society, which is unemployment, poverty and inequality. It is important to note that both are dealing with the challenge of correcting the many structural inequalities that still continue to plague our country (The New Age, Maphumulo, Monday, 10 April 2017).
In this regard, the National Development Plan 2011 (NDP) highlights the need to strengthen the ability of local government to fulfill its developmental role. The NDP identifies the continued social and economic exclusion of millions of South Africans, particularly among women and youth as our biggest challenge. It further highlights the importance of inclusive economic growth that leads to job creation as one of the vehicles for addressing this challenge. Achieving this will require the help and support of everyone, institutions and leaders in our country. Traditional leaders have a pivotal role to play in this regard: the system of traditional leadership was the cornerstone of local governance for our communities during colonial and apartheid rule in South Africa.

Since 1994, traditional leaders have worked with municipalities in ensuring that services are delivered to communities under their care in real time. Today, these two institutions work together to transform municipal space for radical social and economic development (The New Age, Monday, 10 April 2017). The MEC for Department of Transport, Community Safety and Liaison, Mr TM Kaunda has extended his deepest gratitude to his His Majesty King Goodwill Zwelithini, for his positive contribution to peace in KwaZulu-Natal through his leadership in many peace processes and his participation in community safety programmes. His Majesty, the King has been fully behind all efforts to ensure that his people co-exist peacefully and has on several occasions directed that amakhosi should this process. One would recall the role played by Ongangezwe Lakhe (His Majesty the King) in brokering peace in Gauteng and in Durban hostels (The New Age, Sibongiseni Maphumulo, Monday, 10 April 2017).

As a result of the template developed through working with uBayede and other Amakhosi, we are now able to intervene and bring peace in a number of conflict-ridden areas. In this regard, as a result of efforts driven by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, the Office of the Premier and eThekwini Metro, we are seeing positive results in the resolution of conflict in Durban residential units. At Glebelands, a peace agreement was concluded and, while the process faces challenges from time to time, Glebelands and KwaMashu are currently mostly stable. The MEC has hastened to add that they greatly value the role played by the traditional leaders in all efforts to bring about lasting peace in the province. Ondabezitha recognize and accept that it is only a stable KwaZulu-Natal that could develop and attract investment. Amakhosi are playing key and critical role in ensuring rural safety (Budget Vote Speech, 2017/2018:14). The Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act, 2003 provides that Traditional Leadership must promote unity amongst traditional communities, must promote nation building, must foster good relations with the organ of state with whom he or she interacts and must promote the principles of a democratic and open society. The KwaZulu-Natal Traditional Leadership and Governance Act, 2005 goes further to provide for Amakhosi to maintain law and order and liaise with Government in this regard (Budget Vote Speech, 2017/2018:14).

9.11.1 Kwazulu-Natal Provincial Crime Summit Resolutions

Kwazulu-Natal features among the provinces with unfavourable crime rates in many categories of serious crime, and this adversely affects the province on many levels. The democratic state, with all its social partners, maintains strong political will and resource commitments to address the crime and safety challenges that confront us. The Kwazulu-Natal Crime Summit, 2016 noted
that there is a need to address historic structural and systemic drivers of crime in order to realise sustainable safety for all. It was also noted that important preparatory work for the summit has been done through summits at district level focusing on the role of communities.

The summit was committed to pursuing a safe society as a fundamental hard-won human right of the people of our country. It was committed to policing and safety promotion that is based on community support and participation. The summit strives for entrenchment of the highest standards of transparency and accountability in all institutions of criminal justice system. It also seeks to interrogate all ill-advised and misguided cultural and traditional practices that endanger the safety and well-being of our citizen, including the victimisation of persons with albinism, and misapplication of the practice of abduction known as ukuthwala. It is committed to encourage whistle-blowers (ukumpimpa) and supporting of persons who provide information on criminality (KZN Crime Summit: 11-12 November 2016).

9.11.2 The summit resolutions

- Strengthen the Provincial Joints by mandating high level attendance, developing terms of reference for Provincial Joints and respective Departments, promoting information sharing;
- Improve case flow management through improved awareness in line with the guidelines procedure manual and holding relevant stakeholders accountable;
- Ensure availability of education social workers and psychologist at district level;
- Intensify offender-rehabilitation and re-integration programmes. All sectors to provide job opportunities to released offenders through all available programmes;
- Assistance should be given to rehabilitated ex-offender support groups;
- All sectors, in particular the Department of Education and municipalities, should provide sport and extra-mural facilities for learners beyond the academic programmes;
- Engage in the promotion of positive advertising in public spaces;
- Conduct regular follow-up of community safety structures to assess the effectiveness of training inputs;
- Promote the inclusion of ex-offenders in the crime prevention and crime awareness programmes;
- Promote public education on the role of police as protectors of the communities and embark on robust campaigns to improve the image of the police;
- Engage in joint operations between the community and police;
- Enhance the profile of safety structures through identification and branding;
- The Department of Education to budget for and provide security guards in schools, and community ownership of schools should be encouraged;
- Provide mandatory reformatory programmes for street kids and vagrants;
- All relevant departments must budget for crime prevention structures;
- Strengthen the integrated task team on taxi violence falling under the Provincial Joints Committee, and garner active participation of all role players;
- Improve security at taxi ranks through the employment of private security;
- Improve prosecution of taxi related offences in order to restore normality within the taxi industry;
Strengthen law enforcement within the taxi sector with capacity through well-equipped road blocks;
Curb the interest and involvement of law enforcement and other government officials in the taxi industry through investigation and prosecution of these officials (KZN Crime Summit, 11-12 November 2016).

Safety is a core human right. It is necessary condition for human development, improving quality of life and enhancing productivity. When communities do not feel safe and live in fear, the country’s economic development and people’s wellbeing is affected, hindering their ability to achieve their potential. Violent crime, contact crime and property crimes are so common that many South Africans live in fear. When people feel unsafe it makes it harder for them to pursue their personal goals, and to take part in social and economic activity (National Development Plan, Vision 2011). Crime prevention and community safety are demanding; the temptation always exists to fall back on a more police, bigger guns approach. Short term results are neither sufficient nor sustainable in the long term. To develop a framework for community safety and crime prevention, the interrelated factors set out below need to be considered;

Underlying root causes, such as poverty, inequality, unemployment, and variety of temptations and motivations to engage in criminal activity. Although research has shown the complex relationship between these factors, it is clear that the higher confluence, the more likely people are to be motivated to commit criminal offence.
Lack of social cohesion, inadequate care of children, and failure to accept and internalize societal norms.
Crime and victimisation often arise when there is opportunity and motive. For example, the availability of targets, the vulnerable people or properties, the availability of weapons, situational factors and availability of accomplices (National Development Plan, Vision 2011:357).

9.12 Important findings that have been revealed by research

Violent crime has constantly continued to ravage the community of Msinga. The researcher personally interviewed the members of the community who vigorously stated that level of crime has remained stubbornly high. The community feels that stock theft, murder, rape, housebreaking and robbery are the main prevalent crimes in the area of Msinga. The School Principal at Bhambatha Secondary School reported that faction fighting is rife in that particular area and as a result some of the learners could not write their examination. Just recently three people were found dead next to school and the motive for the killings could not be easily established and no arrest has been made. It was noted with great concern that our schools have remained easy prey for the criminals; and become vulnerable; which puts the lives of our children in a precarious position.

The research has discovered that learners do bring dangerous weapons such as knives, firearms and spray guns to school and drugs and substance abuse remains problematic in the schooling environment. It is important to highlight the role of School Safety Committees in our schools; these committees could play a significant role in as far as safety of our schools is concerned. The employment of security guards in all schools cannot be over emphasised. We have witnessed few
incidents where the school educators were gunned down in front of the learners in certain schools here in KZN. On 18 March 2017, Miss Mchunu was killed in front of the learners at Laduma High School in Pietermaritzburg. The entire community was shocked and devastated about the horrific incident, and it has traumatised the learners (Natal Witness, 20 March 2017).

A similar incident was also reported where the educator was also gunned down in Nquthu in front of the learners and the suspects were subsequently apprehended on the crime scene. The educator was later identified as the former Speaker at Nquthu Local Municipality. The Traditional leadership enjoys working with the police in terms of resolving certain crimes such as rape, robbery, theft and stock theft. However, they find it very difficult if not impossible to work with the Department of Justice. The research reveals that the Department of Justice does not create a platform whereby they regularly meet with Amakhosi to discuss matters of common interests. The sooner the gap is closed; the better and it will enhance the service delivery.

The area of Msinga is policed and managed by two prominent police stations, namely Msinga Police Station and Nhlanhleni formerly known as Pomeroy Police Station. It was conspicuously observed that the area of Msinga is vast and its population is ever growing. The research has discovered that although these two police stations exist, however they are poorly resourced in terms of manpower, state resources and proper infrastructure. The terrain, on which these stations stand, is 100% gravel and is mountainous and most of the time double cab vans and 4x4 vans are most preferable and probably recommended under the present circumstance. These stations were built during the apartheid era and perhaps could be improved in the long run since the new democracy dictates that service delivery should be provide equally and all the communities be treated equally. Therefore these stations should be upgraded and proper infrastructure to be put in place. For instance a new police station should be erected, proper board rooms, staff offices, proper Community Service Centre be built, and CPF offices are also needed. The interface of community and police personnel plays pivotal role in maintaining the law and order for the peace and stability of the society. The research has also aptly remarked that in order to succeed, the police must establish partnerships with other government departments, citizenry, community, leaders, business owners, schools, non-governmental organization, other service providers and other criminal justice agencies.

The Pomeroy police station lacks proper infrastructure, the offices there are too small, the community service centre is too small, there is no board room. Whenever stakeholders want to hold meetings, it is difficult to find a proper place. In both police stations, the shortage of vehicles and personnel leave a lot to be desired and this state of affairs to be rectified with immediate effect. Most of the police stations in rural areas are not taken care of in terms of resources and and adequate infrastructure. As a result, our poor communities find themselves between the rock and hard place; and they are not given a fair deal.

9.13 Research recommendations

Throughout the research it was conspicuously observed and constantly remarked that though the role and mandate to fight crime have been bestowed to the police, it should further be highlighted that the role of the community, civil society and other government departments, should not be over emphasised. The Community Safety Forums policy provides a framework for
integrated, localised safety planning and co-ordination, with provincial and local government as key players, and community representation in the form of the Community Police Forum.

The community safety structures continue to play a significant and meaningful role to fight and reduce crime in our communities. The main objective of these structures is to promote the development of the community where citizens live in a safe environment and have access to high quality services at local level, through integrated and coordinated multi-agency collaboration among organs of state and various communities.

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison and South African Police Services should encourage synergy between Amakhosi and community safety structures, and it is imperative that these government departments should provide financial support to these structures so that they should function effectively and efficiently. It has been proven beyond reasonable doubt that the number of police personnel is not sufficient to cater for the needs of Msinga communities. These structures act as force multiplier to the South African Police Service. Msinga and Nhlanhleni police stations are no exception, it was noticed that these stations lack personnel and state resources such as motor vehicles and satellite police stations. The vastness of the area necessitates the additional resources, to enhance service delivery. These police stations were built during the apartheid time or era and therefore need to be upgraded. Due to the lack of infrastructure, both the stations do not have sufficient offices and boardrooms. Building a united front against crime should be based on CPF foundation.

The police must continue to provide support CPF structures such as transport and stationery. The research highly recommends that these structures should be provided with transport, offices, and computers and with regular stipends. The existence of these structures at the community level should not create a platform for them to compete each other, for instance the volunteers should not see themselves better off than CPF just because they receive stipend on a monthly basis. The Department of Higher Learning in the long run should come up with sustainable programs to academically assist these community safety structures so that they would be more effective in their communities. TVET Colleges and Universities should design courses with the intentions to capacitate and develop them. So far the establishment of community safety structures and their maintenance thereof, remain the responsibility of the Department of Community Safety and Liaison. It is highly recommended that the Department of Police, the Local Municipalities, Department of Health and Department of Social Development should come on board since some of these government departments do have volunteers on the ground.

Most of the serious crimes are committed by firearms in this province and some of them are illegal. It is essential therefore that the government should prioritise the Disarmament Program with the main objective to encourage the community to bring back all illegal firearms. Previously this program yielded positive results and contact crime was tremendously and significantly reduced. Although the security companies are doing a sterling job, the volume of arms and guns in their possession remain a cause for concern and poses danger to the entire country. Some of these private security companies are not locally based, but actually come from abroad.

On Tuesday 23 May 2017, eight people were killed at Nongoma. It was alleged that the taxi owners were celebrating the release of a suspect from prison after the police had linked them
with murder cases emanating from taxi violence. While they were enjoying, a few men came and opened fire on them and also burned one of the combis which belongs to one of the victims who passed on. The level of taxi in the province has remained stubbornly high and most commonly, firearms in many instance are used (Isolezwe, 23 May 2017 and Ilanga, 23-25 May 2017).

Crime prevention should form the backbone of the SAPS main activities more importantly at the station level. This unit should be sufficiently resourced and well budgeted for so that it will function effectively. When the members of the community see the police in full uniform and patrolling their vicinity, the confidence and trust is automatically restored. Initially the concept of crime prevention starts when one sets up burglar guards in one’s house, putting up fence or razor wire, an alarm system, tracking devices or sometimes hiring security companies or security guards. In the olden days; traditionally, the king’s palaces were looked after by amabutho or oqayinyanga. These security guards were also responsible for looking after the boundaries separating one country from another country.

The community safety structures play pivotal role in terms of fighting crime hence all law enforcement agencies should work hand in hand with these structures at all level to strengthen their relationship. It remains the responsibility of the state to make sure that these structures remain relevant and functional by providing moral support and financial assistance. Just recently the Department of Traditional Affairs and Local Government has approved the financial support of Izinduna here in KwaZulu-Natal. In the long run the government should consider the financial support for the following community based structures such as: CPF, CSF’s CCPA, Street Committees and Ward Safety Committees.

Funding and financial support are urgently needed on the part of government to make more functional and responsible the community based structures such as CPF, CSF, CCPA, Street Committees and Ward Safety Committees.

9.14 Knowledge-based crime prevention

Crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad, multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices. An appropriate, government and civil society should facilitate knowledge based crime prevention by, inter alia:

- providing the information necessary for communities to address crime problems;
- supporting the generation of useful and practically applicable knowledge that is scientifically reliable and valid; supporting the organisation and synthesis of knowledge and identifying and addressing gaps in the knowledge base; sharing knowledge, as appropriate, among, inter alia, researchers, policymakers, educators, practitioners from other relevant sectors and the wider community;
- applying this knowledge in replicating successful interventions, developing new initiatives and anticipating new crime problems and prevention opportunities; establishing data systems to help manage crime prevention more cost-effectively, including by conducting regular surveys of victimisation and offending;
- promoting the application of the data in order to reduce repeat victimisation, persistent offending and areas with high level of crime (UNODC, 2010:47-48).
9.15. Type of knowledge required: UNODC 2010

Different types of evidence-based knowledge are required by governments and practitioners, whether they are developing national, regional, or city strategies or planning a specific programme intervention. At each stage of the development of a crime prevention strategy or programme, evidence based knowledge is needed to assess the size and scope of crime problems, to analyse their causes, identify possible solutions, and select and evaluate programs. This information can be grouped under four main headings:

9.16 Knowledge about the incidence and prevalence of crime related problems

This requires collecting quantitative and qualitative information from a range of sectors, not relying solely on crime information reported by the police or other security sectors. Information about the prevalence and incidence of unreported crimes and fear of crime can be collected through victimisation surveys. Civil society organisations and local communities are an important resource. They are likely to have in-depth experience and knowledge about specific groups that are hard to access, such as street children, young people at risk or in youth gangs, women victims of violence and socially marginalised populations. The organisations working with these groups can be helpful in reaching such groups to listen to their views. Qualitative information from interviews and observation will help to supplement quantitative data (UNODC 2010:50).

9.17 Knowledge about the causes of crime and victimisation

Once information on crime and related social and economic problems has been identified, information on when and where such problems occur, and who is involved, will help to build a picture of the main patterns and trends, and the likely causal factors. As before, such information needs to be analysed by a variety of sectors and disciplines, involving inputs from a range of services including urban planners, housing departments, youth services, police and justice, and civil society, as well as research expertise. A clear pattern of violent crimes by young people may be identified in certain areas, for example, but there may be a number of contributing factors, from a lack of street lighting which reduces the risks for offenders, an absence of recreational facilities and resources, or an increase in drug trafficking, all of which could be addressed through different types of interventions (UNODC 2010:51).

9.18 Knowledge about existing policies and good practices

In order to select interventions that appear likely to respond to crime and social problems identified, it is important to look at what programmes and services already exist in a country or city, and how they might be improved. Research on the effectiveness of crime preventions has grown extensively in recent years as governments and researchers have invested in prevention.

The research has identified community programmes that have been well run, meet their objectives, and appear to have promising outcomes and these are important in helping to inform decision makers about the most appropriate projects to undertake. In the area of Msinga, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison together with SAPS have established number of
community safety structures such as CPF, CCPA, Ward Safety Committees, and social crime prevention volunteers. These structures have been yielding positive result and have reduced the level of crimes, most importantly, the stock theft cases. What will make a positive impact on crime in the short to medium term in South Africa? According to Scharf, Gaironesa and Hauck (2001:65), there are five interventions that will improve the crime situation in South Africa in short to medium term, and they involve inter alia:

- Changing police shift patterns to match staffing of stations with the times of the week in which the demand for their services is highest, namely weekends;
- Introducing intensive projects to reduce the negative impact of domestic violence;
- Controlling ant-social behavior in and around shebeens by joint projects between the police and the local Community Policing Forums;
- Tackling gun misuse and the scourge of the over-abundance of unlicenced firearms;
- Developing partnerships between the police and civilian initiatives aimed at crime prevention such as neighbourhood watches, seawatches, street committees and the likes.

9.19 Knowledge about the process of implementing programmes and measuring their outcomes impacts

The abovementioned community safety structures have been fully implemented in the district of Umzinyathi and the community has begun reap the rewards of these programmes. The working together of different government departments, especially those dealing with or entrusted with security clusters, has produced desired results. Government departments, law enforcement agencies, have managed to bring on board all crime prevention programmes, for example Department of Social Development has been working with the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, and the South African Police Services in terms of Drug Master Plan, and crime prevention programmes from SAPS have managed to significantly reduced the crime rate in the area. The deployment of Volunteer Social Crime Prevention Program, the CCG from Department of Health and One Million Voices against police killings have contributed positively in dealing with crime and social ills in the area of Msinga. The creation of awareness and the role of civil society in fighting against crime will ultimately help and assist the government to deal with the scourge of crime which deeply affects our beloved’s country. The role of civil society and community safety structures will never be over emphasised in dealing with crimes and crime prevention.

9.20 Summary

In the context of the South Africa, given the dimensions and drivers of violence highlighted in the present research, the following represent suggestions for the future of violence and crime prevention initiatives in South African cities: implementation of social programmes that promote social cohesion; reducing social and economic inequalities; harnessing urban economic opportunities to create employment and reduce absolute and relative poverty; conceptualising urban crime and violence as risk management issues as important as all other sectors deserving intervention in the bid to create cities; a focus on the youth; a focus on women and children; a
focus on drivers of crime, for example, the availability of guns and alcohol; a focus on improving the urban environment to reduce crime and violence; with special focus on disadvantaged, marginalised areas (Crime Prevention Management Course 2014:13); crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad; multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices.

As appropriate, government and civil society should facilitate knowledge based crime prevention by inter alia: providing the information necessary for communities to address crime problems; supporting the generation of useful and practically applicable knowledge that is scientifically reliable and valid; supporting the organisation and synthesis of knowledge and identifying and addressing gaps in the knowledge base; sharing that knowledge, as appropriate, among, inter alia, researchers, policymakers, educators, practitioners from other relevant sectors and the wider community; applying this knowledge in replicating successful interventions, developing new initiatives and anticipating new crime problems and prevention opportunities; establishing a database system to help manage crime prevention in a more cost effective way, including by conducting regular surveys of victimisation and offending; and promoting the application of those data in order to reduce repeat victimisation, persistent offending and areas with a high level of crime (UNODC, 2010:47-48).

An estimated total of 1 468 278 crime incidents were experienced by 1 153 984 households in 2016/17. The victimised households represent 7, 2%; of all households in South Africa. Male-headed households had a higher proportion (7, 5%) of victimisation compared to female headed households (6, 6%). Estimation according to different population groups showed that coloured households were the most victimised (8, 9%) and black Africans were the least victimised with 6, 9% of households having experienced crime in 2016/17.

The most common crime experienced in 2016/17 was housebreaking/burglary (53%) followed by theft of livestock (11%) and home burglary (10%). Last year home robbery was number two at 12% of all household crimes. Theft of personal property tops the individual crime list at 42% followed by assault (18%) and robbery (16%), Victim of crime Survey, 2016/17:01). More than half of households in our country experienced housebreaking/burglary, followed by theft of livestock, poultry and other animals owned by the household, as well as home robbery.

The crimes least experienced by households were murder and theft of crops planted by the households in 2016/17 standing at about 1,1% for each crime type (Victims of Crime Survey, 2016/17:10). Since 1881 the history of Msinga has been characterized and dominated by the scenes of murky retaliatory vegeances, ancient feuds and vendetta as well as perverse pleasure in fighting with resultant internecine faction fights. Retribution was a major cause of the fighting and it often occurred when a member of a particular clan or section had been killed by a member of another tribe. If the section whose member had been killed without them avenging his death, such section was regarded as cowards or weaklings. They had to show manhood or bravery by avenging the death of their member (Madondo&Madlala 2013:17).
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11. ANNEXURES

11.1 QUESTIONNAIRE

CRIME PREVENTION: A CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE MSINGA MUNICIPALITY IN THE UMZINYATHI DISTRICT: DUNDEE

QUESTIONNAIRE

The aim of this research project is to conduct research on the level of crime prevention at Msinga area under Umzinyathi District.

The causes as well as preventative measures will be highlighted in this research.

Your name and address are not required to be reflected on this questionnaire.

All information supplied by you will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Answer all questions as they apply to you by writing down the number that reflects your view the best in the block on the far right of the questionnaire.

Your co-operation and assistance in this project is of utmost importance and is indeed highly appreciated.

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

QUESTION 1

Please indicate sex

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
QUESTION 2

How old are you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
<th>41-50</th>
<th>51-60</th>
<th>Above 61</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 3

What is your marital status?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced</th>
<th>Widowed</th>
<th>Married but living separately</th>
<th>Other specify</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 4

To what ethnic group do you belong?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>African</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Colored</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 5

Where do you live

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal / Structured housing</th>
<th>Informal settlement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
QUESTION 6

Type of qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Secondary School</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Post graduate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION B

SAFETY IN YOUR NEIGHBOURHOOD

QUESTION 7

How safe are you in your neighborhood?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vary safe</th>
<th>Fairly safe</th>
<th>Fairly unsafe</th>
<th>Very unsafe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 8

How often do you hear about violent crimes in your neighborhood?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Hourly</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
QUESTION 9

9.1 Have you been the victim of Rape?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.2 Have you been the victim of assault?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.3 Have you been the victim of stock theft?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.4 Have you been victim of attempted Murder?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.5 Have you been the victim of Car Hijacking?
QUESTION 10

Indicate whether one of your family members has been affected by the following violent crime

10.1 Murder

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.2 Rape

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.3 Assault GBH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.4 Attempted Murder

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.5 Car Hijacking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION C

TYPE OF PREVENTATIVE MEASURES THAT ARE PREVALENT IN THE AREA

QUESTION 11

What kind of preventative measures is needed in your area?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrol the vicinity</th>
<th>Beef up Security Personnel</th>
<th>Establish CPF structures</th>
<th>Encourage Mpimpa hotline</th>
<th>No measures are needed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 12

Do the local police patrol your neighborhood?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hourly</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 13

What type of community safety structures have been established in your area?
CPF Street committee Ward safety committee CSF CCPA
1 2 3 4 5

QUESTION 14

Please indicate which Component of Justice System is the most effective in your area?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Police</th>
<th>Courts</th>
<th>Correctional Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTION 15

How do you feel about the sentences that are imposed in violent crimes?

15.1 Murder

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Light</th>
<th>Fairly light</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Too heavy</th>
<th>Extremely heavy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.2 Rape

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Light</th>
<th>Fairly light</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Too heavy</th>
<th>Extremely heavy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.3 Assault GBH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Light</th>
<th>Fairly light</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Too heavy</th>
<th>Extremely heavy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.4 Attempted Murder

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Light</th>
<th>Fairly light</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Too heavy</th>
<th>Extremely heavy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.5 Car Hijacking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Light</th>
<th>Fairly light</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Too heavy</th>
<th>Extremely heavy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
QUESTION 16

Are you satisfied with the role played by the private security in terms of reducing violent crimes?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definitely agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Definitely disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION D

THE EFFECT OF CRIME

QUESTION 17

What was the impact of crime in your life?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffered financial</th>
<th>Suffered physical</th>
<th>Suffered psychological</th>
<th>Suffered emotionally</th>
<th>Other specify</th>
<th>Did not affect at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

QUESTION 18

What was your reaction when confronted by abovementioned violent crimes?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Report to the police</th>
<th>Inform the neighbours</th>
<th>Retaliate</th>
<th>Run away from crime scene</th>
<th>Do nothing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11.2 Permission letter from SAPS

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: CRIME PREVENTION IN OUR CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY: A CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE; WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO MSINGA UNDER UMZINYATHI DISTRICT: PhD: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL; RESEARCHER: LM ZONDI

1. The above subject matter refers.

2. You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2008.

3. Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following office:

3.1. Provincial Commissioner: KwaZulu-Natal:

   - Contact Person: Colonel A D van der Linde- 031 325 4841/ 082 496 1142
   - E-mail: vanderLinde@saps.gov.za

4. Kindly adhere to par 6 of our letter signed on the 2016/07/18 with the same above reference number.
11.3 Annexure: Letter from CPF

KwaZulu Natal CPF

P.O. Box 38014
Durban 4001

Fax: (031) 325 4011

To               : Prof SB Singh
From              : Mr HV Msomi
Date              : 22 December 2016

Dear Prof SB Singh

Kindly receive our humble and warm greetings.

This letter serves to give Mr LM Zondi the permission to conduct research at Umsinga, Pomeroy and Dundee Police Station.

We as the CPF in KZN applaud this initiative as it will not only benefit Mr Zondi but also the above mentioned Police Stations and the whole Community for being engaged on the research conducted.

I hope you will find this in order.

Kind Regards

Mr H.V Msomi
KZN Provincial CPF Chairperson
079 664 9568/ 079 889 9742
11.4 Letter of informed consent

Letter of informed consent

Topic : Crime prevention: A criminological perspective of the Msinga municipality in the Umzinyathi District, Dundee

Researcher : LM Zondi
Student number : 216076048
Email : LM ZONDI@comsafety.gov.za
Supervisor : Prof SB Singh
Institution : University of KwaZulu Natal

Dear Participant

I would like to thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. This research is aimed at investigating the level of crime prevention at Msinga area under Umzinyathi District. This letter serves to request you to make yourself available for an interview. I will be asking you a set of predetermined questions. The interview will last for fifteen minutes. Before you agree to this request for the interview, please take note of the following:

• You may participate in this research freely and voluntarily.
• You may choose to withdraw at any time before or during the interview without any negative consequences.
• Your participation will be anonymous and will remain like that.
• What will be discussed will remain confidential and will not be disclosed to any other person except the supervisor who will have access to it for academic purposes only.

If you understand the above and you are comfortable with participating in the interview, I request that you sign the attached consent form and then take part in the study.

Consent Form: Participant’s informed consent

I --------------------------------volunteer to participate in this research to be conducted at -------------------------. I understand that this means that I will be interviewed for fifteen minutes. I understand that I can refuse to participate in the research or withdraw at any time. I further state that I am not under any duress to participate in this research. My participation is free and voluntary....................................signed.

I hereby consent/do not consent to have the interview recorded.
11.5 A map of Msinga

![Map of Msinga](image)

**Figure 1**
Location of Tugela Ferry in Msinga Local Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
5 January 2017

Mr Lawrence M Zondi 2160765048
School of Applied Human Sciences – Criminology & Forensic Studies
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Zondi,

Project title: The prevention of crime in our contemporary society: A criminological perspective paying more attention at Msinga under Umzinyathi District.

In response to your application received 15 September 2016, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

cc Supervisor: Prof SB Singh
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr J Steyn
cc School Administrator: Ms A Ntul
12 September 2016

To whom it may concern

Registration name Mr LM Zondi

This is to confirm that Lawrence Musa Zondi (student number 216076048) is a PhD student in Criminology and Forensic studies under the guidance of Prof Singh at the University of KwaZulu Natal, Durban, South Africa. Mr Zondi has presented his research proposal to the discipline. His research proposal is titled "The prevention of crime in contemporary society: a criminological perspective of Masinga, Umzinyathi District". Furthermore he will be addressing crime and prevention in surrounding municipalities. His research addresses the extent of crime in contemporary society and national response to this with regards to crime prevention. It would be appreciated if the concerned body will give him information and access to participants and support in his studies. His ethical clearance forms have been sent to the UKZN ethics division.

If you require any other information please contact Prof SB Singh on the mobile numbers below.

Thank you very much!

Prof Shanta Balgobind Singh
Criminology and Forensic Studies
School of Applied Human Sciences,
First Floor, Room F182
Howard Campus
University of KwaZulu- Natal
Durban
4000
South Africa
Tele: +27 31 2607895
Cell: +27 836925817
+27827423178
CRIME PREVENTION: A CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF MSINGA MUNICIPALITY, UMZINYATHI DISTRICT, DUNDEE, SOUTH AFRICA

by Lawrence Musa Zondi
CRIME PREVENTION: A CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF MSINGA MUNICIPALITY, UMZINYATHI DISTRICT, DUNDEE, SOUTH AFRICA

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<tr>
<th>SIMILARITY INDEX</th>
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<th>STUDENT PAPERS</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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11.6. Ethical Letter
11.7. Proof of Registration
11.8. Turnitin Report