



**An Exploration of Communal Responses to Burglary at Residential Premises in the Cato
Crest Informal Settlement of Durban, KwaZulu-Natal Province**

By

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Declaration

I, Zandile Faith Mpofu declare that:

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated is my work.
- (ii) This research has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) The sources used in this dissertation have been properly referenced in-text and they appear in the reference section.

Signature:

Date:

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ABSTRACT

Violence and crime in countries such as South Africa are shaped by deep socio-economic inequalities; however, the spatial designs of urban areas and housing also play a role, but often in differing ways. There is little qualitative research published on communal responses to burglary in informal settlements where the hyper-permeability of housing structures directly shapes residents' experiences of crime. This dissertation reflects on the wider literature on the consequences and experiences community members have on residential burglary. The dissertation examines the nature, effects, responses and programmes to curb burglary in the informal settlement area of Cato Crest, Durban. It asserts that the informal settlement have serious adverse effects on the people's housing quality and their built environment. The secondary data was obtained from books, journals and seminar papers Data were obtained through semi-structured one-on-one interviews with the community members of Cato Crest informal settlement. The study provides a range of new insights into the problem of burglary and confirms some of the findings from research previously conducted elsewhere. The analysis of the area reveals that both the burglary rate and the proportion of repeat burglaries are much higher in the public housing areas.

The high burglary rate in this area is partly attributable to the large number of burglaries of vacant public housing dwellings, usually involving the theft of household items such as mobile phones, stoves and television sets. Various research and policy implications emerge from the study, such as: the need to address police data quality issues; the need for the police or the nearby clinics to employ psychologists that will be readily available for the victims who experienced burglaries and cannot cope; the need for greater clarification in defining what is meant by repeat burglary victimisation; the need to provide programs for the community to curb burglary; the need for greater cooperation between the police and the community members to curb such crimes as burglary. Therefore, government is encouraged to see informal settlements as a solution to new city planning rather than a problem to the urban areas. This research study suggests the implementation of policies and planning, physical infrastructural development, social economic improvement, environment and health improvement. Government, the private sector and communities' interventions on informal settlements are required in order to prevent burglaries by making sure the perpetrators are punished and the victims are taken care of.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

South Africa has a high crime rate which impacts negatively on the quality of life of its people. Economic growth and development are negatively influenced by crime. This research study explores the various communal responses to burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement of Durban, KwaZulu-Natal Province. A discussion on crime especially residential burglary will serve as a contextual basis for the presentation of the problem formulation.

Residential burglary is a property crime that has the most elevated occurrence rate of all violations in South Africa. It might in this way significantly affect individuals' discernments and sentiments of well-being. With specific reference to housebreaking, which is the focal point of this research study, revealed cases topped between April 2012 and March 2013, with a sum of 45 404 announced instances of housebreaking in the area of KwaZulu-Natal alone (SAPS, 2015b). Moreover, as per the Victims of Crime Survey 2014/2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2015), a large portion of the participants identified housebreaking/theft as the most overwhelming and dreaded crime in their general vicinity of living arrangement.

Normally, all South Africans as individuals from society play a role in protecting themselves against crime just as in endeavouring to avoid it. Therefore, an ever-increasing number of South Africans use alarm systems and electric fencing as well as private safety efforts to protect themselves from being misled and to feel a sense of security (Baker, 2002; Kruger and Landman, 2008; Mahlutshana, 2014; van Zyl, 2002).

Cato Manor Township is an old and predominantly Zulu and old settlement situated approximately ten kilometres from the Durban downtown area. It is viewed as one of the criminal centre points in the KwaZulu-Natal Province (Xulu, 2006). Cato Manor township is generally occupied involved by regular workers black Africans with numerous social difficulties (Brookfield & Tatham, 1957). Cato Crest is a large informal settlement within the Cato Manor Township As indicated by the South African Police Services (SAPS) and certified by community reports, armed robbery, housebreaking, assault and rape are four priority crimes in Cato Manor. Violent crime is an aspect of everyday life for individuals living in Cato Manor and Umkhumbane informal settlement. During the 1990s, the levels of crime brought about a

few fundamental social administrations, including education, well-being and welfare administrations pulling back from the area as a result of the terrorisation of staff.

The areas in Cato Manor that comprise of informal settlements or low-cost housing, for example, Cato Crest, Fast Track and Dunbar are the ones most affected by crime. Street lighting in these zones is non-existent and the landscape makes the region difficult to patrol either using a vehicle or on foot. The shacks that are found in informal settlements are situated in clusters that have no drive-in access, making them a perfect spot for criminals to seek shelter and maintain a strategic distance from the location and evade arrest.

The materiality of informal housing and surrounding neighbourhoods, which shape their defensible limit, are theorized here in connection to three key concepts: criminalisation, crime and brutality, and hyper-penetrability. Informal settlements are not neutral spaces. Instead, they encourage specific arrangements of political and legal practices, which shape how crime unfolds and is negotiated and especially in terms of how security is influenced. Below, crime and violence in South Africa is specifically considered, but first the links between crime and violence and informal living are analysed. Informal settlements are frequently condemned spaces, and their inhabitants are regularly condemned by affiliation. By definition, most are or were unlawful in both the occupation of land and the arrangement of non-standard structures.

Writing in the Brazilian context, Caldeira (2000: 79) clarifies, “rejected from the universe of the best possible, they are symbolically comprised as spaces of crime, spaces of irregular, polluting, and dangerous characteristics”. The scholar proceeds to contend that “[p]redictably, occupants of such spaces are additionally thought about as negligible. The list of partialities against them is interminable” (Caldeira, 2000: 79). This criminalization shapes the thought that informal settlements are spaces of crime. It is generally claimed that an anti-establishment, or oppositional, culture wins in ghetto zones, which is extensively strong of a wide range of criminal operations.

1.2 Problem statement

The problem investigated in this study is confined to that of residential burglary for the following reasons:

Residential burglary remains a significant issue in the society and will keep on being an issue for whatever length of time that individuals experience poverty and relative deprivation. Individuals from all social circles of life are presented to the danger of turning into a victim of

residential burglary. Residential burglary isn't just an infringement of privacy but can also be a factor adding to uplift levels of fearfulness and tension amongst residents. According to the SAPS 2006/7 official crime statistics at national level for the whole of South Africa, burglary at residential premises is the highest (249 665 reported cases) categorised reported crime, followed by assault with grievous bodily harm (218 030 reported cases) and common assault at 210 057 reported cases. In 2018, the numbers have thus increased, with burglary related crimes at 222 727 of which KwaZulu-Natal was the third highest at 38 545, after Gauteng Province and Western Cape. Cato Manor township was at 283 (Statistics South Africa, 2018).

Within this context of the comparison of crime statistics, residential burglary should be a priority crime. However, in many police stations across KwaZulu-Natal, other increasingly brutal crimes (e.g. murder, vehicle hijacking, and cash in transit heists) are all the more frequently the recorded important crimes. As such, these are crimes to which priority is given in terms of investigation and dispensing of resources for tackling and managing them promptly, despite the fact that in severe numerical terms (recurrence of rate), they don't statistically top the list of reported crimes.

Recognizing the need for research on the 'crime problem' in South Africa, the decision was taken to focus this study on a specific type of crime that has a geographical manifestation and impacts on the daily lives of many citizens. Residential burglary was therefore chosen as the central research theme of this study, for the following reasons:

Residential burglary has the highest frequency of all crimes in South Africa and the current trend in the number of residential burglaries indicate that this type of property crime will probably remain a serious problem in society for the foreseeable future (Shaw & Louw 2005). Residential burglary has a strong geographical association, because every offence can be traced to a specific location and time of occurrence and involves both environmental and social processes of interest to the geographer. It is also believed that the study can contribute not only towards a better understanding of the phenomenon, residential burglary, but also contribute to the 'geography of crime', a relatively unknown sub-field of academic endeavour in South Africa (Brown et al., 1996). Burglary isn't just an intrusion of privacy and a method for depriving individuals of valuable property; it additionally encourages an atmosphere of fear and anger. Despite what might be expected, law enforcement agencies will in general see residential burglary as a serious crime, because of its peaceful nature. In most burglary cases, lost property is rarely recovered, and the insurance of property falls fundamentally within the area of private

security (Brown et al., 1996). Residential burglary is just one sort of crime that is a significant issue in South Africa and must not be viewed in isolation.

1.3 Study aim and objectives

1.3.1 Aim of the study

This study aims to explore the perceptions that community members of Cato Crest have on the nature and impact of residential burglary.

1.3.2 Objectives of the study

1. To evaluate the nature of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.
2. To explore communal responses on burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.
3. To determine the effects of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.
4. To analyse the current intervention programs that have been put in place to curb burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.

1.3.3 Research questions

1. What is the nature and of burglary committed in Cato Crest, Durban?
2. What are the responses of burglary amongst the residents of Cato Crest Durban?
3. What are the effects of burglary crime on the community members of Cato Crest, Durban?
4. What intervention programs or mechanisms have been put in place to curb the burglary crime rate?

1.4 Rationale of the study

In the South African context, there has been insufficiency in studies that focus specifically on people's perceptions of the environments in which they live, especially in relation to crime and violence. Additionally, there remains a weak empirical and conceptual basis to understand the nature and extent of crime and violence against people as well as the context and locality

specific experiences. Of interest is the need to examine the ways in which violence and/or the fear of violence constrains people's abilities to participate meaningfully in, and benefit from, development and transformation processes.

Often, by the very nature of crime in South Africa, and public pressure to mitigate violent crime, police stations across South Africa will in general prioritise the crime that happens in their areas in terms of national priorities, levels of violence and public and media attention on these particular crimes, to be specific homicide, vehicle hijacking, cash in transit heists, assault and so forth. A reasonable innocuous (in terms of profile and no violence generally associated with it) crime such as burglary, even if high incidence occurs in a particular precinct or policing district, hardly ever becomes listed as a particular police station's high priority crime. This circumstance has emerged despite the fact that burglary, in terms of numbers and economic misfortunes related to it, is regularly factually within the main three reported crimes in South Africa.

By not being listed as a priority crime, burglary therefore gets 'sidelined' or 'marginalized' in terms of the allocation of police time, resources, investigations, manpower etc. Accordingly, most residents have concluded (which may not necessarily be accurate) that when they experience a burglary or house robbery, the chances of it getting solved and their stolen possessions recovered are slim since the crime they have just experienced is not given any priority attention and must wait in line for attention behind higher prioritised violent crimes.

The perceptions of crime and violence are disregarded in research spaces and yet, as will be delineated in this study, perceptions of crime and violence impact impressively on individuals' practices, mentalities and activities. They directly affect individuals' lives. This study adds to understanding the financial and environmental perceptions of crime and brutality at the local level. Perceptions and fears of crime and violence are not a spatial or objective. Place and subjectivity (individual encounters and perceptions play central roles in individuals' understanding of, and mentalities toward crime and violence in societies. Perry (2002) demonstrates that brutality and the risk of brutality in the public arena have seriously constrained the developments and options of individuals in South African culture. Violence or the danger of violence can have long-term implications for life risks, job choices just as physical and mental well-being (Kuo and Sullivan, 2001a; 2001b; Scholten, 2001). An assessment and more prominent understanding of the financial and spatial appearances of crime and violence is vital to create sheltered and secure environments.

1.5 Limitations of the study

Researchers often face challenges in the research field when it comes to general matters of research. These challenges might end up limiting many factors that contribute to the research and may cause the research findings or the report to be flawed.

The first limitation was that the sample in this study included only Black African participants, even though race was not one of the sampling criteria. This is because in South Africa, it is Black African people who are dominant residents of low-income areas (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Thus, the findings are not reflective of all racial and ethnic groups who reside in low-income households. Therefore, the study was not representative of all population groups.

The second limitation was resistance by participants caused by the issue of trust before the study commenced. The participants might have felt that the researcher worked for some investigative agency and that their participation would lead to harm. This called for the researcher to provide the participants with gatekeeper letters as well as all the necessary documentation just to put them at ease and ensure their voluntary participation. It also called for the researcher to explain about the confidentiality of the data and its safekeeping according to the University's Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

1.6 Conceptualisation

For purposes of basic orientation to the topic, as well as to provide the context in which concepts will be used, an introduction to the following terms is necessary.

1.6.1 Burglary

Burglary (also referred to as housebreaking) is the breaking into and entering of a private property, where there is no personal risk or physical damage involved to the tenants and the tenants were absent at the hour of the breaking and entering or when the culprits exited the property (Myerson, 1995:17). The accompanying classifications of robberies are distinguished as burglary of residential premises and burglary of business premises.

1.6.2 Housebreaking/ residential burglary

Housebreaking or residential burglary, is characterized by the SAPS (2014a: online) as “a property crime which likewise incorporates robbery of and from motor vehicles and bikes, and

non-residential burglary.” A commonly used lawful definition of housebreaking is given by Snyman (n.d. cited to in Milton, 1996:792): “Housebreaking with intent to carry out a wrongdoing comprises in unlawfully breaking and entering some building or structure with plan to perpetrate some crime in it.” A progressively exhaustive definition is given by Geldenhuys (1992), cited in (van Zyl, 2002:16): “Housebreaking is carried out by an individual who unlawfully and deliberately breaks into a building or similar structure and enters or infiltrates it with a part of his body or with an instrument with which he expects to control something on the premises, with the aim to perpetrate a crime on the premises.”

1.6.3 Informal settlements

These are grouped by Statistics South Africa (2014) as “[a]n unplanned settlement on land which has not been surveyed or proclaimed as private, comprising for the most part of informal residences (shacks).” An informal dwelling is defined as “an improvised structure not approved by a local authority and not planned as a permanent dwelling”. According to eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2009), informal settlements are “structures which are made of simple materials (wood, cardboard, metal sheets, and mud etc.) with no structure plans approved, often on land that has been wrongfully occupied. Services are essential or not accessible at all.” The Polokwane Local Municipality (Limpopo) conceptualises informal settlements as the “dense expansion of little, make-shift shelters built from assorted material and informally situated on land that isn't proclaimed, frequently described by high crime, degradation of the neighborhood environment and extreme social and health issues.

1.6.3 Victims

The Victim's Rights Charter (2006) gives a meaning of a 'victim of crime' as, incorporates an individual who, as a direct result of a criminal offence endures physical or emotional harm or loss or damage to property. In the event that the criminal offence brings about the passing of the individual, an individual from that individual's close family will likewise be incorporated as a victim of crime. The South African Law Commission characterises a 'victim' as “a biological individual who has endured hurt on account of someone else account in the event of a crime of violence. Harm or suffering, which can be physical or mental or both, more likely brought in a material misfortune for the person in question as well as had an antagonistic, quantifiable effect on her or his current and additionally future ability to gain an income”. An individual might be viewed as a victim putting in mind whether the guilty party has been

identified, apprehended, charged, prosecuted or sentenced. Individuals can be deemed to be victims regardless of the familial connection between the wrongdoers and themselves, and the classification can incorporate individuals who were harmed while intervening or helping different exploited people, or the police during activities aimed at law enforcement.

1.6.4 Crime prevention

Crime prevention is the reduction of chances for carrying out wrongdoing. This can either be in a master dynamic way using social methodologies, for example, entrepreneurship, education, family attachment, business and sport, or through police operational strategies, for example, arrests, police visibility and even the legal executive capacity of condemning. According to Fernandez (2005), crime prevention is any activity or strategy which diminishes, maintains a strategic distance from or dispenses with exploitation by crime or brutality. It incorporates government and non-legislative activities to decrease fear of crime just as diminishing the effect of crime on exploited people. The various degrees of crime prevention action are primary, secondary and tertiary. According to Kruger (2001), at the primary level, crime prevention alludes to populace-based projects, for example, state funded training on crime and how to use the physical conditions to help diminish crime. At the secondary level, crime prevention alludes to programs that focus on those at higher risk of criminal activity. This level would incorporate projects for youth in danger of leaving school and child rearing projects for high risk guardians. At the tertiary level, crime prevention action alludes to rehabilitative and supervision programs for guilty parties to decrease re-offending. The working definition fitting the context of the current study is primary crime prevention.

1.7 Research design and methodology

1.7.1 Research design

This research was qualitative in nature as it tried to explore people's perceptions of a specific subject, or phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010), attitudes and assessments of two distinct population groups. The use of a qualitative method encouraged a more in-depth understanding of the aspects that would be hard to get in a quantitative study. Abstract factors, for example, “an opinion, frame of mind, character, feeling, inspiration, intrigue, individual issues, mind-set, drive and dissatisfaction are moderately increasingly intricate, and thus harder to catch

quantitatively than factors that can be empirically verified” (Baumgartner & Strong, 1998: 248).

1.7.1.2 Demarcation of the study field

The study was conducted in the Cato Crest, which is a section within the broader Cato Manor Township which is a predominately Zulu and impoverished township situated about ten kilometres from the Durban city centre. It is regarded as one of the criminal hubs in KwaZulu-Natal Province (Xulu, 2006). Cato Manor Township is largely occupied by working class black Africans with many social challenges. Cato Manor Township is largely an informal settlement or low- cost housing and there are a lot of criminal activities in the area.

1.7.1.3 Sampling technique

In the selection of the research participants, both purposive and snowball sampling methods were used. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:105) describe purposive sampling as “select[ing] those individuals or objects that will yield the most information about the topic under investigation.” The researcher selected community leaders and community members of Cato Crest as participants in order to address the exclusive concepts around which the research question was centred.

1.7.1.4 Data collection

Data were collected using qualitative interviews. Semi-structured interviews were used to elicit participants’ views on communal responses to burglary at residential premises. The research may also be classified as descriptive, as the researcher attempted to gain in-depth insight regarding the opinions of the community members and community leaders. It combined a set of pre-determined questions and probes that enabled the interviewer to explore further, particular themes and responses. The semi-structured interview format was appropriate for this study because it allowed for a free and open dialogue with the interviewees and provided a unique opportunity to acquire in-depth information.

1.8 Chapter outline

Chapter One introduces the entire study. It briefly provides the relevant background information to the study, outlines the research problem, states the purpose and objectives of the research, and summarises the significance of the study. This introductory chapter is essentially a road map as it directs and informs the reader about what to expect in this write up.

Chapter Two provides some context and indication of the severity of the burglary in South Africa. It additionally outlines the nature of this crime in South Africa and illuminates its typical characteristics.

Chapter Three provides criminological theories that offer explanations to these crimes, specifically those applicable to the South African society.

Chapter Four describes the research design and concentrates on the study's specific methodology. The research process is described in terms of the phenomenological design that is both exploratory and descriptive in nature, the research approach and design, the sample population of the study, the data collection method and research instruments that were used. The chapter also describes how the data were analysed and how trustworthiness was enhanced. Limitations of the study are highlighted in this chapter.

Chapter Five presents the study's findings based on the data that were collected by means of an interview schedule. The individual responses by the research participants are observed, followed by an interpretation of the common themes that emerged from the responses. These themes were developed using a thematic content analysis process. The categorized findings are compared and discussed.

Chapter Six briefly summaries the main research findings, followed by recommendations based on the findings.

Conclusion

Residential burglary within the South African context was highlighted in this introductory chapter. In this chapter, six aspects which provide a background to the current study are discussed. Firstly, the background includes understanding of residential burglary and the South African context. Secondly, the context of the study was presented. Thirdly, the problem statement and rationale are discussed. Fourthly, the purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions are provided. Fifthly, the research methodology guiding the present study is also discussed in detail, including limitations of the study. Lastly, an outline of the thesis was presented in this chapter. Chapter Two will present the literature review on

residential burglary, particularly its nature, responses, effects and prevention programmes to mitigate this type of crime.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Residential burglary remains a serious problem in South Africa and will probably continue to be a problem for as long as large sections of the population are experiencing unemployment, estimated at as high as 40 per cent and the accompanying poverty and relative deprivation. According to Statistics South Africa (2018), an average rate of more than 590 residential burglaries per 100 000 of the population per year for the period between 2017 and 2018 was recorded. Residential burglary can be regarded as the most common crime in South Africa. People from all spheres of life, the “poor” as well as the “rich”, are exposed to the risk of becoming a victim of residential burglary.

The extent of crime, with specific reference to South Africa, has over the years become so overwhelming that employing private security contractors has likely become a necessity in some, if not most, populations nation-wide (Kruger, 2001). As with many categories of crime, the definition, extent, nature, and causal factors of housebreaking are dependent on the context in which it occurs. The literature review about housebreaking is thus mostly limited to the South African context. This chapter briefly considers the nature of residential burglary and highlights the few, and restricted studies that have been conducted in this area. It goes on to review appropriate studies that have illuminated the relevant effects of burglary, responses to burglary and the mechanisms used to prevent burglary at residential premises.

2.1.1 Crime in informal settlements

In South Africa, vigilantism as well as religion, is employed by residents to manage crime, in the absence of effective formal justice mechanisms. Understanding crime in informal settlements necessitates accounting for the complex array of factors. The areas are intrinsically criminalised. Crime and violence are often a function of residents’ frustrations and grievances over poor living conditions. Focusing on African cities, Raleigh (2015: 104) explains that “violence risks are linked to the conditions of unplanned and underdeveloped urban spaces within African states”. For reasons of poverty, the threat of eviction, temporality and lack of resources, informal housing is often poorly built, but the materiality of informal housing does vary across contexts and time. Within South Africa (wider Africa and Asia too), most informal

houses are constructed from relatively basic, temporary, non-weather-proofed materials (namely cardboard, mud, plastic, wooden boards and metal) and usually single storey. Different elements of living informally shape the experiences of crime and violence, at times in contradictory ways.

Housing size often shapes housing layout and the reliance on fabric or curtaining to separate spaces within a shack house. This lack of solid internal divisions again shapes experiences of domestic violence, as well as contributing to a severe reduction in privacy; a key issue for adults in the context of living intimately with children (Meth, 2015). Housing size also affects children's vulnerability to crime. With properties very small in size, children regularly play around the houses, or on the pathways or roads. This is a constant source of anxiety for parents living informally as their children risk exposure to various crimes (Meth, 2015). Undeveloped land surrounding informal settlements provides an ideal location for crime to unfold. This is often the case as settlements are located in peripheral undeveloped parts of the city, or they are separated from formal, legal settlements through vegetative barriers.

Residents of Cato Crest refer to the 'bush' as a space where rapes occur, bodies are dumped and muggings take place, particularly after nightfall. In addition, the dense nature of the settlement under focus here, and the lack of lighting meant that travelling in the early morning or evening is particularly dangerous, and many women describe being attacked in public space at these times (Ethekwini's location means that even in summer it is dark by around 7 pm) and as a result, residents describe the levels of crime as seasonal. The ease of settlement within squatter camps is a concern raised by various parents and residents more broadly. Parents worried about how easy it is for their teenagers to leave and establish independent homes in the settlement, often with young lovers, against their parent's wishes. Similarly, criminals enjoy relative ease of movement into the settlement and property acquisition, in order to establish a criminal base. Ease of settlement in informal areas entrenches the notion of hyper-permeability as the indiscriminate movement of people between housing, across parcels of undeveloped land and into new informal housing structures is extensive. This permeability of residents arguably also enhances vulnerability to crime.

This dissertation uses empirical data from the area known as Cato Crest, part of the substantial previously informal settlement of Cato Manor, which is located about 7 km from Durban city centre. The area has had a very troubled past (high violence levels and political tensions) but the recent state intervention in upgrading the informal settlement has significantly improved

much of the wider settlement, although it has been the site of recent (2013) violent clashes with the police over the housing delivery process. It also contains a large number of *shebeens* (illegal drinking taverns), which are argued to contribute to crime and violence, and the focus of recent efforts by police to curb their operations. Landman and Kruger (2009) identify two particular crime hot spots in the settlement, namely the White House Tavern and a pedestrian bridge.

2.1.2 Causes of housebreaking

Just as macro-level socio-economic and political transitions and developments were and still are shaped and influenced by South Africa's unique history, so does it play a role in the growing cycle of crime and its proposed explanations,

“The proliferation of crime is partly sustained as a result of the fact that practices that sustain crime, and people who are involved in crime, are socially accepted in many communities... This forms part of a culture that also condones other illegal practices, such as the purchase of stolen goods, illegal reconnections, and corruption...” (CSV, 2007:163).

In communities such as poverty-stricken neighbourhoods and townships, the youth may be socialised into a culture of crime and violence (Wilson, 2005). This results in association with and acceptance of individuals involved in criminal activities and, as a consequence, criminal behaviour is not challenged, within relative terms. Another reason for the reluctance to object to offenders is that the market for stolen goods is rife, “the availability of stolen goods is one way of ‘making do’ in this environment of uncertainty, as result, people develop reciprocal relationships with those involved in crime” (CSV, 2007:163-164). Improvisation isn't the sole purpose for purchasing stolen goods, however. The offenders who obtained the items will likely be reluctant to keep them in their possession (van Zyl et al., 2003), and may therefore offer a marginal selling price. The cycle provides lower-class individuals with access to luxury items at a low cost, and burglars with a sufficient method of ‘earning’ a living. A situation is created where opportunities for theft are advocated.

According to the CSV (2007:164), political transformation is “associated with a complex range of cultural shifts that have weakened older concepts and systems of authority, and [has] brought to the fore a concept of the individual as free and autonomous.” It has thus promoted the lifestyle of individualism sanctioned by the Western world over the means of collectivism exercised by older, more traditional cultures that encouraged the selfless principle of acting

‘for the good of the community’. The result is that society has adopted an attitude of ‘each for his own’, which is a philosophy that contributes to a growing reluctance to consider the personal well-being of others.

During the time of abolition of the Apartheid rule, South African cities experienced an influx of eager migrants, labourers and general citizens seeking newly accessible work opportunities (CSVR, 2007; Taljaard, 2008). The economic strain placed on both the newly arrived and existing families rendered a large proportion of affected communities ‘dysfunctional’. While many South African families are nevertheless successful in nurturing emotionally well-rounded children, others are characterised by domestic violence or alcoholism, and these in turn have a negative impact on children and tend to be associated with other problems such as inconsistent or uncaring parenting, neglect or other forms of abuse. It is not true that all perpetrators of violence necessarily come from families of this kind. However, the prevalence of these types of problems is

“definitely linked to the degree to which young people in a society grow up with anti-social or violent tendencies, often linked to certain types of mental or emotional dispositions or pathologies that are often a product of, or reinforced by, the parenting and family environments from which they emerged” (CSVR, 2007:165-166).

Moreover, the magnitude of inequality in the South African society creates a high degree of “relational distance” between people in this country (CSVR, 2007). This reinforces perceptions partly derived from the apartheid period in terms of which poorer people find it difficult to see themselves as being worthy of respect from others, and in which people more generally find it difficult to see themselves as part of a common citizenry (CSVR, 2007). These perceptions feed into attitudes and dispositions, such as the disposition to see people poorer or richer, or those from another race, as “other” (ibid).

The unfortunate reality is that the severity of crime in South Africa has reached the point “where it seems to [people] that their ability to obtain acceptance and respect from others will depend on whether they are able to display, or provide as gifts, the right type of consumer goods” (CSVR, 2007:167). Apart from promoting robbery and burglary for the purpose of theft, it leaves South Africans adopting a lifestyle governed by fear. The dynamics of situations where people injure or kill others for items of property, whether big or small, are also reflected in other situations in our society where people use their own material interests as a justification

for treating others with indifference and seem unconcerned about how the consequences of their actions affect others.

In light of the above, property crime may therefore be predominantly motivated by a true need on the part of those who are unable to find work and who, for instance, have families who are living in poverty.

2.1.3 Nature of burglaries in residential areas

Individuals who are motivated to commit a property crime and who search the urban environment for suitable target areas must consider a number of relevant aspects. According to (Bernasco & Luykx, 2003), they must simultaneously consider the area's attractiveness in terms of the value of the goods that can be stolen, and the opportunities that the area offers in terms of the likelihood of successfully completing the offence. They must also consider the accessibility of the area in terms of how familiar its social and physical infrastructure is to them, and in terms of the distance they must travel to reach it.

Typically, a crime is recorded as a residential robbery when an armed individual or individuals enter a private residence by force while the people who live or work there are present. The primary motivation for the crime is robbery, with perpetrators usually targeting money, electronic goods (such as laptops, DVD players, etc.), jewellery and firearms. The profiles of perpetrators seem to suggest that a substantial number are experienced career criminals who commit many other criminal acts before they are caught (Bernasco & Luykx, 2003).

Furthermore, these criminals have typically progressed to home robbery from other forms of petty crimes and street robberies. Over time, they become experienced in using violence to steal from people (Bartol & Bartol, 2011). Robbers target residences as these yield higher rewards than street robberies in which the takings are relatively small. The perpetrators of most residential robberies target certain areas more than others. This is because they are familiar with the exit and entrance routes of those areas and are reasonably close to where the stolen goods will be dropped off for cash. According to the latest SAPS Annual Report for 2017/18, a small proportion (three per cent), or 32 police precincts in South Africa account for 40 per cent of all residential robberies (SAPS 2017). Among these stations, 47 per cent were classified as serving primarily suburban communities, 38 per cent township communities and 15 per cent CBDs (central business districts).

Different groups have different ways of accessing the residences that they target. The most common *modus operandi* is to break into homes while the residents are at home. This is because people have turned off their alarm systems, are relaxed, have opened doors and windows and usually have televisions or radios on and are not always aware of people intruding until it is too late to call for assistance. Typically, perpetrators target residences about which they have some information. Sometimes this information is gathered through observing the residence or through forging links with people who work at or have worked at the residence. Sometimes robbers would gain access for investigation purposes by pretending to be officials of some kind (e.g. water meter readers). It is interesting to note that 30 per cent of victims appeared to 'know the perpetrator' (Burton et al., 2003). The primary intention of the perpetrators is to steal and leave the premises as soon as possible. Although the fear experienced by victims who are subjected to direct violence is very real, the reality is that in a clear majority of residential robberies, victims are left mostly unharmed. While cases of horrific violence such as rape, torture and murder do occur, serious violence associated with home robberies is relatively rare.

It is also becoming apparent that a significant proportion of residential robberies are the work of criminal syndicates (Yang, 2006). Often the perpetrators will immediately transport the stolen property to a 'receiver' who will exchange the goods for cash. A network of people belonging to the syndicate will then be responsible for storing, repackaging, transporting and reselling the stolen property as new or 'second hand' goods and laundering the money that is made. A proportion of the stolen property is transported to other provinces or across the national border.

In terms of location, it is interesting to note that the crime of housebreaking in South Africa can mostly be localised to middle and high-class areas, compared to lower class communities and townships where violent crimes are more prevalent (Louw & Shaw, 2005) cited in Kaldine, 2012). Kaldine (2012:306) adds that "the wealthy are more vulnerable to property crimes compared to lower class communities that are more susceptible to contact crime and violence". This does not imply that the poor are excluded as victims of crime, although the steer towards higher class residences seems logical when considering the motive of financial gain. Dwellings located on busy streets provide easy access and a quick escape to potential burglars and tend to be burglarised at higher rates (Rengert & Hakim, 1998). The authors speculated that offenders might be reluctant to deeply penetrate areas with which they were unfamiliar. Neighbourhoods with more access lanes leading from larger transit routes significantly predicted higher burglary rates even when controlling for some social-structural

neighbourhood-level links of crime. Street segments that have a higher number of junctions are more likely to have higher rates of burglary. Similarly, houses located on dead end streets are less likely to be burglarized, whereas houses located at intersections are more likely to be burglarized (Hakim, Rengert, & Shachumurove, 2001). Dead ends are the safest type of street design because they reduce the accessibility to non-residents. Finally, as most previous research had analysed burglary in neighbourhoods located in larger cities, Yang (2006) extended this research to a smaller city and found that neighbourhood accessibility is a significant positive analyst of burglary rates.

Research has revealed that residential burglars typically commit housebreakings in surprisingly close proximity to their own homes (Bartol & Bartol, 2011; Ratcliffe, 2003). Research proves that travelling long distances is an undesirable process for residential burglary and that travelling in unfamiliar territory is generally avoided. The literature proves that even though the professional burglar uses many forms of transportation and often operates in remote neighbourhoods, burglars typically select their neighbourhoods and targets among the ones they are familiar with.

As stated earlier, burglars usually do not take long-term risks into consideration in the equation of decision-making. Physical and social aspects of surveillance and control help burglars to calculate the risk of detection. Architectural features, visibility of the buildings, lighting, and the ease of entry are among the cues that burglars consider (Bernasco, 2006). This assessment will be much easier if the burglar has a better knowledge of the neighbourhood. Thus, the neighbourhoods closer to active offenders may be at a higher risk than those that are further away. Indeed, relevant literature shows that proximity to active offenders is a risk factor for burglary (Bernasco & Luykx, 2003).

Gilbert (2010:182) reports that the majority of burglaries occur “during the summer months” and infers that this is due to “vacations, open windows and doors for ventilation, and greater numbers of people walking through the neighbourhood”. It is generally held that the majority of housebreakings take place during the day (Bartol & Bartol, 2011; Gilbert, 2010). A typical reasoning for this inference is that perpetrators of housebreaking are rational in their approach towards targeting their potential victim(s) and will therefore carefully predetermine a target associated with low risk, as opposed to behaving impulsively. As a result, day time hours are determined as the preferable time period during which to commit a housebreaking due to homeowners typically attending to their daily occupations and habitual activities, because

burglary is a passive crime, the offender selects times and places that will minimise the possibility of an encounter with victims.

According to the latest Victims of Crime Survey (VCS) information (Statistics South Africa, 2018:17), “housebreakings are seldom committed in early evening hours, as this time period is associated with higher levels of activity” and therefore is more typical to crimes of robbery. It is indicated that more than half of the VCS respondents reported the housebreakings to have occurred during late night hours (Statistics SA, 2015). There exists a discrepancy between sources about the typical times during which housebreakings are more likely to occur; day time hours and late-night hours. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is whether late night or day time, late afternoon and evening hours are considered unlikely for housebreakings. Thus, another risk factor for residential burglary can be time. Coupe and Blake (2006) found that burglary opportunities vary across daylight and night time where more expensive and less guarded properties are targeted in the daytime, better-guarded properties are targeted at night. Local level links can be more explanatory. For instance, in warm climates, the lack of air conditioning may facilitate open window break-ins at night.

2.1.3.1 Personal characteristics

Bartol and Bartol (2011) indicate that crimes of housebreaking are characteristically limited to the male population and to young adults or youths. It is common for perpetrators of housebreaking to operate in groups of more than one, but fewer than four individuals. The authors additionally indicate a pattern of drug use by burglars, claiming that it “increases alertness” as well as aiding them to adopt attitudes of determination and bravery. In addition, “high-crime places within a hot spot area of crime at taverns or liquor stores are often in nightlife areas serving as playgrounds for the city's young adults or for a specific ethnic group” (Bartol & Bartol, 2011:416). Often located in a wealthy singles area close to public transportation, these areas have many high crime establishments in close proximity, creating a potentiation effect, and attract regulars from around the city. Bus stops and subway stations are among those suitable access points for offenders who need to reach the crime area.

Burglars are believed to have a common preference for small items of high value, particularly jewellery and electronics (Bartol & Bartol, 2011). The desirability of items targeted during a housebreaking largely depends on size and ease of removal and travel, as well as its potential to be sold. The first criterion is the attractiveness of a neighbourhood in terms of the prospective profitability of a burglary if it is successful. It is asserted that, other things being

equal, wealthy neighbourhoods are preferred over poor neighbourhoods because the expected proceeds of the offence tend to be larger there. Residential units have visible cues that signal their value and thus the prosperity of their occupants.

Bartol and Bartol (2011) provide an interesting motivation for the rule of victim-contact avoidance by burglars. The authors explain that the lack of personal, social contact between the offender and the victim prevents the offender from experiencing the victim's/victims' distress. The victim's absence allows the offender to repress, deny, or justify the crime more easily. There is an overwhelming amount of literature on the degree of neighbourhoods' social cohesion and crime rates (Wilcox, Madensen, & Tillyer, 2007). In general, socially disorganised neighbourhoods that lack collective efficacy cannot assert social control over their residents; residential mobility and poverty are associated with collective inefficiency. Weakened ties and low levels of social cohesion reduce control in a neighbourhood and diminish its territoriality. Residents do not "look after" a resident's property; they may even not know their neighbours. This is an ideal safe haven for a typical burglar they will minimise the risk when they go unnoticed in a neighbourhood. The lack of social cohesion and control will create an environment where neighbours are not alarmed by other peoples' presence and do not intervene in their activities.

2.1.3.2 Targets of housebreaking

As the literature indicates, events of housebreaking are seldom spontaneous crimes, but are rather premeditated and planned long in advance. Targets of housebreaking are carefully chosen according to the level of adherence to several situational factors. The choice to commit a housebreaking is a rational one, as offenders seek out opportunities with the lowest possible personal risk (Bartol & Bartol, 2011). The second criterion is the likelihood of successful completion of a burglary. Burglars prefer neighbourhoods characterised by unstable and non-cohesive social structures because the anonymity in such neighbourhoods implies a lower level of territoriality. In this view, neighbourhood residents are primarily viewed as potential bystanders of crimes, who may or may not be able or willing to guard their neighbours, their neighbours' properties and the public properties of the community against attacks by offenders.

According to van Zyl et al. (2003:113), "residents who are away from home at regular intervals are more vulnerable to housebreakings than those with irregular time schedules." Other target vulnerabilities include wealthy/luxury lifestyles, ignorant/inattentive demeanour, and negligence of security measures, whereas attractive qualities of houses/buildings include

“concealed entrances, easily removable windows, as well as a lack of surveillance” (Van Zyl et al, 2003:115). Burglary is mostly opportunistic and often takes place at a favourable moment when occupants are clearly absent, and the house is perceived as vulnerable. A motivated offender must first identify a vulnerable target and then enter the property without being detected. A burglar’s decision to “hit” a specific target is based on environmental cues that are perceived to have immediate consequences.

Time of day, for example, can determine the method of entries. Burglars operating at night would avoid methods that would involve breaking doors, door locks, or windows. They may prefer, in summer, open window entries. Time, in this example can determine the target location, because when a burglar chooses an open window entry, a vast number of available targets drops significantly. The burglar then eliminates higher buildings, or at least upper floors in tall buildings; the visible first floors; and the areas where it will be hard to find open windows on a summer night (that is, neighbourhoods that host households with air conditioning systems). The time of the actual break-in is another major concern when a burglary is considered. Most break-ins happen when houses are not occupied, so the time of burglary on the police report does not always fully reflect the actual time of the offence.

The presence of “access control, fences with spikes, electrified fences, entry phones, burglar alarms, burglar-proofing at windows and doors, locks, security guards, armed response, security lights and dogs” are some unsuitable characteristics for housebreaking (van Zyl et al., 2003:113). The third criterion is the accessibility of a neighbourhood to potential burglars (as far as we are aware, the term accessibility was first used in this sense by Rengert (1991). According to ethnographic and theoretical studies, burglars prefer familiar neighbourhoods over unfamiliar neighbourhoods, because in familiar neighbourhoods they are better able to move around without being viewed as “strangers” (Hakim, Rengert, & Shachmurove, 2001). Furthermore, familiar areas provide advantages because burglars have better knowledge of the physical infrastructure (e.g. knowledge of escape routes) and of the inhabitants and their routines. In addition, burgling in remote and unfamiliar areas requires more time and effort than burgling in nearby areas. In general, then, neighbourhoods that are familiar to many prospective burglars are more vulnerable to burglary than neighbourhoods that are unfamiliar to most of them.

2.1.3.3 Areas

Leaving aside the global disparity in burglary rates, it has generally been found that urbanised areas have higher burglary rates than rural areas, and that in urbanised areas inner city neighbourhoods suffer more from burglary than suburban neighbourhoods (Sampson and Groves, 1989). Empirical research further consistently demonstrates that burglary rates (and crime rates generally) are elevated in deprived areas, ethnically mixed areas and areas with high residential turnover, all measured at various levels of geographical aggregation. The relations between burglary risk and deprivation, ethnic heterogeneity and residential turnover have been argued to be indirect for two very different reasons. The first reason is that all three measures are associated with a lack of social control among residents (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls, 1997).

When social control (which is also captured in the slightly more complex concepts of ‘social organization’ and ‘social efficacy’) is lacking, residents are less likely to take notice of impoliteness or offenses taking place in their environment, and if they do, they are less likely to intervene personally or call the police to stop it. Thus, where social control lacks, burglars run lower risks of apprehension while residents run higher risk of victimisation. The second reason is that most offenders themselves live in deprived, ethnically mixed and unstable areas, and usually offend within their own awareness spaces (Wiles & Costello, 2000; Forrester, Chatterton, & Pease, 1988). Thus, these measures are largely equal to being nearby and exposed to focuses of motivated offenders. This may explain the inconsistency that while offenders themselves claim that they select wealthy targets, the empirical evidence on actual targets is that burglary is concentrated in deprived areas. Studies of crime surveys have shown that individual and area deprivation-related characteristics interact, such that the more visibly wealthy households (e.g., detached and semi-detached properties as opposed to terraced properties and flats) in the most deprived areas have the highest risk of burglary victimisation (Forrester, Chatterton & Pease, 1988). Offenders’ preference for wealthy targets is a local preference: they prefer the wealthiest targets within the (deprived) area they are familiar with.

2.1.3.5 Victims

The lifestyles of potential victims play a major role in increasing or reducing their risk of victimisation. This is so because to commit their offence burglars mostly depend on the times that residents are away from home. A major predictor of burglary victimisation is the

proportion of time during which a property is unoccupied (Tseloni et al., 2004). Renters (as opposed to homeowners) and unemployed residents also elevated burglary risks, but the reason is unlikely to be related directly to the amount of time their houses are unoccupied. Although the issue is not reported extensively in the literature, some results suggest that burglary is not always a crime directed against anonymous victims (Shover, 1991).

2.1.3.6 Items

If the victim is not the target of a burglary, it is the item to be stolen that is the ultimate focus of greedy crime (Wellsmith & Burrell, 2005; Hearnden & Magill, 2004). Police records and victims' surveys show that the most frequently stolen items are cash, jewellery and portable electronic gear such as cell phones, camera's, audio and video equipment, computers, game consoles and television sets. Most of these items would fit the CRAVED model (Clarke, 1999) of 'hot products', i.e. products that have attractive features for thieves in general and burglars in particular. CRAVED is an acronym that indicates that attractive theft targets are Concealable, Removable, Available, Valuable, Enjoyable and Disposable. Money is the ultimate CRAVED item.

2.1.3.7 Temporal distribution

Like all human behaviour, the commission of burglary is subject to temporal cycles, and its frequency may depend to some extent upon the time of the day, the day of the week and the season of the year. Because burglars tend to avoid confrontations with residents and prefer unoccupied targets, the exact timing of a burglary is often unknown: it is typically discovered when the residents find their place burgled on returning home. The timing of burglaries is specified in police records using a time window that reflects when residents left their homes and when they returned (Ratcliffe, 2002). According to the NCVS (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006), in 2005 in 28 per cent of the burglaries the victims or the police have no idea about the time of day the burglary was committed, while among the other incidents' daytime burglaries (between 6 am and 6 pm) are slightly more common (53 per cent) than night time burglaries (47 per cent).

2.1.4 Responses to burglary

2.1.4.1 Types of burglary prevention

Interventions that combine short- and long-term strategies, by and large, appear to have the most influence on the offending. The same thought applies for the intervention where theory and implementation were thought through and complemented each other (Millie & Hough, 2004). Residential burglary techniques that are described below were chosen by the researcher due to the fact that they are mostly used in police work. Sorensen (2007) points out, however, that despite the fact that situational crime prevention in the form of target hardening and neighbourhood watch is widely used to prevent residential burglary, there is little evidence of it being particularly effective. This is due to absence of proper evaluation of these techniques.

2.1.4.2 Marking property

Property-marking efforts have had mixed results. According to Rossmo (2008), it is difficult to get citizens to have their property marked, this response appears to be most effective when combined with extensive efforts to enlist participation, and with extensive media warnings to burglars that disposing of marked property will be more difficult, or that its value will be reduced. As part of this response, police must ensure that recovered property is carefully evaluated to detect marking. Property can be marked with bar codes, engraving, dyes and etching liquids, labels, and electronic tags. In some initiatives, citizens post window decals to warn potential burglars that their property is marked.

2.1.4.3 Protecting repeat victims

Repeat victims account for a large proportion of residential burglaries and because subsequent offenses occur so quickly after the first burglary prevention strategies targeting this group have tremendous potential for reducing crime. According to (Tseloni et al., 2004), a range of burglary prevention efforts in Britain have been effective in reducing re-victimisation, but most of these but most of these efforts have focused on public housing, rather than the detached single-family houses addressed in this guide. It is reasonable to believe, however that crime prevention strategies targeting repeat victims would have similar positive effects in South Africa.

Households with prior victimization are easily identified via police offense reports. Residents once victimized are highly motivated to comply with crime prevention advice. Programs targeting repeat victims have employed a range of prevention measures, such as: Poor-quality offense data premise miscodes, incident coding errors, missing information, and the like may impede identification of repeat offenses (Tseloni et al., 2004). A major data "cleaning" is necessary to make data reliable.

Miethe and Meier (1990) suggested that social guardianship, which is having more than one person living in a residence, has a higher chance to prevent burglary than physical guardianship, e.g. extra locks and alarms. In order to reduce the chances of burglary, individuals living alone should fluctuate the times when they are away from home to create a versatile schedule. The same applies to people living with someone else, the best one can do is not to have any clear set-in-stone schedule of daily activities. Wilcox et al. (2007) have done a study on the different dimensions of guarding (physical, personal, social, and natural) on both individual and neighbourhood levels. They have noted that on the natural guardianship (defensible space) and physical guardianship (target hardening) appear to be the most crucial parts in recognising the importance of burglary victimisation. They also point out that crime prevention strategies are best working when they attempt to prevent crime on both the individual and community level.

According to a study by Tseloni, Thompson, Grove, Tilley, and Farrell (2014), which examined the effectiveness of burglary security devices, there is evidence that extra locks and external lights individually are the most effective. The alarms, surprisingly, appear to offer less protection than having no security measures at all. When combined, extra door or window locks together with either security chains or external lights offer the best protection. The combination of other security measures offers better security than their sum.

Neighbourhood watch can include residents of a neighbourhood of changeable size (everything from one street to several blocks to a small village) that wish to prevent crimes, such as burglary or vandalism, in their area through a constant supervision and reporting any suspicious activity to the police (Mawby, 2013). The goal of neighbourhood watch is to reduce crime and increase the safety of residential areas through increased attention from the residents in the area and knowledge of possible security measures.

Neighbourhood watch has three major problems. The first one is that it is more affluent in the areas that might need it the least, that is, low crime middle class areas. The areas that require this sort of prevention are least likely to receive them, and the ones who would need this sort of program are not likely to join it even if available (Mawby, 2013; Shover, 1991). The second problem concerns the implementation of this measure, because what it entails exactly is unclear. The rules of neighbourhood watch vary from place to place, making comparison hard, and it might even change throughout the years. Keeping neighbourhood watch in working order is a hardship as well, due to the dwindling of enthusiasm from the residents or high people turnover in the area (Mawby, 2013). The affectivity of this method is its third problem, because it only seems to affect the sense of security, rather than the actual crime rate (Mawby, 2013). Neighbourhood watch programs are mostly ineffectual due to the fact that many people do not want to participate.

2.1.4.3 Targeting repeat offenders

Police often know who repeat offenders are. Surveillance of stolen-property outlets, such as pawnshops, can identify them. Townsely et al. (2015) stated that some police have conducted observations and curfew checks of offenders under court supervision. Truancy reduction initiatives may be a component of this strategy. Given the high rates of recidivism, burglars are likely to reoffend. In one study of primarily semidetached dwellings arresting repeat offenders (and hardening targets) resulted in a 60 per cent decline in burglaries (Walker et al., 2006). Targeting repeat offenders has produced more indictments and convictions, and longer sentences.

2.1.4.4 Disrupting stolen-property outlets

Pawnshops have historically been outlets for stolen property, but their popularity has declined in recent years due to the use of hot sheets circulated by police; mandatory photographing of pawnors; requirements that pawnors provide identification, and that pawnshops record the information; and factory stamped identification or owner-marked identification on products such as televisions and other electronic equipment (Townsely et al., 2015). In cases of recurring thefts of specific property (such as laptops), more extensive property marking (such as Smart Water or genetic fingerprinting) or tracking equipment may be used to monitor theft and stolen property's end destination. Recurring thefts may also point to repeat burglars. Smart Water is a concealed dispenser of indelible dye that can be used with a silent alarm. It may be best used

to target repeat offenders or high-risk locations. A range of strategies can be used to disrupt markets for stolen goods, especially hot products, primarily by reducing the number of markets available. Such strategies include targeting fences and publicizing arrests for selling stolen goods.

2.1.4.5 Providing substance abuse treatment

Because substance abusers may resort to burglary to finance their habits, providing targeted treatment may result in a decline in offenses. According to Wellsmith and Burrell (2005) in Merseyside, England, providing methadone treatment reduces burglaries. The relationship between drug use and property offenses is well established. Early studies of police crackdowns on drugs especially heroin showed dramatic declines in burglary (Wellsmith & Burrell 2005). Other drugs have been more closely associated with violent crime, substance abuse treatment both voluntary and involuntary demonstrate declines in criminal activity, declines that remain after completion of treatment.

2.1.4.6 Improving patrol response to burglaries

In a study by Weisel, 2004, in-progress calls accounted for 10 percent of all reported residential burglaries; in 90 percent of those cases, the police did not apprehend an offender at or near the scene. Of the offenders apprehended after an in-progress call, 43 percent were caught at the scene, and 34 percent were caught based on information witnesses provided. In this study, faster and two-unit responses to in-progress calls resulted in the arrests of more offenders. Most burglaries, of course, are not reported in progress and police make most arrests based on the responding officer's initial actions. Cases should be screened to exclude those with low solvability.

2.1.4.7 Analysing crime patterns

Crime analysis is used to identify series, spatial and temporal patterns, type of property being stolen, and modus operandi patterns. Mapping is becoming particularly useful for detecting burglary patterns and examining local burglary problems. Since burglary is often neighbourhood-specific, maps should reflect neighbourhood boundaries and major topographical elements that effectively separate residential areas.

Some studies have suggested that crime mapping will help the police to identify “hot spots” and those areas of interest could then be monitored more often, especially at times of the day

when burglaries are believed to occur (Blake & Coupe, 2001). Braga (2001) reviewed nine studies on focused patrols. Seven of them were shown to have reduced crime in the target areas. However, none of the nine studies were specifically focused on reducing burglary. Critics of the focused patrols approach often point to the possibility of crime displacement (i.e., criminal activity moving to another location when the law enforcement patrols are present in a geographical area) and insist that research studies must test for possible displacement in order to be valid. Visiting burglarised properties more frequently, advising victims on target hardening and/or property marking, and alerting the immediate neighbours of victimised residences are some ways the police could implement to help reduce repeat victimisations.

A Cocoon watch program is one of several repeat victimization programs studied, but according to Sorenson (2003) only two out of five of the programs were successful at reducing burglary rates. Overall, the research reviewed on burglary prevention does not provide any “magic bullets.” Burglars seem to be numerous and resourceful, with newer generations continuously emerging. Different approaches have been proposed, some focusing on victims and residences, others on offenders, their *modus operandi* and societal factors. When multiple approaches are combined, however, the results are likely to be greater than when using a single approach. It appears that a more effective strategy for preventing burglaries would be to tackle each problem on multiple levels, working with individual households, as well as with community watch groups, and in the area of environmental design.

2.1.5 Effects of burglary at residential premises

Crime has significant, yet fluctuating results, on individual crime victims, their families and friends, and communities (Perry, 2004). The effect of crime on victims brings about emotional and mental, physical, money related, social and spiritual consequences. While there are no consistent findings about victims’ difficulties in adapting to the aftermath of criminal exploitation concerning statistic qualities, a victim’s capacity to adapt to the effect of crime relies upon a variety of factors (National Institute of Mental Health, 2006).

Waller (1984:23) argues that “trauma from residential burglary is one of the most frequent and forgotten in criminal justice and serious trauma will occur in approximately 1 in 20 cases”. The term ‘trauma’ is often used to describe the experiences of crime victims. Trauma refers to both a medical and a psychiatric condition. Medically, “trauma refers to a serious or critical bodily injury, wound, or shock. Psychiatrically, trauma has assumed a different meaning and

refers to an experience that is emotionally painful, distressful, or shocking, which often results in lasting mental and physical effects” (National Institute of Mental Health, 2006:2).

Short-term trauma happens during or immediately after the crime and goes on for around three months (Kilpatrick, 2000). This time frame for short term versus long term injury depends on a few studies indicating that most victims accomplish recovery at some point somewhere in the range of one to three (1-3) months after the crime. Some basic reactions to injury incorporate the accompanying: Few crime victims are foreseeing a violent attack as the crime happens, so most are shocked, surprised, and frightened when it occurs, Victims frequently have feelings of unreality when an assault happens and think, “This can't be happening to me”. People who have been victimised in the past are at more serious danger of developing emotional problems than newly victimised people. Victims “do not get used to” being crime victims. Many victims of crime depict encountering incredibly elevated levels of physiological nervousness, including rapid pulse, hyperventilation, and stomach distress and more often, crime victims regularly experience cognitive symptoms of tension, including feeling terrified, defenceless, guilty, or out of control.

Research studies with adults show that Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a regular response to violent crime (Resnick, 1993) Rates of PTSD are a lot higher among the individuals who have been victims of violent crime than the individuals who have been victims of different kinds of traumatic events. For instance, one study found that the lifetime prevalence of PTSD was 25.8 per cent among crime victims compared with 9.4 per cent among victims of other horrible accidents. Victims of crimes that brought about physical injuries, and who believed they may have been killed or truly harmed during the crime, were substantially more liable to suffer from PTSD than victims whose violations didn't include life danger or physical damage (45.2 per cent compared with 19 per cent). Rates of PTSD appear to be higher among victimised people who report crimes to the justice system than among non-reporting victims, most likely in light of the fact that these crimes are progressively genuine or bound to bring about damage. Proof shows that numerous crime victims with PTSD don't suddenly recover without treatment, and some crime victims experienced PTSD years after they were victimised.

Earlier, Maguire (1984) observed that “residential burglary produces a damaging impact on the health and peace of mind of a considerable proportion of victims”. The victims of burglary suffer more than victims of other property crimes because of the way that burglary includes interruption and infringement of generally safe territory. Altman (1975) distinguishes three

fundamental sorts of territories with which individuals come into contact. Primary territories, for example, the house, are viewed as of greatest significance to the individual while secondary territories, for example, the work place or neighbourhood streets, are described by less mental 'centrality'. Burglary is an attack on primary territory and represents an assault upon the victim's feeling of safety. Victims react depending on the individual, what has been stolen and the act of burglary itself. If not subtle, there are times when the burglar causes direct or indirect damage, destruction of property, or embarrassment. There are victims that don't feel stressed over stolen items since they could be easily replaced. Be that as it may, others could be so upset and worried if the items are of significant value.

Most researchers have described the psychological consequences of burglary in genuinely broad terms and have rarely included control information (Bowen et al., 2004). There is, however, justification for accepting that the eventual outcomes of burglary might be both pervasive and persistent (Norris and Kaniasty, 1992). One of the most frequently referred to studies of the emotional effect on victims of burglary is that of Maguire (1980). He investigated the responses of 322 victims to questions presented during an hour-long interview, "the majority" of such interviews being conducted between four and ten weeks after the occasion. Maguire (1980:118) detailed that on finding the burglary "the most common reaction was one of anger or annoyance (30 per cent); shock and general emotional upset were relatively frequent".

Bowen et al. (2004: 357) contend that "violence (and crime) influences communities from multiple points of view". It causes physical harm to individual residents; its presence in homes and on the streets brings about confinement and estrangement among a community's occupants; and it stigmatises and distances certain communities from standard society. The significant effects of violence and the fear of brutality in the public arena are connected to social and financial effects identified with development. As Moser (2004) states, urban violence as an improvement limitation dissolved the benefits of poor people and influenced their employment and prosperity. The advantages are physical, monetary, human, social, and natural. Besides, burglary dramatically affects individuals' prosperity in terms of employment security and the functioning of local institutions.

The effect of fear of crime relies upon people's involvement in it. Farrall et al. (2009) explored what the fear of crime implies as an ordinary encounter and what it communicates as a social attitude in the United Kingdom. They found that for the individuals who live in high crime

territories, and who may have had direct or indirect understanding of exploitation, fear was a solid and passionate, however brief, occasion. Then again, for the individuals who lived in regions which experienced little crime, “fear” was a ‘psychological state as opposed to mental occasion’ and a metaphor for different insecurities, for example, social attachment, social change, and neighbourhood ‘breakdown’.

Crime has high and diverse costs. The direct physical, material, mental, and emotional damage endured by victims of crime is miserable. Maybe considerably more tragic, in any case, is the indirect harm to society (Vila, 1994). Endeavours to control crime through the criminal justice system progressively interfere in our private lives. Individual freedoms are undermined as we repeatedly pick between public order and individual rights. Vila (1994) demonstrates that crime enhances doubt, encourages partiality, and for the most part corrupts social attachment. Individuals become more fearful, regularly detaining themselves in their own homes. Weapons are kept within reach, a knock on the door evokes fear, and an outsider needing help is disregarded. Any individual who has been burgled will realise that the effect of the crime runs far beyond loss of belongings. The money related effect of burglary can be significant for some individuals; however, the emotional pressure that originates from being burgled frequently keeps going for longer. Since numerous victims of crime feel that the police, courts or insurance agencies don't consider their encounters, the long-term impact can be serious.

According to Livingston (1996:14), “the victimization by burglary is indirect, whilst those of violent or personal crimes, such as rape and robbery, are direct and seem to have a greater psychological impact on their victims”, for example, in terms of depression, anxiety and phobias. Livingston (1996) also argued that the more indirect the link between cause and effect of a crime between criminal and victim, the weaker the public reaction will be. It is thus understandable that the media will give more prominence to burglary incidents that coincided with personal violence or assault. The victims of burglary suffer more than victims of other property crimes since burglary involves intrusion and violation of otherwise safe territory. The impact of burglary on the resident’s feelings of safety will vary from person to person, depending on how seriously they were affected by the burglary. According to Barkan (1997), female burglary victims are more likely than male victims to be afraid and upset, while male victims are more apt to be angry or annoyed after experiencing a burglary. Residents would tend to improve their security after the occurrence of a burglary with the aim to protect them against future burglaries, and to feel safe in the immediate environment.

Violent crimes are negative events that usually happen suddenly, generate fear and helplessness, threaten people's physical or psychological well-being and leave victims in an emotional state which they are unable to deal with using their normal psychological resources. Any kind of trauma – and a violent crime is a type of trauma for the victim – involves a collapse of the person's feelings of security, also affecting indirectly their immediate family circle. Apart from the suffering of the direct victim, the entire family structure is affected. Hanson, Kilpatrick, Falsetti, and Resnick (1995) assert that it is therefore relevant to examine the emotional reactions and consequences found in many people – mainly women and children – throughout long periods, and even throughout their entire life.

2.1.6 Intervention programs that have been put in place to curb burglary at residential premises

Community prevention refers to the ability of residents to work together to address crime problems haunting their communities. An example would be the Neighbourhood Watch program, which is based on the idea that community members can watch over each other's dwellings and report any suspicious activity to the police. Another similar program is Cocoon Watch, which involves people paying attention to their immediate neighbours' properties, but not necessarily the entire community. Sorenson (2003) and Hope (1995) claimed that such programs do not seem to have any proven crime-reduction value. The main problem with neighbourhood-watch programs is that they are voluntary. They are likely to work in neighbourhoods where residents are already well-connected to each other but are unlikely to demonstrate much effectiveness in high-crime neighbourhoods already suffering from social disorganisation.

Weisel (2004) claimed that Neighbourhood Watch interventions work better when neighbours are mostly at home during the day and when participants follow the recommendations for target-hardening and property marking. Home prevention involves specific actions that residents can take to make their properties less vulnerable to burglaries. This can entail several different strategies, including target hardening, using mock occupancy indicators, increasing the surveillance of the property and using burglar alarms or security cameras.

As indicated by the Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) Statistics, U.S. Division of Justice (2009), 61.2 per cent of burglaries include forced entry, regardless of which deterrent is utilised. Utilising double-paned windows, deadbolt locks, and fortified doors, in any case, will

increase the effort required to break in as well as increasing the apparent risk for the burglar. Sorenson (2003) conducted a thorough survey of research in the U.K. and, the U.S. and, inferred that target hardening has substantial proof affirming its adequacy. Winchester and Jackson (1982) contended that occupancy and surveillance are more significant signals for burglars and target hardening will have constrained value. Social prevention includes conducting interventions into the lives of individuals, particularly potential or actual offenders, so as to decrease their propensity to commit burglaries.

The most commonly used mechanism involves the arrest and incarceration of burglars. The problem is that only about half of all burglaries are reported, two thirds of those charged are convicted, and only an eighth of the known offenses are cleared. This means there is about a 5% chance of a burglar being caught and sentenced (Weisel, 2004), because punishment is not swift, and far from certain, policy changes of increasing criminal sanctions are of dubious value.

Walker, Golden, and Ervin-McLarty (2006) found, that offenders on pre-trial or pre-incarceration bail commit a significant number of burglaries, in addition to other crimes. In view of this finding, there seems to be some value in debilitating specific offenders, if for no other reason than to physically prevent a particular individual from involvement in more crime for a brief time frame. Social prevention can also include long term systems, for example, increasingly liberal social welfare arrangements, intervention through early-youth projects, and drug and alcohol treatment programs.

Most experts who have studied burglary prevention advocate using a variety of approaches, rather than a single approach. Wilcox, Madensen, and Tillyer (2007) analysed survey data from 4 227 residents across 100 neighbourhoods in Seattle, Washington and found that when interventions on the community-level were combined with the interventions on the household/individual level, the aggregate effect was greater than each would have been alone. For example, target hardening of individual homes might be more successful if combined with modifications to the neighbourhood, such as clearing brush, better lighting at night, or other alterations which allow neighbours to easily see each other's properties. The latter is an example of "defensible space" or CPTED "Crime Prevention through Environmental Design." Taylor and Gottfredson (1986) took the CPTED concept a step further. They argued that environmental modifications alone will only have a small to moderate effect and that real change will occur only when more attention is paid to community dynamics and to how

residents' concern for their streets or immediate neighbours will translate to increased risk for offenders. If the police do have an important prevention role to play, it may be in preventing or reducing repeat victimisations.

2.1.6.1 Target hardening/guarding of property

In the last decade, the focus went from treatment of offenders and detection of crime to crime prevention. One of the types of domestic burglary prevention is guarding of property or target hardening (Mawby, 2013). Target hardening is a type of guarding that refers to its physical component. There are also such types as personal, social and natural guarding (Wilcox et al., 2007). I will mainly describe physical guarding, due to the fact that it is most recommended by the police in the examined area. "Target hardening is a term used to describe the process of increasing the security of a property to make it more difficult to burgle, thereby increasing the effort needed by the offender to gain entry to a property" (Hirschfield, Newton, & Rogerson, 2010: 321).

The aim of target hardening is to discourage the perpetrator from committing a burglary. This strategy has turned out to be efficient and has been adopted internationally. Target hardening entails securing one's home against the trespassers by installing additional locks, alarms, light sensors/timers or marking property. These measures of prevention have a certain impact on burglary levels. People who do not have any security measures installed are more likely to be burgled, nevertheless, it often happens that people who need it the most are the ones who cannot afford it, such as individuals from disadvantaged neighbourhoods (Mawby, 2013).

2.1.6.2 Neighbourhood Watch

Neighbourhood Watch can include residents of a neighbourhood of changeable size (everything from one street, several blocks to a small village) that wish to prevent crimes such as burglary or vandalism, in their area through a constant supervision and reporting any suspicious activity to the police (Mawby, 2013).

The goal of Neighbourhood Watch is to reduce crime and increase safety of the locations through increased attention from the community members in the area and information of possible safety efforts (BRÅ, 2015d). Neighbourhood Watch is certainly not an obvious police prevention system; however, it is framed and continued with help of the police. The Neighbourhood Watch in Sweden is built up in a joint effort with the police who help with

knowledge and data, as well as education for contact representatives often presented together with a representative from an insurance company and/or emergency service. Neighbourhood watch depends on a discourse and collaboration between the occupants and the police, with residents liable for maintaining it in working order.

2.1.6.3 Predictive policing

Predictive policing is a strategy used by the police. It uses specific explanatory strategies to outline so as to have the option to pinpoint targets in need of police intervention and to lessen and counteract crime. The goal is to discover strategies that will reduce criminality or render the efforts more successful. For something to be viewed as viable it must give unmistakable outcomes, for example, lower crime rates. This strategy is currently used in the USA; however, it is generally new to the rest of the world, with gaining enthusiasm for Europe (Police and Crime Commissioner for Essex, 2014). The motivation behind the technique is to incorporate past crime details, run them through calculations and distinguish future problem areas of specific crimes, for example, burglary, down to individual blocks or much smaller territories. Further enhancements in consistency of residential burglary, regardless of how little, will help the police resources in an effective manner (Johnson, Bowers, & Pease, 2012).

What makes predictive policing conceivable is the way that crime is statistically predictable. Crime is carried out according to a particular pattern that is disseminated in reality, generally offenders support specific sorts of crime if they were successful with those. Normally, it isn't generally the situation, a few culprits work outside of their comfort zone, however the reoccurrence is basic enough to attempt to work out a strategy for expectation. This procedure permits controlling the resources in a considerably more viable manner (Perry et al., 2013). Predicting where the crime will happen isn't actually new, it depends on statistical analysis. The thing that matters is that it utilizes specific calculations, however it isn't evident whether they are more valuable than the effectively utilized instruments (Gordon, 2013).

Certain difficulties ought to be viewed as when utilising predictive policing procedure, for example, strategic utility should be prioritized over accuracy of a prediction. Thus, a bigger territory in a risk zone might be more accurate, however it has lower practical utility. Data quality can create challenges, in this manner information of bad quality influences the convenience of predictions one can get. Predictive procedures are commonly not incredible at distinguishing the risk factors behind the assigned high crime areas; this must be done physically by a specialist. This model is there to help the police officers working with crime

reduction; however, it can't do anything without human assistance, predictions without any help won't lessen crimes. Not every police departments needs the most cutting-edge variant of this model, if there is not enough data, at that point there is no need for the model to be extensive.

More so, this program is costly and might not provide more results than any other similar methods, which is why, when acquiring it, one need to consider how much data will be processed in order to use the right software (Perry et al., 2013). Without the proper understanding of why the analysis is done and the data behind it, this technique will not yield much result (Perry et al., 2013). It is also unclear whether the information about possible crimes in an area police officers receive is a reason enough to stop a person for a search.

In response to the fear of crime and the apparent increase in robberies and burglary in residential locations, the development of enclosed neighbourhoods is viewed by numerous occupants as the best choice to avoid crimes (Landman, 2000). In the wealthier locations in South Africa there is an expanded propensity to close off neighbourhoods. The rationale behind the closure of neighbourhoods is to exercise control over vehicle traffic and the movement of individuals, particularly strangers that will serve as a deterrent for potential criminals to enter the area, out of fear of being watched and caught.

A distinction ought to be drawn between 'enclosed neighbourhoods' and 'security villages. As indicated by Landman (2000:3), "enclosed neighbourhoods refer to existing neighbourhoods where access control, through gates or booms across existing streets were introduced", and where in numerous examples, the places are additionally fenced or walled off. The streets within these areas are still open to the public, and the local authority is still liable for the provision of public services to the community within its limits. Then again, 'security villages' are private developments where the whole region is created by a private developer. These areas are physically walled or fenced off and have controlled access by ways of security guards. The infrastructure and maintenance thereof are overseen by a private administration body.

Other than in the case of 'enclosed neighbourhoods' where security is usually the main consideration, 'security villages' represent a new type of urban development, which, besides from improved security, also offer other benefits to the occupants such as higher estate values, private schools, open space, and recreational and sport facilities. Prior to an existing neighbourhood being closed off, the local authority must approve such a request or application. The problem in South Africa is that "no general policy exists specifically with regard to the

enclosure of neighbourhoods for security purposes” (Landman, 2000:13). Only a few local authorities have already developed their own policies or are in the process of formulating them.

The concept of ‘enclosed neighbourhoods’ is a fairly new in South Africa; hence, it is difficult to assess its effectiveness in crime prevention. However, some arguments indicate that, “in South Africa initial findings suggest that certain types of crime such as burglary and hijackings have decreased significantly in 'enclosed neighbourhoods” (Landman, 2000:20). Police statistics, however, demonstrated that police stations were consistently requested to attend to crime incidences within enclosed areas, which showed that these zones were not absolutely safe. A study by Blakely and Snyder (1997) on ‘encased networks’ in the United States indicated that at times a reduction in crime was reported, in different cases only temporary reductions were listed, and in some no changes happened. Professional criminals and syndicates probably won't be effectively hindered by wall and closed entrances, specifically for the reason that residents may build up a misguided sensation that all is well and good and turn out to be careless.

A reduction in vehicle traffic and pedestrian movement may similarly reduce natural surveillance, whilst strangers in the area might be acknowledged as being authoritatively allowed to the area. A common goal of most CCTV systems has been the prevention of crime and disorder through deterrence. It is also assumed that the CCTV will aid detection through its surveillance capability and the opportunity it may afford to deploy security personnel or police officers appropriately. Claims are also made that the CCTV provides public reassurance and therefore reduces fear of crime, which may, in turn, increase the use of public spaces (Bennett and Gelsthorpe, 1996). Tilley (1997) suggests that CCTVs may reduce crime as people are deterred from visiting CCTV-covered areas, believing them to be too dangerous). CCTV is also used as a site management tool, for example, to observe traffic patterns or for crowd control at football matches. CCTV may even indirectly increase trade and protect substantial property investments.

2.2 Conclusion

From the review of relevant literature, it appeared that social and environmental factors play a prominent part in elucidating criminal behavior within the South African context. For housebreaking specifically, it may be a combination of these influences paired with suitable

geographical characteristics which amplify the opportunities for this crime to exist so prevalently.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

There are several reasons which can explain why burglaries happen within communities. It is very difficult to identify one reason that explains why crime is committed, however, there are theories which explain those reasons and how communities can try to prevent or mitigate crime. The current study draws from three theories namely; Crime Pattern Theory, Rational Choice Theory, and the Strain Theory.

3.2 Crime Pattern Theory

The Crime Pattern Theory states that crime comprises specific examples. Focal components are the means by which individuals and other people who are included move in reality. This theory is associated with the Routine Activities Theory. According to Rossmo, 2008 three components of the Crime Pattern Theory are significant. These are nodes, ways and edges. Nodes are the places to where individuals travel and return. These may include places that cause wrongdoing or where wrongdoing is present. Each guilty party looks for opportunities for wrongdoing in or around his own personal nodes. This can be his very own or a companion's home, school or places to go out. Crime happens on the ways that are utilised for this. At the point when these two are consolidated, one can produce crime maps. The third component of the Crime Pattern Theory, edges, contains the edges of regions wherein individuals live and move.

Crime regularly happens at the Crime Pattern Theory's edges, where individuals meet one another. Mapping certain patterns and data makes it conceivable to reduce a few types of wrongdoing. Burglaries of dwellings have various examples, since guilty parties pick a particular dwelling and neighbourhood to carry out their wrongdoing. Numerous guilty parties live in the area of their victims and repeat victimisation regularly happens. This can occur at a house that is already burglarised, but also addition homes in the immediate condition. Wrongdoers definitely know the zone and layout of the dwelling (Felson & Clarke, 1998).

The Crime Pattern Theory endeavours to depict how criminal opportunities come to the consideration of a guilty party. Guilty parties may come into contact with criminal opportunities through their day by day exercises and consciousness of space, which may centre

on work, shopping or amusement. The Crime Pattern Theory propose that there might be environmental highlights in a neighbourhood that may draw offenders who don't live in the immediate region, however, may somehow or another be comfortable with or visit the territory (Eck & Weisburd, 1995). The Crime Pattern Theory is especially significant in building up a comprehension of crime and place since it consolidates discerning decisions and routine activities to help clarify the dissemination of wrongdoing across places. The distribution of wrongdoers, targets, handlers, guardians, and managers over time and place takes into consideration the prediction of crime patterns (ibid, 1995). This theory centres on how and why wrongdoing occurs in specific areas and at specific occasions. This focuses on the person in question and target set up and time with accentuation on the place of the criminal occasion. The criminal occasion can be comprehended with regards to individuals' ordinary developments through those places throughout the day, week and year. The distribution of wrongdoing in reality is non-irregular. Since criminal conduct is reliant upon situational factors, wrongdoing is designed by the area of criminogenic conditions.

Crime rates fluctuate from suburb to suburb and from road to road and may top at different occasions of the day, days of the week, and various weeks of the year. The reason for wrongdoing analysis in this manner is to distinguish and portray these crime patters, and to interface them to place (Wortley & Mazerolle, 2008). Crime at that point takes on a particular example and this example is to a large extent organised by geography and other 'fixed' conditions, for example, age and sexual orientation. Crime pattern scholars contend that it is conceivable to recognise crime patterns, and these are commonly linked to space and natural conditions.

Rossmo (2008) proposes an approach to utilising the Crime Pattern Theory and research in practical crime examination. It centres on the issue of sequential violent criminals to represent the manners by which guilty party searches can be utilised in conjunction with computer mapping abilities to recognize the likely home areas of violent wrongdoers. Exceptionally compelling is that Rossmo (2008) starts with the spatial example of the wrongdoing sites of a single wrongdoer and uses this data to find a small area wherein the guilty party is probably going to live or work. Use of the wrongdoer search theory and computerised mapping exhibits the utility of environmental criminology for extremely practical purposes. Rossmo's (2008) work makes a strong case in terms of the potential manners by which the Crime Pattern Theory and strategy, drawn from the best of scholarly criminology, can be brought to the grassroots level of crime prevention activities.

Lammers et al. (2015) analysed crime location choices as isolated decisions unaffected by the offenders' past crime experiences. For example, the initial study (Bernasco & Nieuwbeerta, 2005) included 548 burglaries committed by 290 offenders, but the authors essentially treated all burglaries as independent observations. Despite the fact that they adjusted for the downward bias in standard errors brought about by the reliance between numerous burglaries committed by the similar wrongdoer, their scientific strategies couldn't have distinguished whether the area of a past burglary influenced consequent burglaries. Prior to Lammers et al. (2015), two different studies analysed the impacts of past residential encounters (Bernasco and Nieuwbeerta, 2005). They showed that guilty parties, including thieves and business looters will in general target regions of prior occupation. The theoretical motivation for these studies was informed by the Crime Pattern Theory, specifically the idea of criminal awareness space, and how this may shape crime location decisions.

The Crime Pattern Theory suggests that crime is executed at those places and times where a motivated criminal's mindfulness space covers with the spatiotemporal circulation of appealing criminal chances. On account of burglary, it affirms that robbers must know about an area so as to have the option to pick it as a burglary target. Though the discerning Rational Choice Location theory centres on criminal chances and quietly expect that all burglars have full information of all potential objective territories, the Crime Pattern Theory stresses that guilty parties will have inadequate knowledge restricted to their own mindfulness spaces. Mindfulness space is characterised as the arrangement of places an individual routinely performs or has of late performed activities, the constant routes they take between these places and the zone within visual scope of these places and routes. Bernasco (2010) contended that current as well as past movement places attract guilty parties since they have valuable information of these areas and the encompassing areas. Because knowledge procurement takes time and repeated exposure, and on the grounds that it is liable to decay when not maintained, Bernasco (2010) proposed that the regime, term, and the proximity of past residential experience all positively influence the probability of picking a territory for burglary.

Utilising experimental information on burglary (and three different kinds of crime), these theorised effects were tested. All other thing being equivalent (i.e., controlling for different elements that would make an area attractive for all thieves in view of high advantages, low expenses, and low risk), burglars were seen as bound to burgle in a zone where they had lived before than in regions they had not. They were equally bound to burgle in a region where they had lived for a long period of time than in one wherein, they had lived recently, and bound to

commit a burglary in a zone where they had lived until recently than in one, they had vacated a long time ago.

Moreover, areas that burglars had never lived in were bound to be targeted if they were situated near a former home than those that were more distant away from their past homes. Burglars' mindfulness spaces clearly incorporate their previous home areas. They most likely incorporate other previous anchor points, for example, working environments, schools or companions' homes. Given that such past experience seems to influence guilty party area decision, it appears to be sensible to recommend that when the area of an imminent robbery is considered, the areas of a wrongdoer's past thefts may also be considered. In fact, they may be particularly salient, because they are likely to have been selected on the basis of the same considerations as the current or next offense. Eventually, past thievery areas might be exceptionally prescient of where a criminal chooses to offend next. As summarised in the following section, research on repeat and close to repeat victimisation supports this recommendation.

It has been exhibited that the danger of victimisation is raised among prior victims (Farrell and Pease, 2001). Somewhat, the raised risk may reflect that these repeat victimisations have highlights that pull in guilty parties. The underlying exploitation simply 'flags' the prior raised risk, however, it doesn't cause it. However, the fact that the elevated risk decreases fairly rapidly within weeks of the initial event suggests that the initial victimization temporarily "boost" the risk of victimization (Johnson, 2008; Pitcher & Johnson, 2011; Tseloni & Pease, 2003). A potential clarification of the phenomenon is that repeat victimisation is brought about by the return of similar guilty parties that executed the underlying wrongdoing. Effectively entering, exploring and burgling a property may provide a guilty party with the information and motivating forces to do it once more, as a result of an estimation that the owners would have replaced recently stolen items.

Empirical research on distinguished residential burglaries (Everson & Pease, 2001) exhibits that in a dominant part of repeat residential burglary; the same guilty parties are answerable for both the underlying and the subsequent burglary. More recently, the repeat burglary victimisation phenomenon has been summed up to incorporate 'near repeats'. Studies of near repeat victimisation show that the danger of burglary (and different offenses) is temporarily raised among prior victims, but also those nearby (Johnson, 2004). Once more, it has been recommended this can be explained by guilty parties coming back to their prior burglary locations or those close by. In fact, some near repeats might have started as repeats proper but

may have been uprooted to different properties in the region if the guilty parties found that the first burglary target was some way or another hindered, for instance, on the grounds that the residents redesigned security after the initial burglary. In terms of consistency in the *modus operandi* of near repeat burglaries, Bowers and Johnson (2004) recommended that repeat offending may likewise be associated with near repeat victimization. Research has shown that both repeat and near repeat burglaries are always brought about by similar wrongdoers coming back to previously targeted objects (Bernasco, 2008; Johnson et al., 2009).

The literature on repeat burglary victimisation and near repeat burglary victimisation indicates that guilty parties tend to come back to earlier targets. More precisely, they appear to be bound to focus on a property they as of late burgled than a comparable property that they didn't and bound to focus on a property in a region that they as of late chose for burglary than one of every area that they didn't choose previously. There is literature that also illuminate the inquiry regarding whether guilty parties return to recently targeted objects or areas, which dwells on social consistency in culpable conduct (Bennell, Mugford, Ellingwood, & Woodhams, 2014; Woodhams, Hollin, & Bull, 2007).

The purpose of studies on behavioural consistency in offending is to inform crime linkage systems, for example to figure out which unsolved crimes are probably going to be committed by similar guilty parties. These methods assume that guilty parties carry out offences in a predictable yet unmistakable manner, which implies that their own crimes are comparative, yet unique in relation to those of different guilty parties. While numerous kinds of consistency have been examined, spatial and temporal decisions (where and when guilty parties carry out wrongdoing) have been demonstrated to be more predictable and more particular than most different parts of sequential burglars' culpable conduct (Bouhana, Johnson, & Porter, 2014; Markson et al., 2010; Tonkin et al., 2012).

More precisely, burglaries committed by the same offender are found to occur closer to each other in space and time than those committed by different offenders. While performed from a crime linkage perspective, these findings are in line with those of Bernasco (2008) and Johnson et al. (2009) discussed above. Most research reviewed in the preceding sections has been based exclusively on police data. Burglars are alternative sources of information on how spatial choices are made. Offender-based research may include prisoners or active burglars. Usually, when offenders are interviewed, they are asked about their lives and burglary methods. Occasionally, offenders are asked to participate in quasi-experimental research of perceptions,

skills and strategies of ‘expert’ burglars by making a series of judgments (Nee and Meenaghan, 2006). Although the offender-based literature on burglary is comprehensive, not much is known about spatial learning and repeat burglary location choices.

3.3 Rational Choice Theory

Location choice model expands on previous work by Cornish and Clarke, 1986 that was inspired by the Rational Choice Theory, which claims that when individuals settle on choices, they pick the option from which they anticipate most utility (benefits less expenses, or joy minus pain). For a person who is motivated to commit a burglary and who must settle on where to commit it, Bernasco and Nieuwbeerta (2005) recognise advantages, expenses and risk as the contentions of the criminal’s utility capacity. The advantages of a burglary include material gains (items stolen) and perhaps at the same time insignificant addition (excitement, peer group status). Expenses include the time, costs and exertion it takes to make a trip to the burglary area, commit the burglary and to exchange stolen things.

Risk is a function of the probability and penalties associated with arrest, prosecution and punishment, as well as the probability and severity of injury in case of unexpected confrontations with victims or witnesses. Each potential burglary location (i.e., each choice alternative) is associated with characteristics that make it more or less profitable, costly and risky to burgle. Burglars thus have to make trade-offs when considering where to offend. Bernasco and Nieuwbeerta (2005) defined urban neighbourhoods as the alternatives, and thus examined the neighbourhood characteristics that affect a burglar’s choice of a neighbourhood in which to offend.

Considering the advantages, Bernasco and Nieuwbeerta, (2005) proposed that well off neighbourhoods would offer rich pickings, which makes them to be appealing to criminals. Interestingly, neighbourhoods described by elevated levels of guardianship (as showed by low population turnover and low ethnic heterogeneity) would be avoided because of the dangers in question. For comparable reasons, they contended that areas portrayed by more elevated levels of ethnic heterogeneity would be more appealing for non-local than local criminals. Seemly the costs, they contended that open neighbourhoods (found close by the criminal’s home) and neighbourhoods with available private properties would be more appealing than their counterparts.

Bernasco and Nieuwbeerta, (2005) further theorised that accessibility in terms of distance travelled would have a greater influence for juvenile burglars than for adults. A recent cross-national replication (Townshley et al., 2015) tested the same behavioural model using comparable data from The Hague, Netherlands; Brisbane, Australia, and Birmingham, United Kingdom. Its findings confirmed that across the study regions, burglars are attracted by nearby target areas that have many, in particular easily accessible targets. However, the study also revealed that these effects varied in magnitude across the three study regions (Townshley et al., 2015). The effects of other area characteristics even showed differences across the study areas in both sign and magnitude. Other studies of burglary location choice have extended the analytical framework and added further insights. Bernasco (2006) demonstrated how the model of Bernasco and Nieuwbeerta (2005) (which analysed 548 burglaries committed by 290 solitary burglars) can be adapted to include location choices of co-offending burglar groups but found no differences between solitary burglars and groups.

Clare et al. (2009) contended that distance alone insufficiently measures the costs associated with travelling between territories, since transport expenses are reduced by connectors such as transit lines that reduce travel time between origins and destinations and increased by 'boundaries, for example, wide streams that obstruct travelling between the regions they isolate. Note that a few frameworks may really work as both the connectors and boundaries. Main roads, for instance, facilitate transport between the areas situated along them, but since they can't be crossed effectively, they can restrain development between the territories they cut up. In a study of burglary location choice in Perth, Australia, Clare et al. (2009) found that without any doubt, the chosen streets and the Swan River that goes through the study area hindered burglary trips between territories isolated by these barriers, while the neighbourhood railroad line encouraged criminals to go between the regions on the rail line. Other infrastructural highlights may likewise impact area selections of criminals. An investigation in South-Africa demonstrated that the higher heights of potential objective territories seemed to reduce the danger of burglary victimisation (Breetzke, 2012).

3.4 Strain Theory

This theory was founded by French social scientist Emile Durkheim (1857-1917), to explain the breakdown of social norms that often accompany rapid social change. American sociologist Robert Merton (1957) drew on this idea to explain criminality and deviance in the United States of America. Robert Merton's theory argues that crime occurs when there is a gap between the

cultural goals of a society (e.g. material wealth, status) and the structural means to achieve these (e.g. education, employment). This strain between means and goals results in frustration and resentment and encourages some people to use illegitimate or illegal means to secure success.

The general strain theory, as the name recommends, suggests that people are at more serious danger of carrying out a wrongdoing when they experience strain, stress, or disappointment and that such violations are commonly dedicated “as a result of failed aspirations” (Brown, Esbensen and Geis, 2007: 281). Brown et al. (2007) aver that this theory is most appropriate in clarifying lower-class wrongdoings when strain is generally experienced because of monetary pressure. Moreover, it has been stipulated that “social conditions places pressures on individuals... and individuals respond separately to these conditions”, alluding explicitly to monetary weights. Basically, an individual may turn to illegitimate methods for getting money if satisfactory methods are not accessible. In the South African setting, there obviously exists a high rate of joblessness and destitution. Van Zyl, Wilson and Pretorius (2003:107) argue “that joblessness and destitution can be straightforwardly connected to residential burglary”. A negative improvement likewise causes strain in people. It works exclusively on financial depression being the fundamental factor that drives individuals to wrongdoing. By financial depression, one would contend that the economy has turned out to be feeble and the poor have turned out to be less fortunate, which at that point places neediness as a solid pushing variable to wrongdoing. In this occurrence, individuals become stressed because of the rate of joblessness and the way that they can't provide their families.

3.5 Conclusion

These three theories have relevance to the current study on crime because they evaluate all the causal factors that transpire in a community affected by burglary as a crime. They are effective in modern day society and can effectively put into perspective the basis of crime with relation to the environmental, social and socio-economic state of the society. The next chapter is the methodology.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Research methodology plays an important role in influencing knowledge, policy development and social change. This chapter focuses on presenting the research design and empirical methods used to collect the data required which are the sampling methods as well as the data collection and analysis techniques employed. The chapter is structured in the following manner; location of the study, research design, research paradigm, sampling (selection of participants), data collection, data analysis, ensuring trustworthiness, ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

4.2 Location of the study

This study was conducted in Cato Crest, which is one of the numerous informal settlements under the administration of eThekweni Municipality. Cato Crest is a section of the broader Cato Manor, an impoverished township situated approximately five kilometres west of Durban City Centre. It is viewed as one of the criminal centre points in the KwaZulu-Natal Province (Xulu, 2006). The township was named after Durban's first Mayor, George Christopher Cato. In 1843 the land which later became Cato Manor was given to him as remuneration for another bit of land recently utilised for military purposes. It was additionally proposed as a reward for his long years of individual devotion to community service and acknowledgment as Durban's first Mayor in 1865. Cato Manor Township is to a great extent occupied by common labourers; black Africans with numerous social difficulties (Allan, 2006)

As indicated by the South African Police Services (SAPS), and verified by community reports, armed robbery, housebreaking, assault and attack are four priority violations in Cato Manor (SAPS, 2017). Violent crime is a feature of everyday life for individuals living in both Cato Manor and Cato Crest informal settlement. The high rates of joblessness and neediness are the key factors that are likely to cause wrongdoing in Cato Manor. Education levels in Cato Manor are low with 12 per cent of the residents being illiterate, 12 per cent are barely functionally literate and 20 per cent are educated between grades five and seven. Only 2 per cent of the population has a post-matric qualification. In terms of employment, 44 per cent of the economically-active population is employed, while 29 per cent is unemployed. A total of 6 per

cent more women than men are employed. Overall, 76 percent of residents were living in informal houses such as traditional houses, shacks or tents (Goodenough, 2006).

The researcher's interest in this area began when they were doing voluntary work at the Cato Crest community hall under a voluntary non-governmental organization (NGO) called Ikamva Lethu, which was educating the community about crime. The community members raised a lot of concerns about how burglary was escalating in the area and nothing was done about it. Thus, the researcher saw the importance of conducting research on communal responses to burglary in this area.

4.3 The research approach

A qualitative approach was adopted in conducting this study. This approach is appropriate to the study aim, which is to describe and comprehend human behaviour instead of clarifying it. It additionally has the centre motivation of understanding how individuals see a specific issue and how they feel about it. The qualitative research approach empowered the researcher to comprehend the participants' points of view, encounters and feelings about burglary in the Cato Crest vicinity. Qualitative research esteems words more than numbers; it is inductive, interpretative and constructionist, implying that the gathered information is the result of associations between people (Bryman, 2012). Qualitative research is concerned about the emic point of view which aims to investigate the thoughts and perceptions of the participants (Babbie & Mouton 2001).

Since the aim of this study was to explore Cato Crest community members' perceptions of burglary, an interpretivist approach was most suitable as it enabled participants to share their personal stories emanating from lived experiences, their emotions and subjective viewpoints. It also enabled participants to provide detailed accounts of their perspectives on the phenomena at the heart of a study through a dialogue between the researcher and the participant.

4.4 Research paradigm: An interpretivist approach

According to Durkheim (2006:40), "paradigms go about as points of view that give a method of reasoning to the exploration and submit the scientist to particular methods of information accumulation, perception and understanding". The researcher utilised the interpretivist paradigm. Thomas (2003) maintains that qualitative methods are normally supported by interpretivists. This is particularly important, given that the interpretive paradigm depicts a

world wherein the truth is socially developed, complex and regularly evolving. Creswell (2009:4) states that “qualitative research is a method for exploring and understanding the significance people or groups credit to a social or human issue”. Subsequently, if the researcher is looking for understandings and encounters of individuals, qualitative methods are probably going to be used.

As indicated by Willis (2007), interpretivism usually seeks to comprehend a specific situation, and the core belief of the interpretive paradigm is that truth is socially constructed. Interpretive research is more subjective than objective. Thus, interpretive researchers do not look for the solutions to their questions in inflexible manners. Rather, they approach the truth from subjects, ordinarily from individuals who claim their encounters and are of a group or culture and in this occasion the researcher approached individuals from Cato Crest region as they were the ones who were confronted with the risk of burglary.

The acknowledgment of numerous perspectives in interpretivism regularly prompts an increasingly complete understanding of the circumstance (Klein & Meyers, 1998; Morehouse, 2011). This will altogether encourage researchers when they need 'in-depth' and 'insight' data from a given population as opposed to statistics. Interpretivism was appropriate in this instance since it gave the researcher the platform to elicit in-depth knowledge on the nature, cause, impacts and the intervention programmes seeking to mitigate burglary in Cato Crest.

4.5 Sampling

As indicated by Terre Blanche et al. (2006:49), “sampling is the selection of research participants from an entire population and includes decisions about which individuals, settings, events, behaviours, as well as social processes to observe”. It is difficult to incorporate everyone, which is why there is a need for sampling. For the sampling to be applicable to the research questions, purposive and snowball techniques, which are both non-probability sampling strategies were utilised. As indicated by Marlow (2010), purposive sampling is a procedure which is reasonable for specific cases. It is used to improve understanding of selected group encounters, and snowball sampling technique expects that a ‘bond’ or ‘connection’ exists between the underlying example and others in a similar objective populace, enabling a progression of referrals to be made within a circle of colleagues (Berg, 1988). Thus, snowball sampling includes primary information sources assigning another potential primary

information source to be used in the research. As it were, snowball testing technique depends on referrals from initial subjects to generate extra subjects.

Consequently, when applying this sampling technique individuals from the sample group are recruited by means of chain referral. For this study, the researcher recruited a sample of 15 participants who were either community members or community leaders of the Cato Crest informal settlement. In soliciting data using purposive sampling the researcher approached the community councillor and other community leaders and in soliciting data using snowball sampling the researcher was referred by the councillor to a community member and the data collection continued through chain referrals by community members. The qualities of the required sample included: community members who lived in lower socio-economic areas of Cato Crest in Durban, community leaders, and a significant number of male and female participants. The purpose behind including both male and female members in the study was that the study intended to understand perspectives and responses of both sexes, which may be different or vary in degree and intensity. Participants included were either victims or non-victims of residential burglary. The reason for including the two categories (victims and non-victims) was to build up an understanding of the perspectives and responses of participants holding distinctive interpretive frames and good reference points created on burglary. Some potential participants were however, not interviewed because of time and resource constraints. The effect of this on the credibility of the study was remunerated by reaching saturation on the information obtained from accessible participants.

4.5.1 The researcher as the key instrument

The level of researcher involvement in qualitative interviewing is indeed the embodiment of the unique role of the researcher as the instrument for qualitative data collection (Cassell, 2005; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Turato, 2005). Data collection techniques involve observation and interviewing that bring the researcher in close contact with the participants. Thus, the qualitative researcher takes an interactive role where he or she gets to know the participants and the social context in which they live. Researcher as an instrument entails that the researcher is an active participant in the research process. Researchers use their sensory organs to grasp the study objects, mirroring them in their consciousness, where they are then converted into phenomenological representations to be interpreted. It is through the researcher's facilitative interaction that a conversational space is created, that is a place where participants feel safe to share stories on their experiences and life worlds (Owens, 2006). The researcher in this instance

developed the research topic, questions and identified keywords. The researcher took part in collecting and analysing data by means of conducting interviews, writing, organizing, and communicating information to the participants.

4.5.2 Entry into the field

The researcher had to obtain permission from various gatekeepers to conduct the study in the Cato Crest informal settlement. Firstly, the researcher applied for permission and received a gatekeeper letter from the ward councilor of Cato Manor which is under the Umkhumbane District. Secondly, the researcher had to apply for ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. A letter of approval (Protocol reference number: HSS/0803/018M) was received which authorized, inter alia, the sampling phase of the research project.

For this study, the researcher recruited a sample of 15 participants who were either community members or community leaders of the Cato Crest informal settlement. The community leaders were selected because most of the burglary cases were reported to them before the police is alerted and they were part of the Neighbourhood Watch programme which the community formed. The community members were selected because of their experiences or risk of burglary. The researcher began the recruitment process on the 17th of January 2019 using purposive and snowball sampling. In recruiting the desired participants, the researcher was assisted by the councilor of the Cato Crest area who referred the researcher to the relevant community leaders. Subsequently, the community leaders referred the researcher to the community members who were known to be affected by burglary. As the participants were unknown to the researcher, it was necessary to present the topic to them, as well as introducing the researcher and giving a general background and purpose of the research study.

4.6 Data collection method

Qualitative research techniques are concerned with looking for participants who can give rich information about their natural environments, enabling outcomes to be more descriptive instead of being calculated (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The qualitative research procedure enables the researcher to hear the viewpoints of the participants as well as watch and interpret non-verbal communication. Participants' lived encounters can incorporate disputable or sensitive information which needs the researcher to be equipped with the suitable skills (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Data collection for this study depended on semi-structured interviews

conducted on an individual (one-to-one) basis. It combined a lot of pre-determined inquiries that empowered the interviewer to explore further specific themes and reactions. The semi-structured interview was suitable for this study since it took into account a free and open dialogue with the interviewees and gave the researcher an opportunity to acquire in-depth information about the burglary concerns in the area. This took into consideration an incredible level of flexibility and incited participants to talk about issues that were important to this research study. In undertaking research, ethical considerations assumed a significant role. This research ensured anonymity, confidentiality and privacy by using pseudonyms, Informed consent was and obtained from the participants prior to each interview session.

All interviews were recorded using a digital audio recorder. Permission was obtained from the interviewees to audio record the conversations. The advantage of using a digital audio recorder is that “it allows the researcher the opportunity to listen to the flow of discussion and the exact vocabulary used by informants” (Activist Guide to Research and Advocacy, 2003:74). Audio recording allowed the researcher to capture all the information that was relevant to the study. Once all the information was recorded, the researcher transcribed the completed interviews.

4.6.1 Interview guide

An interview guide is a list of questions that was created prior to the interviews to aid with the process. It allows the researcher to stay on topic while the interviewee has enough leeway to answer freely. The interview guide was generated after a thorough literature search was conducted, and this helped the researcher to generate knowledge that is relevant to filling the knowledge gap and avoiding reduplicating previous studies. One does not have to follow the guide to the letter nor ask questions in any precise order. Thus, the interview guide is just there to serve as a provision while allowing for flexibility (Bryman, 2012). Leading questions are a trap that should be avoided while devising one’s interview guide, unless they are there on purpose (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Semi-structured interview type was chosen in this instance because it allowed the researcher to concentrate on the specific information on residential burglary.

4.6.2 The layout of the interview guide

The interview guide for the semi-structured interviews consisted of several major parts. The first part included the background questions about their work experiences, age, and occupation. The second part had questions about the general burglar-kind and the dominant one in their

area. The third part consisted of general questions that were more pertinent to the specific police area and the issue of residential burglary in that area. Part fourth section included detailed questions about the intervention itself. The last part consisted of various questions that had to do with possible prevention efforts to mitigate residential burglary. The guide is concluded with an open-ended question which inquires whether there was anything that was left out.

4.6.3 Time frame and place

The interviews were conducted in English and IsiZulu to accommodate the different participants. The duration of the interviews ranged from 45 to 60 minutes each, depending on how much information was given by the participant. Since the study aimed at eliciting rich qualitative data, the researcher facilitated the semi-structured one-on-one interviews in an environment that was conducive to uninterrupted conversations between the participant and the researcher, which was their houses. The times of the interviews were allocated in consideration of the availability of each participant. A clear explanation of what the study was about was given before the interview commenced. The nature of the questions that would be posed was also highlighted prior to the signing of the informed consent form.

4.7 Data analysis

Verbatim (word for word) transcriptions of the data from the recorded discussions were done. Once the information had been transcribed in sequence, the following stage was to analyse data utilizing a system of qualitative analysis known as thematic content analysis. As indicated by King (2003), thematic content analysis is a procedure of analyzing data using themes emerging from the data. In this process, the researcher reads through the data and categorizes key thoughts and words into connecting themes and views. Making note of examples and subjects that are delineated in the data reinforces qualitative interpretation. It is the main way that the researcher can come up with logical clarifications that may address the objectives of the study.

The responses were coded into separate themes. Categorising the data into themes was done through thorough reading and re-reading of the transcripts and grouping similar information together. Data coding was done manually and entered on a word processing document. According to Attride-Stirling (2001), phrases in the collected data summarise the main themes in the data set. Thematic content analysis seeks to undo the themes prominent in a text at diverse levels and aims to enable the organising and portrayal of these themes (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

(a) Familiarisation and immersion

Data analysis begins before, continues during, but culminates after the data collection process (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006), this stage is critical in that the researcher immerses himself/herself in the data and pays attention to field notes and interview transcripts. The first step in analysis is to become familiar with the topic and to become immersed in the data (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). This process began when the researcher listened to the audio recordings so that they could transcribe the data which also included translating the audio recordings.

Transcribing and translation also form part of familiarisation because they involve listening to the audio recordings repeatedly. The researcher continued with immersion by reading and re-reading the transcripts generated through the semi-structured interviews with the intention to listen to cues that could have been missed and to identify various topics embedded in the data. The researcher brainstormed ideas as they went over the transcripts and notes and made notes of the themes that emerged with the intention to categorize them at a later stage (presentation of findings stage). This made it easier for the researcher to be able to quickly and efficiently find the relevant information as they knew what to find and where to find it.

(b) Inducing themes

Once the researcher had familiarised with and immersed herself in the data, they started to develop themes and sub themes. This required the researcher to search for recurring content that emerged from reading the transcripts. These were then grouped into sub themes. The themes were arranged in a manner that resembles narrating, in that it flows and links from one theme to the next. This comprised of grouping similar, repeating data and putting it under an umbrella theme. Information which did not fit under any of the themes was excluded.

(c) Coding

After the theme inducing stage, the researcher continued with the data coding process. However, this procedure had already started during theme induction. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) affirm that data coding should not be separated from the process of developing themes. According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006), coding includes checking various areas of information as being instances of, or applicable to, at least one of the themes. The researcher featured all the comparative responses or textual ‘bits’ in various colors and utilised

abbreviated capital letters for the themes recognized by their containing material that relates to the themes under consideration (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

(d) Elaboration

During this part of the process, themes more closely to catch the better nuances of implying that which may have been missed during the underlying coding stage (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). This is done by re-reading information and contrasting areas of content to gain a sense of whether they are adequately comparable or too extraordinary to be grouped together. Elaboration required the researcher to further immerse the self in the information with the receptiveness to recognize any inconsistencies or unexpected discoveries.

(e) Interpretation and checking

This last step in the analysis process refers to the reviewing and adjusting of the gathered data into proper and legitimized interpretations (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). This step required the researcher to return to the data and check in the event that they had missed any significant information or themes. Terre Blanche et al. (2006:144) propose that “the researcher should go through the interpretation with a fine-tooth comb and try to fix weak points”. The researcher re-visited the information to check whether they had missed any significant data and had the option to make the necessary changes. Re-reading of the information guaranteed the researcher that indeed, they had given the voices of the participants as much space as could reasonably be expected, which is significant in a qualitative interpretative and descriptive study. Besides, during this stage, the researcher additionally searched for any gaps, irregularities and logical inconsistencies. This was done through the researcher’s own reflections, peer review and member checks.

4.8. Trustworthiness

Ensuring the trustworthiness of a study is an indispensable part of qualitative research. Babbie and Mouton (2001:276) aver that “trustworthiness is dictated by asking how ‘an inquirer’ [can] convince their audience that the findings of an inquiry are worth focusing on or worth assessing”. Drawing on Guba and Lincoln (1994), Babbie and Mouton (2001) describe a trustworthy study as one that is credible, transferable, dependable and confirmable, and stress that these four measurements are interlinked. The researcher guaranteed the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of this study as follows:

4.8.1. Credibility

Credibility seeks to discover similarity between the constructed realities that exist in the minds of the participants in a given study and those that are credited to them (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). At the end of the day, the findings presented by the researcher must match the participants' encounters and what they shared during data gathering. Credibility can be accomplished through a few systems and in this study the researcher employed; member checks, peer review and persistent observation.

(a) Member checks

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:275), member checks “take place when we take the transcripts and analyzed texts back to the participants and check with them whether what has been constructed from the data is actually what they have said”. To ensure the credibility of this research study, the researcher engaged in member checks with the participants from whom data were collected from. This was done with three community leaders and 5 members of the community. During this process, the researcher checked with participants if the transcriptions and interpretations were accurate, by reading inserts from the discussion. This allowed the researcher to make corrections to the interpretations rather than to assume that they had understood.

(b) Peer review

Peer review is described as the evaluation of work by one or more people with similar competences as the researcher. Peer review was accomplished through the researcher engaging with the two supervisors. During this process, the researcher and the supervisors discussed the study in-depth and the supervisors scrutinized the questions and findings to check for validity, reliability and authenticity.

(c) Persistent observation

Babbie and Mouton (2001:277) describe persistent observation as “pursuing interpretations in different ways, engaging in constant and tentative analysis, looking for multiple influencers and searching for what counts and what doesn't count”. In this study, the researcher ensured this by not only being observant during the interviews but also by exploring the data further and focusing on the relevant aspects. During the interviews, the researcher was aware of non-verbal communication. This was noted down immediately after the sessions so as not to

interrupt or make the participants anxious. The observations assisted the researcher in making connections between what the participants were saying and what they were feeling. This enabled the researcher to be aware of any contradictions, inconsistencies and incongruencies.

4.8.2 Transferability

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:277), the term “transferability refers to the extent to which the findings can be applied in other contexts or with other respondents”. They further elaborate that qualitative researchers are “not primarily interested in (statistical) generalizations and believes that all observations are defined by the specific context in which they occur” (Babbie & Mouton 2001:277). Transferability involves the degree to "which the researcher's working hypothesis can be applied to another context" (Zhang & Wildemuth 2009:6). Thus, qualitative researchers do not claim that knowledge gained from one context will necessarily have relevance for another context or the same context in another time frame. To achieve transferability, qualitative researchers, use the strategies of purposive sampling and thick descriptions (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). This is to enables the readers of a given research report to form an informed opinion about the applicability of its findings to a different context that they may be interested in.

In this study, the researcher employed both strategies (use of strategies of purposive sampling and thick descriptions). As discussed above, this study's sample was purposely selected based on prospective participants' abilities to provide rich information in relation to the topic under investigation. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:277), thick descriptions occur when researchers provide “sufficiently detailed descriptions of data in context and [report] them with enough detail and precision to allow judgments about transferability to be made by the reader”.

4.8.3 Dependability

As indicated by Babbie and Mouton (2001), an inquiry must provide its audience with proof that if it somehow managed to be repeated with the same or similar participants in the same or similar setting, its findings would be comparable. To this end, Guba and Lincoln (1994) (cited to in Babbie and Mouton 2001) attest that a request review ought to be utilized. Gasson (2004:94) proposes that “clear and repeatable procedures concerning the manner in which we conduct the research be required to ensure the dependability of findings”. She suggests that

making explicit the process through which findings are derived is a useful way of ensuring their dependability.

4.8.4 Confirmability

Gasson (2004:93) proposes that “distortions regarding confirmability be minimised by the researcher making explicit assumptions and frameworks regarding research findings”. Confirmability is accomplished through the upfront explanation of a researcher's suspicions and potential biases. To guarantee confirmability and dependability, the researcher kept an audit trail. Other than the audio recordings and ethical documents, this also included observation notes, a reflexive diary, member checks, peer review and transcripts. Throughout this study, the researcher kept a reflexive diary where personal feelings and biases were entered. This helped the researcher to recall information that couldn't be captured on audio recording.

4.9 Ethical considerations

Ethics ensures that the research is conducted responsibly and that researchers have complied with the appropriate standards (Wassenaar, 2006). Thus, a research proposal describing the study and its methodology was presented to a colloquium which was approved by the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee; data collection did not commence until ethical clearance was provided by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee and the moral principles of autonomy and respect, non-maleficence, beneficence and justice proposed by Wassenaar (2006) were taken into account prior to, and during the research process. The researcher and study participants need to have a solid ground of understanding and co-operation. It is of paramount importance that the researcher is as transparent as possible about the aims and objectives of the study from the beginning. Before the data collection commenced, the researcher explained the dynamics of the data collection method to the participants and obtained their full consent to voluntarily participate in the study.

The autonomy of all people engaged with in a given study and the researcher's regard for the dignity of people ought to never be undermined. To guarantee the autonomy of and demonstrate the researcher's regard for the dignity of the participants in this study, informed consent was requested. Parties were informed about the purpose and aims of the research and that their

participation was voluntary (which incorporated their entitlement to withdraw from the study at any time), that no payment would be offered, as well as requesting their consent to audio record the sessions.

Wassenaar (2006) contends that no harm should befall research participants, either as a direct or indirect consequence of the research. To this effect, the researcher emphasized confidentiality with the participants by including a confidentiality clause in the informed consent form. Furthermore, the researcher also reiterated this point verbally during the interviews. In this dissertation, confidentiality of research participants is maintained by use of pseudonyms. The researcher also used pseudonyms for names of places.

Wassenaar (2006:68) also contends that, “justice requires that researchers treat research participants with fairness and equity during all stages of research”. This includes fair selection of participants, provision of support to participants who may become distressed during the study and meaningful benefits to the community. Participants were selected fairly through a combination of purposive and snowball sampling. The researcher also took care to treat all participants with fairness and equity during the interviews.

4.10 Conclusion

Research in modern times is increasingly used to explore social reality. It is therefore applied in many methodological contexts with each having a specified purpose. This chapter outlined the selected design that was utilized in the investigation of this topic which addressed the fundamental objectives of the research in a methodologically relevant manner. It also depicted the motivation for selecting the methods explained above. This methodology was selected with the aim of effectively addressing the qualitative objectives and research questions that guided the study. The next chapter presents the findings, analysis and discussion.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on presenting an analysis of the data obtained during the course of the study, drawing out findings, and elaborating on them through a discussion. In this chapter, all the verbatim quotations from the participants are presented in italics and are block indented. Individuals are not identified by name in keeping with the policy of anonymity discussed in the previous chapter and for reasons associated with ethical considerations already outlined in the previous chapters. While many of the themes overlap, the discussion has been clustered in terms of the objectives and aims outlined in Chapter One.

5.2 Residential burglary

A commonly used legal definition of housebreaking is provided by Milton (1996:792) as “Housebreaking with intent to commit a crime consists in unlawfully breaking and entering some building or structure with intent to commit some crime in it”

Table 5.2.1 Themes and sub themes

Themes	Sub Themes
1.Nature of burglary	a) What time does burglary usually happen? b) What are the contributing factors to burglary in this area
2.Responses to burglary	a) What is the emotional and physical impact that have people experienced? b) What are some of the security measures implemented to avoid burglary?

3.Effects of burglary on the victims and the community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Is there any difference between how males and females are affected? b) Are there any support groups needed after a burglary has occurred? c) Is there a need to be with someone after a burglary has occurred?
4.Intervention programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Are there any intervention programs to curb burglary in this area? b) Are the programs effective?

5.3 The nature of burglary at residential premises

The nature of residential burglary involves physical contact, usually of a violent or threatening nature between criminals and their victims. Such violations typically cause enormously genuine and often lingering sometimes permanent or even fatal physical, mental and material harm to the victims, leaving deep rooted scars on the soul of South African society and, for that matter, on the nation's economic prosperity (South African Police Service, 2009).

Most participants indicated that residential burglary was getting more violent because victims were assaulted and threatened in the event of such a crime happening. It was also outlined that burglary could be extremely traumatic. They also mentioned that burglary would often take place at their comfort zones, their houses.

The rate at which burglary is escalating is on another level, and it is threatening. It affects you either physically or emotionally. It scars a person making them sceptical and people don't feel safe anymore. Even when you are inside the house, you are forced to lock up earlier and take more precautions. This crime is escalating, and you start doubting even the security measures installed in the house (Ngiba: community leader).

The nature of burglary in the residential areas raised different questions about the burglary itself. The researcher took note of the nature of burglary in the Cato Crest area which was explained by the community members and the community leaders. The next participants said this about the nature of burglary in this area:

The rate of burglary has escalated to another level in this area, and this is caused by the rate of unemployment. Most of the youth in the area are unemployed, while some of them are school dropouts so for them to afford life or to feed their families, they turn to burglary (Ngcobo: community leader).

Most of these criminals are called “Amaphara”, and they are always under the influence of drugs, and this makes them brave enough to enter people’s houses (Makhathini: community leader).

Some of the participants highlighted that burglary is of a serious nature. They went further to state that the crime is not fair on victims because a person would work hard to own properties, then someone just comes and takes it. Some felt that people can die from such a crime and lamented that people who do such crimes as burglary are selfish.

Burglary is not a crime that only affects this area; it is a problem to the country as a whole. The issue of burglary is affecting our area in the way that the youth are uncontrollable. Over the years, it is getting more violent and victims are assaulted and threatened (Dube: community leader).

Some participants explained further on how these burglars get access to people’s houses. These participants said this regarding accessing people’s houses:

The burglars believe that if they burn CDs, we fall asleep and fail to hear what will be happening in the house. Perpetrators can be very aggressive, especially when they come in contact with the victim. There is use of weapons most of the time, especially if we come in contact with the perpetrator’s face, and it can also lead to us being injured, either by being stabbed or beaten up by the burglars (Mchunu: community member).

The burning of CDs is a new finding. Many people would not think that burning something on the door of another person will make them sleep to the extent of not hearing what is happening in their surroundings.

Research has revealed that residential burglars typically commit housebreakings in surprisingly close proximity to their own homes (Bartol and Bartol, 2011; Ratcliffe, 2003). This is logically so because travelling long distances is an undesirable process for residential burglary. Secondly, it emerged that travelling in unfamiliar territory is generally avoided. Participants were in support of this, one of them was quoted saying:

Each time we catch a burglar, we discover that the person is well known to the community. These criminals need easy and fast cash so they would not go somewhere far because it will cost them their time and they would not want to go to a place which they are not familiar with, as they fear what might happen to them if ever they get caught (Hlongwa: community member).

5.3.1 The times during which burglary often occur

It is generally held that the majority of housebreakings takes place during the day time (Bartol and Bartol, 2011; Gilbert, 2010). The logic behind this inference is that perpetrators of housebreaking are rational in their approach towards targeting their potential victim(s) and will, along these lines cautiously predetermine a target associated with low risk, rather than behaving impulsive. Therefore, day time hours are determined as the ideal timeframe during which to perpetrate a housebreaking due to homeowners normally taking care of their everyday occupations and ongoing exercises. Given that burglary is a passive crime, the offender will always choose times and places that will limit the probability of an encounter with victims.

Participants believed that burglary happens at the time convenient for the criminals. These criminals consider a lot of things before going to a stranger's house. The first participant was of the view that:

Burglary happens any time of the day in this area, because the people, around here are familiar with this particular area and they know the routines of those residents living in this area (Makhathini: community leader).

The perpetrators obviously weigh their options before going to an area to commit a burglary. In this instance, the perpetrators would familiarise with the resident's daily routine. They know the time the victim would leave the property and the times they come back. Therefore, it is easy for them to commit burglary when they know the movements of the victims.

The other participant was of the view that:

I have observed a lot about these criminals as I am always at home because I am unemployed now. These criminals prefer to enter our houses during the day as they know that most of the houses here will be unoccupied. They are so calculative in their moves because they avoid being in contact with the occupants (Mangwe: community member).

Some of the participants felt that it depends on the security and safety measures installed at a certain household because some households are difficult to access be it during the day or at night time. The other participant shared the following:

Though the houses in this area are so close to each other, some other houses have multiple locks, something which makes the criminals to think twice before going inside. Some of the community members would leave their houses unlocked or windows open when they go to work which makes it easy for the criminals to access them. These criminals would be seen during the day patrolling and checking for possible chances (Khanyile: community member).

Leaving houses unlocked and windows open in an area like Cato Crest was described as being risky because perpetrators would go in the house without thinking twice. It emerged that some victims put themselves at risk because they already know what kind of community, they live in. Participant stated that it was important for each community member to watch their every move because no one was safe.

The other participant was of the view that:

Criminals prefer to get into people's houses during the night as they know that probably the occupants of the houses will be sleeping, they do this also to avoid being in contact with the victims. Some of these criminals avoid being seen by the us the members of the community as they know that the members of the community do not easily forgive criminals and they quickly take matters into their own hands, so by them burgling, at night they believe that they are safe (Hlophe: community member).

The findings indicated that mob justice was common response to criminality in South Africa especially in areas like Cato Crest because they believed that the law always failed. As such, they often take matters into their own hands and some perpetrators of burglary risked that kind of community response. That was perhaps the reason perpetrators would avoid going to an area they were not familiar with. It seemed as if criminals focused more on what they would want to steal, they were not afraid of being caught because participants clearly stated that even during the day burglary was happening in this area.

5.3.2 Factors contributing to burglary

Participants stated that there were a lot of factors that led to burglary. The relevant literature states that sometimes the information that leads to a burglary is gathered through observing the residence or through forging links with people who work at or have worked at the residence. Sometimes robbers would gain access for investigation purposes by pretending to be officials of some kind (e.g. water meter readers). It is interesting to note that 30 per cent of victims appeared to 'know the perpetrator' (Burton et al., 2003). This was confirmed by one of the participants who said that:

The people who mostly commit burglary are young boys who are always roaming around these streets. These boys will be seen early in the morning sitting by the corners of the streets. Most of them dropped out of school or some of them they have completed school and never get jobs. By them sitting at the corners, they would know what is happening around our neighbourhood, who goes to work and which house has valuable stuff, things like that. That's how these criminals observe their surroundings (Ngobese: community leader).

Moreover, Whitehead, Peterson and Kaljee (1994:153) found that studies conducted in the United States demonstrated that "inadequate employment opportunities amongst lower economic African American teenage boys contributed to the social marginality of this group and because of such, they perceived 'hustling' as a viable path towards achieving economic needs, social respectability and a sense of self as a man." Hustling is defined as engaging in money making activities some of which may be regarded as illegal by the wider society (Whitehead et al., 2004). One of the community leaders of the area believed that "hustling" was one of the reasons that led the youth to commit burglary. He was of the view that:

A number of the youth that reside in this area fall prey to peer pressure from some of their friends. Some of these perpetrators commit burglary as a way of financing their lifestyles or providing for their families whereas most of them do this as a way of showing off to one another. Most of the youth that are into burglary use the money they get after selling what they steal to either consume alcohol or buy drugs (Shezi: community leader).

The Rational Choice Theory comes in here as one of its key constructs is that the perpetrators gain from the crime they commit. In this case the perpetrators commit this kind of crime

knowing that if they steal something, they then sell it to the next person at a cheaper price for them to buy drugs or to finance their daily living. The major contributing factor raised by most of the participants was the issue of substance abuse. The first participant had this to say about substance abuse being the contributing factor to burglary:

The use of Nyaope has become a problem in this area; these young boys now think they cannot function without taking the Nyaope. When they take the substance, they tend to be violent and uncontrollable, and some of them would go inside people's houses in the afternoon without fearing what might happen to them. They believe that Nyaope makes them brave and invisible (Ngobese: community leader).

The issue of substance abuse is a major concern in South Africa (Khumalo, Shumba, and Mkhize, 2019). It emerged that in Durban, substance abusers are called the 'Nyaope' boys or 'Amaphara', which is an adulterated version of parasites. This group of young mostly men, live and breathe drugs and they are the ones that commit most of these the burglaries in such low status residential areas as Cato Crest. The other participant who was a victim of repeat burglary was of the view that:

These people who commit burglary always show a level of being hungry and intoxicated. Most of them come from poor backgrounds and the conditions in which they live in frustrates them to the extent of them finding solace in alcohol or drugs. I have realised that most of the time these people will not be conscious of what they are doing (Mkhize: community member).

The General Strain Theory, as the name suggests, proposes that individuals are at greater risk of committing a crime when they experience strain, stress, or frustration and that such crimes are generally committed "as a product of failed aspirations" (Brown, Esbensen, and Geis, 2007:281). According to the General Strain Theory, it is evident that most of these people commit burglary because their situation frustrates them. It emerged that perpetrators of burglary were mostly stressed because they were unemployed, and they could not make ends meet. For them to eat, and feed their families, they had to steal and resale the stolen goods so that they could get money.

From the above, it can be noted that burglary is a contact crime that has an element of violence, brutality, aggressiveness. Such a crime may leave the victim threatened if not physically, then emotionally, and it can also be traumatic and stressful to the victim. Therefore, victims of such a crime do need attention either from the state or private organisations.

5.4 Responses to burglary

Crime has significant, yet varying consequences, on individual crime victims, their families and friends, and communities. The impact of crime on victims results in emotional and psychological, physical, financial, social and spiritual consequences. While there are no consistent findings about victims' challenges in coping with the aftermath of criminal victimisation with respect to demographic characteristics, a victim's ability to cope with the impact of crime depends on a variety of factors (National Institute of Mental Health, 2006).

The responses to burglary in this case are divided into two themes which are the emotional and physical responses by the victims of burglary in Cato Crest.

5.4.1 Emotional and psychical responses

Waller (1984) argues that trauma from residential burglary is one of the most frequent and forgotten in criminal justice. A lot of people suffer from trauma immediately after a burglary has occurred. Burglary happens at the comfort zone of victims which is their homes where they least expect to be victimised. Participants voiced out their concerns about how the victims would be affected emotionally after a burglary occurred at their homes.

The participant was of the view that:

I become emotionally drained because of burglary, I work very hard and most of the people that stay around the area work part time jobs that give them less money and some work at the factories and they buy their valuable stuff including property through hard earned cash. So, I feel like we are being robbed of our hard work when someone who doesn't even go to work steals what we have worked for, in just a space of months, I also feel that there is no need to be going to work because I get robbed of the things I have worked hard for (Khumalo: community member).

It emerged that there were some valuables that people kept in their house, some of them might be gifts from loved ones or things they bought when they were outside the country or things that get passed on to them by their late relatives. Some victims would have bought expensive items with their hard-earned money, so when that is taken away from them by criminals it becomes a problem because of both the monetary and sentimental value attached.

We are physically affected by these criminals because sometimes they would go into a house expecting not to find anyone there and when they do so they panic and then the only thing they think about is defending themselves. Hence, some victims get stabbed whilst trying to fight the criminals and some get shot as a result of the criminals panicking (Sithole: community member).

Participants indicated that physical violence was not justifiable; being beaten up by an intruder in one's own home is obviously frightening. They shared that people are supposed to feel safe in their homes and not to live in constant fear that they might be physically attacked there. This becomes a problem to both direct and indirect victims as they both suffer in different ways. The impact of burglary on the residents' feelings of safety would vary from person to person, depending on how seriously they were affected by the burglary.

The next participant was of the view that:

Burglary creates a lot of anxiety within the victims and this will lead to them not trusting their neighbours or the community members in general (Hlophe: community member).

Violent crimes generate fear and helplessness in people's lives, victims are unable to deal with the trauma of a violent crime. The crime does not only affect the victim but also the people around the victims' life.

The next participant was of the view that:

We lose a lot of valuable stuff in our houses and that is a big problem for us and as well as the fact that you get strangers coming in your house some carrying guns, some carrying knives which shows that they intend to do anything and everything to get what they want. This kills us as the victims, both emotionally and psychologically as we would not feel safe when we are at home (Bhengu: community member).

The participants stated that, once a gun was pointed at them, they would know anything is possible after this. They felt unsafe when the perpetrators did this to them. They would just let the perpetrators take what they want in order for them to avoid being hurt.

Criminals scare me in my own home, and this affects me both emotionally and physically, being raped by a total stranger just because of a simple television or a laptop kills us as victims (Hlongwa: community member).

Rape is an issue that destroys the victim and people around the victim emotionally. Most victims indicated that they could handle the trauma of having their home invaded and property stolen, without them being harmed or raped. It emerged that after being raped, victims develop trust issues towards people around them even their own boyfriends. Victims always feel dirty after being raped. Participants lamented that some perpetrators even go to the extent of gang raping their victims.

One participant who was a community leader had this to say about the emotional responses to burglary:

I feel traumatised when a burglary occurs in my house; I cannot even sleep during the night even a small sound from the outside would wake me up. I always feel like I am not alone every time I am in the house, I become paranoid and become extra careful when I'm locking my house. The items that are stolen from us are those gadgets that we also need for our day to day living and this affects us (Dube: community leader).

The trauma experienced by the victims of burglary in Cato Crest was inevitable. Victims felt unsafe in their own houses and they became extra careful each time they would enter their houses. Some victims had multiple locks in their houses, and some ensured that they closed doors and windows early even during summer when it is hot.

We sometimes get injured whilst we are trying to protect ourselves or our families from these criminals. A man from the community was beaten up by the criminals because he tried to fight them, this man was beaten to the extent that his teeth came out. This will be a scar for the rest of his life (Ngcobo: community leader).

It is advisable that whenever these perpetrators invade a home the victims shouldn't attempt to fight them because they wouldn't know what they could do to them or what they were carrying at that moment. These perpetrators had nothing to lose so if they raped, or beat the victim, the brunt would be borne by the victim who would have sustained a scar for the rest of their life.

5.4.2 Security measures installed to avoid burglary

Participants indicated that after a burglary, the victims would feel safe after installing some security systems to protect themselves from repeat burglary. In this case the participants were asked if there were any measures taken by the victims or by the community members to protect themselves from being burgled again. Most were of the view that there were some measures

that could be taken by the community leaders or individuals to protect themselves from being victimised. The participants had to say the following regarding security measures installed after a burglary:

Considering the set-up of the houses in this area, it is impossible for one to install CCTV cameras and electric fences because most of the people that live in this area can hardly afford security gates what more these expensive measures. So, it is up to an individual to protect their household from the criminals (Shezi: community leader).

CCTV cameras are usually installed in upmarket suburbs and for a high-density area like Cato Crest, it emerged that it was unsustainable for the residents to install these measures. People living in Cato Crest could hardly afford a living for themselves which means installing CCTV cameras was beyond their capacity.

The participant was of the view that:

We came up with the alternative of a Neighbourhood Watch programme because we could see that most of the families could not afford expensive security measures, yet burglary rate yet escalating. This programme is voluntary, and it is advisable that only males should be part of it as they are believed to be stronger than the females (Khumalo: community member).

High density areas such as Cato Crest have a very high crime rate and most of the time the community members would know or suspect the people behind the crimes happening. People from this community could hardly afford the most effective security measures, so they would settle for the ones they could afford; something that they thought could work for them. People from these kinds of areas believe in mob justice and by having a team of people participating in the Neighbourhood Watch Programme suggested that if they were to catch a criminal, the community members are the ones that will punish the criminal by beating them up.

The next participant also added that:

Most of us cannot afford installing security measures as it is expensive; the only option we are left with when a burglary occurs is to change our house locks and sometimes put security gates, of which that is also a problem because of affordability. The only thing we do is just to make sure that the criminals won't come to our houses again (Sithole: community member).

Some of the victims slept with weapons under their beds in readiness to attack the perpetrators. This becomes a big problem because one cannot feel safe in the comfort of their homes.

5.5 Effects of burglary

Hanson et al. (1995) assert that it is therefore relevant to examine the emotional reactions and consequences found in many people – mainly women and children – throughout long periods, and even throughout their whole life.

It is extremely vital for a victim to know how and where to get support and information after a traumatic incident. Therefore, the participants were asked whether there was support needed for the victims after a burglary. They were also asked if they were aware of such programmes. These contact crimes are social or domestic in nature and occur primarily within the social environment, such as private residences. The victims of such crimes can be left in a traumatic state, yet they need professional help.

5.5.1 Support needed after a burglary

Most of the participants felt that it was of paramount importance that the victim seeks professional help after a burglary because of its traumatic nature. They also felt that it was important for a victim to be with someone after a burglary occurs just to ensure they are fine or to erase the fear from their minds. The participants voiced the following regarding this:

The participant had to say this about the above:

There is a need for having support groups within the community to help the victims because some of them cannot afford proper medical attention so having volunteers within the community or people coming in from the government to assist the vulnerable victims would be a very good idea. Having someone after a burglary has occurred is very important especially to those people that live alone because some of these criminals would notice that the person lives alone and they would sometimes come back to harm him/her. It is also possible that they would sometimes come back for more things but the most important part is having someone there with you who will comfort you and make sure you are okay (Ngcobo: community member).

Having a person to comfort the victim or make them feel safe after a burglary is very important as some of the victims especially women felt scared after being attacked in their homes or after a stranger entered their home. It emerged that being with someone after a burglary reduces the

anxiety levels of a person. Victims believed that being with someone after a burglary was better than being alone. The participant was of the view that:

Being with someone after a burglary is important. You will feel protected in that way. We feel that no one can come for us as long as there is an extra person in the house. I also feel that professional help is of paramount importance after a burglary because some victims usually have panic attacks and they lose trust in people. Some victims feel as if the world is against them and they become suicidal (Mchunu: community member).

Some victims felt protected when they were with someone after a burglary. They thought that the perpetrators were unlikely to enter their houses if they knew that there were more than two people in the house. Some victims felt that there was a need for professional help after a burglary especially if it was a severe one, e.g. where an occupant sustained an injury.

The participant was of the view that:

I feel the need of having someone with me after a burglary as I will be scared, not feeling safe in my own house. There is also a need for professional help after a burglary for a person to feel sane and to trust their surroundings. Most victims, including myself cannot trust anyone right now as I feel that being attacked by people know, people we live with in this community is betrayal (Bhengu: community member).

Victims believed that people who attacked them were people they knew, because a stranger would not go and steal at a place they did not know. The people that commit burglary are the people who know the surroundings very well and this drives the victims to be scared as they would not know who to trust in the area. The victims would rather call in a relative to come and stay with them than to call a stranger or a neighbour because of distrust.

The participant was of the view that:

There is a need to be with someone after a burglary as I feel shaken up and feel exposed and scared at the same time. I feel more alert now as I was a victim of burglary at one time; it didn't sit well with me as I had panic attacks and would have nightmares at night. I would keep on seeing the faces of the people that came into my house. The police should always be there for the victims, that will make them feel more safer, I feel that the police station should have psychologists or social workers that help the victims with the healing process (Hlophe: community member).

Victims talked of having nightmares and panic attacks after being attacked by these perpetrators of burglary. The participants felt there was a need for police stations to employ people with psychology expertise as they will help the victims overcome the fear they have and because of the fact that these experts will be easily accessible without paying any consultation fees.

The participant was of the view that:

There is a need of having counsellors amongst the community if not in the police force. These should be readily available for the community members and free of charge as most of the community members do not afford to pay counsellors. I have been a victim of burglary and the trauma that I experienced was a lot, I was suicidal because a gun was pointed to my head and every time, I hear a sound outside, I think that it is a gun. The local clinic should also employ a psychologist who would help victims of burglary and other similar crimes (Ngobese: community leader).

The participants suggested that both local clinics and the police stations should have psychologists among their staff compliment to help the victims with overcoming trauma. Some victims would become suicidal because of what they would have experienced during a burglary.

The participant was of the view that:

There is a need for professional help after burglary. Even if you tell yourself that you are strong, there is no need for you to be talking to a stranger about your problems. This can affect you in the long run as it is something that's not predictable. Also, the fact that there should be a person with you after a burglary who will comfort you because when you are alone you keep on thinking about what has happened to you is important. Trauma induced by burglary will cause you to have nightmares and think about a lot of things, a slight sound coming from the roof or outside can affect you (Mkhize: community member).

The effects of a burglary may affect the victim in the long run. If they don't affect them immediately after the incident. Most people have nightmares, and some have distrust in other people due to what they would have experienced during a burglary, hence the emphasis of being with someone after a burglary or seeking professional help after a burglary.

5.5.2 Differences in how males and females feel after a burglary

According to Barkan (1997), female burglary victims are more likely than male victims to be afraid and upset, while male victims are more apt to be angry or annoyed after experiencing a burglary. In the current study, the participants felt that females were more vulnerable than males and they were likely to be affected more than males.

One participant was of the view that:

Female figures are not strong physically, and they fail to deal with such issues as burglary. As such, female victims are more vulnerable and more emotional, and they tend to be afraid. On the contrary, male figures are stronger and they take the issue of burglary as one of those petty crimes because they know that they can fight the criminals, so they are seldom attacked (Mangwe: community member).

Current findings indicated that female victims were the most targeted when it comes to burglary. For example, participants argued that once a perpetrator knew that a female stays alone, the chances of targeting her household were very high. Females were regarded as being more vulnerable compared to burglary than their male counterparts and they were easily affected by such crimes.

The participant was of the view that:

When females are exposed to this kind of crime, they feel like they are alone, they feel as if the world has turned their back against them. Often, they become very emotional and they don't feel safe when they are alone in the house. By comparison, females feel the need for having someone with them soon after a burglary whereas males know how to defend themselves. As such, males don't feel the need for having someone with them. They often don't feel the danger of a burglary (Makhathini: community leader).

Further, it emerged that females were more emotional than men. Females always felt the need to be with someone after a burglary had occurred because they were scared whereas males felt that a burglary was a minor crime and they were always ready to fight the perpetrators.

The participant was of the view that:

Males are more tough than women and we believe in being strong for our families , deep down the males also get affected though they don't like to show it whereas the

females are very emotional they cry and they prefer being with someone and to be comforted all the time (Makhathini: community leader).

On the one hand, females wanted to be comforted all the time something happened to them. On the other hand, males became secondary victims because they would not want to see the people they loved get hurt. The next participant was of the view that:

I believe that already for a female in South Africa, the environment is unsafe. Walking in the street is already unsafe, imagine feeling unsafe in your own home, feeling the need to be with someone in a place you always thought you are comfortable in it creates a lot of anxiety especially for women. Imagine knowing that anyone can come in at any time in your house and take something that doesn't belong to them, they can also victimise you. It is an experience that no one would want to find themselves in. As for males, they are strong people and they know how to fight for themselves. Men are also capable of controlling their emotions (Ngiba: community leader).

Females felt that they were less protected in South Africa and no one was fighting for them. Being unsafe in their own homes caused extra tension for them because their homes were their personal spaces, and no one should come and attack them in a place they felt that they were supposed to be safe. Males could at least fight the perpetrators physically because they generally have the strength to do so.

5.6 Intervention programmes put in place to curb burglary

The intolerable levels of crime continue to impede peace and stability in South Africa and weaken economic growth and tarnish the image of the Republic (Meth, 2009). There is a need for measures to be taken to curb residential burglary in residential areas. Some felt the measures that have been placed by the law enforcement agencies is not enough, and that the communities sometimes take their own measures to curb burglary.

5.6.1 Programmes put in place to curb burglary in Cato Crest in Durban

The participants raised concern that there were not many programmes in this area to help reduce burglary in this area as the police were not involved much in this community. The programmes that they had were those that were started by community members on their own. The participants voiced the following about the programmes:

The participant voiced out the following:

As the community, we came up with an initiative that will benefit us because we saw that the police usually neglect us. We decided that we should have a Neighbourhood Watch programme and, in this way, the community members will feel safe when they are within the community (Ngiba: community leader).

Participants indicated that the police tool such crimes as burglary lightly, and every time people would report such kind of crimes, they were not taken seriously. Community members then come up with their own initiatives to benefit themselves.

The next participant was of the view that:

I believe that there are more programmes in this area. For example, I have heard people talking about them, but the problem is that they are not implemented because of the lack of finances. The one that is successful is the Neighbourhood Watch programme because I am also part of it. We usually have meetings before our patrols because of the number of people who are committed. Since we know that this a voluntary initiative some people attend when they feel like doing so and this becomes a challenge to us as we won't be able to safeguard the whole area (Hlophe: community member).

Cato Crest is an informal settlement. It emerged that community members would want to have very effective programmes, but they had financial restrictions because most of the people in the area did not have jobs. The Neighbourhood Watch programme itself was not as effective as it was supposed to be because of being a voluntary programme, hence people attended when it suited them.

The participant was of the view that:

The Neighbourhood Watch programme is the only initiative that we have as a community. This initiative involves mostly the male figures in this community as we believe that they are the strong ones and they can fight the criminals. The programme was started by a group of unemployed men from the community because they believed that they can help the community in a positive way as they are around the area all the time. They know what is happening within the community (Ngobese: community leader).

Neighbourhood Watch was a male dominated programme because it required physical strength. Community members involved were the people that would chase the perpetrators, so it required fitness and brave people.

The participant was of the view that:

We have an initiative called the Neighbourhood Watch programme. So far we are 15 and we try and divide ourselves amongst the sections of the community. We came up with this initiative when we saw that burglary rates were escalating in the community. We usually meet every day in the evening at around 6pm when its summer and around 5pm when its winter because we know that it will be getting darker at those times and the criminals will start patrolling and targeting their possible victims (Sithole: community member).

The Neighbourhood Watch programme required consistency, in order to scare away the perpetrators. Participants shared that perpetrators would obviously study their victims' routines so that they could know where they were and how many they were. The programme required a number of people in order to cover the entire neighbourhood.

5.6.2 The effectiveness of neighbourhood watch programmes

The participants were asked if the neighbourhood watch programmes had an impact on the victims' life, and if so, how did they impact. Most of the participants highlighted that their programmes and services had an impact on the victims' life, and that the impact was positive because of the reaction of the victims. This impact did not only include the victim, but the family too. The impact was not only for the victim but for the family and the community at large.

The participants echoed the following with reference to effectiveness of these programmes:

The participant were of the view that:

I believe that since there is only one programme known by the community members to solve burglary, it is not as effective as we would want it to be because burglary is still happening in this area and there is no day that passes by without hearing about burglary cases (Khumalo: community member).

Street level geocoding match rates were lower in informal settlements areas compared to formal urban areas, due to the fact that these areas were unplanned, had poor road networks and no proper address points. To determine the success or otherwise of measures taken to

control crime in informal settlements, it is necessary for a system to be in operation whereby crime can be geocoded to a specific location.

The participant was of the view that:

The rate at which burglary is happening is reduced in this area especially in the section where I live in. I am not saying it's no longer happening because we hear cases from time to time, but it is no longer like during those days when this programme started. This brings hope to the community (Hlongwa: community member).

The Neighbourhood Watch programme helped the community members in this area as they stated that the burglary rate had lessened. This programme was an initiative by the people from the community. So, they work with a combination of passion and anger because they were tired of the criminals who terrorised their neighbourhood.

The participant was of the view that:

The neighbourhood watch programme we have has managed to reduce burglary, but we still have other community members from other sections complaining about their houses being burgled. In this community, we need more that a neighbourhood watch programme for burglaries to end, we need these criminals to be punished, we need to make an example by one criminal then they will all learn a lesson (Makhathini: community leader).

Community members believed that the programmes alone were not enough; these perpetrators needed to be taught a lesson. The perpetrators needed to be arrested. Burglary might be considered to be a less serious crime compared to other crimes, but some people get injured in the process. The CJS should also take its course when it comes to these crimes. The community members lamented that they had a limit in terms of what they could do but they obviously could not take the perpetrators away from the streets.

5.7 Conclusion

From the above analysis it is evident that there is a need for the implementation of the support programmes or services to assist victims of burglary because of the violent and traumatic nature of the crime. Taking into consideration the aims and objectives of this study, it can be noted that there are no programmes available to victims; if they are then they are not known to the victims. This means that it is up to the community leaders or the police to notify the victims of

such programmes. There is the Neighbourhood Watch Programme which described as ineffective by the community members as the crime is still escalating. Therefore, there is a need for the SAPS to involve themselves with the community and work hand in hand with the community members to come up with proper programmes that will help curb burglary.

The next chapter will provide a conclusion with specific emphasis to the aims and objectives presented in Chapter One. Furthermore, it will also provide recommendations and suggestions for further research on communal responses to burglary and the programmes and services to assist and empower the victims of burglary.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

This study was conducted to explore the communal responses to burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban, KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) Province. The main purpose of this concluding chapter is to summarise the key research findings as well as forward recommendations for future research. In the light of the literature review and research findings presented, general conclusions pertaining to residential burglary are drawn.

6.2 General conclusions

Underpinned by the methodological framework of this study, general conclusions were drawn which were guided by the following objectives that the researcher aimed to address:

- To evaluate the nature of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.
- To explore communal responses on burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.
- To determine the effects of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.
- To analyse the current intervention programs that have been put in place to curb burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban.

6.2.1. Nature of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

The first objective of the study refers to exploring the nature of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement. This was accomplished through conducting qualitative interviews using a semi-structured interview guide. From the analysis of data, it was evident that burglary in this area is escalating. People living in the Cato Crest area feared for their lives because sometimes they would get stabbed by the perpetrators of burglary. The study also revealed that perpetrators become aggressive especially when they have an encounter with an unexpected victim or occupant in the house. There is use of a weapon when the perpetrator

stares the victim on the face. The study revealed that people are forced to lock up their houses early and take extra precautions because of the escalating crime. It emerged that most people lack a sense of safety in their houses. The study revealed that there are substances used by the perpetrators to access people's house without being heard, and these substances are called 'CDs'. Apparently, these substances will make one fall asleep and not hear anything or any movement happening in the house.

The study revealed that most burglaries are committed by school dropouts, "*Amaphara*" which means street kids as they are the ones who are desperate for money and they are always under the influence of alcohol or drugs. *Amaphara* steal from people's houses to get money so that they can buy drugs or alcohol. People committing burglaries are usually the ones familiar with the area because they have knowledge of the area and they can probably get away with it. The study revealed that these burglaries happen mostly during the day because the houses will be unoccupied, and the area will be a bit quiet, leading to the perpetrators taking chance to commit crime.

6.2.2 Communal responses to burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

The second objective of the study refers to exploring communal responses to burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban. This was accomplished using a semi-structured interview guide. The findings revealed that the impact of crime on victims results in emotional, physical, financial, social consequences. The study revealed that people suffer emotionally because they are attached to some of the items that are stolen from them, e.g. they buy these items with their hard-earned money and they are later stolen by someone who sells them for an amount way less than the actual value is disheartening. The study also revealed that most people become emotionally damaged because of the trauma they suffer as a result of burglary. The thought of a stranger entering one's private place carrying weapons is very traumatic. It emerged that because of this trauma, most victims were not able to sleep at night, they were frightened by any sound that they could hear, and they did not trust anyone around them.

The study revealed that some victims are damaged physically during a burglary. Some victims will try and fight the perpetrators and they get stabbed or beaten up during those fights, which

damages them physically. Although some victims do not fight the intruders, they get beaten up for the fact that they would have seen the perpetrators. The study revealed that some victims are raped during burglary and this traumatises them for life. The raping of victims damages them emotionally, physically and socially. As such, the victims cannot trust anyone, and they feel “dirty” because they have been raped by a stranger. This mistrust then leads to community members or victims wanting to install security measures in their houses to prevent burglary. The study revealed that, most people in the area cannot afford to install security measures like CCTV cameras, electric fences because of the design of their house and general affordability. Cato Crest area is a low socio-economic area and most of the people live in shacks, which makes it difficult for them to install these security measures. The study revealed that the only way the victims can protect themselves is through changing locks and those that can afford to install security gates do so but it’s only a few households that can afford burglar guards.

6.2.3 Effects of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

The third objective of the study refers to determining the effects of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban. This was accomplished using a semi-structured interview schedule. The findings revealed that contact crimes such as burglary are social or domestic in nature and occur primarily within the social environment, such as private residence. The victims of such crimes can be left in a traumatic state; hence they need professional help. However, most victims in Cato Crest cannot afford professional help, so the study revealed that volunteers within the community are needed to help the damaged victims. The study revealed that there should be volunteers who are available free of charge to readily help the victims.

The study revealed that there is a need for the victims to be with someone after a burglary as they will be feeling scared. Participants shared that the victims feel shaken and some experience nightmares because they would keep on seeing the faces of the perpetrators. This is the reason why they felt that there is need to be with someone soon after a burglary, to be comforted. They indicated that they would feel safe when they were in the company of someone else. The study revealed that some victims feel scared in their own houses after a burglary and they would prefer to go and sleep elsewhere because they would think that the perpetrators would come back for them. They cannot trust their surroundings because they feel that the people attacking them are community members whom they see every day. The study revealed that some victims

suffer the long-term effects of trauma especially the ones that are raped, who cannot trust anyone, and some end up having children that remind them of the day they were raped which is a bad memory for them.

The study revealed that males and females react differently to burglary. It emerged that males are a bit stronger than females; females are most likely to be emotional and scared whilst males can fight for themselves, so they are less likely to be affected unless if they are attacked physically and get injured. The study revealed that females are not physically strong enough; hence, they are more vulnerable and emotional when it comes to being attacked whereas males on the other hand take burglary as a petty crime and they can fight for themselves.

6.2.4 Intervention programs that have been put in place to curb burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

The fourth objective of the study refers to analysing the current intervention programs that have been put in place to curb burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban. For the community to be functional, it must have strong measures in place to curb any form of crime that puts the community members at risk. This was accomplished using a semi-structured interview guide. The findings revealed that there is not much that the government is doing to help curb burglary in this area, so the community members take matters into their own hands. In this case, the study revealed that community members came up with an idea of having a neighbourhood watch programme which consists of community members who participate voluntarily. These community members take turns at night to guard or to walk around the community looking for suspicious activities. The study revealed that it is a bit of a challenge because this is a voluntary programme and people participate when they feel like doing so because they don't get paid for it.

The study revealed that the neighbourhood watch programme is becoming effective and it needs more time because it is new. The study revealed that burglary is lessening in this area which shows that the programme is working, though there are still some cases that are reported but it is no longer the same as before. The study also revealed that the community needs more than the Neighbourhood Watch Programme for burglary to lessen; instead the criminal justice system (CJS), especially the police must treat burglary with the seriousness it deserves.

Criminals must be arrested, and cases should be investigated, and convictions must be done so that the criminals would not take this offence lightly.

6.3. Recommendations for future research

Based on the findings and drawing from the community members' suggestions for dealing with burglary within the community, the following recommendations are made:

6.3.1 To evaluate the nature of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

- There is a need for programs that will help the youth, school drop-outs and those that cannot afford to pay tuition fees. These programs will keep them busy and occupied and it will be easier for them to stay away from criminal activities.
- Community members should be educated on safety measures which is the importance of keeping their houses locked at all times and also the importance of being vigilant when there are strangers around them.

6.3.2 To explore communal responses on burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

- Since the area is a bit crowded and full of shacks, there is not much community members can do because they cannot afford to install CCTV cameras and electric fences, hence the government should at least provide patrol cars for the area. It is estimated that visible policing will scare the perpetrators because they would know that they can be caught easily.

6.3.3 To determine the effects of burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

- There is an unquestionable need for counsellors to deal with the physical and emotional violence in the Cato Crest area.
- There is need for police and clinic-based counsellors who can be trusted by the community so that they can have somewhere to go to and share their experiences of physical and emotional violence. Since some community members, especially victims

of rape find it difficult to openly talk about their experiences with family members, therefore community members would benefit from the services of counsellors stationed at the community clinic.

6.3.4 To analyse the current intervention programs that have been put in place to curb burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement, Durban

- Community members need to be educated regarding their responsibilities as residents to ensure that their community is safe by partaking in the Neighbourhood Watch Programme.
- The community members suggested that there is a need for additional programs that will help to curb crime in the area. They suggested that if only the police could fully involve themselves in combating crime, the area would be a better place. The community members suggested that if only the police could also catch the people who sell “Nyaope” to the perpetrators, there would be less crime in the area because there would be less “Nyaope” addicts who always want the fix.
- Cato Crest community members suggested that the issue of burglary should be taken seriously in their area.

These recommendations will make a difference in burglary rates within the community of Cato Crest and will deter the perpetration of crime in the future. They will also ensure that the community members feel safe while in their houses or within the community. The personal, social and emotional well-being of the community members will be protected concurrently.

6.4 Conclusion

This study revealed that alarming incidences of crime affect the social life of community members. A lot therefore needs to be done to detect and curb incidences of crime within the community. The Criminal Justice System (CJS) must strive to be proactive in their approach to dealing with crime, and the participants voiced out that relevant staff must maintain open dialogue with community members by being approachable and helpful. There is a need for further research to address the issue of burglary within the communities. Researchers, community leaders, community members and police officers should work collaboratively to design proactive methods to deter crime and create a safe environment that nurture professional citizens who shy away from crime, no matter what the circumstances are.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview Guide (Community Leaders)



Annexure A: interview schedule guide

Interview questions: Community Leaders

Semi-structured interview

1. Demographics
 - Occupation
 - Gender
 - Race
2. Is South Africa your country of citizenship?
3. If not where are you from?
4. How did you become part of your organisation?

Nature of Crime

5. What do you think about the nature and effects of burglary in your area?
6. What do you think is the contribution factor to burglary in this area?
7. What do you think are the measures that the community should take in curbing Burglary in your area?
8. How do the people around you (neighbours) respond to burglary?

Responses to burglary

9. What are the emotional responses people have experienced as a result of the burglary?
10. Are there any physical responses that are experienced to being burgled?
11. Are there any security measures installed after being burgled?

Effects on Burglary

12. Is there any difference in the way males and females feel after the burglary?

13. Is there any support needed as a result of the nature of burglary in your area?

Intervention Programmes

14. Are there any intervention programmes in this area?

15. If any, who do you think participates in these programmes in your area?

16. If so, do you think these programmes are effective?

17. What are the measures that have been done to make these programmes known to the community?

18. What successes have these programmes achieved?

19. Whose responsibility do you think it is to prevent crime in your area?

20. What do you think can be done to improve these programmes in the area?

21. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix 2: Interview Guide (Community Members)



Annexure B: Interview schedule

Interview questions- Community Members

Semi-structured Interviews

- What do you think about the nature and effects of crime in your area?
- How serious is burglary in your area?
- What types of routine activities do you think contribute to the likelihood of burglary?
- What time does burglary usually happen in your area?
- Do you feel safe when alone in the house?
- How do you feel after burglary happens?
- Do u feel the need of having someone with you after a burglary?
- Do you feel the need of professional intervention after a burglary?
- Do you have multiple locks in the house?
- Do you know of any programmes that help in curbing burglary in your area?
- Do you partake in those programmes?
- Do the police involve themselves in solving burglary in your area?
- Have you ever reported a burglary case to the police?
- If so, how did they respond?
- If not why?
- Are there any measures taken by the community members together with the community leaders to curb burglary in your area?
- Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix 3: Ethical Clearance



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29 August 2018

Ms Zandile Faith Mpofu (218573987)
School of Applied Human Sciences – Criminology
Howard College Campus

Dear Ms Mpofu,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0803/018M
Project title: An exploration of communal responses to burglary at residential premises in the Cato Crest informal settlement of Durban, KwaZulu-Natal Province

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 26 June 2018, 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 Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Dr Siyanda Dlamini
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr Maud Mthembu
cc School Administrator: Ms Ayanda Ntuli

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Appendix 4: Turnitin Report

Masters Thesis

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