

**THE POLICING OF BURGLARY AT A RESIDENTIAL PREMISES IN THE GA-
MOLEPO VILLAGE, LIMPOPO PROVINCE**

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN CRIMINOLOGY

in

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

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2023

DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation entitled: '**Policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo Village, Limpopo Province,**' hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Arts in Criminology, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my work in design and in executive, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

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27/03/2022

DATE

DEDICATIONS

I, Beauty Mogaladi Malatjie, dedicate this dissertation to my family, as well as my supervisors, Dr K Lekgau and Prof W Maluleke, for their encouragement and assistance in helping me complete this dissertation. This dissertation is dedicated to them with much love and appreciation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- I thank God for giving me strength, courage and wisdom to complete this dissertation.
- I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my supervisors, Dr K Lekgau, Prof W Maluleke and Dr DL Kgosimore for their guidance, support, time and patience.
- Sincere appreciation to my mother, Grace Malatjie, for her guidance, support and encouragement.
- Thanks to my siblings, Mahlodi, Jerida, Ngwanammanoko, Mmangwanana and Modisana, for their support, encouragement and patience.
- Thanks to my friends, Mpumi, Matome, Khutso and Sello, for their support and encouragement.
- Thanks to the Ga-Molepo Ntonas and the residents of Ga-Molepo for participating in this research.
- I thank you all.

ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this study was to explore policing of burglary at a residential premises within the Ga-Molepo community. From a qualitative standpoint, data was gathered through semi-structured In-depth Individual Interviews (IDIIs). The participants were selected from Tshebela, Rampheri, Mogano and Tshebela. Moreover, a comprehensive review of the relevant literature and the Broken Window Theory (BWT) was conducted and reviewed to obtain a better understanding of this study. A thematic content analysis procedure was followed to analyse the gathered data.

This study was guided by the following objectives:

- *The prevalence of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community.*
- *To identify the problems experienced by the Ga-Molepo community with policing of burglary.*
- *The effectiveness of policing of burglary in the Ga-Molepo community.*

The researcher identified that more training is required and more forensic investigators are needed in the South African Police Service (SAPS), because the police are not capable of preventing residential burglary but only respond to crimes that have already been committed (Reactive-policing) and only deal with the burglary backlogs of cases that are already in the SAPS system. The study implemented the Broken Window Theory as a guide for exploring the policing of burglary at a residential premises. The employed theory (Broken Widows Theory - BWT), in reference to societal order, proposes that societies must be cautious against the least criminalities. If such disorders or small crimes are not taken seriously, more serious crime can be committed as a result. The police must take all crime as seriously, irrespective of its nature. If the police uphold their old-style role as night guards in opposition of threats to order, then the society flourishes. To advance policing in South Africa through BWT or other approaches we need to raise a culture and capability of planning and evaluating police practices.

Keywords: Burglary at a residential premises, Ga-Molepo village, Limpopo Province, Policing

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LIST OF ACRONYMS	DESCRIPTIONS
AIC	Australian Institute of Criminology
BWT	Broken Window Theory
CCTV	Closed-Circuit Television
CJS	Criminal Justice System
CPF	Community Policing Forum
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigations
GPSJS	Government, Public Safety and Justice Survey
IDII	In-depth Individual Interview
NDP	National Development Plan
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
ODC	Office of Drugs and Crime
POP	Problem-Orientated Policing
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAPS	South African Police Service
SCFs	Sector Crime Forums
UCR	Uniform Crime Report
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
VOCS	Victims of Crime Survey

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The traditional Criminal Justice System's (CJS) approach to burglary prevention has two elements: police emergency response intervention and investigation, as well as prosecution and punishment. These are based on principles of general deterrence and specific deterrence, but also extend to the incapacitated effect of imprisonment. Several reviews identify a high rate of reporting of burglary, Van Dijk, Mayhew and Killias (1991) cite a figure of 81% for their global study, Walker and Dagger (1993) cite 89% for Australia while Felson (1994) reports a much lower rate of 39% based on a United State National Crime Survey. Whatever the case with reporting, burglary has a very low conviction rate because less than 10% of crimes result in convictions (Felson, 1994).

Burglars fear being caught but they see the risk of being caught as very small (Decker *et al.*, 1993). This is an objective perspective, given the extremely low conviction rates. Felson (1994) study found that only 1% of burglaries involve the perpetrator being caught in the act. This is predictable in the context of police patrol capacity. An analysis in Los Angeles County estimated that full deployment of patrol officers would provide each premises with half a minute of protection in every 24-hour period. Doubling the number of police would provide one minute of protection (Felson, 1994). Given the limits on the CJS, a French study concluded that 'the insurance market and the security industry manage the problem of theft and burglary: the market takes over where the state fails' (Decker, Wright & Logie, 1993). Thus, the South African Police Services' (SAPS) inability to effectively deal with residential burglaries in South Africa seems to be related to the predominantly reactionary policing style of the police (Govender, 2015).

Residential burglary remains a serious problem in South Africa and will possibly 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. 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 SAPS is now more focused on law enforcement than crime prevention or the protection of private property. With limited staff and resources, SAPS struggles to meet the needs and expectations of the community in terms of protection from thieves and armed robbers. In this context, individual households are increasingly aware of the need to protect themselves and initiate crime prevention actions within their own communities (Govender, 2015).

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The researcher recognises that the Ga-Molepo streets have become a breeding ground for a variety of criminal acts including residential burglary and house robbery. Members of the community are terrified and concerned for their safety as well as the protection and preservation of their property. The SAPS crime statistics from 2018-2022 (As displayed in Table 1) on reported burglary at a residential premises cases in the Mankweng policing area, showcased that this crime has been decreasing (Refer to 2020, 2021 and 2022 financial years), as compared to 2018 and 2019 financial years where the reported cases were high.

However, the lower recorded statistics of 192 in the 2022 financial year does not confirm that this crime is not prevalent in the selected study areas of Mankweng policing. This is very concerning and urgently requires attention from all relevant stakeholders, both public and private, to positively aid the operations of the local SAPS. Moreover, as a native resident of the Ga-Molepo area, the researcher acquired information from community members, such as friends, family members, traditional leaders, and faith-based organisations, amongst others, as well as during communal meetings who constantly complained about losing their valued belongings due to burglary at their residential premises.

Table 1: Reported burglary at a residential premises cases at Mankweng police station

Crime category	Years					Count difference	% Change
	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022		
Reported Burglary at a residential premises cases	238	307	224	208	192	-16	-7,7%

Source: SAPS crime statistics (2018-2022)

From Table 1, it can be assumed that reported burglary at a residential premises cases in the Mankweng policing area have increased drastically and have been unstable over the last five (5) years, making it impossible for the SAPS to police effectively. The high levels of this crime are certainly a cause for concern and intervention measures are undoubtedly needed. One possible option would be the strengthening of community policing structures in a bid to effectively and efficiently deal with these crimes.

The researcher discovered that crimes in the community are increasing and this study was conducted to determine the causes for the increase in the community based on policing of burglary at a residential premises. Thus, the provocative question arose as follows: *“Is it that the community members do not report these crimes or the local SAPS do not respond effectively to committed burglary at a residential premises of Ga-Molepo [Mankweng policing area]?”* Therefore, this study will fill in the literature gap regarding the Ga-Molepo community’s policing of residential burglary to help understand the nature of this phenomenon.

1.3. STUDY AIM AND OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Study Aim

The aim of the research is to *‘explore policing of burglary at a residential premises within the Ga-Molepo community.’*

1.3.2 Study Objectives

This study was guided by the following objectives:

- The prevalence of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community.
- The identification of the problems experienced by the Ga-Molepo community with policing of burglary.
- To determine the effectiveness of policing of burglary in the Ga-Molepo community.

1.3.3 Research Questions

1. Do you consider burglary at a residential premises to be more widespread in the previous five years (2018-2022) in Ga-Molepo which falls under Mankweng Policing Area? (Please elaborate on your answer).
2. What could be the causes of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community?
3. In your own understanding, which premises are mostly targeted for burglary within the Ga-Molepo community?
4. Who are the role players in responding to burglary at a residential premises cases?
5. Are there any applied strategies (by the role players/police) for responding to burglary at a residential premises cases? (Please elaborate on your answer)
6. What is the significance of the chain of protection in the investigation of burglary at a residential premises?
7. Do you know what should be done if one reports a burglary to police, but they (po-lice) fail to investigate the burglary case properly?
8. What are the challenges for responding to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community which falls under Mankweng Policing cluster?
9. What are the usual standards for handling burglary at a residential premises crime scenes?
10. How effective are the current Mankweng police tactics in responding to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community?

11. Describe your experience of the effect of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo community?
12. Which modes of entry do the burglars use to enter households?
13. Is there any alternative strategy that can be applied to respond to burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo community by the police?
14. What measures can the police take to prevent burglary in Ga-Molepo community?
15. Any other comments you would like to make, regarding the response to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community

1.4. STUDY SIGNIFICANCE

It is hoped that this study will assist in revealing the perception the Ga-Molepo communities have of policing of burglary at a residential premises. Once their perception of law enforcement is noted, it might be used as an approach to increase service delivery if there are any remaining gaps. The study can benefit collaboration between the public and law enforcement to encourage a safe atmosphere. The study will offer information for future research evaluations. The results of this study will assist in reporting policing public requirements and policing development in other areas with the same challenging circumstances. Subsequently, this study will assist in revealing the perceptions that the Ga-Molepo communities have on policing of this crime. Once their perception of law enforcement is noted, it might be used as an approach to increase service delivery if there are any remaining gaps.

This study will also help the academic community to gather new facts around the perceptions of Ga-Molepo community on policing of burglary at a residential premises. An academic study is essential to gather different facts or for new data production. According to Brew and Lucas (2009), researchers in academia have a strong inquisitiveness in pursuing new opinions and being the first to notice new facts in their elected field. Researchers also have the responsibility to distribute new facts to the public, together with specialists, scholars, and the common community. Researchers at institutions often publish their study results in academic papers, meanwhile their infor-

mation might prove to be appropriate to scholars in interconnected fields. The researcher will also share the research results at conferences and in symposiums so as to inspire scholars in their own disciplines (Brew & Lucas, 2009).

Police will be more aware of the nature of burglary that occurs within their cluster community as well as the community's perception of policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo from this study. By understanding the nature of this crime, the local SAPS could possibly accept strategic help from the community on preventing or controlling residential burglary. The research will give the Ga-Molepo community members a chance to express their views about policing of burglary in their areas. The community will also give feedback about policing strategies that are currently used in the community and the ones that are failing to manage burglary at a residential premises.

1.5. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The scope of the study is limited to thirty-two (32) participants from the Ga-Molepo communities, namely, Tshebela, Mogano, Rampheri and Bethel, who have been victims of burglary or know a friend or family member who has been a victim of burglary. The research will randomly select participants who are community members, community leaders (Community Policing Forums), traditional leaders and faith-based organisational leaders. The selection of participants in the study will last for a period of four (4) months and it will end when the Thirty-Two (32) participants have been interviewed. Participation in the study will be voluntary and each participant will be asked to complete a consent form and a questionnaire to find out their perception of policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities. The BWT was used in this study.

1.6. CHAPTERS PROGRESION

- **Chapter One** dealt with the general orientation of the study.
- **Chapter Two** discusses the reviewed literature on this subject, guided by the aim and objectives of the study.
- **Chapter Three** provides the employed research design and methodology.
- **Chapter Four** presents the data presentations, analysis and discussions.
- **Chapter Five** reflects on the study summary, conclusions, limitations and recommendations, as well as future research studies.

1.7. SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the introduction, problem statement, study aim and objectives, as well as the study significance and scope of the study. The next chapter (Two) focuses on a literature review, guided by the aim and objectives of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON POLICING OF BURGLARY AT A RESIDENTIAL PREMISES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discuss the policing of burglary at a residential premises in detail. The researcher consulted numerous published and unpublished literature studies relating to this scourge, coupled with the available measures taken to reduce the crime of burglary at a residential premises. The goals of this chapter were attained by means of adhering to the aim and objectives of this study.

The aim of this study was to *'explore policing of burglary at a residential premises within the Ga-Molepo community.'*

Whereas, the objectives of this study were three-fold, namely:

- The prevalence of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community.
- To identify the problems experienced by the Ga-Molepo community with policing of burglary.
- To determine the effectiveness of policing of burglary in the Ga-Molepo community.

The indicated study aim and objectives were used as guidelines for this chapter, together with the consultation of local and international seminal studies to provide answers, based on the research topic and the problem statement thereof.

2.2. EXPLORING POLICING OF BURGLARY AT A RESIDENTIAL PREMISES

This study was aimed at exploring the policing of burglary at a residential premises within the Ga-Molepo community by observing the historical background of policing in South Africa; the nature and extent of residential burglary in South Africa (2006-2016) and aspects leading to the commission of residential burglary, as well as proposing possible solutions in order to work towards recognising a democratic order for policing.

According to Mohler (2009), police management must perceive policing as the application of those rules which have been understood and acknowledged by many people, based on the ideologies of the instruction of law. The regulation of law involves the defence of human privileges, the principle of legitimacy, the principle of proportionality, the benefits of the public, good confidence, and conformity with global law. Since the early 1990s, the SAPS has been involved in policing a changing society. Regardless of the police management changes since then, society remains worried about the increasing criminality percentage and the level of viciousness used by offenders of crimes. Many community members are requesting why the number of criminalities continues to rise (Marriah, Soobramoney & Somduth, 2015).

Democracy is dependent on its police service to maintain law and order, and to facilitate a free society (Prinsloo & Du Preez, 1994). These are standards for active, independent or, to put it simply, decent, and qualified policing. The whole democratic structure is created on respecting human privileges, which brings us to the fact that the consensus of residents must be at the core of independent policing.

2.2.1 The nature of burglary at a residential premises: Perceptions of community members

The study conducted by Bruce (2002) discovered that the community members have different views about policing and others have negative perception towards the police because of police brutality, racism, and a poor response to crimes and police corruption. The negative perceptions of community member on policing start when the police treat citizens unfairly by not responding to crime scenes or calls in time. Equally, community members think that they should take the law into their own hands because they think that the police do not do their jobs when responding to crimes. Citizen who report criminal incidents and the cases are resolved, are expected to assess police positively while citizens who lose their cases to police view them negatively. Viewing police positively or negatively depends on the response the community get from the police when dealing with cases. Citizens who view police as corrupt are more likely to evaluate the police negatively (Newham, 2002).

Subsequently, earlier public views on policing have insinuated that residence demographics, interaction with law enforcement, neighbourhood background and impact view affect the way in which community members see the police. Constructive observations of police faith and equality encourage meetings and agreement (Bradford, Jackson & Stanko, 2009). In addition, if individuals do not have faith in their area police and law enforcement's misplaced lawfulness, the public's contact with the police and other activities remain mistreated (Bradford, Jackson & Stanko, 2009). Consequently, the scope of visible local policing predisposes individual's fears of criminality, but assurance in law enforcement too. Lately, Sindall and Sturgis (2013) have repeated the concept that perceptibility has an essential and constructive outcome on self-assurance. Target fulfilment with the police is added as an essential step of the law enforcement routine (Sindall & Sturgis, 2013).

Undoubtedly, law enforcement officers currently agree that communities supporting the SAPS is essential for effective policing. Not only is public provision significant to the justice of the SAPS, it is also critical to engage with the public in jobs to decrease wrongdoing (Bradford, Jackson & Stanko, 2009). Hence, safeguarding public confidence in the law is a vibrant job for law enforcement executives. Besides, there is a growing gesture that public support rests on the public view, that law enforcement treats individuals fairly (Bradford, Jackson & Stanko, 2009). Consequently, most of the public support the police and are thrilled by the force that the police use to achieve their responsibilities (Brown & Benedict, 2002).

2.2.2 Public perceptions of the police operations

Several individuals of native African origin are detained every day and held in custody as remand inmates for extended periods at police stations and as sentenced inmates in correctional services accommodations. The continuance of the conditions regardless of a new radical privilege is regrettable. The CJS is failing those of native African origin by not providing suitable public policing, community services involvement and adequate restorative justice stages to resolve diverse difficulties (Hargovan, 2009).

Between 1994 and 2018 the number of inmates increased drastically, although cell space and jail staff increased insignificantly. Between 1994 and 2018 overpopulation was the effect of the rise in the number of un-sentenced inmates, compared with the rise in the number of sentenced inmates. After the beginning of equality in 1994, policing in South Africa has grown gradually complex, and this has remained the driver for a more active and innovative police service directed to independent policing (Cawthra, 1997).

Pretorius (2008) avers that the criminality level in South Africa is very high, with crimes including murder, rape, hijacking, burglary and the violent assault and mutilation of victims. The rise in the crime level is accredited, in part, to the high unemployment rate and associated social difficulties, which are related with poverty and hopelessness. The SAPS, as the only genuine policing support in South Africa, is frequently called upon to decrease the high crime percentage in society. When police officers are challenged with circumstances that need sympathy, there are instances where they use extreme strength or more strength than is required. There is the problem of public perceptions about the role of the police. For as long as the myth of the police being able to prevent crime is kept alive by government and the media, the public will hold the police accountable for every failure to prevent criminality. Everybody has grown up with the belief that the police are there to prevent crime and, consequently, accusing the police is merely a natural or “conditioned” response.

Brown (2012) shares that in an egalitarianism, it is significant that the entire unit of the public perceive the law enforcement as appropriate, their activities as well-intentioned rather than unbiased and African residents assess law enforcement more undesirably than white residents, young individuals assess law enforcement more undesirably than older individuals and men assess law enforcement more negatively than women. Moreover, individuals with less socioeconomic position have more negative views of law enforcement than people of settled socioeconomic position.

The individuals who stay in a similar communal segment with instructions and principles that disturb their opinion of the world, including their opinion of law enforcement services. Unfriendly interaction with law enforcement distracts people’s views. Most individuals have not acquired new unfavourable involvements with law enforcement, and numerous people recognise a relative or colleague who have (Brown, 2012).

Comparatively, the author identifies the notion that the involvement of relatives and friends distorts public perception of law enforcement. One description is that more unsupportive meetings with law enforcement causes more dissatisfaction with law enforcement amongst some societies (Brown, 2012).

Brown (2012) research has shown a damaging outcome on views of law enforcement of traffic halts, pedestrian stops and seizures. Some signs illustrate that any slight form of interaction with law enforcement deliberately or accidentally drives attitudes in a more negative way. Blacks and other subgroups remain more likely than whites to have unfavourable natural interactions with law enforcement that might form their remarks on rules application (Brown, 2012).

2.2.3 Profile of burglars at residential premises

The profiles of burglars at residential premises relate to the following types; as provided by Bernard-Burcher (1991), who emphasises that most burglary at a residential premises is not committed by professional criminals for different reasons. A combination profile of burglars in the study suggests that they are usually male and young in their teenage years or early twenties. These burglars prefer residences that are not occupied when committing burglary at a residential premises and they tend to use little or no force in gaining entry. They avoid any human contact when they break into a household. Most offenders revealed that during burglary, they are more concerned with whether they will be seen, whether the house is occupied, how easy it is for them to get inside and how fast they can escape without being detected.

- **The amateur burglars**

The amateur burglar includes the burglar who commits crimes primarily to secure money for drugs. The general profile of the typical burglar can thus be depicted as follows: male, young and under-privileged. These offenders select their targets based on several factors. Offenders usually target houses that are in areas familiar to them. They also assess the specific location of the house prior to selecting their target. The visibility of the house from the road or other houses is also a factor; burglars tend to

weigh the potential rewards for their actions in their decisions to commit this crime (Wright & Miller, 2005).

Amateur burglars usual conduct their acts in a rather unsophisticated manner, often involving little planning, they tend to steal a variety of merchandise as opportunities arise. They are more interested in stealing a variety of merchandise [Items volume] rather than quality, they rarely specialise in theft of specific items. Amateurs are part-time burglars who engage in burglary at a residential premises as a small, episodic part of a life of crime in general. They tend to commit opportunity burglaries when a suitable target arises, while involved in other routine activities, either lawful or unlawful (Van Zyl, 2002).

- **The professional burglar**

Professional burglars are defined as those persons who work at burglary at a residential premises as a trade, making their living by burglary at a residential premises and larceny alone and having no other means of income. Professional burglars tend to be older, are specialists who employ considerable skill and planning in executing a burglary at a residential premises and select targets of substantial value, for example the stealing of jewellery (Beirne & Messerschmidt, 1995). In executing their practices, they usually learn their trade from other professional thieves and keep themselves informed on the latest burglary at a residential premises tools, such as drills and saws. Professional burglars often make use of tipsters in the identification of possible burglary at a residential premises targets (Van Zyl, 2002).

- **The specialist burglary**

The specialist in burglary at a residential premises is the top fight burglar, concentrating on wealthy estates, selecting targets very carefully, usually working within a crime ring. Only high-value items will suffice, and thus specialist burglars may also target businesses and warehouses and these burglars are opportunists. They seek out opportunity often to support a drug habit or other uncivil reasons for turning your stuff into cash (Robert, 2004).

- **The simple burglar**

Simple burglary at a residential premises refers to the act of entering any type of structure without permission (regardless of whether the entry is unlocked) with the intention of stealing something inside. This thief seeks out easy fast targets, such as open windows and unlocked doors. Since the ease of the crime is the driving force rather than advanced knowledge of valuables, this burglar often ends up with 'stuff' that can be exchanged cash (Robert, 2004).

- **The aggravated burglar**

Robert (2004) submits that the aggravated burglar gains access to a structure (A criminal gains unauthorised entry into which contains a person, or, the intruder has a dangerous weapon, or the burglar commits harm to that individual).

- **Home invasion burglar [Burglar at residential premises]**

Unlike aggravated burglary, in which the burglar does not know that the structure is inhabited at the time of the crime, the home invader knows in advance that at least one person is inside and premeditates using violence or force against that person or with the intent to damage or deface the interior. The looter takes advantage of an establishment, dwelling or vehicle that is unprotected due to a hurricane or other disaster, or due to mass rioting (Robert, 2004).

2.2.4 *Modus Operandi* of burglars at residential premises

In the study by Nee (2010) of convicted burglars, three main things are emphasised about burglary. The first one being the decision made to commit a crime followed by a certain pattern. The first decision happens away from the scene based on a certain motivation which may, for example, be a need for money, it is then followed by searching an area that is vulnerable until they find a suitable target, in this instance, a suitable residential property. The second thing was their interest in the cues that alerted them

to the accessibility, the occupancy, surveillability and security of that potential resident. The last one is how the burglar shows careful consideration with a specific method when selecting a target. Subsequently, Pena (2002) mentions that to clearly understand the *Modus Operandi (MO)* of burglary at a residential premises the following elements should be addressed by the investigators:

- **Type of property attacked:** Money, electronics, jewellery, clothing and furs and household goods (Rodgers, 2017).
- **Point of entry:** Door, window, roof or transom on front, side, or rear of building; on first floor, second or another floor.
- **Means of attack:** Tool (screwdriver, crowbar, key, lock pick, ladder used, ropes, brace-and-bit, chisel, glass cutter). With the burglary at a residential premises of a safe, was an explosive is used, burning torch, combination and lock punched out, box ripped open with a bar or the combination was manipulated.
- **Date, time, and day of the week property was attacked:** Burglars burgle the houses during the day when people are at school or work and at midnight when people are asleep or early in the morning. Burglars have enough time to commit burglary during the week because houses are left unattended or alone during the day because of school and work.
- **Trademark:** Assaulted victim, committed nuisance (urinated, defecated, cut telephone wires, left obscene or other notes, poisoned pets, posed as a peddler or handicapped person, looking for employment, used moving van or truck or another vehicle). Did the burglar hide-in until business closed? Is the burglar a ransacker who leaves a mess (Drawers, doors opened with property scattered) or is he/she methodical and neat? Did the burglar help himself/herself to food or drink or is there evidence that he/she was familiar with the premises? Did he/she use matches or leave cigarette butts?

2.2.5 The contributory factors of burglary at a residential premises

Repetto (1974), and Bennett and Wright (1984) are in agreement that within the context, three main elements are involved in the burglary at a residential premises process, namely: **(1)** The burglar(s) with the motive, **(2)** Selection of suitable target/residence and **(3)** The residents deemed as the victim. These three components are seen as dynamic entities, with many different attributes and possible manifestations, which interact in such a manner that this crime often occurs. The many different attributes and possible manifestations can be studied through the identification of factors or variables in a conceptual framework. There are several reasons behind why people choose to commit residential burglary. Burglars are motivated by the money, more than anything else, whether the need is real or perceived, or by greed.

2.2.5.1 Knowledge of the area and potential victims: The environment in which burglary at a residential premises takes place

The study by the University of North Carolina at Charlotte Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology conducted by Blevins, Kuhns and Lee (2012) entitled: “*Understanding decisions to burglarise from the offender’s perspective*”, indicates that there are multiple motivations for engaging in burglary at a residential premises including drugs, money, foolishness, and thrill-seeking. Within this sample it was quite apparent that drug and alcohol use were, at a minimum, correlated to involvement in burglary at a residential premises and in many cases, the direct cause, and a primary motivator, for males and females alike. Within the entire sample, 88% of respondents indicated that their top reason for committing burglaries was related to their need to acquire drugs (51%) or money (37%), although many reported needing the money to support drug problems. Crack or powder cocaine and heroin were the drugs most often reportedly used by these offenders and these substances were often being used in combination with other substances, including marijuana and alcohol, during burglary at a residential premises attempts.

When asked how income accumulated from burglaries would be spent, they highlighted that drug use was the most frequently reported answer (64%) followed by living expenses (49%), partying (35%), clothes/shoes (31%), gifts (17%), and gambling

(5%). The factors the professional burglars considered during target selection relates to the following; it was indicated that about half of the burglars reported engaging in at least one burglary at a residential premises and about a third reported engaging in at least one commercial burglary at a residential premises during the year before their most recent arrest. Most of the burglars relied on the use of a vehicle; more often it was their own, but sometimes the vehicle belonged to a family member or a friend. About one in eight reported using a stolen vehicle during a burglary (Blevins, Kuhns & Lee, 2012).

Furthermore, there was substantial and wide variation in the distance driven prior to engaging in a burglary, with some traveling hundreds of miles or across state lines to minimise identification and capture and others reporting walking or driving just a couple of blocks away or for five miles or more. Just under a third of the offenders reported that they collected information about a potential target prior to initiating a burglary at a residential premises attempt, suggesting that most burglars are impulsive to some degree. About 12% indicated that they typically planned the burglary, 41% suggested it was most often a 'spur of the moment' event/offense, and the other 37% reported that it varied (Blevins, Kuhns & Lee, 2012).

When considering the amount of time dedicated to planning, when planning did occur, nearly half (49%) suggested that the burglary at a residential premises occurred within one day and 16% indicated that the planning process took place for between one and three days. There were no significant differences in substance use involvement between those who were more deliberate planners and those who were not. Just over a fourth of burglars typically worked alone and approximately the same proportion reported never burglarising alone. Among those who worked with others, most committed burglaries with friends and spouses/significant others, although nearly one in eight reported working with other family members (Blevins, Kuhns & Lee, 2012).

Usually professional burglars work with an 'inside person' or they are an inside person. This person has access to the potential target and advises the potential burglar about the things they can steal in the house. The person may also provide very sensitive information, such as the time when the owners are away and the weaknesses in security at the house. For example, housemaids and gardeners work with burglars and update them on what is new in the house and where they keep the money. The maid

would wait until the family goes on a vacation and calls the burglars to come take what they want (Cromwell, Olson & Avary, 1991).

In other instances, the person may not be aware that they are an informant for the burglary. They could mention that the owner is going on a vacation and that they have bought new furniture or they have been keeping a large amount of money in the house, to their family or friends. For example; a maid from a disadvantaged home may mention to her siblings that her boss is going away for the weekend and they will be alone in the house, however one of their siblings is a burglar who sees an opportunity. The brother uses this innocent information to commit burglary. Burglars also approach employees of certain businesses that usually provide services to households such as a pizza delivery person, plumbing or maintenance. They have access to the home and have an opportunity to scout the quality of potential items to be stolen or the security measures taken by the household (Cromwell, Olson & Avary, 1991).

People who live a wealthy lifestyle are associated with valuable goods in their household which may attract a potential burglar when searching for a suitable target. Burglars may see the lifestyle of flashy life, expensive cell phones, clothes, shoes, or the cars driven by the resident (Van Zyl, Wilson & Pretorius, 2003). This gives the burglar the impression that the house has more valuable goods that can bring them good money. A burglar may assume that they may have a stash of cash in the house or expensive jewellery they can sell for money. Residents may also be ignorant in taking safety precautions, especially if they have never been victims of a burglary at a residential premises before. Certain residents are much more at risk of being victimised because they are an easy target (Van Zyl *et al.*, 2003)

SecurAlert (2013) highlights that profiling of the average burglar suggests that most burglars are male under 25 years of age (usually mid to late teens) and not the smooth, cool, dapper professional you see on TV or the movies. They are thugs looking for an easy score and can be very sloppy in terms of how they break into and ransack a home. Most use ordinary household tools to break into a home including, screwdrivers, channel-lock pliers, small pry bars and hammers. Many times, they just use brute force to go through a door or window and most have an arrest record, usually for robbery, assault or drug-related offenses so although they are typically not prone to violence, when surprised or confronted by an occupant, they could attack.

2.2.5.2 Open or not properly locked windows and doors: The conditions that exist prior to the commission of burglary at a residential premises

Zinn (2010) provides that, burglars tend to target estate residents because they assume that those roaming around the area are legit and have been let in by security at the gate. People who reside in estate houses are not careful with their security systems and they tend to leave the doors and windows open. They do not pay attention to what happens outside their house, like seeing strangers, they just assume they have been cleared at the gate by security, whereas they may not have been. This makes it easy for burglars to gain access to their houses because of the open door or window.

Having good and multiple locks on doors and windows makes it hard for burglars to succeed when they attempt to push a door or window. Houses with badly maintained doors and windows are more attractive to burglars. When a burglar tries to force entry into a house and they struggle, they are likely to attempt someplace else or not to proceed with the crime for that day. For houses that are not well maintained, they tend to gain easy access and may not even have to worry about making sounds that may get them caught (Aantjes, 2012).

2.2.5.3 Lack of home security or burglar alarm: Motivations based on suitable targets

Cromwell, Olson and Avary (1991) argue that burglars prefer to target residents that do not have an alarm rather than to take the greater risk of being caught by burglarising a house with an alarm system. Some of these burglars pull away from houses that have a warning sign of a burglar alarm, they do not want to take the risk of finding out if the residents are bluffing or not. Although some burglars may take the risk of entering a house that has an alarm system because the response from the police or security company may take a few minutes. In such cases the burglar may not take a lot of things, they may take jewellery or things that will not make it hard for them to lift. The advantage is that most furniture cannot be taken or they will not do a lot of damage since they had limited time.

Dogs are believed to have a very positive impact in reducing the chances of a house being burglarised. Dogs are very effective in discouraging burglars from entering a residence. They are a security system that is used in both rural and urban areas. The

absence of a dog results in burglar(s) entering the residential premises with no notice. Dogs usually bark when they see someone they do not know or something strange happening in their surroundings. The barking will then wake people in the house to check if things are okay outside. Burglars feel that they will easily get caught once a dog barks since people are now aware and they beg off (Cromwell, Olson & Avary, 1991). Security systems are mainly to prevent crime from taking place in your household. Nine out of ten burglars, when they encounter an alarm or security system, refrain from burglarising the house. Houses with no security system are more likely to be subjected to burglary. Taking precautions on windows and doors should be a priority for one's home safety (Lifeshield, 2012).

2.2.5.4 Lack of outdoor security lighting

The more favourable the burglar perceives specific conditions, the greater the chance that he will proceed with the burglary. Lighting around the house can prevent a successful burglary. Houses that have lights in their surrounding or streets that have lights are less likely to be burglarised. Most people who commit burglary at a residential premises avoid being seen by other people and lights make their presence more visible because they can be detected more easily.

The most effective lights are motion sensing lights which are able to detect when someone is in the surroundings, they detect movement (Aantjes, 2012). Motion sensing lights are effective because immediately when a burglar is sensed in the surrounding, they turn on or alert the owner, thus the burglar fails to proceed with their initial plan of stealing. When a residence is dark, the likelihood of detecting if someone is in the house is very slim. Neighbours will not be able to see if an unordinary event is taking place at the house when there is no lighting. Lighting gives burglars the impression that they could be seen, that someone is watching them, which makes it harder for them to continue with their initial plan of burglarising the house (Aantjes, 2012).

This also relates to the design feature of neighbourhoods or residences; thus, all neighbourhoods are prone to burglary; they are all regarded as a target area although the nature and extent of the burglary at a residential premises will differ between neighbourhoods or designs. Urban areas or more affluent areas may be targeted by burglars

for the valuable goods, for example, they may target the premises to get expensive jewellery, valuable paintings or money in the house whereas with rural areas or less affluent areas they may be targeted because there have no security measures. Burglary at a residential premises can even happen in the poorest homes since they may have some valuable goods in their households, for example, they may steal a television or a fridge and it can also happen in the richest homes because of the valuable goods that might be in the house. With burglary at a residential premises any neighbourhood can be a target (Van Zyl, 2006).

Residents who are away from home due to work, recreational activities or other purposes give burglars an opportunity to break and enter the house in their absence. As a burglar's main viewpoint is not being seen that is the best opportunity for them to burglarise a house. If they meet the residents of the house, it would be an accident and not something that was done intentionally. For example; a burglar may enter a house with the knowledge that the owners of the house are at work and the children probably are at school only to find out that the teenage daughter of that particular residence did not go to school because they are not feeling well that day. The burglar was not aware that someone was at the house up until the burglary at a residential premises was taking place (Van Zyl, Wilson & Pretorius, 2003).

Aantjes (2012) further indicates that burglars refrain from committing burglary at a residential premises in neighbourhoods where there are people in the street or those doing outdoor activities. The busyness of a neighbourhood can be an advantage for the residents because most burglars do not want to be seen. The absence of a Neighbourhood Watch can be a disadvantage for the people who reside in that neighbourhood because it is as if every household is for themselves and that makes it easier for burglars to target the residences. For instance, in most townships where neighbours usually have close social relations or when a working mom or a family go on a trip they ask the neighbours to keep an eye on their house, there is less likelihood of being burglarised and they more likely not to be successful. Whereas in urban areas where each neighbour minds his or her on business and hardly socialises with one another, they are more likely to experience successful burglary in their homes. That is because even if a neighbour can see someone they do not know in the other house, they assume that they are guests or that they work there.

Walmsley and Lewis (1993) produced research results that indicated a distinct association between middle to upper-income suburban neighbourhoods and property crimes such as burglary, larceny and car theft, whereas low-income neighbourhoods were associated with crimes of violence. Walmsley and Lewis (1993) further stressed that residential premises with accessible good roads may become more vulnerable to this crime than those with limited roads access, as accessibility to-and-exit from the target area can be achieved. Burglars are motivated by the need for money, more than anything else, whether the need is real or perceived, Walmsley and Lewis (1993).

The motivated burglar tends to search for a suitable target in the neighbourhood he knows best (Walmsley & Lewis, 1993). If he has specific knowledge of a target and its occupants, or has gained inside information through a tipster, that target will be more vulnerable than other potential targets of which he has no knowledge. The process of burglary at a residential premises involves the decisionmaking judgement by the burglar (Walmsley & Lewis, 1993). When a motivated burglar finds a suitable target, the immediate situational conditions will influence his final decision whether to proceed with the burglary at a residential premises or not.

The situational conditions refer to the local conditions prevailing in the micro-environment prior to the commission of the burglary and the more favourable the burglar perceives these conditions, the greater the chance that they will proceed with the burglary at a residential premises (Walmsley & Lewis, 1993). Hearnden and Magill (2004:8) reveal that burglars often abuse alcohol and drugs, which increases the need for money, this is clearly linked to the prevalence of burglary at a residential premises, using stolen items for sale.

The study conducted by Jalilian, Alavijeh, Changizi, Ahmadpanah, Amoei and Mostafavi (2014) entitled: "*Factors related to burglary at a residential premises from the perspective of burglars: A qualitative study*", identified five main themes resulting from the fieldwork interviews by participants; coded as follows: "Personal factors, family attitudes and conditions, others' effects, regulations on burglary at a residential premises punishment, and availability of stolen property." In support of the author's assertions, the researcher provides that in Namakgale policing area has a huge existing criminal gangs coming from the neighbouring countries such as Zimbabwe and Mozambique, to name two. It can be confirmed that these criminals commit burglary at a residential

premises professionally. They often burglarise three to four houses daily in the same neighbourhood before they move to different locations.

Recently (2018-2020), the most problematic criminals in the area are local burglars, the ones that are native citizens of this area, they collude with foreign nationals in the commission of these crimes. These criminals abuse alcohol and drugs, they are often referred to as addict adolescents, they practice this as a lifestyle. The most stolen items are jewellery, money, home electronic, laptops, tablets, mobile phone and TVs, among others. Sometimes it is very unusual items, such as clothes and food. Then the crime is likely to be committed by homeless people. In an attempt to respond to these crimes effectively, Walmsley and Lewis (1993) share that it is hard to break into commercially owned buildings as businesses, stores and banks manage their money differently than they used to, making the money harder to get a hold of, decreasing the gain and increasing the risks.

Residences, on the other hand, often are empty and unattended during the day. People have a great deal of valuable items at home that are easy to sell and divest. It is also hard to prosecute someone for a burglary at a residential premises if they have not left any traces, such as Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA) or fingerprints, or if someone did not see them in the act (Sonne, 2006). This is also a contributing reason to why people commit residential burglary. In cases where there is no trace of a person, one must concentrate on the objects that were stolen. Bad descriptions, lack of photographs or markings and so on, make it hard to find any stolen object and connect it to a specific burglary at a residential premises. In terms of properly preventing, combating, investigating and policing burglary at a residential premises where a suspect is unknown, the Criminal Law (Forensic Procedures) Amendment Act (No. 37 of 2013) (The 'DNA Act') can assist the police by identifying the suspect by means of fingerprints, footprints, or any physical evidence that can be found at the crime scene (Sonne, 2006).

2.3. THE PREVALENCE AND ASSOCIATED IMPACTS OF BURGLARY AT A RESIDENTIAL PREMISES: BRIEF COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

2.3.1 The prevalence of burglary at a residential premises: Internationally and local comparisons

2.3.1.1 England and Wales

Burglary at a residential premises is also a common crime and accounts for a substantial part of the load on the police, the courts, and the prison system. In 1980, about 295,000 burglaries to residential property were recorded by the police in England and Wales and these accounted for some 11% of, what in official statistics, are now called 'serious offences recorded by the police' (Criminal Statistics, 1980). Only 29% of these residential burglaries were 'cleared up' compared with a clear-up rate of 41% for all serious offences. Yet, in 1980, burglars receiving prison sentences for offences against residential and non-residential properties still accounted for nearly half of all receptions into prison of males under 21 and nearly a quarter of those over 21 (Prison Statistics, 1980). Comparatively, based on offences recorded by the police in 1980 and the number of households recorded in the 1971 census, a rough estimate of the average risk of burglary to households in England and Wales was 1 in 55.

Equally important are the risk figures, which are higher when offences not reported to the police are taken into account. According to recent evidence from the General Household Survey (Criminal Statistics, 1980) these represent some 40% of all residential burglaries which occur. Based on both reported and unreported crimes, then, the average risk of burglary to households in 1980 may have been closer to 1 in 35 than 1 in 55.

2.3.1.2 United States of America

Burglary at a residential premises is one of the most prevalent crimes in the United States of America (USA), as well as in many other countries. Burglaries account for 18% of all serious crimes in the USA, and are the second most common serious crime, just behind larceny theft. In addition, it is believed that as many as half of all burglaries go unreported, which might account for the low average clearance rate of 14% in the

USA. A significant factor related to the low clearance rate is that about 65% of residential burglaries investigated do not produce enough evidence or information about the crime, therefore making it one of the most difficult crimes to solve (Criminology and Criminal Justice Senior Capstone, 2010:2).

The official rate of residential burglaries, as measured by the Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) Uniform Crime Report (UCR), has changed dramatically over the last 50 years. The residential burglary rates increased in the USA and reported residential burglaries were 508 per 100 000 of the population in 1990. The most recent statistics indicated that the national burglary rate was at 731 per 100 000 of the population in 2009. Van Zyl *et al.* (2003:107) state that residential burglary would remain a serious problem and would probably continue to be a problem for as long as large sections of the population experience unemployment, poverty, and relative deprivation.

2.3.1.3 Australia

Burglary at a residential premises remains a significant crime problem in Australia. While the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC) is keen to encourage residential burglary reduction initiatives, it often encounters the fact that targeted operations simply displace crime to another area (Ratcliffe, 2002:1).

According to the AIC (2008:1), a 2003-2004 survey which reported data from the 30 most developed countries, including Australia. Residential burglary was one of the various crime types that had increased, according to the survey. In Australia, the prevalence of residential burglary was estimated at 2.5% and this was higher than the international average of 1.8%, which placed Australia in the fifth highest position of the 30 countries.

2.3.1.4 Canada

The General Social Survey (2009:3) outlined that until 2007, Canada recorded a higher burglary rate than the USA. Since then, Canada's burglary rate has been dropping at a faster pace than the USA's rate therefore, Canada ranks better on this indicator than the USA. Statistics Canada (2006) reported that the police-reported crime

rate has been dropping since 1992. The decline has been more prevalent for non-violent crimes, including Burglary at a residential premises. Canada's burglary rate has declined steadily since 2003. Between 2003 and 2010, burglary at a residential premises rate fell from 901 burglaries per 100 000 people to 578. Statistics Canada (2006) reported that 93% of Canadians aged 15 and over were satisfied with their personal safety from crime; only slightly lower than 94% in 2004.

2.3.1.5 South Africa

Burglary at a residential premises is a property crime that has the highest occurrence rate of all crimes in South Africa. It may therefore have a significant impact on people's perceptions and feelings of safety (Shaw, 1997). The picture that the media portrays of South Africa, locally and abroad, is that the country is burdened with high crime levels. This poses a real challenge to the safety and security of ordinary citizens, and to tourists visiting the country. Crime has the potential to derail the transformation process in South Africa and to deepen the already existing divisions within society (Shaw, 1997).

Generally, the Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) looks at private houses from all nine provinces in South Africa and offers data about the changing characteristics of crime from the viewpoint of these houses and the victims of crime. With previous reports, and in line with the SAPS' statistics, the most common crime experienced by South Africans is burglary and household robbery (VOCS, 2017/18).

Burglaries are crimes that do not include interaction between the offender and the victim, while house robberies do. With burglary, the VOCS figures disclosed that 969,567 houses experienced incidents in the previous 12 months, with 1, 35 million incidences spread among them. In particular, the SAPS' statistics for reported cases of burglaries illustrate that only 220,865 cases were recorded in a similar period. This means that the occurrence of burglary in South Africa could be as much as six times larger than the endorsed police stats show, with most cases (84%) going unreported (VOCS, 2017/18). According to the VOCS, 52% of homes did not report any of the experienced events of burglary to the police, 4% reported some incidents, and only

44% reported all of them. Over the past five years, 13% of all 2,2million houses have experienced burglary in the republic, the statistics disclosed (VOCS, 2017/18).

According to the (VOCS, 2018/19) report, incidences of deliberate damage to residential property and arson, theft of personal property and street robbery increased in 2018/19 compared to 2017/18. There were about 70 000 incidences of deliberate damage to residential property and arson in 2018/19. This crime affected 0.32% of households in South Africa. The SAPS number of reported cases of burglary at a residential premises for 2018/19 is far outside the 95% confidence interval for the estimated number of reported cases. This implies that the estimated number of reported cases from the Government, Public Safety and Justice Survey (GPSJS) is significantly higher than the number of cases of burglary reported by the SAPS (VOCS, 2018/19).

Importantly, nearly 184,000 houses experienced just over 264,000 incidents of household robberies over the previous 12 months, but the SAPS has only 22431 cases reported in its statistics. Yet again, the occurrence of these crimes could be as much as 12 times higher than it is revealed in police stats, with over 90% of the crimes left unreported. When perceiving a crime in the country, individuals still take helpful action (call the police and alert security) but feel hopeless in their own individual security.

An estimated 3.7 million break-ins were committed every year on average from 2003 to 2007. Family members were there in approximately 1 million break-ins and became victims of violent crimes in 266,560 burglaries. Burglary is a widespread crime internationally. For the developed nations that took part in the 2004/2005 Indians Volunteers for Community Service, annually there were an extra 4, 4 accomplished or attempted break-ins per 100 houses (Brown & Benedict, 2002).

The incidence of burglary stayed unaffected at about 5% between 2010 and 2015/16, representing about 647,000 cases in 2015/2016. About 712,000 (2%) people experienced theft of their individual stuff, while 254,000 (0, 7%) experienced assault in 2015/16. Crime reporting rates differ a lot depending on the type of crime from 95% in the case of murder to 17, 3% in the case of crop theft. Most people do not report criminal events to the police due to lack of assurance that the police could do anything (VOCS, 2015/2016). The above survey shows deteriorating trends in the households' levels of gratification with the police and courts between 2010 and 2015/16.

Especially, in 2011, a predicted 64, 2% of households were pleased with the police in their area, while about 58, 8% were pleased with the police in 2015/16. The decline in gratification with the police was most severe in the Western Cape from 71, 3% in 2011 to 57, 1% in 2015/16. Indeed, those who were pleased with the magistrates thought that magistrates passed suitable sentences, while of those who were pleased with the police believed the police were gender and disability sensitive and accepting. The survey also indicates a decrease in police visibility during the last five years (VOCS, 2015/2016). Due to the fear of crime, households in South Africa take actions to safeguard themselves and their property. More than half of the households take physical protection actions for their homes and slightly more than a third of automobile holders take protection measures for their vehicles.

It is predicted that 832,122 incidences of housebreaking or burglary took place in 2017/18, disturbing 4, 25% of families in South Africa. This is a rise of 7% from 2016/17. Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga Provinces had the highest percentage of homes affected by burglary. Limpopo had the lowest percentage of households affected by burglary. The Indian/Asian people had the highest percentage of burglary and the white people had the lowest. The difference between male and female-led households was least, but a greater percentage of male-led than female-led households experienced burglary (VOCS, 2017/18).

Clothes were the most common (31, 6%) item taken during burglary in 2017/18, followed by cell phones and food. Bicycles were the least likely items to be taken during burglary. It is estimated that 1, 9% of homes lost bicycles during burglaries. In 2018/19, there were 22,431 incidents of house robbery reported, up from 22,261 in 2017/18. On average, 61 households were robbed each day. In 2019/20, there were 205,959 house burglaries reported to the police, an average of 464 houses were burgled per day (VOCS, 2019/20). The number of households that experienced burglary in the past five years preceding the survey increased from 2, 1 million in 2015/16 to 2, 3 million in 2019/20. With an estimated 1, 2 million incidences of burglary in 2019/20 and affecting 891,000 households in South Africa, this represented 5, 3% of all households in the country. While incidents of burglary peaked in June and December during the 2018/19 period, burglary peaked in June, September, and December in 2019/20 (VOCS, 2019/20).

The Republic of South Africa crime statistics of burglary at a residential premises is 39,477 from April to June 2021-2022, it increased from 37,128 from April to June 2020-2021. Residential burglary has increased by 6, 3 % (Statistics South Africa, 2022). Similarly, most recent crime statistics released by the SAPS, there were 22,431 armed robberies (aggravated robbery) at residential premises in South Africa between 1 April 2018 and 31 March 2019, a 0,8% increase from the 2017/2018 financial year (SAPS, 2018/19). While according to the SAPS, home burglaries have stabilised, Dial-direct Insurance is advising South Africans to be cautious and implement a proactive method to home security. Whereas; "homes that are not thoroughly protected, have only one safety measure in place or have one of their security features temporarily deactivated, are the main targets. South Africans are advised to do a full security inspection and better safeguard themselves" (SAPS, 2014).

Consulted studies by the researcher specify that criminality patterns and movements differ significantly between urban suburbs and traditional lower-income areas such as towns and informal settlements. The lower class are mostly defenceless to both the dangers and the consequences of victimisation. They are generally powerless to decrease the likelihood of being victimised, for instance, by connecting safekeeping gates and alarm systems and are repeatedly not gifted to protect or to replace taken things (Louw & Shaw, 1997).

The researcher also submits that burglary at a residential premises has the peak rate of all criminality in South Africa and the present movement in the number of housing break-ins show that this type of property crime will possibly continue to be a severe problem in the community for the predictable future. Housing break-ins have a solid geographical link because every crime can be traced to a place and period of incidence, which includes ecological and societal procedures of concentration to the geographer. It is alleged that this research can be traced back to an improved understanding of the topic, policing of residential burglary and instantaneously contribute to the 'geography of criminality', a comparatively unidentified sub-field of academic research in South Africa. Break-ins are not only an interruption of secrecy and a means of depriving individuals of valued property; they also raise fear and anger. The SAPS

start to regard housing burglary as a less severe crime, because of its non-violent nature. In most break-in crimes, property lost is never found and the safety of property falls mainly in the field of private safekeeping (Brown & Benedict, 2002).

Another challenge is that national level crime statistics obscure the immensely skewed distribution of crime within a country, city or neighbourhood. The rates of most crime, especially property crimes, are significantly higher in urban areas than in rural areas (Kriegler & Shaw, 2016). The nine large, urban municipalities analysed in this report are home to about 40% of the residents of South Africa, but recorded about 77% of the carjacking's, 74% of the vehicle thefts, 64% of the aggravated robberies, 58% of the residential robberies and 47% of the murders (Kriegler & Shaw, 2016). Within cities and neighbourhoods, people living just a few kilometres apart or living side by side but occupying different social spaces because of, for example their gender, age, disability or employment status, experience entirely different worlds of crime risk (Kriegler & Shaw, 2016).

2.3.2 The associated impact of burglary at a residential premises

The impact of burglary on a resident's feelings of safety will vary from person to person, depending on how seriously they were affected by the burglary. Barkan (1997) confirms that female victims of burglary at a residential premises are more likely than male victim to be afraid and upset, while male victims are more likely to be angry or annoyed after experiencing a burglary.

According to the research the main results show that the victims of burglary at a residential premises often suffer from several anxieties after the offence. Given that most studies were conducted a short time after the burglary, fewer studies have emphasised the long-term strain and change in behaviour (Wollinger, Dreißigacker & Baier, 2017).

In Germany, it was found that time played an important role in the feelings people experienced directly after a burglary at a residential premises and after some time elapsed. More than 50% of the respondents indicated that they initially experienced heightened feelings of being unsafe but that these feelings returned to 'normal' after some time had passed. This category of people also indicated that they did not make any significant changes to their daily routine activities (Wollinger, Dreißigacker & Baier,

2017). However, evidence was also found that residents who had had contact with the burglars, single female residents, and the elderly experienced more intense feelings of unsafety. The fact that the burglary at a residential premises victims improved their security after the burglaries could also have contributed to the return of feelings of relative safety (Wollinger, Dreißigacker & Baier, 2017).

2.3.2.1 The burglar's guilty feelings

A classification of situational techniques to prevent these crimes, includes “guilty, shame, and embarrassment” as one of the categories. They argue that this condition could affect the psyche of criminals to deter them from offending in the future. However, if criminals do not experience these feelings, they may continue with their criminal activity if conditions are favourable and they have reason to justify their actions (Clarke & Homel, 1997).

2.3.2.1.1 The repeat and near repeat victimisations of burglary at a residential premises

Repeat victimisation is defined as exposure to more than one crime over a specific period (Gorve, 2011:3). Repeat victimisation is a common occurrence when it comes to burglaries (Townesley, Homel & Chaseling, 2003). Repeat burglary at a residential premises victimisation occurs when a property is burglarised more than once within a specified period (i.e. A year).

Many studies have demonstrated that prior burglary at a residential premises victimisation is associated with an elevated risk of future burglary at a residential premises victimisation (Johnson, Bower & Hirschfield, 1997:10). Repeat burglary at a residential premises tends to occur swiftly after the initial burglary at a residential premises (Polvi, Looman, Humphries & Pease, 1991). Often, re-victimisation takes place within days or weeks. After a short period, the risk declines rapidly until it reaches its original level. While the data, methodologies, and outcomes differ somewhat across studies, a characteristic exponential decay in the time of repeat burglary at a residential premises victimisation has been confirmed in many studies.

There are two explanations for these findings: **1)** The first is that burglary at a residential premises victimisation simply flags properties with lasting attributes. According to this explanation, both the initial burglary at a residential premises and the repeated burglary at a residential premises reflect the elevated risk associated with the stable attributes of the target. **2)** The second mechanism is that the initial victimisation boosts the likelihood of repeat victimisation. Under this mechanism, the initial burglary at a residential premises alters something about the property or the victim that increases the risk of re-victimisation (Tseloni & Pease, 2003). To this end, it has been argued that the temporal pattern of repeating burglaries often suggests the involvement of the same offender or offender group in both offences (Polvi, Looman, Humphries & Pease, 1991, Forrester, 1990, Laycock, 2001).

Indeed, it is compatible with the possibility that a repeat offence against the same premise involves the same offender who committed the initial offence and who returns to collect items not stolen during the initial burglary at a residential premises or that have been replaced since then. On the other hand, in the wake of a burglary, one should expect victims to be extremely vigilant and maybe to install burglary at a residential premises prevention devices, which should logically decrease the risk of repeat victimisation. Furthermore, burglary at a residential premises has a huge impact on its victims thus making the crime the most feared by many individuals. Once a resident is burglarised, there is a greater chance of repeat burglary at a residential premises in that residence. That includes houses in the nearby area being more at risk of being burglarised or a burglary at a residential premises attempt, since burglars are familiar with the area and the characteristics of the houses (Aantjes, 2012).

Knowing that you fell victim to this crime can result in mixed heavy emotions and you may experience psychological effects (Aantjes, 2012). Burglary at a residential premises involves intruders entering into a home and damaging the feeling of personal safety, peace of mind and one's well-being. Its great impact on its victims and those who fear burglary, is out of proportion to the value of the property that is stolen (Coupe & Griffiths, 1998).

2.3.2.1.2 Financial impact of burglary at a residential premises

- **Replacing stolen goods**

Not having insurance coverage may result in one having to replace stolen goods out of their own pocket. This is very expensive for a lot of people, because no financial plans were made to replace the lost goods. They may also have to live without those items that were stolen due to lack of finances (Lifeshield, 2012).

- **Home repairs**

This must be one of the most financially intensive things that needs immediate attention from the victims of burglary. The cost of house repairs depends on the damage that was done when the burglar was entering and the extent of force that was used. Looking at a burglary at a residential premises that took place with the offender being successful in taking the items without being recognised and breaking anything when entering may result in one having to change all the door handles and locks. A normal price for ordinary handles and locks can be approximately R160 with a labour fee of approximately R100, for each door that needs replacements. Damage to a door or a broken window may be even more costly for an ordinary person, especially for those from the lower class. Other damages that result from burglary at a residential premises can be extremely bad and may require a specialised contractor to evaluate and deal with all the repairs that need to be done, such as to the roof, gutters, siding, broken window repairs and painting. The repairs will depend on the method of entry of the burglar (Lifeshield, 2012).

- **Legal fees and insurance costs**

In evaluating the costs of the stolen items, the insurance plays a very important role. Claiming for insurance may also come with its own costs. The insurance beneficiary who is the victim is expected to pay a deductible to the insurance when they claim in most cases. There are extra costs paid to the insurance. Another burden that comes with claiming is needing to prove that you owned the items you claimed were stolen

from your home. Insurance premiums usually increase after a claim; they are likely to increase after a burglary at a residential premises occurs (Lifeshield, 2012).

This results in a permanent future cost for the victim. Insurances cannot replace all the stolen items as some are sentimental items that cannot be bought, money will be paid out for them, but they are irreplaceable. The items may result in a permanent loss since they cannot be recovered. Being a victim of burglary at a residential premises may mean that one may need to hire a lawyer for protection from the burglar or to sue an insurance company that may not be willing to cover what they have promised. Legal fees tend to add up and lawsuits may take years and that means more money for lawyers (Lifeshield, 2012).

- **Therapy/medical bill and missed time at work**

Burglary at a residential premises can be a traumatic experience and may require individual or group therapy. The feeling of anxiety one has knowing that someone has come into their own private space, where they are supposed to feel safe, can leave one psychologically unfit. One needs to pay for therapy in order to deal with the trauma. If a family member was present during the burglary at a residential premises, they may also end up suffering from serious injuries when the burglar tries to defend themselves and this could result in more medical costs because they require extensive medical attention (Lifeshield, 2012).

- **Psychological and emotional impact**

Burglary at a residential premises has a huge psychological and emotional impact that is overlooked by many people, including the South African law enforcement agencies such as the SAPS. When a person reports burglary, not only were their belongings stolen but also their feelings of safety. The impact of burglary at a residential premises differs from one person to another and it also depends on the extent of the burglary. The impact depends on how seriously one was affected by the burglary. Female victims tend to be afraid and upset whereas male victims are filled with anger or annoyed after experiencing burglary at a residential premises (Van Zyl *et al.*, 2003).

Some victims of burglary at a residential premises view this crime as a personal attack, with their privacy being violated, leaving them with feelings of anxiety, anger, trauma, vulnerability and fear. They experience a psychological trauma which might take years to recover from. The emotional and psychological trauma is never repaired. The fact that the burglars are not arrested, and the property not found might result in the escalation of feelings of invasion and fear for the victims. Victims of burglary at a residential premises experience feelings of outrage, frustration and feel exposed by their burglar (Butcher, 1991).

- **Social impact**

Butcher (1991) reveals that burglary at a residential premises brings unease to the society and there are feelings of mistrust among society members. The residents who experience this crime might find it hard to trust their neighbours or the neighbour's child who is taking drugs. The society will assume that they committed the act to feed their drug habit and these will likely cause fights between the community and the family. The society or community members experience feelings of fear when burglary at a residential premises takes place in the area and the victims and society suffer from this crime since it can result in withdrawal by many members. There is a limit to the activities one does and one might even prefer being indoors rather than going out. With the increase in fear some community members are likely to relocate to safer neighbourhoods.

The researcher submits that even though most burglars prefer to commit the act in the absence of people, we have cases where an individual might be inside without their knowledge or the burglar was hoping they would not hear or notice their presence. Victims of residential burglary at a residential premises may suffer physical injuries during the process of a burglary. For example, when the burglar tries to escape, they may take drastic action to protect themselves, such as throwing something at the individual present. Such incidents cause fear among the victims and the public. That is due to that fact that it takes place in their private space and they cannot move away from it. So, the fear of re-victimisation is unique for these victims.

It has been viewed as tentative evidence that in a typical repeat burglary, the perpetrators are the same people who were involved in the initial event. Although the exponential decay in the time course itself is not sufficient evidence for this claim, as it may also indicate unobserved risk heterogeneity. There is also evidence from interviews and offender accounts that returning to a previous targeted property is a common burglar still (Townesley, Homel & Chaseling, 2003). In the wake of a burglary, properties near the targeted property run heightened burglary at a residential premises risks as well. Involvement of the same offenders who committed the initial burglary at a residential premises is also likely in the near repeats. Near repeats could be displaced repeats, for example if an offender returns to a previously burglarised property but finds it well secured and subsequently targets an alternative nearby property (Moreto, Piza & Caplan, 2013).

The researcher noted that the reasons for repeat victimisation include burglars returning for either valuable objects they forgot or the objects that were bought to replace the stolen ones, or burglars spreading information about the property being a good spot for a burglary. Individuals who live in disadvantaged or high crime neighbourhoods have a higher risk of both initial and repeat victimisation. Exposure to crime is assumed to increase in the future victimisation or, as Hirschfield, Newton, and Roberson (2010) express, "prior victimisation is the best predictor of future victimisation".

Meaning that repeat victimisation presumes that if the victim has been victimised once, the chances of it occurring again are higher than for those who have never been victimised, then the residents that were burglarised at some point run a higher risk of being burglarised again, than those that were never exposed to a burglary at a residential premises (Berncaso, 2008, Hirschfield, 2010, Newton, 2008 & Rogerson, 2010; Mawby, 2013). The repeat burglary at a residential premises can also be a signal that something in this household is attractive to a burglar, for example, bad security or valuable objects. This conclusion allows for prediction of crime and implementation of predictive measures (Grove, 2011).

Repeat burglary at a residential premises can be divided into two categories, either it is the same offender that decides to return to the same object or the object itself somehow attracts repeated criminalisation. Eight (8) out of 20 respondents, in study conducted by Pira, (2008) in Sweden, revealed that they generally do not return, while 12

highlighted that they do. The reason for returning was for some valuable items they might have missed the first time, or that the residence was easy to break into, or returning after the insurance money was paid out to steal the new items people had bought to replace the stolen ones. Another reason for returning was the fact that the victims did not improve on their security, making it just as easy to break in the second time. Some research points to the fact that many repeat burglaries have the same offender as the initial one (Bernasco, 2008).

Furthermore, Townsley, Homel and Chaseling (2003) discuss the “infectious” rates of burglary at a residential premises and why the closer houses are to a site of the occurrence of this crime; the higher the risk they run of being burglarised. They point out homogeneity of housing as both a reason for increased risk of burglary, because the burglar knows what the residence look like, and as a reason of lower risk of break-in, since the houses are similar to each other the offender does not have the need to break into the same address several times. Target stability and offender exposure should be considered as risk factors for the increase of this crime as well. Near repeat victimisation is something that is prone to be contagious and can be passed from individual to individual in a similar manner as a disease does. The more places are exposed to an offender the higher the chance of a crime occurring there, because the offender has already familiarised themselves with the area.

Therefore, techniques such as Social Crime Prevention, Situational Crime Prevention and Community Crime Prevention must be applied to prevent burglary at a residential premises, with a lesser focus on the control of these crimes. Lab (1997) provides the following description of the difference between criminality prevention and crime control: "Crime prevention signifies those struggles that target to reduce crime either prior to the initial incidence or before further action, whereas crime control refers to maintenance of an assumed level of crime and the controlling of that amount of behaviour". Crime prevention involves steps taken before and crime control involves steps taken after a crime is committed. Furthermore, Lab (1997) states that crime prevention involves any activity aimed to decrease the actual level of criminality or the suspected fear of crime. Prevention activities must not be limited to the efforts of the CJS alone but must contain actions of both the community and private organisations.

2.4. POLICING OF BURGLARY AT A RESIDENTIAL PREMISES: IDENTIFIED EXPERIENCED PROBLEMS AND CHALLENGES

The researcher explores the SAPS's response to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo policing area with a view that this crime remains very common in the community, with the property targeted being any item that can be converted to cash, such as electronic equipment like televisions and digital video disc players. This further leads to injury or killing of victims by the burglars, in some cases. In South Africa, property crime is very high, particularly burglary at a residential premises, with an overall increase of 6, 8% in SAPS statistics (Wright & Decker, 1994). The police's service delivery is very poor because of the time they take to reply to emergency demands and criminal investigations. This results in several illustrations of devoted good police work repeatedly offset by ineffectiveness or disinterest. These consist of the removal of charges by police, because of arrangements between victims and offenders or where victims are compensated to drop the charges or intimidated into doing so (Bruce, Newham & Masuku, 2007).

Failures of policing include criminal intelligence operations that are failing to pull apart organised criminal networks and police services being poorly prepared to catch criminals. It appears that there is an increasing backlog of cases that are incomplete hence they cannot result in conviction (SAPS, 2014).

This could deteriorate the preventative outcomes of the police, as criminals realise that they are not likely to be arrested. Law enforcement oversight needs to work on and analyse these backlogs (SAPS, 2014). Regarding properties offence, some of the challenges include, among others, failure of landlords to spot their property and carelessness of property by landlords. It then becomes difficult for the police to recover the stolen property and communities lose their property for good (Bruce, Newham & Masuku, 2007). People who own scrapyards in the communities buy stolen goods from criminals and police do not arrest them because they do not investigate where the property in those scrapyards might come from. Community members end up not reporting cases to the police because they know that law enforcement will not investigate their cases, or their cases might be dropped due to lack of evidence (Bruce, Newham & Masuku, 2007).

For the past twenty-five years, the CJS's practices have been so profoundly ill-conceived that they have been found to fail. As the failures have accumulated, the justice system has responded by adding more of the same policies (SAPS, 2014). Prison and jail populations in this nation have tripled since 1994, and law enforcement expenditures have quadrupled, but statistics show that most South Africans do not feel safe (SAPS, 2014). Legislatures lengthen sentences and add more mandatory minimum penalties. More police are hired, more prisons are built but still we do not feel safe. In response, policymakers continue to expand the same criminal justice apparatus: more enforcement, longer sentences and more prisons. If this strategy would get tough, it might work, and the results would be apparent by now (SAPS, 2014).

The investigation and deterrence of crime by the police is compromised by poor investigation methods, a lack of both forensic capacity and expertise at handling evidence. Resources are scarce, with one officer for every 383 people, limited transportation and communication facilities exist, and officers suffer from low salary and poor environments (SAPS, 2014). The resulting low confidence in the force gives rise to corruption, through exploitation of powers and the creation of cases against the innocent. Community pressure and ignorance of the law permits 'mob rule' to inspire police behaviour, while Ministers and other old statistics put pressure on the police to avoid ordinary methods to satisfy their agendas (SAPS, 2014).

The police lack specialised facilities that can assist in their jobs, such as the Victims Support Unit and Public Police Complaints Authority that exist in Zambia. Similarly, specialisation within the service is limited, with the Criminal Investigations Department accountable for the investigation of all cases, irrespective of seriousness or kind (VOCS, 2017/18). The absence of active record keeping of criminal records has muted criminal control mechanisms and the slowness of criminal prosecutions effects negatively on police work (VOCS, 2017/18). Community perception of the police is not positive, and community policing remains negotiated because of the absence of faith in the police, but senior officers have advised that they are aware of these complications. The community perceives postponements in investigations of burglary because police do not consider it a serious crime (VOCS, 2017/18).

2.4.1 The 'Use of Force' by the police

In South Africa, the usage of force in reaching imprisonment remains legally ruled by Section 49 of the Criminal Procedure Act [CPA] (No. 51 of 1977). Section 49 is suitable not only for law enforcement generals but also to private security companies and permits sheltered individuals approved by the CPA, (1977), to practice force in completing incarceration (Bruce, 2002). Usage of force by law enforcement officers has the potential to undermine society's faith in the police. Although more residents recognise the requirement for vigour, the general occurrence of force used by law enforcement and force that is assumed to be risky, undoubtedly remain of concern to the public (Bruce, 2002).

Sometimes it may be necessary for the police to use force to carry out their duties. The police must use the force that is required for the situation. Extreme or needless force is forbidden, and could create police cruelty (De Vries, 2008). Inappropriate behaviour includes assault, oral abuse, threats (including psychological intimidation), ethnic discrimination, unlawful arrest, and detention (Govender, 2015).

2.4.2 Public perception on police corruption

Corruption has been a problem for a long time among the South African and Bantustan managements formed under apartheid law (Sayed & Bruce, 1998). Attaining decent governance and fighting dishonesty have become two important tasks for the country since 1994. There is much speculation and perception that corruption has increased during the time of political and economic evolution. The South African government make it a top priority to fight against corruption (Sayed & Bruce, 1998).

Many anti-corruption programmes and projects have stayed in place with the new government, since 1994 (Leggett, 2005). New initiatives on corruption have focused on encouraging responsibility, transparency and the instruction of law, decent governance, and an unrestricted media to make statement to the community on corrupt practices, and the creation of government interventions to identify corrupt activities and bring criminals to justice (Leggett, 2005). South Africa has 12 government interventions which have anti-corruption in their mandates. The Government of South Africa approved the Public Sector Anti-Corruption Strategy, including the formation of the

Anti-Corruption Coordinating Committee, to enable the coordination between several government activities (Leggett, 2005).

Lately, the 'State Forum Against Corruption,' consisting of the government, commercial and civil society, was formed, for a coordinated multi-sectoral method to reduce dishonesty (Leggett, 2005). The new draft of the Prevention of Corruption Bill has been listed at Legislature. In March 2001, the Government engaged in a contract with the Office of Drugs and Crime (ODC) in the agenda of the United Nations Global Programme against dishonesty to offer support to several government divisions and provinces to prevent, notice and fight corruption and to encourage honesty, transparency, responsibility and the instruction of the law (Leggett, 2005). Accepting Ga-Molepo community views on police corruption is essential since residents' perception of police affects the way the two cooperate. SAPS corruption is strong once the police officers do or do not something that is in contradiction with their responsibility for individual benefit (Punch, 2009).

The police end up being fired because of the corruption cases found against them, for example SAPS Police Minister, General Bhekokwakhe 'Bheki' Hamilton Cele, was once removed from office in 2012 because of corruption. SAPS corruption comprises several performances by police officers, putting their own benefit before their jobs (Scaramella, Cox & Mc-Camey, 2011). Most of the police in the community accept bribes from drunk drivers, unlicensed shebeens, marijuana dealers, and for other related crimes. The police officers do not do their jobs fairly in the community because when there are accidents, they take valuable goods for their own benefit, which is also a crime (Punch, 2009). It is wrong for police officers to be corrupt while society trusts the police to protect them (Punch, 2009).

If the police partner with drug dealers and criminals, how are they going to protect the community, since they are friends with the perpetrators? Clearly the reasons that direct law enforcement fraud consist of the absence of management and the circumstances that most police officers can double or triple their incomes with immoral activities (Gaines & Miller, 2005). It is unacceptable to discover that law enforcement officials who remained trusted in the rules of the Republic of South Africa to defend and assist people, are similar individuals who are today being investigated for fraud (Joubert, 2010). The dependability of the South African law enforcement has been brutally

smashed because of the reporting of extensive and uncontrolled fraud among its reliable associates. The public claims that if nothing is done to report the degree of police organisational corruption, our justice system would be hurt as a consequence. This study is noteworthy to all South Africans as the SAPS disrupts their ordinary livelihood (Newman & Faull, 2011).

To further highlight police corruption, the former 'National Police Commissioner of the SAPS Jackie Selebi' remained in his position in January 2000 as the national police commissioner and he was put on extended leave in January 2008. In 2010 Selebi went to trial and was found guilty of fraud for misuse of Section 4(1) a (1) bb of the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act [PRECCA] (No. 12 of 2004). Section 4 of the PRECCA, 2004 creates provision for crimes in respect of unethical actions relating to community representatives.

These crimes can be labelled as follows:

- Any community officer who directly or incidentally, receives or approves or offers to receive any satisfaction from any other individual, whether for the profit of himself or herself or for the profit of another individual and,
- That extends to the mismanagement or exchange of data or material attained in the progression of the activities, carrying out or presentation of any authorities, responsibilities or purposes rising out of a legal, statutory, and pledged or any other permitted responsibility.

The National Prosecution Authority (NPA) supplied Selebi, the former national police commissioner of the SAPS with an approval of detention on 10 September 2007 for corruption, scams, and beating the ends of justice (Parker, 2010). He was sentenced for fraud on the 2 July 2010. Selebi was sentenced to 15 years' imprisonment from 3 August 2010 for dishonesty plus overriding the ends of justice. He later was freed by the South African medical bail panel on the grounds of ill health (Newman & Faull, 2011).

In the past, ministers were branded as 'Fear *fokko!*' (Fikile Mbalula) and minister 'shoot to kill' (Bheki Cele). Now South Africa has a new police minister and despite a past of

dodgy tender dealings, he is probably the right man for the job. Bheki Cele was the South African minister of the SAPS from 26 February 2018 and was the State Commissioner of the police until October 2011, when he was adjourned from duty, due to allegation of fraud. General Bheki Cele was apparently suspected to have authorised a contract costing more than R500 million through Mr Roux Shabangu. He was appointed in July 2009, replacing Selebi. The intelligences of the Public Protector and the panel of investigation have insinuated that Cele was weak to take the job and he was dismissed as National Police Chief in June 2012 (Crime Statistics South Africa, 2018). Parker (2010) contends that it is a mockery that the people we trust to assist and defend us and to bring offenders who disturb our privileges to justice, are the same individuals being taken to court today. South African residents remain irritated and less accepting of fraud. Disappointment about not being able to do something about it, particularly after law enforcement officers are brought under suspicion of fraud.

This study concedes that crime prevention activity is no longer seen as the domain of the police. Crime prevention requires community assistance. Hughes, Mchaughlin and Muncie (2002) also confirm that since the 1970s, policies for crime prevention have shifted from a limited highlighting of the police through ideas of inter-agency working, multi-agency working and, the currently popular idea of partnership. This study brought to light that some community leaders fear collaborating with law enforcement officers in dealing with criminal activities due to suspected corruption. Activities of corruption delay community faith and confidence that increases crime and the fear of crime currently experienced in neighbourhoods. When the SAPS or the local government are believed to be corrupt, they will quickly lose the faith and care of the community they serve, thereby making their law enforcement responsibilities that much harder. Corruption terminates the healthy community-police connection that is important for the accomplishment of crime prevention programmes, self-governing policing, and criminality reduction.

Albrecht and Das (2011), state that corruption has existed since ancient times as one of the worst and most common forms of behaviour that is harmful to the management of public matters when indulged in by public officials and elected councils. The indicated PRECCA, (2004) approves that the prevention and fighting of corruption and

associated corrupt activities is the duty of all states demanding collaboration (Leggett, 2005). The support and participation of people and groups outside the public sector, such as structures of civil society and non-governmental and community-based organisations, is needed to ensure that their efforts in this area are effective and adequate. The local government is situated to inspire community safety partnerships between shareholders to build healthier societies (Leggett, 2005).

Corruption infiltrates every level of management and the economy. Corruption cases are unlawful deeds on the part of public office holders, including the exploitation of their office (Leggett, 2005). It is a means used to start and support organised crime. This means that organised crime is not possible without corruption (Leggett, 2005). The Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy (2002) was established to give results to the spoken pledge of government to fight corruption in the Public Service.

According to Seti (2007), the Minister for Provincial and Local Government also launched an anti-corruption strategy aimed at preventing and revealing corruption at local government level. One of the police crime prevention priorities is combatting corruption. According to the SAPS Strategic Plan (SAPS, 2014), the prevention, detection, and investigation of corruption inside police ranks is one of their goals. The active detection of fraud and corruption can only happen with the aid of the public as well as personnel within the police. In 2011, the SAPS presented its newly refined Anti-Corruption Strategy to the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee of Police. This new strategy is the latest in a long line of anti-corruption strategies developed by the SAPS to address a corruption problem that has continually plagued the organisation. Previous anti-corruption strategies failed to significantly decrease corruption for several reasons, including a lack of buy-in from the SAPS executives and the simple point that the plans were never successfully implemented. Corruption is a serious problem that involves a careful approach if it is to be effectively dealt with (Rose, 2011).

Corruption reveals itself in several forms, including bribery, fraud, embezzlement, favouritism, extortion, conflict of interest, political bargains, abuse of discretion, and abuse of power (Habtemichael, 2009). Once the importance of citizen cooperation in crime control is recognised, the indirect importance of many other kinds of policing

activity to crime combatting also becomes apparent. It is very much in the interests of crime reduction for the police to foster close links with the community. The SAPS should invest in measures and institutions designed to clear out police corruption and train police personnel on the significance of valuing the civil rights of those with whom they deal.

2.5. THE EFFECTIVENESS OF POLICING OF BURGLARY IN SOUTH AFRICAN COMMUNITIES

The White Paper on Safety and Security, (1998) discusses the areas of mediation to guarantee active criminality prevention by way of 'Public Crime Prevention', designed as follows. These mediations include societies taking accountability for criminality prevention in their own areas. Such mediations include local programmes, which activate a selection of interest groups to address criminality prevention in an urban or city base (Worrall, 1999).

Developments could contain successful surveillance through arrangements such as car protectors or public marshals. The presented argument formed a chance for the private safekeeping businesses to be involve in criminality prevention activities at a public level (Worrall, 1999). On the other hand, the SAPS recognise that the institute must not only be the responsibility of the public, but the police should also function in settling the community. Active policing hence means the solidification of contacts over which cooperation and volunteer compliance to the law are maximised (Worrall, 1999). An effort is made to implement the value of cooperation with the community in every feature of policing. Features that could be the contribution of the SAPS include poor capability, abilities, and expertise, unreliable criminality figures, failure to practice and investigate criminality figures, fraud, poor connections and a lack of confidence between the SAPS and the community (Worrall, 1999).

Similarly, the White Paper on Policing, (2016) has two essential changes from its fore-runner (The 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security). The initial stage is to isolate the SAPS-focused strategy from that of the wider strategy on safety and security, which was restricted in the revised 2016 White Paper on Safety and Security. The additional stage is to offer a parliamentary framework for residents' mistakes and make

clear the law enforcement service to the rest of the community. The emphasis of the White Paper on Policing is on the main areas of policing and law enforcement intended at decreasing criminality and constructing harmless societies, as called for by the National Development Plan (NDP), 2030. As such, emphasis will be placed on the role of the SAPS and the Municipal Police Departments in attaining this goal. It will further guide the strategy path of the Department over the medium duration (Newham, 2005).

The White Paper on Policing supports the NDP's idea of an updated, changed, and active CJS as well as a qualified and extremely trained police service. The NDP 2030 supplements the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, (1996) by re-emphasising the method of policing that is essential in an independent South Africa (Newham, 2005). What looks like the active practice of SAPS officials in criminality prevention relates to corporation programmes between SAPS and the residents of a community, grounded in faith, and leaning toward public consent for problem ordering and resolution. Such a corporation acts as a substance for joining residents to a wide range of parliamentary services (Radelet & Carter, 1994).

Therefore, police who are more in touch with the residents get their contribution and respond well to their needs. Reduced anxiety of police inspires daily non-crisis announcements and an improved chance for data distribution without the appearance of cooperating, a repeatedly quoted barrier against resident contribution in intelligence or evidence gathering against offenders. Giving SAPS a chance for steady interaction with the community eliminates the 'us versus them' mindset (Radelet & Carter, 1994). The combination of residents into SAPS support groups might raise the efficiency of criminality intellect gathering and prevention. Executive models for public policing highlight team ideas, interacting, border uniting, multi-agency lines of communication plus parliamentary support for and reaction to SAPS requirements for non-SAPS related societal problems (Radelet & Carter, 1994).

2.5.1 An integrated approach to prevent burglary at a residential premises

Crime prevention requires collaboration, and so it is important that there should be continuous collaboration between CJS departments and the government departments responsible for different types of policing and inter-departmental cooperation among

departments responsible for local government, education and social services (SAPS, 2014). Many government departments are also legislatively empowered to conduct some form of policing, for example, the Department of Home affairs can arrest offenders and plays a role in the reduction of crime, which is not accounted for by the SAPS (SAPS, 2014).

Community policing should be encouraged and managed by the local police, who should become involved with the local institutions of social control. This function should not be left in the hands of private security companies and political office bearers to manage. Prevention of crime is the responsibility of everyone in the country, not only the police (Bayley, 1994). This is one of the best-kept secrets of modern life. Yet the police pretend that they are society's best defence against crime and continually argue that if they are given more resources, especially personnel, they will be able to protect communities against crime.

Burger (2006), who questions the conceptual and terminological correctness of section 205(3) of the South African Constitution and argues that the Constitution, which is the starting point for determining the role of the police in combating crime, exacerbates the existing confusion and supports public perceptions that the police must "prevent" crime. The erroneous belief that the police are responsible for crime prevention shows a misunderstanding of the factors contributing to crime. Socio-economic conditions, inequality, child abuse, negative parenting, easy access to firearms, alcohol or drug abuse and corruption in the CJS are just some of the societal factors that support violence (Burger, 2006). Each police station area in South Africa should develop a crime risk analysis document for the development of strategies to reduce prevalent crimes (Marais, 2003). In a democracy it is vital for communities to identify problems, become involved in the CPF and work together with the police.

The principles for the development of an integrated approach to prevent residential burglary are laid down (Breetzke, 2012). By 'integrated' the researcher means that the approach should focus on the main elements of the burglary process, namely: the burglar, the neighbourhood environment, the residents, and the situational conditions. An integrated approach further implies a multi-agency approach between the different

agencies involved in crime prevention to have a coordinated effort in addressing the many diverse angles of crime prevention (Breetzke, 2012). The purpose is therefore not to construct a burglary prevention strategy or programme, but to provide a framework of guidelines and principles that can be applied in the construction of such strategies or programmes, with the emphasis on the identification of risk factors and possible prevention actions to be taken (Breetzke, 2012).

This phase implies an in-depth understanding of the different approaches and methods of burglary at a residential premises prevention, as well as expert knowledge of planning, implementation and monitoring of burglary prevention programmes and projects (Clarke, 2009). The prevention measures or initiatives can take many forms, depending on the goals and objectives set out from the beginning, and can vary from time-specific operations, to medium-term projects, to long-term programmes, as well as permanent changes to the physical and social environment, including the installation of specific safety devices (Clarke, 2009).

This implies that, when a project approach is followed, many considerations should be taken into account, for example, proper planning is needed to determine the aim and objectives of the planned action, what resources would be needed, the time frames and who would be responsible for the implementation and management of the action plans (Clarke, 2009). Furthermore, it is essential to monitor and evaluate the progress made at regular intervals to determine whether adjustments are needed. Agencies in South Africa involved in crime prevention, have little experience in crime reduction programmes aimed at specific crimes, and can learn from well-established institutions in other countries, such as the Policing and Reducing Crime Unit that forms part of the Research, Development and Statistics Directorate of the Home Office in Britain (Bennett & Durie, 1999).

2.5.1.1 The role of society in combating crime

The elected government built partnerships with civil society foundations to fight against crime and criminality. Community Policing Forums (CPFs) were formed at police station level to offer a mechanism for residents to guarantee that police are responsible and to control public needs and policing priorities through discussions. The purpose

was also to engage communities in combined problem-solving including the identification of the causes of criminality and the methods required to reply to them, to empower communities about public policing through education and to empower societies to play an important part in the policing of burglary (Shabangu, 2013). The NDP 2030 includes strategies for supporting CPFs and rolling out community safety forums. Other initiatives include street committees, Neighbourhood Watch and residents' associations, as well as web-based efforts like the South African Community Action Network, Report a Crime and Crime Line. These civil society initiatives are essential because criminality is a problem of the public and it needs the attention of the public, not just of government.

These initiatives have made important inputs in raising awareness about crime and violence, particularly as it helps the helpless groups (SAPS, 2014). They have impacted positively on the decline of certain kinds of serious criminalities, such as property crimes. Vigilantism and 'Kangaroo/Traditional courts' have been passed over from the apartheid era and continue to challenge the rule of law in South Africa currently. Although resident participation in fighting crime is important, it is significant that residents act in accordance with the law and do not take the law into their own hands, even when residents observe government to be failing to guarantee their safety and security (SAPS, 2014).

Crime prevention can be addressed through a combination of educational and more active law enforcement (Shabangu, 2013). The private security industry has also played a part in allowing residents and communities to protect themselves through the provision of alarm systems connected to response squads, regular 24-hour automobile guards and Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) cameras both at private dwellings and in major towns troubled by crimes. It is significant that this industry is correctly controlled to make sure that the extensive abilities of the industry are not maltreated. More still needs to be done to develop partnerships between law enforcement agencies and civil society, in repairing the faith of the public in the commitment and ability of these agencies to reply to the challenges of crime (Shabangu, 2013).

2.5.1.1.1 Community prevention

Community prevention refers to the ability of residents to work together to address crime problems in their communities. An example would be the Neighbourhood Watch programme, which is based on the idea that community members can watch over each other's dwellings and report suspicious activity to the police. Another similar programme is Cocoon Watch, which involves people paying attention to their immediate neighbours' properties, but not necessarily the entire community. Sorenson (2003) and Hope (1995) claim that their respective studies indicate such programmes have no proven crime-reduction value.

Hope (1995) contends that the main problem with neighbour watch programmes 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) confirms that Neighbourhood Watch works better when neighbours are home during the day and when participants follow the recommendations for target-hardening and property marking. Home prevention involves specific actions 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 surveillability of the property and using burglar alarms or security cameras. Because these measures are often used in combination, there are few studies which have tested each intervention individually in a controlled experiment (Weisel, 2004). One problem with target hardening is that burglars will often force entry. According to the FBI Statistics 61, 2% of burglaries involve forced entry, regardless of which deterrent is used (Weisel, 2004).

Using double-paned windows, deadbolt locks, and reinforced doors, however, will increase the effort required to break in as well as increase the perceived risk for the burglar (Sorensen, 2003). Sorensen (2003) conducted a thorough review of research in the United Kingdom (UK) and the USA and concluded that target hardening has substantial evidence confirming its effectiveness. Winchester and Jackson (1982), on

the other hand, argued that occupancy and surveillability are more important cues for burglars and target hardening has limited value.

2.5.1.1.2 Community organisation and citizen patrols

An alternative to the physical addition of neighbourhoods is the formation of Homeowners Associations that can function as Section 21 Companies, but instead of campaigning for the addition of their neighbourhood, they construct vibrant community organisations with sub-divisions and street lockups that efficiently communicate and cooperate with the inhabitants. The purpose is to initiate plans which contain security patrols, steady neighbourhood clean-ups, and the distribution of information over consistent bulletins. The collaboration of the local experts and the police are required to guarantee that the maximum effect is attained (Landman, 2000).

The difference between the Homeowners Association and the traditional Neighbourhood Watch is that the previous is better organised through pledged membership, the payment of monthly charges and the services of unpaid workers (i.e. Pensioners) to operate the control area on a permanent basis. Sub-committees and buildings are established to guarantee active functioning, as well as: a managing committee; a control area; guarding of the neighbourhood; access control; safety households; bulletin liaison/advertising; management; and funds. According to study discoveries there are initial developments in the crime circumstances after the introduction of street patrols by the residents themselves (Landman, 2000). The challenge in the longer period will be to preserve the interest of the inhabitants and their participation in the implementation of citizen patrols and additional plans. According to Bennett (1992), a study of the efficiency of Neighbourhood Watch programmes in Hartford, Connecticut (USA) disclosed that after an initial drop in both burglary and robbery rates, there was another rise in the rates after two years that showed no change between the rates in the investigational area and that of the entire town. Bennett (1992) also quoted study results in Britain which disclosed no evidence that Neighbourhood Watch led to a sustainable decrease in the levels of victimisation.

2.5.1.1.3 Public education campaigns

The shocking extent of the participation of the overall community in the stolen property markets revealed by other studies suggests that in the long term, burglary reduction initiatives could be sustained by forming a better understanding of the results of collaboration in the crime through public training movements. It seems that some individuals purchase stolen property unawares, several people who buy stolen property do so in the familiarity that they may have been stolen and decide not to ask questions about their origin. Cromwell, Olson and Avary (1991) found and cross-examined both expert and non-professional receivers, a group which involved school educators, social workers, plumbers, small commercial operatives, attorneys, systems analysts, college lecturers and scholars.

These non-professional receivers rationalised purchasing property that they knew could have been stolen as 'decent business' or justified it with 'if I do not purchase it somebody else will'. The main reasons which Henry (1976) find that encourage the public's choice to buy stolen property were: the low charge, the ambiguous language used to make sure the status of the property was unidentified, an individual's personal level of decency or untruthfulness, the peer pressure involved in being a member of a network where property is distributed and the certainty that if the property were stolen it would be from a trade which can pay for the damage or a rich and protected house, so the crime would be 'victimless'. These are ethical and moral matters and are exposed to impact in long-term communities' education and marketing techniques which emphasise the individual and legitimate dangers of being a receiver and purchasing stolen property.

2.5.1.1.4 Vigilante activities

The high level of lawbreaking and the management's assumed disappointment to control crime has led to the rise of solid community response in the method of vigilante activities, where organisations tend to take the law into their own hands. Some of the identified vigilante groups in South Africa are the '*Mapogo-a-Mathamaga*' that was created in the Northern Province and Mpumalanga; 'People Against Gangsterism and

Drugs' formed in the Western Cape; and the '*Umfelandawonye*' formed in the Eastern Cape.

These groups promote strong and strict punishment for offenders. According to Sekhonyane (2000), vigilante activities, though embraced by several individuals, are characterised by acts of simple punishment and violence, including serious beating and manslaughter, and in some case's participation in prohibited acts such as abductions, crime injuria, and malicious damage to property, robbery, burglary and sabotage. The approaches they use, bring them into disrespect and conflict with Government authorities. Because of the overall deprived relationships between vigilante groups and the management there is an absenteeism of active appearances of communication lines between these groups and government structures, such as the police.

If suitably controlled, certain vigilante type actions could be combined with the concept of public justice or community law court as explained in a debate paper by the South African Law Commission (Sekhonyane, 2000). It is also likely that community support for vigilante groups will deteriorate if the efficiency of the CJS progresses. Nevertheless, for the time being, their followers will stay to use them as a shield against probable criminal outbreaks and to bring offenders to book.

2.5.1.1.5 Community policing

Community policing is a philosophy of police service delivery which recognises that the maintenance of order and the prevention of crime, traffic, and social order problems are efforts shared by the police and the citizenry. The community and the police work in a partnership to identify and analyse problems and then develop and implement strategies to deal with these problems. This philosophy of community policing is predicated on the belief that solving these problems requires police departments to develop a new relationship with the law-abiding people of the community, allowing them a greater voice in setting local priorities, and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighbourhoods. It shifts the focus of police work from handling random calls for assistance to problem solving (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990).

Constitutionally, public policing forms the core of changed policing in South Africa. Community policing was institutionalised by policy-creators to police in a gentle and sensitive way. The CPF are regarded as lawfully recognised units that symbolise the policing interests of the native community (Mistry, 1997). They also planned to use civilian oversight over the police at several stages, at local police station level (Minnaar, 2009). This democratic belief of conference has been transcribed into the South African Constitution, 1996, as well as Chapter 7 of the SAPS Act (No. 68 of 1995). Section 221 of the temporary Constitution wants the formation of a CPF at each police station in South Africa.

In terms of Section 18 of the SAPS Act, 1995 the purpose of the CPF is to: advance the distribution of a police service to the public, toughen the corporation amongst the police and public, encourage joint delinquent identification and problem-solving, guarantee suitable meeting or communication amongst the police and their consumers and ensure police responsibility and transparency. Briefly, the legislation directing the functions of the CPFs emphasises three key responsibilities: the improvement of police-community relations, the oversight of policing at local level and the mobilisation of the community to take joint responsibility in the fight against crime. Community policing encourages community participation through the establishment of CPFs at all SAPS stations.

Community participation in local crime prevention thus became important as a means both to identify the crime problems and hotspots, and to assist in solving the crimes. It has also shown that planning against crime is a local government function requiring partnerships between the police, the municipality, and the community they serve. To succeed, this approach to local safety requires an integrated approach (Landman & Lieberman, 2005). Homeowners are likely to participate actively not only in maintaining their homes, but also in ensuring, as far as possible, that their environment remains pleasant and safe. They are more likely to engage in partnerships between the community and the police, and to engage constructively with the police in their community, hence becoming involved in community policing.

2.5.1.1.6 Sector policing

In the face of a great deal of resistance and scepticism from management, sector policing was introduced in the SAPS during 2003 as a distinctive style of grassroots policing. Sector policing entails dividing police station areas into manageable sectors, appointing sector managers and sector teams, and convening community-police Sector Crime Forums (SCFs) in each sector. The rationale behind dividing policing areas into sectors is to get small teams of police officials to know neighbourhoods intimately. The idea is for them not only to get to know their sector's crime trends well, but – with thought, innovation, and the necessary organisational support – to be able to identify the specific problems that fuel specific trends, and to solve or manage those problems. It is an ambitious policing philosophy (Burton, 2003).

It demands that police officials think creatively, and that an organisational culture, driven by rapid response to short-term problems, reorients itself to the task of long-term problem-solving. At police station level, crime hotspots are identified and personnel from the station's centralised crime prevention unit are mobilised into high-density saturation teams; they move into hotspots in numbers, erect roadblocks, cordon off areas and search-and-seize (Department of Safety and Security, 1998).

2.5.1.1.7 Private investigations

There are other parts where the establishment of private security has made inroads (SAPS, 2014). It has become joint practice in South Africa, for those who can pay, to hire private detectives to finish the investigations (Do their own investigations, gather evidence, and find accused or even recover taken properties). Several high-profile killing cases have been resolved in this way by hiring private investigators. Often, since the SAPS investigators are so burdened by cases, they do not have time to study each docket, victims are ready to hire a private investigator (SAPS, 2014). Sometimes these detectives have been provided with secret admission to a docket and even make use of government properties such as criminal record and fingerprints records, provided by associates in the police, and then finally hand over finalised investigations to the SAPS for trial (SAPS, 2014).

In other cases, private investigators are called in by businesses to solve inside fraud cases, without the connected publicity and possible humiliation of exposure. Though, more and more businesses are handing over the finished investigation to the police, mostly because there has been such a small conviction and achievement percentage in police investigated cases dealing with profitable crime (SAPS, 2014). Several of these commercial crime cases are difficult fraud or theft cases, or even computer fraud wherein the SAPS basically do not have the necessary forensic, technical, and commercial knowledge to investigate such cases accurately. Several managements also conduct their own research on alleged 'petty' crime. The assurance business also does their own investigations and only where fraud is confirmed, do they hand over such cases for criminal trial (SAPS, 2014).

Some large mining and business companies, like Anglo-American, employ their own legal specialists through the NPA as prosecutors in certain cases where the firm is involved, they pay for the prosecutor, in order to support the government to get convictions (SAPS, 2014). In terms of the private investigation arena there has arisen the general use and appointment of private investigators so that these crimes can be resolved. Several investigative firms have been established in the last five years. These are operated by ex-police officials and are devoted to the study of criminal and other cases for the precise goal of building cases that can be passed over for trial on completion (SAPS, 2014).

2.5.1.1.8 Problem-solving policing

Problem-Oriented Policing (POP) is an analytic method used by police to develop strategies that prevent and reduce crime. Under the POP model, police agencies are expected to systematically analyse the problems of a community, search for effective solutions to the problems, and evaluate the impact of their efforts (National Research Council, 2004). The POP represents police-led efforts to change the underlying conditions at hot spots that lead to recurring crime problems. It also requires police to look past traditional strategies and consider other possible approaches for addressing crime and disorder (Weisburd & Eck, 2004). Today, it is one of the most widely used

strategies among progressive law enforcement agencies (Weisburd, Telep, Hinkle & Eck, 2010).

The SAPS has been focusing on problem-solving strategies since the implementation of community policing through sector policing (Sutton, Cherney & White, 2008). Problem-oriented policing is a comprehensive approach to policing and public safety that considers the variety and complexity of public safety issues (Sutton, Cherney & White, 2008). It is not a simplistic approach to crime and public safety. It does not promise a single solution to all problems. According to Plant and Scott (2009), POP places a high value on new responses that are preventive in nature, that are not dependent on the use of the CJS, and that engage other public agencies, the community, and the private sector when their involvement has the potential for significantly contributing to the reduction of the problem.

This study proves that crime prevention involves multi-sectoral and multiple approaches to ensure effective results. When the SAPS and local government merge strategies to ensure public safety, they could implement new tactics, rigorously evaluate its effectiveness, and, subsequently, report the results in ways that will benefit the community and improve public views on the professionalisation of the police and politicians. Crime also varies from area to area as well as the causal factors for offending. These factors imply that different approaches may need to prioritise different problems in different areas. Advanced strategies, a local implementing vehicle and approaches, and a mechanism in which the needs of communities can be determined, are required. The local government fulfils both these functions. This research found that the police identify problems, subject them to careful analysis, engage in a broad search for potential solutions and then determine if the implemented solutions have reduced the problem. Tilley and Farrell (2012) also describe problem-oriented policing as a theory of policing agencies.

The policing function could not be defined by crime control because the public demands that the police handle a diverse range of concerns. Problems are not single events and are not solely the concern of the SAPS. Crime prevention involves far more than just visibility or policing since problems are not just about crime (SAPS, 2014). Local government can play a huge role in assisting the SAPS in problem-oriented policing. There are many causes of problems, as problems are understood in greater

depth. Also, thinking about solutions reveals new partners to be involved, who may bring fresh concerns and ideas. Where initial monitoring of implementation or evaluation of impact is suggested, modifications are required (SAPS, 2014).

Crime, criminal activities, and our environment changes constantly need new crime prevention techniques. In this study, the researcher has found that there is a need for an integrated community-focused and problem-solving crime prevention strategy to prevent burglary in the communities (SAPS, 2014). Any strategy can only be effective when it is based on evidence, with the cooperation of experts within various fields, including the SAPS and local government, who are directly involved with the public. Some of the current crime prevention programmes appear to work, but more research is still needed (SAPS, 2014).

Many crime prevention projects are focused on a component objective, lacking the incorporation of the organisation as a whole or that of other external stakeholders (Burger, 2006). For example, the planning section of municipalities zooms in on their own functions when formulating plans, so does the SAPS community services and crime prevention components (Burger, 2006). The local government does not have a crime prevention policy directorate to oversee all the different public services regarding crime in Ga-Molepo. A crime prevention policy directorate or component at local government could be helpful to coordinate both internal and external crime prevention programmes, as well as collaborating and formulating several draft policies to ensure public safety (Burger, 2006).

The goal of the police is to prevent crime; thus, crime prevention is the most important function of the police (Burger, 2006). Community problem-solving involves a variety of policing styles. The wave of the future appears to be community-oriented policing and government should make funds available for community-oriented policing. Local government is again well placed, providing the required funding is available to design and implement programmes targeted at specific crime problems. Such prevention programmes can either be financially supported by local government itself or through business, donor, or national government funding (Burger, 2006).

Palmiotto (2011) relates that the Federal Government of England has provided funding for additional police officers to police departments for implementing community-oriented policing. In addition, grants have been made available to police agencies incorporating the community-oriented policing strategy to prevent crime. This study found that crime prevention, both in South Africa and some countries, is often considered an action taken when funding for these initiatives is drawn from outside the local government budget through foreign donors. This limits accountability for delivery, weakening local government's responsibility towards crime prevention (Palmiotto, 2011). Crime prevention is seen as an unfunded mandate in that safety and security is a national government function. This ignores both the fact that safety is a key 'quality of life' issue where local government can contribute, and that many functions of local government are involved more broadly with issues of governance, and thus also of crime prevention (Burger, 2006).

This research further proves that efficient prevention of burglary can only occur with the cooperation of local citizens in problem-solving policing, of which the SAPS and local government form part (Burger, 2006). Yet, there are many kinds of crime, with very different degrees of seriousness, involving different kinds of offenders. Limiting the focus also makes the problem more manageable (Burger, 2006).

- **The need for partnerships** – Cooperation among different agencies and groups is vital. Stakeholders include criminal justice agencies, non-criminal justice government service agencies, non-profit organisations, neighbourhood groups, and private businesses. This idea originated with the community policing movement, which began with the recognition that the police cannot reduce crime by themselves but need the cooperation of citizens and other groups.
- **Non-criminal law remedies** – This is particularly true with problem-orientated policing where programmes include better street lighting and sanitation services as part of a larger effort to improve the quality of life in neighbourhoods. Improving these services includes partnership with other government agencies.
- **The evidence-based policy movement** – This movement insists that policies be supported by empirical research demonstrating effectiveness. It is no longer acceptable to base policies on myths, hopes, and good intentions.

The cited study shows that one especially important concept to the development of community policing is problem-oriented policing. It involves encouraging police officers to take a proactive approach to solving recurrent problems during patrols rather than merely having them respond to emergency calls and doing random patrol (Burger, 2006). Community policing builds on problem-oriented policing by adding the crucial ingredient of community participation in both problem identification and problem-solving. The SAPS has focused more on addressing crime problems and enforcement priorities as the community defines them (Burger, 2006). This study proves that community leaders have a desire to improve the quality of life in their neighbourhoods, but they lack trust in authorities. The SAPS and local government respondents have concerns about police-community relations and poor community participation when addressing criminal activities in neighbourhoods. Many community members do not realise their role in crime reduction (Burger, 2006).

All stakeholders must join hands to increase community safety endeavours by government. Partnership must be negotiated through coordinating structures at various levels of the government, and community-based agencies such as church organisations and civic associations (Burger, 2006). The NDP 2030 also notes that civil-society organisations and civic participation are elements of a safe and secure society. A sustainable crime prevention strategy requires greater clarity on various roles and a resourced coordinating mechanism that will bring state and non-state policing agencies together to secure safety and build cohesion. The state is best placed to play this role and account to citizens when focussing on community needs (South Africa Office of the Presidency, 2011).

2.5.1.1.9 Municipal police

Burglary at a residential premises poses certain difficulties for traditional approaches of crime control. With respect to punishment, for example, the negative conclusion of an important form of work on the outcome of punishing as a means of improving offenders would seem to apply with certain force to burglars, where the percentage of reoffending is mostly high. It is clear from Maguire's (1982) results, burglars' evaluation of the pay-off from burglary seems questionable and to be changed by sentence they

get in court. The danger of getting trapped is measured bearable because of the huge possible earnings to be completed, and burglars in any case appear to believe that if they go about their job 'sensibly' they can and will dodge apprehension.

The police also face substantial problems in reducing residential burglary over usual policing approaches (Heal & Morris, 1981). Generally, a burglary will not be reported until some hours after its commission by which time the police are confronted with the problem of a 'cold trail'. In most cases the housebreaker will not have been perceived so there can be no confidence of identification and, even the most unexperienced burglar will possibly wear gloves, there will be no fingerprints or other evidence at the scene of the crime that might have assisted detection.

Regularly the only situation in which a burglary can be fruitfully cleared up is when a criminal is caught in the act of a crime and confesses to a sequence of crimes committed earlier (Heal & Morris, 1981). The likelihoods of a residential criminal being caught red-handed are small because of the private nature of the places in which the crime is committed. In the light of the difficulties which residential burglary poses for traditional approaches of control, other deterrent methods have been given attention. Police burglary teams have been on horseback for example, while in North America in particular, community-based projects are in hand (Heal & Morris, 1981).

Though, the most obviously established preventive policy in the arena of residential burglary, and one that forms an important aspect of the study described here, is so-called 'target hardening' (SAPS, 2014). This method tries to encourage householders to make their households safer by taking the basic safety measures of closing windows and locking doors and using effective safety devices. This is aggressively reinforced by both the Home Office and the police, the basic motivation being that the high percentage of residential burglary now being experienced are an effect of an unplanned method of security on the part of individual householders (SAPS, 2014). Information on security is provided by crime combating officials who offer safety inspections to householders and try to encourage cautious safekeeping behaviour through meetings, donations, and local advertising movements (SAPS, 2014).

2.5.2 The environmental crime prevention

The environment-centred strategies include approaches such as situational crime prevention and the 'designing out' of crime (Walklate, 1996). The strategy is usually aimed at a specific crime, for example burglary, and to manage, design or manipulate the immediate environment with the purpose of reducing the opportunity for crime. This may include measures such as target hardening or increasing surveillance, for example using surveillance cameras. In environmental strategies criminal behaviour is viewed as a product of the opportunities presented by physical structures, and that the offender engages in a rational decision-making process prior to the offence (Jeffrey, 1971).

Whereas environmental-centred strategies can be regarded as effective in the prevention of property crimes, they are unable to prevent violent crimes such as domestic violence, child abuse and racially motivated crimes. The increase in private security, as well as situational and environmental strategies has a profound effect on changing the urban landscape. Through private security, the more affluent societies become 'fortress' suburbs, which further reinforces the separation between the wealthy and the poor communities (Walklate, 1996).

In South Africa there is also an increasing tendency to close off neighbourhoods through security fencing and access control, and the establishment of so-called security villages. The idea of public safety or safer city programmes is built on multi-agency collaboration between formal agencies, informal agencies, and community networks. The formation of partnerships between private and government agencies is a significant component in the supply of financial resources. The purpose of these programmes is to decrease crime, reduce the fear of crime, and to make safer surroundings where commercial and community life can flourish (Walklate, 1996). It requires the formulation of a locally-based action strategy, and an application method connecting a complex combination of situational or environmental actions and social approaches.

2.5.2.1 The situational crime prevention

The concept of situational policing involves building neighbourhood specific policing strategies that move beyond simple considerations of the type and rate of crime in an area (Albrecht & Das, 2011). While basic crime statistics may always play a key role in police functions, the situational model argues that public safety could be better served if the police would also figure in group-level social processes (Albrecht & Das, 2011). This model suggests the construction and implementation of policing strategies focus on the social-psychological characteristics of a neighbourhood in addition to crime rates. It is the cohesion among residents combined with shared expectations for social control of public space, with a strong emphasis on sense of community (Albrecht & Das, 2011).

Situational crime prevention is almost a synonym for opportunity reduction, by not denying the importance of root causes of crime. Tilley (2005) explains situational crime prevention as an approach to crime prevention that focuses on reducing opportunities for crime by modifying the immediate circumstances surrounding criminal acts. This kind of crime prevention approach has implications beyond just police functions. It is associated with problem-solving and action research. The main mechanisms are increasing risk and effort, reducing rewards and provocation, and removing excuses. Local government is in the best position to assist the SAPS with crime reduction interventions by putting mechanisms in place to prevent crimes being committed at specific places in specific situations.

The reviewed study indicates the need for local government to focus more intentionally on reducing squatter camps in areas through proper housing systems; with street names, numbers, and proper lighting to prevent crime from escalating (Tilley, 2005). This is only one example of the magnitude of social challenges, which contribute to criminal activities. The SAPS need the involvement of all communities and the government to combat crime (Tilley, 2005).

Without their partnership crime reduction is impossible. The police acknowledge and promote the need for community participation in crime reduction and there have been numerous efforts from the Executive and Management of the SAPS for the mobilising

of communities in the fight against crime (Tilley, 2005). The SAPS situational analysis provides an overview of the key factors that have influenced the identification of the Police Strategic Priorities and Objectives (SAPS, 2010-2014). This document also indicates that the police value the importance of situational crime prevention in the reduction of crime and perform their duties accordingly.

2.5.2.1.1 Physical defence against burglary at a residential premises

Physical security, occasionally referred to as target hardening, relates to the extent to which a property and its boundaries are secured through the physical structures of the building's plan such as doors, windows, locks or fences (Clarke, 2009).

Safety methods increase the difficulty of breaking in, they increase the time it takes to enter a property, and in some cases with CCTV, they increase the possibility of exposure (Clarke, 2009). It is always clever to let potential burglars identify that the facility is well protected. In most cases, a burglar will avoid facilities where the chance of getting caught is great, and instead seek out other locations that are not as well protected (Clarke, 2009).

Another defence against burglary that has met with some success is "reducing the value of merchandise." This approach usually includes marking company property with company identification tags or recording serial numbers that are easily traced (Clarke, 2009). Because many fencing operations will turn away merchandise that is well marked and thus identifiable, burglars prefer merchandise that has no identifiable numbers (Clarke, 2009). In addition, some communities have developed 'sting' operations, that is, fencing operations run by law enforcement officials. These operations require large outlays of cash but have proven effective in closing major theft rings. Firms suffering substantial losses from theft should consider working with local officials in developing sting operations (Clarke, 2009).

- **Alarms:** Alarms of some kind can make the difference between an especially effective programme and one that is providing only minimal protection. The type of

alarm providing the best results is a matter of some disagreement, but there is little disagreement over the effectiveness of having alarm systems (Wright, 2015). Many stores report satisfaction with local alarm systems. They feel that the sound of the signalling device scares off the burglar in time to prevent the looting of the premises (Wright, 2015). Many police and security experts feel such alarms are ineffective because the response to the signal is only by chance and because such a device serves to warn the intruder rather than aid in capture (Fischer, Halibozek & Walters, 2013). Because most managers are less interested in apprehending thieves than they are in preventing theft and because local systems are inexpensive and can be installed anywhere, they continue to be widely used (Fischer, Halibozek & Walters, 2013).

Certainly, they are preferable to no alarm system at all. With the relatively inexpensive dial alarm systems and national central station paid services, many retailers and homeowners have replaced older, less reliable systems with new state-of-the-art technology. Whether the outer perimeter should be fitted with alarms and whether space coverage alarms should be used is a matter peculiar to each facility. This must be carefully studied and determined by the manager. But it is always important to have the safe fitted with an alarm in some way (Fischer, Halibozek & Walters, 2013). If you are living in a high-crime zone or own valuable property, you might need to install a burglar alarm and roof alarm system. If you are constructing a new house, it would be intelligent to investigate the installing of an alarm when you are still building but confer with a decent safety firm first. A burglary prevention unit will give you free assistance on alarms and locks that you can use to prevent burglary (Armitage & Monchuk, 2011). Strategies to sense burglars come in five categories:

- Electro powered devices such as pressure carpets, magnetic switches for perimeter doors and windows, and vibration sensors.
- Ultrasonic sensors, microwave, or inactive infra-red.
- Individual triggering devices such as panic buttons and medical alert.
- Specialised sensors to sense smoke or warmth, and

- Property perimeter devices, for example, video for entrance and gardens, and video intercoms for houses or apartments.

- **Safes:** The location of the safe within the premises will depend on the layout and the location of the store. Many experts agree that the safe should be in a prominent, well-lighted position readily visible from the street where it can be seen easily by patrols or by-passing city police (Fischer, Halibozek & Walters, 2013). In some premises, especially where no surveillance by passing patrols can be expected, it is generally recommended that the safe be in a well-secured and alarm-rigged inner room that shares no walls with the exterior of the building (Fischer, Halibozek & Walters, 2013). Floors and ceilings should also be reinforced. The safe should be further protected by a capacitance alarm.

The classification of the safe and the complexity of its alarm protection will be dictated by the amount of cash it will be expected to hold. This should be computed on the maximum amount to be deposited in the safe and the frequency with which such maximums are stored therein (Fischer, Halibozek & Walters, 2013).

- **Lights:** Lighting around the household must discourage burglars. Poyner (1993) revised 122 evaluations of crime prevention project and found that there is some evidence that lights prevent residential burglaries. Streetlights are offered closely to every house in Enschede, Netherlands and too universal to assess. In Enschede this cue is verified on houses with motion detecting lights. The expectancy is that houses with motion detecting lights and lights in a niche are less burgled.

Burglars do not want to be noticed when committing burglary. Suitable and adequate lights around the perimeter of your house will aid as a deterrent (Painter & Farrington, 1997). Confirm that lights are working correctly and use energy effective bulbs when possible. You can connect motion triggered lighting or ask your efficacy company to connect a light on a utility pole for a small monthly payment if you have one close to your household (Painter & Farrington, 1997). Lights must be installed high enough to avoid someone from having access or

tampering with them. Lights can be set on timers both outside and inside the house to give the appearance that somebody is home. Landscaping must not support burglary by giving someone opportunities to hide close to your home. Trim plants and flowers back to advance natural observation (Painter & Farrington, 1997).

Streetlights are effective, it can decrease crime, advance the community's feelings of security, and need no disturbing surveillance or other barriers to crime. It is also a highly cost-effective method. Senior police officials must feel confident in encouraging enhanced lighting as a needed component of any crime combating initiative (Painter & Farrington, 1997). The BWT suggests that physical deterioration in a zone gives the impression that 'nobody cares' and thus no one will interfere against crime and disorder. Improving the setting shows 'public pride' that reveals how much residents care about their neighbourhood. The installation of improved streetlights can make a place friendlier, which may in turn increase informal societal control.

- **Property marking:** Property marking includes the writing of owner identification on treasured items such as jewellery and electronic equipment. It is sometimes referred to as "post coding" in the UK since British inhabitants are encouraged to scratch their mail codes on property. Writings are made with permanent markers, etching devices, or unseen ink that displays up under infrared light. Hypothetically, stuff marking could decrease burglary through one or more of six mechanisms. First, it assists police in detecting the landlords of recovered stolen property. Second, it assists in the trial of burglars or their buyers by giving them real proof of their possession of a stolen item. Third, it also raises the criminal's views of the dangers linked with stealing marked property (Tilley & Webb, 1994).

Fourth, meanwhile consumers of stolen property are tired of buying marked properties, it decreases the criminal's expectation of the possible rewards for those items. Fifth, even if a criminal is prepared to take those risks, it rises his or her perceptions of the effort required to dispose of those items on the stolen property market. Sixth, when door and window stickers detect homes as property marking

participants, it may discourage burglary overall given the joint allegations of improved effort, risk, and reduced reward (Tilley & Webb, 1994).

- **CCTV:** The CCTV is intended to decrease burglary and other crimes in two ways: First, by increasing criminal's awareness of danger, and second by assisting to detect and prosecute the accused. CCTV can also be used to confirm burglar alarms. The financial expenses of CCTV connection and monitoring are beyond the earnings of most private owners. Hence, most CCTV connections are found in public places or apartment centres (Weisel, 2002). CCTV is found in many apartment centres in South Africa, there are limited published studies regarding its success in a housing setting. Chatterton and Frenz (1994) found that CCTV connection improved the arrest percentage (25%-33%) for burglaries committed in contradiction of residents of elderly housing in Mereyside, UK, and appeared to inspire criminal confessions.
- **Fencing:** The burglars specified that they desire not to burgle a household with a tall and locked fence (1.80 metre). Breaking the fence or climbing over the fence is too much energy in combination with the possibility of getting trapped. Criminals select households with a small fence (30 to 50 cm maximum). The belief is that houses with a tall and locked fence are less burgled than households with a small fence or no fence at all (Coupe & Blake, 2006).

Once a physical barrier, such as a wall or a fence, is joined with an electrical fence it will prevent efforts to intrude the endangered perimeter. The electronic fence brings a high energy shock that is non-lethal to the possible burglar. The Nemtek rechargeable fence energiser has a sensing feature, which produces an alarm once the endangered perimeter has been penetrated or interfered with. By using an electric fence, the attempted burglary of the threatened zone can be delayed giving extra time for a response team to reply to the breach.

2.6. THE ADOPTED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK TO POLICE BURGLARY AT A RESIDENTIAL PREMISES

Theory is used as ideologies of explanations of the apparent association of certain experiential phenomena. It assists the researcher in clarifying the phenomenon that is being seen in the study. It is important that all research be grounded by theory. The study implements BWT as a guide in exploring the policing of burglary at a residential premises.

2.6.1 Broken Window Theory

The BWT of societal order proposes that societies must be cautious against the least criminalities (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). If such disorders or small crimes are not taken seriously, as a result serious crime can be committed. The police must take all crime seriously irrespective of their nature. If the police uphold its old-style role as night guards the threats to order within the society flourish (Hinkle, 2013). This theory proposes that policing approaches that target slight criminalities such as wreckage, public drinking, and fare dodging aid in creating an atmosphere of order and fairness, thereby avoiding additional serious criminalities.

Wilson and Kelling (1982) have inscribed that broken window policing must not be perceived as zero tolerance or zealotry, but rather as a technique that needs cautious training, rules, and management, and a constructive connection with societies, hence connecting it to community policing (Hinkle, 2013). However, with policing, it is hard work to eliminate undesirable disorderly individuals that create anxiety in the community's judgements, the dispute would appear to be in favour of 'people shaping space,' as community strategies are passed and assist to regulate how one is supposed to act. The theory is not about so-called 'street sweeping' (Law enforcement) tactics by the police, but rather about the joint development of neighbourhood standards and rules, and about order rather than disorder. All places have their own codes of conduct and what is correct, and standard will vary from residence to residence.

This is done by eliminating undesirable individuals from the streets, the inhabitants feel harmless and have a developed respect for those that defend them. Individuals of less respect who try to brand a mark on the society are separated, according to the

theory, therefore the streets without the disorderly and individuals of certain societal ranks, is an effort to preserve the steadiness and cohesiveness of a community (Hinkle, 2013). The BWT has become an invasive and provocative theory that is currently relied upon by many legislators and police task forces. Through the application of broken window policing, several communities have become marginalised and targeted by zero-tolerance policing (Jefferson, 2016). These are frequently communities who require more assistance from authorities, but instead are suffering because of the style of policing and law enforcement (Jefferson, 2016).

Broken window policing must be able to focus on solving problems with an emphasis on minor violations rather than 'orderly' spaces, preferably using methods that inspire faith in police. The local SAPS alone cannot prevent all drug trade, assault, and burglary at a residential premises while some issues behind these crimes are beyond the scope of policing (Hinkle, 2013). Police must cooperate with other government and civil society structures and offer more encouragement for behaviour modification than simple arrest and trial. In this way, order can be sustained without accompanying individuals into a CJS that can do them more harm than good.

The BWT was born out of a trial in policing that was carefully strategised and assessed. However, it was vital to decrease crime, factored into its analysis were numerous indicators that described crime only. To advance policing in South Africa through a BWT or other approaches we are required to raise a culture and capability of planning and assessing police practices (Hinkle, 2013). The notion of BWT has an excessive effect on existing policy and police enforcement (Gau & Pratt, 2010). The thoughts presented by BWT and policing shows that SAPS may report societal and physical disorder in communities. This suggests that they might prevent serious crime. The "Fixing broken windows" has developed an essential component of crime prevention tactics and policies (Braga, Welsh & Schnell, 2015).

These range from order preservation and zero-tolerance policing, where police try to enforce order through harsh punishment, to community and problem-oriented policing, where police try to create order and diminish crime through collaboration with societies (Braga *et al.*, 2015). BWT enquires about personal agency, or free will, crimes of opportunity, situational crime prevention, the urban environment, and, most significantly the role of police in crime prevention. This theory is applicable to this study because

the community imitates that the police are not undertaking their work in the community because that causes more crime or social disorders. The BWT also explains that if criminal cases are not solved in the community, criminals will continue committing crime. Criminals think that no one cares about crimes they commit in the community whereas if they are arrested the crime rate in the community will decrease. According to BWT, criminals must be removed from the community because they do not obey the community's rules (Hinkle, 2013).

2.6.1.1 The selected criticisms of the Broken Window Theory

In the 21st century, BWT has experienced much disapproval around the origin of the theory and its effect on policy and policing tactics. The BWT and policing have become the topic of intense argument, mainly throughout the USA (Jefferson, 2016). This is because of police violence that is anticipated towards ethnic inequalities that lead to violence and arrests. Large gatherings and protests have increased against BWT and policing of such a method (Jefferson, 2016). In communities and neighbourhoods this ideal concentrate on disorder that might be perceived and interacted with.

The BWT is a negative old-fashioned style of law and policing that may be re-examined through several sociological theories, such as, discourse theory and serious race theory, while improving to be suitable in the individual and societal desires of modern day communities. Therefore, the procedure could start where marginalised neighbourhoods would no longer be burdened by the criminalisation of poverty and homelessness. This may be confirmed by examining and discussing the overall notion of BWT, the criticisms towards the theory, sociological theories that clarify the downfall of BWT, how the system may be transformed, and the idea of public policing. This theory was created in the "old days" where there were limited technologies and much smaller communities (Dunham & Alpert, 2015). It is argued that this theory cannot be used to explain both old and current times.

Despite these recommendations of the BWT, this hostile model has not been capable of surviving scientific scrutiny. One critique originated from Kelling, and Sousa (2001). They evaluated explanations advanced for the severe decline in crime during the 2000s and, maintained the arguments that crime drops have been the outcome of

socioeconomic issues, such as an improving economy, dropping numbers of teenaged males, and decreasing usage of drugs.

2.6.1.2 The envisaged lasting value of Broken Window Theory

Due to the contentious belief it has created and imposed among underprivileged communities, the notion of BWT and its impact on legislation and policing requires change. Deconstructing how police portray space and crime would be necessary to reform the BWT (Boggess & Maskaly, 2014). Taking a step back from the BWT would help both concepts become clearer and more innovative while connected to one another. This would allow for an alternative interpretation of space in the context of crime and disorder (Boggess & Maskaly, 2014).

Police and policymakers must stop viewing symbols of disorder inscribed on human bodies and in public spaces as causes of crime. Authorities, particularly the police, must stop targeting those who do not conform to dominant middle-class modes of expression, as this reinforces discriminatory and stereotypical beliefs (Jefferson, 2016). Instead of criminality, social and physical disorders should be viewed as possible manifestations of cultural variation or uneven development.

The impact of the BWT on policing and policy would be most effective if it focused strictly on solving problems through dialogue with communities. Fixing broken windows is only a short-term solution; long-term reductions usually involve urban politicians, businesses, and local leaders to collaborate to improve the economic fortunes of high-crime areas (Welsh *et al.*, 2015). However, in order to completely improve the BWT, it must be scrutinised from its origin. There appears to be a vibrant positive result of better social order, when broken window policing is executed. The use of the BWT recommends that by upholding social order and behaviour at a low level, criminality and disorder at higher levels will not occur (Welsh *et al.*, 2015).

2.7. SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the literature review which focused on exploring policing of burglary at a residential premises, closely looking at the prevalence, and associated impacts of burglary at a residential premises (Offering comparison analysis), policing of burglary at a residential premises (Experienced problems and challenges) and the effectiveness of policing of burglary in South African communities.

The BWT was applicable to this study because the community intimates that the police are not undertaking their work in the community and that causes more crime or social disorders. The BWT also explains that if criminal cases are not solved in the community, criminals will continue committing crime. The SAPS can also use DNA that is found at the crime scene such as fingerprints, footprints or any other physical evidence that can help to solve a crime. The next chapter (Three) offers the adopted research design and methodology.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of this chapter is to describe the techniques that were followed to complete this study. The study was qualitative in nature and a case study research design was employed, with the used methodology explained, including data collection methods. Overall, this chapter addresses the research design, methodology, methods to ensure trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a strategic plan for achievement that assists as a link amongst research questions and the concluding or application of the research (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Research designs ensure that the research accomplishes a purpose, and the research can be conducted with existing resources. Case studies are said to be an intensive study, defined as an in-depth study of a few elements with several variables. The purpose of intensive studies is to get as complete a picture as possible of a situation (Jacobsen, 2002). Case study research is an accurate technique for creating assumptions. These assumptions assist in building up research and case studies consequently play a significant role in evolving a field's information base (Lindvall, 2007). Therefore, a case study will be used for this study.

Case study method is applicable to this study because the researcher was able to examine the individual interviews for the results of the research. Case study align with the study, it can 'close in' on real life circumstances and evaluate views directly in relative to phenomena as they unfold in practice (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Case study offers a detailed analysis in the single case (Lindvall, 2007). Case studies thus play a significant role in advancing a field's knowledge base (Merriam, 2009). It permits investigators to maintain a holistic view of real life occasions, such as individual life cycles, individual behaviour, organisational and management processes, neighbourhood transformation and school performance (Yin, 2009).

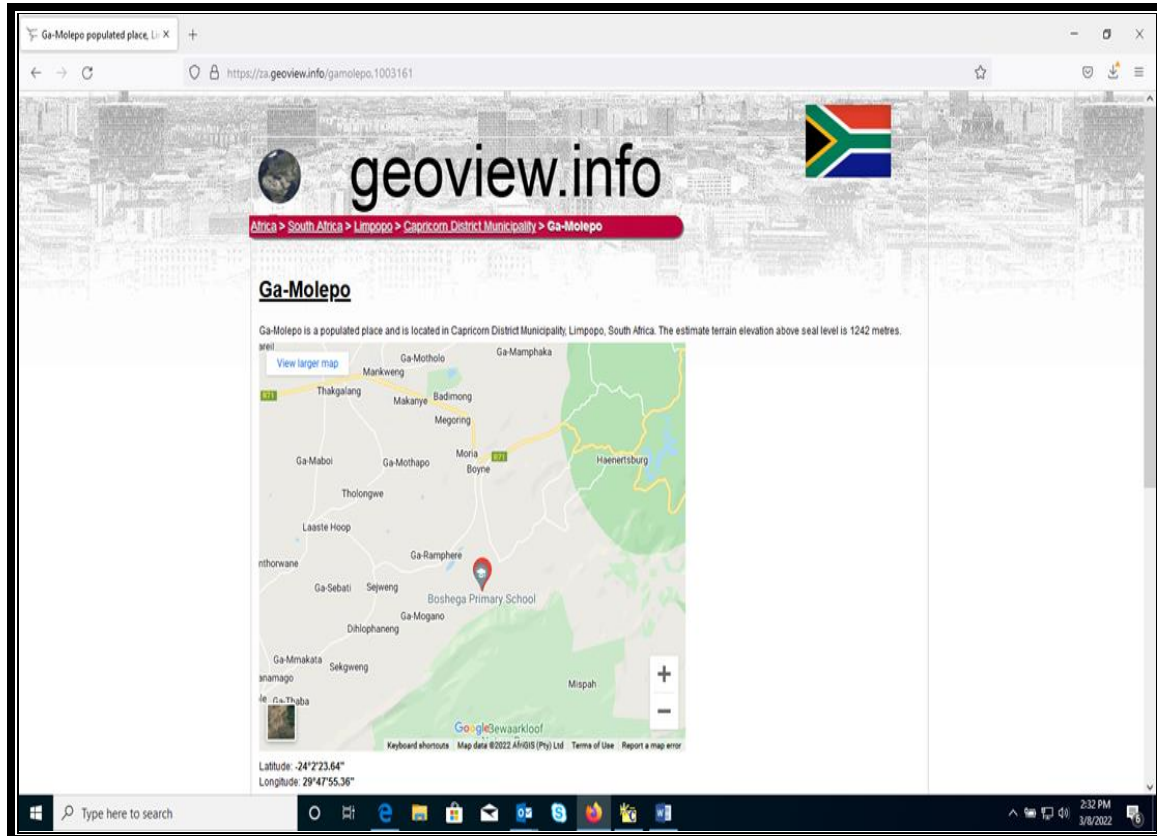
3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.3.1 Descriptions of study location

This study was conducted at Ga-Molepo village in Capricorn District that falls within the Polokwane Municipality, Limpopo province. The Ga-Molepo community is situated next to Boyne area and it comprises of twenty-three communities. The researcher chose four villages from which the participants were selected, namely Tshebela, Rampheri, Mogano and Bethel, to conduct this study.

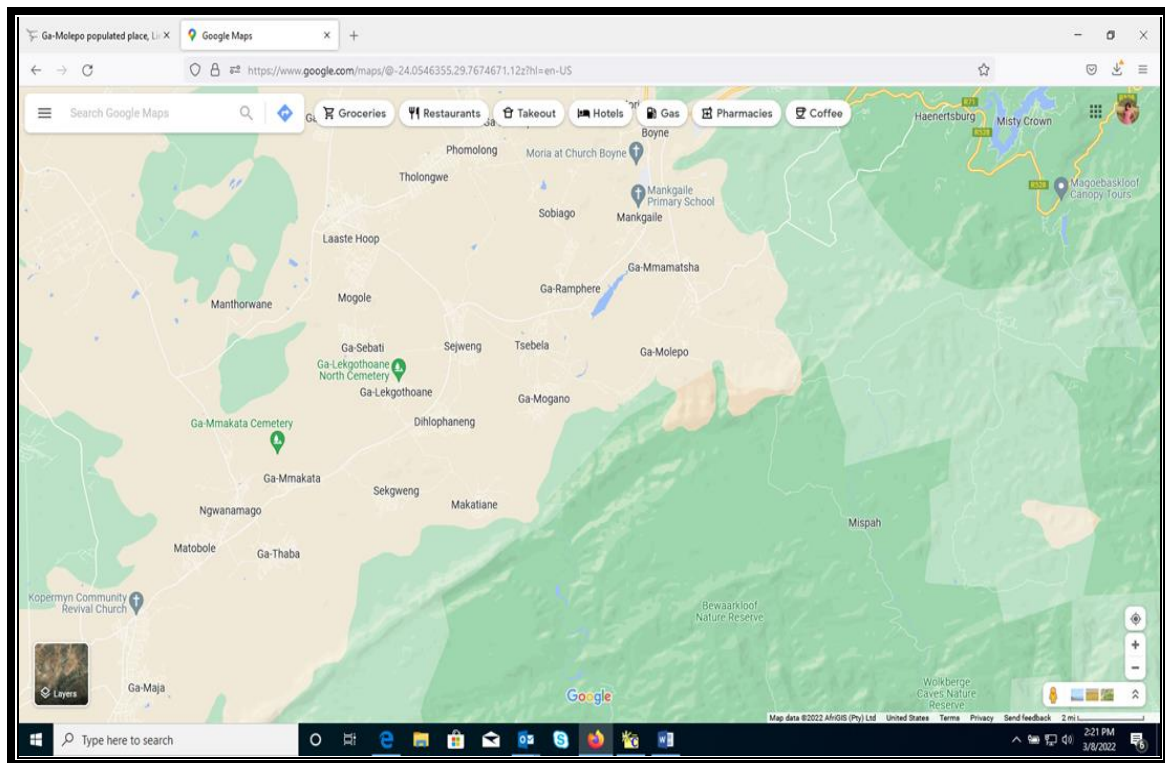
These villages were selected because they experienced high volumes of burglary at a residential premises based on the crime statistics found online about Ga-Molepo burglary incidences reported at Mankweng police station. Figure 1 and 2 show maps of Ga-Molepo and the surrounding villages in the Mankweng policing area, under the Limpopo Capricorn District Municipality.

Figure 1: Map of the Ga-Molepo village



Source: AfriGIS (2022)

Figure 2: Map of surrounding villages under Ga-Molepo village



Source: AfriGIS (2022)

3.3.2 The adopted research approach

This study adopted a qualitative research approach. The researcher chose a qualitative research method as this approach provides an understanding of the feelings, values, and perceptions that motivate and influence the participants' behaviour. Qualitative research's intention is not to generalise to a population, but to advance a detailed study of a significant phenomenon for transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 2000).

3.3.2.1 Qualitative research approach

While using a qualitative research approach, slight attention is given to the research designs or the other structural features of the research, therefore the duplication of the research design and discoveries become approximately impossible (Muijs, 2010). The three greatest shared qualitative approaches are participant observation, in-depth discussions, and focus groups.

Each technique is suitable for attaining a particular kind of information, as follows:

- Participant observation is suitable for gathering facts on naturally happening behaviours in their usual settings.
- In-depth discussions are best for gathering facts on people's personal pasts, viewpoints, and knowledge; mostly when sensitive matters are discovered.
- Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) function in producing information on the social norms of a collection and in making wide summaries of matters concerning the social groups or the smaller group represented.
- The kinds of information these three approaches produce are field records, audio and occasionally audio-visual footage, and transcripts (Muijs, 2010).

A qualitative study is often troubled with a non-statistical method of review and study of societal phenomena. Creswell (2007) summarises eight features of a qualitative study: conducting the study in a normal situation, learning several sources of information, analysing facts inductively, concentrating on the respondents' meaning, creating a developing strategy, applying a theoretic lens, interpreting information individually, and evolving a general explanation.

A qualitative research approach takes advantage of the idea of flexibility and deepness analysis. In qualitative research it is possible to grow questions flexibly. By raising queries on the spot, a qualitative researcher can get an essential perception towards the participant's belief, attitudes, or condition (Babbie, 1986). There are few respondents in a qualitative study and the scholars usually identify additional facts about each respondent. A qualitative study is excellent for creating theories rather than trying theory (Sifle & Melling, 2012). A qualitative research approach is a way to allow people to share their stories, hear their opinions and minimise the control relationship that frequently occurs amongst a researcher and the respondents in a research study (Creswell, 2007).

Qualitative research approach align with the study because it produces a complete description of respondents' feelings, opinions, and experiences; and interprets the meanings of their actions (Denzin, 1989). Chalhoub-Deville and Deville (2008) reason

that a qualitative approach is employed to accomplish deeper insight into issues related to planning, managing, and interpreting. Denzin and Lincoln (2002) state that qualitative research is an interdisciplinary field which covers a broader range of epistemological viewpoints, research approaches, and revealing methods of understanding human experiences. Qualitative research methods analyse the contestant behaviour, interviewer behaviour, interlocutor behaviour, and cross-cultural impact on behaviour during the speaking tests (Lazaraton & Taylor, 2007).

3.3.3 Targeted study population, sampling size and procedures

The ideal population of this study are all the community members, community leaders (CPF or Steering Committee leader), faith-based organisation leaders (Churches) and traditional leaders (King or *Ntona*). The researcher considers those who were victims of residential burglary or those who know someone who was a victim in Ga-Molepo. This study used non-probability, purposive sampling. In this kind of sampling, the researcher deliberately selects people and places to study based on the circumstances that they are "information rich" (Marshal & Rossman, 1999). This study was limited to Ga-Molepo community, situated in Limpopo Province, Mankweng policing area. The participants for this study totalled 32.

The selection of these participants was based on their rich knowledge and experiences of burglary at residential places as it occurred in the selected locations. The participants were those who had personally experienced burglary within the Ga-Molepo community. For this study, eight (08) participants from each village were selected to form part of semi-structured in-depth individual interviews (IID) from; Tshebela, Rampheri, Mogano and Bethel. Each group from each village consisted of community members, community leaders (CPF or Steering Committee leaders), traditional leaders (Ntona) and faith-based organisation leaders (Pastors). These villages were selected because they had experienced this crime, as stated initially and observed by the researcher, in the past fifteen (15) years as a native resident of Tshebela village in Ga-Molepo community, refer to table 2 herewith.

Table 2: The selected study sample

Tshebela village (1)	Mogano village (2)	Rampheri village (3)	Bethel village (4)
Two (02) community members	Two (02) community members	Two (02) community members	Two (02) community members
Two (02) community leaders (CPFs)	Two (02) community leaders (CPFs)	Two (02) community leaders (CPFs)	Two (02) community leaders (CPFs)
Two (02) traditional leaders (<i>Ntona</i>)	Two (02) traditional leaders (<i>Ntona</i>)	Two (02) traditional leaders (<i>Ntona</i>)	Two (02) traditional leaders (<i>Ntona</i>)
Two (02) faith-based organisational leaders (Pastors)	Two (02) faith-based organisational leaders (Pastors)	Two (02) faith-based or-organisational leaders (Pastors)	Two (02) faith-based organisational leaders (Pastors)

Source: Researcher's emphasis (2022)

The researcher wanted to explore how different people view the research topic. Since random purposive sampling was used for this study, the researcher randomly selected cases from the sample frame comprising of a firmly nominated sample. The researcher first compiled a list of persons of interest for the research using a purposive selection procedure and then randomly chose an expected number of people from the list. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), random purposeful sampling “adds credibility to a sample when a potential purposeful sample is too large”. Interview schedules were distributed to eight community members, eight community leaders, eight faith-based organisational leaders and eight traditional leaders.

3.3.4 Methods of data collection

The approach used to accumulate information was semi-structured IDIIs, to be discussed in the following section.

3.3.4.1 Semi-structured in-depth individual interviews

This study used semi-structured IDIIs. For a qualitative study, this refers to the deepness of an argument where the researcher approves the role of the research (Rice & Ezzy, 1999). This interview type was deemed as the most useful technique to gather data for the qualitative study (Harding, 2013). This suggests that the researcher asked

questions, panelled the changing aspects of the debate or participated in a discussion with a particular person at a time (Kvale, 1996). The researcher thus takes a distant, rather than a centre-stage part in a focus group discussion (Rice & Ezzy, 1999).

The semi-structured IDIIs sessions can start with simple questions to enable the discussion amongst the assessor and the respondents by creating a relaxed, welcoming atmosphere that allows for the normal flow of thoughts and ideas. The IDIIs involved 32 participants, comprised of two (02) community members from each village, two (02) community leaders (CPF), two (02) traditional leaders from each village and two (02) faith-based organisational leaders from each village, which totalled eight (08) community members, eight (08) community leaders (CPF), eight (08) traditional leaders and eight (08) faith-based organisational leaders from four (04) communities, totalling 32 participants.

3.3.4.1.1 Advantages of the semi-structured in-depth individual interviews

Any confusion or error can be corrected easily in an interview. A relationship amongst the interviewer and the participants can be developed over the interview. It raises mutual understanding and cooperation among the people involved. IDIIs can assist in gathering new, fresh, and primary data as required and a participant's body language can be read in an interview. Enough data can be gathered using the IDII method since the interviewer can ask any question to the participants. It costs less compared to other methods of communication. It is a simple, quick, and low-price technique of communication. Some interviews raise the knowledge of both the assessor and the interviewee because they can exchange their view and thoughts. Through organised interviews complete data can be gathered which allows for the correct examination of a problem (Harding, 2013).

The synchronous communication of time and place in a face to face semi-structured IDII also has the advantage that the questioner has many options to produce a decent interview atmosphere. In other words, the interviewer may create more usage of the standardisation of the situation (Bryman, 2001). The last advantage of this interview technique is that termination of an IDII is easy, compared to other interview approaches. In the communication between interviewer and interviewee sufficient hints

may be given that the completion of the interview is nearby, for example by shuffling the papers and turning off the tape recorder. A clear method to dismiss the interview is by acknowledging the interviewee for their cooperation and asking him/her if there are any further comments that could be applicable to the topic or the interview method. This may lead to a developing of a whole new area of data (Wengraf, 2001).

3.3.4.1.2 Disadvantages of semi-structured in-depth individual interviews

In the event of face-to-face semi-structured IDII some misunderstanding can occur in the future, while there is no evidence of what has been shared during the interview. Much attention is vital for a good discussion, and occasionally it is practical that both the interviewer and the respondents are less focused. Respondents might be disappointed when they face the interviewer's questions that are not associated with the research topic (Harding, 2013).

Time constraints are one of the limits of the interview procedure, because taking interviews and clarification of the answers needs more time that makes the interview process time-consuming (Seidman, 1998). There is always an option that the interview method might be influenced by the biases of the assessor. The IDIIs is an efficient method of information gathering. The achievement of an interview relies on the effectiveness of the interviewer. This incompetence of an assessor might lead to deceiving outcomes. The printing of the questionnaires may significantly raise the cost of the project since the researcher is expected to print questionnaires that resemble the number of respondents. Individual matters cannot be exposed by interview technique (Harding, 2013). Cost is the main disadvantage for face-to-face IDIIs. It is important to conduct the interviews for the study, which means there will be personal costs for travelling (Bryman, 2001).

3.3.5 Methods of data analysis

The inductive Thematic Content Analysis (TCA) was used in these explorations. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that it is the first qualitative method that should be learned as it provides core skills that are useful for conducting many other kinds of analysis.

Data was analysed using the following steps of TCA. The importance of the inductive method is to permit research results to arise from the main or important topics inborn in the raw information, without the limitations executed by arranged methods (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

- The researcher analyses the information that was collected from Ga-Molepo community members after recording the interviews.
- The researcher writes field notes during the semi-structured IDIs, so the boundaries might be used for classifying specific moments of data. The field records of one-on-one interviews about the policing of burglary at a residential premises were written, as the researcher is interested in separating the ideas (Creswell, 2009).
- The researcher read the documents that were made from the field notes of one-on-one interview information, then reviewed the facts, concentrating on policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo community.
- Induced study themes: An initiation method to thematic study permits the themes to arise after evidence. Throughout the initial analysis notes of core matters are made as they arise, concentrating on the demand to obtain insight of several matters deep-rooted in the information (Joffe & Yardley, 2004).

The researcher studied documents from the fieldwork notes of the one-on-one interviews about the policing of burglary at a residential premises carefully, line by line to allow for the flow of information. This inspires the coding which identifies slightly original facts through decontextualising moments of information deep-rooted inside the main document. Matters of concentration are categorised into themes. This continues wherever themes arise when classifying matters, connecting alike themes into groups (Crawford, Brown & Majomi, 2008). On this point, the possession of the themes is promising supports in the study procedure whereby slightly re-organising the interviews of individuals assisted to formulate and re-describe the main themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

3.4. METHOD TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS

The research is touted to be honest and accurate if the person who reads the study description confirms it to remain so. Honesty has remained separated into reliability, which agrees with the positivist idea of inner strength; steadiness, which describes consistency; transferability, which is a method of outside strength, and conformability, which is mostly a problem of demonstration (Gunawan, 2015).

3.4.1 Credibility

Credibility is the guarantee that can be positioned in facts of the study results (Macnee & McCabe, 2008). Honesty determines whether the study results characterise accurate data derived from the participant's initial information and is a precise explanation of the participant's initial opinions (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The truth will be reached over a long period of data gathering, persistent remarks, testing facts and explanations (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Approaches to guarantee credibility are lengthy meetings, determined opinions triangulation, and participant checking.

The researcher conducted the semi-structured IDIIs with the selected participants and noted their observations and knowledge on the study topic and indicated the credibility of consulted literature studies to be used for fact gathering. Thus, the literature collected and the conducted interviews hoped to be present a true and accurate picture of what is going to be claimed in this study.

3.4.2 Transferability

Transferability accepts that results might be general from an example of the unbiased residents. Transferability will be achieved by gathering adequate in-depth descriptions of information, from the purposive sample (Babbie, 2013). The researcher ensured transferability in this study by describing the procedure followed for other researchers to replicate, clarity was given on the research design and methodology to be adopted,

focusing on sampling, data gathering procedures, data analysis, and complications to be faced in the research.

There are theoretical facts attained in this study which can be moved to similar settings facing the problem under research. To do this efficiently, readers need to be able to determine as much as possible about the initial study settings to regulate whether or not it is similar their own. Researchers must provide a thorough report of their study situation and approaches. Outcomes of research techniques might be useful in other circumstances, but transferability is applicable to qualitative study methods such as ethnography and case studies (Babbie, 2013).

3.4.3 Dependability

Dependability offers the person who reads the research reassurance that should the research be repeated with similar participants in a similar setting, the study findings would remain the same (Babbie, 2013). The level of dependability was ensured in this study by clearly explaining the research design and methodology that was followed so that one can decide whether the procedure and developments followed in this research were adequate. This is done to guarantee clear relations between the facts gathered and the study results to be reported. Consensus discussions were held between the researcher and the assigned supervisors to verify identified topics and conclusions thereof (Babbie, 2013).

As a researcher, the intention was to confirm that the results were reliable with the raw information that was gathered. The researcher was certain that if other scholars were adequately cited and reported correctly and the information obtained from the selected participants was reported in a true manner, without forming fabrications, similar results clarifications, and inferences around the collected data would be reached. The researcher was certain that nothing was missed in this study and was not confused or mistaken in the last report (Babbie, 2013).

3.4.4 Conformability

Confirmability is all about the absence of researcher bias (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Results were formed on participants' answers and not any possible bias or individual drive of the researcher. This consisted of making certain that the researcher's bias did not shift the description of what the study participants thought to be suitable (Babbie, 2013). The researcher avoided bias by defending in contradiction of her personal expectations, misunderstandings, and the necessity to discover answers that would back-up her clear notions about this study (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

To guarantee conformability in this study, the researcher kept complete records of all the collected works to be assessed. As the outcome, the researcher was able to prove that the results and presentation, explanation, and analysis of the study results did not originate from her imaginations; however, there was a clear link with the data that was collected. The researcher set aside any biases, motivation, and perspectives that could influence the findings of this study. This was completely guided by the literature reviewed and the empirical findings.

3.5. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A South African-based research ethics committee must assess the ethical and academic harshness of all studies piloted in South Africa. No study involving human beings or human genetic material can commence until the ethics committee has approved the research. Researchers must get continuing approval, at least annually, during the research activity (Kour, 2014).

In its Code for Research Involving Human Subjects, the University of Limpopo goals (Referring to the Faculty of Higher Degrees Committee - FHDC and Turfloop Research Ethics Committee - TREC) supports excellence in research for the benefit of South African community and the human state. Its goals is to conduct research that has academic honesty and quality, public sympathy and accountability, admiration for the dignity and self-respect of the people and for basic human rights and reference to

specific ethics of conduct and process confirming good responsibility. More specifically, the Human Research Ethics Committee is dedicated to the following of ethical requirements (Kour, 2014).

3.5.1 Informed consent

The informed consent is now morally and lawfully shielded as the right of participants to get suitable data to make choices about participating in the study. A consent arrangement is not only about an individual giving you approval to include them in the study, it is also a contract between the researcher and the study participant, outlining the roles and duties they are taking to one another during the entire research process. The researcher must preserve one copy of the consent form signed by both themselves and the participant. Even if an individual has signed an agreement form, approval should still be re-established at the point of doing the interview (American Psychological Association, 2002). Before collecting data, the participants must sign an informed consent form after the researcher has clarified all the details of the research to participants in order to confirm that they know what they are responding to and that they agree to participate in the study.

3.5.2 Voluntary participation

Partaking in research must be intentional and voluntary. No one can be required to contribute to the study. Voluntary contribution to the study, suggesting that the participants can pull out of the research at any time (American Psychological Association, 2002). The participants must not be forced to participate in the study or be promised money after participation because that will not be voluntary. If participants want to withdraw from the research, they must be released immediately because if they are denied withdrawal, they will be participating forcefully and that is not an ethical way of conducting research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

3.5.3 Risks and discomfort (Avoidance of harm to the participants)

There were no determined dangers that s associated with this research. The respondents of this research were only giving the researcher the data around the topic. The researcher ensured that the respondents were not harmed. This is because there were no physical and no psychological forms of discomfort inherent in the study and from which participants could be harmed. Participants were informed that they felt that any of the questions sounded invasive, they could choose not to answer those questions (Barton & Hall, 2000).

3.5.4 Benefits

There were no distinguishable benefits or incentives presented to the respondents of this research. Though, it could be anticipated that these respondents could benefit by some means over the progression of data production. If the scholar received authorisation from the participants, the researcher could print the participant's names in the final thesis. Research is a tool for building knowledge and enabling learning (Barton & Hall, 2000). The study is in needed not just for scholars and researchers but for all specialists and non-professionals similarly. Defining either what the community might need to know or whatever academics need people to understand or to reflect on what could aid as a motive to do the study. Therefore, research is a crucial factor in creating knowledge and vice-versa.

Research is also a measure to recognise problems and community alertness. It also permits us to refuse fabrications and support facts. Research promotes reading, inscription, and distribution of valued data. It offers nourishment and application of the brain (Barton & Hall, 2000). Reading unlocks the mind to a massive pool of data, although inscription assists us to share our personal perspective and change our thoughts into real notions in a method that people can understand. Leading interviews, attendance of data producing events, and partaking in casual discussions might assist us to collect data and articulate study topics. Various research has revealed that rationally motivating activities like doing research might contribute to mental health (Barton & Hall, 2000).

3.5.5 Confidentiality and anonymity

Researchers are strongly urged to consider how they will protect their participants. The researcher protected the participants by keeping and maintaining both confidentiality and anonymity of the participants (Polonsky & Waller, 2005). Two methods, namelessness and privacy, help researchers in this regard, though individuals often confuse the two. The data respondents [i.e. participants] give the required information and this information should be kept private (American Psychological Association, 2002). The names of participants must not be written in the research because if that is the case, participants may have given the researcher their personal information and that would expose them. When conducting research ethical procedures must be followed in order not to harm participants so that they are willing participate in other research studies. The researcher ensured confidentiality by conducting the interviews in private.

3.5.6 Privacy

Researchers are reminded that the privacy of participants should be respected (American Psychological Association, 2002). To reach this goal, it is recommended that under no circumstance may a dissertation be presented in a way that people are alerted to the manner in which a certain respondent has replied or acted. Furthermore, academics are required to preserve the nature and value of the respondent's presentation as private. To reach this goal, anonymity of participants must be maintained.

In the current study, some strategies were used to ensure that the rights of the participants to privacy was maintained. The strategy was to ensure that no person would have access to the audio-taped (or interview schedules) results of the focus group interviews and one-on-one interviews, except the researcher and the authorised members of the research team (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The strategy was to ensure that the audiotapes would be destroyed after the data had been transcribed. The strategy was to ensure that the usage of personal data was excluded by not requiring participants to record their personal data except those types of information that were required for and vital to the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

3.6. SUMMARY

This chapter gave a summary of the qualitative research strategy that this study followed, based on the employed research design and methodology. The methods to ensure trustworthiness and ethical considerations were also addressed. The next chapter (Four) presents the data, analysis and discussions.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATIONS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis and interpretation of the data collected from community members, CPFs, or community leaders (Steering committee/ Ward Councillor), traditional leaders (*Ntona*) and faith-based organisational leaders (pastors). The semi-structured IDIs were used to collect data aimed at gaining the perceptions of people on policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities. Data is presented and analysed using themes, tables, and figures to guarantee that data is well presented.

4.2. DESCRIPTIONS AND NOTATIONS OF THE TARGETED PARTICIPANTS

Table 3: Targeted study locations and selected participants

Tshebela village (1)	Mogano village (2)	Rampheri village (3)	Bethel village (4)
Community members (Interviewee 1-2)	Community members (Interviewee 9-10)	Community members (Interviewee 17-18)	Community members (Interviewee 25-26)
Community leaders (Interviewee 3-4)	Community leaders (Interviewee 11-12)	Community leaders (Interviewee 19-20)	Community leaders (Interviewee 27-28)
Traditional leaders (Interviewee 5-6)	Traditional leaders (Interviewee 13-14)	Traditional leaders (Interviewee 21-22)	Traditional leaders (Interviewee 29-30)
Faith-based organisation leaders (Interviewee 7-8)	Faith-based organisation leaders (Interviewee 15-16)	Faith-based organisation leaders (Interviewee 23-24)	Faith-based organisation leaders (Interviewee 31-32)

* From each village, eight participants were interviewed.

Source: Researcher's emphasis (2022)

4.3. FINDINGS BASED ON THE STUDY AIM

4.3.1 The identified study theme from the study aim

4.3.1.1 Mode of entry

The following question: “Which entry point did the burglar use to enter the house?” was posed to all participants to confirm the aim of this study. These are in the answers, verbatim.

“The burglars broke the back door to gain entry into the house” (Interviewee 1- Tshebela village).

“The burglars broke in through the roof, they removed the tiles and enter the house” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The burglars broke the front door to gain entry into the house” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The burglars removed the corrugated iron/ roofing to gain entry into the house” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The burglars broke the windows to gain entry into the house” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village)

“The burglars broke the garage door to gain entry into the house” (Interviewee 08- Tshebela village).

“The burglars entered the house through the roof, and they damaged the corrugated irons” (Interviewee 12- Mogano village).

“The burglars broke the window to gain entry into the house” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

“The burglars removed the roof to gain entry into the house and opened the front door from the inside” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

Chapter two paragraph 2.2.4 supported that the point of entry, such as the “door, window, roof or transom on front, side, or rear of building; on first floor, second or another floor,’ are often used as a point of entry to residential premises and the properties/residential premises are attacked for the following valuable items: Money, electronics, jewellery, clothing and furs and household goods”, as alluded by Rodgers (2017).

4.4. FINDINGS RELATING TO STUDY OBJECTIVES

4.4.1 Identified study theme based on objective 1: The prevalence of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community

4.4.1.1 Widespread of burglary

The following question was posed to the selected participants: “*Do you consider burglary at a residential premises to be more widespread in the previous 05 years (2018-2022) in Ga-Molepo which falls under Mankweng Policing area?*” to address objective 1 of this study. This is what participants emphasised, verbatim.

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because the participant has been a victim of burglary in the past three years” (Interviewee 1- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because several houses were burgled in the past three years” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because several premises were burgled in the past three years” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, the participant said that there have been more burglaries at Tshebela village for the past three years” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because the participants have been a victim of burglary” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because burglary has been occurring frequently in the communities” (Interviewee 8- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because many houses experienced residential burglary” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because many people are victims of burglary” (Interviewee 12-Mogano village).

“The participant said that yes there is more widespread of burglary in Ga-Molepo communities, because several houses were broken into in the communities” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

As recorded in Table 1 of chapter one and paragraph 2.3.1.5 in chapter two, it was stated that the number of reported SAPS cases of burglary at a residential premises, in VOCS statistics of 2018/19 confirmed that that this crime is far outside the 95% confidence interval for the estimated number of reported cases. This implies that the estimated number of reported cases from the Government, Public Safety and Justice Survey (GPSJS) is significantly higher than the number of cases of burglary reported by SAPS (VOCS, 2018/19). In 2018/19, there were 22,431 incidents of house robbery reported, up from 22,261 in 2017/18. On average, 61 households were robbed each day. In 2019/20, there were 205,959 house burglaries reported to the police, an average of 464 houses were burgled per day.

4.4.2 Identified study themes extracted for objective 2: To identify the problems experienced by the Ga-Molepo community with policing of burglary

4.4.2.1 Causes of burglary and premises that are mostly targeted

The following question: *“What could be the causes of burglary at a residential premises and which premises are mostly targeted for burglary?”* was posed to all participants to achieve objective 2 of this study. This is what participants revealed, verbatim.

“The participant said that burglary is caused by that criminals see valuable properties during the day when they pass-by the houses and come back at night to burglarise and burglars target houses that have students because they know that they use laptops for online learning ” (Interviewee 1- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by criminals who wanted electronic devices to sell in order to make money and burglars target big houses thinking that they will find valuable properties” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by criminals who target houses that are not occupied” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by being far from Mankweng police station and unemployment, and burglars target houses that are not occupied” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by criminals who sell properties in order to buy drugs (drug fix) and the burglars target houses that have DSTV decoder outside” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the do not know what causes burglary and burglars target premises that have valuable properties” (Interviewee 08- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by people who are not working and think that they will steal properties and sell them in order to make money and burglars target big houses assuming that there will be valuable properties” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by unemployment in rural areas and burglars target unoccupied houses and big houses” (Interviewee 12- Mogano village).

“The participant said that burglary is caused by unemployment and laziness of people who like flashy lifestyle and the burglars target houses where elderly people live alone” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

Chapter two, paragraph 2.2.5.1 referenced that people who live a wealthy lifestyle are associated with valuable goods in their household which may attract a potential burglar when searching for a suitable target. Burglars may see the lifestyle of a flashy life, expensive cell phone, clothes, shoes, or the cars driven by the resident (Van Zyl, Wilson & Pretorius, 2003). This gives the burglar the impression that the house has more valuable goods that they can sell for good money. A burglar may assume that they have a stash of cash in the house or expensive jewellery they can sell.

In chapter two paragraph 2.2.5.4, it was also stated that residents who are away from home due to work, recreational activities or other purposes give burglars an opportunity to break and enter the house in their absence. As a burglar's main aim is to not be seen this is the best opportunity for them to burglarise a house (Van Zyl, Wilson & Pretorius, 2003). Moreover, in chapter 2 paragraph 2.2.2, it was further highlighted that the rise in the crime level is recognised in part to the high unemployment rate and associated social difficulties, which are related to poverty and hopelessness.

In chapter 2, paragraph 2.2.5.4, a confirmation made by Hearnden and Magill (2004) revealed that burglars often abuse alcohol and drugs, which increases the need for money, this is clearly linked to the prevalence of burglary at a residential premises, and selling stolen items for money. Chapter two, paragraph 2.2.1, also showed that the scope of visible local policing predisposed individual's fears of criminality, but assurance in law enforcement too. Sindall and Sturgis (2013) have repeated the concept that perceptibility has an essential and constructive outcome on self-assurance. Target fulfilment with the police is added as an essential step of the law enforcement routine (Sindall & Sturgis, 2013).

4.4.2.2 Challenges experienced when responding to burglary at a residential premises

The following question was asked to the selected participants: *“What are the challenges of responding to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community which falls under Mankweng Policing cluster?”* to achieve study objective 2 of this study. This is what participants emphasised, verbatim.

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police do not come on time at the crime scene or they come the next day of the incident” (Interviewee 1- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police respond to crime calls very late” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police do not respond on time, it takes them a very long time to arrive at the crime scene” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the challenge is the late response from the police and sometimes the police do not come at all” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police do not come at all, when a crime is being committed” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village)

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police come very late at crime scene and the police ask the victims as if they advertised their properties” (Interviewee 8- Tshebela).

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police arrive late at crime scenes because the Mankweng police station is very far” (Interviewee 12- Mogano village).

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police do not respond on time at crime calls or they do not arrest the criminals at all who commit burglary” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

“The participant said that the challenge is that the police just take a statement and they do not investigate the burglary case further” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

In chapter two, paragraph 2.4 it was stated that resources are scarce, with one officer for every 383 people, a lack of transportation and communication facilities, and officers suffer from low salary and poor environments (SAPS, 2014).

In chapter 2, paragraph 2.4, it was provided that the police's service delivery is very poor because of the time they take to reply to emergency demands and criminal investigations. This results in several illustrations of devoted good police work repeatedly offset by ineffectiveness or disinterest, and failures of policing, with criminal intelligence operations that are failing to pull apart organised criminal networks and police services being poorly prepared to catch criminals (SAPS, 2014). While, in chapter two, paragraph 2.4, it was hinted that the investigation and deterrence of crime by the police is compromised by poor investigation methods, and a lack of both forensic capacity and expertise in handling evidence (SAPS, 2014).

In chapter 2, paragraph 2.4, this study posited that it appears that there is an increasing backlog of cases that are incomplete hence they cannot result in conviction (SAPS, 2014). This could deteriorate the preventive outcome of police, as criminals realise that they are not likely to be arrested. In chapter 2, paragraph 2.4, it was presented that the investigation and deterrence of crime by the police is compromised by poor investigation methods, and a lack of both forensic capacity and expertise at handling evidence (SAPS, 2014). Resources are scarce, with one officer for every 383 people, a lack of transportation and communication facilities exist, and officers suffer from low salary and poor environments (SAPS, 2014).

Consequently, in chapter 2, paragraph 2.5, it was recorded that the White Paper on Safety and Security, 1998 only discusses areas of mediation to guarantee active criminality prevention by the way of 'Public Crime Prevention' which were designed to include societies taking accountability for criminality prevention in their own areas (Worrall, 1999).

4.4.2.3 Effects/Impacts of burglary at a residential premises

The following question was asked to the selected participants: *"Describe your experience of the effects of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo community?"* to support objective 2 of this study. This is what participants said, verbatim.

"The participant experienced emotional trauma and financial loss because new properties must be brought" (**Interviewee 1- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that I have experienced too much trauma because of the value of properties stolen” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that they experienced the emotional stress and financial loss because of the lost properties” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that they experienced trauma, stress and fear of not feeling safe in their household because of burglars” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that they experienced emotional trauma, psychological and financial loss due to lost properties” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that I have experienced emotional hurt, lives in fear and I was looked down by other community members” (Interviewee 8- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that they experienced financial loss and emotionally hurt so badly” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

“The participant said that I have experienced hurt and financial loss because of the properties lost during burglary” (Interviewee 12- Mogano village).

“The participant said that I have experienced emotional trauma and financial lost because of properties stolen” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

In chapter two paragraph 2.3.2.1.2 it was revealed that the emotional and psychological trauma was never repaired. The fact that the burglars are not arrested, and the property not found may result in the escalation of feelings of invasion and fear for the victims. Victims of burglary at a residential premises experience feelings of outrage, frustration and feel exposed by their burglar (Butcher, 1991).¹ In chapter two, paragraph 2.3.2.1.1, it was showcased that knowing that you fell to this crime can result in mixed heavy emotions and psychological effects (Aantjes, 2012). Burglary at a residential premises involve intruders entering into a home and damages the feeling of personal safety, peace of mind and one’s well-being. Its great impact on its victims

and those who fear burglary, is often out of proportion with the value of the property that was stolen (Coupe & Griffiths, 1998).

4.4.2.4 Standard used to handle burglary

The following question was posed to the selected participants: *“What are the usual standards of handling burglary at a residential premises scenes?”* to support objective 2 of this study. These are the participants’ answers, verbatim.

“The participant said that the police just ask how you saw that indeed your house was burglarised and what properties did the burglars took” (**Interviewee 1- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that they called the community members to assist” (**Interviewee 2- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that they called the community to assist because, we lost trust in the police or Criminal Justice system” (**Interviewee 3- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that they called the police and community members after a burglary was committed” (**Interviewee 4- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that they called the community members to resolve to mob justice” (**Interviewee 5- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that they called the police, and the police came to take a statement” (**Interviewee 8- Tshebela village**).

“The participant said that they called the police after the incident and the police came the next day to take a statement” (**Interviewee 10- Mogano village**).

“The participant said that they called the police, and they came to take a statement and fingerprints” (**Interviewee 12- Mogano village**).

“The participant said that they called the police, and they came and took a statement” (**Interviewee 13- Mogano village**).

In chapter two, paragraph 2.2.5.4 referenced that in terms of residential burglary investigations where the suspect is unknown, the DNA Act, 2013 can assist the police by identifying the suspect by means of fingerprints, footprints, or any physical evidence that can be found at the crime scene (Sonne, 2006).

4.4.3 Identified study themes extracted for objective 3: The effectiveness of policing of burglary in the Ga-Molepo community

4.4.3.1 Effectiveness of the current Mankweng police station tactics

The following question: *“How effective are the current Mankweng police tactics of responding to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community?”* was asked to all participants to achieve objective 3 of this study. This is what participants emphasised, verbatim.

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are not effective because they did not give us the feedback about the ongoing investigations, we are still waiting for the feedback and they do not even communicate with us about the case” (Interviewee 1- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are not effective because they do not investigate the burglary cases very well, they just end up closing the cases” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics do not, because I do not see the police officers in our communities except only if a crime is committed” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are not effective, and we are not even familiar with their strategies” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are not effective when responding to burglary and I am not familiar with their strategies” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are not effective, and they take a very long time to arrive at the crime scene” (Interviewee 8- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are not effective because they did not solve the case, we reported to them” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

“The participant said that the current Mankweng police station tactics are effective because they arrested the criminals, but the criminals got released because of lack of evidence to prosecute” (Interviewee 12- Mogano village).

“The participant said that the Mankweng police station’s current tactics do not work because they unable to arrest criminals or burglars” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

4.4.3.2 Available measures to prevent burglary

The following question: *“What measures can the police take to prevent burglary in Ga-Molepo community?”* was posed to all participants to accomplish objective 3 of this study. This is what the selected participants highlighted, verbatim.

“The participant said that the police must patrol in the communities during the day and at night” (Interviewee 1- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the police must patrol the rural areas more often” (Interviewee 2- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the police must take reported cases seriously and investigate them until they find the perpetrators or solve the case” (Interviewee 3- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the police must respond early to crime calls and do thorough investigation on burglary cases” (Interviewee 4- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the police must respond on time to burglary calls and investigate and resolve those burglary cases” (Interviewee 5- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the police must patrol in the communities during the day and at night” (Interviewee 8- Tshebela village).

“The participant said that the police must arrest criminals or suspects to reduce re-offending” (Interviewee 10- Mogano village).

“The participant said that the police must patrol in the communities” (Interviewee 12- Mogano village).

“The participant said that the police must investigate reported crimes and solve them” (Interviewee 13- Mogano village).

Chapter two, paragraph 2.2.1 supported that the scope of visible local policing predisposed individual's fears of criminality, but assurance in law enforcement too. Sindall and Sturgis (2013) have repeated the concept that perceptibility has an essential and constructive outcome on self-assurance. Target fulfilment with the police is added as an essential step of in the law enforcement routine (Sindall & Sturgis, 2013).

4.5. SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher dealt with the presentation, interpretation, and analysis of the qualitative data collected from the participants' responses to the IDIs. The results were presented and discussed using themes to show the results of the interviews. The selected participants provided answers to the posed questions based on how they view policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities.

The posed questions were guided by the study aim, objectives and the interview schedule. The community members and the researcher think that government hires unqualified or untrained people in the SAPS department because nothing is improving but rather deteriorating as the level of service is very poor. The strategies used do not reduce the crime rate in the communities. The police are not showing any capabilities or confidence to protect South Africans and their property as stipulated in the Constitution of South Africa. To this course, the next chapter (Five) look at the study summary, conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

STUDY SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a summary of the study, recommendations, and conclusions drawn about the perception of policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities. The aim of this chapter is to provide a summary of the findings of the study. The conclusions and recommendations drawn relate to the objectives of the study. The findings and conclusions of the study assist to formulate recommendations that can be useful for future research studies.

5.2. STUDY OVERALL SUMMARY

Chapter One discussed the general orientation of the study, focusing on the introduction, problem statement of the study, aim and objectives of the study, study significance and the scope of the study. This research aimed to reveal the perception of Ga-Molepo communities of policing of burglary at a residential premises. Once their perception of law enforcement was noted, it may be used as an approach to increase service delivery if there are any remaining gaps.

Chapter Two focused on reviewing the literature studies and the theoretical framework, focusing on exploring policing of burglary at a residential premises, prevalence, and associated impacts of burglary at a residential premises (Comparison analysis), policing of burglary at a residential premises (Experienced problems and challenges) and the effectiveness of policing of burglary in South African communities.

The BWT was applicable to this study because the community intimates that the police are not undertaking their work in the community and this causes more crime or social disorders. The BWT also explains that if criminal cases are not solved in the community, criminals will continue committing crime. The SAPS can also use DNA that is found at the crime scene such as fingerprints, footprints or any other physical evidence that could help to solve a crime.

Chapter Three presented the employed research design and methodology, based on the adopted qualitative research strategy that the research followed and the methodology that was used. The method of data collection using semi-structured IDIs, as well as the selection of participants through purposive sampling and the TCA of data is clarified. Ethical considerations were also addressed. The research was conducted with the main question in mind and the design and methodology were selected to assist in answering the question of policing of burglary at a residential premises.

Chapter Four dealt with the presentation, interpretation, and analysis of the qualitative data collected from the participants' responses to the IDIs. The results were presented and discussed using themes to show the results of the interviews. The participants answered the questions based on how they viewed policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities. The community members and the researcher believe that the government has hired unqualified or untrained people within the SAPS because nothing is improving but rather deteriorating, as the levels of service are very poor. Even the strategies they use do not reduce the crime rate in the communities. The police are not showing any capabilities or confidence to protect South Africans and their property as stipulated in the Constitution of South Africa.

Chapter Five provided the summary, conclusions, limitations and recommendations of this study. The interpretation of the findings based on an overview of the emergent themes. The conclusions and recommendations drawn relate to the objectives of the study. The study concluded that more police training is required on how to respond to burglary cases and new policies should also be implemented.

5.3. STUDY CONCLUSIONS

The SAPS management should improve the strategies and understand the burglary investigation techniques that they use to investigate burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities. The findings clarify that there are some limitations or challenges when responding to burglary cases, for example, the equipment needed for fingerprints or DNA samples. Sometime there are no forensic investigators available to respond to the burglary scene, only the police officers respond. Police visibility in

the communities can also reduce crime rates because the police can act as a guardian for the targeted premises.

The most common problem linked to the investigation of burglary is the lack of evidence, notes and sketches. The researcher believes that the forensic investigators fail to visit and process some crime scene before contamination. Therefore, forensic investigators and police can benefit from following proper and required procedures of crime scene investigation since it is important to solve the case, not just to close it. Some community members complain about their cases being closed without being given feedback or being consulted. The relationship between community members and the police it is still a major concern, as there is still a notion of us versus them.

The following were findings from the results of the participants' interviews on policing of burglary in Ga-Molepo villages:

- It was discovered that burglars enter the premises through the front doors, back doors, garage doors, windows, and roofs.
- It was discovered that there is more widespread of burglary at residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities, the participants mention that they were victims of burglary and many households in the communities were burgled.
- It was discovered that burglary is caused by unemployment, drugs, laziness and being far from a police station, and that the criminal's target unoccupied houses, big houses, houses with DSTV decoders and houses where elderly people live alone.
- It was discovered that the participants experience challenges regarding the police responding to burglary where the police do not come or respond on time at the crime scene.
- It was discovered that burglary was handled by calling the police to the crime scene to take a statement and fingerprints and calling community members to assist with mob justice because the community has lost their trust in the CJS.

- It was discovered that the police tactics are not effective because the police do not solve reported cases or give feedback about the development of the cases because nothing has been done on the cases.
- It was discovered that the participants mentioned the measures that can be used to prevent burglary were that the police must patrol in the communities, investigate reported case thoroughly and respond early to crime calls.

5.4. STUDY LIMITATIONS

This study had some applicable limitations where the researcher experienced several challenges when conducting this study. The researcher experienced a challenge where some participants were still in shock because of a burglary and asked not to participate in the study. Many households in the communities that experienced burglary are unoccupied and therefore no one was available to interview, so the researcher struggled to reach the required number of participants on time.

5.5. STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings in the previous chapter require that recommendations be made regarding the policing of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities. The value of recommendations is centred on the aspects which emerged during the study. The challenges experienced by community members on policing of burglary at a residential premises were identified during the findings and recommendations are proposed regarding the emergent themes.

5.5.1 Recommendations on the study aim and related theme

It was revealed that burglars enter the premises through the front doors, back doors, garage doors, windows, and roofs. The following were recommended based on the mode of entry that the burglars use:

- Install burglar bars on the windows and at the doors to increase the difficulty of breaking-in and increasing the time it takes to enter the premises.
- Entry doors must be solid wood or metal and the door should fit the frame perfectly without leaving any gap between the door and the frame.
- Install a motion or vibration sensor alarm system in the house to make it difficult for burglars to enter the premises knowing that the owner of the house will be alerted.
- Install high proper fencing or an electrical fence to make it difficult for burglars to climb the fence.
- Installing CCTV cameras increases the possibility of exposure.
- Install proper lighting around the house for visibility.

5.5.2 Recommendations for the study objective one (1) and related theme

It was found that burglary at residential premises in Ga-Molepo communities is widespread because the participants mention that they were victims of burglary and many households in the communities were burgled. The following were recommended based on the widespread burglary in Ga-Molepo communities:

- Install streetlights to increase visibility in the communities.
- Increase police patrols and police visibility in the communities.
- Have active CPFs that will respond to crimes in the communities.

5.5.3 Recommendations for the study objective 2 and related themes

It was established that burglary is caused by unemployment, drugs, laziness and being far from a police station and the criminal's target unoccupied houses, big houses, houses with DSTV decoder and houses where elderly people live alone. The following were recommended based on the causes of burglary:

- Increase police patrols
- Provide Ga-Molepo communities with mobile or satellite police station to reduce crimes.
- Formulate youth programme, which can keep youth busy by preventing them to think about criminal activities.

It was found that the participants mentioned that they experienced challenges on responding to burglary where the police do not come or respond on time at crime scene or police do not come at all. The following were recommended based on the challenges experienced when responding to burglary at a residential premises:

- The police must be provided with more resources to be able to respond to crimes, for example, the police must be provided with enough vehicles to be able to travel to the crime scenes on time.
- The police must be well-trained and able to deal with different crimes in the communities.
- Allocate more budget to employ more qualified police officers and forensic investigators and train them on techniques that are used when responding to a burglary.
- Build a satellite police station in Ga-Molepo villages for the communities to easily access a police station.
- Victims of burglary must be provided with counselling because the event of burglary traumatises them or allow victims to make use of victim support programmes.

5.5.4 Recommendations for the study objective 3 and related theme

It was confirmed that burglary is handled by calling the police to the crime scene to take a statement and fingerprints and calling community members to assist with mob justice because the communities have lost their trust in the CJS. The following were recommended based on the handling of burglary at a residential premises:

- Strengthen the weak points of the CJS through designing new systems and funding critical leverage points.
- The police must be trained on how to take a statement and how to collect evidence that does not have loopholes so that the magistrate is able to prosecute the criminals, in other words, creating a professional police service.

It was found that the local SAPS tactics are not effective because the police do not solve reported causes or give feedback about the development of the cases because nothing has been done on these cases. The following were recommended based on the effectiveness of the police tactics used for burglary:

- Implement new strategies that can deal with these increasing crimes in the communities.
- Implement pro-active policing rather than reactive policing where police come only if a crime is committed.
- The police must conduct operations in the communities where police will stop, search and seize (Search and ask people who walk around the communities at night about where they are going, including the cars that move around the communities at night).
- The local SAPS must patrol the hotspots of crimes in the communities.

It was highlighted that the participants mentioned the measures that can be used to prevent burglary were that the police must patrol in the communities, investigate reported cases thoroughly and respond early to crime calls. The following were recommended based on the measures that can be used to prevent burglary at a residential premises:

- The local SAPS must patrol in the Ga-Molepo communities on a daily basis.
- The police must make sure that they investigate and resolve the burglary cases reported to them. The police must make sure that they are able to put together the pieces of the puzzles when doing their investigations.

5.6. FURTHER RESEARCH STUDIES

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, future research studies should be geared towards the relevance of qualifications in recruiting more suitable SAPS officials to police these crimes, and determining the kinds of trainings the local SAPS undergo to effectively police these crimes, as well as understanding the importance of forensic investigations and DNA in policing this practice.

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ANNEXURE A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

My name is Beauty Mogaladi Malatjie and as a master's student at University of Limpopo, I thought it would be a good idea to interview you, so that I can gain a better understanding about your perceptions of **“The policing of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo Village, Limpopo Province”**. I am conducting this study for the completion of a Master of Arts Degree in Criminology. If you have additional questions regarding this study, you can contact my supervisors: Ms K Lekgau on 015 268 3146 (khomotjo.lekgau@ul.ac.za) or my co-supervisor Dr DL Kgosimore on 015 268 2850 (david.kgosimore@ul.ac.za) and Dr W Maluleke on 015 268 4881 (witness.maluleke@ul.ac.za).

The scheduled interviews (In-depth individual interviews) should take about 30-60 minutes.

You are being asked to take part in this study. Before you decide to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being conducted. The responses in this study will be confidential. Please ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear or if you need more information.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed, as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person but reported only as a population member's opinion.
- The interview may last for about an hour.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for the purposes of this study only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalised for taking such an action.
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.
- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

Audio equipment / Voice record **(Mark with X)**

Willing	Not willing

DECLARATION

I..... (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project; I agree to take part in this study.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF THE PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

.....

ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW SCEHDULE GUIDE

1. Do you consider burglary at a residential premises to be more widespread in the previous five years (2018-2022) in Ga-Molepo which falls under Mankweng Policing Area? (Please elaborate on your answer).
2. What could be the causes of burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community?
3. In your own understanding, which premises are mostly targeted for burglary within the Ga-Molepo community?
4. Who are the role players in responding to burglary at a residential premises cases?
5. Are there any applied strategies (by the role players/police) for responding to burglary at a residential premises cases? (Please elaborate on your answer)
6. What is the significance of the chain of protection in the investigation of burglary at a residential premises?
7. Do you know what should be done if one reports a burglary to police, but they (police) fail to investigate the burglary case properly?
8. What are the challenges for responding to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community which falls under Mankweng Policing cluster?
9. What are the usual standards for handling burglary at a residential premises crime scenes?
10. How effective are the current Mankweng police tactics in responding to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community?
11. Describe your experience of the effect of burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo community?
12. Which modes of entry do the burglars use to enter households?
13. Is there any alternative strategy that can be applied to respond to burglary at a residential premises in Ga-Molepo community by the police?

14. What measures can the police take to prevent burglary in Ga-Molepo community?

15. Any other comments you would like to make, regarding the response to burglary at a residential premises in the Ga-Molepo community

.....

.....

.....

.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

ANNEXURE C: FACULTY OF HIGHER DEGREES COMMITTEE ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL



University of Limpopo
Faculty of Humanities
Executive Dean

Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
 Tel: (015) 268 4895, Fax: (015) 268 3425, Email: Satsope.maoto@ul.ac.za

DATE: 29 October 2020

NAME OF STUDENT: MALATJIE, BM
STUDENT NUMBER: [201409133]
DEPARTMENT: MA – Criminology
SCHOOL: Social Sciences

Dear Student

FACULTY APPROVAL OF PROPOSAL (PROPOSAL NO. FHDC2020/9/4)

I have pleasure in informing you that your MA proposal served at the Faculty Higher Degrees Meeting on 25 September 2020 and your title was approved as follows:

TITLE: THE POLICING OF BURGLARY AT RESIDENTIAL PREMISES IN THE GA-MOLEPO VILLAGE, LIMPOPO PROVINCE

Note the following:

Ethical Clearance	Tick One
In principle the study requires no ethical clearance, but will need a TREC permission letter before proceeding with the study	√
Requires ethical clearance (Human) (TREC) (apply online) Proceed with the study only after receipt of ethical clearance certificate	
Requires ethical clearance (Animal) (AREC) Proceed with the study only after receipt of ethical clearance certificate	

Yours faithfully

Prof RS Maoto,
Executive Dean: Faculty of Humanities
 Director: Prof SL Sithole
 Supervisor: MS K Lekgau
 Co-supervisor(s): Dr DL Kgosimore
 Dr W Maluleke

ANNEXURE D: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL



University of Limpopo
Department of Research Administration and Development
Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
Tel: (015) 268 3935, Fax: (015) 268 2306, Email:
makoetja.ramusi@ul.ac.za

**TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

MEETING: 24 March 2021

PROJECT NUMBER: TREC/49/2021: PG

PROJECT:

Title: The policing of burglary at residential premises in the Ga-Molepo Village, Limpopo Province
Researcher: BM Malatjie
Supervisor: Ms K Leggau
Co-Supervisor/s: Dr W Maluleke
Dr DL Kgosimore
School: Social Sciences
Degree: Master of Arts in Criminology

PROF P MASOKO

CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council, Registration Number: REC-0310111-031

Note:

- i) This Ethics Clearance Certificate will be valid for one (1) year, as from the abovementioned date. Application for annual renewal (or annual review) need to be received by TREC one month before lapse of this period.
- ii) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee, together with the Application for Amendment form.
- iii) PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.

Finding solutions for Africa

ANNEXURE E: GA-MOLEPO TRADITIONAL AUTHORITY APPROVAL LETTER

ENG: 082 3711 237

92

Ntona Tshebela
Box 2946
Mphogodiba
0732

21 July 2022

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I Ntona Tshebela allows Malotje Beauty Mogaladi ID 730404 1320 083 to collect data at Ga-Molepo (Tshebela) concerning burglary that occurs in the community.

We hope the above information will serve the purpose. Should further information be required please feel free to contact the following: R.P. Molepa (0823711237) : M.C. Molepa (0832899271)

Your Co operation in this regard will be highly appreciated

Yours Faithfully
R.P. Molepa

NTONA TSHEBELA
BOX 2946, MPHOGODIBA. 0732
CELL: 082 978 8031
DATE: 21-07-2022

ANNEXURE F: EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE

Kim N Smit Editorial Services



Declaration of Professional Editing

22 July 2022

This letter serves to confirm that Beauty Mogaladi Malatjie submitted a proposal for research to myself for editing. The proposal is entitled, 'THE POLICING OF BURGLARY AT RESIDENTIAL PREMISES IN THE GA-MOLEPO VILLAGE, LIMPOPO PROVINCE'.

The following aspects were edited:

- Spelling
- Grammar
- Consistency of layout
- Sentence structure
- Logical sequencing
- References (Reference checking involves proofreading and perhaps some editing with regards to the simple formatting of the references into the referencing style required i.e. changing the order of the elements - author, date, title, series, place, publisher, journal, volume, issue, pagination etc.)

My involvement was restricted to language use and spelling, completeness and consistency, referencing style (in-text), and formatting of headings and captions. I did no structural re-writing of the content and did not influence the academic content in any way. The content and formatting of the final document submitted for examination remains the responsibility of the student.

Should you have any further queries, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Kind regards,

Kim Smit

● Tel: +27 (0)78 493 6554

● Email: editorialkns@gmail.com

Member of the Freelance panel for the University of South Africa

Member of the Freelance panel for the University of Pretoria

ANNEXURE G: TURNITIN REPORT

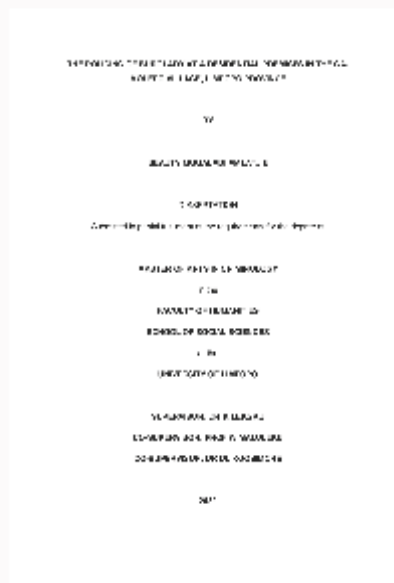


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