

# **A CRIMINOLOGICAL EXPLORATION OF THE FEAR OF CRIME AMONG DOMESTIC WORKERS IN TSHWANE, GAUTENG**

By

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Submitted in accordance with the requirements

For the degree of

**MASTER OF ARTS**

In the subject

**CRIMINOLOGY**

At the

**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

**SUPERVISOR: DR M. ZITHA**

**DECEMBER 2023**

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I further declare that I submitted this dissertation to originality-checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it for examination or at UNISA for another Qualification or at any other Higher Education Institution.

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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I take this opportunity to give thanks, honour and thanksgiving to JEHOVAH my creator, who gave me courage, strength and wisdom through HIS HOLY SPIRIT my “Paraclete”.

My supervisor, Dr. Moitsadi Zitha, showed tolerance, perseverance, and the highest level of dedication to this study. She was a great mentor and supervisor. I have come a long way thanks to your knowledge and direction, and I will always be grateful for your dedication to academic support.

My wife, Maria, you have been my pillar of strength and the source of my inspiration throughout this journey. Thank you!

To my wonderful children, Vonani, Hlawulekani, Dzuniso, Nsimeko and Ntalo, to God be the glory for such blessings.

I would like to express my gratitude to the entire leadership of Team Gauteng SAPS Provincial Office for permitting me to interview at Brooklyn SAPS. I am grateful to the people of Brooklyn for letting me interview your staff members while they are at work. I am appreciative of the research volunteers in this study because I could not have completed it on my own.

Ms. Barbara Shaw, thank you very much for proofreading and editing the text of this study.

**WE ONCE MORE, FOREVER GIVE, ADORATION TO JEHOVAH ELOHIM!**

## **ABSTRACT**

South Africans are concerned about the high levels of crime and violence in the country. Housebreaking and theft are the most common crimes faced by citizens, although statistics reveal a slight decline in the number of reported cases. Property crimes and thefts present a serious threat to workplace safety and, as a result, induce the fear of crime. This study aimed to explore to what extent domestic workers experience victimisation in the workplace and how this affects their perceptions of crime. A large body of research on crime, fear of crime and victimisation has neglected to investigate the effects of workplace victimisation in this context.

A qualitative research approach was applied to investigate and explore domestic workers' experiences and their perceptions of safety and victimisation in their working environments. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with sixteen (16) domestic workers and four (04) police officials, who are group commanders, at the South African Police Service (SAPS) Brooklyn. The 16 domestic workers were selected randomly at the Brooklyn Crime Information Management and Analysis Centre (CIMAC) office. A purposive sampling approach was employed. The research participants' narratives revealed the causal ideologies ingrained in the domestic workers' experiences through their lenses. The results of this study reveal that exposure to victimisation has long-term psychological effects and creates a distorted perception of fear of crime. In addition, there is a strong link between fear of crime, poor built environment design, inadequate community structures' engagement and ineffective law enforcement.

**KEY TERMS:** Crime, Criminal Justice System, Contact and Property Crimes, Department of Home Affairs, Domestic Workers, House robbery, Fear of Crime.

## **MBALANGO WA NTIVOVUGEVENGA WA NCHAVO WA VUGEVENGA EXIKARHI KA VAPFUNI VA LE MINDYANGWINI ETSHWANE, GAUTENG**

### **NKOMISO**

Maafrika-Dzonga va vilerisiwa hi mayelana na tilevhele ta le henhla ta vugevenga na madzolonga etikweni. Ku tshoviwa ka tindlu na vukhamba hi byona vugevenga lebyi tolovelekeke swinene lebyi langutanaka na vaakatiko, hambileswi tinhlayonhlayo ti paluxaka ku ya ehansi switsongo eka nhlayo ya milandzu leyi mangariweke. Vugevenga bya nhundzu na vukhamba swi nyika nchaviseto wo tivikana eka vuhlayiseki bya le ntirhweni naswona, hikokwalaho, swi vanga nchavo wa vugevenga. Ndzavisiso lowu wu valanga leswaku i kufika eka mpimo wihi vapfuni va le mindyangwini va tokotaka nxaniso entirhweni na hilaha leswi swi khumbaka hakona mavonelo ya vona ya vugevenga. Miri lowukulu wa ndzavisiso hi mayelana na vugevenga, nchavo wa vugevenga na nxaniso wu tsan'wile ku lavisisa switandzhaku swa nxaniso wa le ntirhweni ka mbangu lowu.

Endlelo ra ndzavisiso wa risima wu tirhisiwile eka ndzavisiso lowu ku lavisisa na ku valanga mitokoto ya vapfuni va le mindyangwini na mavonelo ya vona ya vuhlayiseki na nxaniso eka mivangu ya vona yo tirha. Tiinthavhiyu leti nga na xivumbekohafu ti endliwile na 16 wa vapfuni va le mindyangwini na mune wa tiofixiyali ta maphorisa, leti ti nga tikhomandara ta mitlawa, eka Vukorhokeri bya Maphorisa bya Afrika-Dzonga (SAPS) eBrooklyn. 16 wa vapfuni va le mindyangwini va hlawuriwile hi ndlela ya muhulahula eka hofisi ya Senthara ya Malawulelo na Nxopaxopo wa Vuxokoxoko bya Vugevenga (CIMAC) eBrooklyn. Endlelo ra masampulelo lama nga na xikongomelo ri tirhisiwile. Mirungulo ya vatekaxiave va ndzavisiso yi paluxe mitivomianakanyo ya xivangelo leyi byariweke eka mitokoto ya vapfuni va le mindyangwini hi ku tirhisa swivonisi swa vona. Ndzavisiso lowu wu paluxa leswaku ku va eka xiyimo xa nxaniso swi na switandzhaku swa ntivomiehleketo swa nkarhi wo leha naswona swi vumba mavonelo lama xandziweke ya nchavo wa vugevenga. Hi ku engetela, ku na vuxaka byo tiya exikarhi ka nchavo wa vugevenga, dizayini ya mbangu lowu akiweke wa xiyimo xa le hansi, mbulavurisano wa swivumbeko swa vaakandhawu leswi nga enelangiki na nsindziso wa nawu lowu nga tirhiki kahle. Ku aka ehenhla ka swikumiwa swa ndzavisiso lowu, swibumabumelo swa ndzavisiso wa nkarhi lowu taka swi nyikiwile.

**MARITOKULU:** Vugevenga, sisiteme ya vululami bya vugevenga, vugevenga byo hlangana na bya nhundzu, Ndzawulo ya Timhaka ta Xikaya, vapfuni va le mindyangwini, vukhamba bya le tindlwini, nchavo wa vugevenga

## **LUCWANINGO LWETEBUGENGU NGEKWESABA BUGEBUGU PHAKATSI KWEBASEBENTI BASETINDLINI E-TSHWANE, EGAUTENG**

### **SICAPHUNO**

Bantfu baseNingizimu Afrika bakhatsatekile ngelizinga lelisetulu lebugebengu neludlame eveni. Kugcekezwa kwetindlu nekuntjontja kungemacala lavame kakhulu takhamuti letibuekana nawo, nanobe tibalobalo tikhombisa kwehla kancane kwelinani lemacala labikiwe. Bugebengu bemphahla nekuntjontja kusisongo lesikhulu ekuphepheni emsebenzini futsi, ngenca yaloko, kubangela kwesatjwa kwebugebengu. Lolucwaningo beluhlose kuhlola kutsi basebenti basetindlini babukana kangakanani nekuhlukumeteka emsebentini nekutsi loku kuyitsintsa njani imibono yabo ngebugebengu. Lucwaningo lolukhulu ngebugebengu, kwesatjwa kwebugebengu kanye nekuhlukunyetwa akukanaki kuphenya ngemiphumela yekuhlukunyetwa emsebentini kulesimo.

Kusetjentiswe indlela yelucwaningo lwebunyenti kulesifundvo kute kuphenywe futsi kucutjungulwe lwati lwebasebenti basetindlini kanye nemibono yabo ngekuphepha kanye nekuhlukunyetwa etindzaweni labasebenta kuto. Kwentiwe tingcoco letingakahleleki ngalokuphelele nebasebenti basetindlini labangu-16 kanye netikhulu temaphoyisa letine, letibaphatsi bemacembu, kuMbutfo Wemaphoyisa waseNingizimu Afrika (i-SAPS) eBrooklyn. Basebenti basetindlini labangu-16 bakhetfwe ngalokungakahleleki ehhovisi lase-Brooklyn Crime Information Management and Analysis Centre (CIMAC). Kusetjentiswe indlela yekusampula lehlosiwe. Kulandzisa kwebahlanganyeli belucwaningo kukhombisa imibono leyimbangela legcile kutipiliyoni tebasebenti basetindlini ngekusebentisa lwati lwabo. Lucwaningo luveta kutsi kuhlukunyetwa kunemiphumela yesikhatsi lesidze yekutsikameteka kwengcondvo futsi kudala umbono lohlaneketelwe wekwesatjwa kwebugebengu. Ngetulu kwaloko, kunekuchumana lokucinile phakatsi kwekwesaba bugebengu, kuhlelwa kwesimondzawo setakhiwo lokungekuhle, kusebentelana kwetinhlaka temphakatsi lokungenele kanye nekuphocelwa kwemtsetfo lokungasebenti kahle. Kwakha kumiphumela yalolucwaningo, kuniketwa tincomo telucwaningo lwakusasa.

**EMAGAMA LAMCOKA:** Bugebengu, luhlelo lwebulungiswa bebugebengu, bugebengu bekutsintsana nebemphahla, Litiko Letasekhaya, basebenti basetindlini, kubanjwa kwenkhunzi kwasendlini, kwesatjwa kwebugebengu

## **ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>BCEA</b>	Basic Conditions of Employment Act
<b>CCTV</b>	Closed Circuit Television
<b>CIAC</b>	Crime Information Analysis Centre
<b>CIMAC</b>	Crime Information Management and Analysis Centre
<b>CJS</b>	Criminal Justice System
<b>CPA</b>	Criminal Procedure Act
<b>CPF</b>	Community Police Forum
<b>CSC</b>	Community Service Centre
<b>CSVR</b>	Centre for a Study of Violence and Reconciliation
<b>DMW</b>	Domestic Workers
<b>DNA</b>	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
<b>FOC</b>	Fear of Crime
<b>FOV</b>	Fear of Victimisation
<b>IFP</b>	Inkatha Freedom Party
<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Organisation
<b>KZN</b>	KwaZulu-Natal
<b>MO</b>	Modus Operandi
<b>MWS</b>	Mean World Syndrome
<b>NIMBY</b>	Not in My Backyard
<b>NPA</b>	National Prosecuting Authority
<b>NVCS</b>	National Victim of Crime Surveys
<b>POL</b>	Police
<b>PSO</b>	Private Security Officials
<b>SA</b>	South Africa
<b>SADSAWU</b>	South African Domestic Service and Allied Workers Union

<b>SAPS</b>	South African Police Service
<b>SDDW</b>	Sectoral Determination for Domestic Workers
<b>SME</b>	Subject Matter Expert
<b>SOAA</b>	Sexual Offences Amendment Act
<b>Stats SA</b>	Statistics South Africa
<b>UNISA</b>	University of South Africa
<b>VM</b>	Victimisation Model



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# CHAPTER 1

## BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

### 1.1 Introduction

When South Africa emerged from apartheid in 1994, the government in the new dispensation initiated the process of officially recognising domestic workers within the rubric of labour guidelines (Tanzer, 2013:2). This move led to industrial civilisation recognition of the critical role that domestic workers play in the economy and labour market, enabling working families to engage in outside-the-home employment (Tanzer, 2013:2). In addition, in South Africa, most individuals employed as domestic workers are women, which may be due to the patriarchal ideologies that associate females with house chores (Thobejane & Khoza, 2019:27). Although the issue of estimating the number of domestic workers employed by agencies in South Africa is complex, Statics SA (2022) estimates that there are 823,000 female domestic workers in South Africa (Nlheko, 2023:90). Kubjana (2016:549-550) argues that, globally, the domestic sector remains a source of employment to a considerable number of people who are generally women, but also include men. Yet in South Africa and elsewhere, there is little attention to the antecedents of victimisation of domestic workers, including a critical knowledge gap in studies that address both men's and women's fear of crime at the centre of an investigation. The employment of domestic workers is unique because they work in "isolation outside the regular labour force" (Thobejane & Khoza, 2019:31), yet there is little research on issues that are faced by domestic workers in their workplaces. Thus, they are prone to become victims of crime in their workplace and, as result, their working conditions nurture their fear of crime especially in a country that is perceived to be as violent as South Africa. Although the level of crime in South Africa remains high, despite positive indications that it is on the decrease (Ndlazi, 2021:1), globally, South Africa is rated the 8th highest country worldwide due to its crime rate contact and property crimes (South African Police Services [SAPS], 2023:1).

Robberies and thefts in residences pose a major risk to workers' safety. Very little research has examined the psychological, emotional, and quality aspects of life because of crime in South Africa. Hence, Ndlazi (2021:3) posits that civil societies and

the international communities around Brooklyn and in the proximity of Pretoria suburbs appear to be increasingly concerned about the fear of crime in their neighbourhoods.

The statistics that SAPS provides are not categorised by gender (Ncwane, 2023:1), which makes it difficult to determine the impact of crime on different genders. The concept of “fear of crime” that started in the 1990s and gained momentum in early 2000s needs to be reconceptualised and typologised, according to Etopio and Berthelot (2022:48). Unfortunately, fear of crime has numerous socially harmful consequences (Ndlhazi, 2021:1) and Brooklyn residents are no different as they live in fear of criminal victimisation. This finding is not surprising given that Pina-Sánchez, Buil-Gil, Brunton-Smith and Cernat (2023:976) discovered that there were discrepancies between police-recorded crime levels, which make it difficult to determine the overall level of crime in an entire country. Due to its "deep flaws, susceptible to various forms of measurement error," the researcher discovered disparities in the crime statistics related to domestic workers' victimisation that were recorded in the Brooklyn SAPS precinct. Dealing with fear of crime holistically means assessing the victims' level of fear and examining the reality of “what becoming a victim means for everyday life” (Baier, Kemme & Hanslmaier, 2016:253-254).

The purpose of this study was to disprove the idea that fear of crime indicates a lack of consistency, especially in terms of how much fear of crime exists in communities (Baier et al, 2016:253). Although crime is a "socially constructed problem", victim studies have not been able to adequately situate, investigate, and document victimisation in relation to people's daily lives and activities. Domestic workers in this situation are unable to contextualize victims' experiences of crime within the socioeconomic, cultural, and political framework (Davies, Francis & Greer, 2017:3-9).

Considering the foregoing argument, this study used an interpretivist paradigm to close the gap in knowledge of the phenomenon of fear of crime on domestic workers within Brooklyn policing area due to the high rates of both contact and property crimes (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis & Bezuidenhout, 2019:27). Furthermore, the recent literature review, research problem, the data collection strategy, the research methodology, including the sampling techniques and unit of analysis, and ethical issues pertinent to the participants in the study are discussed.



## 1.2 Problem statement

With the recent release of the 2022/23 crime Statistics reports, which revealed that 56 people are murdered every day, it is clear that criminal activity in the country is on the rise. Furthermore, Statistics South Africa (StatsSA, 2023:71) report showed that house burglaries or home invasions topped the list of property crimes. According to AFP (2023), in 2021/22, 228,094 house burglaries were recorded – an average of 625 houses per day. South Africa's 2020/21 Victims of Crime Survey revealed that 28.3% of house burglary victims did not report the crime to the police because they thought the police would not act (StatsSA, 2023:71). Despite the SAPS reforms and other community structures, such as the Community Policing Forums (CPFs) and other relevant stakeholders, to reduce the level of victimisation or fear of crime, little is known regarding the plight of domestic workers as victims in the Brooklyn policing area. Numerous strategy and policy documents since 1994 have a common thread of toughening up criminal justice interventions and clawing back offenders' rights, justified by claims that this will "rebalance the system" in favour of victims. This often involves adjusting criminal justice procedures to ensure an increased number of convictions.

In view of the above, there is a critical knowledge gap of studies that address the fear of crime that domestic workers experience daily. Also, the researcher established that, in South Africa and Brooklyn, there is little empirical research on domestic workers and their fear of crime that is exacerbated by victimisation during house robberies and burglaries (SAPS, 2021:103). The purpose of this research was to be more considerate of workplace victimisation to position domestic workers in a social and geographical context and focus on their perceptions of fear of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn, Tshwane Central Precinct.

According to StatsSA (2023:1), housebreaking or burglary has constantly been the most common crime experienced by households in Brooklyn, Tshwane Central. With a projected 1.2 million occurrences of housebreaking in 2021/22 affecting 891 000 households, this represents a total of 5.3% of all families.

Although uncertainties persist surrounding the definition of fear, including the best way to measure fear of crime, Etopio and Berthelot (2022:62) found that fear of crime has

an extreme impact on an individual's location/area including at governmental level. Also, Ncwane (2023:23) concurs with the argument above and explains that physical spaces are the link between fear of crime and victimisation, because fear of crime in urban public places is a "social issue". Ranaweera's (2024:314), study found that environmental factors have a significant role in moulding and shaping society's perceptions about crime and their fear of crime and victimisation. Additionally, urban design and planning play a critical role, especially in public areas. Natural surveillance is perceived to either "exacerbate or alleviate the fear of crime in an area.

The 2021/22 crime statistics reports reveal that Brooklyn SAPS precinct is classified as number 14 countrywide in the top 30 police stations in the country with property crimes (SAPS, 2023:1). Ndlazi (2021:3) believes that fear of crime is a result of household crimes such as house robberies and housebreakings. Van Graan (2021:992) found that over the years South Africa has seen an increase in non-violent property crime incidents especially in urban residential areas. As a result of fear of crime, citizens in South Africa live in homes with high walls, panic buttons, and private security because they are afraid of crime (Bezuidenhout, 2020:137).

In view of the above, there is a critical knowledge gap on studies that address the fear of crime that domestic workers experience daily. Also, the researcher established that, in South Africa and in Brooklyn, there is little empirical research on domestic workers and their fear of crime that is exacerbated by victimisation during house robberies and burglaries (SAPS, 2021:103). The purpose of this research was to be more considerate of workplace victimisation since there is a need for such an investigation to position domestic workers in a social and geographical context and focus on their perceptions of fear of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn, Tshwane Central Precinct.

### **1.3 Research aim and objectives**

Du Plooy-Cilliers et al (2019:72) assert that the main emphasis of research aims and objectives is on the fundamental issues and purpose of a study. Therefore, this study aimed to explore to what extent domestic workers experience victimisation in the workplace and how this affects their perceptions of crime.

To achieve the aim of the research specified above, the following objectives were formulated to minimise domestic workers' perceptions of fear of crime:

1. To assess how domestic workers' perceptions of contact and property crimes influence their feelings of safety at their workplace;
2. To examine how domestic workers think contact and property crimes affect their employment;
3. To propose measures that domestic workers, the SAPS and the judiciary can implement to minimise the fear of contact and property crimes in their working environments; and
4. To propose measures that will monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn Police Officials.

To gain more insight into the problem identified above, the researcher formulated the following questions to answer the rationale problem (Fouche, Strydom & Roestenburg, 2021:63):

### **1.3.1 Research questions**

Research questions are alleged uncertainties that researchers intend to achieve in a study to develop new knowledge of a phenomenon under examination (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:74). In this study, the researcher concluded the following research questions:

- How do domestic workers' perceptions of contact and property crimes influence their feelings of safety at their workplace?
- In what ways do domestic workers think contact and property crimes affect their employment?
- What measures do domestic workers think the SAPS and Judiciary can implement to minimise fear of contact and property crimes in their working environment?
- What measures can be implemented to promote the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn Police Officials?

## **1.4 Key theoretical concepts**

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers et al (2019:55), key theoretical concepts are a specific collection of thoughts and theories that relate to the phenomenon that researchers elect to investigate. Therefore, the terms and ideas that are central to this research are defined.

### **1.4.1 Contact crime**

The SAPS (2023:8) defines contact crimes as crimes where victims are targets of violence at their residences. Similarly, Malatjie (2023:13) defines contact crimes as those crimes where the victims are targets of violence or where they are targeted for their property, for instance, house robberies, housebreaking and theft, and opportunistic rape. In the context of this study, domestic workers are targets of violence or they are targeted for valuables that are at their workplaces.

### **1.4.2 Domestic worker**

The South African Department of Employment and Labour (2001:34) defines a domestic worker as an employee who performs domestic work in the home of his or her employer that includes:

- a) A gardener,
- b) A person employed by a household as a driver of a motor vehicle; or
- c) A person who takes care of children, the aged, and the frail but does not include a farmworker.

Within this context, a domestic worker can be described as any person who is employed either as a gardener, or a household keeper.

### **1.4.3 Fear of crime**

Fear of crime is an emotional response which is activated by the crime itself or an object and symbol that is related to crime (Ratlou, 2021:13).

### **1.4.4 Housebreaking with intent to commit a crime**

Housebreaking with intent to commit a crime consists of unlawfully and intentionally

breaking into and entering a building or structure to commit a crime in it (Snyman, 2020:479). SAPS (2024:1) defines housebreaking in a residence as a crime committed by a person who unlawfully and intentionally breaks into a building or similar structure that is used for human habitation and enters or penetrates it with part of his or her body or with an instrument with which he or she intends to control something on the premises. In the context of this study, the crime of housebreaking is committed when the occupant (who, in this study, is a domestic worker) is absent from the same area where the entry is forced open, and movable items are stolen from the room which is considered a dwelling place. Furthermore, the intruder must have broken into the building intentionally and entered the building to commit a crime classified as a contact or property crime (Lekgau, 2022:23).

#### **1.4.5 House robbery**

According to Lekgau (2022:23), house robbery is the unofficial term formulated by the SAPS to describe a robbery where the perpetrators will overpower, detain, and rob the residents (occupants) of residential premises inside their residences. Furthermore, house robbery occurs when a perpetrator gains entry to a residence either by breaking into the victim's home or by overpowering the victim inside/outside the house and stealing items from the residence or robbing the victim (SAPS, 2022:1). In the context of this study, the crime of "house robbery" is committed where a domestic worker is overpowered by perpetrators, detained elsewhere in the house, and robbed of movable items.

Similarly, Lekgau and Barkhuizen (2022:612) concur with Zinn (2019:199) that house robbery is the "unlawful entering into a household to commit robbery while the occupants of the house are present". These authors believe that house robberies are planned because offenders take time to learn and profile the routine or movements of the victim(s) and they unlawfully enter a house while there are occupants inside the house (Lekgau & Barkhuizen, 2022:612). Also, house robbery can occur with aggravating circumstances or force especially where there is the use of weapons such as firearms.

#### **1.4.6 Property crime**

Property crime is a category of crime that includes, among other crimes, burglary, theft, motor vehicle theft etc. SAPS (2023:1). Hemmens, Brody and Spohn (2019:11) define property crimes as the use of physical force against a person to take their property; examples include robbery and carjacking. The definition of property crime, in the context of the study, is that property crime is committed when the offender (intruder) seeks to damage or derive an unlawful benefit or interest from another's property by using force or threat of force.

#### **1.4.7 Unlawful act/crime**

Hemmens et al. (2019:11) define crime as an act or offence which violates the law of the state and is strongly disapproved by the society. Furthermore, Hemmens et al. (2019:12) add that crime is an unlawful act which is an offence against the public and renders the person guilty of the act or liable to legal punishment. In this context, unlawful act/crime involves housebreakings, house robberies and thefts and also rape as an opportunistic crime in the process.

#### **1.4.8 Victim**

The South African Police Service (2021:1) describes a victim of crime as an individual who endured harm, including physical or mental injury, emotional suffering, economic loss or substantial impairment of his or her fundamental rights through acts or omissions that are in violation of the criminal law. "Victim" also includes the immediate family, dependents of the direct victim regardless of whether the perpetrator is identified, apprehended, prosecuted or convicted (SAPS, 2021). Furthermore, Lekgau (2022:10) argues that victims of crimes, especially those of contact crimes, such as house robberies, are inclusive of race, gender, sex, ethnic or social origin, colour, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

#### **1.5 Value of the study**

This study will contribute to the scant body of knowledge already available on the subject. The criminal justice system (CJS) can use the results of this study by implementing victim's rights, victim satisfaction in the police, and a victim-centred

justice system. This will ensure that funding and administrative mechanisms are in place to ensure that all victims, including domestic workers, receive the services and facilities that are automatically and consistently provided (Hall, 2010:192).

It is envisaged that this study's findings will be presented at both professional and academic conferences as a means of closing the gap, seeking feedback and input, and additional perspectives that will reduce fear of crime among communities of domestic workers. Therefore, this study will also support the police, policy makers and scholars in various disciplines to sensitise themselves of the nature and current trends that have the likelihood of increasing an individual's involvement in participating or being a victim of contact and property crimes. Furthermore, the lived experiences of domestic workers in this study will highlight challenges faced by these individuals. In addition, this study aimed to address the plight and risk faced by domestic workers at their workplaces.

Although the findings of this study cannot be generalised because of its population size, the rich information found will add to the body of knowledge and fill existing gaps in this area of study. Moreover, the study aimed to expand on the understanding of the phenomena under study by examining the phenomenon of domestic workers' fear of crime in the South African context. Lastly, the findings of the study will empower CPF, domestic workers, employers of domestic workers and inform the labour department on formulating labour policies or best practices that address victimisation in the workplace and fear of crime. Moreover, official statistics of contact and property crimes have remained a struggle for law enforcement officials to differentiate between victims of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn. To predict recidivism of this type of crime(s) requires the creation of criminal profiles that rely on information collected from the crime scene (Williamson, 2020:14). Therefore, the findings of this study will guide SAPS to some extent on improving service delivery in the area.

In the next discussion, the researcher provides details on the importance of literature in a research project.

## **1.6 Literature review**

Snyder (2019:333) believes that a literature review uncovers areas that might have

been previously overlooked. As a result, a literature review is a crucial element in creating “theoretical frameworks and building conceptual models”. Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2020:33) explain that the point of departure for a review of literature is to look for publications, such as books and articles by experts in the field relating to the topic under investigation. This will contribute towards a better understanding of the selected research problem and will also guide the researcher in determining what data should be collected (Brynard et al, 2020:33). Snyder (2019:333) emphasises the importance of existing knowledge and views it as the “building block” of all scientific research projects irrespective of their field or discipline.

For this study, the study of crime can be approached from different angles. These include the objectivist perspective and social constructivist perspective. Madriz (2023:8) asserts that the objectivist perspective acknowledges that the existence of crime, as a social problem, is an inevitable reality. Further, the objectivist perspective maintains that, although the official crime statistics are important, sociologists and criminologists must investigate the depth of the causes and contributory factors to criminality including finding practical solutions to reduce criminal activities. The objectivist approach notes that every person agrees that crime is evil, and that people have the ability to appreciate and distinguish actions or behaviours that are not in line with societal values and norms. The only criticism levelled against the objectivist view is that it ignores or neglects the fact that not all people hold the same view where behaviour is concerned even where there is evidence or a display of unconventional behaviour (Madriz, 2023:9). On the other hand, the social constructionist believes that crime is a complex occurrence.

Researchers using the constructive perspective when investigating crime as a social problem must ask pertinent questions such as: why certain behaviours are criminalised and not others?; why some acts committed by groups of people are defined as more harmful to society than others?; and why are certain categories of persons more likely to be seen as victims?” (Madriz, 2023:10). This perspective recognises the symbolic values of crime in general and of specific crimes taking into consideration of factors such as social class, ethnicity and gender identity. Social constructionism considers that the political characteristics of those in power classify behaviour that is acceptable and unacceptable in society.



Even though social constructionists reflect on the importance of statistics when studying crime, they also view statistics as socially constructed since most crimes are not officially recorded (dark figures). The fact that official statistics are mostly influenced by those in power because of their own personal interests and political agendas, a true state of crime will remain questionable (Madriz, 2023:10). Researchers rely significantly on police data despite its dubious measurement qualities because it is more accessible and versatile than other crime data sources, allowing for spatiotemporal resolutions that victimisation and self-report surveys are unable to provide (Pina-Sánchez et al. 2023:976).

Social constructionism does not reject the existence of crime, including how it affects certain groups, such as women and people from disadvantaged financial backgrounds and members of the minority groups. Also, it recognises the fact that these groups are vulnerable to being victims in settings that are supposed to be safe, such as in their homes, workplaces, and communities. Nonetheless, the issue of crime must be recognised as socially constructed (Madriz, 2023:10). Finally, the government must address crime as well as other social problems that require interventions (Burger, 2007:49).

There is a substantial disconnect between what is known about the causes of serious crime and what is being done about those causes. Therefore, based on the above, the government's intervention in addressing serious crimes among communities is tenuous (Burger, 2007:49). Balčaitė (2021:23) conducted a study that revealed that crime and fear of crime are results of structural changes that continue to take place in cities because of urbanisation. Furthermore, according to Turanovic and Pratt (2019:11), in criminological research, there is a clear connection between past and future victimisation and this link requires knowledge in identifying the response to two critical questions: (a) whether victimisation causes victims to utilise precautionary measures on a frequent basis; and (b) whether those safety measures are effective in crime prevention.

South Africa continues to battle with the scourge of crime and violent crimes irrespective of efforts of government and various civil institutions. As a result, globally, South Africa continues to be among the worst affected countries by crime (Dlamini,

2023:39). Although the issue of crime is a serious problem in the country, community safety and crime reduction are universal problems and have been prioritised over the years even while orderly residential areas reduce the level of fear among residents (Naicker, 2021:59-63). Dealing with and comprehending fear of crime is complicated because there has always been some degree of "uncertainty about its meaning" and because experts have not yet reached a consensus on a single definition (Etopio & Berthelot, 2022:47).

The notion of safety is the ontological basis for general and explicit social sustainability. This implies that, under the sustainability model, an environment that is perceived to be safe plays a dominant role in the sustainable level of development and future generations. Environments deprived of the key components of a safe environment will not be able to sustain human life, because cities, urban spaces including streets, will not be habitable spaces. As a result, people residing in such spaces will continually migrate from those unsafe environments (Lim, Yong, Malek, Jali, Awang & Tahir, 2020:9). In addition, Vesselinov, Cazessus and Falk (2007:1) maintain that gated communities intensify the exclusion and inequalities of urban spaces by increasing the residential segregation of the rich and the poor, expedite socio-spatial divides, fragment the urban form, and restrict the freedom of movement.

Similarly, Lemanski (2006) contends that these developments are born out of "not-in-my-backyard" (NIMBYism) mentalities that employ walls as a defence mechanism and provide a form of escapism to relieve fear of the outside world. However, Jabareen, Eizenberg and Hirsch (2019) maintain that fear of crime in South Africa is discourses by "die swaartgevaar" (the black danger), used to justify segregation and apartheid in the post-apartheid era. Moreover, "worry" is considered a helpful, adaptive and problem-solving activity that will help people to anticipate and prepare for threat by prompting adaptive vigilance and routine precautions (Jackson & Gray, 2010). Jackson and Gray (2010) maintain that one quarter of individuals worldwide are worried about crime and take precautionary measures to feel safe.

Therefore, the selection of above-mentioned studies conducted globally informed the researcher about the different aspects related to the fear of crime. This study aimed to examine the ways in which domestic workers perceive contact and property crimes

and how victimisation has affected their everyday activities. Also, whether being victimised at the workplace affected their relationships with their employers. The researcher has observed in his line of duty that some employers react negatively towards their domestic workers if they suspect that their employees were involved in the planning of the crimes committed against them, which translates to secondary victimisation. Against this background, the study focused on the experiences of victims in a South African context, particularly in the urban areas of Brooklyn. The following theories were explored and applied in this research to understand the phenomenon under study.

### **1.7 Theoretical framework**

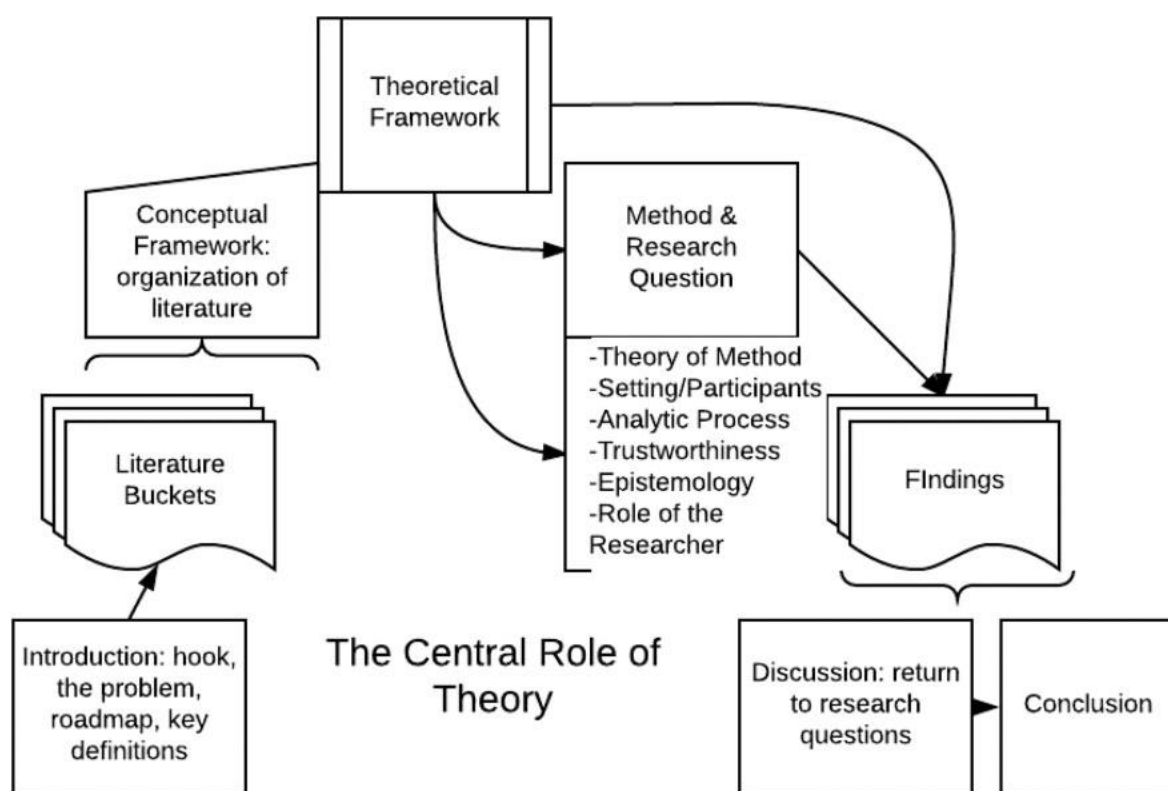
According to Collins and Stockton (2018:2), employing the three components below have proven to be beneficial and effective tools. As a result, a theoretical framework is viewed as positioned at the crossroad of:

1. existing foundation of existing knowledge and challenging previous knowledge on a phenomena under study;
2. the researcher's study of knowledge, based on epistemic factors, such as truth, belief, and justification; and
3. a critical lens and a systematic and analytic method.

In a qualitative study, a researcher's choice of theories is influenced by and based on theories that support their methodological approach (e.g., ethnography, narrative) or the epistemological paradigms used to inform a study (e.g., postpositivist, constructivist, critical). Collins and Stockton (2018:4) have demonstrated the importance of a researcher's understanding and having an in-depth knowledge of theories that influence methodological and epistemological decisions for a study. Collins and Stockton (2018:6) state that theories can influence a researchers' methodological approach, their limitations and the analytic approach that must be followed. The main function of theories in scientific research is to provide a theoretical conceptual framework for research to make sense of complex social exchanges between groups and phenomena. In addition, there several methods that a researcher can adopt when constructing and designing a qualitative study. In a social scientific

study, researchers discuss the philosophies and theories that are applicable to the scientific study under investigation (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:55).

In essence, theories provide context and an explanation of a worldview in a meaningful way (Zahn, Brownstein & Jackson, 2004:1). A theoretical framework is a specific collection of thoughts, and theories that relate to the phenomenon that the researcher has chosen to investigate (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:55). The main aim of explaining the theoretical framework in the illustration below, is to demonstrate the overall and direct link between theoretical framework and various pieces of the research project model.



**Figure 1.1: The qualitative process**

Adapted from: Collins and Stockton (2018:8)

Apart from the fact that theories create a conceptual balance, they also impact various stages of a scientific study (Collins & Stockton, 2018:8). A scientific study commences with a researcher’s curiosity about a problem, which will direct the literature review that will corroborate the research problem and guide a researcher into existing knowledge on the subject under study.

Oh, Ren and He (2019:8) found that, irrespective of the well-researched “causal pathway from perceived disorder to FOC” as expressed by the Broken Windows Theory, little research has been conducted to establish intervention mechanisms, exclusive of this causal pathway, that are perceived to either strengthen or invert the unfavourable effects of apparent social disorder on residents' FOC in their homes. Because criminology is a multidisciplinary field, different theories are used to describe and explore the fear of crime when explaining the complexities of workplace victimisation. It has been established over the years that there is no single explanation for this phenomenon, however, this study attempted to create an awareness of the exposure to crime and vulnerability that domestic workers experience while on duty. Also, how the fear of crime affects their lives and those of other citizens. Chapter 2 provides a detailed discussion on theories relevant to this study. In the next discussion, the methods of how data were collected reflects the planning, structuring and the execution of the research (Brynard et al, 2020:38) (see Chapter 6 for a comprehensive discussion).

## **1.8 Summary**

This study employed a qualitative approach to investigate the impact of the fear of crime on the daily activities of domestic workers in Brooklyn suburbs in the Tshwane central corridor. The researcher chose a qualitative approach to investigate a relatively small group of domestic workers with the aim of collecting information about the personal experiences of the research participants. Although Brooklyn is a suburb in the municipal area of Tshwane, this study only investigated six suburbs that are mostly affected and displayed high rates of contact and property crimes.

The next chapter outlines and discusses criminological theories applicable to the study. In addressing the objectives of the study, the researcher employed the theories under discussion to provide practical, critical and analytical explanations of the phenomenon under investigation.

## **CHAPTER 2**

# **THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Historically, the search for underlying, fundamental reasons of all aberrant behaviour has dominated criminological theory (Amram, Weisburd & Shay, 2014:1). For decades, citizens' fear of victimisation has been at the centre of criminological research and debate, as well as a major focus of global crime policies (Brunton-Smith & Sturgis, 2011:311). Academics and policymakers stress that the fear of crime cannot be studied in "isolation" and must be analysed relative to uncertainties or insecurities amongst individuals (Vahed, 2013:23). This complex issue necessitates an explanation with multidisciplinary theories. Additionally, the author posits that theories make arguments, construct statements about relationships between observable phenomena and can be falsified (Vahed, 2013:23). Theories are logical constructs that attempt to explain natural events. They are not usually directly observable, but empirical evidence can support or disprove them (Hopkins Burke, 2019:13). The term of "theory" is loosely employed in ordinary language, hence, personal experiences, observations, traditional beliefs, a set of opinions, or a collection of abstract thinking form an integral part of what the term "theory" entails (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:176). In this study, theories were applied to explore, describe and explain the phenomenon of fear of crime amongst domestic workers at Brooklyn police precinct of Tshwane in South Africa. Personal experiences, observations, traditional beliefs, a set of opinions, or a collection of abstract thinking are all examples (Bartol & Bartol, 2017:2). Bezuidenhout (2020:138) claim that many theories assumptions, and hypotheses exist in criminology regarding contact and property crimes. Most crime causation theories assert that crime is an integrated phenomenon with "a common set of general causes" (Amram et al, 2024:15). The purpose of this chapter is to propose explanations for the phenomenon of fear of crime because the incidents of reported contact and property crimes are high in the Brooklyn suburb area. It is thus critical to explore the perceptions of fear of crime. Furthermore, the explicit and rich information that was gathered from the participants and expertise of SAPS officials will make sense of the theoretical explanations applied in the study. According to Van der Westhuizen and Bezuidenhout

(2020:138) members of the community, including vulnerable groups, tend to offer simple, and objective explanations and solutions to challenges that are caused by crimes in their neighbourhoods. These authors suggest that criminological theories provide perspectives on contemporary issues. Bartol and Bartol (2017:4) emphasise that theories of crime involve underlying assumptions about human nature.

This study converged the theories of classicism related to criminological theories, which is a foundation of the contemporary CJS approach, being rational choice, routine activity and situational crime prevention that calls for a comprehensive analysis of criminological theories and rigorous exploration. This will establish the underlying roots of the fear of crime and victimisation in the context of this study. Therefore, the theoretical approaches that are covered within contemporary classicism are elaborated to address the objectives and research questions described under section 1.3.

In this study, various theories are combined to explain a particular phenomenon of crime. In this context, the researcher discusses theories that describe and explain the reasons that research participants, who were victims of contact and property crimes at Brooklyn precinct, fear crime. This chapter deals specifically with theoretical perspectives of contact and property crimes explaining the fear of crime emanating from criminal behaviour. The classical modern application of theories is discussed in detail below.

## **2.2 Contemporary classicism**

Being a fundamental theory in the study of criminology, and in the field of criminal behaviour, contemporary (modern) classicism is an approach used to study criminal behaviour (Newburn, 2017:124). However, contemporary classicism emphasises the importance of free will that deems that criminal actions are consciously carried out by perpetrators (Newburn, 2017:124). In this study, the researcher converges the theories of classicism related to criminological theories, which is a foundation of a contemporary CJS approach, being rational choice, routine activity and situational crime prevention (Bezuidenhout, 2020:142-143). Contemporary classicism in the eighteenth century introduced classicism, Newburn (2017:299) contends that its

application reveals a serious flaw in the idea of identical punishment for identical crimes and in the concepts of free will and rationality. While theorists of criminology, namely, Newburn (2017) and Bezuidenhout (2020) argue that criminological theory is embedded in the causes of criminal behaviour, such theory will consider the individual characteristics and the society where the individual resides. Furthermore, whether theory proposes an individual personality or social condition, theorists agree that no single theory explains all types of crimes (Newburn, 2017:300).

### **2.2.1 Background of Rational Choice Theory**

Cornish and Clarke (2014:12) describe Rational Choice Theory by examining and investigating the reasoning process that is followed by the individual's involvement in criminal acts. According to the theory, individual perpetrators will: (a) weigh the costs or the consequences of crime against the benefits of crime before engaging in the criminal behaviour; and (b) the individual will choose criminal behaviour when the rewards are more important than the costs or consequences (Hopkins Burke, 2019:69). Rational choice (or situational) theory emphasises the criminal involvement as well as the criminal event (Hopkins Burke, 2019:55). According to this theory, decisions involve whether to engage in crime as opposed to satisfying needs and wants with non-criminal alternatives (Hopkins Burke, 2019:55). Hopkins Burke (2019:55) argues further that the criminal event involves decision making about the how, where and when of a particular crime.

According to Bezuidenhout (2020:142-143), perpetrators of crimes under investigation are likely to be self-interested and rational and able to act according to personal choice. Newburn (2017:299) argues that criminological theory is embedded in the causes of criminal behaviour and considers the individual characteristics as well as the society in which the individual resides. Furthermore, theorists agree that no single theory explains all types of crime (Newburn, 2017:300).

Vito and Maahs, (2017:55) concur with Cornish and Clarke (2014:13) that, rational choice theorists allow for both formal (e.g. arrest, incarceration) and informal sanctions. In this case, rational choice theory is much broader than deterrence theory in that offenders will consider multiple costs and rewards before making decisions



about committing crimes (Hopkins Burke, 2019:68). Hence, rational choice theorists portray criminals as purely rational. Furthermore, Vito and Maahs (2017:55) posit that the rationality and the decision process is constrained and bounded by factors such as time, cognitive ability and moral values. The rationality of the decision process is discussed in detail below.

### **2.2.1.1 Rational Choice Theory**

The primary conclusion to draw from the rational choice theory is that perpetrators will commit crimes based on reason and knowledge (Vito & Maahs, 2017:53-54). Cornish and Clarke (2014:13) argue that the rational choice theory's fundamental claim that crime mostly results from rational decisions based on cost analyses is reliant on classical and economic theories of crime. Accordingly, people will decide to commit crimes if they can maximise the rewards and minimise the trouble, expense, or effort involved (Vito & Maahs 2017:54). The rational choice perspective's main assumption is that offenders will make options and choices in order to gain something from their deviant behaviour (Newburn, 2017:298). Thus, the researcher agrees with Newburn (2017:298-299) that decision-making demonstrates a certain level of rationality.

According to Vito and Maahs (2017:55), the choice process of rationality is explained into two stages, namely, the initial involvement model and the criminal event model.

#### **a) The initial involvement model**

The lifestyle approach theory emerged from this model (Hopkins Burke, 2019:71). According to the lifestyle approach, attempts are made to explain the reasons why certain groups of individuals are victimised (in this instance, domestic workers) (Vito & Maahs, 2017:58). In this context, the researcher investigated why domestic workers in the Brooklyn area are victimised more than other individuals. According to the author, the gist of the lifestyle theory is that the members of this group, by virtue of their lifestyle, place themselves at greater risk of victimisation (Vito & Maahs, 2017:58). However, according to the proximity hypothesis, many individual domestic workers are victimised because of where they work (Vito & Maahs, 2017:59).

## **b) The criminal event models**

The initial decision to commit crime is followed by the type of crime the perpetrator elects to commit. This choice is dependent on the offender's current conditions (Cornish & Clarke 2014:421). The motivation may be, for instance, the need for money, as is the case with contact and property crimes in this study. Subsequently, the offender takes an informed decision to commit crime, the target is identified through careful consideration and by weighing possible benefits and risks (Newburn, 2017:301).

Lab (2004:97) suggests that deviancy or involvement in a criminal activity is a consequence of a perpetrator's rational response to their circumstances. In this way, an offender is described as a rational decision maker who takes an informed decision to participate in criminal activities based on a calculated assessment that is based on the need, effort, risk and gains or rewards that emanate from the commission of that specific crime (Lab, 2004:97). This approach demonstrates that an offender does not always develop a plan for all crimes committed, however, the rational choice is made when a situation presents itself which causes an opportunity to commit crime. However, this does not automatically imply that a perpetrator commits crime each time an opportunity presents itself, but rather rational choices are made based on factors such as risk involved, effort and reward (Lab, 2014:217). As a result, elements such as time, place, target and surveillance are principal considerations that offenders take into account before committing crimes (Lab, 2004:97).

This study is supported by rational choice theory, including routine activities perspective and crime pattern theory because it does not explain why some people are more likely to commit crime but aims to clarify why crime takes place (Cornish & Clarke, 2014:xi). Moreover, this theory assisted the researcher to identify the motives and decisions behind the house robberies and finding explanations why some individuals are targeted for these crimes.

### **2.3 Crime pattern approach**

There are two similarities between the routine activities' hypothesis and the crime pattern theory. This theory emphasises how regular, non-criminal behavioural patterns

give rise to criminal possibilities and acts. Second, when a motivated criminal and potential victim interact at the same moment and location, crime occurs (Newburn, 2017:311). According to Lab (2014:219), this implies that people establish patterns in the social and physical contexts in which they live because of their regular actions. These patterns are therefore essential for identifying the victims as well as the possible offender (Lab, 2014:219). Analysing an offender's prior criminal history also sheds light on the offence and suggests potential deterrents (Lab, 2014:219). Felson and Clarke (1998:6) suggests that crime pattern "considers how people and things involved in crime move about in space and time". While Smith and Clarke (2012:298) propose that people encounter a variety of realisations during their regular activities, which influence their decision-making. As they go about their daily lives, people construct mental images and perceptual maps of their surroundings based on the idea of spatial concepts:

- i. Recognition: This is the capacity to recognise the environments and various structures inside the region;
- ii. Prediction: This is a byproduct of recognition and includes drawing a link between observable things in their environment and potential behavioural manifestations;
- iii. Evaluation: The information gathered in the first two stages of mental image creation determines which option is considered acceptable during this stage; and
- iv. Action: The person executes the decision they have made in the last phase.

Accordingly, members of the community including domestic workers residing in the Brooklyn suburbs will be aware of the robbery hotspot through cognitive mapping, which will sensitise them on how to reduce their chances of being victimised. The main point of cognitive mapping is that the process reduces fear and doubt from the vulnerable and allows them to make rational and informed decisions about their circumstances. Furthermore, the researcher believes that the rational decisions may be shared with the police, the CPF and other stakeholders. According to Lab (2004:97), "an individual becomes less fearful and more confident in making decisions the more he or she knows the area". This confidence is based on gaining knowledge about a particular area or neighbourhood through a thorough assessment of an area

(Lab, 2004:98).

The crime pattern theory investigates reasons why offenders' frequent certain places. Based on the crime pattern theory, places may be classified into four categories, namely: (a) crime generator (victims and offenders may visit this place for conventional or non-criminal activities but offenders may commit crime if an opportunity arises, i.e., crime attractors (such as DSTV dishes); and (b) crime neutral places (criminal activities in these places are rare and little police activity is needed) (Smith & Clarke 2012:298). Finally, Lab (2004:298-299) explains that certain areas may "serve as a hunting ground for offenders".

Kemp (2020:23) asserts that the crime pattern approach, when blended with the routine activity theory, offers a context for the facility risk model (routine activity is discussed in section 2.5). The use of both the routine activity theory and crime pattern approach theory will identify "hot spots" for contact and property crimes. Moreover, using this theory, the researcher will determine why Brooklyn is considered as a hot spot for contact and property crimes for economic gain. Lemanski (2006) and Balčaitė et al (2014) confirm that contact and property crimes possess elements of opportunistic crimes. In the context of this study, this includes the rape of female domestic workers.

Based on the preceding reason, the theories that are discussed in this chapter are classified as opportunity theories.

#### **2.4 Background of crime as opportunity**

Building on rational choice routine activity, ideas of defensible space and crime prevention by design, an opportunity-based theory of crime prevention has developed on both sides of the Atlantic in the past 25 years (Newburn, 2017:310). In the late 1990s, Felson and Clarke (1998) advocated a more radical form of opportunity theory (Newburn, 2017:310). This theory of crime settings rests on a principle "that ease or tempting opportunities entice people into criminal action" (Newburn, 2017:311). According to the theory, crime, as opportunity, takes place or occurs when there are three components, namely, targets (e.g., cars, shops, and ATM machines), victims (e.g., women alone, strangers), and crime facilitators (tools such as guns and cars).

According to Felson and Clarke (1998:102 cited in Newburn, 2017:311), the nature and supply of targets is a function of the physical environment, the lifestyle and the routine activities of the population. In their analysis, theorists of crime as opportunity found that easy and tempting opportunities entice individual perpetrators into criminal action (Felson & Clarke, 1998:2 cited in Newburn, 2017:311). The theory is discussed in detail below.

#### **2.4.1 Crime as opportunity**

According to Felson and Clarke (1998:3), criminal behaviour is rooted in opportunity. Opportunity is not the only factor that leads to crime, but it is a prerequisite for crime to occur (Newburn, 2017:310). "Individual behaviour is a product of an interaction between the person and the setting," Felson and Clarke (1998:1). According to Tilley (2009:107), there are two types of criminal opportunities: individuals and objects. Opportunities for individuals vary depending on their age, sex, and lifestyle. According to Tilley (2009:109), potential victims give criminals the chance to commit crimes. Moreover, people's regular everyday activities often present potential for criminal activity. In terms of objects, elements like "abundance of goods," "environmental opportunities," and "physical security" create conditions that facilitate criminal activity (Tilley, 2009:107). Opportunities lead to crimes, thus even job searchers who are not naturally inclined to commit crimes could feel pressured to do so if the right chance comes along (Tilley, 2009:114–115). Consequently, chance offers temptations that could persuade people who are not criminals to commit crimes (Tilley, 2009:114–115). The contrary may also be thought to be true if opportunities lead to criminality (Tilley, 2009:114–115).

Cohen and Clarke (1998:9) present ten guidelines about the likelihood of criminal activity:

- All crimes stem from opportunities.
- All crimes are highly specific.
- All crimes are focused on time and space.
- All crimes are depended on daily activities.
- All crimes create prospects for other crimes.

- All commodities are alluring to criminals.
- All crimes are caused by social and technological changes.
- All crimes can be prevented.
- All crimes can be reduced.
- Most crimes do not disappear when opportunities are reduced.
- All crimes can be caused by concentrated opportunity reduction.

In the section that follows, opportunity theoretical techniques are covered in more detail to explain why some individual domestic workers are more likely than others to become victims of house robberies.

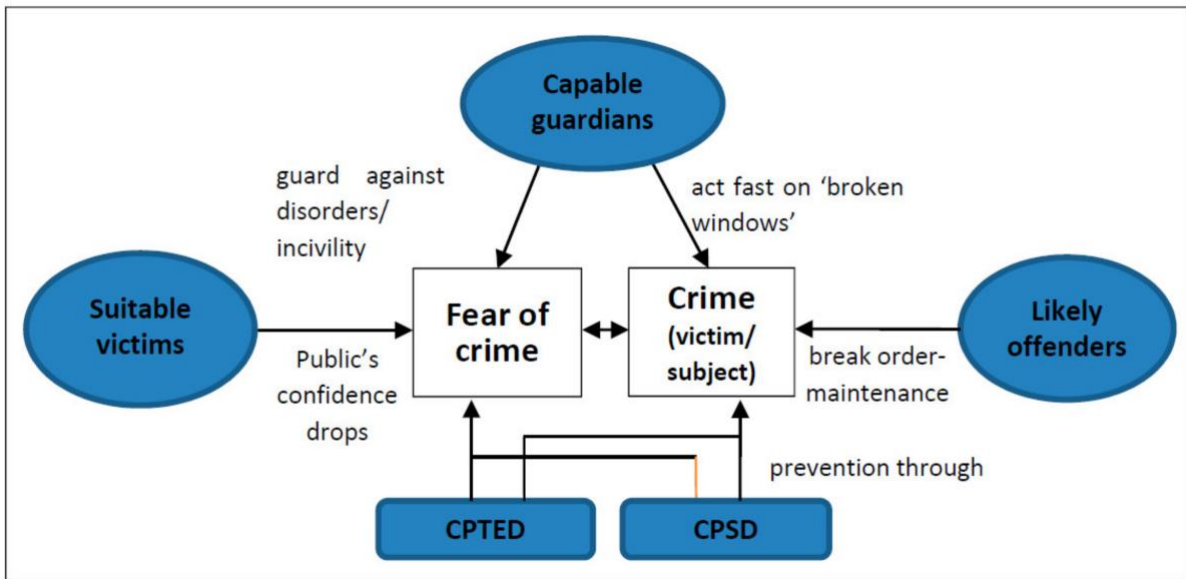
## **2.5 Background of Routine Activity Theory**

Routine activity theory was originally developed by Lawrence Cohen and Marcus Felson to explain “direct contact predatory crimes where one offender comes into direct physical contact with at least one victim” (Vito & Maahs, 2017:57). According to the theory, for any crime to occur, three elements must converge, namely: (1) a motivated offender; (2) a suitable target; and (3) the absence of a capable guardian (Vito & Maahs, 2017:57). Furthermore, Cohen and Felson (1979) linked criminal events with the routine activities of offenders and ordinary citizens. Hence, Newburn’s (2017:305) argument is that social and cultural changes that did not previously exist produce opportunities for crime amongst communities. Although Cohen and Felson (1979) identified three elements necessary for the crime, most of the discussion and empirical tests involved target suitability and guardianship (Newburn, 2017:305). Similarly, while the police may be considered guardianship, important guardians in some societies are people whose very presence acts as a reminder that someone is keeping an eye on things, such as the domestic workers (Vito & Maahs, 2017:57). Cohen and Felson (1979) analysed this theory within the context of social and cultural changes that had produced opportunities for crime that did not previously exist (Newburn, 2017:305). In their analysis, the theorists found that social and cultural changes paved the way for crime (Newburn, 2017:305). The theory is discussed in detail below:

### **2.5.1 Routine Activity Theory**

The main emphasis of this theory, as developed by Cohen and Felson (1979), does not offer solutions to what encourages some individuals to get involved in deviant behaviour, but to provide an explanation on how the spatial-temporal organising of social events contributes to the commission of crime (Newburn, 2017:305). The routine activities approach perceives people's everyday behaviour as the reason why criminal acts are perpetrated (Newburn, 2017:305; Vito & Maahs, 2017:57). The fundamental claim of this theory is that crime is an outcome of opportunities presented during social activities which occur daily on environmental settings (Newburn 2017:305; Vito & Maahs 2017:57). These activities, as defined by Cohen and Felson (1979:593), are known as "routine activities" which are "any recurrent and prevalent activities which provide for basic population and individual needs, whatever their biological or cultural origins". Vahed (2013:51) posits that location plays an important role in the contextualisation of research participants' lived experiences and views while noting their differences in their status, ethnic group and "urban decay", including demographics, within an area. As mentioned previously, according to this theory, for a crime to take place, three elements must at a given space and time converge, namely, a motivated offender, a suitable target, and the absence of a suitable guardian (Tilley, 2009:120; Newburn, 2017:305). Fear and crime cannot be studied in isolation because they are interconnected because the offenders can establish and control fear of crime while victims have a potential to indirectly influence criminal activities (Lim et al, 2020:9).

The figure below illustrates the three elements (Lim et al, 2020:9).



**Figure 2.1: A holistic safe city thesis**

Adapted from: Lim et al (2020:9)

This convergence demonstrates how crime opportunities occur (Lab, 2014:218). Cohen and Felson (1979:589) highlight that the absence of any of the abovementioned elements may result in failure to commit the crime. In most cases, offenders target their victims within the setting of their daily routine activities and which implies that they do not have to go out of their way to commit crime. Cohen and Felson (1979:593) further explain that routine activities, or in some cases, changes in the pattern of activities may create opportunities for the commission of crime or an increased risk of the direct contact between an offender and a victim. However, the presence of the three elements does not necessarily guarantee that a crime will be committed but that they only increase the probability of the crime taking place. This idea holds that criminal tendencies and the availability of acceptable targets, such as valuable properties with monetary worth, are what motivate criminals in Brooklyn. When left alone in the house, domestic servants make easy prey. This demonstrates that ecological built environments with safety as a top priority are essential (Lim et al., 2020:9). As a result, locals fortify their houses and people in an effort to provide a safety net that will shield their family and personal belongings from harm. The reason for this is because criminal acts that are published on different platforms have the potential to instil fear in people and affect how they interact with others in the



community (Madriz, 2023:6).

### **2.5.1.1 Motivated offender**

According to Newburn (2017:305-306), a motivated offender has both criminal predispositions and the capability to realise those inclinations. While the routine activities approach does not focus on providing reasons for the inclination to commit criminal activities, the motivated offender is presumed to always be present (Cohen & Felson 1979:589). It is thus concluded that there is a group of likely offenders who are permanently ready to commit crime, given the presence of a suitable target and the lack of capable guardianship.

### **2.5.1.2 Suitable Target**

According to Newburn (2017), an appropriate target is determined by the property or person's form, worth, visibility, vulnerability, and accessibility. The attributes of the person and the property draw the attention of the criminal. This study shows that both male and female domestic workers appeal to those who commit contact and property crimes because they work in a probable well-developed area like Brooklyn. This is because the targets have both monetary and symbolic significance (Newburn, 2017:306).

According to Vito and Maahs (2017:57), the following four elements make a target more suitable and contribute to a general shift in society that makes people more likely to commit crimes:

- **Value:** An offender deems a target appropriate if they find the target's financial and symbolic values attractive. "Targets are valued because they have monetary worth in property crimes, provide outlets to express wrath or frustration in violent crimes, or fulfil sexual desires for power and control in sexual crimes" (Pedneault & Beauregard, 2014:35).
- **Inertia:** Inertia is the resistance of an object to change its state of motion, such as its speed, direction, or rest. Anything that prevents a criminal from obtaining the item or person they have set their sights on is also included in this category. The issue of effort is fundamental to this component, and effortlessness is

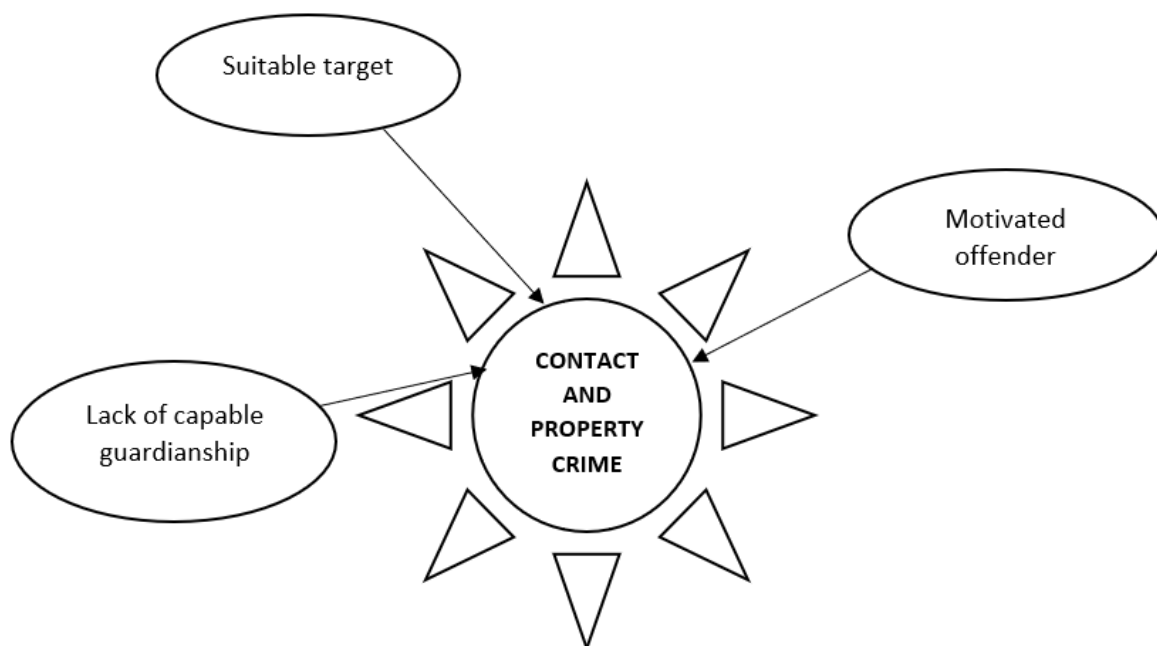
defined as the ease with which the desired goal can be attained. Therefore, an aim becomes more appealing or appropriate the easier it is to obtain or attain.

- **Visibility** – The capacity of a suitable target to be noticed or recognised by a motivated perpetrator is referred to as visibility.
- **Accessibility**- is related to inertia and relates to how easily the target may be approached or reached without exposing the perpetrator.

### **2.5.1.3 Absence of capable guardian**

Security personnel, police, neighbours, and technological tools such as cameras, locks, alarms, and burglar doors are examples of people or items that serve as guardians (Newburn, 2017:306; Vito & Maahs, 2017:57-58). Therefore, a guardian or protector is anyone who has the ability to stop a crime through their presence or direct acts. Because domestic workers may effectively deter crime at Brooklyn residences by simply being there or by taking direct action, they are regarded as capable guardians. In Brooklyn, the lack of a competent guardian gives rise to opportunities for property and contact crimes that affect domestic workers. As a result, Brooklyn's domestic workers run the risk of being victims of criminal activity due to home invasions.

Additionally, by highlighting the three key components of crime and their relationship (both temporally and spatially), routine activity theory can aid affected stakeholders in the development of preventative measures, as well as (1) explain the rate of contact and property crimes, (2) forecast trends in the rate of these crimes, (3) understand why crimes occur in some areas more than others (hotspots), and (4) support them in developing preventative measures (Vito & Maahs, 2017:57).



**Figure 2.2: Routine Activity Theory**

Adapted from: Vito and Maahs (2017:57)

The section that follows, presents a discussion of the lifestyle/exposure model, which are extensions of the routine activities approach.

## 2.6 Lifestyle/exposure model of personal victimisation

Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garafalo (1978) conducted research on the causes of frequent theft and assault in eight American cities which gave birth to the lifestyle exposure model (Vito & Maahs 2017:58). These authors discovered that demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, race, and financial background or source of income are strongly correlated with victimisation and lifestyle (Vito & Maahs 2017:58). According to Vito and Maahs (2017:58), a person's lifestyle consists of both their regular recreational activities and their professional background. Vito and Maahs (2017:58) posit that an increased victimisation rate is found among low-income individuals that can be linked to their way of living and the kind of work they undertake without guardianship, which puts them in close proximity to prospective criminals. These findings are in line with the findings of this study. A person's risk of victimisation increases if their lifestyle puts them in close contact and interaction with prospective offenders (Vito & Maahs 2017:58). Because of this, the lifestyle exposure model

makes the assumption that there are high-risk times and places based on people's habits rather than victimisation that happens randomly in a particular area or at a particular time (Siegel, 2013:81). Thus, the probability of being victimised differs depending on the period, location, and social context, as well as how much a person's regular activities make them a good target in the absence of guardianship. Lifestyle patterns impact: (a) "the amount of exposure to places and times with varying risks of victimisation; and (b) the prevalence of associations with others who are more or less likely to commit crime," claim Vito and Maahs (2017:58–59). Victimisation is thus directly correlated with the quantity of time spent in public spaces, particularly during the night or other high-risk periods. Thus, the primary conclusion to be drawn from this theory is that victimisation is determined by an individual's behaviour, economic standing, and level of education. In this sense, they are in intimate contact with criminals due to their employment as domestic servants in Brooklyn, a Tshwane neighbourhood with a high risk of contact and property crime. They therefore have a higher chance of falling victim to these acts.

Vito and Maahs (2017:58–59) assert that a person's actions might either raise or lower their likelihood of becoming a victim of crime. This depends on a number of variables, including the type of actions and whether or not they are frequent and foreseeable to a potential offender. Second, the particular kind of crime should also be taken into account when relating lifestyle to the probability of becoming a victim. Because of this, domestic workers in Brooklyn are more likely to experience theft, home invasions, robberies, and opportunistic crimes such as rape. This argument explains why domestic workers in Brooklyn are more likely to become victims of contact and property crimes due to their daily lives and routine activities. In addition, the lifestyle approach is employed as a continuation of the theory of normal activities to address the question of what house robbery victims should do to lessen their chances of being victims again.

## **2.7 Background of the Strain/Anomie Theory**

The strain or anomie theory focuses more on describing why criminals conduct thefts, opportunistic rapes, housebreakings, and robberies than the previous theories did. Robert K. Merton expanded on Durrheim's work in 1932 to provide a robust theoretical

framework in criminology (Vito & Maahs, 2017:127). While Merton thought that the adoption of middle-class values encouraged criminal behaviour by placing weight on monetarist prestige, Durkheim held a strong opinion that the repudiation of conventional working-class values through the advancement of deviant principles was the root cause of crime (Walsh & Hemmens, 2014:147).

This theory's main goal is to show how certain social systems pressure some members of the public to behave in ways that are deviant rather than conventional (Al-Badayneh, Ben Brik & Elwakad, 2023:38). Two elements are fundamental to Merton's theory: customary methods of achieving those aims and socially determined goals (Vito & Maahs, 2017:127). Merton's most famous theory was that in societies where economic class is highly valued, institutionalised standards could be undermined (Walsh & Hemmens, 2014:146). Like Durkheim, Merton's theory contends that placing an excessive amount of focus on the pursuit of money can erode the norms that specify how to attain the objectives of material and financial wealth (Walsh & Hemmens, 2014:147). Merton asserts that people will break all rules and laws in order to achieve financial success (Vito & Maahs, 2017:127). In the same way, society groups will focus more on whether wealth is attained than on the means of achieving it (Vito & Maahs, 2017:127). The theory of strain/anomie is therefore discussed below.

### **2.7.1 The Strain/Anomie Theoretical Tradition**

According to Merton, institutionalised norms could be weakened in societies that place an intense value on economic success (Hopkins Burke, 2019:147). Furthermore, the intense pressure to succeed combined with a lack of conventional means to do so puts strain on individuals and leads them to criminal behaviour (Vito & Maahs, 2017:127). For this reason, Merton's theory is called the strain theory because individuals are forced to engage in criminal activities due to pressure to succeed combined with a lack of conventional means to do so (Hopkins Burke, 2019:151).

According to Vito and Maahs (2017:127), crime results when individuals are unable to achieve their goals through legitimate channels. Hence, Merton mentions four possible adaptations to strain that are produced by the gap between a cultural goal of economic success and the reality of limited access to proper means, namely, innovation,

ritualism, retreativism and rebellion (Vito & Maahs, 2017:127).

### **Innovation**

According to Merton's anomie hypothesis, an individual innovator generally buys into society's culturally recognised aims but pursues them using undesirable means (Hopkins Burke, 2019:152). In this situation, innovators will embrace the societal aim of success, but will reject the traditional means of achieving it by finding illegal alternatives (Walsh & Hemmens, 2014:148). This form of adaptation is linked to criminality. According to Merton, crime is an alternate technique of achieving success that is adopted by the poor (Vito & Maahs, 2017:128). House robberies, housebreakings, and thefts in the Brooklyn suburbs are examples of new illegal tactics employed by offenders of these crimes to achieve pecuniary success.

### **Ritualism**

Ritualists are nine-to-five employees who have given up on reaching financial success but continue to work within legal boundaries because they accept the legality of the opportunity framework (Walsh & Hemmens, 2014:148). The ritualist, often known as the "mindless bureaucrat", gets wrapped up in rules and methods for achieving cultural goals to the point where he or she forgets to give the goal significance (Hagan, 2008:149). The ritualist just follows the norms, with little desire to pursue culturally defined objectives (Hagan, 2008:149).

### **2.7.2 Application of the theory**

Strain or anomie is the most applicable theory for explaining why South African domestic workers are more culturally prone to criminal victimisation than their counterparts in other countries. In keeping with Merton's (and indeed Durkheim's) notion of anomie, Messner, Rosenfeld and Karstedt (2013) suggest that the high level and distinctive pattern of crime in South Africa (including in Brooklyn) is due to the cultural values.

Merton cautions that delinquent behaviour is not caused by a lack of opportunity or a focus on monetary achievement but can be applied to the Brooklyn context to explain events that turn general criminal behaviour into action, based on the strain theory.

Furthermore, the theory has the potential to explain possible reasons why offenders choose to commit contact and property offences. According to Zwane (2015), South Africa is one of the countries with the highest gap between the rich and the poor. South Africa had a Gini coefficient of 0.66 in 2010, making it one of the world's most unequal countries (Harmse, 2013:38). As a result, the researcher concluded that the strain theory is appropriate for explaining why some people are motivated to commit house robberies. Despite South Africa's poor Gini coefficient, society encourages all citizens (regardless of their level or class) to strive for financial success, reputation, and power. Individuals who lack access to conformist resources resort to crime (as an innovative technique) to achieve the culturally determined goals.

## **2.8 Deterrence Theory**

Punishing offenders restores the social balance and reaffirms social bonds; it sends a message that crime will not be tolerated (Lab, 2020:152). Similarly, the authority should not treat prisoners like slaves of the state who lose all their rights when incarcerated, but rather as people who have the right to education, vocational training, and psychological services offered by prison authorities (Smith & Berlin, 1978:30 cited in Lawal, 2013:5).

### **2.8.1 Background of Deterrence Theory**

During the 18th century, classical theorists, Cesare Beccaria (1738-1798) and Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832), proposed a universal law and the administration of Justice that is based on rationality and human rights (Bezuidenhout, 2020:142). The two theorists believed that crime amongst communities can be reduced through the proper application of punishment that will respect universal human rights and civil rights, and that sentencing should be determinate (Van der Westhuizen & Bezuidenhout, 2020:143). Similarly, a study conducted by Lee (2017:1) proposes that fear of punishment is considered a major incentive in deterring crime.

While deterrence theory is often associated with the idea of severe and disproportionate punishment (Lee, 2017:1), Van der Westhuizen and Bezuidenhout (2020:143) maintain that deterrence theory has respect for human dignity. Therefore, this section, revisits the concept of criminal deterrence and defends a more credible

deterrence theory of punishment. The researcher concurs with Lee (2017) that a traditional theorist is shallow in deterrence, confused in the application of the theory and narrow in scope of punishing offenders.

Lee (2017:1) posits that human beings are capable of entertaining both prudential and non-prudential moral reasoning. Lee (2017:1-4) proposes that, where the sanction comes from within, the deterrence is deep, and the person will not commit a crime even with external sanction. The state, as an agent of protecting human rights and deterring crimes, must make the best use of all the resources available, including both the shallow and deep criminal deterrents (Lee, 2017:2). Given that the deep theory allows the state to offer moral reasons against criminal offences, doubt might arise with regard to whether relevant policies constitute some form of paternalism and disrespect the personal autonomy of offenders (Lee, 2017). According to Lee (2017:2), a liberal society, such as South Africa, should engage in relevant policy reform that will respect the independence of potential and actual offenders. The following discussions focus on the two assumptions of deterrence theory.

### **2.8.2 The Deterrence Theory**

The Deterrence Theory of punishment holds that the institution of criminal punishment is necessary and justified because punishment serves to deter crime (Van der Westhuizen & Bezuidenhout, 2020:143). According to this theory, the goal of deterrence is based on the assumption that offenders or potential offenders will think carefully before they commit crimes if the likelihood of getting arrested and the fear of a swift and a severe punishment is present (Van der Westhuizen & Bezuidenhout, 2020:143).

In this context, upon learning the likely consequences of committing a crime of house robbery, housebreaking, theft or rape in Brooklyn, potential offenders might abandon their plans because perpetrators would like to avoid the severe consequences attached to the crimes, namely, the punishment that is associated with the offence. Furthermore, if “X” knows that the punishment for a house robbery and theft in South Africa is a minimum sentence of a ten-year imprisonment, then the perpetrators of this crime will be discouraged from committing these crimes. In this case, deterrence



theory can reduce fear of crime in Brooklyn.

As a rule, deterrents to crime are both general and individual in nature (Van der Westhuizen & Bezuidenhout, 2020:143-144). Individual deterrence is when the offender, who has the punishment imposed upon him/her, is concerned with the experience of punishment (Van der Westhuizen & Bezuidenhout, 2020:144). The researcher's opinion is that someone who has been subjected to the conditions of imprisonment once, may avoid contact and property crimes in the future.

Similarly, general deterrence is based on the premise that the punishment of an individual offender will deter the potential criminal from crime. Humphrey, Schmallegger and Schmallegger (2019:148) define "general deterrence" as a goal of criminal sentencing which seeks to prevent others from committing similar crimes. From this brief discussion, Lee (2017:2) observes two fundamental assumptions of deterrence theory:

1. Potential offenders are rational agents, capable of taking into account the likelihood of consequences of their actions, and
2. Punishment is intended to give potential offenders a reason not to commit a crime.

### **Assumption 1: Capacity Assumption**

In this assumption, Lee (2017:2) assumes that potential offenders are rational agents that are capable of taking into account the consequences of their criminal conducts.

### **Assumption 2: The Deterrence Assumption**

In this assumption, Lee (2017:3) assumes that punishment aims to give reasons against committing criminal offences. In this context, due to the fact that punishment is supposed to deter rational agents (perpetrators) from engaging in criminal activities, the punishment is likely to be a negative experience, rather than a benefit or a reward (Lee, 2017:3). The researcher's opinion is that, if the South African CJS is to deter rational perpetrators of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn and elsewhere, the institution of Criminal Justice must ensure that the consequences of offending are harsh sentences that are deterrents.

## 2.9 Summary

This chapter discusses the theoretical stances of various crime theorists in an attempt to understand why domestic workers in the Brooklyn police precinct are targets of property crimes and contact crimes. The conversation starts out by going over modern classicism, routine tasks, rational choice opportunity models, and opportunity theories that see domestic worker's victimisation as being specific to a location. The second section of the chapter addresses how people plan and organise their activities to generate chances for criminal activity and property offences. The vulnerable demographic of domestic workers in Brooklyn is terrified due to the high incidence of these crimes. Thirdly, the researcher argues about how the judicial system can use deterrence theory to stop criminals from committing these crimes.

Additionally, the researcher hopes to use the information gathered from the study's many perspectives to help authorities create appropriate, successful, and efficient contact and property crime prevention strategies. The topic of the current chapter is continued in the following chapter, where several preventive strategies to lessen and fight crime are informed by the extent of crime in South Africa. The researcher agrees with Hochbaum, Sorenson, and Loring (1992:298) that theories of crime serve as instruments for professionals, civic communities, and law enforcement to make judgments and devise strategies for safeguarding their citizens against criminal activity in the future. Acquired knowledge can help the CJS lessen property crimes and the effects of fear of contact in South Africa, particularly in the Brooklyn precinct. Overall, the criminal behaviour of contact and property crimes were theoretically explained to be a product of various theories of crime. The researcher's elaboration and integration of this legal framework thus contribute significantly to an analysis of the occurrence of both contact and property crimes in the Brooklyn area of policing. The next chapter is based on the exploration of fear of crime.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THE EXPLORATION OF FEAR OF CRIME**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The fear of crime in South Africa emerged as a matter of concern in the beginning of 1990s when the new dispensation began to incorporate open-ended questions relating to public perceptions of high levels of crime in communities (Bezuidenhout, 2020:199). While it was difficult to pinpoint the cause, the impact, and the consequences of fear of crime, the issue began to gain momentum when concerns about crime and its aftermath were given attention in public opinion. The state commission on crime provided the only source of information and the public reaction was fear (Bezuidenhout, 2020:200).

Fear of crime in South Africa happens amongst individuals, government structures, and economic sectors (Bezuidenhout, 2020:196). The purpose of this study was to investigate fear of crime amongst the vulnerable individuals in Brooklyn residences, namely, domestic workers. A study conducted by Martin-Howard (2022:2) posits that research is yet to focus on fear of crime and actual victimisation among all South Africans. Also, Grinshteyn (2013:37) observes that the relationship between crime and its consequences are neither obvious nor simple. Haymaker (2019:7) mentions that “the fear of crime was not discussed adequately amongst the vulnerable” and Michael (2018:31-32) states that prior studies conducted about this phenomenon were not accurate despite the fact that knowledge about the causes, consequences and the impact of fear has increased steadily. According to Michael (2018:32), the fear of crime, which has been made worse by the most recent crime statistics on house robberies in South Africa, has caused domestic workers to experience fear (see section 1.2).

Individuals are fearful of becoming victims but there is no single reason that can explain this (Michael, 2018:31). In this study, the researcher established why domestic workers are continuously victimised in the Brooklyn area. This study aimed to fill this gap in the existing literature by re-investigating the validity and the reliabilities of fear of crime in a South African context (Haymaker 2019:9). Empirical findings of this study contribute to a broader understanding of fear of crime and improve the awareness of

measures that can reduce fear of crime experienced by domestic workers in the Brooklyn residences. Furthermore, the researcher explored how fear of crime may influence precautionary behaviours exhibited among domestic workers as participants. In the next discussion, the concept of fear of crime is defined within the context of Brooklyn domestic workers.

### **3.2 The concept of “fear of crime”**

According to Martin-Howard (2022:3), fear of crime is a universal personal response to the risk of victimisation and perceived safety is a subjective measure which speaks to an individual’s state of mind including the victim’s fear of crime which is based on their own experiences and those of others. Zinn (2020:196) confirms that the high security fences surrounding South African homes, the booming security industries, the electrification of fences, community neighbourhood watches, and the routine patrol of security vehicles around South African homes, including Brooklyn suburbs, attest to a nation that is battling to cope with a very high rate of violent crimes of house robberies and the resultant fear.

While research on fear of crime and risk of victimisation in high income states has been published at length (Martin-Howard, 2022:3), studies on this effect of victimisation and fear of crime on the overall wellbeing of South African domestic workers are scarce. Although there is research on the fear of crime within the Republic, the large body of research on the topic is not widely applicable to South African domestic workers. Hence, this study is distinct from the literature on the broader fear of crime because relates to the most vulnerable individuals.

Furthermore, the researcher believes that fear of crime and perceived risk of victimisation are two concepts that are commonly measured together in criminological literature although they are different concepts. The next discussion is based on the “fear of victimisation” as it affects domestic workers in Brooklyn.

#### **3.2.1 Fear of Victimisation (FOV)**

Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28) suggest that the idea of fear of victimisation has a broader perspective than fear of crime itself. This is because the fear of victimisation

is an emotional reaction in terms of becoming a victim of crime; the behaviour element that shadows the emotional reaction from which the individual makes a decision in response to their fear of crime (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). In this context, the perception that individual domestic workers have of house robberies may influence their cognitive construct of possible victimisation in the area. Furthermore, the emotions caused by fear of crime will dictate the reactions of domestic workers either by closing themselves behind doors, setting CCTV's on, etc. Furthermore, the notion "fear of crime" is understood from a limited perspective as it is an emotional response which is activated by crime itself (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). The researcher opines that the more violent crimes are reported from the area, the more fearful domestic workers will be. It is for this reason that Gray, Jackson and Farrall (2011:77) differentiate specific worries and diffuse anxieties and that certain precautionary behaviours allow individuals, especially the victims, to manage their worries about crime that has a negative impact on their lives. Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28), Falkof (2021) and Martin-Howard (2022:4) suggest that, to understand the fear of crime, it is important to be conscious of the theoretical models that are associated with the phenomenon. Although the role of the built environment in crime prevention is well researched and residents in the Brooklyn area have taken precautionary measures, property crimes persist. The next section provides an in-depth discussion on these models.

### **3.3 Theoretical models associated with the fear of crime**

Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28) mention three broad terms that are used to describe the various viewpoints, namely, environmental model, victimisation model and the vulnerability model.

#### **3.3.1 Environmental model**

According to Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28), environmental factors relate more directly to the individual's immediate environment known as "criminalisable" space. External influences from the community affect the individual's perceptions of fear (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). For instance, the vandalism of buildings is regarded as visible physical damage that contributes to perceptions of safety within the community. Further

influences of the environmental model are visual observations like those reported in the news and on social media (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). According to Martin-Howard (2022:7), fear becomes a contagious agent for individuals who have not been victimised. Vahed (2013:21) notes that, in South Africa, there are high levels of fear of crime among citizens. In this context, the robbery of a domestic worker on social media and the small screen exacerbates the fear of crime for other domestic workers residing in the area. In this way, fear of crime extends the damage of criminal victimisation (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28).

Lailvaux (2020:14) found that the fear of crime is a multifaceted and “subjective phenomenon”. This author found this explanation close to home for South African women because of their exposure to increased levels of crime in the country which increases their perception of victimisation. Further, it is reported that “perceived sense of vulnerability, which is formed according to dimensions of threat, play a key role in generating a fear of crime”. As a result, people tend to adopt fear-related behaviours to lessen their fear of crime, however, effecting such behaviours, automatically creates a cycle in which fear is continuously reinforced (Ranaweera, 2024:314).

### **3.3.2 Victimisation Model (VM)**

According to this model, individuals who have previously been exposed to crime or have been victims of crime will have a higher degree of fear of those crimes (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:29). Haymaker (2019:9) adds that the risk of actual victimisation is a generally used to model or copy fear of crime. According to Haymaker (2019:9), this is because the victimisation model is based and measured on the prevalence of the crime that the individuals fear the most, the likelihood that similar crimes will occur due to the individual’s vulnerabilities as well as the consequences of the crime.

According to Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28), individuals who have been repeatedly exposed to crime may have desensitised in terms of their attitudes towards it. t Haymaker (2019:9) mentions that risk should be founded on the incidence of the crime victims fear the most and the likelihood that the crime will occur to the individual victims. In this context, domestic workers, who have previously been exposed to robberies and have been victims of these robberies in Brooklyn residences, will have

a higher degree of fear of crime.

### **3.3.3 Vulnerability Model**

Fear of crime at an individual level is perceived as mainly focused on victimisation and individual vulnerability (Krucichová, 2019:198). Vulnerability as “a driver of fear of crime” has been widely acknowledged in various discourses that deal with the fear of crime (Johansson & Haandrikman, 2021:1241). They claim that vulnerability can be both physical and social. Physical vulnerability concerns the inability of a potential victim to avoid the risk or the probability of being attacked because of inadequate or weaker power (Johansson & Haandrikman, 2021:1241). While social vulnerability is mostly concerned with a position that a person holds in a society, victimisation and these experiences are influenced by factors such as financial background, level of education, ethnicity, marital status and exposure to adequate resources. The theory of vulnerability is mostly concerned with issues that relate to women, the elderly and people from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds (Krucichová, 2019:198). Individuals feel physically unable to protect themselves and are more fearful of crime than individuals who have not experienced these challenges (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). Martin-Howard (2022:5) argues that women seem to feel more vulnerable than men and therefore, they feel less capable of fending off a perpetrator of crime. In these models, the researcher concludes that fear of crime and fear of victimisation are both influenced by a broader framework than fear itself (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:29). In this instance, the researcher believes that although each of these perspectives are valid, fear of crime and fear of victimisation as well as the relationship between them seem to be difficult to prove conclusively (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:29).

### **3.3.4 Risk sensitivity**

Sensitivity to risk is defined as the relation between fear of a particular offence and the perceived risk of that offence (Michael, 2018:32). Sensitivity to risk should be measured in terms of the relationship of fear of crime and the subjective perceptions of victimisation risks (Michael, 2018:32). Haymaker (2019:10) adds that, when individual victims change their perspective of victimisation, it lowers their risk of sensitivity. It is for this reason that risk should be centred on the frequency of the

offence that individuals fear the most, in this instance, robberies in Brooklyn. Furthermore, sensitivity to risk is linked to belief of one's ability to control crime and how the consequence of victimisation is likely to impact an individual's livelihood (Michael, 2018:33).

Lamb and Warton (2016:13) found that, in South Africa, there are certain sexual characteristics that play a significant role in the likelihood of one being susceptible to crime victimisation. Furthermore, Piquero (2016:21) mentions that females' fear of crime and victimisation are higher in all areas than men and Pretorius and Fynn (2017:31) concur that fear of victimisation is not only felt by females. On the other hand, men seem to be less likely to become victims of crime (Fetchenhauer & Buunk, 2005:99). A study conducted by Sadiki and Steyn (2021:59) reveals that men in South Africa are more frequently exposed to crimes of armed robbery, while women are more frequently exposed to abuse. However, Pretorius and Fynn (2017:32) suggest that, in relation to crime, age and gender are not significant but that the fear of crime is dependent on the type of crime. Lastly, Walklate (2018:108) suggests that victimisation should be researched under the following concepts: how often the crime happens; why it happens; when and where it takes place; and who the victims are. Michael (2018:33) suggests further that a neighbourhood structure plays a role in the perspectives that individuals hold about their environment, their personal victimisation experience, and from hearing about crime. The next discussion focuses on how neighbourhood characteristics affect fear of crime in communities.

### **3.3.5 Neighbourhood structure and fear of crime**

The structure of neighbourhood characteristics and social processes within communities offer alternative explanations of fear of crime (Newburn, 2017). Michael (2018:33) describes neighbourhood structure as the characteristics of neighbourhoods and social processes within the community that determine an alternative explanation of fear of crime. As informed by social disorganisation (Shaw & McKay, 1931), broken window (Wilson & Kelling, 1982) theories, the existing macro-level approach in understanding the fear of crime, poor neighbourhood structure, social dissolution and community incivilities influence attitudes on personal victimisation and ultimately exacerbate the fear of crime (Michael, 2018:34). The racial



and ethnic composition of neighbourhoods, socioeconomic status of residents, level of unsupervised youths on the streets and high rate of unemployment lead to the fear of crime (Michael, 2018:34).

Sadiki and Steyn (2021:1) opine that the construction of informal social control forms or moulds how that community lives. This is because neighbourhood structures and community dynamics emphasise that the fear of crime is a result of community characteristics (Michael, 2018:33). It is thus the structure of informal social control that forms the lives of residents in communities (Michael, 2018:34). Hence, Mpuru (2020:65) posits that social cohesion that is inherently weak reinforces the already weak socialisations networks and informal social control. Groff (2015:91) suggests that social control involves a wide-ranging mechanisms and activities that a community views as an unacceptable behaviour. Haymaker (2019:9) further indicates that fear of crime is part of a larger “feedback loop” that mediates the effects of disorder on social cohesion. This is because, should there be a deterioration of social cohesion, neighbourhood disorder will increase, which, in turn, increases the fear of crime (Michael, 2018:34).

Haymaker (2019) posits that there are two types of neighbourhood cues affecting risk perceptions among communities, namely, physical cues and social cues. The basic assumption of physical cues is that communities characterised by graffiti on the walls, littering on the streets and public places have a strong, positive relationship between indicators of neighbourhood incivilities and fear of crime (Haymaker, 2019:11). Hence, the link between fear of crime amongst communities and perceived neighbourhood incivilities is demonstrated by the non-random spatial pattern of fear (Michael, 2018:35). In this context, the manifestations of physical cues especially graffiti on the walls and social cues like loud music in residences, create a perceptions of a poor neighbourhood structure, a lack of social cohesion and community disorder which leads to increased rates of fear of crime. According to neighbourhood characteristics, these variables contribute to weak and chaotic community structures which ultimately lead to elevated levels of fear of crime. The observations that fear of crime tends to occur in disorganised neighbourhood structures characterised by poor social cohesion and community incivilities influence the attitudes of personal victimisation thus making the theory or structure more applicable to this study. Empirically, fear of crime is

measured based on the international and local approach (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:30-31). The next discussion focuses on the traditional and the international approach to measuring fear amongst communities.

### **3.4 Traditional approach to measuring fear of crime in South Africa**

According to Bezuidenhout (2020:102), the traditional approach to measuring the fear of crime refers to legal prevention, social prevention as well as the neighbourhood approach to address the fear of crime by applying a single rationale to prevent a broad range of the crime types. Bezuidenhout (2020:101) and Michael (2018:35) posit that the measurement of fear of crime in South Africa is necessary to identify priority crimes that are victimising communities.

In this study, an exploration of fear of crime pervading South African domestic workers in Brooklyn residences, more than crime itself, is discussed due to the fact that there is an obvious link between high rates of crime and the residences. However, in the South African context, there are several paradoxes between the actual risks, perceived risks and the linkage between crime and the fear of the crime (Walklate, 2018:1). The fear of crime in South Africa is at the level where it is described as hysteria, and paranoia (obsession) (Walklate, 2018:1). The level of fear in the Republic is affecting policing responses to crime, not only in Brooklyn, but countrywide. The next discussion focuses on the theoretical approach to measure the fear of crime in the country and on the dark figures of crimes that are not reported to the police.

### **3.3.6 Theoretical framework to measure fear of crime**

Researchers of fear of crime have long debated on how to define and measure fear of crime in vulnerable communities. Due to the disagreement about the definitions of fear of crime that led to inconsistent measuring of the phenomenon in South Africa, Etopio and Berthelot (2022:1) developed a new scale of fear of crime measurement using a theory of emotion, qualitative interviews and a rigorous methodology. According to the authors, a scale of fear of crime involves five major stages, namely, in-depth interviews to understand how domestic workers (in this context) describe their fear of crime, qualitative analysis of questionnaires for the participants, pretesting (pilot study), factor analysis and psychometric validation (Etopio & Berthelot, 2022:1). The next discussion

is based on the traditional approach to measure fear of crime in the South African context.

### **3.3.7 Traditional approach to measure fear of crime**

Michael (2018:35) posits that the empirical measurement of fear of crime worldwide is extensive and improving. Fry (2017:1) mentions that South Africa has had a constant source of data regarding fear of crime, namely, the National Victims of Crime Surveys (NVCS), conducted in 1998, 2003, 2007, 2010, 2014 and the latest that was conducted in 2015/2016 (Bezuidenhout, 2020). Fear of crime in the South African context should be measured based on the victims of crime (how frequent the individual was victimised or attacked in a specific area, how victims of crime perceive the police and the socio-economic status of victims of crimes) (Fry, 2017:17). Due to scientific criticism of utilising conceptualisation and operationalisation as indicators to measure the fear of crime amongst victims' communities, the following were recommended for the purpose (Michael, 2018:35): In addition to Fry's (2017:16) measurement of fear in South Africa, Michael (2018:35) indicates that fear of crime should be measured by perceived threat of individual victimisation, the assessment of neighbourhood crime problems, and self-reports of behavioural adaptations in response to the possibilities of victimisation. Moreover, the author notes that the measuring approach for fear of crime is rendered "de facto" standard when it comes to questions that fail to mention the specific crime, which is on the rise, or the hypothetical location describing the situation (Michael, 2018:35).

However, Michael (2018:35) contends that questions asked of victim participants should have a specific reference to periods when the crime was committed because perpetrators of house robberies will look for specific times when they know that only a domestic worker is left alone in the house. The following questions did not measure the fear of crime because they did not mention the crimes that are on the increase in the area of study (Michael, 2018:35):

- *How safe do you feel being alone in your neighbourhood or workplace?*
- *How safe would you feel being alone in Brooklyn at night?*
- *Is there any place nearby you feel unsafe?"*

Questions to measure fear of crime are based on the “feeling of safety” , which serves as an indicator and depicts the individual perception of crime and risks associated with such perception (Krilichová, 2018:201). For instance, questions such as, “How safe do you feel at in your area?”, “Has your workplace been broken into or burgled?”, are relevant to measure the traditional approach of fear of crime in this study. Furthermore, the traditional approach of measuring the extent of fear of crime survey questions should not ignore the physiological and emotional responses to events of crime (Michael, 2018:36). For instance, “How frequently are domestic workers fearful of house robberies, burglaries and rape in the process?” The reasons why traditional fear of crime survey questions are not permissible in empirical fear of crime studies is that they ignore the emotional response to crime events and that they do not address the main problem of the victims. Bezuidenhout (2020:102) posits that a “de facto” standard for fear of crime questions is unconcerned with the frequency with which victims of fear feel about crime and how the level of fear (if observed) varies over time. Due to these limitations, the author argues that fear of crime questions should ask the victims whether they have felt fearful of these crimes in the past, how often and how fearful they felt last time they were afraid.

The traditional measures of crime also undermine perceptions of risk beyond frequency and intensity (Bezuidenhout & Kloppers, 2020:224). For instance, measures of fear should evaluate emotional responses to crimes under investigation that encompass perceptions of control over victimisation and its consequences. There is adequate empirical evidence illustrating the conceptual weakness of the traditional fear of crime as Michael (2018:36) and Haymaker (2019:17) fail to acknowledge that the fear of crime is multifaceted and complex and consists of emotional, behavioural, and cognitive responses to crime risk. In this regard, domestic workers, as victims, are measured based on the degree in which the individuals are emotionally affected such as the perceptions of control over victimisation in Brooklyn suburbs. The figure below depicts the Brooklyn suburb in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM).



**Figure 3.1: Depicting typical suburbs in Pretoria East**

Source: <https://www.privateproperty.co.za/neighbourhoods/pretoria-east-south/992>

Brooklyn is situated in the East of Pretoria in the CTMM, also referred to as “Jacaranda City”. It was established on 5 December 2000 (City of Tshwane, 2020:6). The City of Tshwane is a single metropolitan municipality in Gauteng Province that has boundaries with three provinces. The link between the three provinces is enabled by key national routes or corridors (City of Tshwane, 2020:7). Although the CTMM is perceived to be the largest metropolitan municipality in Gauteng, based on the 2019 statistics, in terms of size, it hosts the smallest population of 3,555,741 people. However, the number of crime related incidences is among the highest in the country. During the fourth quarter of 2023 SAPS reporting, the Provincial Police Commissioner revealed that in Gauteng Province there was a spike of violent crimes. The increase was over 2 000 recorded criminal cases from January to March 2023 (City of Tshwane, 2020:8).

Also, the high rate of both property crimes and contact crimes in South Africa is exacerbated by a multitude of socio-political changes in the wake of the transition to

democracy in 1994 (Ikejiaku, 2009:452), which includes porous borders (Mamokhere & Chauke, 2020:1). According to Borat, Lilenstein, Monnakgotla, Thornston, and Van der Zee (2017:35), property crime and socioeconomic variables – which vary with income and inequality – have the most predictable association. Undeniably, fear of crime amongst communities has been a national phenomenon, occupying a central position amongst vulnerable South Africans (Eagle, 2015:1). In support of this view, Reid (2018:186) states that there are diverse studies that were conducted on the fear of crime and how it could be reduced. Lekgau (2022:1) concurs with Demarso and Abba (2020:772) that, although there is extensive literature on the general public's fear of crime and its causes and consequences, very few empirical studies have been documented on how domestic workers are impacted by crimes in their workplaces. This is despite various roles they play in households countrywide when their employers are away on Thursdays, Fridays, weekends and public holidays from 13:00 to 22:00 (SAPS, 2021:1). As discussed at the Station Crime Combating Forum (SCCF) meeting, the idea that Brooklyn domestic workers are afraid of crime has led to an emotional response that has made them less sensitive to crime in general and has caused them to take precautionary measures such as locking themselves inside (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). Demarso and Abba (2020:772) on the other hand, caution that domestic workers' working conditions are associated with risks that can have serious impacts on their physical, emotional and social wellbeing.

Criminological studies argue that there is a paucity of similar studies in South Africa and abroad about domestic workers who are victims of both contact and property crimes (Govender, 2018:7). Fry (2017:3) concurs that more knowledge about the causes, significance and consequences of fear of crime amongst citizens is needed. Also, Curiel and Bishop (2018:2) posit that community members, who perceive themselves as targets of crime, may experience high levels of anxiety which may evoke fear of crime. Such anxieties have negative psychological impacts which are worsened by fear of re-victimisation. This observation is not surprising as Scott, Carrington and McIntosh (2011:148) emphasise that the issue of fear of crime is complex and that it is multidimensional in its "meanings, abstractions, cognitive and emotional dimensions". It has been proven that individuals, who are characterised by fear of crime in areas with high levels of violent crimes, such as Brooklyn, are seen by

measuring perceived risks and prominent security measures such as security fences, guard dogs, security lights, armed patrols and alarm systems (CSVR , 2007; Zinn, 2011:2). This, according to Bezuidenhout (2020:186), has a negative financial implication on South African residents. The residents' concerns came as no surprise as Brooklyn SAPS was pronounced the leading area in the Gauteng Province with contact and property crimes, including opportunistic crimes of rape that are committed during house robberies (Peters, 2020:np). Vahed (2013:27) posits that, in most cases, fear is increased by citizens' distrust and confidence on the police that has a rippling effect because attitudes concerning state structures also have an effect on fear of crime (Vahed, 2013:27). Mabasa and Olutola (2021:1) argue that the increase in crime rates in South Africa are indirectly caused by a lack of synergy between law enforcement agencies and fragmented tactics and strategies that are not properly coordinated into a central command structure with uniform strategy and tactics. Mayoyo, Potgieter and Ras (2011:80) emphasise that fear of crime has undesirable consequences which, in most cases, result in anxiety, social disruption and mistrust in the entire CJS.

### **3.4 A new contemporary fear of crime approach**

Instead of applying the traditional measurement of fear of crime, a more robust risk calculation, which will conceptualise fear of crime in terms of environmental perceptions, beliefs about crime and victimisation, is appropriate for this study. Michael (2018:37) suggests a social and psychological fear of crime model that applies victims' interpretations of the social and physical make-up of their communities, their perceived likelihood of victimisation, their general beliefs about the frequency with which crime occurs and whether individuals can control becoming victims of crime. Michael (2018:38) suggests that communities that experience fear of crime and victimisation should explain how the fear affects them. In this case, the validity and reliability of the new measures of fear should be assessed by the victims of the crimes under investigations. Furthermore, using data from Brooklyn, domestic workers will assist the researcher to determine the degree to which the individuals worry about the prevalence of crime, the likelihood of their victimisation and how to control crime and its consequences (Michael, 2018:37). Haymaker (2019:10) adds, "It is important for criminological scholars to understand the discrepancy between fear of crime and

actual risk of crime because the causes of fear impact on how individual victims in society function and interact with one another.” It is for this reason that domestic workers close themselves in residences fitted with electric fences in fear of crime and victimisation. As such, the issue of crime does not only exacerbate fear amongst domestic workers, but also a notion of fear and insecurity in the Brooklyn residences.

The next discussion explains the fear of crime amongst communities.

### **3.4.1 Vulnerabilities**

The notion of “fear of crime” is understood from a limited perspective as fear is defined as an emotional response which is activated by a crime itself or an object that can be related to the crime (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). Gray et al (2011:77) differentiate between specific worries and diffuse anxieties and note that certain precautionary behaviours allow individuals to manage their worries about crime without a negative impact on their lives. Fear of crime affects individuals differently (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). In the author’s view, a fear of crime may have various physical and emotional effects on individuals (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). These effects may cause trauma related symptoms, should the fear become imminent, or they may display continuous vigilance and/or avoidant demeanours (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). Martin-Howard (2022:31) suggests that, to diminish victimisation in Low-Middle-Income Countries (LMIC) like South Africa, the discourse of fear of crime should be studied to advance the academic enquiry. According to Newburn (2017), vulnerability, victimisation and incivilities (disorder) are three related mechanisms that signify fear of crime amongst communities.

The vulnerability model argues that individuals feeling physically unable to protect themselves and community members lacking social support are more fearful of crime than those individuals not experiencing the same challenges and that women are more vulnerable than men because women are less able to fend off perpetrators (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). Martin-Howard (2022:np) concurs with Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28) that vulnerabilities of individuals victimised by fear of crime are based on the assumption that socio-demographic groups experience different levels of fear of crime and exhibit the fear differently. Furthermore, the position of individuals in society,

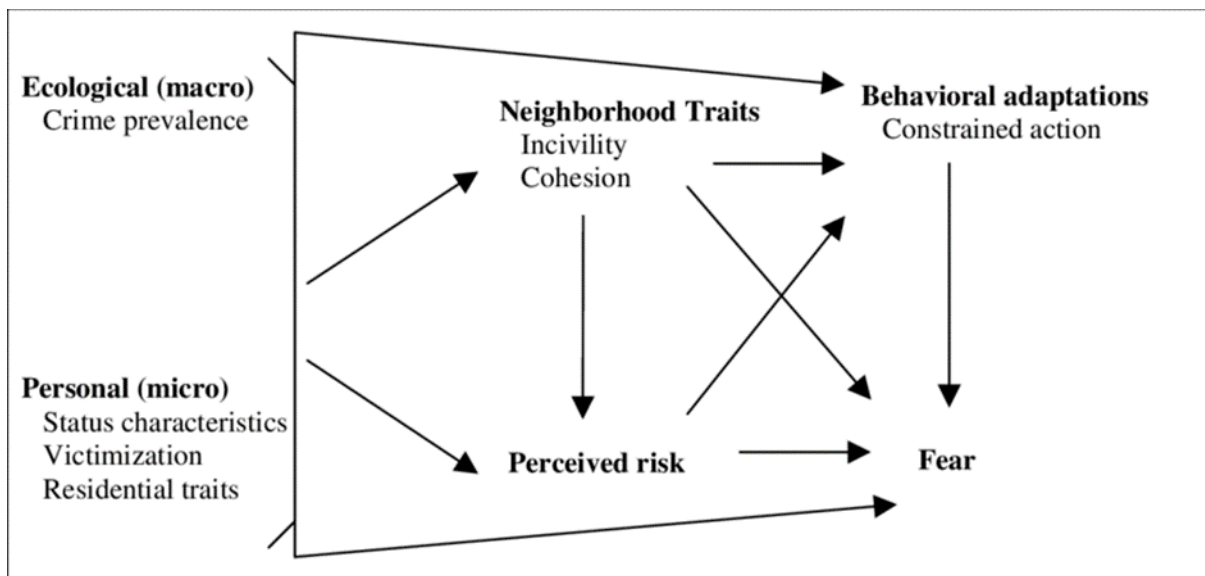


their educational levels, residential status and their experiences of victimisation render individuals socially vulnerable (Doran & Burgess, 2012:30). Furthermore, Doran and Burgess, (2012:30) posit that physical vulnerability is the individual's perception of his or her susceptibility to attack, ability to resist the attack and the ability to recover from the attack. In this context, domestic workers at Brooklyn are both vulnerable to all forms of vulnerabilities as a result of their educational levels, residential (working) environments and gender.

### **3.4.2 Victimisation hypothesis**

Scientific studies conducted on the fear of crime among adults are not new. These studies emerged in the 1970s. The main goal of these studies was to discover the cause and contributory factors to the levels of fear of crime among community members and to establish whether their fear was justified and how such fear affects their quality of life on a daily basis (Krucichová & Prodaná, 2019:747). Ferraro (1995) argues that people evaluate their exposure to risk with their social status and where they reside. This author criticised the symbolic interactionism, social incivilities and theories based on criminal opportunity and crime and maintains that perceived risk is mostly shaped by either the characteristics of individuals or their environment (Jalain, Andreescu & Higgins, 2020:353). A study conducted by Martin-Howard (2022:5) explains victimisation hypothesis as a positive relationship between direct experience of victimisation and fear of crime. This means that individuals who have previously been exposed to crime have a higher degree of fear of crime (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). Due to continuous victimisation, individuals in South Africa, who have been victims of crime, have desensitised their attitudes toward criminal victimisation (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). The lack of methodological tools that can: identify which public spaces cause fear; identify built environment interventions that work for a particular public space; and take demographic perspectives into account during the planning process further exacerbates this passive approach to crime fear (Navarrette et al, 2023:2). Perceived risk and fear of crime in a social context are mainly subjective and based on an individual's own experience and situation that ultimately affect their daily lives or activities. These experiences are viewed as the deep insights that are constantly under progression of being reinterpreted as current knowledge that is normally expanded through the interactions of various factors that affect how we think

and perceive things (Farrall, Gray & Jackson, 2007:20). In an ill-informed perception, these factors comprise two aspects, that is, the physical and social environment, and public knowledge of crime and its effects in a particular setting or environment. Reflecting on how these “distorted” beliefs and interpretations shape our thoughts and judgment on the perceived threat of victimisation, the individual perceiving eminent danger might react in numerous ways but fear is the common response to perceived risk (Farrell et al, 2007:20). LaGrange, Ferraro and Supancic (1992:313) emphasise that fear of crime in an urban environment is mostly dependent on the general fear of social disorder that has the potential of negatively affecting individuals. Farrell et al (2007:21) maintain that there are pertinent questions that we must ask when dealing with fear of crime and that the key question that we must ask is: *“What are the psychological processes underpinning emotion and risk perception?”*



**Figure 3.2: Generic model of fear of crime based on a risk interpretation approach**

Adapted from: Ferraro's “generic model” of the fear of crime (Ferraro, 1995:18)

The figure above illustrates the association between an individual’s beliefs that exceed the actual levels of crime and the prevalence of criminal activities in a location or neighbourhood (Farrell et al, 2007:24). The link and paths between macro and micro factors encapsulate the varied views that are raised by those concerned with crime at different levels. This includes the direct association between the reality of the situation

in a community and fear of crime. These factors cannot be studied in isolation but other key factors that have a direct bearing on fear of crime must be considered such as ecological factors, crime, deprivation, social change and undeveloped attitudinal problems that are projected to feed into individual concerns with regards to social disorder and social contract (Farrell et al, 2007:24), however some of these researches measure victimisation by means of a single victimisation index. Although this study fills the gaps in the knowledge of fear of crime and victimisation, more in-depth research is necessary to provide a wider understanding that will assist researchers to make a distinction between victimisation of individuals and property crimes (Vandeviver, 2011:10).

### **3.4.3 Incivilities (disorder lies)**

In addition to the aforementioned factors, the relationship between fear of crime and a person's living environment contributes to fear of crime and fear of crime is a result of the disruption of social control in an area rather than an individual's experience with criminality (Jin Kang 2020:np). This means that individuals tend to declare higher degrees of fear of crime in areas that are associated with a higher incidence of physical vandalism, such as broken windows, dilapidated buildings, abandoned cars, trash and litter, inconsiderate neighbours, and a rowdy youth. In this context, the living environment of individuals may contribute to an individual's fear of crime rather than being a victim of crime. Also, perceived incivilities in the neighbourhood contribute to community members feeling unsafe as they associate such an environment with crime and danger (Vandeviver, 2011:11).

### **3.5 Causes of fear of crime**

According to Haymaker (2019:10), although fear of crime is a typical reaction that individuals experience, it is caused by many factors. Among these factors are the media, the flagrant display of violent crime and lawlessness of individuals, gangs, syndicates and criminals that are exposed in the investigations (Haymaker, 2019:10). Another cause of fear is attributed to emotional statements by politicians about crime (Bezuidenhout, 2020:196).

Haymaker (2019:10) argues that fear of crime does not only from a dangerous

situation, it can also be due to a number of contributing factors of individual fear. Hence, the role of digital media cannot be ignored in exacerbating fear of crime in SA (Joubert, 2020). Haymaker (2019:11) mentions five contributing factors of fear, namely, actual and anticipated fear, hearsay information of criminal victimisation circulated through social weakening as well as the attributes of the built environment. According to the author, this kind of fear is acquired through an individual's life experience, the kind of people the individual victim(s) connect with and the type of media and small screen individuals consume (Haymaker, 2019:11). According to Grinshteyn (2013:14), when individual victims have direct experience of criminal behaviour, such as being victims of personal and property crimes, this causes them to fear crime. Michael (2018:45) suggests that personal victimisation includes attacks, robberies and all form of sexual harassment, while property victimisation includes housebreaking and thefts. A study conducted by Zinn (2016:18) posits that a target selection of victims of contact and property crimes is mainly based on the financial profile of the victim and not on race or gender. In this context, the fact that Brooklyn domestic workers are employed in the suburbs known to be affluent, renders them actual victims of contact and property crimes and thus they are fearful.

Haymaker (2019:10) argues that the previous experiences of victims of crime are equated to a change in behaviour. In this way, experiences shape the individual's perceptions. In this instance, a domestic worker who has been robbed before, will feel more fearful towards the specific type of crime, and therefore, he or she is likely to take additional measures in ensuring that the possibility of revictimization are reduced.

The more direct experiences domestic workers have with offenders, the more fearful they will become, and their behaviour will change. Another important contributing factor in this regard is media and small screen. According to Bandura (2001:265), media contributes and/or influences modelling the observed behaviour.

### **3.5.1 Media as a cause of fear of crime**

Previously well-documented literature on the media is premised on the assumption that the community members' understanding, and perceptions of the world are based on their lived experiences. However, Choi, Yim and Hicks (2020:38) found that the

media played a key role in how individuals see or perceive the world. Michael (2018:17) mentions that media plays a significant role in encouraging and reinforcing behaviour of individuals because the common denominator in sharing such behaviour is through social networks, which shows how powerful and influential the media is including in perpetuating the fear of crime. It is for this reason that Doran and Burgess (2012:28) posit that fear of crime amongst individual communities is a product of media exposure of individual victims. This means that the more the domestic workers see violent behaviour on the media, the more the individuals become fearful. Similarly, Lane and Meeker (2003:176) concur that the media exacerbates perceptions of victimisation, and thus induces the fear of crime in the communities. For instance, videos, images and crime documents often demonstrate violent methods that can be easily imitated, for instance, when a lead character in a movie uses violence but does not face legal consequences for that behaviour, it reinforces such behaviour. As a result, such violent movies can be observed and imitated, which worsens the feeling of fear in some people (Cooper & Hogg, 2003:309).

Haymaker, (2013:13) developed five key components that influence fear of crime through the media. He outlined these components as follows:

- Small screen content is mass produced and therefore plays a role in cultural activities; it is more influential than other forms of mass media.
- Television does not cause or encourage violent behaviour, instead it moulds individual's thoughts, views and beliefs about society and other individuals.
- Small screen develops values and attitudes of individuals that are already present in the culture and thus serve to reinforce and strengthen the status quo, and not challenge it.
- Viewing more than four hours of small screen a day can lead to "Mean World Syndrome" (MWS) which is a cognitive bias wherein people may perceive the world to be more dangerous than it actually is, due to long-term moderate to heavy exposure to violence-related content on mass media.
- Small screen does not reflect reality, rather it creates an alternative reality.

In this view, small screen plays a dominant role in the media space which is viewed in this country and thus South Africans are able to view criminal behaviour and crime

shows (Bezuidenhout, 2020:224). Furthermore, small screen does not encourage violent behaviour, but does shape how people view crime (Bezuidenhout, 2020:1). Finally, when domestic workers watch and view crime rates, especially those that are frequently reported from their neighbourhoods, they become more afraid and this reinforces the fears they already have.

### **3.5.2 Lack of trust in the Criminal Justice System**

Fear of crime amongst communities is worsened by a lack of faith in the CJS as the institution is seen to be corrupt and inexperienced (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2016:11). In addition, the fear of being labelled as an informant still prevents many South African communities from reporting crimes, which makes domestic workers fearful to report crime to the police. Mohamed (2015:2) contends that unfavourable past encounters with the CJS may be the root of the fear of reporting crime. Furthermore, people's acclimatisation to the inefficiencies and unfairness of the legal system has led to a perception that criminals will escape punishment (Cooper-Knock & Owen, 2015:359). Additionally, in an effort to achieve the greatest conviction rate possible, the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) frequently overlooks cases that are challenging to prove. This leaves unresolved cases to be handled by "alternative dispute resolution mechanisms" (Gould, Mufamadi, Hsiao & Amisi, 2017:7). Hence, many South Africans, according to Fry (2017:18), believe that the police are corrupt. A survey conducted by the NVCS indicated that about 931 000 South African residents who do not trust the police citing corruption (Fry, 2017:19). On August 4, 2022, members of Kagiso community approached the Commission of Enquiry and made numerous submissions on issues pertaining to allegations of police inefficiency. Brooklyn people characterised the police as dishonest, lazy, and violent during crime awareness programmes (SAPS, 2021:1). They discussed the congestion in police stations, the overuse of force, the police's abuse of authority, and the disregard for criminal activity in the surrounding neighbourhoods (SAPS, 2021:1). The protest was triggered by the recent gang rape of eight women at a mine (Pretorius, 2022). Additionally, according to the presentation of SA crime statistics for the second quarter of 2023/2024, 48% of South Africans think that the SAPS is dishonest, incompetent (58%), underfunded (34%) and fails to react to crimes promptly (80%) (SAPS, 2023:1). These views illustrate how citizens perceive the police and these

perceptions are influenced by the media as discussed in section 3.6.1. However, Choi et al (2020:39) postulate that, based on the instrumental model, the attitude of citizens towards police officials is influenced by their overall performance in the fight against crime.



**Figure 3.3: A conceptual mediator model for crime-related media consumption and confidence in the police**

Source: Adapted from Choi et al (2020:41)

The assumption drawn from the arguments above is that a lack of confidence in the police automatically decreases if community members are consistently exposed to crime and, as a result, live in fear of being victimised. On the other hand, the expressive model believes that if community members feel threatened in their respective areas or neighbourhoods, they assume that there is a weak social contract in their neighbourhood because of poor or a lack of police visibility in a neighbourhood that affects the community members' confidence in the police. Both of these models emphasise the importance of unbiased information regarding what police work entails especially in these neighbourhoods (Choi et al, 2020:39). As a result, increased fear of crime in any community contributes to individuals perceiving that police fail to control crime and protect the citizens from criminals.

According to Choi et al (2020:40), it is the duty of the media to help law enforcement officers change the way the public views the police and to give them the confidence to cooperate in the fight against crime. Hence, the public has been asked repeatedly by the government and police to put an end to crime and to report any criminal activities to the authorities, but these warnings only serve to feed the fear and crime cycle. Thus, it is vital to look at how domestic workers are affected by crime anxiety in order to

comprehend the rise in crime-related incidents in Brooklyn.

### **3.6 Impact of fear of crime on victims**

Fear of crime has a significant consequence for individual victims of crime, their families, friends, and their communities (Wasserman & Ellis, 2010:6). While there are no consistent findings on the challenges of coping with the aftermath of crime, a victim's ability to cope with the impact of fear depends on a variety of factors (Wasserman & Ellis, 2010:6).

#### **3.6.1 Economic impact**

Along with the withdrawal from society, fear of crime has negative economic consequences for the victims (Haymaker, 2019:18). According to the author, it is difficult to predict the economic loss because of fear, but there are patterns observed by other researchers that give an idea of how fear of crime can impact the economy (Haymaker, 2019). The economic impacts of fear of crime are observed in business, the housing market, tourism, personal finances and in the government (Haymaker, 2019:19). Doran and Burgess (2012:16) argue that a fear of crime causes individuals to withdraw from society by not going shopping or not dining at restaurants and other commercial places that they deem unsafe. Business premises next to disorderly or incivilities will have fewer customers because this deters customers from visiting these areas (Doran & Burgess, 2012:16).

Furthermore, Pretorius and Fynn (2017:31) posit that a fear of crime negatively impacts the housing market because of residential mobility out of the neighbourhood and negative attitudes from potential home buyers. This is because, when residents avoid retail shops and avoid leaving their homes, many shops are forced to close. This, according to the author, allows more disorder to occur which increases crime as well as fear of crime and eventually causes people to move out of these areas (Haymaker, 2019:19). Affluent residents are forced to leave the area first which is an economic blow because their departure shows that less money is invested in the area, meaning less revenue for the remaining stores (Falkof, 2021:571).

With the loss of affluent people in the area, other residents will begin to relocate as



well (Haymaker, 2019:20). This has a negative impact on the housing market because people do not want to buy homes in areas with a high rate of criminal activity (Haymaker, 2019:20). Also, as more individuals in the neighbourhoods watch crime shows and see disorder occurring in their neighbourhoods, they become more fearful, and want to sell their homes. The negative impact of this is that they are willing to sell at a lower price to move from a crime ridden area (Haymaker 2019:19). This lowers the value of the other homes in the area which affects the housing market (Haymaker, 2019:19).

According to Cordner and Melekian (2010:3), security becomes a priority as a result of the fear of crime in communities but it is expensive. For instance, individuals who are fearful of crime will spend money on security such as outside lights for their homes, fences, guard dogs, home alarms, weapons and cameras (Cordner & Melekian, 2010). Grinshteyn (2013:31) adds that individuals who are fearful of housebreaking, thefts and house robberies will also invest in insurance policies.

However, while all these purchases may boost certain security industries economically, at the same time, they leave others with less funds at their disposal (Haymaker, 2019:20). Another individual loss is wage losses through extreme aversion after dark. According to Haymaker (2019:20), this is due to leaving work earlier in order to be home before dark. Not only are individual victims affected by fear of crime, also the government, as an institution, needs to ensure safety of its citizens (Cordner & Melekian, 2010:8).

### **3.6.2 Tourism market**

According to Perry and Potgieter (2013:103-104), tourism is a human activity that is sensitive and reacts rapidly to the fear of crime therefore providing security for tourism is necessary. Haymaker (2019:20) notes that the fear of crime does not only affect residents of the area where there is a crime problem, but also affects the tourist market. Moyo and Ziramba (2013:1) posit that if there is a fear of crime in the country, tourist revenues decrease. The researcher opines that individuals who were victims of crime in these areas will no longer want to visit these places.

Fear of crime affects how individual victims of crime and society think about crime; it

changes their perceptions of crime and the CJS, largely due to the overexposure of violent crimes shown on the small screen (Haymaker, 2019:16). Michael (2018:17) mentions that, along with the changes in thoughts about crime itself, there are many consequences of the fear of crime. According to the study, the first step in figuring out how civil societies, law enforcement, and the criminal justice system might help reduce the fear that individual domestic workers experience in their various working contexts is to understand the ramifications of that dread. They are the levels of crime, the economy, the physical state of the individuals and the mental state of the people (Haymaker, 2019:16).

### **3.6.3 Psychological impact**

Victims of fear of crime do not only lose their material possessions due to criminal acts but can also suffer significant psychological trauma (Moshugi, Personal Communication 2022 July 20). In addition to the physical effects, victims experience various psychological and social injuries that persist long after their physical wounds have been healed (Haymaker, 2019:23). The author mentioned further that individual victims of fear may seclude themselves at home (Haymaker, 2019). By interacting with human beings, social ties are kept strong and positive and neighbourhoods remain socially cohesive (Haymaker, 2019:23).

Grinshteyn (2013:27) concurs that victims of crime may become isolated from the community leading due to depression and anxiety particularly those in the top percentile. Along with these illness, victims of fear of crime other than secluding themselves, may experience a decreased cognitive functioning (Grinshteyn & Hemenway, 2019:27). Haymaker (2019:23) adds that individuals experience emotions such as anxiety, frustration and dread as a result of fear but there are also other consequences (Grinshteyn, 2013:30).

### **3.6.4 Material loss**

Economic losses suffered by victims of crime are staggering (Watt, 1996:40). Economic losses include property destruction as well as the sentimental value of any objects that were stolen (Watt, 1996:41). Wasserman and Ellis (2017:6) posit that some of the financial costs of fear of crime, such as property damages, replacement

of stolen or damaged items and therapy, are easy to identify. The researcher's opinion is that the poorer the victim of crime is, the more significant is the loss (Garofalo, 1981:3 cited in Haymaker, 2019:17). Contextual to this study is that domestic workers, in their state of poverty, felt their material losses even though the items robbed were of little value. Furthermore, all changes in security behaviour, such as fitting new locks, CCTV's etc. to secure a residence adds to the burden of the residents' owners (Grinshteyn, 2013:17).

### **3.6.5 Government institution and fear of crime**

Another institution that spends money on security programmes for its individuals is the government (Cordner & Melekian, 2010:8). According to Cordner and Melekian (2010), the government is obligated to ensure the safety of its individuals by alleviating many issues caused by fear. For instance, in Tshwane Municipality, the institution invested R120 million into CCTV surveillance systems at the Central Business District (CBD) and local residents in 2020/2021 (Integrated Development Planning (IDP)) to detect easily perpetrators of crimes. Besides installing security cameras, the government also incurs the cost of adding more police officers on the field to combat the fear of crime (Doran & Burgess, 2012:18). A large police presence in crime ridden areas will make the residents feel safe in their homes (Doran & Burgess, 2012:18). It is also the responsibility of the government to ensure the maintenance of all equipment installed and any programmes they have started (Doran & Burgess, 2012:18).

### **3.7 Victims and victims' typologies**

Victims of crime are individuals or groups upon whom suffering is inflicted through the illegal actions of criminals (Newburn, 2017:191). Domestic workers in SA and around the world are the victims of household crimes, namely, house robberies, housebreakings and thefts and other opportunistic crimes that may be committed such as rape. Various typologies of crime victims can be distinguished. They include direct victims who experience the consequences of crime at first hand, and indirect victims who share the suffering and loss although they are not directly harmed by or implicated in the crime situation (Newburn, 2017:191). In this view, domestic workers are fearful of crimes reported from Brooklyn residence. Newburn, (2017:191) classify them as

direct victims because their life, honour, body and property are affected in the crime situation.

### **3.7.1 Victims' typologies**

According to Newburn, (2017:192), Mendelsohn's typology classification of victims of crime is based on the concept of victim precipitation and is divided into three categories:

#### **The totally innocent victim**

According to the typology, victims of this nature are, from the offender's view, labelled as an ideal victim (Newburn, 2017:192). In his pioneering classical work, "The criminal and his victim", Newburn, (2017:192) mentions that this typology focuses on the victim's vulnerability and consists of 13 categories which can be roughly divided into two main dimensions:

Biological, demographic and social categories:

- The young;
- The female;
- The old;
- The mentally defective;
- The immigrants;
- The minorities; and
- The dull normal.

Newburn, (2017:192) posit that victims in the above categories are vulnerable as a result of their age, sex, mental disability or low social status. These categories are outlined and explained as follows:

- The ignorant victim or victim to whom little guilt may be ascribed; for instance, a pregnant woman who has an abortion and dies as a result.
- A victim who may be as guilty as the offender. In explaining this category of individuals, Mendelsohn mentions the following subgroups: suicide, suicide by consent, euthanasia and suicide committed by a couple.

- Victims who are more guilty than the offender, namely, the rash or the shameless victim who encourages other people to commit a crime and the provoker or the inciter being someone who incites the criminal to crime.
- Victims who bear most of all the guilt. Mendelsohn regards this type of victim as aggressive and may be killed by another in self-defence.

In addition to these categories, there is a special category of victims referred to as the quasi-victims. The quasi-victims are those individuals who pretend to be victims with the purpose of misleading the police and the law so that someone may be accused and sentenced. The author mentioned further that such victims may be “paranoiacs, hysterical, serial or even children”.

This study perceives victims and victims’ typologies as appropriate for understanding issues of fear of crimes on domestic workers employed in Brooklyn residences. The central premise of typologies of victims in the study was to review the existing typologies and point out their primary limitation, namely, their unidimensionality. Hence, the field of typologies of victims lacks a systematic conceptual framework. A study conducted by Martin-Howard (2022) found that, when a group of either two or three perpetrators enters into a residence to commit a crime, there is an increase of aggression in order to force the victim of robbery to let them do what they wish to do in the house. Regarding the biological, demographic and social categories of victim typologies, the categorisation of females, the young and the depressed (under psychological category) makes this victims’ typology more appropriate since the majority of the victims are females.

### **3.8 Application of the fear of crime to the study**

Despite the fact that every location has distinct qualities, the majority of studies do not establish a baseline for the level of fear of crime that is felt there. As a result, it is impossible to quantify changes in perception that result from built environment interventions (Navarrete-Hernandez, Luneke, Truffello & Fuentes, 2023:3). Haymaker (2019:2) argues that a study that seeks to determine the relationship between crime and the community is a suitable setting for the idea of fear of crime. These scholars claim that the main factor causing crime is economic class, which in turn motivates

fear of crime. In order to better understand the victims' vulnerabilities in contact and property-related crimes in the community of Brooklyn domestic workers, this study attempted to apply the idea of fear of crime.

The fear of crime concept mentioned that the empirical knowledge about the causes and consequences of fear has increased steadily (Grinshteyn, 2013). Notably, the concept is centred on what causes fear amongst the victims. The concept emphasises that being a victim of fear of crime, the victim should be characterised, by how we link fear of crime with potential physical harm. In this situation, the factors that contribute to the vulnerabilities of domestic workers at Brooklyn can be measured in terms of the impact, repercussions, and causes of fear of crime.

### **3.9 Summary**

The fear of crime is a multifaceted challenge that has caused a variety of negative effects on vulnerable individuals, such as the domestic workers in Brooklyn suburbs, the participants in this study. This fear developed from watching contact and property crime shows portrayed on small screen and other social networks. Furthermore, the fear amongst the individuals is exacerbated by consequences, impacts and the aftermath of crime fear reported to be on the increase in Brooklyn. The risk of violent contact crimes, such house robberies, and the likelihood that the domestic worker, as the primary victim at the scene, might incur injuries also is classified under the severe causes of fear of crime amongst the community under investigation. According to Grinshteyn (2013), Michael (2018), Haymaker (2019) and Bezuidenhout (2020), all these assumptions cause fear for the individuals therefore it is important for domestic workers to address the fear and know what causes it.

There are still ways that the CJS, policy makers and researchers can reduce the fear of crime in communities. Fear of crime comes from individuals' perceptions of crimes reported in the neighbourhood. These perceptions of victims are not aligned with the real risk that individuals experienced. To lower the fear of crime for domestic workers, society needs more than policies. The solution to the irrationality of fear is looking at the reason why individuals experience fear and finding a way to stop it (Haymaker, 2019:24). Programmes can be implemented to help victims who suffer from fear by discussing it, its causes and the reasons for fear. It is therefore, recommended that

victims of fear of crime should share their experiences with trained officials and stop watching crime shows (Haymaker, 2019:25).

The researcher concurs with the authors mentioned above that a single study to address fear of crime cannot adequately address the challenges facing domestic workers in Brooklyn suburbs. There is, therefore, a need for similar studies to fill the gap of research on the victims of crime within the South African discourse to reduce the fear of crime and its consequences without distorting reality and the risk of victimisation. It is for this reason that the next chapter of this study focuses on the legislative and regulatory framework of contact and property crimes.

## **CHAPTER 4**

# **LEGISLATIVE AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Notwithstanding the obvious differences in views over what aggravates fear in a community or which communities are mostly affected by fear, the majority of policy makers agree that “something should be done about it” (Farrall, Bannister, Ditton & Gilchrist, 2000:xxi). According to Farrall et al (2000:374), there are two existing conflicting explanations for citizens’ fear of crime. They include anxiety and “irrational reactions” to the changes brought about by urbanisation and migration. Fear of crime stems from racial and economic conflicts in developing and underdeveloped countries. Also, mass media shows that crime is viewed as a symptom of “the silent majority’s lashing back” (Ditton & Farrall, 2017:197). To date, issues surrounding the fear of crime lack adequate theoretical and tested measurements. When dealing with issues of crime and victimisation, one must follow certain legislation and policies. Contact and property crimes, and opportunistic crimes committed during these robberies, such as rape, house robbery, housebreaking and thefts are common law crimes that are regulated by the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996b) and other relevant statutory bodies. In this chapter, the Constitution (RSA, 1996b), Criminal Procedure Act (CPA), 51 of 1977 the criminal law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (No. 32 of 2007) and the Sexual Offences Amendment Act (SOAA) 2007 (commonly known as the DNA Act) are applied in this study.

### **4.2 Legislative framework applications**

Politicians take advantage of people’s fears and distance themselves from “liberal politics” by blaming each other for “being too soft on crime” (Madriz, 2023:7). Because of fear of crime, there has been a demand from citizens for laws that are tougher and policies that send a message to potential offenders. Policies and laws that are designed and implemented can safeguard the safety of citizens, promote environments that are safe and minimise the fear of being mugged, killed or raped (Madriz, 2023:7).



#### **4.2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996**

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (RSA, 1996b), makes provision for the basic rights of all individuals in the country. In this context, section 12 (c) of the Bill of Rights stipulates that everyone has the right to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources, whilst sub-section (d) stipulates that no person should be tortured. Within the context of this study, the crimes of contact and property crimes, namely, rape (as an opportunistic crime) during housebreakings and thefts and house robbery, contradict the basic human rights of domestic workers as victims. Section 1.2, the problem statement, describes how domestic workers as victims are subjected to economic and sexual violations for material possessions such as money, electronic goods and jewellery in the Brooklyn policing precincts of Tshwane District in the Gauteng Province of South Africa.

#### **4.2.2 The Criminal Procedure Act (No.51 of 1977)**

The mandate of the Criminal Procedure Act (CPA), 1977 is to provide the procedures and related matters in criminal proceedings. Crimes of housebreakings and thefts, house robberies and rapes are mentioned in the prescriptions of the rights to institute prosecution. Sections 18(c) and (f) of the Criminal Procedure Act provide that perpetrators of housebreakings, house robberies and rapes should be prosecuted. For instance, during the commission of house robberies, housebreakings and rape, aggravating circumstances include perpetrators who use weapons to scare domestic workers into leading them to valuable items in the workplace. In terms of rape, and compelled rape, as contemplated in sections 3 and 4 of the Sexual Offences and Related Matters, Amendment Act, No.32 of 2007 (Sexual Offences Amendment Act [SOAA]) respectively, perpetrators are liable for rape should there be sexual penetration without the victim's consent. The CPA, 1977 postulates that, for a person to be convicted of any crime, it should be proven beyond the reasonable doubt that such actions qualify as crimes.

In Chapter 2 of the competent verdict, Section 260 of the CPA Act, 1977 it is stipulated that the offender is charged and found guilty of any crime that has been proven beyond a reasonable doubt if the evidence supporting a charge of robbery and attempted robbery does not prove the robbery offence and its attempts, such as the offence of

assault GBH or Assault Common, pointing of a firearm, air gun, or pistol in violation of any law.

In addition, if there is a lack of evidence for rape, namely, consent from the victim mentioned previously under the CPA, 1977, the crime may qualify as assault with intent to do Grievous Bodily Harm (GBH), common assault, sexual assault, compelled sexual assault as mentioned in:

#### **4.2.3 Section 6 of the SOAA, 2007**

Compelled self-sexual assault as contemplated in Section 7 of the SOAA, 2007.

The Criminal Procedure Act, 1977, is a fundamental statutory body that provides for the prosecution of the crimes of housebreakings and thefts, robberies in residences and rape. The CPA, 1977 acts as a guideline to bring justice for the victims of these crimes, in this study, domestic workers. In section 1.2, the research problem, the researcher highlights how domestic workers, as part of the broader communities in South Africa, are vulnerable to crimes. Therefore, this legislation is included in the study to highlight its relation to the crimes of housebreaking and thefts and house robbery as well as rape.

#### **4.2.4 Criminal Law (Sexual Offences Act and Related Matters) Act (no. 32 of 2007)**

South Africa's legal definition of rape is very broad. It involves oral, and/or vaginal penetration of a person (male, female) with an object (SOAA, 2007). According to Section 3(1) of the Act, "A man commits an offence of rape if he has sexual intercourse with a woman without the woman's consent and knowing that the woman does not consent to sexual intercourse or recklessly not caring whether the woman consents or not". According to the SOAA, 2007, an individual, who is an offender, commits the offence of sexual assault upon the victim where the offender penetrates the vagina and anus of the victim. Moreover, if the offender may cause another person to penetrate the vagina of the victim by any part other than the penis of that person, it is called a compelled rape, and as such, is a punishable offence. Furthermore, rape occurs when perpetrators place a penis into the mouth of the victim and when another

person places his or her mouth onto the vagina, vulva and penis. However, the above sections do not apply to penetration that is carried out in the context of a search that is authorised by law for approved medical purposes, for instance, when a rape victim is examined by a medical doctor.

In addition, the circumstances of these acts mentioned above, should be carried out without the victims' (in these contexts, domestic workers) consent, knowing that the victims' do not consent to the acts of rape or recklessly not caring whether the victim consents or not or is carried out upon a victim under the age of 16 years. For the study purpose, and of this Act (SOAA, 2007), consent shall not be treated as concrete and valuable in circumstances where it was forced and extracted by physical assault, victim's fear of physical assault, being shot and killed or obtained by fraudulent misinterpretation of the identity of the offender. The Criminal Procedure Act (CPA), 51 of 1977 (Cross, 2020:103) provides that elements of crime, such as intention, unlawfulness, and criminal conduct, must be proven beyond reasonable doubt for the successful prosecution of rape, house robbery as well as housebreaking and thefts.

### **Absence of consent**

It applies to sexual penetration or the appropriation of items without the victim's consent. In this context, the domestic worker is forced and coerced into the sexual act or valuable items are taken from the residence without consent.

### **Unlawfulness**

Rape is a sexual crime that is against the law, so is residence robbery and housebreaking and thefts. Therefore, any unlawful act either of sexual penetration or of appropriation of items, is punishable by the law and the perpetrators in this context will be convicted of the crimes of rape, burglary or house robbery.

### **Intention**

Intention refers to the perpetrator's intent to commit the crimes of rape, housebreakings or thefts. Therefore, these elements need to be proven beyond a reasonable doubt for the successful prosecution of the crimes under investigation or scrutiny. In addition, the sexual offences act, as prescribed by the SOAA, 2007, the

criminal law (forensic procedures) and the Criminal Procedure Act, 51 of 1977, provides guidelines for the prosecution of rape, robbery, housebreaking, thefts and other related matters. In this context, these crimes, as highlighted in the research problem section in Chapter 1, must be proven beyond a reasonable doubt. For instance, if the victims do not consent to the rape, robbery, housebreaking or theft, these acts are therefore regarded as forced or coerced. The CJS in South Africa makes provision for contact and property crimes to be reported to the police (SAPS, 2022:3), investigated section 205(3) of the Constitution, 1996 (RSA, 1996b), prosecuted and convicted to protect the right of the victims (domestic workers).

#### **4.2.5 The provisions of the penalties under contact and property crimes**

Cross (2020:23) posits that the court must take into account many elements, including the accused person's circumstances at the time of the alleged offence, before inflicting a sentence. In this regard, Section 64 of the SOAA, 2007 stipulates the penalties for a person who commits the offence of rape. In terms of the provision, the person found guilty of rape is liable to conviction of imprisonment for life or any other sentence that is not less than 15 years (Cross, 2020:186). Furthermore, the Criminal Law Amendment Act imposes a mandatory minimum sentence of 15 years of imprisonment for a first-time offender convicted of robbery with aggravated circumstances, unless the court is satisfied that substantial and compelling circumstances exist which justify the imposition of a lesser sentence (Criminal Law Amendment Act, 105 of 1997 as last amended 2008).

The researcher opines that some of the sanctions are not sufficient to deter perpetrators of rape and robberies with aggravated circumstances in South African homes effectively and efficiently. Within this context, rape and armed robberies in residences are crimes of power and control and there should be harsh penalties such as life imprisonment without parole. This is because of the long-term consequences of rape and robbery for domestic workers. Overall, offenders of these crimes weigh the rewards of the crimes against the consequences or penalties and regard the rewards as favourable and exceed the punishment they are likely to receive for the crime. Hence, the researcher concurs with Cross (2020:186) that the sentence should therefore, fit the crime committed.

#### **4.2.6 The Criminal Law (Forensic Procedures) Amendment Act (No. 37 of 2013) referred to as the DNA Act)**

The DNA Act, 2013, approved into law on 27 January 2014, established provision for the use of Forensic Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA) profiles in the investigation of contact and property crimes. The focal point of the forensic profiles within the CJS is to confirm whether a suspect has committed a crime or should be cleared from such allegations. The schedule of the DNA Act lists the offences for which DNA samples can be taken. In this study, the researcher focused on rape, housebreaking and theft as well as house robberies where domestic workers are victims.

According to the DNA Act, 2013, DNA refers to chemicals found in every cell in the human body. This chemical can be described as a generic carrier from one generation to the other. Just like human fingerprints, every human being has a unique DNA signature that does not change throughout one's life (DNA Act, 2013). In terms of crime scenes, fingerprints are lifted and detected when a person comes into contact with an appropriate surface with bare hands. Additionally, DNA can be obtained from hair and skin cells, blood, bone fragments, teeth and body fluids, such as sweat, found at crime scenes. To do this, police confiscate suspects' clothes, gloves etc. left at the crime scene for testing. DNA profiles are a unique set of numbers that act as a personal identification number. If fingerprints are unavailable, DNA profiling can identify an individual who was present at the crime scene (DNA Act, 2013). Furthermore, DNA is used in the investigation of crimes of contact (rape) and property (housebreaking and thefts) and trio crime house robberies in Brooklyn suburbs. In addition, DNA profiling is utilised globally to provide tangible evidence to convict criminals. Also, forensic scientists can re-examine old cases that lacked sufficient evidence for prosecutions (DNA Act, 2013) by using scene samples and evidence that is stored.

DNA has allowed the CJS to resolve cases and either prosecute or exonerate suspects. Similarly, DNA evidence can supply valuable information to the criminal intelligence division within the SAPS as evidence from a crime scene. This can also be compared with other crime scenes nationally (DNA Act, 2013).

#### **4.2.7 The application of the DNA profiles in the study**

DNA profiles can be used to identify perpetrators of contact and property crimes if they match evidence found at the crime scenes (in this context, Brooklyn residences). They can also exclude suspects by demonstrating that individuals were not involved in a crime scene or crime. DNA profiles can also be used at several crime scenes to link perpetrators to multiple crimes. This can be effective in both pro-active and re-active policing for solving present, past and future crimes. Within this context, the utilisation of DNA profiles addresses the study objective number 3 in section 1.3, namely,

“To propose measures that domestic workers, the SAPS and the judiciary can implement to minimise the fear of contact and property crimes in their working environments”.

DNA can also be used to identify perpetrators who commit several crimes to prevent continuous transgressions. In this way, a pattern is established that can be linked to multiple crime scenes of house robberies, housebreaking, thefts and rapes. DNA profiles assist the CJS in plea bargaining when suspects of contact and property crimes plead guilty when confronted with evidence of their DNA link to the crime. They also can exonerate suspects who have been wrongly accused of crimes.

The DNA Act of 2013 can identify the fingerprints of perpetrators of the crimes, and for analysing the medical examination of rape victims. If perpetrators were wearing gloves, evidence can be generated from the hairs found at the crime scenes. Zinn (2017:107) maintains that perpetrators spend time at a crime scene in targeted houses, and therefore, the DNA they leave can identify and convict them.

#### **4.3 Summary**

The focus of this chapter is on the application of the legislative and regulatory frameworks within the context of contact and property crimes at Brooklyn policing precinct of Tshwane District in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. The Constitution (RSA, 1996b); CPA, 1977; SOAA, 2007; DNA, 2013 and the SAPS National Instruction 2 of 2012 on Victim Empowerment were explained in relation to the commission of crimes. Additionally, the charter for the victims of crime in South Africa and the

minimum standards for services to victims of crime to promote their rights in compliance with South Africa's obligations under various international and regional human treaties were explained as they play a role in the service charter on domestic workers. In this study, DNA profiles were also highlighted to explain the identification of criminal behaviour of potential perpetrators of these crimes.

The criminal behaviour of contact and property crime victims was explained to be a result of limited socialisation opportunities, power inequality and control. The researcher's illustration and incorporation of these legal frameworks thus contribute extensively to an analysis of the occurrence of the crimes. The next chapter is based on the nature and extent of contact and property crimes in South Africa and Brooklyn.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **AN OVERVIEW OF THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN SOUTH AFRICA**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the scope of contact and property crimes against South African domestic workers is explored. The discussion elaborates on how domestic workers, as victims of these crimes, suffer both direct and indirect injuries (vicarious victimisation) as a result of household crimes that persist even long after their physical wounds have healed. In contextualising the extent of crimes in relation to the study, the researcher applied related literature, theories, relevant journals, and findings that revealed that domestic workers are fearful of perpetrators of crimes at their workplaces in Brooklyn suburbs. Furthermore, the findings also revealed their vulnerabilities, accessibilities and victimisation.

An exploration of their perceptions of fear of crimes revealed that, as a result of fear, domestic workers remain indoors, trust between themselves and their employers is impacted, and that a feasible plan or measures to reduce their fears must be implemented with the local police station of Brooklyn. The following discussion focuses on the nature and extent of contact and property crimes, namely, housebreaking and thefts, house robberies and rape of domestic workers as opportunistic crimes. Based on the SAPS 2019/20 to 2021/22 crime statistics, contact and property crimes, namely, house robberies, housebreaking and thefts as well as rapes, account for the highest number of national crime incidents (SAPS, 2023:135). There were 63 832 house robberies (an increase of 6,3%), 521 850 housebreakings and thefts (an increase of 5,2%), and 120 356 rapes (as opportunistic crimes) (an increase of 14,9%) (SAPS, 2023:135). When the three categories of crimes, are compared to each other, the highest number of incidents were reported in 2021/22 (SAPS, 2023:135).

The next section unpacks the nature and extent of each crime category over the three-year period of 2020 to 2022 in more detail at Brooklyn policing precinct. The crime categories were taken from the 2021/2022 annual SAPS crime statistics. Also, during the investigation at Brooklyn SAPS, the researcher discovered that 83% of the crime categories were committed against domestic workers and 17% were reported by



residence owners and students from the nearby University of Pretoria (UP).

### **5.1.1 Nature and extent of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn suburbs**

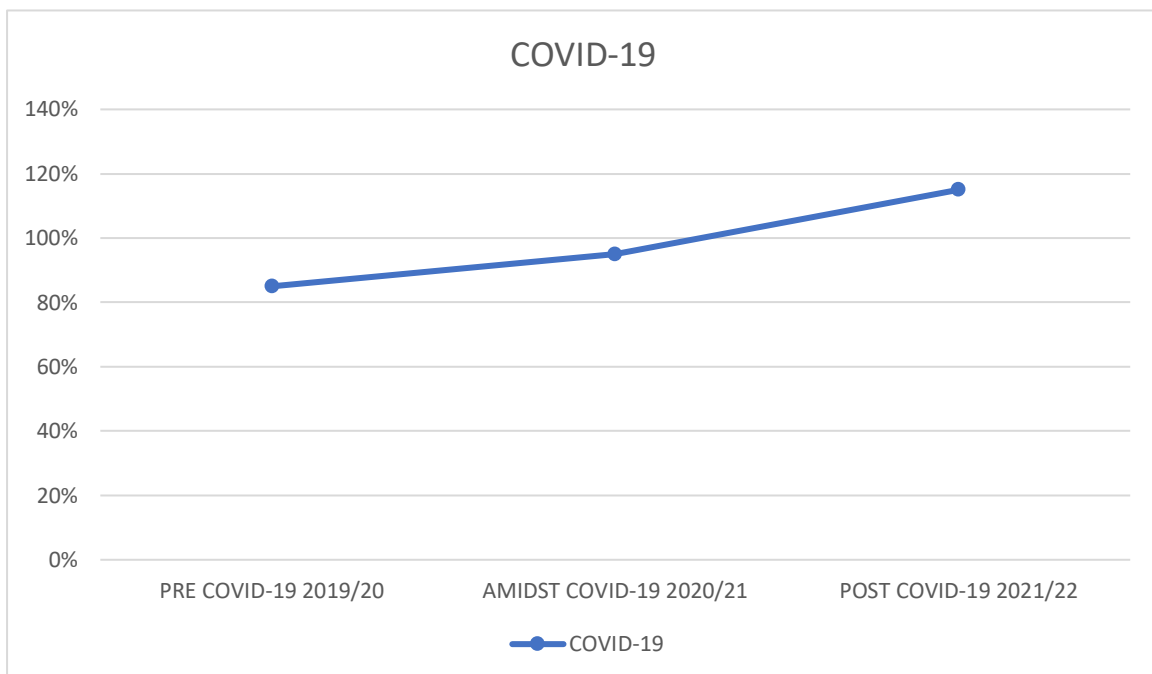
Based on the overall crime statistics provided by the SAPS, as depicted in Chart 1 in the discussion below, house robbery or house invasions (as the SAPS classify the incidents from normal robberies), for the periods 2019/2022 in the Brooklyn policing regions have shown an increase from 2019/2022 to 2021/2022 (SAPS, 2023:136). House robbery, as described by Bezuidenhout (2020:223) and Zinn (2017:17) refers to a situation where perpetrators overpower, detain and rob the occupants of residential premises. In this study, the researcher asserts that house robbery is the unlawful entering into a household with the intention to rob and victimise a domestic worker who is either inside or outside the house performing household duties. Since it is even carried out in front of them, it requires meticulous planning of the domestic worker's and her employer's regular activities. In this context, perpetrators of these crimes can be profiled as individuals who are motivated by financial gain because Brooklyn suburbs are perceived to be an affluent area. From the researcher's view, it is a use of force that result in the commission of other opportunistic crimes of rape and assault that are discussed in this study.

In this study, 16 of the research participants were domestic workers and victims of house robberies at the time of collecting data. Some of the research participants were accosted with aggression and threatened with weapon, such as knives, firearms (mostly), pickheads and crow bars, to scare them into submission to eliminate fighting back. Also, access to the Brooklyn residences were in two forms, either by forcing the domestic worker into the house, or the domestic worker unknowingly allowing the perpetrators inside. For instance, DMW 001 articulated as follows:

*“This people, they rang the bell and when I respond, they say we are from the city of Tshwane Municipality, we want to check if loadshedding did not damage the appliances. Hearing that, I allowed them in, indeed they were wearing the municipal uniform, with a stickers all over the bakkie. When the gate closed, one black guy just close his face and the other three do the same, they push me into the house, they tied me with cable ties and laid*

*me on the floor and started ransacking the house”.*

From the researcher’s observations and experience attained in his 34 years as a police officer, Brooklyn houses that are mostly targeted are those that are attractive to the perpetrators and make the robbery most rewarding. In addition, the SAPS last quarter crime report of Brooklyn indicates that house robbery crimes for 2019/20 and 2021/22 increased, despite the fact that the country was placed on National COVID-19 lockdown (SAPS, 2023:143). According to chart 3 (refer to section 5.5), the number of house robbery incidents reported during this period escalated from 85 incidents to 115 (an increase of 29%) (SAPS, 2023:143). The researcher opines that house robberies increased because many house owners went elsewhere for quarantine and perpetrators saw it as an opportunity for criminal behaviour. Moreover, the SAPS (2023:144) indicates that incidents of this nature in 2022 contributed 29.2% of the overall number of the trio crimes in the Gauteng Province. These statistics are not a true reflection of the state of crime in South Africa as they do not include the dark figure base of the social constructionists as discussed under literature review (see section 1.6).



**Figure 5.1: Nature and extent of house robberies in Brooklyn (2019/20-2021/22)**

Source: SAPS (2023)

Regarding house robbery crimes, the researcher concurs with SAPS (2023:1) and Lekgau (2022:3) that, despite the fact that houses are intended to be secure havens, domestic workers no longer view Brooklyn homes as safe spaces. All participants expressed their feeling of fear of being unsafe at their workplaces:

Participant DMW 009 mentioned:

*“I remember the other one, tall with a baritone voice, took me that horrible day, after they decided not to rape me. The other one took out a red condom from his side pocket, when he started opening, the other one said, ‘don’t do that jong, this people from Zimbabwe are witches you would be useless at your wife, don’t do that, let’s waai’. I imagine, he raped me, maybe I would be HIV now (victim cried bitterly). South Africa is not safe. I was manhandled and he inappropriately touched me. You see those guys there (victim point at street beggars) when they don’t get piece job, they come here, we kitchen girls (referring to domestic workers), we are not safe here in this country, we must be armed, trained to fight back you know.”*

Ohmer, Coulton, Freedman, Sobek and Booth (2019:20) maintain that strategies to promote community safety and prevent violence must focus on community building and organising with the goal of increasing community engagement. These connections may result in increased collective efficacy and decreased fear among residents, with the ultimate goal of reducing crime (Ohmer et al, 2019:20). Similarly, Ohmer et al (2019:20) concur with Govender (2018:58) that contact and property violence crimes experienced at residences have dire consequence as they affect homeowners’ as well as domestic workers’ sense of safety.

The quotations above highlight feelings of helplessness and vulnerability by domestic workers who were attacked at their working places. The researcher asserts that this is attributed to the fact that house robberies or residential robberies are committed while domestic workers are present in the house. Thus, perpetrators of these crimes commit them between 16:00 and 19:00 when everyone is in the house (in this instance, domestic workers and their employers, for instance, participants DMW 003, 007, and 009, were attacked while children were present). The domestic workers were tied with cable ties and locked together with the children in a room.

Cross (2020:112) notes that this form of robbery causes more trauma for the victims than other types of criminal activities. The commission of these crime in Brooklyn is a violation of human rights as Chapter two (2) of the Bill of Rights of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 stipulates that individuals must be free from all forms of violence either public or private and are not to be tortured in any way. The findings of this study reveal that domestic workers are subjected to various form of violence, and this is against their human rights. Lindegaard, Bernasco, and Jacques (2015:7) highlight that robbers always apply force against resistant victims to motivate them to hand over the items and avoid being hurt or murdered. This is illustrated by Participant DMW 008:

*“The one who push me into the house and I fell and told me: ‘you comply with our mandate or else, you face death’. By this time, he was holding and putting the gun in my head, and I could feel it that it’s a real gun because it was heavy, Eish! I was breathing very high, sweating at the same time and trembling. That moment was horrible I tell you.”*

Participant DMW 008’s experience is confirmed by Lindegaard et al (2015:142) who disclose that violence is either displayed in the onset or progressively, and this is dependent on the victim’s compliance or non-compliance. Bezuidenhout (2020:298) attests that the application of violence in house robberies is a response to the situational interaction of the resistance of the victim at the scene of robbery. For instance, domestic workers who are reluctant to comply with the perpetrators’ demands are more likely to be assaulted or, in some circumstances, murdered. The next discussion focuses on the profile of house robbery perpetrators in the South African context.

## **5.2 The profile of a house robbery perpetrator**

A study conducted by Lekgau (2022:18) revealed that a house robbery perpetrator is a male (very few are females), of an average age who has committed more than 100 similar offences over seven years before convictions. Similarly, Zinn (2017:13) posits that the individual perpetrator must display a form of aggression and be willing to apply a lethal weapon against his victims. All 16 domestic workers narrated that their

perpetrators were either in possession of a firearm, a pickhead or a crowbar either to scare the victim or to fight back should there be a need. According to Zinn (2017:14) and Lekgau (2022:19), most of the offenders of house robberies were found to be from dysfunctional families, for instance, child-headed families. This implies that they commit these robberies to survive.

According to Zinn (2017:14), perpetrators of house robberies usually spend between 30 minutes and one hour in the victim's house. This gives perpetrators enough opportunity and time to use violence to get valuable items and to commit opportunistic crimes of rape, murder and attempted murder (Zinn, 2017:14), Participant DMW 013 narrated:

*“Hardly 45 minutes; it was enough; they were finish with their job, when the Brooklyn police came, they found the sitting room being house to let, nothing, nothing was left.”*

The researcher then asked:

*“Should police have come earlier than that? Do you think they would have apprehended them?”*

Participant DMW 013 answered:

*“Yes, of course.”*

According to Lekgau (2022:18), “[v]iolence and torture are usually targeted on females to scare them”. In some instances, this study found that domestic workers were raped and sexually abused as a result of a delay in police responses to the crime scene. Hence, one of the objectives of this study was to propose measures that domestic workers think the Brooklyn police can implement to minimise the fear of contact and property crimes. In addition, Lab (2020:94) developed a three step decision making method used by perpetrators to analyse successful robberies, housebreakings and thefts. The first one is to ensure surveillance, in which perpetrators will examine whether there are capable guardians. This was suggested by Participant DMW006:

*“This people at that crossroad (she pointed at the street beggars), who are*

*looking for piece job, when they don't find one, they turn to us in the residence, and because they always see us alone, they use that opportunity to rob us, you know."*

The narrative above is reinforced by a study conducted by Zinn (2017:15), in South African urban homes that found that 29 offenders spent time waiting at the targeted place as a way of keeping surveillance of the targeted house. According to Zinn (2017:15), the surveillance ranges from one hour up to a week.

The perpetrator's second assessment of the targeted house is the occupancy to detect the presence of occupants or competent guardian. The primary guardians are typically the residents (Lab, 2020:94-95) (in this context, domestic workers) and legitimate users and protectors of the area (such as the Brooklyn SAPS, residents, private security companies, neighbourhood watches etc). Thirdly, the perpetrators measure the ease of entry to the targeted house. Regardless of whether the amount of effort and abilities required, due to the presence or lack of locks, guard dogs and security systems, the perpetrators of house robberies target residences that have fewer security features and lack of proper guardianship (Lab, 2020:95). In order to access the house where the domestic worker is employed, criminologically, perpetrators of crime apply a certain modus operandi.

### **5.3 Modus operandi of a house robber (perpetrator)**

Zinn's (2019:17) investigation on South African robbers arrested at residential premises found the following plans: (1) the decision to conduct the crime; (2) the decision is usually made away from the crime scene owing to specific motivational factors; and (3) it is usually followed by a specific pattern (e.g., motivating factor, need for money).

Storey (2020:493) states that perpetrators of crime in the United States are interested in the cues (actions that signal something) to alert them whether the house is accessible, for instance, the occupancy and its security. The last aspect is that the perpetrator will show careful consideration of a specific method when selecting a targeted house and an individual (Storey, 2020:494). Storey (2020:494) concurs with Lekgau (2022:19-20) that the variables showing the vulnerability of a potential victim

include: being a woman, the victim's age, and the need to have money. Storey (2020:495) also mentions that, to understand the modus operandi (MO) of a house robber, the following elements should be the "actus reus" of a robbery:

- Attacked property type: House.
- Entry point: Front, side or rear of the house, door, window etc.
- Means of attack: Tool, force must be used to steal. In this study, pickheads were used to pull up the remote gates from the rails while firearms, knives and force-full behaviour were used to scare the victims.
- Date, time and day of the week of attacked property.
- Object of attack: Anything that was available or a selection of items.
- Trademark: Assaulted victim, raped, nuisance, looking for work, moving van, truck, or vehicle utilised by the City of Tshwane Municipality.

In order to evade being apprehended by Brooklyn law enforcement, the researcher contend that, offenders used a highly planned and calculating method of operation when committing the house robbery. For instance, perpetrators of house robbery came to the scene driving a white Nissan Bakkie with the banners of the City of Tshwane on the side. The driver and its passengers were all wearing City of Tshwane work suits. After they were let into the yard, the robbery was executed. Additional modus operandi included the use of substances during the commission of house robbery (Falkoff, 2022:115). According to Pretorius and Fynn (2017:1), approximately 65% of perpetrators of contact and property crimes in South African households are intoxicated either with drugs, or nyaope when committing property crimes.

#### **5.4 Housebreaking and thefts in South Africa**

Housebreaking and thefts or residential burglary is characterised by the SAPS as a property crime which incorporates the robbery of valuable items from a residence (Mpofu, 2019:6-7). According to Storey (2020:501), housebreaking and thefts comprise the unlawful breaking and entering of a building or structure with a plan to perpetrate a crime in it. In this context, the SAPS Annual Crime Statistics 2021/22 report that housebreaking and thefts increased from 159 907 to 206 129, a difference of 46 222 (a 22.91% increase) (SAPS, 2023:213). Total number of housebreaking and

thefts' complaints incomplete in the same years decreased from 47 867 to 47 344, a decrease of 563 (1.09%) (SAPS, 2023:213). Total complaints in court decreased from 24 749 to 24 474, a decrease of 275 (1.11%) (SAPS, 2023:213). Conviction rates decreased from 93,22% to 90.17%, a difference of -3.06% (SAPS, 2023:213). In Gauteng, the SAPS annual crime reports 2021/22 showed that incidents of housebreaking and thefts in 2020/21 increased from 18 219 to 19 469, a difference of 1246 (6.8%) (SAPS, 2023:142). According to Brigadier Chakalane (Gauteng SAPS Crime Analytic), Brooklyn contributed 2.4% of housebreaking and thefts nationally. Similarly, Mpofu (2019:34) posits that housebreaking and thefts or burglaries in residences are committed during the day, unlike house robberies which are committed in the afternoon from 15:45 when everybody is known to be home (Lekgau 2022:34). Contextually, the researcher attests that domestic workers are accosted at this time and are victimised in the process. Furthermore, the researcher concurs with Lab (2020:18) that fear of crime presents a view of criminal victimisation and forms the basis of daily activities and anxieties.

**National contact and property crime categories 2019/20, 2020/21 and 2021/22 (SAPS, 2023:134-135)**

**CHART 1: ROBBERIES AT RESIDENCE** (Source: SAPS, 2023:135)

2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	Count different	% Change
42 289	36 330	41 739	5 409	14.9%

**CHART 2: RAPE CASES** (Source: SAPS, 2023:135)

2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	Count different	% Change
21 130	20 870	21 832	962	4.6%

**CHART 3: ROBBERIES AT RESIDENCE** (Source: SAPS, 2023:135)

2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	Count different	% Change
205 959	159 721	156 170	-3 551	-2.2%



**CHART 4: HOUSEBREAKING AND THEFTS** (Source: SAPS, 2023:135)

2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	Count different	% Change
8 509	7 525	8 675	1 150	15.3%

**CHART 5: RAPE CASES** (Source: SAPS, 2023:144)

2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	Count different	% Change
48 980	33 815	34 363	548	1.6%

**CHART 6: HOUSEBREAKING AND THEFTS** (Source: SAPS, 2023:142)

CASES	2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	Count different	% Change
Rape	10	12	15	5	+3.8%
House Robberies	85	96	89	115	+29%
Housebreaking and Thefts	684	580	497	456	-8.2%

**CHART 7: BROOKLYN SAPS: Source: SAPS (2023:1)**

The researcher maintains that housebreaking is entering unlawfully into a household with the intent to commit theft while the occupants or the domestic worker of the house is thought to be not available. This, according to Mpofu (2019:17), involves thorough planning of the routine activities of the victim as the crime is committed only when the owners are not available. Based on the current study, perpetrators are profiled as individuals motivated by financial gain as in many incidences and affluent households are targeted. From this analysis, it can be presumed that housebreaking and theft is a planned and calculative criminal act as the perpetrators study the routine of the domestic workers.

#### 5.4.1 Causes of housebreaking and thefts in South Africa

Just as the macro level of socio-economic and political transitions to democracy are

shaped and influenced by South Africa's unique history, it also plays a prominent role in the growing numbers of property crimes in South Africa (Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation [CSV], 2021:153). Bezuidenhout (2020:128) mentions that the proliferation of crime in the country is sustained by practices that sustain criminal behaviour, namely, that criminals are accepted by communities that condone their illegal practices such as buying stolen goods and corruption by law enforcement.

Another cause of housebreaking and thefts in South Africa is poverty-stricken neighbourhoods and townships in South Africa where the youth are socialised into a culture of crime and violence (Mpofu, 2019:14). This results in association with, and acceptance of individuals involved in criminal activities and consequently, criminal behaviour is not challenged (Mpofu, 2019:14). Bezuidenhout (2020:223) contends that another reason for the reluctance to object to the perpetrator's offending behaviour is the market for stolen goods in South Africa which is rife. Bezuidenhout (2020:223) explains that individuals develop a reciprocal relationship with those involved in crime, especially property crimes, because it is a source of quick cash. Offenders are reluctant to keep stolen goods in their possession and therefore sell them for a living (Bezuidenhout, 2020:223).

According to the CSV (2021:164), political transformation in South Africa is associated with a complex range of cultural shifts that have weakened older concepts and systems of authority and have also fostered a concept of South Africa's individuals as free and autonomous. The transformation has therefore, promoted the lifestyle of individualism that is sanctioned by the Western World over the collectivism exercised by older and more traditional African cultures that encourages the selfless principle of acting for the good of the community (CSV, 2021:165). The result is that societies adopt an attitude of "each for his or her own", which is a philosophy that contributes to a growing reluctance to consider the personal wellbeing of others which, according to Ohmer et al (2019:20), discourages a system of promoting community safety and preventing violent crime.

Since the abolition of apartheid in South Africa, cities like Pretoria have experienced a high influx of immigrants, labourers, and citizens seeking work opportunities (Mpofu, 2019:15). The researcher concurs with Mpofu (2019:15) that communities, as a result

of economic strain, especially in previously black townships, have become dysfunctional with high incidences of inconsistent or uncaring parenting, neglect and other forms of abuse. Many families are headed by underaged children lacking parental care and guidance (Mpofu, 2019:15) who may be involved in criminal activities.

Mpofu (2019:15) asserts that the inequality in South African society reinforces the gaps between South Africans. Previously disadvantaged South Africans from the “townships” regard affluent suburbs like Brooklyn as areas where house robberies can be committed for monetary gain. House robberies and burglaries in residences leave South Africans in fear that criminals will injure or murder for their belongings with no concern for the consequences of their actions. Property crimes, such as housebreaking and thefts, as well as house robberies, are mostly driven by the desire for money on the side of South Africans who are unemployed and, for example, have families living in poverty, Lekgau (2022:34).

### **5.5 Nature of housebreaking and thefts and house robberies in South Africa**

According to Cross (2020:107-108), perpetrators of property crimes consider Brooklyn an attractive area for criminal activity. Mpofu (2019:16) adds that perpetrators consider the accessibility of an area, the physical infrastructure and the distance they have to travel to reach it.

According to Cross (2020:107), a house robbery is when armed individuals enter a private residence by force while the people who live in it or work there are present. In this study, they are domestic workers. The perpetrators of the crime target valuable items such as jewellery, laptops, DVD players and firearms. Zinn (2017:16) posits that perpetrators of violent crimes have typically progressed from petty offences to house robberies. Mpofu (2019:16) believes that perpetrators of these types of crimes are familiar with the exit and the entrance routes of the areas. According to the latest SAPS quarterly crime report of Gauteng Province for 2022/23 presented by the Provincial Commissioner, Lieutenant General Mawela, suburban areas in the Gauteng Province account for 40% of all residential robberies in the country with Brooklyn contributing 27% (SAPS, 2023:1).

The following discussion focuses on the modus operandi of perpetrators of property crimes.

### **5.6 Modus operandi (MO)**

The most common modus operandi of house robberies in South Africa is breaking into the homes while the residents or residents' owners are inside. According to Lekgau (2022:13), perpetrators of these crimes know that residents have turned off their alarm and are relaxed, and doors and windows are open. However, domestic workers reported that they stay indoors with windows, doors and main gates locked and alarms set due to fear of being attacked. Domestic workers reported that offenders target homes they are familiar with. The researcher suggests that the offenders observe the property to obtain this knowledge, or they establish connections with former employees or contractors who had worked in the house. The main goal of the criminals is to rob, steal, and flee the homes as quickly as possible, leaving their victims mainly uninjured and tied up with cable ties in some cases, or locked in cabinets, rooms, or on the ground.

Mpofu (2019:19) and Lekgau (2022:14) reveal that a significant proportion of residential robberies are the works of criminal syndicates. This is attested by the fact that perpetrators of property crime may immediately transport the stolen items to a receiver who will exchange the stolen items or goods for cash. Thereafter, a network of syndicates will then be responsible for the storage, repacking, transporting and re-selling the items stolen or robbed as new or second-hand goods and laundering the money received. However, a proportion of the stolen items is transported to other provinces like Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) or across the borders like Zimbabwe, Malawi, Mozambique, Lesotho and Namibia (Irish, 2005:1).

### **5.7 Targeted locations**

In terms of location, housebreaking and thefts in South Africa are mostly committed and reported in middle class and affluent areas compared to poor areas and black townships where violent contact crimes are mostly prevalent (Bezuidenhout, 2020:227). Zinn (2017:14) agrees that the affluent are mostly vulnerable to property crimes of housebreaking and thefts compared to lower class communities in the

townships that are more susceptible to contact crimes like rape. This does not mean that the marginalised are not victims of crime but the affluent residences provide more valuable items. Mpofu (2019:17) and Lekgau (2022:16) posit that residences that are located near busy streets and are easily accessible and quick to escape from are targets of crime. Mpofu (2019:17) also maintains that perpetrators are reluctant to penetrate areas they are unfamiliar with. Finally, this empirical study also discovered that neighbourhood access attracts housebreakings and thefts. Mpofu (2013:1) revealed that professional burglars use various forms of transporting items stolen, housebreakers typically chose neighbourhoods and targets that they are familiar with hence participants in this study indicated that most of the perpetrators in this study spoke South African languages.

### **5.8 Ineffective policing**

The literature and the findings of this study reveal that the causes of high rates of contact and property crimes in South Africa are attributed to the ineffectiveness and the inefficiency of the SAPS Detective Services (Zinn, 2019:3). Literature confirms that the SAPS detectives' inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the detection rate and trial-ready case dockets, their poor investigations and corruption within the SAPS are the causes of high levels of contact and property crimes reported in South Africa (Zinn, 2019:3). According to the findings of this study and the literature, ineffective policing in South Africa is attributed to the following factors:

### **5.9 Poor conviction and detection rate by SAPS**

A study conducted by Lekgau (2022:18) posits that very few of the crimes reported to the SAPS resulted in an arrest or a conviction and that many cases are withdrawn in court or before court because of insufficient evidence for prosecution. Based on the SAPS crime statistics 2021/22, out of 119 977 cases of residential robberies reported to the police, 56 184 were withdrawn before courts and only 16 282 had a detection rate of 5,09% and a conviction rate of 4,22% (SAPS, 2023:213). Similarly, in a 2022 study, the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) found that very few contact and property crimes reported to the SAPS resulted in an arrest or a conviction. According to its findings, many cases were withdrawn due to insufficient evidence (ISS, 2022:8). The

institution's findings also reveal that only 12,5% cases of robberies with aggravating circumstances went to court (ISS, 2022:9) but were thrown out of court due to insufficient evidence (ISS, 2022:9).

Zinn (2019:183) further found that respondents in his study indicated that offenders of house robberies were apprehended because someone tipped the police of their whereabouts. While others reported that they committed more crimes before they were apprehended. In this study, when domestic workers were asked about the measures, they thought that the SAPS and Judiciary minimised their fear of contact and property crimes in their environment. These were some of their responses:

#### **DMW 006**

*"I was rob on Friday at 11:15 so, in 2019, on June, I still remember very well, yes, the first responder police came very fast so about 10 minutes or less, maybe they were nearby, good, I like that, but 'Baba' (expression of respect to an elder) since they take my statement, no one phone me about the progress of my case file, nor to be called in court, no, a big no. What does that mean? I am rob here, but no one cares, do you want to tell me if it was a South African individual woman the police would drag their foot? No, it is because I am a Zimbabwean. The police in South Africa are not fair to use. We are raped and robbed in the house with no arrest for the people who rob us here. Every day you hear a worker at (name supplied) is robbed but no one is arrested, prosecuted and jailed. I work because I can't go anywhere, maybe the police took tjojo (bribery money). South Africa is dirty (referring to corruption), everyone including the magistrate, they are the same."*

The incident above shows that victims' case dockets of robberies within residence at Brooklyn suburbs are not properly investigated by the Brooklyn detectives. It confirms the frustration and lack of trust in the CJS, including police officials. Bezuidenhout (2020:213) agrees that the image of the SAPS in this country has not only been tainted by the role of the police in enforcing unpopular laws during apartheid but also by the poor performance in apprehending and securing convictions of criminals and the corruption within the organisation itself. Although the Brooklyn police response time

was quick, their service is tainted by the lack of communication, poor outcome of investigations, the detection rate, a lack of trial ready cases and the conviction rates for serious and violent crimes. Also, in an interview with the relief commander at Brooklyn SAPS, when asked about the conviction of cases related to violent crimes on domestic workers, he responded:

**POL 003**

*“Although I am not working there on top at the first floor, the detection rate, the conviction rate and the sentencing of this boys is very poor. It’s only that I can’t give you the exact number, but their performance is very low, that is why our station is counted amongst the top 40 police stations in the country that is not performing well (when asked about the rate of corruption in the department, this was the response) ..... hmm (he smiled). Every detective is corrupt, we are underpaid, if one can offer you 10k, do you think I can say no, no, I can’t, I will take it.”*

During the researcher’s second visit to the Brooklyn SAPS, the researcher asked a captain in charge of the group in the Client Service Centre (CSC) about the measures that can be implemented to promote the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn SAPS. This was the response:

**POL 004**

*“I think the management must establish a community meeting; you know our CPF is not fully representing the whole community of this area. I once attended the meeting, only whites are there, this white community don’t know how their workers are robbed. I think if the CPF also include the domestic workers, the youth, especially students of the University, women organisations, business guys. I think if we can have all in the CPF, it will help us, the police, to talk and hear their problems. We need to have public participation in the fight against crime here. You see, sir, in the police, we have the Crime Information Analysis Centre (CIAC). This office analyses the crime patterns, the threats and the modus operandi used by criminals. So here, the office is there, but I don’t see its purpose. Our detectives here,*

*they don't hold meetings with the Department of Justice and discuss the crime dockets of this station. That is why dockets are withdrawn in court and the criminal go free. Coming to social crime, this officer of social crime, I never saw her coming here to provide us with information regarding Gender Based Violence (GBV); we don't have Crime Awareness Campaigns here. Everyone for himself. You see myself, sir, I am seven years in the Captain rank. I was never sent for course in the Client Centre. I use my experience, that is all, so the police is failing us in the Charge Office, although we are front desk people. Without this thing here, we are going nowhere, thank you sir."*

The information above clearly shows that there are no working relations between the CSC officials and the management of the station which is in line with the discussion in section 1.2. Also, although there is a CPF structure in place, the structure is not inclusive of the entire community of Brooklyn, namely, domestic workers. Furthermore, as mentioned by POL 004 there is no regular meeting between the local Brooklyn detectives and the Criminal Justice officials to discuss cases relating to violent offences committed during house robberies. Findings of this study are confirmed by Ngoveni, Maluleke and Mabasa's (2022:13) study on the use of the community policing forum for crime prevention at Brooklyn that participation by the SAPS in general has not only been tainted by their role in enforcing unpopular laws during apartheid, but also by corruption within the organisation itself. It is for this reason that the public is reluctant to co-operate with the police. Also, Bezuidenhout (2020:213) and ISS (2019:1) agree that this situation means that perpetrators of crimes in South Africa believe that it is worth the risk of committing crime because, if they are arrested, they will bribe the police into letting them go free.

For example, two Brooklyn police detectives were arrested by the Hawks for accepting R50 000 for destroying a case docket of a house robbery where two foreign nationals were arrested at a crime scene but were later released by a court due to lack of evidence. The two officials are currently still on trial.

Bezuidenhout (2020:213) mentions that a corrupt SAPS allows perpetrators to take control of neighbourhoods and also to continue to commit crimes. Similarly, Lekgau



(2020:23) posits that criminal syndicates as well as organised crime syndicates operate unhindered due to corruption perpetrated by law enforcements. Zinn (2019:23) reveals that offenders arrested for house robberies and sentenced claimed that they bribed the police to warn them to destroy incriminating evidence when an arrest was imminent. This creates more fear of crime as known criminals are not arrested.

### **5.9.1 Economic disparities**

Harding, Davies and Mair (2017:94) mention that the high rate of crime, especially property crime in South African residences, is connected to income distribution. Bezuidenhout (2020:410) adds that poverty and long-term unemployment amongst South Africans who were previously discriminated and marginalised from the economy by apartheid have led to the high rates of crime in the country especially house robberies, housebreaking and thefts. According to the author, property crimes mentioned above are committed because they generate money faster than other crimes (Bezuidenhout, 2020:411). This is evident from participant DMW 008:

*“One of the guys who put the gun on my head kept on saying to me, take me to the lounge, I was told there is a plasma TV screen and jewelleries in the bedroom. Do you think if we don’t come here, how shall we make a living? Our children must eat the same as yours. Don’t waste our time wena, he push me. I was finished sir, I don’t wanna lie to you, I saved myself because I did not fight if I fight back, I would be dead by now, I don’t know.”*

Given that the majority of black South Africans live in poverty, the economic benefits that are attached to crime attract individuals from low socio-economic backgrounds to commit crimes for survival. Manaliyo (2016:1) suggests that inequality as a result of poverty and unemployment is associated with violent crimes. This finding is congruent with the explanation in the evidence above.

Another factor responsible for the high rate of crime in South African residents is the ineffectiveness of the South African CJS in adjudicating criminal cases.

## 5.10 Ineffective criminal justice system

Congruent with findings of this study and that of Zinn (2019:103), which indicate that the South African CJS is ineffective, Manaliyo (2016:7) and Biswas and Misra (2020:148) also blame the South African CJS for not imposing heavy sentences on perpetrators of violent crimes, such as house robbery. Findings of the study also reveal that the majority of house robbery victims (domestic workers in Brooklyn) revealed that the CJS does not imposing harsh sentences against perpetrators of house robberies where the individual victims are employed. This is evident from the following explanations:

### DMW 0010

*“No judicial officer in any bench in this country is unaware of the extent of violence imposed against us domestic workers and the way in which violence in the houses is depriving [us] of our freedom, our right to dignity and integrity. You see, sir, I read the Constitution of this country, there is a right to dignity, bodily integrity as fundamental to our humanity as domestic workers. I think it was supposed to be respected for that reason alone, but this is not the case in South Africa, we, especially Zimbabwean women, we are nowhere considered, I don't know whether is our nationality, I was not invited in court to testify, I don't know whether the criminal who rob me is arrested or not, I don't know. My rights are nothing sir, can you help Zimbabweans please.”*

Against the backdrop of the abovementioned explanation of the victim domestic worker, it is clear that the occurrence of house robbery or residence robbery, in Brooklyn specifically, needs to be addressed as it has dire consequences for the victims of the offences. Moreover, house robbery with rape as an opportunistic crime is a traumatic experience for the victims that, according to the researcher's experience as a law enforcement official, impacts a victim's identity, psychological well-being and assumptions about the world. Therefore, in view of the above, the researcher is of the opinion that a National Strategy for the prevention of contact and property crimes in residences where domestic workers are employed should be implemented to focus on the underlying factors of violence and social inequality, exposure of women to abuse

and trauma exacerbated during house robberies and rapes.

### **5.11 Differing leadership and policing styles in the SAPS**

The causes of the high rate of crime in South Africa can be attributed to the differing leadership and policing styles as a result of many national police commissioners who have led the organisation since democracy in 1994 (Bezuidenhout, 2020:201). According to the author, with the exception of George Fivaz, none of the appointments to the national commissioner's post had policing experience and all of them were fired through boards of enquiry. Furthermore, the researcher concurs with Bezuidenhout (2020:201) that the continual changing of top management in the SAPS, as the main law enforcement duly authorised in terms of section 205(3) of the Constitution 1996, to enforce and uphold the law, have had a long-term detrimental impact on policing. This is because of a lack of professional identity and constant state of flux in the SAPS that further delays the respect for their designated role of being just guardians of the interests and safety of South Africans. Another cause of detrimental impact of policing in South Africa is the loss of skills within the law enforcement agencies due to skilled police officers who leave the organisation as a result of former struggle soldiers without police experience who have been employed in the SAPS in high managerial positions (Bezuidenhout, 2020:213). This has led to major problems with senior career police generals who do not accept the command of these new senior staff members (Bezuidenhout, 2020:202).

Ferrell, Debbie, and Ferrell (2022:201) posit that leadership styles which do not influence the organisational ethics of employees affect productivity in the organisation. This is attested by the fact that the SAPS has been led by various national commissioners who brought their own leadership and policing styles and did not focus on decolonising the organisation to establish a democratic policing in the country. Bezuidenhout (2020:202) concurs with Govender (2018:61) that the state of movement and change in the SAPS management and the lack of training and experience in police science impacts crime management countrywide. The incompetence and the lack of training in top management has caused many junior police officers to be corrupt, disrespectful, unethical and unprincipled (Govender, 2018:61). Within this context of inexperienced police managers, the researcher

contends that many honourable hard working career police officials bear the brunt of ineptitude that has led to the public losing trust in the police and indirectly contributed to the inability to suppress contact and property crime, more specifically violent crime, in the country.

### **5.12 Summary**

It is evident from the discussion above that individual perpetrators of contact and property crimes are involved in criminal behaviour due to ineffective policing. However, findings of this study corroborate the literature that individual communities turn to criminal behaviour by force of their circumstances.

Due to the fact that the current form of policing in the country is not coping with the criminal conduct of individuals countrywide, today's form of policing should develop alongside new technology to combat the excessive high rate of crime. Further, policing in South Africa should change from high-handed policing to honour human rights principles to address the challenges faced by South Africans as a result of crimes in their neighbourhoods.

The high extent of contact and property crimes discussed above creates excessive fear of crime amongst the individuals. Chapter Six discusses the research design and methodology that was employed in this study.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the research design and methodology used in this study. The chapter starts with a presentation of the research paradigm which is directly aligned to the chosen research methodology for the study. Apart from linking the research paradigm to the methodology, it indicates the ontological and epistemological approaches used with the research paradigm. The relevant research methodology and the qualitative design will assist in exploring the perceptions of domestic workers regarding property and contact crimes within the policing area of Brooklyn Police Station. Further, the chapter identifies and discusses the data collection instruments, sampling procedures and processes to explain how a sample was chosen and recruited for participation in interviews. The chapter also describes the data analysis processes of the data collected through interviews with the participants, the qualitative data criteria, and the trustworthiness of the data collected for the purpose of this research project. Ethical considerations are presented in this chapter to indicate the extent to which the researcher was compliant with the ethics code during data collection phase. The discussion of methodological limitations and problems encountered during the collection of empirical data concludes this chapter.

#### **6.2 Research paradigm**

Ebohon, Ajayi and Ganiya (2021:1) posit that a research paradigm is a set of common beliefs and agreements shared among experts within a discipline about how problems should be understood and addressed. The research paradigm chosen for this research project was interpretivism. Interpretivists engage in data interpretation with the purpose of understanding the meaning of human conduct, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs (Brynard, Hanekom & Brynard, 2020:74). In line with assumptions of the interpretivist paradigm, it is believed that, during interactions between researchers and participants, meaning can be derived from such engagements although it may tend to be more subjective. Interpretivists hold a view that knowledge is constructed through deliberate explanations and descriptions of the values, beliefs and intentions of

individuals. Moreover, researchers are expected to search for meaning to gain a clear understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Brynard et al, 2020:75). Brynard et al (2020:75) point out that “unstructured observation, open interviewing, idiographic descriptions and qualitative data analysis are ways to capture ‘insider’ knowledge that is part of interpretivism.”

Ontologically, the interpretivist paradigm is aligned to relativism. This ontological approach suggests that there are multiple versions of the truth and that the truth is generally shaped by context since it does not exist without meaning (Fouche, Strydom & Roestenburg, 2021:301). Further, relativism holds that the truth evolves and changes continuously and may be used in similar settings but not generalised. Consistent with the views expressed above, Fouche et al. (2021:301) argue that the interpretivist paradigm rejects a notion that there is objective reality that can be discovered through objective measurement. With regard to the epistemological position, the emic approach is aligned to interpretivism since interaction is needed in order to discover the truth and gain deep understanding of a phenomenon (Fouche et al. 2021:301). Contextually, interpretivism requires the use of qualitative methodology in order to understand the perceptions of domestic workers pertaining to property and contact crime.

### **Pilot study**

Pilot study is defined as a way for testing and validating an instrument before implementing it in the main study by administering it to a small group of participants from the intended test population who will not be part of the sample (Fouche et al, 2021:236). Du Plooy-Cilliers et al (2019:169) define a pilot study as a small study that is executed to establish whether the methodology, schedule and analysis of the data are adequate and sufficient for the purposes of the main study.

Based on the above definitions, pilot studies are intended to protect a measuring instrument to assist researchers to fine-tune, look, identify and rectify the process for a smooth main inquiry (Fouche et al, 2021:237). To participate in this pilot project, eight individuals with similar characteristics to the research participants were chosen. In addition, concerns about the study's viability were examined (Strydom, 2011:339;

Fouche et al, 2021:237). The pilot study's primary approach was to conduct an in-depth interview with participants to test the instruments of the research project. This exercise assists a researcher to test devices (Strydom, 2011:240). The researcher determined whether the measuring device was suitable to gather the necessary information in relation to the kinds of research questions that would be asked and how they would be answered after carrying out a pilot study.

Consequently, matters that emerged through the pilot study phase were attended to before the actual research project commenced which increased the validity of the measuring instruments. Additionally, four SMEs were interviewed because they are knowledgeable in the subject matter that is under investigation in Brooklyn suburbs. Fouche et al (2021:238) posit that interviewing experts is necessary to test their ideas and decisions. To guarantee uniformity in the data collecting technique, interviews were conducted using the same interview questions.

For this study, qualitative data collection methods are explained in the discussion that follows:

### **6.3 Research methodology**

A scientific research method is a way of gathering and examining information classified as concepts. A study's framework and methods for conducting the research contribute to its research methodology (Bergin, Vallejos, Davies, Daley, Ford, Harold, Hetrick, Kidner, Long, Merry & Morriss, 2020:133). Research design, which is defined as a precise research framework that directs choices about the methodologies and procedures the researcher will employ in the study, comes after the plan (Bergin et al, 2020:133). According to Mason (2020:44), methodology is the reasoning behind a researcher's project design that aims to provide answers to research questions. Bergin (2018:53) defines research methodology as a framework or strategy that shows how the researcher plans to conduct research that will enable the researcher to explore and explain people's experiences in their social context without using statistical procedures (Creswell & Poth, 2018:96). A qualitative research approach was appropriate for this study as the researcher examined the experiences of domestic workers as victims of contact and property related crimes in Brooklyn suburbs.

Qualitative research relies on numerous research strategies as well as the procedures that will assist in the gathering and analysis of the data (Jennings & Gonzales, 2019:7). These strategies include the research design, research goals, sampling strategies, data collection, data analysis, and data interpretation.

For this study, the research methodology consisted of a framework or a strategy on how the researcher would conduct the study (Bergin, 2018:53). This was followed by a research design that guided decisions such as the methods and techniques used in the study.

In the next discussion, the qualitative methodology of investigating the impact of fear of crimes in the form of a case study analysis and the sampling techniques are unpacked. The qualitative approach was chosen to understand the experiences of domestic workers pertaining to the crimes under investigation.

### **6.3.1 Qualitative approach**

As indicated above, the current study employed qualitative research in order to investigate and understand domestic workers' experiences of the phenomenon of fear of crime. According to Demirbilek and Keser (2023:57), qualitative research aims to discover the meaning that individuals ascribe to in their real-life daily experiences. This approach brings a researcher into the research participants' world and comprises "interpretive and naturalistic approach to the world" (Tomaszewski, Zarestky & Gonzalez, 2020:19). This approach was best suited for this study because it allowed the researcher to study the fear of crime through the domestic workers' lenses and to interpret and bring meaning to their lived experiences according to their own interpretations. Additionally, qualitative research seeks to find out how individuals in settings conduct their everyday lives (Tomaszewski et al., 2020:19). In this study, the ultimate objective was not to conduct a statistical analysis, but to provide an in-depth knowledge of how domestic workers, as the main participants, perceive their social world and make sense of their lived experiences. There are three types of research methods that researchers can follow in the research process, namely, qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018:18-19). Qualitative research is based on making observations that are summarised and interpreted in a



narrative report, whereas quantitative research is based on measuring variables for individual participants to obtain scores, usually numerical values which are submitted to statistical analysis for summary and interpretations (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018:19). In this study, the researcher employed qualitative research to understand domestic workers' experiences of the phenomenon of fear of crime in Brooklyn suburbs. According to Davies and Francis (2018:96), qualitative research aims to discover the meaning that people ascribe to their real-life experiences, while quantitative research is an objective process that focuses on statistics or numbers to generalise findings (Bergin, 2018:1). Furthermore, through qualitative research, the researcher will aim to obtain rich information including a comprehensive understanding on “what kind of things (material or symbolic) to which people in the current settings orient as they conduct their daily life routine”, whereas in quantitative research, the researcher will always ask questions such as “how many of this kind are present in this case” (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018:20). The following features of a good qualitative study are highlighted by Tomaszewski et al (2020:19):

- Qualitative research aims to comprehend real-life experiences from the perspective of its participants. Through their testimonies, the researcher in this case ascertained and comprehended the everyday realities of domestic workers in the Brooklyn suburbs.
- Qualitative research also requires deep comprehension through the collection of extensive information from both the police and the individuals being studied. Interviews were employed in this study to gather information in order to better understand the participants' experiences at the Brooklyn neighbourhoods.

### **6.3.2 Research design**

Qualitative research designs include case studies, ethnography, phenomenological studies, grounded theory, narrative inquiry and content analysis (Mwila, 2023:123). Myers (2020:7) asserts that research design is a set of processes and approaches that will be applied for the entire qualitative research project. In addition, it is a strategic context for “action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the implementation of the research”. According to the author, the aim of research design

is to offer a roadmap of the whole project (Myers, 2020:7). Tomaszewski et al. (2020:19) explain that a research design is concerned with the overall research plan and the methods that are employed to carry it out. It also provides the research framework that outlines and serves as a blueprint for the research.

Leavy (2022:11) emphasises that a research design is a process of building a structure for the research project and explains how a researcher intends to conduct a study. Tomaszewski et al (2020:20) describe research design as an approach that describes the specific direction and procedures to be followed. On the other hand, Babbie (2020:76) mentions that a research design outlines the purpose of the study including how the goals are accomplished. It determines the causality and also outlines all the required steps that must be carried out before the commencement of the study. Qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals ascribe to a social problem (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:20). Also, it yields a detailed understanding of human behaviour and experiences (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:21). Qualitative researchers are more concerned with understanding the meaning individuals construct. This means that researchers make sense of the world and its experiences (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:19).

#### **6.4 Population and sampling procedures**

Dantzker, Hunter and Quinn (2018:68) define population as persons, groups and organisations from which information is collected, while a sample consists of a group of people or objects that have been chosen from a suitable population for participation in the study (Creswell & Poth, 2018:157). The population is the entire set of individuals of interest to a researcher that includes persons, group(s) and organisations from which the required information is collected (Demirbilek & Keser, 2023:57). Obradović, Stojanović, Kovačić, Jovanovic, Pantelić and Vujičić (2021:73) maintain that a population is the entire group from which knowledge is collected. Although the total number of domestic workers within the identified policing precinct is undetermined or unknown, the target population for this study was primarily domestic workers who were employed within the policing area of Brooklyn. The second target population was four (04) senior police officials involved in the Client Service Centre (CSC) at Brooklyn Police Station. In other words, any senior police official involved in the CSC was

considered for participation. Because it is not feasible to collect data from the whole population, the scope of current research was sixteen (16) domestic workers and four Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) in the form of group commanders at Brooklyn SAPS Client Service Centre (CSC). The sample of domestic worker participants was selected based on reported cases of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn suburbs. The researcher concentrated on areas that were identified as most affected by housebreakings and thefts, house robberies, and other opportunistic crimes, such as rape. This, according to Brynard et al (2020:58), is done to prevent a sample which is biased and inadequate, hence, the sample was drawn from the domestic workers' population. The purpose of the research determined the subjects, objects and phenomena to be chosen as the population from which the sample was selected (Brynard et al, 2020:57). The following discussion explains the sampling procedure that was followed in the study.

### **6.5 Sampling procedure**

Fouche et al (2021:379) define sampling as a technique employed by the researcher to select a small group (the sample) to represent the characteristics of a large group (the population). A sample was drawn from the target population identified above. A sample consists of a small set of individuals who participate in a study (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:19). Although a sample cannot accurately reflect all individuals within the study area, the researcher employed the subsequent criteria: domestic workers and senior police officials, males and females, aged 18 years and above, but not older than 65 years of age, employed within the policing area of Brooklyn policing area. The victims' accessibility and availability accounted for the reduced sample size. Furthermore, the likelihood of choosing pertinent participants for a study was higher because qualitative research does not pick representative samples from the total community (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:19).

A sample of twenty (20) research participants was selected for the purpose of this study using different sampling techniques. Non-probability sampling procedures were used in this study in order to meet the previously mentioned sample criteria, namely, snowball and convenience sampling (Demirbilek & Keser, 2023:57). Snowball sampling is a recruitment technique in which research participants are asked to assist

researchers in identifying other potential subjects (Demirbilek & Keser, 2023:57). The snowball and convenience sampling techniques were used to select sixteen (16) domestic workers. In addition, a purposive sampling technique was used to select four (4) senior police officials who were working at Brooklyn policing area specifically involved in the CSC environment. In this sense, the researcher applied his own judgement in selecting police officials who could provide information required for the study (Demirbilek & Keser, 2023:57). The chosen sampling technique was found to be suitable in selecting police officials who were able to respond to critical questions pertaining to contact and property crimes especially where domestic workers are victims of such crimes in their various workplaces. In relation to purposive sampling, the researcher used own judgement because the “sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristics, representative or typical attributes of the population that serve that purpose of the study best” (Demirbilek & Keser, 2023:57). Since the sampling frame was not known, snowball sampling was found to be a suitable technique for selecting the domestic workers and asking them to provide the names of fellow domestic workers for possible participation in the study. This approach was used until data saturation was achieved. To meet the above requirements, the researcher employed snowball and convenience sampling approaches to locate unknown individuals and acquire access to them. This technique was useful because it allowed the researcher to select domestic workers who were nearby and readily available to participate in the study. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method where units are selected for inclusion in the sample because they are the easiest for the researcher to access (Guest et al, 2020:1). Data saturation is the theoretical “yardstick” that a researcher can use to gauge and assess whether the sample size is suitable for the study under investigation (Guest, Namey & Chen, 2020:1).

## **6.6 Qualitative data collection methods**

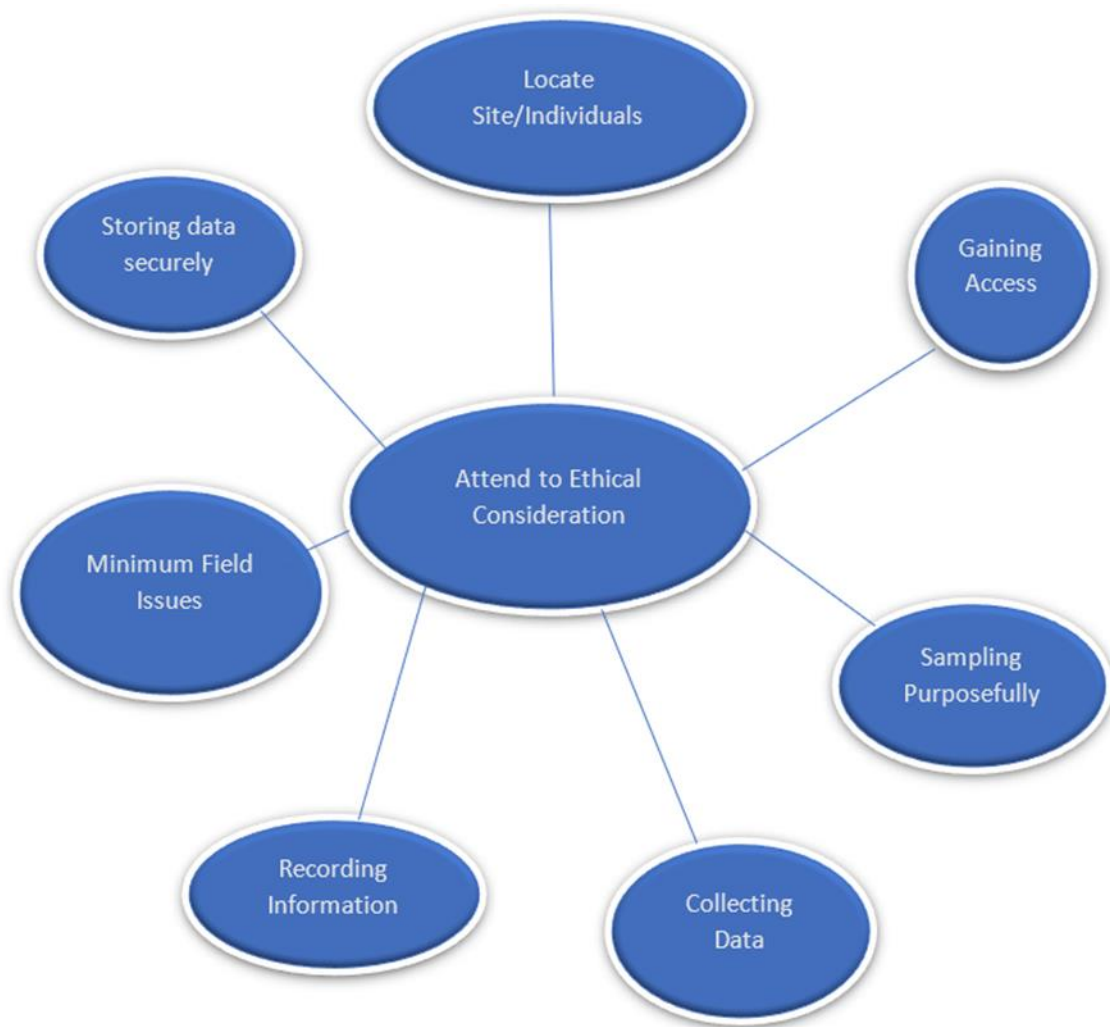
The goal of data collection is to obtain information to address research questions through a sequence of interconnected activities (Creswell & Poth, 2018:148). To gather information for this study, a set of seven activities, described below, were conducted in order to address the research questions (Creswell & Poth, 2018:149).

Tomaszewski et al. (2020:23) emphasises that, in qualitative research, the traditional ways used to collect data are interviews and case studies.

According to Creswell and Poth (2018:148), in relation to qualitative data collection, researchers should not only consider the type of data that will be collected and the procedures for collecting it, but also ensure proper adherence to the following data collection activities, namely:

- Researchers should locate a site or individuals to study;
- Researchers should attend to ethical considerations;
- Gain access for a rapport to be drafted;
- Determine strategy for purposeful sampling;
- Determine the most appropriate data collection approach for the study;
- Determine the most appropriate forms of data and modes of collecting them e.g., tape recordings;
- Minimise field issues; and
- How to store the data.

Within the context of qualitative research, there are numerous procedures that a researcher must consider that are viewed as data collection activities. The figure below summarises what it entails to collect data in a research study.



**Figure 6.1: Data collection activities**

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Poth (2018:149)

In this study, data were collected through semi-structured interviews on the sixteen (16) domestic workers and four (04) Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) from SAPS as indicated, under section 1.9 above.

The data collection methods that were used in this study are explained in detail below:

### **6.6.1 Semi-structured interviews**

According to Flick (2018:220), semi-structured interviews are generally used in all disciplines within qualitative research. Unlike structured or standardised interviews that are essentially a survey questionnaire implemented in quantitative research, a

semi-structured interview was used in this study (Fouche et al, 2021:358). In line with Fouche et al (2021:358), the researcher conducted the interviews with an overview of the relevant literature and having prepared open-ended questions. In this context, semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were conducted with the research participants of this study. Semi-structured interviews empowered the domestic workers who participated in the study to produce rich narrative accounts of information (Flick, 2018:220). In this context, the semi-structured interviews were used to obtain more in-depth information from the victims and SME's.

According to Choi and Roulston (2018:233), probing is an interviewing technique where the researcher asks follow-up questions consisting of probes for clarity. In this study, probing questions continued until saturation point was reached in terms of the information being sought (Kumar, 2019:309). Data saturation refers to the point in the research process when no new information is discovered in data collection, and this signals to researchers that data collection may cease (Kumar, 2019:306). In this study, probing was used to explore deeper into the research subject for obtaining in-depth information. Furthermore, during the process, the researcher used minimal encouragement by using words such as "yes", "tell me more" or "this is interesting". What is important in this instance is that the researcher listened attentively to the participants' response to understand the meanings that domestic workers attached to their real-life experience. The researcher personally interviewed participants and audio-recorded the interviews. Additionally, the field notes taken were recorded on a predesigned form, and lastly a protocol to direct the researcher on how to conduct the recording was used (Creswell & Poth, 2018:169). In addition, all the interviews with the participants were recorded, and the interviewing procedure was conducted in the form of a narrative analysis, with domestic workers being provided the opportunity to narrate on their lived experiences of criminal victimisation. Generally, interviews are a main practice in a qualitative study. This is because interviews are viewed as a means of producing and transferring information, such as explaining research participants' experiences, attitudes, and their own interpretations of their lived experiences (Wollin-Giering, Hoffman, Höfting & Ventzke, 2023:5). For the purpose of this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the 20 research participants who are domestic workers (See Appendix 6). To sustain and support the views expressed by

domestic workers, at least four senior police officials, who are group commanders, were interviewed (See Appendix 7). In this context, all selected research participants were interviewed face to face, during working hours prior to setting appointments. According to Sharma, Saini, Shrivastava and Kumar (2024:196), semi-structured interviews are employed in all qualitative research fields. Furthermore, the author asserts that semi-structured interviews also enable participants to generate detailed narrative accounts for the purpose of developing a qualitative study (Sharma et al. 2024:196). The semi-structured interviews consisted of open-ended questions to gain rich information from domestic workers and the senior police officials attached to the Brooklyn policing area at the CSC (See Appendix 2, SAPS Permission to conduct study at Brooklyn SAPS).

According to Shongwe (2023:73), probing is a method of conducting interviews in which the researcher offers follow-up questions that are based on probes. To gather detailed information for this study, the researcher explored participant responses and provided follow-up questions. Additionally, because of the high reported prevalence of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn, the researcher in this study used encouraging phrases, such as "yes" and "tell me more." The victim participants related their real-world experiences of fear of crime at Brooklyn. This approach assisted the researcher to give meaning to their narratives.

For the researcher to strengthen the information gathered in the face-to-face interviews, an observation was conducted by the researcher.

### **6.6.2 Observation**

The researcher went to Brooklyn residence during patrol to watch and examine what was happening in the setting and document what he saw. This qualitative method is referred to as observation (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:201). Snook, (2022:52) asserts that observation, when used to gather data in the field, affords a researcher with an opportunity to acquire "thick descriptions", since they present a thorough and comprehensive account of events including providing a researcher with background analyses of the research participants' lived experiences from their viewpoints. The author state that thick description is interpretive and systematic in nature.



### **6.6.3 Document study**

Documents, according to this study, include newspapers, articles, textbooks, scholarly articles, transcripts during interviews, field notes during the interviews, unpublished theses and dissertations, relevant legislation, policies and documented statistics. Although these documents are publicly accessible through the official website of the SAPS, permission was sought and granted in order to use the documents for the purpose of this research project. Official documents, such as the policies of SAPS, Legislation and National Instructions (NI) for which permission was granted for use in this research, were handled in a confidential manner and were not shared with any unauthorised person. Importantly, the researcher only focused on the official statistical reports and annual reports on crimes which were not older than three years from the date of collecting data. Kumar (2019:222) mentions that official documents include any document that has been written and archived continuously within a specific area of a government institution.

### **6.6.4 Field notes**

The researcher used a tape recorder to capture the verbatim responses of participants. In addition, a qualitative research approach allows a researcher to take field notes during interviews. To enhance the credibility of the information gathered, the researcher utilised field notes to document the behaviour and the conversation between himself and the domestic workers. In this case, Demirbilek and Keser (2023:58) define field notes as documents of events where conversation and behaviours observed in the field are recorded for future use. Field notes enhance information obtained during the interview and can provide a researcher with finer details, such as the observation of body language, when answering certain questions and conversations that a researcher might have had with the participants without necessarily recording such conversations. Furthermore, the researcher included important information such as the date, time and location where the interviews were conducted (in this case, Brooklyn residences). Also, a detailed description of the physical setting of Brooklyn residences were recorded.

### **6.6.5 Case study**

According to Fouche et al (2021:302), case studies often deliberately focus on unusual, neglected, or outlying cases which may shed new light on the research problem. The primary aim of this is to provide an understanding of how domestic worker victims of contact and property crimes at Brooklyn Suburbs perceive their social world and make sense of their daily life experiences. This study sought to understand real life experiences through research participants' point of view (Jennings & Gonzales, 2019:7). The researcher gathered data from the participants through in-depth interviews to understand the phenomenon in its context. Creswell and Poth (2018:96) define a case study as a case within its natural or real-life setting. In addition, Heale and Twycross (2018:7) describe a case study approach as a systematic enquiry of a case that involves individuals or a group where the researcher attempts to explore in-depth information within their real-life situations. The in-depth collection of data in this case study involved interviewing, documenting and reporting (Creswell & Poth, 2018:96). Case study analysis was applicable in this study because the domestic workers chosen were victims of households' robberies, housebreakings, and thefts as well as rape as an opportunistic crime. The aim of the researcher was to employ a case study analysis to capture the real-life experience of domestic workers in a context of property and contact crimes that are perpetrated in the Brooklyn policing area (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

As a research approach, a case study contributes to the individual's knowledge, institutions, social, political and interrelated phenomena. Case studies allow researchers to understand a multifaceted social phenomenon by asking questions such as: why, who, what, where and how? Tomaszewski et al (2020:26) maintain that a case study provides a researcher with an opportunity to not only concentrate on a single phenomenon or unit, but to provide an in-depth description of a phenomenon. In addition, the author cautions that "the unit analysis is not the topic of investigation that characterises a case study"? (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:26).

Qualitative researchers are writers who interpret as they write, therefore writing forms part of inquiry. During case studies, researchers apply in-depth interviews as well as life experiences of participants of the study (in this context, domestic workers) (Adu,

Owusu, Martin-Yeboah, Pino Gavidia & Gyamfi, 2022:311). According to Adu et al (2022:311) a case study is a logical enquiry that involves the population of interest in order to gain insight and comprehensive information within its natural setting. Furthermore, these authors found that a multiple case research study provides an in-depth and more meaningful understanding of individual cases under study through comparisons of similarities and differences of individual cases. This is because evidence gathered from multiple-case studies is likely to be more reliable than single-case research studies (Adu et al, 2022:312). Within this context, the population of interest to the researcher was domestic workers in the Brooklyn police precinct.

Case studies allow individual participants, in this context domestic workers, to tell their own stories. Due to the fact that qualitative researchers are concerned with the meanings subjects give to their life experiences, the use of case studies allows them to understand the narrative of each domestic worker (Fouche et al, 2021:102). The advantage of this method is that it offers a descriptive and explorative account of a way of life that is little understood, in this case, the fear of crime as a result of victimisation. Babbie (2020:91) posits that exploratory research studies have three main aims, namely: (1) to satisfy the curiosity of a researcher and afford them a deeper understanding of a phenomenon; (2) to test the feasibility of a study; and (3) to develop research methods that will be applicable to subsequent studies. The exploration allowed the researcher to have a deeper understanding of participants' lived experiences in their own settings.

### **Unit of analysis**

Units of analysis are specific objects, with the characteristics the researcher requires and from whom the researcher will collect data (Fouche et al, 2021:4). In the units of analysis, the researcher investigated the "Who", "Where", and "When", of the study (Fouche et al, 2021:4). In the context of this study, the researcher investigated domestic workers who were victimised in Brooklyn when contact and property crimes were committed in their working environments. A research sample cannot represent everyone in an area of investigation, so the researcher concentrated on six suburbs in Brooklyn that are mostly affected by contact and property crimes that affect domestic workers, namely, Niemuckleneuk, Constantia Park, Newlands, Waterkloof,

Waterkloof Ridge and Monument Park (Nekhumbe, Personal Communication, 2021 September 25). The sample size for this study was drawn from the aforementioned areas. Twenty participants were interviewed, namely, 16 domestic workers and four Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) who are Relief (Group) commanders at Brooklyn SAPS client Service Centre (CSC). A sample size justification should consider how informative the data will be and inferential goals such as estimating and effect size, or testing a hypothesis (Brynard et al, 2020:56). The unit of analysis was identified by approaching the Brooklyn SAPS Crime Information Analysis Centre (CIAC) in order to identify areas in Brooklyn where domestic workers were victimised by assailants in the previous three years.

The table indicated below illustrates the population and the sampling size of the study.

Units of analysis	Population	Sample size
03 Menlopark 02 Lynnwood 01 Waterkloof Glen 06 Monument Park 04 Brooklyn	Domestic workers at Brooklyn areas mostly affected	16
SAPS Group Commanders	SAPS Group Commanders at Brooklyn SAPS	04

**Figure 6.2: Illustration of the units of analysis and the sample size**

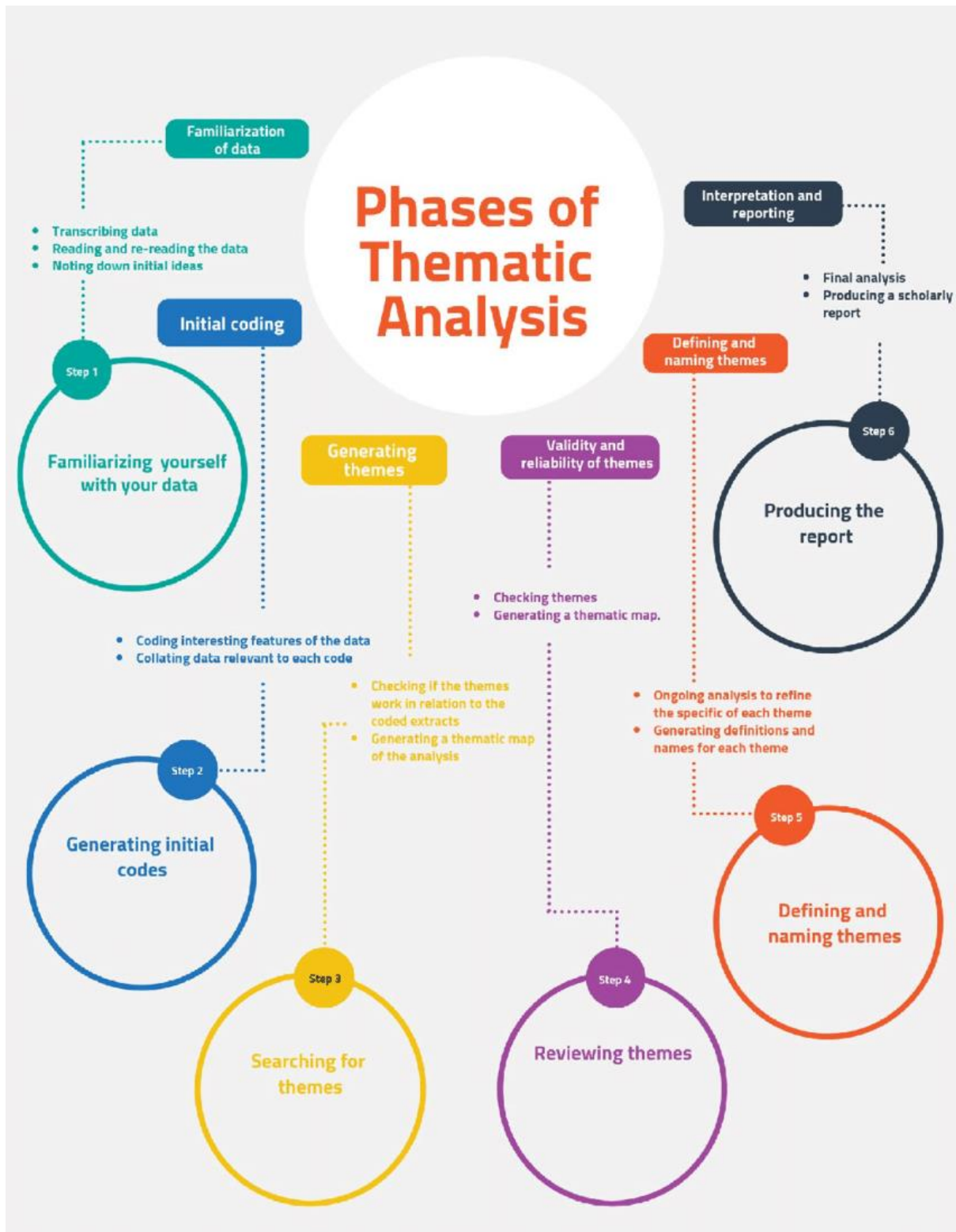
### 6.7 Data analysis and interpretation

Qualitative data analysis is defined as a strategy that is used to build themes or categories from information collected from the participants (Fouche et al, 2021:290). However, in a qualitative study, data are analysed using techniques such as thematic analysis, a descriptive approach, or more in-depth methods (Fouche et al, 2021:290).

In this study, thematic analysis of data was utilised to analyse the data collected by focusing on pieces of information that were collected from victim participants, in this instance, domestic workers. Thematic analysis is regarded as the most frequently used technique and it concerns the classification of recurring patterns that a researcher observed as principal themes (Lochmiller, 2021:2029; Virella & Liera, 2024). Thematic analysis assumes that research participants' recollections of events hold significant value and merit to warrant exploration and a thorough description (Lochmiller, 2021:2030). In this study, documents were utilised to collaborate varied perspectives and arguments because thematic analysis presumes such recorded information gives a true and accurate reflection and that research participants' spoken recollections must be afforded the same degree of presumption that shared information is truthful and accurate. Thematic analysis is based on the reliability and trustworthiness of the information used (Lochmiller, 2021:2030).

Thematic analysis was employed in this study to analyse information, with a particular focus on fragments of information obtained from research participants. According to Crowe et al (2015:617), thematic analysis is the process of interpreting information by using themes or categories to identify recurring themes or meanings in the data. Dawadi (2020:62) describes thematic analysis a method that a researcher adopts when to systemically arrange and analyse multiple datasets. It is an exploration for themes that can accurately capture the narratives or stories shared by research participants. In a qualitative study, thematic analysis is an approach that is mainly used to identify, analyse, and interpret patterns or themes. These authors view Thematic Analysis (TA) as a technique that is uncontrolled or restrained by "theoretical commitments" (Clarke & Braun, 2015:1).

The observation by these authors is illustrated by Clarke and Braun's thematic analysis approach below.



**Figure 6.3: Braun and Clarke’s thematic analysis approach for developing themes from qualitative data**

Adapted from: Braun and Clarke (2006:87)

According to the above figure by Braun and Clarke, the following procedures were used to identify trends in the information that was gathered from research participants. To begin with, the researcher recorded the interviews using a Philips tape recorder and took notes. Transcribing the interviews from the tape recordings was the first step. The interview transcripts and notes were carefully studied by the researcher as he went through the information. In a qualitative study, the use of a recording and transcription of interviews is perceived as a standard practice. Transcripts play a critical role because they sensitise and create an awareness to things that the researcher might not have necessarily thought as important or remembered in their quest to obtain clear and consistent research results (Wollin-Giering et al, 2023:5-6). The researcher concurs with Svegreus (2021:193) that the study questions were taken into consideration while generating the initial codes during this process. The researcher familiarised himself with the data collected. Dawada (2020:63) suggests that this phase assists researchers to make sense of the emerging themes and guides them on the steps and appropriate ways to follow when analysing data. While Lochmiller (2021:2035) emphasises that, at this point of analysis, a researcher must ask the following descriptive questions: *“What is happening? What is the participating saying? What key points or ideas are they expressing? What points do they appear to agree or disagree about? What perspectives are (dis)similar? What experiences do they hold in common? What experiences are being described?”*

In the second step, the researcher read the transcripts and, as codes emerged, they were clustered into related ideas (Jones & Mets, 2016:201). Furthermore, all data which was relevant to each category were extracted to ensure that it was associated with the individual codes. At this time, the researcher organised and managed the transcribed data by putting it into ideas and wrote participants' ideas on a notepad. In the third phase, the researcher identified the themes (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:335). The researcher analysed the data gathered repeatedly to ensure no data were left unnoticed. After this process, the researcher identified possible themes generated from the victims and SMEs responses. Maguire and Delahunt (2017:335) highlight that, once all themes are identified and recognised, they will be refined in relation to the overall meaning that was captured.

After reading the transcripts, the researcher must create interpretations. As codes emerged, the narrative was organised into concepts that were connected (Metz & Wallace, 2021:4). In order to make sure that each category's relevant information was linked to its specific code, it was also extracted. Codes are basically the smallest unit of analysis that capture characteristics of the data applicable to research questions and are viewed as the “building blocks for themes” (Clarke & Braun, 2015:2). Most qualitative researchers start the analysis with the themes identified through the literature review (Dawada, 2020:63). Following suit, the researcher handled and organised the transcribed data, categorised them into concepts, and recorded participant ideas in a notebook. The themes were then determined by the researcher. The collected data in this study underwent multiple analyses by the researcher. Following the procedure, the researcher created a list of potential themes based on the responses from the participants. Once all themes were identified and recognised, they were refined in relation to the overall meaning that was captured (Dusi & Stevens, 2022:117). In the fourth phase, the researcher wrote the list of responses with the abbreviated codes. The codes were written along the data segments that corresponded to a particular code (Crowe et al, 2015:617). The researcher then reduced the list of possible themes that were generated from the responses by grouping similar responses together into relevant themes, for instance, environmental design to prevent crimes at Brooklyn, etc., that is, all of the responses were listed with their shortened codes by the researcher. Next to the data segments that matched a certain code, codes were written (Tomaszewski et al., 2020:23). This process enabled the themes to be developed at an in-depth level to examine the relationships between codes (Creswell, 2014:200). By combining related responses into pertinent themes, the researcher was able to further narrow the list of potential themes that were derived from the responses. Through this method, the themes were expanded in-depth to look at how the codes related to one another (Tomaszewski et al., 2020:23). Additionally, themes were utilised as headings in the findings as well as important findings of the current study. Furthermore, the themes were recorded as significant findings of the study as well as headings in the findings. Quotations collected from participant responses provided additional support for the subject matter. The fifth step involved the interpretation of findings (Tomaszewski et al, 2020:19). The last phase of data



analysis in this study involved interpretations of the findings and the results (Crowe et al, 2015:617; Creswell, 2014:200). The researcher categorised the responses into pertinent themes and cross-referenced them with the study's theoretical framework and related literature. To maximise the overall vigour of the analysis, both deductive and inductive approaches were adopted. A deductive approach allowed data analysing that related to the themes that emerged through the literature review and research questions that were designed for this study. Themes that emerged from the data were considered. Dawada (2020:203) further posits that an additional benefit of this process is that even unexpected themes can be considered because they provide an in-depth knowledge and clearer understanding of the phenomenon under study. Hence, a substantial number of inductive codes can emerge during data analysis (Dawada, 2020:63). In the context of this study, a wide-ranging explanation of fear of crime encompassed a cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimension of crime. In most cases, a cognitive dimension precedes the real emotional reaction and captures the individual's perceived probability of being victimised. The behavioural dimension normally follows the emotional dimension and concentrates on how individuals react or behave after experiencing victimisation (Vandeviver, 2011:8). The researcher concurs with Tomaszewski et al (2020:19) that researchers can compare all of the participant explanations and results with the subject matter and literature throughout the phase of the study. At this point, the researcher was able to detect that the pattern or themes showed that data gathered reached a saturation point. Saturation in this instance, refers to the stage in data collection where the researcher is no longer discovering new information from the participant (Kumar, 2019:309). The findings and the results of this study were analysed in terms of the aims and the objectives of the study (see Chapters 1, 7 and 8). The researcher organised the responses into the relevant themes and compared them with the literature and the theoretical approaches that are related to the topic. However, Crowe et al (2015:617) states that, in this phase, researchers may compare the narrative outcomes from the participants with themes and literatures on the topic. This enabled the researcher to define and describe participants' realities by using their own spoken narratives. Lastly, all the findings as well as the results of the study are interpreted and reported accordingly in Chapter 7. In validating the reliability and the accuracy of the study findings, the following steps

were considered.

## **6.8 Trustworthiness of qualitative data**

In order to attain trustworthiness of qualitative data, the principle of credibility, transferability, dependability, conformability and authenticity were complied with as recommended by Johnson (2021:53). Validity in qualitative research refers to findings that determine the accuracy of the questions asked, the data collected, and the explanations that are offered (Yates & Legett, 2016:225). Reliability, on the other hand, determines whether the study yields the same results each time the same method is applied (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:253). In contrast, the purpose of qualitative research is not to find causal relationships or to generalise results to a broader population, instead, qualitative researchers attempt to provide an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:253). Because qualitative research is not aimed at generalising results, reliability and validity were appropriate for this study. Therefore, the concept of trustworthiness, authenticity, transferability, dependability, and conformability were used to measure reliability and validity within this qualitative study (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:253-254). Maxfield and Babbie (2016:91) argue that the concept of reliability and validity are used to ensure that a study is truthful and consistent. Furthermore, searching and finding information from other researchers who have researched the same topic through a literature review enhances the measure of reliability. Regarding validity, the data collection methods and the tools, such as the semi-structured interviews and the focus group interviews, ensured that the research was accurate and consistent. Moreover, the researcher guaranteed authenticity, accuracy, and trustworthiness by using the following criteria as highlighted below:

### **6.8.1 Credibility**

To ensure credibility, the research objectives were formulated in such a way that the representation of data matched with the participant's views and the explanations of their life experiences in Brooklyn suburbs. As a result, the research participants responses validated the accuracy of the findings. Credibility, in this case, measured the truth and value of this study in determining whether the study findings are correct,

accurate and justifiable (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:259). To enhance the credibility of research findings, the researcher ensured that the report clearly identified, described and explained the participants (Johnson, 2021:53) and that there was an appropriate match between the views of the participants and the researcher's reconstruction of such views during the data interpretation phase. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that there were prolonged engagements with research participants in order to collect relevant and accurate data pertaining to the phenomenon under investigation. At the same time, member checks were conducted to ensure that statements made by the research participants were not misinterpreted in the final research report. The objectives of the study were designed to enable the researcher to confirm whether the opinions of the participants contributed to the accomplishment of the set objectives. Therefore, it was apparent that the answers improved the accuracy of the results of the study.

### **6.8.2 Transferability**

Transferability can be described as the amount to which the results of a study can be compared to other studies in the same context (Dantzker et al, 2018:68). Transferability describes whether the result of the study is comparable with other studies in a similar context (Van Niekerk, 2021:87). A sample criterion was used to collect data from the participants so that the findings represent similar experiences of participants under study. To enhance the transferability of the research findings to other similar contexts, the researcher gathered information from multiple informants or participants and used more than one data collection method. A sample criterion was used to collect the data from the domestic workers as well as senior police officers, in order for the results to reflect participants' comparable experiences in the topic under investigation.

Qualitative findings can be generalised to other populations and settings even though there may be similarities to other studies (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2019:258). This implies that, it is the degree to which the results and analysis can be applied beyond a specific research project (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. 2019:259). Hence, findings from this study is dependable and confirmable.

### **6.8.3 Dependability**

Dependability determines whether the research process used in the study is logical, well documented and audited (Flick, 2018:68). Dependability in the study assesses if the study's research methodology was sound, thoroughly recorded, and audited (Johnson, 2021:53). To enhance the dependability of the study, the researcher described and explained the research methods, procedures and processes that were followed in compiling the research report. This suggests that the study is dependable in that it can be replicated by researchers who may seek to pursue a similar area of study in the future. However, it was noted that an “assumption of an unchanging social world is direct contrast to the qualitative/interpretive assumption that the social world is always being constructed, posing a challenge to a need for study that can be replicated” Johnson, (2021:53). In the context of this study, the research findings were understood and compared with literature relevant to the study.

### **6.8.4 Conformability**

Conformability in this study referred to the final construct and the concept of objectivity (Dantzker et al, 2018:68). According to Du Plooy-Cilliers et al (2019:259), conformability refers to the ultimate construct and encapsulates the idea of objectivity. The results of the data collection, including verbatim narratives based on participant responses, were given by the researcher. In this way, the researcher was able to provide evidence that corroborated the research findings through verification processes thereby ensuring that the findings were a correct reflection of what the research participants had asserted and not a fabrication by the researcher. The researcher captured research participants' responses gestures or accents such as “*Handidi, yhoo*” and “*impipi yama phoyisa*” that are typical examples that reflect verbatim narratives by research participants that cannot be transcribed as explained under limitations of the study. This indicates that verbatim transcriptions “shape the construction of truth, meaning and knowledge in ways that would have been viewed as unsuitable for the research” (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:260). Johnson (2021:53) argues that the interpretation of the research findings should not be informed by the preferences and viewpoints of the researcher but should rather be informed by collected evidence or data.

### **6.8.5 Authenticity**

Fouche et al (2021:189) mention that authenticity could be attained by the researcher through a demonstration of a high level of fairness. In this study, the researcher was able to demonstrate reasonable understanding and expansion of personal views pertaining to the phenomenon under investigation suggesting that ontological authenticity was achieved. At the same time, it was through this study, that the researched sought to achieve educative authenticity thereby assisting individuals to appreciate the various viewpoints expressed by the research participants and the meaning attached to their experiences. In the context of this study, the researcher presented the findings that emerged from the gathered information, such as quotations derived from the participant's responses and the literature review above. In this regard, the findings and results are indistinguishable from the information gathered from the literature review.

In addition to assessing the validity and reliability of the information collected, the discussion on ethical considerations applicable to the study follow.

### **6.9 Ethical considerations**

Mwila (2023:123) states that ethics are important in research especially when it involves humans and is conducted face to face. Ferrari, Lwamushi, Balaluka, Lafta, Schindler, Bugugu, Lurhangire, Tediosi, Mendoza and Merten (2023:203) emphasise that researchers are to act ethically throughout the data gathering process in scientific studies. Also, King, Horrocks and Brooks (2019:29) show that particular concerns related to study ethics are necessary to guarantee the confidentiality of participants' identities. Even though social science research generally does not harm participants physically, the possibility exists that participants might be emotionally traumatised and sometimes have their human rights violated due to their participation in the study. Based on the above, it was therefore important for the researcher to consider the best interests of the participants through the ethical considerations of research (Brynard et al, 2020:96; Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:263-264). On the other hand, Thobane (2017:56) and Creswell and Poth (2018:226) mention that, when working with human beings (as in this case), the researcher has an obligation to uphold ethical principles

that will maintain human dignity, respect for persons, and promote welfare and justice. Likewise, Gravetter and Forzano (2018:83) define research ethics as the responsibility of researchers to be honest and respectful to all individuals who are affected by their research studies or their reports of the study's results. Thobane (2017:56) and Fouche et al (2021:119) outline all the key ethical principles that should be considered when research uses human participants. In this study, all relevant aspects that relate to a research project that involves human participants were considered. These included issues of confidentiality and anonymity, informed consent, voluntary participation, non-maleficence and no harm to subjects versus beneficence. Furthermore, the researcher conducted this study in accordance with the UNISA Research Committee Ethics' norms of conduct (see Appendix 1), in ensuring that research participants are not harmed or compromised in any way. In this context, domestic workers and police officers at Brooklyn SAPS were provided with information on the purpose of the research project, the process that will be followed including their rights in the whole research process. For the purpose of this study, the following ethical issues were considered:

### **6.9.1 Informed consent**

It is customary in field research to have participants sign a document indicating that they agree to participate in a study (Maxfield & Babbie, 2016:27). While Ary, Jacobs, Irvine and Walker (2019:56) state that it is compulsory in a field study to have all participants sign a document suggesting that individual participants agree to participate in the study. The use of an informed consent form or document is a confirmation that participants gave permission to share about their lived experiences and that they are aware of aims and objectives of the study, including the possible negative and positive effects of their participation in the study (Flick, 2022:189). In this regard, an informed consent form was used to ensure that the research participants were aware and acknowledged the reason they were requested to participate in the research project and how sharing their lived experiences would assist the researcher and relevant stakeholders. The study objectives were explained verbally to a point where the researcher was convinced that research participants understood what the study was all about and what their participation in the research project entailed. In

instances where domestic workers experienced difficulties in either reading or writing the consent was recorded verbally. Alternatively, some participants appended their signatures indicating that they were informed about the aim of the study and were participating voluntarily. In most instances, domestic workers were not familiar with the language on the consent form in which the participant informative document was presented. For that reason, the informative document was translated verbally into a language that participants understood. The researcher was able to interpret, communicate and maintain the original message in the languages that research participants were comfortable in. The researcher ensured that research participants signed informed consent forms subsequent to explaining the research processes that were adhered to in accordance with the research standards and ethical principles.

### **Procedure:**

The researcher stated the use of a semi-structured interviews in the participant informative document. What is important in this study is that the researcher obtained consent to use a tape recorder and field notes to record conversations with the domestic workers and senior police officials attached to the Brooklyn Police Station. The researcher informed participants on the duration of the interviews, which was estimated at one (1) hour and thirty (30) minutes, which will accommodate probing or discussions. In addition, participants were informed that the interview timeframe provided was not fixed but could change subject to conditions (Silverman, 2021:33). In a situation where the participant had little formal education, consent was recorded verbally and in the presence of a person who is knowledgeable (in this context, employers of domestic workers). Furthermore, the researcher requested the use of a tape recorder during the interviews, with the participants' consent (Babbie, 2017:70-71). All interviews were conducted at the participants' workplaces after making prior arrangements with their employer (in the case of domestic workers) and the station commander (in the case of police officers at Brooklyn SAPS). The research participants were generally satisfied with the explanation given about the purpose of this research project and made the decision to participate in the study without any due pressure. The following discussion is included in the informed consent form to ensure ethical behaviour in a research setting:

### **6.9.2 Voluntary participation**

According to Ary et al (2019:53), research participants ought to voluntarily take an individual decision on whether to participate in a study. The benefits, risks, and potential harm associated with participating in this study were related to research participants before they gave their consent to participate. All participation by the research participants were voluntary and they were free to withdraw at any time during the study should they deem it necessary.

Flick (2022:193) highlights that it is the responsibility of a researcher to be open and truthful to research and disclose the possible risk or harm that they might be exposed to through consenting to participate in a research project. Some of the participants, more especially domestic workers, were not eager to participate in the study because of the nature of its sensitivity. However, all participants were informed that the information they will provide might be disturbing and cause emotional or psychological discomfort. Moreover, it was noted that should such experiences occur, the researcher would ensure that the participant was immediately withdrawn from the interviews. Most importantly, participants were given the assurance that, should the information presented cause them to feel emotionally distressed or anxious, the researcher would, upon their consent, refer them to a social worker, psychologist, or counsellor for debriefing or counselling (SAPS, 2022:1). The researcher found that a majority of research participants (domestic workers) had already been provided with psychological services by their employers. Research participants were informed that they were allowed to terminate their participation in this study at any given point without reason. Hence, it was not necessary to seek any intervention available to victims of crime as prescribed by the law. Also, to minimise any possible discomfort arising from participating in this study, the researcher ensured that interviews were conducted in an environment where participants were familiar and comfortable in.

### **Respect for persons**

Prior to data collection, the researcher obtained participants' informed consent to participate in the process. Participants were treated as independent agents who can make their own decisions. The researcher therefore informed participants about the



purpose of the study and what will be done with its findings (Fouche et al, 2021:161). Respect for persons means that the researcher should treat participants as autonomous agents, and those with diminished autonomy were entitled to protection (Madzivhandila, 2019:11; Du Plessis et al, 2019:201). In this context, all participants in this study were respected, irrespective of their gender, and race (Fouche et al, 2021:161).

### **The principles of justice**

According to Gravetter and Forzano (2018:87), the principle of justice requires that there be an equal distribution between the benefits and risks of a researcher study. The researcher balanced the search for knowledge with concerns about the vulnerability of participants in this study by ensuring that there were fair and non-exploitative procedures for the selection and treatment of participants (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018:87). Furthermore, the researcher ensured that the research findings benefited the participants by developing new crime prevention strategies that will reduce fear of crime in the Brooklyn area and in the domestic workers' environment. It will also benefit SAPS members by developing new crime prevention strategies in the Brooklyn precinct), and the CPF which will ensure efficiency (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018:87). Throughout the study, the researcher made sure that confidentiality and privacy of the participants were observed while, at the same time, the integrity and honesty of the study and the researcher was not compromised (Fouche et al, 2021:163).

### **Beneficence**

Bachman and Schutt (2011:57) describe the principle of beneficence as a process of minimising possible harm to research participants, while at the same time maximising the benefits of the study for both participants and society. Gravetter and Forzano (2018:86) posit further that the principle of beneficence requires that the researcher does not harm the participants and minimises risks while, at the same time, maximising possible benefits. Furthermore, throughout the study, the researcher ensured that the human rights of research participants were protected while still ensuring that the study yielded maximum benefits to both the sponsor and research

participants (Creswell & Poth, 2018:226).

### **Risk and discomfort**

Participants were provided with information about the study, the risks and discomfort, unpleasant and emotional experiences that may be present during the study. However, the researcher would refer the participants to a counsellor (psychologist or social worker) for debriefing or counselling (with their consent). Furthermore, should the researcher noticed that the information the participants had revealed had left them feeling emotionally disturbed or uncomfortable, the researcher did all possible to minimise dangers and guarantee participants' comfort (Babbie, 2017:64). Moreover, the researcher also considered the following ethical considerations:

### **6.9.3 Anonymity or confidentiality**

Tomaszewski et al. (2020:19) describes anonymity as adopting a method or approach that will ensure that participants' personal information will not be identifiable nor shared with any third parties. In this context, domestic workers and police officers were all informed that all their personal information, such as their names or addresses will not be revealed. The researcher was mindful that there was a need to guarantee anonymity as the research findings would be disseminated to various interested stakeholders such as community members at Brooklyn suburbs, South African Domestic Service and Allied Workers Union (SADSAWU) and the SAPS at Brooklyn, Provincial and National Head Office in Pretoria. In this case, the researcher made sure that pseudonyms were used to protect the research participants. The participants were made aware that personal data will be kept confidential. Because of this, they were permitted to reply under a pseudonym or anonymity in order to safeguard their identity or privacy. According to Ruane (2016:63), anonymity is a means of guaranteeing research participants that any information they submit will remain private and undiscovered by outside parties. To prevent the information the participants submitted from being recognised, their identities were described using codes rather than being identified in the study.

Confidentiality refers to an obligation by the researcher to protect participants' identities, workplaces and their location either to other people or publicly (Babbie,

2017:67). In relation to the issue of confidentiality, the *researcher* was well aware that he had an ethical obligation develop practical plans that will address projected risks such as how to protect research participants' identities, their places of residence, as well as their location of investigation (Flick, 2022:193). As mentioned previously, the domestic workers and police officers were allocated codes to identify them when analysing and presenting the data. Furthermore, in ensuring that participants were safe and free to conduct the interviews, both domestic workers and police officers were interviewed at their working environments. Furthermore, all the participants were informed that the information they shared would be kept in a steel locker (computer filing which is password protected) where they will remain inaccessible. Also, not all domestic workers agreed to be recorded, despite being guaranteed that recordings from this study will be deleted after transcription and that the only person that will have access to such transcriptions will be the researcher.

#### **How data collected was stored and secured (storage of data)**

The approach to data storage and how it will be secured will depend on the type of data collected in the field by the researcher (Creswell & Poth, 2018:174). For this study, the researcher developed a filing system in which he filed all the predesigned forms for information or data collected in the field (in this instance, Brooklyn residents) and the interview protocols (Creswell & Poth, 2018:174). The storage and the backup computer, protected by passwords, was locked inside a steel cabinet and no one, except the researcher, has a key to both the room and the steel cabinet. A high-quality tape or recording device was used for audio recording during the interviews, and the researcher ensured that the tapes fitted the transcriber's machine (Creswell & Poth, 2018:175). Furthermore, the researcher developed a master list of information that excluded participants' identities that is kept locked in the steel cabinet.

Regarding participants' protection from harm, the researcher ensured that each participant completed an informed consent form, that their names were kept secret, and that the researcher avoids misleading methods such as promising a reward if they agree to participate in the study (Fouche et al, 2021:117-135). In this context, domestic workers were interviewed at a setting where the researcher will ensure that participants are comfortable, and no information will be leaked (Fouche et al,

2021:124). Finally, participants were not asked to give their personal information either on the predesigned form or on the interview protocols so that they would remain anonymous in future, either on the storage facility, personal files, and also on the computer files (Fouche et al, 2021:124).

### **6.10 Methodological limitations and challenges encountered during the research**

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers et al (2019:274), in any research study, the researcher should identify, describe, and discuss the limitations of a research report in the concluding chapter. This will present the research findings in context, interpret the validity of the scientific work the researcher has undertaken and ascribe the credibility level of the published research (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al, 2019:274). Research limitations concern potential weaknesses that are usually out of the researcher's control and are closely associated with the chosen research design and other factors such as funding and strains (Fouche et al, 2021:83). One of the main limitations pertaining to the chosen research methodology is that the findings of qualitative research cannot be generalised to other settings, but they can be transferrable. It was noted further that only a few participants were able to participate in the study which was another constraint to the generalisability of the findings although data saturation was achieved through prolonged engagements with participants. Nevertheless, it was noted that some of the disadvantages of qualitative research could be minimised using quantitative strategies when conducting similar research in the future (Fouche et al, 2021:83).

Although the aim of the research was explained to the research participants, they were provided with consent forms and an ethical clearance certificate from the University of South Africa and they agreed that a tape recorder could be used, at the inception of empirical data collection phase, some of the participants did not agree to be recorded while others were reluctant to participate in the study. Some of the domestic workers were not convinced because they were under the impressions that they would be utilised as police informers or "*impipi yama phoyisa*", and therefore, there were trust issues. Also, the police officers at Brooklyn Police Station precinct were reluctant to freely participate in the interview because they were apprehensive and uncomfortable

and wanted reassurance that SAPS Management had approved the study amongst them.

Representation of some of the responses were, for instance:

*“No ... no, I can’t give you such information, remember, here, I am disclosing the security of my employer, my residence. What if I give you this information, you publish it, tomorrow I see it in Pretoria News, my employer will no longer trust me, I might lose the job, who will support my kids in Zimbabwe? Handidi (meaning “no” in Shona)”.*

The researcher reiterated that data collected or information that could identify their identity would not be shared with anyone except the study supervisor. The participant responded, *“Please, I don’t want to be seen as a traitor, here in a foreign country, yhoo”.* Again, the matter was resolved by informing them that information supplied will be kept safe and no one other than the researcher and supervisor would have access to it. In addition, the reluctance was addressed by showing research participants an informative document that explained the specifics of the researcher and supervisor and ethical clearance letters provided both by UNISA and SAPS.

In some cases, participants were sceptical and demanded an explanation as to why Brooklyn was identified for this research project. This uneasiness is demonstrated by two of the domestic workers who asked: *“You said you are a student from UNISA here in town, why did you choose to research about us and in our workplace?”* The researcher’s response was that there was a paucity of research studies pertaining to fear of crime among domestic workers and, for this reason, the researcher decided to expand knowledge and conduct research of this kind within a suburban setting. Furthermore, the researcher informed the participants that the reason that their area was chosen, was because there had been a series of reported house robberies and housebreaking incidents in the Pretoria News, Rekord and the SAPS case records involving house robberies where domestic workers were identified as victims.

These reports and researcher’s line of duty created curiosity and drive to explore and gain knowledge and understanding of this topic which might contribute to reducing incidences of victimisation through the findings and recommendations of this study.

Some domestic workers requested to be compensated in the form of money and food for participating. The researcher explained that such conduct will be deemed unethical and that participation in this study was voluntarily and that they were allowed to withdraw at any given phase of the research project.

According to Bezuidenhout (2020:110), the Ministry of Police released conflicting crime statistics in 2021/2022, which negatively impacted South Africans. This is because the statistics showed that resources meant to protect the community from the high rate of property and contact crimes nationwide were instead allocated to other departments and individuals (Bezuidenhout, 2020:110). The author also suggests that South Africans lose a great deal of optimism for the future because of the country's high crime rate (Bezuidenhout, 2020:109). Also, according to the SAPS Annual Crime Report 2021/2022, there is one police officer in South Africa for every 424 citizens (StatsSA, 2022). This is despite the mid-year population estimate for Statistics South Africa, which projected 60.6 million residents in 2022 (SAPS Annual Report, 2021/2022), that serves as the basis for the ratio.

### **6.11 Summary**

The foregoing discussion in this chapter presented the research design and methodology applied in collecting data. However, as a starting point, the interpretivist research paradigm was identified as a suitable approach for the study. This paradigm was linked to a relativist ontology as well as the emic epistemological approach. The chapter revealed that the qualitative research methodology was used in this project and that a qualitative case study was found to be the appropriate design to attain the objectives of the study. Semi-structured interviews and document study were the two data collection techniques used in gathering relevant data. The empirical data were collected through interviews with 16 domestic workers who were selected using snowball and convenience sampling, while four (4) senior police officials were selected using purposive sampling strategy. As explained earlier, the involvement of police officials in this study was primarily to corroborate the perceptions of some domestic workers pertaining to some of the issues regarding property and contact crimes. The empirical data were analysed using thematic analysis and the step-by-step processes and procedures were clearly explained. In order to enhance the trustworthiness of

qualitative data, prolonged engagements with the research participants and member checks were embarked upon in line with the requirement for credibility. The research methodology and design were described and explained so that the study could be easily replicated using similar approaches. Emphasis was placed on the importance of adhering to ethics codes and principles when conducting research in order to protect the rights of research participants. A more methodological limitation of this study was that the findings cannot be generalised to other contexts although transferability to similar settings is feasible.

The next chapter presents a criminological analysis and interpretation of data.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF DATA**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

The aims of this chapter are to present the findings of the thematic analysis conducted on the data collected. The aim of the study was to collect rich information to explore research participants' lived experiences and the impact of fear of crime on domestic workers employed in the Brooklyn suburbs in Tshwane. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 16 domestic workers and four police officers providing frontline services to the community at the Client Service Centre (CSC) (See Annexure C).

In this chapter, the demographical profiles of research participants are presented, divided into two tables, followed by the analysis and findings of the study.

#### **7.2 Demographic profile of participants**

Mpuru (2020:96) highlights that, when profiling victims, gender and age is taken into consideration. The researcher describes the biographical information of research participants to determine the age, marital and employment status of the participants as victims of the crimes under investigation who meet the criteria for the phenomena. The researcher confirmed anonymity of the participants by using codes. To protect research participants' identities, "DMW" represented Domestic Workers and "POL" represented police officers. The biographical profile of the research participants is presented in the tables below:



**Table 7.1: Demographical information of research participants**

Participant	Suburb name	Age	Gender	Marital status	Language of participant	Educational status of participant	Type of Crime experienced
DMW 001	WATERKLOOF	31	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 10	ARMED ROBBERY AND RAPE
DMW 002	WATERKLOOF	27	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 8	ARMED ROBBERY
DMW 003	WATERKLOOF	31	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 9	ARMED ROBBERY AND SEXUAL ASSAULT
DMW 004	WATERKLOOF	34	FEMALE	MARRIED	SWAHILI	GRADE 10	ARMED ROBBERY
DMW 005	LYNNWOOD	21	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 12	ARMED ROBBERY
DMW 006	WATERKLOOF	33	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 11	ASSAULT WITH GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM (GBH) AND COMMON ROBBERY
DMW 007	BROOKLYN SECURITY VILLAGE	39	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 10	ARMED ROBBERY AND ASSAULT WITH GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM (GBH)
DMW 008	LYNNWOOD	34	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 10	ARMED ROBBERY AND ASSAULT WITH GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM (GBH)
DMW 009	MENLO PARK	31	FEMALE	MARRIED	SeSotho	GRADE 7	ARMED ROBBERY AND ASSAULT WITH GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM (GBH)
DMW 010	MONUMENT PARK	61	FEMALE	MARRIED	Xitsonga and SHONA	GRADE 6	ARMED ROBBERY
DMW 011	MONUMENT PARK	47	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 8	ARMED ROBBERY
DMW 012	MONUMENT PARK	44	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 6	ARMED ROBBERY
DMW 013	MONUMENT	38	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 9	ARMED ROBBERY

	PARK						AND ASSAULT GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM (GBH)
DMW 014	MONUMENT PARK	33	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 10	HOUSEBREAKING AND THEFTS
DMW 015	LYNNWOOD	38	FEMALE	MARRIED	SHONA	GRADE 8	ARMED ROBBERY AND RAPE
DMW 016	LYNNWOOD	39	MALE	MARRIED	TSONGA	GRADE 9	ARMED ROBBERY AND ASSAULT WITH GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM (GBH)

**Source: Researcher's own illustration**

### 7.2.1 Research participants' profiles

A brief explanation of research participants profiles is based on the demographics in Table 7.1 above:

### 7.2.2 Geographical demarcation

Brooklyn covers numerous suburbs and ethnic groups characterised by different cultures, languages, and races. The domestic workers were residing in these suburbs during the data collection phase. They were living in Brooklyn Security Village (1), Lynwood (04), Menlo Park (01), Monument Park (05) and Waterkloof Ridge (05). The population in Brooklyn is characterised by affluent status, tarred roads, high walls fitted with electric fences and houses with CCTVs. However, various reliable sources indicate that this suburb is among those characterised with increased incidents of contact and property crimes (SAPS, 2023:1). A study conducted by Zinn (2019:1) on incarcerated armed robbers emphasises that perpetrators of house robbers select victims' houses which are financially viable. In addition to these factors, the current under-resourced and under-staffed police station of Brooklyn SAPS further disadvantages the communities through poor service delivery to the under-privileged who are working as domestic workers. A study conducted by Zinn (2019) highlights that of house robberies tend to happen in the most affluent areas. Hence, the Brooklyn community of domestic workers was chosen as research participants as there is little research in South Africa that examines the impact of crime and fear of crime amongst

domestic workers.

### **7.2.3 Age of research participants (domestic workers)**

As presented on Table 7.1, the age range of research participants (domestic workers) was between 21 and 61 years.

### **7.2.4 Research participants' gender**

This study found that 15 domestic workers (15) out of sixteen (16) participants are females, and one is a male. Du Toit (2023:77) found that, in most countries, especially in the global South, women are in the lead where paid domestic work is concerned. This finding is in line with the current study. Also, it is not surprising that only one male participated in this study. Du Toit (2023:84) emphasises that, in South Africa, there are limited studies where the focus is on males who are employed as paid domestic workers because domestic work is generally viewed as employment that is solely for women. Also, another contributory factor could be because most migrant male workers are viewed “jack of all trades”, as a result, it becomes difficult to categorise their services (Machinya, 2022:238). This finding is a true reflection of the reality of most African women, because they are marginalised and have fewer opportunities to move up in the socio-economic hierarchy but have no choice but to take on domestic work.

### **7.2.5 Race and ethnicity**

This study found that all domestic workers who participated in the study are African which is in line with the persisting inequalities in South Africa. A majority of research participants are from neighbouring countries, in particular, Zimbabwe (15) and one participant is originally from Lesotho. Hadebe (2022:39-44) claims that the issue of migration within the SADC is not new. In addition, Zimbabwe is a net exporter of labour for decades for South Africa, particularly human capital, but lately the number of migrants from Zimbabwe to South Africa has increased because of its ailing economy. This explains why a majority of participants are originally from Zimbabwe. The researcher did not ascertain whether the participants came into the country legally or illegally in terms of Section 9 of the Immigration Act, 2003, because a majority of participants felt uncomfortable responding to the question.

### **7.2.6 Marital status**

All the participants in this study indicated that they were married.

### **7.2.7 Educational status**

The study found that the 16 victim participants had an educational status ranging from grade 06 to 12. Participant DMW 012 had grade 6 while participant DMW 009 had grade 7, three of the participants were in possession of grade 10 and one participant passed grade 11. From the researcher's perspective, none of the domestic workers had a formal education, and this led to their involvement in domestic work. It is deduced also that most of the participants have a secondary level and only two had a primary level educational status. Nevertheless, the information was not verified with the official reports from the Education Department in Zimbabwe and Lesotho. Xulu-Gama, Nhari, Malabela and Mogoru (2022:98) found that a majority of migrants are employed in environments that are viewed as "menial jobs with low pay, such as being a cleaner, domestic worker or car guards", which require minimal skills or formal education.

### **7.2.8 Employment status**

The study found that all the 16 participants were employed as domestic workers, with one as a gardener. All participants migrated to South Africa at a very young age and unskilled. This finding is in line with the study that was conducted by Nhleko (2023:90), where it was found that domestic workers employed in South Africa are Black African women who are from marginalised backgrounds.

**Table 7.2: Demographical profiles of participants (SAPS policing area)**

Participant	Police Station	Age	Gender	Marital Status	Language	Educational Qualification	Employment Position
POL 001	BROOKLYN	49	MALE	MARRIED	ENGLISH	B. TECH (POLICE MANAGEMENT)	RELIEF COMMANDER CSC
POL 002	BROOKLYN	53	FEMALE	MARRIED	ENGLISH	N.D. POLICE ADMINISTRATION	RELIEF COMMANDER CSC
POL 003	BROOKLYN	46	FEMALE	MARRIED	ENGLISH	N.D. POLICE ADMINISTRATION	RELIEF COMMANDER CSC
POL 004	BROOKLYN	48	FEMALE	MARRIED	ENGLISH	B. TECH (POLICE MANAGEMENT)	RELIEF COMMANDER CSC

Source: Researcher's own illustration

As presented in Table 7.2, the age range of the police officers was between 34 and 51 years, and they are representative of all South African race groups. Three of the participants had 10 or more years of service, while the other seven had less than four years of service. As outlined in Table 7.2, all the participants are qualified and professionals in their respective fields. Three of the four officers interviewed are females while only one participant is male. The researcher observed that research participants assigned to deal with female victimisation at the Brooklyn SAPS were mostly females. The SAPS approach in the Brooklyn precinct is in line with the National Policy Guidelines on victims of crimes which stipulates the regulatory framework that promotes and upholds the rights of the victims of crime and violence with the aim of preventing re-victimisation within the criminal justice and related institutions (National Policy Guidelines for Victim Empowerment, n.d.:8). The table above describes the police officers' formal education qualifications, and it also shows that SAPS at this precinct follows a multi-disciplinary approach when dealing with victims of crime. The adoption of this approach enables these officers to address the varied needs of victims in a cohesive and coordinated approach (National Policy Guidelines for Victim

Empowerment, n.d.:9-10).

### **7.3 Data analysis and presentations**

The collection and the analysis of data were guided by the aim and objectives of the study, as follows:

#### **7.3.1 Study aim**

To explore the domestic worker's perceptions of fear of contact and property crimes at Brooklyn areas of policing.

#### **7.3.2 Study objectives**

1. To assess how domestic workers perceptions of contact and property crimes influence their feelings of safety at the workplace.
2. To examine the ways in which domestic workers think contact and property crimes affect their employment.
3. To propose measures that domestic workers think the CJS can implement to minimise the fear of contact and property crimes in the working environment.
4. To propose measures that will monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn SAPS.

### **7.4 Background and profiling of research participants**

From Table 7.1, it can be deduced that the age of the victim participants ranged from 21 to 61 years. This can be attributed to the fact that the majority of the victims who were participants in the study engaged in the working environment as domestic workers in their youth to sustain their families. Bonnet, Carré and Vanek (2022:1) found that there are 75.6 million domestic workers employed globally aged from 15 years and above. Zinn (2019:103) confirms that the majority victims at risk of contact and property related incidents in South Africa are residents in the urban precincts between the ages of 40 and 55 years. Bezuidenhout (2020:202) posits that the majority of black communities engage in working environment in their youth as a result

of their underdeveloped and disorganised communities. Domestic workers that participated in this study are all married and migrated from the neighbouring countries with 94% from Zimbabwe. This finding is in line with the Southern African Migration Management (SAMM) Project finding that worldwide, most domestic workers employed in South Africa are originally from Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe. This study also found that South Africa is the most preferred destination for African migrants (International Labour Organization, 2021:2). Bonnet et al (2022:2) reveal that, based on international statistics, 4% of domestic employment comprises women while 1% comprises males. These authors further reveal that developed countries, such as the Middle East, employ at least 47% of women as domestic workers and 15% of men. While in the sub-Saharan Africa, it is projected that 9.4% of migrant women are employed as domestic workers and 5.8% of men (International Labour Organization, 2021:2).

In terms of educational background, the majority of domestic workers were not skilled and did not possess any formal education. Most participants had a secondary school level and none of the participants had attained a Further Education and Training (FET) qualification. Another demographic factor is that most of the participants are female Zimbabwean Nationals but their present status in South Africa was not asked during the interview because that was not the aim or the objective of the study. This finding is in line with the global pattern that domestic workers are unlikely to have a tertiary education. Further, it is found that domestic workers completed primary education and a number of domestic workers had no formal education (Bonnet et al, 2022:13).

## **7.5 Findings on the aim of the study**

**Objective 1:** To assess how domestic workers' perceptions of contact and property crimes influence their feelings about their workplaces

Issues surrounding fear of crime are discussed in detail in Chapter 3 and Chapter 5. As previously indicated, there is little to no empirical evidence that explored domestic workers' perceptions of fear of contact and property crimes while rendering their services as domestic workers. This research objective was achieved through highlighting the high levels of fear that domestic workers experience in their workplace,

including how the fear of crime has affected other areas of their lives, such as their mental health and their fear of revictimisation. The study reveals how the plight of these marginalised group is embedded in the social inequalities that still exist and how policy does not factor in domestic workers' victimisation.

This section based on theory and data collected from the research participants aims to fill in the gaps and contribute to the body of knowledge on the concept of "fear of crime" in the workplace. The findings of this study are outlined as follows:

### **7.5.1 Opportunity**

The suitable opportunistic circumstances in this analysis involved the planning and inspection of the target house (residence) and the opportunity to commit contact and property crimes. This study found that targeted residences were those with easier access and surveillance. Mpofu (2019:13) reveals that the perpetrators' decision to commit a crime and how that crime will be carried out are the first two things in their approach of targeting households. According to the author, this decision normally happens away from the scene based on certain motivational factors, for instance, a need for money, search for a vulnerable area, or a suitable residential area. The second aspect are the cues (signals) that alert the accessibility of the property, for instance, security known as the environmental inspection.

The last aspect that Mpofu (2019:13) explains is how the perpetrator shows careful consideration with a specific method when selecting a suitable target. The aspect of the presence of an opportunity personifies all the categories in the sense that, when there is a suitable target and a lack of a capable guardian, perpetrators of these crimes are likely to commit house robberies, burglaries at residences, and subsequent rapes. Based on the information gathered in this study, the residences that were targeted were those with live-in domestic workers and with guardianship, in a form of CCTVs and electric fences. This finding is contrary to the existing body of knowledge on target hardening and guardianship. This finding may be unique to the South African context. Also, houses that were robbed in this study were gated communities, residences with adequate security and enclosed neighbourhoods. Breetzke and Cohn (2013:63) conducted a study in Tshwane that investigated the effect that gated communities



have on residential burglaries. Their study found that burglaries mostly occur in these locations where people perceive that they are safe. The anomie/strain theory explicates why individuals who live in affluent areas are targeted for valuables – the “have” and “have not” concept. Also, a lack of working deterrence measures in the country, lawlessness and a lack of police visibility might have a direct link to the surge of criminal activities in this area. The quotation below corroborates that those targeted properties had adequate guardianship:

*DMW 001 said: “After entering, the Black tall one without balaclava, had gun, he tied me with plastic cables, he put the gun on his waist and push me into the closet, they took anything in the kitchen, I only hear their steps while collecting the kitchen utensils. One of them with gun he opened the closet and pull me out, he then undressed me and had sex with me three times. I was dizzy and he left me alone, you see, it is because there is no electric fence here and this people looking for piece job there at the corner they can see I am alone and police come sometimes that is why I am a target, even in the CCTV it is there”.*

Of the 16 targeted households, all 16 households had CCTVs installed, electric fences and burglar doors. Of the 16 targeted properties, there was inadequate guardianship, the verbatim extracts below demonstrate this:

*DMW 003: “You see Sir, I work in a danger place cause always there are black guys standing on the corner there, all they speak different languages with school bag at their back, I don’t know what is there inside, this is strange but my Boss don’t want to put cameras here and always he is not here with his wife, I am not safe here you see”.*

The finding of this study demonstrates that a motivated offender and rewards play a key part in the commission of crime. The aim was to get hold of electric appliances as they are easily sold in the “black market”. During robberies, perpetrators are more likely to take items that can be easily disposed of for money to ensure a means of living, finance extravagant lifestyles or feed drug problems (SAPS, 2020).

This study found that, in some cases, sexually related assaults committed during these

robberies were unplanned and can be attributed to the presence of an opportunity. Opportunistic crimes committed during housebreaking or house robberies are explained using verbatim extracts below:

DMW 003 explained: *"I think this other guy saw an opportunity on me because I was alone as a woman in the house, there was no one except the cats, he told himself, I will not miss the opportunity."*

Bartol and Bartol (2017:207) suggest that impulsive or exploitative rapists normally participate in "spontaneous rape" in cases where such an opportunity presents itself. They further highlight that such spontaneous rape incidents mostly occur in the context of another crime such as robbery or burglary. This corroborates the finding of this study. Furthermore, research revealed that most sexually motivated break-ins occur in occupied homes when the victim is alone (Bartol & Bartol, 2017:208). In addition to being robbed of their belongings, victims of domestic crime may sometimes be attacked, raped, or even killed (SAPS, 2019).

The quotation above demonstrate that reported rape cases that occurred during house robberies or house burglaries are not premeditated and occur on the spur of the moment when a perpetrator sees an opportunity (Lekgau, 2022:106). Within this background, it is an opportunity arising from the situation in the house over a powerless targeted individual, in this case, a domestic worker. As pointed out below in section 7.5.2, for victimisation to occur there are multiple risk factors that must be present. Risk factors identified in this study in line with the routine activities theory are detailed in the below:

### **7.5.2 Routine activities of domestic workers and employers**

Research participants were asked the following pertinent questions in order to understand the impact that lifestyle might have:

- 1) How did the perpetrators gain entry?
- 2) At what time or season did these incidents occur? (Winter, summer or December)
- 3) Did they gain entry through the walls, gate (remote not working maybe,

loadshedding or when the employer left the gate open when leaving for work?

Of the 16 robbery incidents reported in this study, five housebreakings were committed at 9am during winter. As the participant said: *“Both my employers leave home by 8h30”*, meaning that the perpetrators were familiar with their routine.

*“You see Baba (expression of respect to a male person) what makes me unsettle here is, I was robbed here last year in June 13. here at this house and also at so ... (looks up trying to recall the time frame) at so 1 o'clock midday. And those guys looks like the same people who were here last time” (DMW 009).*

*“Ntate (expression of respect to male person by a South Sotho woman) while the Minister was in Singapore, people came, using the ladder to jump here. I think they don't want the police at the gate to see them and sure they don't see them, when they come one with 'khupa head' (Balaclava's) put his finger on his mouth saying I must kill me. Yhoo, that day, I sweat the whole body, I never thought I will still alive, but thanks God here is me” (DMW 011).*

The researcher then asked: *“How did they gain entry because I can see police officers at the entrance gate?”*

DMW 007 replied,

*“This is surprising you know, but in the morning when the Brooklyn police come, I heard one sergeant female detective saying to one another, I see footprints here of an All Star tekkie shoes. I suspect they might have jumped over the fence through the wooden ladder because of electric which is on every night six o'clock.”*

### **7.5.3 Fear of repeat victimisation**

Research participants of this study reported having a fear of being revictimised by perpetrators, so they closed themselves behind locked doors and their employers had to hire private security to maximise police patrol, residences in the surrounding areas

were fitted with electrified fences and remote gates were also installed. The participants further reported fearing for their lives and the lives because of risk of heterogeneity or flag explanation (Lab, 2020:187). Lab (2020:187) explains that, “risk heterogeneity or flag explanations suggests that prior or repeat victimisation identifies the victim of a certain category or a location as an appropriate target for further victimization.”

Under the fear of crime, DMW 009 expressed that she felt unsafe at the house since the attack in June 2022 at the same house at the same time. She mentioned that the perpetrators who robbed her workplace last year, bear some similarities with the recent perpetrators.

Domestic workers were asked one single question, “*What are your chances of becoming a victim of assault with weapon, robbery and burglarised or raped within the next year?*”

*“I think I will be the next person to be robbed here, last week, at Monument, they rob, my home girl, people come and take everything and ran way, lucky they did not rape her, so Monument and here is next to one another, that is why they will come here” (DMW 004).*

*“I am worried that what they did to me last of last year they will come again, because it was July and even now is July, they can come again this people. The police are not protecting me, I don’t know, maybe it’s because I am Zimbabwe person, I don’t know” (DMW 015).*

To elaborate on the levels of anticipated victimisation, domestic workers were asked to respond to crimes of robbery, housebreaking and subsequent rape. They were also asked to explain their chances of becoming a victim. DMW 004 and DMW 015 were worried about becoming a victim of both contact and property crime. The researcher concurs with Pretorius and Fynn (2017:40) that the possible explanation for victims of crime being more worried about themselves becoming victims of crime again is due to the fact that 99% of participants for this study are females.

*“You see sir, what makes me unsettle here is, I was also attacked last year*

*in June, here at this house and at the same time and those guys look like the same people who were here that time. Even them, they were having a small gun, and he put it on my head you see, even last week, he did the same and the way they enter they first ring the bell at the gate. They say we are from the maspal (municipal workers). This make me think I am a target here, you see, or may be this guys they talk to each other, they are organised, I don't know" (DMW 009).*

According to Lab (2020:187), subsequent victimisation of victims may also be undertaken by different perpetrators who might be attracted to the crime scene or the target by its vulnerability. In this context, the researcher is of the opinion that the potential offender's rational choice theory, their experience (routine activities) offers information on the risk (Lab, 2020:187). The study found that fear of repeat victimisation on victims of crimes forced them to remain behind closed doors which are cues to the fear of repeat victimisation that has a negative psychological impact and affects their quality of life.

#### **7.5.4 Consequences of attacks on victims**

Most of the domestic workers recalled being attacked by the perpetrators. DMW 006 recalled how she was robbed by the perpetrators whom one of them was holding a pickhead in his hand with Balaclavas. The domestic worker also reflected on how she kept having flashbacks of the robbery on the day in question:

*"They came, the three of them, one was having a pickhead on his hand. I suspect they used it to pick up the remote gate. When they came here, they found me watching the TV relaxing. One push me into the closet and closed me inside, they started ransacking the house. I could smell dagga smoke the whole place. I felt like I was dreaming. It really took time for me to recover from that. I had to go to Zim for three months because I could not stay in a house where I was near my grave." Participant DMW: 006.*

Newburn (2017:318) emphasises that because of the attacks and other severe crimes committed against them, victims of violent crimes endure continuous emotional, spiritual, and mental trauma. This is illustrated by Participant DMW 006 who recalled

how her heart was racing when she heard one of the attackers remarking "She has to be raped." As a result of the incident, she experienced extreme psychological distress and trauma, and she struggled to fall asleep and had bad dreams that the robbers would return.

### **7.5.5 Secondary victimisation**

The notion of secondary victimisation on victims of crime is caused by a direct result of their participation in the CJS. According to Harding, Davies and Mair (2017:399), secondary victimisation is often emotional, psychological and is not necessarily a deliberate act but the study revealed that the continuous attack of victims by perpetrators of either house robberies or housebreaking and thefts, had a secondary victimisation on the victim's spouse, family members and friends as some were emotional and psychologically affected as expressed by participant DMW009 below.

*"Because of me robbed here always, my boyfriend had depression to that he was taken from Tshiredzi (a village in Zimbabwe) to South Africa for treatment. Every time, when they hear on the news about robbery at Brooklyn, they phone and ask if I am not the victim, my mind is always thinking of attack, always when I see a man, either on the street, I am afraid because I remember that day."*

### **7.5.6 Vicarious victimisation**

Findings of this study are that the fear of Criminal Victimization of domestic workers in Brooklyn is related to measures of vicarious victimisation. This is attributed to the fact that domestic workers always hear about their colleagues who have been the victims of a crime. Literature reveals that this elicits a sympathetic reaction and empathetic fear of crime (Lab, 2020:23). In analysing fear of crime amongst Brooklyn domestic workers, it was noted that the local crimes of house robberies, housebreaking, thefts and subsequent rape are related to the fear of violent, property and disorder offences and independent of actual victimisation (Lab, 2020:24). The study concurs with Lab (2020:24) that vicarious fear of crime amongst domestic workers emanates from real and dramatic depictions of crimes in the media more especially small screen, and from

annual and quarterly crime statistic releases by either the police minister, Mr Bheki Cele, and the Statistician General, Mr Risenga Maluleke. Moreover, Lab (2020:24) adds that the most vicarious victimisation is when media only focuses on heinous and frightening offences such as murder, rape, house robberies and house burglaries as expressed below by participant DMW013:

*“As my children look at the TV about how a woman at the kitchen was raped, beaten and pointed with a gun for robbers to take the whole thing in the house, they are traumatised. The last born one is no longer willing to look at the TV, she thought, I am exploited hearing about the aftermath of the violence situation here.”*

## **7.6 Findings on objectives of the study**

**Objective 2:** To examine the effects of victimisation in the workplace.

Workers lose resources related to their working conditions, such as their sense of personal safety at work and the impression of a secure working environment, after being exposed to theft or robbery. Workers are more likely to have mental health issues and PTSD symptoms if they (continue to) experience resource loss (Setti et al, 2018:2). It is anticipated that thefts and robberies would have different effects on domestic workers' well-being, in line with the findings of Setti et al (2018:2). Robberies are different from thefts as robberies involve a higher degree of violence. Subsequently, the categories that harmed domestic workers included: (1) Employees who suffered from thefts exclusively; (2) Employees who fell prey to robberies exclusively; and (3) Employees who were the subject of both thefts and robberies. Nevertheless, we discovered at the outset of our research that most, if not all, of the workers who had been robbed had also experienced thefts (or vice versa). The researcher does agree, however, with Setti et al (2018:2) that not much research has been done up to this point on how robberies and thefts affect the typical demands of an individual's profession, as this study found.

A study conducted by Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28) reveals that the victimisation model shows that individuals who have previously been exposed to crime have a higher fear of crime. Within this context, domestic workers who are exposed to contact

and property crimes at Brooklyn residence are desensitised in terms of their attitudes towards crime. The researcher concurs with Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28) that the main concern is that, although there have been numerous related studies on the fear of crime, it is still not possible to determine the actual relationship between victimisation and fear of crime as research has shown no relationship (see section 1.6). The current study reveals that all 16 of the domestic workers in this study experienced robbery only, while eight experienced theft in their working environment. The verbatim extract below demonstrates the level of fear that was instilled during these incidences:

*“When the guys found me washing, I first heard a bad smell around me, when I look back, I did not expect any harm on me that is why screamed bitterly as if I was dying, that day I will not forget buti” (DMW 010).*

#### **7.6.1 Weapon use in the commission of crimes under investigation**

The use of weapons, such as firearms, pickheads, knobkieries and Balaclavas, by perpetrators of crimes in the robberies at Brooklyn residences increases the levels of fear and therefore influence the feelings of safety of domestic workers in their workplaces. Most of the domestic workers and all the police officials in the study mentioned that perpetrators have guns, pickheads and knobkieries to disempower victims. This modus operandi of the perpetrators in the study had a greater impact on victims, their employers and family members. Hence, employers fitted electric fence on the walls, remote gates, and CCTVs. Bezuidenhout (2020:210) believes that the risk should be founded on the pervasiveness of the crime that individuals fear the most, the likelihood that the crime will occur to the individuals, the vulnerability that the individuals have and the consequences of the crime(s). Similarly, Lekgau (2022:116) adds that weapon use reflects a predominantly functional and instrumental behavioural aspect of the offence demonstrating the perpetrator’s need for control and characterises a planned offence. Organised offenders are likely to use weapons to control and facilitate the crime. In this context, perpetrators carry weapons as a way of controlling the victims to make sure that they comply with their instructions and do not resist. Therefore, the perpetrators’ conduct at the scene of crime influences the victims’ feeling of safety at their workplaces.



### 7.6.2 How the use of weapons is perceived by the victims

*“I was seriously assaulted by a hard object resembling a gun on my head last year here, even last of last year, while my boss was in France, I was pushed by a gun into the kitchen and locked inside the pantry. Last week, it was the third time. So even you sir, you can see that I am not safe here, now is the third time, I am attacked in the house. When my boss put electric fence, he thought I will be safe, but no change. And this people they only take TV’s, jewellery, watches and sometimes even food from the fridge. This is the only thing they take here always, really, I am victimised here, I am not safe, for sure next time when they come they will rape me” (DMW 007).*

*“You see sir, when my boss put electric there, he thought it will minimise the robberies, but nothing. I am now fearful here, you see when they leave for work, I close myself here, but it doesn’t help when they come, they push the remote gate there (she pointed at the gate) and come in, you will be shocked, they are here already, this is why my boss put a shooter at all doors” (DMW 009).*

*“Even if there is electric here, when they come, they rang the bell at the gate and they say, we are maspal people, we came to repair the sewer. Indeed, when I look at the CCTV, they were wearing maspal clothes. I opened, I was shocked when one put a gun on me and showed me the room, he locked me at the children’s room and they started taking everything here. Now I don’t know how to be safe here” (DMW 016).*

*“I hide myself in the house here because always they come with guns when they rob me, even last May, so now I am always in the house” (DMW 003).*

This narrative is supported by Zinn (2019:183) in section 1.4.4 of this study that one of the characteristics of perpetrators of house robberies includes the willingness to apply lethal weapons against the victims in order for them to comply with perpetrators’ instructions. Therefore, as indicated in the analysis of the findings in relation to aim of the study, the victims’ perceptions of fear of crime at Brooklyn residences, and the use

of lethal weapons, pickheads etc. in the commission of crimes, influence their feelings of safety at their workplaces in Brooklyn. Mpofu (2019:19) agrees in section 1.3 of this study that risk of actual victimisation is commonly applied to model fear and the risk of crime should be based on the prevalence of crime that victims are fearful of and this influences their feelings of safety.

### **7.6.3 Perceived risk and harm**

The victims were further asked to share their feelings about perceived risks and harm about perpetrators' participation in contact and property crimes-related incidents at Brooklyn residences. This was done to assess how domestic workers' perceptions of contact and property crimes influenced their feeling of safety at their workplaces. The study found that the inordinate levels of fear centred on the potential harm domestic workers encountered when victimised. They both reported that repeated victimisation as a result of continuous attack during house robberies, housebreaking and thefts and subsequent rape has a greater impact on them as individuals and their family members (vicarious victimisation) than their employers. For instance, DMW 007, reported that, when she was robbed for the second time, the perpetrators locked her in the children's room after she was severely assaulted by a "knobkierie" on the head and her employer did not bear the responsibilities for medical expenses. The victim narrated the incident as follows:

*"You see this scars (the victim showed the researcher) I was hit by a knobkierie repeatedly last of last week, I had to ask my uncle, he works to cut trees, to pay for my medical expenses, he paid Dr (name withheld) R500.00 for treating me, my boss did not take me to hospital, I had to get help from my uncle who works on tree fellers you see."*

Literatures indicates that a minor monetary loss on certain individuals can translate into a major hardship (Lab, 2020:24). Similarly, physical injuries on domestic workers, due to repeat victimisation and crimes that certain individuals tend to fear the most, can result in lengthy and painful recuperation beyond that which is needed by affluent individuals at Brooklyn residences. Also, Kruger, Lancaster, Landman, Liebermann, Louw and Robertshaw (2016:5) maintain that perceived vulnerability is a strong

predictor of fear among women as they are mostly fearful of rape.

Another finding of this study was that vulnerability of the individual group at Brooklyn also appeared in the form of social isolation because domestic workers' employers suspected them of being complicit with the perpetrators. Also, they are socially isolated from support networks that are common among other population groups, for instance, they are excluded from the Occupational Health and Safety Act, 85 of 1993. The following discussion focuses on the findings based on the study objectives in section 1.1.3.

#### **7.6.4 Identities during the commission of crimes**

All the victims of crimes in this study mentioned that perpetrators of crimes did not hide their face nor had gloves when committing the crimes. Lekgau (2022:118) posits that offenders of house robberies believed that putting on disguising clothes creates suspicions because individuals would automatically be alerted that someone is about to commit crime in the area. In this context, the successful commission of the crimes under investigation depends on the physical appearance of perpetrators. However, victims in the study narrated the incidents as follows:

*"Although I was locked in the small room for the children, but none of them closed the faces" (DMW 006).*

*"I was in the closet but when the one with a gun locked me inside, he was not hiding the face, only the lumberhood" (DMW 011).*

*"The tallest one had no gloves in his hands, so fingerprints could be lifted but the police for the fingerprints came the following day" (DMW 015).*

The findings in this study are that perpetrators of these crimes do not disguise themselves and domestic workers could see their faces. This is linked to the perpetrators' belief of not being easily arrested and chances of being identified and convicted in the absence of evidence left at the crime scenes are minimal. Similarly, Bezuidenhout (2020:212) posits that the high number of crimes per offenders of house robberies corroborates the low conviction rates. Zinn (2019:81) mentions further that

the alarming issue with the current SAPS is the fact that, although many offenders of this crimes claimed not to have used gloves during the commission of crimes, the police's inability to detect evidence at crime scenes and successfully investigate and apprehend offenders is very low. The conduct of the SAPS in failing to apprehend offenders although they are unmasked and without gloves at crime scenes influences domestic workers feelings of safety in their workplaces because the SAPS failed to protect the citizens although they are mandated to do so in terms of section 205(3) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996b).

In examining the ways in which domestic workers perceive the high levels of contact and property crimes affect their relationships with their employers, the study findings established that, while there are many cases of house robberies in Brooklyn, these relationships have been seriously affected. The study established that employers suspect victims are conspiring with perpetrators of crimes. Hence, many of the crimes are committed while employers are not in the house. The recent arrest of Zimbabwean nationals caught in Polokwane with stolen TV's, stoves, microwaves, cutleries etc. reported in the media, fuelled the suspicions (Staffreporter, 2024:1). Participant DMW 003 explained that she was even taken for polygraphy tests.

*"My boss suspect me of this numerous robberies, he says, why all this incidents happened when he is at work" (DMW 003).*

*"I am suspected of the recent one because the robbery happened immediately he left, he even said he saw the bakkie standing at the robot when I relate the story to him" (DMW 006).*

*"Me, I was taken for test, he thought I am involved, you know I don't know anything, I am here to work not for anything else" (DMW 010).*

However, all the participants denied cooperating with perpetrators of contact and property crimes committed at Brooklyn residences, *"I am here to work for my children that's all"*, DMW 009 said.

**Objective 3:** To propose measures that the SAPS and Judiciary can implement to minimise the fear of contact and property crimes in their working environment.

The victims were further asked to share their feelings about the measures the SAPS and the South African Judiciary can implement to minimise the fear of these crimes amongst them. In relation to the third objective, all the domestic workers and the police officials interviewed in the CSC cited similar reasons, "Improper Administration of the Criminal Justice System (CJS)". In responding to "What measures do you think both the SAPS and Judiciary can implement to minimise the fear of the crimes?", all the victims complained: "No arrest is effected on the perpetrators", all the police officials running the shifts or group at the CSC Brooklyn uttered similar responded, "Poor detection rate on perpetrators of these crimes, no arrest, no prosecution on these guys".

*"I don't think this people are arrested, if they were arrested, they would have been finished by now. I for myself, although I was robbed here two times last year, I was never called in court to testify you know, what's that, I suspect something with this police and the guys, they eat together" (DMW 009).*

*"Even if the police can arrest, I think they only arrest those who don't have money like me, those with money are left out, they eat together moes, we know the police in South Africa" (DMW 011).*

*"You know, the day I was robbed here, I did not see the police fingerprints coming here, I remember very well, John (her boss) phoned them several times because I wanted to clean here until he was tired, none of them came. So, in that sense, how can you bring down this robberies here, no, you can't, police are corrupt" (DMW 014).*

*"Here in this world, if you do not have money and not rich, there is no justice for you. Here is me, I was robbed last year, the police came, I appreciate them, but where is the people who rob, nothing" (DMW 015).*

*"I don't think we will minimise the fear of crime on domestic workers, two or three things that is lacking with our colleagues on top there (Brooklyn detectives are at the first floor), the conviction and detection rate of house robbery cases are very low. It's only that I am not sure at which percent, but*

*they are not satisfactory, last month I heard they were on one(1) star meaning it was from 0% to 39% detection and conviction rate, it's poor"* (POL 001).

*"Very few suspects of house robberies are arrested here. How can we win the war on crime? We are just working to support our families but we are not doing justice to our communities"* (POL 002).

*"How can we minimise the rate of crime if we are being arrested for bribe? Last month Detective Sergeant X (Name withheld) was handcuffed by the Hawks at his office. Last year only seven detectives were arrested for corruption in 2019, the Magistrate Court was set on fire. Who did that? Themselves to destroy evidence of sensitive cases, I don't think we will win the battle of fear of crime, we are underpaid"* (POL 003).

*"To minimise fear of crime, pay the SAPS and the Judiciary, then crime will go down in South Africa"* (POL 004).

*"I don't think our detectives and prosecutors are properly trained in dealing with this cases, because sometimes I hear community members, especially the whites here, they say police fingerprints are not collected. How can you connect the suspect and the crime scene, never?"* (POL 004).

The experiences of domestic workers and police officials attached to visible policing at the CSC in response to objective 3 of the study was that very few of the house robberies incidents ended up in court for prosecution and sentencing. Despite the response of domestic workers who are mostly from neighbouring countries, the Brooklyn members at the CSC also complained of corruption and a lack of skilled detectives to handle these cases. Literature confirms that house robbers and rapists of domestic workers in South Africa are apprehended and prosecuted by chance (Bezuidenhout 2020:212; Lekgau 2022:181). Similarly, Zinn (2019:81) posits that poor detection and conviction rates of detectives in South Africa are caused by unskilled detectives who do not lift fingerprints at a crime scene. Moreover, the study conducted by the ISS, found that only 12.6% of cases of robberies in residences ended up in court (Bezuidenhout, 2020:212). However, even though they do reach court, many of

them are withdrawn due to lack of evidence from shoddy detective work to prepare and secure evidence for the case.

**Objective 4:** To propose measures that will monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn SAPS.

The domestic workers and the police officials attached to the front line desk at the CSC were asked to propose measures that will monitor the effective and efficiency of the local Brooklyn Police Station in order to offer an uncompromising service delivery to the mostly affected community of domestic workers. These were some of the proposals from the victims:

*“I think the police are doing enough but they had to maximise their effort”*  
(DMW 001).

*“Corruption must stop”* (DMW 003).

*“Improve visibility in our areas at noon time because that is when they target us”* (DMW 004).

*“They must arrest criminals for us”* (DMW 007).

*“We need more resources at Brooklyn”* (POL 001).

*“The government must pay us the police and reduce tax”* (POL 002).

*“We must go for refresher course on Batho Pele”* (POL 003).

*“We must be held accountable for the high levels of serious and violent crimes at our vicinities”* (POL 004).

The high number of contact and property crimes at Brooklyn residences per participant corroborates the low conviction numbers indirectly. What is alarming within this study context is that many domestic workers claimed that police officials who visited the crime scenes had no gloves or protective clothes for scenes of crimes. The researcher concurs with Zinn (2019:83), that this tendency raises serious questions with regard to the police’s ability to detect evidence at crime scenes and to successfully investigate

and arrest suspects of these crimes. In proposing measures that will monitor the effectiveness and the efficiency of the local police station, the study proposes the following:

- Hold the local police management to account for the high levels of crime at the hot spots areas of Brooklyn SAPS.
- Implement a Police Service Performance Plan by evaluating police station's performance, monitor the top 30 crime riddled police stations nationally, including Brooklyn, for effectiveness, efficiency and legitimacy with reference to how to offer services to their communities (SAPS, 2022:23).

According to the SAPS Police Performance Initiatives, police effectiveness denotes how effective the police are at reducing their crime levels and tackling and preventing offending, while efficiency of policing involves the assessment of the extent the police take to ensure a secure financial position and an affordable way of policing (SAPS, 2019:1). The responses above indicate that during the commission of crimes, victims of crimes are not attended to. Ensuring that victims of crime or those who have been reintegrated into society are given coping mechanisms is a major responsibility of the CJS. Additionally, coping strategies like therapy plans might lessen the victims' anguish and rage. However, if a victim of crime feels disregarded by the legal system, they may experience anxiety and feel compelled to exact retribution on the perpetrator (Newburn, 2017:317).

## **7.7 Motivating factors**

### **7.7.1 The role of the CPF**

It is the responsibility of the CPF to bring the local police and the community of Brooklyn together to bridge the gap between the public and the police to solve crime problems and their challenges (in this context, contact and property crimes among domestic workers). Hence, the researcher concurs with Ngobeni et al (2021:191) that it is imperative for community members to be members of the CPF to assist the police in fighting crimes. According to a 44-year-old domestic worker who has been working at the same home for six years, she has experienced robberies, rapes, and break-ins



during the June and December holidays when her employers are in Switzerland. She has, however, never been given the chance to join CPF, despite having been the victim of similar crimes multiple times. She recounted the following during the researcher's interview:

*“I always hear my boss (employer) saying on Friday night after work, I am going to CPF meeting, but I am not a member of this CPF. At one stage, I asked, what is CPF and he said it’s a Community Police Forum where we talk of crime challenges and how to prevent, but I don’t think he is a victim of this crime. It is me who suffer robbery, burglary and rape but I am not there. Can you help me, can you help us kitchen girls are there to talk about our problem maybe it will solve” (DMW005).*

### **7.7.2 Private Security Officials (PSOs) fighting crimes in Brooklyn**

The researcher concurs with Kole (2015:169) that private security personnel are in a good position to assist the police when they see crimes while performing their official tasks, even though they are not as capable of making arrests as the SAPS. The author did, however, note that both public and private securities primarily care about offering paying consumers protection against criminality. Because of this, the researcher believes that domestic workers ought to receive training on self-defence and know what to do in the event of an attack on their working environment.

### **7.7.3 Training the unskilled domestic workers**

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) ratified the Convention No. 189 and Recommendation No. 201 on domestic workers in 2011, establishing international labour rules for these workers. The National Domestic Workers Alliance asserts that domestic workers have rights (National Domestic Workers Alliance, 2007:1). Consequently, the researcher concurs with the domestic worker alliance that they should be protected and given the tools and knowledge to defend themselves from any assault that may occur while they are performing their jobs.

#### **7.7.4 The motivational factors of committing contact and property crimes at residences**

Analysis of this section was based on the motivational factors of committing contact and property crimes, aiming at exploring domestic workers' perceptions of fear at the workplace. The categories below are the results of open-ended questions with the victims and the researcher. Categories or factors of contact and property crimes are therefore presented as follows:

##### **1. Opportunity**

Contact and property crimes, namely, house robbery and rape, are crimes of opportunity. The findings in this study prove that opportunistic circumstances range from a suitable household lacking proper security measures to the vulnerable female domestic workers who lack capable guardianship. Domestic workers can knowingly or unknowingly participate in the planning. They can voluntarily give information about a targeted house or be manipulated into it. For instance, a female domestic worker who is proposed by a man who is intending to source information from her. It can be done over a long period, wherein the domestic worker may think that she is "in love" whereas she is a source of information on the criminal syndicate of house robberies.

The unplanned part is when perpetrators decide to commit crimes to get quick cash or enjoyment. Planned or unplanned, suitable opportunistic circumstances play an important role in the commission of contact and property crimes. Thus, perpetrators seize an opportunity to get into the house undetected to commit the crimes. The entry into the targeted house may be forced or not. Forced entry is when perpetrators of crimes use tools or objects like pickheads to lift the gate motors.

The mentioned objects (pickheads) are effective for perpetrators because they are less noisy during the forced entry and consequently, do not attract attention from the victims in the house, neighbours, and passersby. The unforced method of entry is when perpetrators knock at the victim's house and pretend to enquire about house numbers or ask for directions and the domestic worker opens the door. Perpetrators can also claim to be municipal workers who are sent to repair something in the house. This method is more applicable to those perpetrators who look trustworthy and

domestic workers are unable to detect criminal behaviour from their physical appearance. In addition, domestic workers can be used as a human key when they are found outside, either washing, cleaning etc. and coerced into the house.

Similarly, rape and sexual offences, as opportunistic crimes are committed when the opportunity presents itself such as when there is a female domestic worker in the house, and the perpetrator finds her alone. In this manner, the circumstances producing the opportunity for house robbery also produce opportunistic circumstances for the commission of rape. Mpofu (2019:16) in section 6.7 of this study mentions methods used by home burglars for analysing the risk of a successful residential burglary. The first is the surveillance in which perpetrators will first examine the evidence of a presence of a capable guardian. A study conducted by Lekgau (2022:139) shows 29 respondents who spent time observing a place before a house robbery. The observations range from one to more than 10 hours.

The second assessment employed by the house robber and burglars in the study is the occupancy to detect the presence of occupants as well as capable guardians in the targeted residence. The study findings concur with Mpofu (2019) that most burglars would not enter an occupied residence. Also, the house burglar considers accessibility to the targeted residence by assessing the ease of entry. Perpetrators will look for residences that are easy to enter and do not have locks, dogs and security systems.

To enhance security measures at Brooklyn residences, occupants of households must take cognisance of any suspicious individuals who are seen lingering the streets without any reason. Of course, it may be difficult to detect such, but a suspicious and wandering persons can be easily detected. This is more applicable in urban precincts like Brooklyn where affluent people reside. Furthermore, the researcher concurs with Lekgau (2022:140) that the installation of visible security measures, such as CCTVs, alarm systems and electric fences can deter perpetrators. They also include: tidying unattended garden tools in the yard; verification of a stranger before opening the door at house; and domestic animals, such as dogs, that can alert home dwellers if there is an intruder. When employing a domestic worker, there is a need for a thorough prior background check, verification and fingerprint scanning to find any implication in a

crime. Some of these security measures and background checks of domestic workers can make it difficult for an intruder to enter a residential premises. Another motivational factor to commit crimes that causes fear for domestic workers is substance abuse of drugs and alcohol before the commission of the crimes.

## **2. Substance abuse of drugs and alcohol by perpetrators**

The findings and analysis of this study proves that the use of substances and alcohol prior the commission of contact and property crimes plays a critical role in the commission and facilitation of these crimes. The majority of domestic workers in the study mentioned that perpetrators of the crimes were smelling of cannabis and liquor which proves to the researcher that perpetrators of serious and violent crimes, such as house robberies, consumed alcohol and smoked cannabis before embarking on the commission of crime. Lekgau (2022:140) concurs with the findings in this study that the use of alcohol and drugs impairs the normal functioning and reasoning of individuals. Hence, domestic workers in this study are fearful of perpetrators of the crimes because they are aware of their limitations and capabilities. Another cause of fear amongst domestic workers on perpetrators of the crimes is aggression.

## **3. Aggression**

Within the context of this study, aggression refers to the anger that perpetrators possess when they are unable to attain their mission of either robbery or house burglary. The researcher opines that the anger is exacerbated when perpetrators do not find valuable items which can be exchanged for money to finance their drugs and support their families. Furthermore, the researcher concurs with the findings of Lekgau (2022:140) that perpetrators are informed about houses with valuable items by domestic workers. Therefore, their aggression is a contributing factor to the commission of rape. According to the researcher, when the domestic worker is raped in front of the children she is employed to look after, it is believed that she will confess where the household's valuables and money are stored. Another perception of fear of crime on domestic workers is their vulnerability at their workplaces.

## **4. Vulnerability model**

Domestic workers' vulnerability relates to their feelings of being physically unable to

protect themselves or lacking social support. This study found that Zimbabwean nationals are more fearful of contact (rape), property housebreaking, thefts and house robberies. Another vulnerability model identified in this study is when domestic workers are raped to disclose the whereabouts of valuable items. This study discovered that female domestic workers are more vulnerable to become victims of rape and sexual offences as they are soft targets. Another model of fear is the use of weapons.

## **5. The use of weapons**

The use of weapons by the perpetrators of the crimes plays an important role to facilitate the commission of contact and property crimes and therefore exacerbate the domestic workers' fears. For instance, firearms and pickheads were reported to be commonly used by perpetrators in this study to scare the domestic workers into submission. The study findings concur with Lekgau (2022:144) that the weapons used at the crime scenes give power and impunity to perpetrators to commit the crimes. Furthermore, domestic workers would comply with the orders of the perpetrators if they have firearms. In this context, domestic workers, as the main victims, are likely to show where the valuables are rather than getting killed. In this way, the domestic worker would avoid further victimisation by perpetrators. Although in some related studies, perpetrators of serious and violent crimes in the households were seen wearing Balaclavas to hide their identities (Pretorius & Fynn 2017:1), the following discussion will focus on identity hiding as another factor to exacerbate fear in domestic workers.

## **6. Identity hiding**

Perpetrators of serious and violent crimes often hide their identities (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:1) but this was not true for all perpetrators in this study, many of whom did not hide their identity during the commission of the crimes. The findings of this study suggest that this is primarily influenced by the perpetrators' belief that the level of apprehension by the local Brooklyn police officials and conviction is very low. Furthermore, this study's findings concur with Lekgau (2022) that hiding identities by wearing a balaclava gives the impression that an individual is planning or about to commit a crime. Therefore, within this context, the perpetrators' lack of hiding their identities should make investigations easier in Brooklyn. Furthermore, it would also be

easier for domestic workers to identify the offenders during identification parades and sketching purposes, and this would speed up the process of apprehending perpetrators and the overall effectiveness of the CJS. The commission of contact and property crimes in this study was seen as a thrilling experience of attaining stolen goods, money and displaying power and control over the most vulnerable victims of domestic workers through the application of force and power dynamics. Therefore, the following discussion will focus on the methods and tools of entry normally used to access entry at Brooklyn residence.

### **7.8 Methods and tools of entry**

The entry methods in this context are attributed to how perpetrators of crimes get into the targeted house to forcefully attain stolen goods. In this case, the method of entry is either by lifting gate motors, by pickheads or by manipulating the entry by pretending to require directions. In this study, these modus operandi have been deemed to be effective in the successful commission of house robberies, housebreaking and thefts and subsequent rapes on the vulnerable community of Brooklyn of Tshwane District.

### **7.9 Summary**

This chapter highlights the analysis and interpretations of data collected in face-to-face interviews with both victims of crimes, being domestic workers, and police officials operating at the Client Service Centre at Brooklyn SAPS. The analysis and interpretations of data were based on the aim, study objectives and research questions discussed in sections 1.3 and 1.3.1 of this study. The study highlights the causes of house robberies, housebreaking and thefts as well as rape as an aftermath of contact and property crimes in Brooklyn residences (refer to DMW 001, 7.5.1). Although it was not within the context of this study's aim, objectives and research questions, the findings of this study revealed that masculinity and power dynamics of men induced fear in the domestic workers who are employed.

In the following chapter is a summary of findings, formulated on the study objectives and research questions. Furthermore, recommendations to stimulate future research are outlined.

## **CHAPTER 8**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides the conclusions and recommendations based on the findings that were gained from the study. In addition, the chapter presents a broader discussion of the aims and the objectives formulated in section 1.3. Furthermore, recommendations aimed at addressing the impact of fear of crime amongst the vulnerable domestic workers at their workplaces in Brooklyn are elaborated and discussed. To conclude, the study offers recommendations for future research.

#### **8.2 Conclusions concerning the achievement of aims and objectives of the study**

The motivation of this study was directed by the research aims and objectives as outlined in Chapter 1.

##### **1. To explore the domestic worker's perceptions of fear of contact and property crimes at Brooklyn Policing Precincts of Tshwane Central Corridor of the SAPS policing area**

This aim was accomplished through face-to-face and semi-structured interviews in which the participants, as the main victims of rape, housebreaking, thefts and house robberies narrated their past experiences of victimisation. The study utilised a qualitative and a case study approach in order to obtain more in-depth information from the domestic workers. Furthermore, the aim was achieved by using the biographical details of both the victims and police officials rendering public services at the CSC at Brooklyn SAPS which included their age, gender, marital status, employment status, race, ethnicity and their educational qualifications. The detailed information showed that the 16 victims' ages ranged from 20 to 61 years. The study findings further discovered that most of the victims (15 out of 16) are females from Zimbabwe, and one from Lesotho, bringing the actual total to 16 domestic workers interviewed.

Although the literature reported that the majority of participants are fearful of crimes,

this study also reported that females, who are domestic workers at Brooklyn residences, are in the majority and very fearful of contact and property crimes reported from their workplaces. Further, the victims narrated how they were victimised and the circumstances of their victimisation. The participants indicated that the issues of crime and violence are seriously affecting the quality of their lives. They reported that, in the Brooklyn policing area, the SAPS management, the waiting times before receiving attention at the CSC, undignified treatment they receive from CSC members, are unprofessional. They narrated that they were assisted in the CSC in public where they had to describe their victimisation. Victims also narrated on their experiences of fear of crimes and the impact it has caused on them. They indicated how they were attacked. The victims highlighted the distressing experiences that they were exposed to when they were victimised at their workplace. The study also found that there were secondary victims such as their family members, who were subjected to victimisation as a result of balancing the rights of domestic workers, as victims of crime, against the rights of the offenders. The husbands and children of participants DMW 001, 003, 006 and 007 were reported to be powerless and hopeless with the South African CJS because none of the perpetrators were arrested, convicted and incarcerated. These findings correlated with the study conducted by Zinn (2017:14) that very few perpetrators of house robberies in South Africa are incarcerated. Similarly, the SAPS (2023:186) mentioned that only 4.6% of suspects arrested for house robberies in Gauteng were incarcerated.

Furthermore, in addressing the aim of the study further, the following objectives were addressed and achieved in the study:

**Objective 1: To assess how domestic workers' perceptions of contact and property crimes influence their feelings about their workplaces**

Based on the research findings, the study concluded that high levels of contact and property crimes reported at Brooklyn concluded that the victims' perceptions were associated with the theoretical models of environment, victimisation, and vulnerabilities as they work in Brooklyn as domestic workers. This is because these individuals have previously been victims of these crimes and, as a result, they have a higher fear of the crimes. Also, this fear has been evident as they reported being



indoors, and that the security at their workplaces are always on a ready mode. The study findings also discovered that individual domestic workers in this area have been desensitised in terms of their attitudes towards the high reported levels of house robberies and subsequent rapes. What was also discovered in the study was the relationship between victimisation and the fear of crime.

The aim and the objective 1 of the study was achieved when the central theory of environmental criminology, namely, the routine activity theory, developed by Cohen and Felson, was fully applied to crimes of house robberies and subsequent rape that occurred when there was a motivated offender and a suitable or vulnerable target (domestic worker) available at the same place and at the same time. In addition, there was an absence of an effective policing as a protective measure to prevent the crimes of robberies in the residence. Participants highlighted that because of the high rate of employment in their country of origin, they had no choice but to continue working in a risky environment. This finding is in line with the study of Ncwane (2023:57) which reveals that, because of lack of employment, women remained in their jobs even though they were exposed to potential danger.

Additionally, for the participants of this study, fear of crime did not only affect their feelings of safety at their workplaces (Brooklyn suburb), but also their working relationships with their employers. Three domestic workers reported that the crime incidences have affected the relationship between them and their employers because their employers suspect that they had a hand in the robberies. This study recommends that homeowners or employers across the country should be encouraged to use relevant placement agencies that include vetting processes through fingerprints and background checks of individuals seeking domestic employment and should employ only those that are properly documented in terms of section 9 of the Immigration Act, 3 of 2002.

**Objective 2: To examine the ways in which domestic workers think contact and property crimes affect their employment**

Objective 2 of the study was accomplished as the findings revealed that contact and property crimes are social and domestic in nature as they are both committed primarily

within the social environment of the private residence. Participants further revealed that their employers' relationships with them have been seriously impacted as their employers believe that they revealed the information about the valuable items in their workplace hence they are robbed while their employers are not present. Participants DMW 003, 004, 008, 009, and 014, revealed further that, during house robberies in 2022, they were assaulted with guns on their heads. When asked during the interview whether they received psychological care, four of them mentioned that the wounds will remain with them for a lifetime. However, the worst victimisation came from DMW 001, who claimed to be despondent and to blame herself for letting the perpetrators into the yard while working as a domestic worker at the residence. She also claimed to have changed her perception of men as threats. This finding is in line with the study conducted by Brownlow, Martinez, Porter and Rosko (2023:1289), these authors found that "direct victim blaming" is normally observed in incidences of robberies and lesser in those who were sexually violated. Also, these researchers claim that victim blame is most likely to occur when the victim strongly feels that they could have reacted in a different manner which could have possibly prevented their victimisation (Brownlow et al, 2023:1291).

In this context, it is recommended that crime prevention initiatives at Brooklyn area should focus on protecting the victims of the crimes and the environment.

Domestic workers: Initiatives could reduce their vulnerabilities at their workplaces.

Perpetrators: Initiatives could focus on the reasons why certain individuals are at risk of committing the crimes.

The environment (area): Initiatives could address the physical characteristics and the situational factors of specific locations or areas that increase opportunities for these crimes.

Possible interventions to reduce the level of fear of crime amongst domestic workers could also involve the combination of the police and the SA judiciary.

**Objective 3: To propose measures that domestic workers think the SAPS and the judiciary can implement to minimise the fear of crime in their workplace**

In proposing measures that domestic workers think the SAPS and South African Judiciary can implement to minimise the high level of fear of crime, the following is recommended:

The CJS should consider developing a crime category specifically called a “house robbery”. This will facilitate investigations and subsequently increase the conviction rate. Both the SAPS and the Department of Justice are encouraged to train their officials on how to investigate and adjudicate house robberies. The SAPS specifically, should support the task team to investigate and trace suspects wanted for crimes of house robberies by ensuring that they have all the necessary resources required to run the operation smoothly.

Police officials responsible for the smooth running of the CSC at Brooklyn require the training of police officials to handle victims of house robberies and to investigate cases of this nature. This should begin at the Justice College, Institutions of Higher Learnings and SAPS detective academy. Police officials, especially those on the front desk, should be trained to take statements correctly because the information gathered from the statements is crucial especially for the tracing of suspects sought for house robberies and also during court proceedings. It is recommended further, that community policing should be implemented effectively to enable law enforcement to work closely with the victims within the South African territories.

To deal effectively with measures that the CJS can implement to minimise the fear of crimes in South Africa, measures should be put in place to monitor the effectiveness and the efficiency of the local Brooklyn police officials.

**Objective 4: To propose measures that will monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn police officials to reduce the fear of crime**

As mentioned by Govender (2018:62), “The art of Police Management in the 21st century is to meet the public’s needs efficiently, in part, by involving the public in policing, and also, to some extent, by targeting policing resources to the most important issues”. Within the rubric of the fourth objective, it is recommended that policing in South Africa should involve the public for effective and efficient policing. Police officials, especially the first respondent to the crime scene, should always be

available to victims of crime as the police are expected to provide 24 hours service, seven days a week. Furthermore, the SAPS leadership should decolonise policing in general. For instance, policing functions (such as the specialised units) should be brought back to the communities instead of centralising specialised policing functions. Additionally, the study suggests that police in South Africa should be done independently, just like practicing law and medicine. This is due to the ruling party's current politicisation of the SAPS, which prevents instances involving prominent politicians from being thoroughly examined.

The study further recommends that Police Management, like station commanders, should be held accountable for their failing plans, actions and decisions to provide effective policing to reduce the levels of crime within communities of their policing precinct. This will send a warning to others that if there is poor and ineffective policing at police stations, station management will either be subjected to disciplinary proceedings or dismissals. Moreover, as crime prevention is the responsibility of every citizen in the country, protection of vulnerable communities, such as domestic workers, should be reinforced to reduce the level of contact and property crimes occurring at their working places. Brooklyn policing area and other police stations seriously affected by the surge of contact and property crimes in their precincts should have a crime risk analysis document to develop strategies that will reduce crimes (in this context, house robberies, housebreaking and thefts and subsequent rapes of domestic workers as a crime of opportunity). The SAPS, as mandated by section 205(3) of the Constitution, 1996 (RSA, 1996b) should provide psychological support, counselling and treatment for the victims and witnesses of the crime.

All crime prevention strategies to prevent and reduce crime posing excessive fear to the victims should be intelligence driven. Lastly, building effective and efficient policing requires policing in the country to have good international relationships (Govender, 2018:64). In this context, it is recommended that the SAPS should create a good working relationship with countries such as Lesotho, Namibia, Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Botswana. In doing so, illegal firearms and their smugglers will be arrested and therefore the fear of crimes will diminish.

The proceeding discussion focuses on recommendations for future research.

### **8.3 Recommendations for future research**

The literature reports that urban residences have high rates of contact and property crimes. Since there is a dearth of studies on the fear of these crimes amongst domestic workers in South Africa and the world, this study recommends that in-depth research is necessary especially in affluent areas to address the pattern of victimisation in similar urban communities.

Based on the findings of this study, a larger sample is proposed and studies that will concentrate on experiences of secondary victims of fear of crimes, namely, family members, children, employees, etc. The study further recommends that stakeholders involved in the criminal justice system should avoid prejudices towards victims reporting fear of crime due to contact and property crimes in their workplaces. Hence, further and in-depth research is necessary which will explore the influences of continuous victimisations, vulnerabilities and environmental models in the urban precincts of Gauteng and other provinces that experience similar type of crimes. Environmental factors, which are related to the individual's immediate environment is known as the "criminalisable space" (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). The following discussion is based on the overall recommendations of the study.

### **8.4 Recommendations**

As mentioned previously in Chapter 1, and at the time of the study, this was the only scientific research conducted locally and internationally on domestic workers' perceptions of fear of crime in their working environment. It is therefore recommended that scholars utilise the findings of this study as a guide to undertake studies aimed at enhancing scientific knowledge on the topic. Also, the current study found that "what has been measured in research as the fear of crime", might be distorted because it is not really the "fear of crime" but an indicator or tool that measures the quality of life of community members (Jalain et al, 2020:354). This is because different mechanisms or tools have been used to measure the fear of crime but such research has minimal value as a concept for rigorous scientific research and may not inform policy. It also has potential of misdirecting policy initiatives that are meant to assist community members including the vulnerable groups (Dickety, 2024).

#### **8.4.1 Domestic workers**

In terms of the rights and obligations of employers, employers must follow the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) and the Sectoral Determination for domestic workers (SDDW) when employing domestic workers. According to the SDDW, when employing domestic workers, employers must supply a contract of employment specifying the terms and conditions of employment such as working hours, wages, leave entitlements and the responsibilities of the job. Also, employers must provide a safe working environment, training, as well as safety of their employees when performing duties. Full time domestic workers must be registered with the Department of Labour's Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), which includes providing legitimate contract of employment. However, failure to register the domestic worker can result in a penalty or fine. The findings in this study further propose the need for victim empowerment to avoid revictimisation. Many of the victims of contact and property crimes in this study indicated that they had little or no formal education. This study recommends that career exhibitions from Institutions of Higher Learning should be carried out to educate communities engaging in criminal activities and those in domestic work environments about available courses as well as bursaries to assist them in advancing their educational level. Similarly, through career exhibitions, perpetrators who are not yet arrested for the crimes under investigation and those who are drop-outs should be motivated to further their grade 12 by attending Adult Basic Education (ABET) school learning project.

#### **The SAPS responsibilities**

According to Section 205(3) of the Constitution of 1996 (RSA, 1996b), the goal of the police department is to prevent, combat, and investigate crimes in order to defend and enforce the law, preserve public order, and safeguard and secure the Republic's citizens and their property. It is clear from the aforementioned laws – the Basic Conditions of Employment Acts, the Sectoral Determination for Domestic Workers (SDDW), and Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic of 1996 – that the laws do not apply to the vulnerable category of domestic workers.

Based on the comments made by domestic workers, it was found that the vulnerability model, as a result of contact and property crimes, can be explained by applying

opportunity theory. It is for this reason that, through the application of the contact and property crime prevention model, domestic workers are motivated to adopt the opportunity-reduction behaviours and tendencies and use situational measures to make it more difficult for perpetrators to regard them as targets of their crimes in their working environments. Pretorius and Fynn (2017:28) state that, should victims of crimes apply measures to limit their vulnerability model, perpetrators will find it difficult to balance the effort, risk and rewards, and therefore, they may be discouraged from committing those crimes. Also, Newburn (2017:305) adds that the routine activity theory is efficient in the sense that the theory shows how victims' behaviour has an influence on criminal opportunity. This therefore suggests that the risk of victimisation is reduced or minimised by increasing guardianship and decreasing the victims' vulnerabilities.

In this context, domestic workers are seen living behind closed doors electrified fences and alarm systems always on a ready mode. Consequently, the central message driven by this model is that domestic workers in South Africa must take the necessary precautionary security measures to ensure their own safety in their workplaces. A great number of participants indicated that, when they were accosted, they were lured or enticed by perpetrators who claimed to be employees of City of Tshwane who are sent to repair electricity or water facilities and, on opening the remote gate, domestic workers were robbed, and some were also raped and sexually assaulted.

Where contact and property crimes are prevalent, it was revealed that victims of the crimes reside in neighbourhoods where routine patrol activities by private securities and signs of neighbourhood watches are features on the streets. In support of the latter, Zinn (2019:101) posits that fear of crime in affluent communities in South African neighbourhoods is evidenced by high walls, electrified security fences, community neighbourhood watches and guards dogs, etc. It is therefore recommended that effective and efficient sector policing, community policing and neighbourhood watch should be implemented and that the domestic workers should take part themselves rather than being represented in the forums by their respective employers.

Furthermore, where crimes of contact and property are prevalent, the victimisation model holds that victims who have previously been exposed to the crimes and have

been victims of the crimes have a great fear of crime (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28). In this study, it was discovered that some participants were of the opinion that, as they were repeatedly exposed to contact (rape) and property crimes (housebreaking and thefts) and house robberies, they are desensitised in terms of their attitudes towards the crimes. Also, Ferraro (1996) emphasise that in most cases, the fear women hold of any type of crime is exacerbated by the fear of the risk of being sexual assaulted (Johansson & Haandrikman, 2021:1241). As this study found that there is a relationship between domestic workers' victimisation and fear of crime, it is recommended that the SAPS, as mandated by Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic, 1996, should promote community empowerment for domestic workers and their engagement in community structures such as the Community Police Forum (CPF), neighbourhood watch and community patrols etc.

This participation will encourage domestic workers to be actively involved in their working environment in proactive joint policing. However, Ohmer et al (2019:156) emphasises that citizens' participation and their engagement are fundamental mechanisms for the development of personal and community empowerment. In this case, the researcher concurs that it is only domestic workers' participation and their engagement in community structures and initiatives that will help them to gain experience in developing strategies to achieve community goals, including crime prevention initiatives. Also, increased responsibilities, engagement and action in the community will increase residents' feelings of competence and control and decrease isolation (Ohmer et al, 2019:156). Within this context, it is recommended that engaging domestic workers in crime prevention initiatives will increase their sense of safety and empowerment and thus reduce their feelings of fear of crimes in their working environments.

In proposing measures that the CJS can implement to reduce the fear of crime in communities where domestic workers are employed, the study recommends that corruption should be eradicated in the institutions by increasing staff capacity within the SAPS. The study findings concur with Govender (2018:61) that South Africa should embrace democratic policing with equality, fairness, protection, collaboration, service accountabilities and transparency as features of its code of ethics. Instead of



being reactive in their policing, this study recommends that the SAPS must be proactive if the institution wants to succeed in reducing the fear of contact and property crime.

It is further recommended that the police in the country should adopt the following strategies in order to reduce the level of fear of contact and property crimes within communities where domestic workers are employed:

- Police visibilities in hot spots areas where the vulnerable are employed;
- External influences of crimes, such as long grass, shrubs and vandalism of buildings, should be addressed by the municipality (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28);
- A structural approach of policing to encourage entrepreneurship to address unemployment and poverty must be addressed (Pretorius & Fynn, 2017:28); and
- Adequate regulation of land and sea borders and national air space combined with proper regulated parts of entries to prevent smuggling of illegal firearms into the country (National Crime Prevention Strategy in South Africa, 1996:1).

In addition, the following recommendations are made to propose measures that are necessary to monitor the effectiveness and the efficiencies of both Local and National Police Agency (SAPS):

Addressing the effectiveness and efficiency of the entire SAPS, Metropolitan Police Divisions and Private Securities seen patrolling suburbs will play a fundamental role in addressing and reducing the level of fear of crimes amongst domestic workers in the area of study and the country.

Below is summary of the recommendations based on the research questions and objectives. In conceptualising the measures that will monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the local Brooklyn SAPS, this study concurs with Zikalala, Mofokeng and Motlalekgosi (2021:652) that the SAPS should provide service in terms Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic, 1996 as the organisation is constitutionally obliged to uphold and enforce the law. This means that, although the SAPS served the

interests of the apartheid state prior to 1994, public accountabilities should be understood within a broad social and the transformational SAPS institution. For instance, the SAPS should implement sector policing properly in terms of the SAPS National Instruction 3 of 2013 that adopts a decentralised and geographical approach to policing by dividing a large station area into smaller managerial sectors (SAPS, 2013:1).

According to Booyens (2020:72), sector policing was implemented in the SAPS to improve effective service delivery, community involvement and interaction with crime affected communities (such as domestic workers) through partnership policing. In addition, when sector policing officials patrol their areas, they will be able to identify problems and challenges from interacting with community members and they will seek solutions to such problems before the problems escalate. Lastly, having inherited its historical context of brutal and indiscriminate violence, the current policing, led by the SAPS, should transition into a respectable and democratic organisation protecting and promoting the rights of victims of crimes (in this context, domestic workers). Commanders of crime ridden police stations should be held accountable through civilian run structures and institutions should any irregularities or poor service delivery be detected in their police stations.

## **8.5 Study limitations**

The proceeding section highlights specific study constraints, how they may have affected the outcome of the study, and how these various limitations were dealt with to ensure that the findings of the study were not compromised.

### **8.5.1 Study design limitations**

Under the study design limitations, two sub-types are discussed, for instance, sample size and a lack of prior research studies.

#### **8.5.1.1 Qualitative sample size**

As discussed in section 1.9.1, victim participants (domestic workers) are classified as “hard-to-reach” research participants and therefore, it is often difficult to include this

cohort of individuals in a study. Due to the fear that victimisation of crime, vulnerabilities of crime and environmental effect of the crimes is a sensitive topic, victims are further classified as “hidden populations” who may not want to be approached by people outside of their communities, such as researchers, due to a feeling of embarrassment.

As a result, even if the researcher used Facebook and telephone interviews, the researcher experienced difficulty with regard to sampling victim participants. Also, although the researcher has served at Brooklyn SAPS as a relief commander for 14 years and he is known to the management of the public station, detectives could not refer victims of crimes because they are bound by Police Prescripts of the Protection of Personal Information Act (POPIA). In terms of the act, the CJS is bound to protect people from harm by protecting their personal information as victims of the crimes under investigation. At the time when the research was conducted, the detection rate for house robberies, housebreaking and theft and subsequent rapes of domestic workers at Brooklyn were low, and the detectives at Brooklyn had only a handful of guilty verdict cases.

This low detection rate of offenders of house robberies, as described by three police officials in the CSC, was attributed to the fact that there is no specific crime of house robbery where domestic workers are involved. However, after experiencing the difficulties above, 16 victim participants were eventually willing to participate in the interviews. Moreover, the sample size was normal and reached the required number so that the main aim of the study was achieved which was to explore the domestic workers’ perceptions of fear of crime at Brooklyn police precincts. This was acquired through in-depth qualitative interviews to collect rich data from the 16 participants who were also victims.

#### **8.5.1.2 Deficiency of prior research studies**

At the time when the study was conducted, there was no prior scientific research conducted in the Republic, SADC region or international communities on the fears of domestic worker victims of crimes. Consequently, citing prior research studies of the phenomenon of fear of crime was challenging. Hence, the study had to be primarily

explorative in its nature and included police officials as participants who were interviewed to gather information. The data collected from the participants and the police officials were utilised to lay a foundation and understanding of the phenomenon of robberies, housebreakings and thefts and subsequent rapes. Consequently, the novelty of this study and the fact that the study was conducted on a little researched field means that it makes a major contribution to the literature.

### **8.5.1.3 Statistical limitations**

Police statistics were used where the analysis was mostly univariate or where the researcher explored each variable in a data set or separately. As a result, only the basic features of this study were described and presented in simple graphs and charts. Subsequently, the simplicity presented by police statistics prevented the generalisation of the findings to the population of domestic workers as a whole. Nonetheless, the secondary research aim was to explore the phenomenon of fear of crime which was successfully achieved through the use of exploratory analysis. Also, because it was not the aim of this study to generalise the statistical results to the whole population, exploratory crime statistics were deemed the most suitable for analysing the qualitative data. Additionally, although the results from the qualitative method were positive, the study focused only on one policing area of Brooklyn in Tshwane Gauteng Province. As such, findings cannot be generalised to other suburbs in Tshwane District and Gauteng.

Nonetheless, findings of the study can be used to pioneer a way forward for other researchers who wish to replicate the study in other districts, province and countries in the SADC and internally. However, as recommended by Du Plooy-Cilliers et al (2019:50), in qualitative research, the analytical induction can be utilised to generalise from a small number of examined cases to a large population of cases that possess characteristics similar to those of the sample. Taking the aforementioned into consideration, findings from the 16 in-depth victims' interviews may safely be generalised across the cohort of contact and property crimes reported by the domestic workers in other suburbs in South Africa.

#### **8.5.1.4 Self-reported data**

The data collection instrument used in this study, namely, semi-structured interviews schedule, as the only type of self-report method, has the potential to pose validity issues. The main limitation issues posed by a self-reported instrument is that its findings cannot be autonomously verified. Consequently, the researcher had to count on whatever was said by the victim participants.

To assess validity and truthfulness of responses from participants, the process of triangulation was followed. Through the use of triangulation, data collected from the victims and the police at Brooklyn SAPS were compared with the results from the qualitative interviews after which results from both measures were further compared with the information collected from the literature. Furthermore, during qualitative interviews, leading questions were avoided but open questions were applied to encourage participants to give more information. Accordingly, this method allowed the researcher to probe participants which, in turn, stimulated participants to provide truthful information.

#### **8.6 Summary**

Notwithstanding the small scope, the study's aims and objectives were well achieved. The study was successful in compiling extensive data regarding the participants' roles and experiences during the attacks at their places of employment, as well as the knowledge and experience of police officers stationed at the Brooklyn Police Station. The results and recommendations that were found were further examined in this chapter. In addition, the theoretical foundation that provides a wider understanding and analysis of the phenomenon under study were consulted and applied. The study discovered that people living in affluent neighbourhoods were as vulnerable as those living in disorganised communities. Therefore, circumstances that lead to certain houses being targeted or selected despite being in gated communities should be addressed to curb future attacks and victimisation of domestic workers. Recommendations pertaining to the findings of this study are discussed, including preventative measures, such as promoting awareness or education, working with the community and the police, and enhancing service delivery at the Brooklyn SAPS of Tshwane District in the Gauteng Province of South Africa.

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## APPENDIX 1: Unisa 2022 Ethics Review Certificate



### UNISA 2022 ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 05 May 2022

ERC Reference No.: ST24-2022  
Name: HG MASHABA

**Decision: Ethics Approval from  
2022:05:05 to 2025:05:05**

**Researcher:** Mr Hlengani Gibin Mashaba

**Supervisor:** Dr Moletsadi Zitha

*A qualitative study investigating the impact of fear of crime amongst domestic workers in the workplace: A case study of Brooklyn police precinct of Tshwane, South Africa*

**Qualification:** Master of Arts (Criminal Justice)

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa 2022 Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for 3 years.

*The **low-risk application** was **reviewed** by the CLAW Ethics Review Committee on in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached.
2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the CLAW Committee.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.



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5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2025:05:05**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

**Note:**

*The reference number TS24-2022 should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,



Prof L Fitz  
Chair of CLAW ERC  
E-mail: [fitzlg@unisa.ac.za](mailto:fitzlg@unisa.ac.za)  
Tel: (012) 433-9504



Prof OJ Kole  
Acting Executive Dean: CLAW  
E-mail: [koleoj@unisa.ac.za](mailto:koleoj@unisa.ac.za)  
Tel: (012) 429-8305

## APPENDIX 2: SAPS permission letter to conduct study at Brooklyn SAPS Precinct

*South African Police Service*



*Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie*

Privaatsak Private Bag X94	Pretoria 0001	Faks No. Fax No.	(012) 334 3518
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Your reference/U verwysing:

My reference/My verwysing: 3/34/2

THE HEAD: RESEARCH  
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE  
PRETORIA  
0001

Enquiries/Navrae: Lt Col Joubert  
AC Thenga  
Tel: (012) 393 3118  
Email: JoubertG@saps.gov.za

HG Mashaba

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

The above subject matter refers.

You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2006.

Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following office:

The Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng:

- **Contact Person:** Col Peters
- **Contact Details:** (011) 547 9131
- **Email Address :** PetersNS@saps.gov.za
- **Contact Person:** Captain Nevumbani
- **Contact Details:** (011) 547 9131
- **Email Address :** nevumbanivj@saps.gov.za

Kindly adhere to paragraph 6 of our attached letter signed on the 2021-11-04 with the same above reference number.

**BRIGADIER  
ACTING COMPONENT HEAD: RESEARCH  
DR GJ SCHWARTZ**

DATE: 2022.01-11



## Privaatsak/Private Bag X 94

Verwysing/Reference:	3/34/2
Navrae/Enquiries:	Lt Col Joubert AC Thenga
Telefoon/Telephone:	(012) 393 3118
Email Address:	JoubertG@saps.gov.za

THE HEAD: RESEARCH  
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE  
PRETORIA  
0001


The Provincial Commissioner  
GAUTENG

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

1. The above subject matter refers.
2. The researcher, Mr HD Mashaba, is conducting a study titled: domestic workers' perceptions of contact and property crimes in the Brooklyn Policing Precinct of the Tshwane Central Corridor: A case study of Brooklyn suburbs, with the aim **to explore the domestic worker's perceptions of contract and priority crimes at the Brooklyn policing areas in Tshwane Central corridor of the SAPS.**
3. The researcher is requesting permission to interview two (2) police members at Brooklyn police station.
4. The proposal was perused according to National Instruction 1 of 2006. This office recommends that permission be granted for the research study, subject to the final approval and further arrangements by the office of the Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng.
5. We hereby request the final approval by your office if you concur with our recommendation. Your office is also at liberty to set terms and conditions to the researcher to ensure that compliance standards are adhered to during the research process and that research has impact to the organisation.
6. If approval is granted by your office, this office will obtain a signed undertaking from researcher prior to the commencement of the research which will include your terms and conditions if there are any and the following:
  - 6.1. The research will be conducted at his/her exclusive cost.

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

- 6.2 The researcher will conduct the research without the disruption of the duties of members of the Service and where it is necessary for the research goals, research procedures or research instruments to disrupt the duties of a member, prior arrangements must be made with the commander of such member.
- 6.3 The researcher should bear in mind that participation in the interviews must be on a voluntary basis.
- 6.4 The information will at all times be treated as strictly confidential.
- 6.5 The researcher will provide an annotated copy of the research work to the Service.
- 6.6 The researcher will ensure that research report / publication complies with all conditions for the approval of research.
7. If approval is granted by your office, for smooth coordination of research process between your office and the researcher, the following information is kindly requested to be forwarded to our office:
  - **Contact person:** Rank, Initials and Surname.
  - **Contact details:** Office telephone number and email address.
8. A copy of the approval (if granted) and signed undertaking as per paragraph 6 supra to be provided to this office within 21 days after receipt of this letter.
9. Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

  
**MAJOR GENERAL**  
**THE HEAD: RESEARCH**  
**DR PR VUMA**

DATE: 2021-11-04

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS



SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Private Bag / Privaatsak X 57, BRAAMFONTEIN, 2017

Reference Verwysing	3/34/2(202100060)
Enquiries Navrae	Col Peters Capt Nevumbani
Telephone Telefoon	(011) 547-9129
Fax number Faksnommer	(011) 547- 9189

THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER  
**GAUTENG**

- A. The Provincial Head  
S A Police Service  
Legal and Policy Services  
**GAUTENG**
- B. The Deputy Provincial Commissioner  
S A Police Service  
Policing  
**GAUTENG**
- C. The Provincial Commissioner  
S A Police Service  
**GAUTENG**

**RESEARCH: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

A-B: For your recommendation

C: For approval

1. Attached herewith is an application of HG Mashaba to conduct research on the above mentioned topic, within the South African Police Service.
2. The application has been evaluated by Provincial Strategic Management (Research) as per attached Annexure and found to be in compliance with National Instruction 1 of 2006: Research.
3. In the opinion of Strategic Management (Research), the research study will be beneficial to the Service as it aims to explore the domestic worker's perceptions of Contact and Property Crimes.
4. The researcher will conduct the study without disrupting the duties of members of the Service. Prior arrangements will be made with the commander of the applicable business unit.



**RESEARCH: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

5. The research study will be conducted at the researcher's exclusive cost.
6. In line with National Instruction 1 of 2006, you are afforded the opportunity to comment on the relevance and feasibility of the proposed research within your area of responsibility. Any objections against the research will be noted and you will be requested to clarify and motivate those with the Provincial Head: Organisational Development & Strategic Management.
7. In order to ensure the effective and efficient finalisation of this application you are requested to submit your comments to the Strategic Management office within the allocated time frame.
8. Your cooperation and assistance is appreciated.

Regards



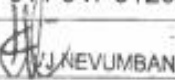

**BRIGADIER  
PROVINCIAL HEAD: ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT & STRATEGIC  
MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG  
DF BENDER**

Date: 2021-11-23

ANNEXURE A

RESEARCH: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA

COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATION: PROVINCIAL STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: RESEARCH

I	OFFICIAL FILE NO:	3/34/2(202100060)		
	FILE COMPUTER REFERENCE NO:	8286565		
ii	MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH:	The study will assist SAPS to implement and minimise Contact and Property Crimes in the policing area.		
	APPLICATION FOUND TO BE COMPLETE:	<del>YES</del>		NO
	INDEMNITY / UNDERTAKING SIGNED	<del>YES</del>		NO
iii	APPLICATION PERUSED BY:	Captain Nevumbani		
	CONTACT NO:	011 547 9129		
	SIGNATURE:	 CAPTAIN NEVUMBANI		
	DATE:	2021-11-19		
iv	APPLICATION VERIFIED BY:	Col Peters		
	APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		NO
	CONTACT NO:	011-5479110		
	SIGNATURE:	 Col PETERS		
	DATE:	2021-11-19		

**RESEARCH: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

**A. RECOMMENDATION BY PROVINCIAL HEAD: LEGAL AND POLICY SERVICES**

*TIME ALLOCATED: 3 days*

<b>COMMENTS WITH REGARDS TO ANY LEGAL OBJECTIONS AGAINST THE RESEARCH WITH ANY ADDITIONAL LIMITATIONS TO RESEARCHER:</b>			
APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
SIGNATURE: <i>H. Mashaba</i>	DATE:	<i>2021/11/25</i>	

**B. RECOMMENDATION BY THE DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: POLICING**

*TIME ALLOCATED: 3 days*

<b>COMMENTS WITH REGARDS TO THE RELEVANCE AND FEASIBILITY OF THE RESEARCH WITHIN YOUR ENVIRONMENT</b>			
<i>Recommended to conduct a research (Domestic workers Perceptions of contact and property crimes in the Brooklyn Policing Precinct of the Tshwane Central Corridor)</i>			
APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
SIGNATURE: <i>D.T. Mashaba</i>	DATE:	<i>2021-12-08</i>	



**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SAPS**

**RESEARCH: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: DOMESTIC WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CONTACT AND PROPERTY CRIMES IN THE BROOKLYN POLICING PRECINCT OF THE TSHWANE CENTRAL CORRIDOR: A CASE STUDY OF BROOKLYN SUBURBS: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

**RESEARCHER: HG MASHABA**

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

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

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

Any enquiries with regard to this permission must be directed to Col. Peters or Captain VJ Nevumbani at [PetersNS@saps.gov.za](mailto:PetersNS@saps.gov.za)/[nevumbanivj@saps.gov.za](mailto:nevumbanivj@saps.gov.za)

**RESEARCH LIMITATIONS / BOUNDARIES:**

**Research Instruments:** Interview  
**Target audience/subjects:** 2 members in SAPS  
**Geographical target:**

<i>Provincial Component</i>	<i>Tshwane District</i>
None	Brooklyn SAPS

Access to official document: No

  
**LIEUTENANT GENERAL  
 PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: GAUTENG  
 E MAWELA (SOEG)**

DATE: 2021/12/08

## **APPENDIX 3: Informed consent form**

**AFFILIATION:** University of South Africa

**RESEARCHER:** MR H.G MASHABA

**SUPERVISOR:** DR M. ZITHA

**TITLE OF STUDY:** A CRIMINOLOGICAL EXPLORATION OF THE FEAR OF CRIME AMONG DOMESTIC WORKERS IN TSHWANE, GAUTENG.

### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The study will attempt to contribute to the current minimal knowledge regarding fear of crime on domestic workers at Brooklyn suburbs, Gauteng. The researcher aims to ensure that domestic workers' voices are heard and that through their participation in this study, SAPS will be enlightened and better equipped and sensitised to deal with cases brought to their offices to take cognizance of victims' rights and serve with Ubuntu which is in line with the victim centred approach within the criminal justice. Furthermore, the study will motivate professional bodies such as relevant non-government organisations (NGO's) in funding services and facilities offered to victims of crime including domestic workers. Furthermore, findings of this study will enable rational decisions to address crime as a cause of fear not precisely to the individual group of domestic workers, but also on the entire Brooklyn communities. Moreover, the study will motivate the presentation of preliminary findings, both professional and academic conferences as a means of seeking feedback, input and additional perspectives that will reduce fear of crime among communities.

### **PROCEDURES OF COLLECTING DATA**

The study will use qualitative method, this simply mean that the researcher will be collecting data that is in the form of words, not numbers. Included in the most common data collection methods are different types of individual interviews. The researcher will use semi-structured face-to-face interview method (Greeff, 2011:348) to gain detailed understanding of the participants' views regarding the study.

As mentioned previously, data in the study will be collected using semi- structured interviews, one-on-one, face-to-face and in-depth in nature interviews. The researcher in the study will enter the interview with a firm of relevant literature, having prepared open questions to be asked (Fouché et al, 2021:358). It is for these reasons, that a semi-structured interview becomes necessary in this study. A face-to-face interview will be conducted in order to empower participants with a rich narrative account of information (Flick, 2018:220).

## **RISKS AND DISCOMFORT**

In this study, the researcher will mitigate risks and discomforts of research participants during the interview. However, efforts to minimize such will be made. Research participants will be given an opportunity to voice their discomfort. Also, they will be informed of the potential risks so that they can make an informed decision to either choose to participate or not to participate in the study (Du Plooy – Cilliers et al, 2019:264). Secondly, research participants will be notified that, should they choose to participate in the interview process, they can also choose to skip questions or to stop participating, as they will not be forced to participate (Du Plooy – Cilliers et al, 2019:264). Based on the above, the researcher will describe any reasonable and foreseeable risks and the participants who will need debriefing will be referred to the relevant section within the Brooklyn SAPS office. Furthermore, the researcher will explain the risks and how the risks will be minimised using the informed consent. Researcher will ensure that participants are not harmed in anyway and will be protected throughout this study.

## **BENEFITS FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

The researcher hopes that the participants will be eager to assist with the research for the following reasons:

- Their participation will contribute to understanding the phenomena under study.
- Their voices will be heard, and they will be assisting others who have been directly or indirectly victimized.

- Their contribution will enhance the response from the CJS.
- Their participation will draw awareness of the domestic workers' plight and encourage relevant stakeholders to consider improving reactive and proactive reactions when dealing with domestic workers' victimisation.

**Respondent's rights:**

Ethical considerations in any research is viewed as the most crucial parts of the research. This includes the manner that the study will be conducted as it bears direct and indirect consequences to the research participants' lives. Participation in the study is voluntary and participants. Further, participants have the right to withdraw at any time during the study. Information gathered from participants will be treated with the confidentiality and anonymity which is in line with the institutional and ethical requirements. In this context, participants will be interviewed at a setting where the researcher will ensure that participants are comfortable, and no information will be leaked. Data will be kept safe and locked inside the steel cabinet and no one, except the researcher, will have a key to both the room and the steel cabinet.

## APPENDIX 4: Informed consent agreement

I ..... hereby consent to:

- Replying questionnaires or being interviewed on the topic;
- Responses being recorded in writing and or using a tape recorder;
- The use of the data resulting from these responses by the researcher.

I also understand that:

- I am free to end my consent to participate in the research at any time should I wish to;
- Information rendered up to the point of my termination of participation can be used by the researcher;
- No compensation will be made by the researcher for information rendered;
- By signing this agreement, I undertake to give honest answers and not to misinform the researcher;

I acknowledge that the researcher:

- Explained the aims and objectives of this research study; and
- Clarified the implications of my signing the agreement.

I, the undersigned, agree to participate in this study voluntarily, and without duress.

Signed at ..... on this.... day of .....20.....

In co-signing this agreement, the researcher undertakes to:

- Maintain confidentiality, anonymity and privacy regarding the identity of the participants.



-----  
Researcher Signature

-----  
Date

Right of access to researcher:

Respondents are free to contact the researcher in connection with the study.

Researchers contact details are as follows:

Office Number:

Mobile Number:

Email address:

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY.

## APPENDIX 5: Consent to participate in the study

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of the one-on-one interviews.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname ..... (please print)

Participant Signature ..... Date .....

Researcher's Name & Surname ..... (please print)

Researcher's Signature ..... Date .....

## APPENDIX 6: Semi-structured interviews: Focus Group 1 victims

Date of interview \_\_\_\_\_

Consent form signed

Yes		NO	
-----	--	----	--

Interview Number

--	--	--

### A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1 GENDER

MALE	
FEMALE	

2 RACE

AFRICAN		INDIAN	
COLOURED		WHITE	

3 NATIONALITY

SOUTH AFRICAN	
---------------	--

OTHER (specify your place of origin)	
--------------------------------------	--

4 PARTICIPANT AGE \_\_\_\_\_

5 OCCUPATION: \_\_\_\_\_

6 Educational background (highest grade passed): \_\_\_\_\_

7 How long have you been working here? \_\_\_\_\_

**B: CRIME INFORMATION**

1 In your opinion, do you believe there is a crime problem in the neighbourhood?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

2 Has your workplace been broken into while working?

3 If yes, which crime do you believe has the greatest immediate impact on you as a domestic worker?

4 Have you been attacked previously? If yes, which year?

5 Please describe the events of the day you were assaulted/robbed in this house?

6 How did you manage to escape/survive the attack?

7 Were you able to identify the perpetrator(s) during the attack?

8 What was the role of the CPF in this incident?

9 Did your employer provide with support, if yes, what kind?

**C: POLICE INFORMATION.**

**METHOD OF CRIME INCIDENT REPORTING**

1 How did you manage to stay alive in the event of an attack?

2 Have you ever informed the police about the incidents?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If no, why?

3 At which police station did you report the incident?

4 What drew you to this police station to file a preliminary report on the attack?

5 In your opinion, would you have felt comfortable by reporting through a telephone call or just walk in?

6 If you called, how quickly or slowly did you get a response?

7 How did you feel about the police intervention?

8 Do you feel free to contact or personally walk into the police station for assistance following this incident?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If no why?

9 In your opinion, is sufficient support provided by the crime investigators when taking statement of domestic workers in the Client Service Centre?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

10 If no, what do you think should be done?

**D: CONSTRAIN BY CRIMINAL INCIDENTS**

1 In your opinion, how does crime affect the quality of life in your neighbourhood.

**E: KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM (CJS)**

1 What do you know about the Criminal Justice System (CJS) and crime such as Community-based sentences, bail before and court appearances, bail processes, victim services, and the parole process?

2 What do you think the CJS should do, in your opinion, to improve your workplace safety?

**F: MEASURES OF IMPLEMENTING EFFECTIVE/EFFICIENT POLICING**

1 What proposed steps, in your opinion, can be implemented to realise the vision of a safer community, including your neighbourhood, in order to develop a viable community partnership and minimise fear of crime?

2 What are your thoughts on (CPF), neighbourhood watch, and Community Policing?

3 Which one of the three options listed above do you believe can be implemented most effectively in the neighbourhood, and why?

**G: MEASURES (PROPOSE) TO PREVENT CRIME**

1 What measures do you think the CJS can take, in your opinion, to reduce the impact of fear of crime in the community?

**H: GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES TO REDUCE FEAR OF CRIME**

1 Do you believe the current government is appropriately responding to the call for safety measures for domestic workers in order to lessen fear of crime?

2 Do you believe the neighbourhood's existing crime-prevention approach is effective in reducing fear of crime among domestic workers?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

3 If no, what do you think it should be done in your opinion?

**I: SOURCES OF INFORMATION**

1 What is your neighbourhood's source of information?

2 How does the media, such as a radio, newspapers and small screen, report of crime in the neighbourhood?

**J: OPINION ON PREVENTING MEASURES**

1 Are the measures in place, in your perspective, sufficient to reduce contact and property crimes in the area?

2 What steps do you think should be taken to reduce the fear of crime, in your opinion?

**Thank you so much for your time and taking part in this interview.**

## APPENDIX 7: Semi-structured interviews: Focus Group 2

### SAPS OFFICIALS: BROOKLYN SAPS

Date of interview: \_\_\_\_\_

Consent Form Signed

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

Interview Number

--	--	--

### A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1 Gender

MALE	
FEMALE	

2 Race

AFRICAN		WHITE	
COLOURED		INDIAN	

3 Nationality



SOUTH AFRICAN	
OTHER	

4 PARTICIPANT AGE \_\_\_\_\_

5 Occupation: \_\_\_\_\_

6 Educational background (highest grade passed): \_\_\_\_\_

7 Number of years in service \_\_\_\_\_

**B: CRIME INFORMATION**

1 How often do you receive reports of contact and property crimes from the Brooklyn area?

2 In your line of duty, who are the most vulnerable group to crime victimisation?

3 Which crimes according to your observations, have a more serious detrimental impact on the vulnerable?

4 Do you believe there is a high prevalence of contact and property crimes in this area, based on your observation?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

5 Which suburb(s) are mostly affected and why?

6 What types of crimes are mostly reported by domestic workers?

7 When was the last time you took part in a crime-prevention initiatives?

8 do you think the crime prevention activities in which you were involved in served their aim, and if so, how?

9 Victim Centre

9.1 Where can you get a statement from a vulnerable group that is being investigated?

9.2 Do you believe they are vulnerable based on your observations, and if so, why?

9.3 Can you tell me about the injuries they had during the attack?

10 Victim's Rights

10.1 Do you make vulnerable people aware of the rights?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

What are those rights?

11 Do you believe the SAPS is doing enough to decrease the impact of fear of crime among the domestic workers in Brooklyn, based on your experience??

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If yes, substantiate:

If no, substantiate:


**12 TARGET APPROACH OF DOMESTIC WORKERS AT BROOKLYN**

12.1 Does Brooklyn SAPS have a target approach of domestic workers?

12.2 How is the target approach determined?

**Thank you very much for your time and for participating in this interview.**

## APPENDIX 8: Turn-it-in report


 **turnitin**

### Digital Receipt

This receipt acknowledges that Turnitin received your paper. Below you will find the receipt information regarding your submission.

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Assignment title: REVISION\_2  
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File name: MASHABA\_FINAL DISSERTATION\_2024\_02\_15.pdf  
File size: 2.61M  
Page count: 245  
Word count: 71,302  
Character count: 402,603  
Submission date: 16-Feb-2024 07:12AM (UTC+0200)  
Submission ID: 2296173699



A CRIMINOLOGICAL EXPLORATION OF THE  
FEAR OF CRIME AMONG DOMESTIC  
WORKERS IN URBAN NAIROBI

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## **APPENDIX 9: Editor's certificate**

**Barbara Shaw**

**Editing/proofreading services**

**18 Balvicar Road, Blairgowrie, 2194**

**Cell: 072 1233 881**

**Email: barbarashaw16@gmail.com**

**Full member of The Professional Editors' Guild**

**To whom it may concern**

This letter serves to inform you that I have done formatting, language editing and reference checking on the thesis

**A CRIMINOLOGICAL EXPLORATION OF THE FEAR OF CRIME AMONG  
DOMESTIC WORKERS IN TSHWANE, GAUTENG**

**By**

**HLENGANI GIBIN MASHABA**



Barbara Shaw

29/01/2024