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Victims of crime survey: 2016/17

This statistical release presents a selection of key findings from the Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) 2016/17, which was conducted by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) from April 2016 to March 2017.

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1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The 2016/17 VOCS data combined with the data from previous years show a general decline of crime both in terms of the proportion of households that were victimised and the proportion of individuals 16 years and older that were victimised. However, the rate of decline is very low. When data is disaggregated according to province, the same pattern emerges except for the case of individual crimes in the Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga where there seems to be no improvement over time. Throughout the four-year period the Western Cape maintained the top position having the highest proportion of households victimised by crime while Limpopo kept the last position in this regard. This is also the case for crime perpetrated against individuals.

An estimated total of 1 468 278 crime incidents were experienced by 1 153 984 households in 2016/17. The victimised households represent 7,2% of all households in South Africa. Male-headed households had a higher proportion (7,5%) of victimisation compared to female-headed households (6,6%). Estimation according to different population groups showed that coloured households were the most victimised (8,9%) and black Africans were the least victimised with 6,9% of households having experienced crime in 2016/17. The most common crime experienced in 2016/17 was housebreaking or burglary (53%) followed by theft of livestock (11%) and home robbery (10%). Last year home robbery was number two at 12% of all household crimes. Theft of personal property tops the individual crime list at 42% followed by assault (18%) and robbery (16%).

Analysis of trends of individual crime types also showed a decline in the proportion of households (or individuals) that were victimised with the exception of theft out of motor vehicle, hijacking, sexual offence and consumer fraud. However, the number of incidents of crime per household, as measured by the Repeat Victimisation Index (RVI), has not followed the same pattern; in fact, for most types of crime this indicator has been increasing. Thus, fewer households are victimised but more often. This may explain the popular perception that crime is on the increase.

It is estimated that a total of 776 933 housebreaking incidents were committed in 2016/17 affecting a total of 647 340 households. This number of households represents 4% of all households in South Africa. Buffalo City in the Eastern Cape tops the proportion of households victimised through housebreaking at 6,9%. Electronic equipment were the most common (54%) items stolen during housebreaking. Fifty-one per cent of victims of housebreaking reported to the police. Two main reasons given for not reporting to the police were “police could do nothing” and “the police would do nothing” together accounting for 60% of the households. Thirty-eight per cent of the households that reported housebreaking were satisfied with police response.

In 2016/17 just over 84% of households felt safe walking in their neighbourhoods during the day while 30% felt safe walking at night. The trend of feeling safe walking in the neighbourhood continues to decline especially feeling of safety at night.

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2. INTRODUCTION

During the past two decades a number of surveys related to crime, crime victims and users of services provided by the safety and security cluster departments have been conducted by various service providers in South Africa. Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) conducted its first Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) in 1998, followed by the surveys in 2003 and 2007 which were conducted by the Institute for Security Studies (ISS). The government regards crime prevention and safety as a high priority, as evidenced by Chapter 12 of the National Development Plan (NDP) and the current policies and strategies. The results from VOCS aim to assist the government to measure the extent and levels of crime.

Stats SA started conducting the annual collection of the VOCS as from 2011. Data collections for VOCS 2011 and VOCS 2012 were conducted from January to March of that year and referred to incidents of crime experienced during the previous year (i.e. from January to December). Since 2013, Stats SA has changed the data collection methodology to continuous data collection. Data is collected from April of the current year to March of the preceding year and the reference period is for the 12 months preceding the interview date. The following table shows the reference periods for each data collection period.

Table 1: Reference periods for data collection

Year	Data collection	Reference period
2011	January to March 2011	January to December 2010
2012	January to March 2012	January to December 2011
2013/14	April 2013 – March 2014	April 2012 – February 2014
2014/15	April 2014 – March 2015	April 2013 – February 2015
2015/16	April 2015 – March 2016	April 2014 – February 2016
2016/17	April 2016 – March 2017	April 2015 – February 2017

The survey series is a countrywide household-based survey and has three main objectives:

- Provide information about the dynamics of crime from the perspective of households and the victims of crime.
- Explore public perceptions of the activities of the police, prosecutors, courts and correctional services in the prevention of crime and victimisation.
- Provide complementary data on the level of crime within South Africa (SA) in addition to the statistics published annually by the South African Police Service (SAPS).

The VOCS focuses on people's perceptions and experiences of crime, as well as their views regarding their access to, and effectiveness of the police service and the criminal justice system. Households are also asked about community responses to crime. The survey profiled different aspects that are inherent in the different types of crime, such as the location and timing of the different crimes, the use of weapons and the nature and extent of the violence that takes place. The VOCS 2016/17 is comparable to the previous versions in cases where the questions remained largely unchanged.

While the VOCS cannot replace police statistics, it can be a rich source of information which will assist in the planning of crime prevention as well as providing a more holistic picture of crime in South Africa. The data can be used for the development of policies and strategies, as well as for crime prevention and public education programmes. The VOCS 2016/17 will also be used to pilot the possibility of

integrating the crime statistics obtained from administrative data with those of a sample survey in order to maximise our understanding of the extent of crime and the under-reporting of crime. The reference period for the experience of crime estimates is April 2015 to February 2016, while questions on perceptions referred to the collection period (i.e. April 2015 to March 2016).

3. METHODOLOGY

The VOCS 2016 uses the Master Sample frame which has been developed as a general-purpose household survey frame that can be used by all other Stats SA household-based surveys having design requirements that are reasonably compatible with the VOCS. The VOCS 2015/2016 collection was based on the 2013 Master Sample. This Master Sample is based on information collected during Census 2011. In preparation for Census 2011, the country was divided into 103 576 enumeration areas (EAs). The census EAs, together with the auxiliary information for the EAs, were used as the frame units or building blocks for the formation of primary sampling units (PSUs) for the Master Sample, since they covered the entire country and had other information that is crucial for stratification and creation of PSUs. There are 3 324 primary sampling units (PSUs) in the Master Sample with an expected sample of approximately 33 000 dwelling units (DUs). The number of PSUs in the current Master Sample (3 324) reflect an 8,0% increase in the size of the Master Sample compared to the previous (2008) Master Sample (which had 3 080 PSUs). The larger Master Sample of PSUs was selected to improve the precision (smaller coefficients of variation, known as CVs) of the VOCS estimates.

The Master Sample is designed to be representative at provincial level and within provinces at metro/non-metro levels. Within the metros, the sample is further distributed by geographical type. The three geography types are Urban, Tribal and Farms. This implies, for example, that within a metropolitan area, the sample is representative of the different geography types that may exist within that metro.

The sample for the VOCS is based on a stratified two-stage design with probability proportional to size (PPS) sampling of PSUs in the first stage, and sampling of dwelling units (DUs) with systematic sampling in the second stage.

Indicators of crime level

Statistics that are used mostly in this report are the totals, proportions and percentages as has been the case for a number of years. This year two more statistics will be introduced in order to enrich the presentation of the crime situation in the country. The new statistics introduced in this report are the Repeat Victimisation Index (RVI) and the Multiple Victimisation Index (MVI) defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{RVI} &= \left(\frac{\text{Estimated total number of incidents of a specific type of crime committed}}{\text{Estimated total number of victimised households or individuals}} \right) \times 100 \\
 &= 100 \times \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i w_i 1_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i 1_i}
 \end{aligned}$$

where f_i is the number of times household/individual i experienced a specific type of crime, w_i is the sampling weight of household/individual i and 1_i equals to 1 if household/individual i experienced the specific type of crime and 0 otherwise.

$$MVI = \left(\frac{\text{Estimated total number of crimes of different types committed}}{\text{Estimated total number of victimised households/individuals}} \right) \times 100$$

$$= 100 \times \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i w_i 1_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i 1_i}$$

where c_i is the number of different types of crimes experienced by household/individual i during the reference period.





Repeat Victimization Index is thus a weighted average number of repeated victimisation through a specific type of crime per 100 households/individuals. Similarly Multiple Victimization Index is the weighted average of the number of different types of crime experienced by 100 households/individuals. The bigger the value of any of these indices the worse the crime situation is. The minimum value of each index is 100.

Quality flag

In this report every estimate will be assigned a quality level based on the coefficient of variation of the estimate. Coefficient of variation is a measure of the relative size of error defined as

$$100 \times \left(\frac{\text{Standard error}}{\text{Estimate value}} \right)$$

The South African Statistical Quality Assurance Framework (SASQAF) prescribes four quality levels based on a number of criteria including the coefficient of variation. Each quality level will be labelled by colour (flag) as defined in the table below.

Quality level	Coefficient of variation (CV %)	Quality flag (Qty)
Quality statistics	0 – 24	
Acceptable statistics	25 – 35	
Questionable statistics	36 – 49	
Poor statistics	50 – 100	

The survey package of the R software was used to calculate the estimates and the CVs. The package is specifically designed for analysis of data from complex surveys. Every computation using the survey package requires specification of three key design parameters; the strata, clusters (PSUs) and final weights. Some code for estimation of totals and proportions is given in Section 9.8.

4. GENERAL OVERVIEW OF CRIME

This chapter will provide an overview of various crime types from the period 2013/14 and 2016/17. The Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) focuses on eleven types of household crime and seven types of crimes against individuals. Crimes against households will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 and against individuals in Chapter 6. The household crimes measured in VOCS are theft of motor vehicle, housebreaking or burglary, home robbery, theft of livestock/poultry and other animals, theft of crops planted by households, murder, trafficking in persons, theft out of motor vehicles, deliberate damaging/burning/ destruction of dwellings, motor vehicle vandalism/deliberate damage of motor vehicles and theft of bicycles. The individual crime section focused on crime experienced by a randomly selected person in the household aged 16 years and older. Individual crimes involve crime that are violent and non-violent in nature, such as theft of personal property, hijacking of motor vehicle, robbery, sexual offence, assault, consumer fraud and corruption. The section aim to give a general overview per province, gender and population group.

4.1 Five-year trends

Table 2: Percentage of households and individuals affected by crime, by province, 2013/14 – 2016/17

Household crime	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Western Cape	13,4	13,9	11,1	9,0	
Eastern Cape	12,3	12,4	10,2	9,0	
Northern Cape	10,7	10,0	7,5	8,2	
Free State	6,8	6,9	7,2	5,7	
KwaZulu-Natal	10,5	9,1	7,5	7,8	
North West	9,9	7,2	7,2	6,3	
Gauteng	9,7	10,2	9,1	6,5	
Mpumalanga	11,5	9,7	9,0	6,5	
Limpopo	6,5	6,6	5,0	5,4	
South Africa	10,2	9,9	8,5	7,2	
MVI	109	107	109	106	
Individual crime					
Western Cape	7,6	7,0	6,5	5,4	
Eastern Cape	4,8	4,3	5,2	5,1	
Northern Cape	5,3	5,9	4,3	2,9	
Free State	5,0	4,8	3,3	3,5	
KwaZulu-Natal	3,2	3,1	2,3	2,3	
North West	4,9	4,5	3,6	3,1	
Gauteng	4,5	5,0	3,9	3,1	
Mpumalanga	5,2	3,5	4,3	4,1	
Limpopo	3,0	2,0	2,0	2,3	
South Africa	4,7	4,4	3,9	3,5	
MVI	104	105	105	105	

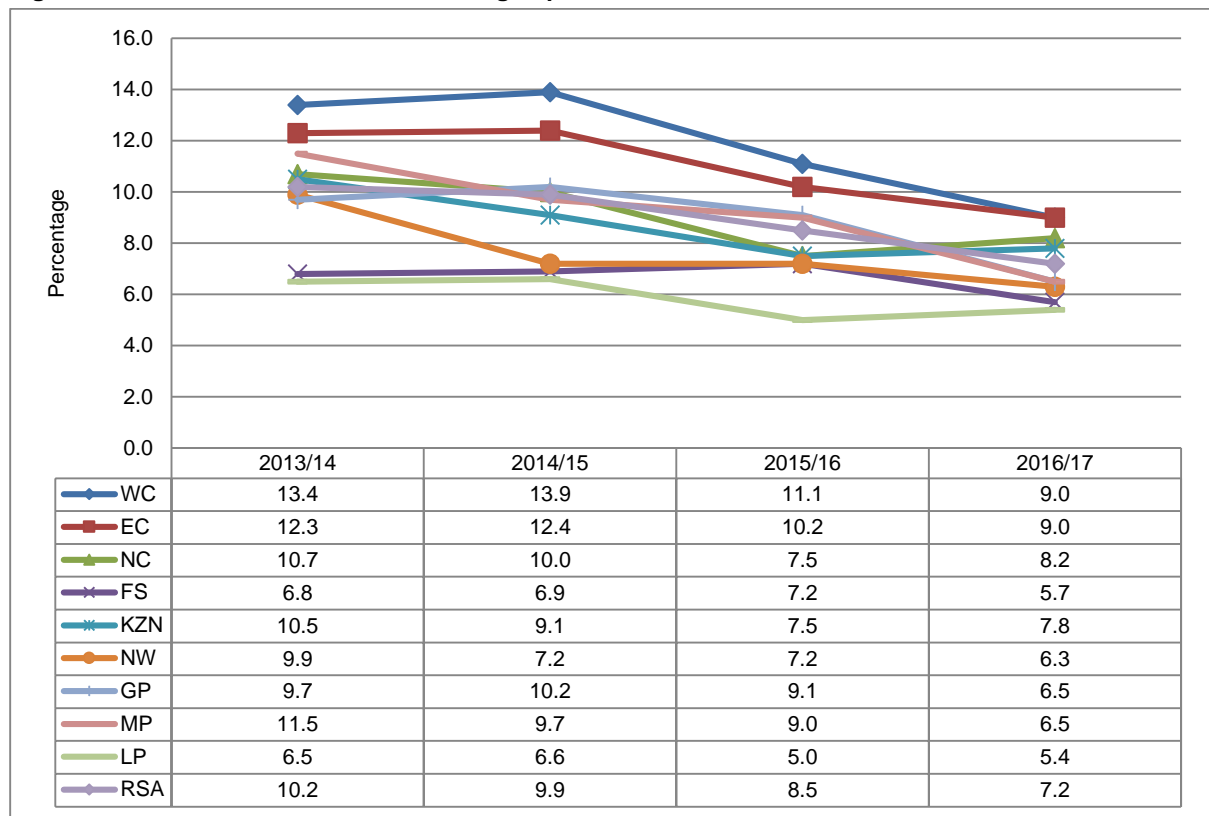
Figure 1: Household crime series according to province, 2013/14 – 2016/17

Figure 1 shows that overall household crime in South Africa has been decreasing between 2013/14 and 2016/17. All the provinces show a slow decline in household crime with the exception of Western Cape and Eastern Cape, where the decline is steep compared to other provinces.

Figure 2: Individual crime series according to province, 2013/14 – 2016/17

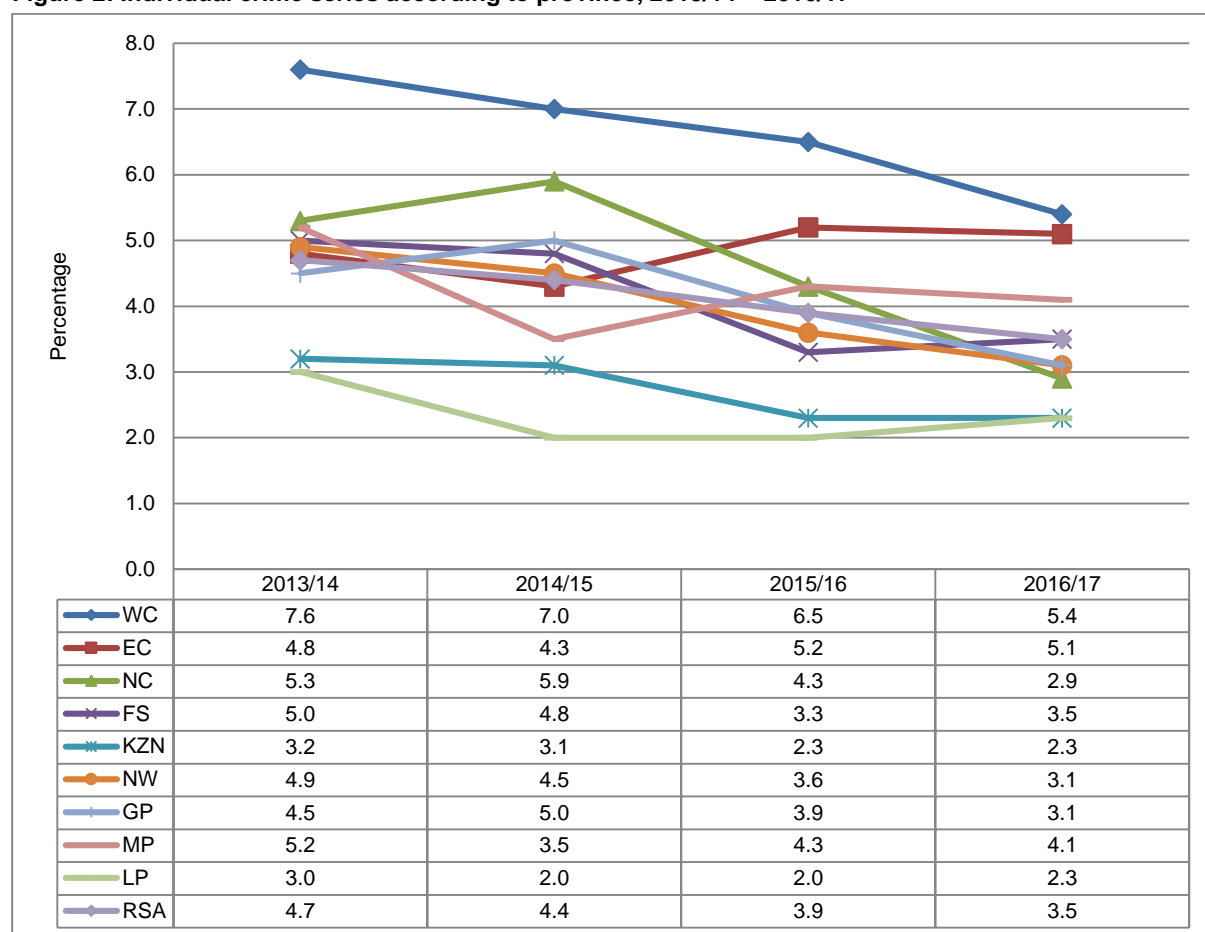


Figure 2 shows that overall individual crime experienced by selected members of household aged 16 years and older has been declining between 2013/14 and 2016/17. Free State and Mpumalanga provinces showed a slower decline over this period when compared to other provinces for individual crimes experienced by the selected member of the household aged 16 years and older.

4.2 Crime levels in 2016/17

Table 3: Distribution of crime incidents and victimised households, 2016/17

	Number of crime incidents	CV %	RVI	CV %	Qty	Number of victimised households	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Gender										
Male	929 987	4	130	2		715 901	4	7,5	4	
Female	538 291	5	120	3		438 083	4	6,6	4	
Population group										
Black African	1 094 688	4	120	2		889 236	3	6,9	3	
Coloured	134 057	11	130	6		100 349	10	8,9	9	
Indian/Asian	39 238	21	130	7		30 765	20	8,0	18	
White	200 296	11	150	7		133 633	10	8,3	10	
Province										
Western Cape	214 914	10	130	5		164 278	9	9,0	9	
Eastern Cape	198 541	7	130	4		154 543	6	9,0	6	
Northern Cape	46 495	18	140	13		32 988	14	8,2	14	
Free State	76 220	19	140	16		53 332	13	5,7	13	
KwaZulu-Natal	288 380	8	140	4		212 954	7	7,8	7	
North West	73 825	13	120	6		63 285	11	6,3	11	
Gauteng	373 534	7	120	3		306 888	6	6,5	6	
Mpumalanga	102 211	12	130	9		81 170	9	6,5	9	
Limpopo	94 157	11	110	4		84 547	10	5,4	10	
South Africa	1 468 278	3	130	2		1 153 984	3	7,2	3	

Table 3 shows that there is no significant difference between male and female headed households when looking at the number of incidents per household. Male headed households were most likely to be victimised as compared to female-headed households. Households where the population group of the head was white were more likely to experience a large number of incidents of crime than other population groups, while households headed by coloured people were most likely to be victimised as compared to other population groups. Provincially, households in the Free State experienced the highest number of incidents per household, followed by Northern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. This pattern changes when it comes to the percentage of victimised households, with Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and KwaZulu Natal being higher than the national percentage.

Table 4: Distribution of total number of household crime incidents experienced, 2016/17

Type of household crime	Number of crime incidents experienced by households	CV %	Percentage of households that experienced crime	Number of crime incidents experienced by households	Qty
Theft of motor vehicle	47 586	15	0,28	14	
Housebreaking or burglary	776 933	4	4,02	4	
Home robbery	151 279	9	0,80	8	
Theft of livestock, poultry and other animals	161 063	10	0,72	8	
Theft of crops planted by the household	15 004	65	0,04	32	
Murder	16 201	24	0,10	24	
Theft out of motor vehicle	139 433	10	0,76	9	
Deliberate damaging, burning, destruction of buildings	46 915	14	0,26	14	
Motor vehicle vandalism/deliberate damage of motor vehicle	31 907	20	0,18	19	
Theft of bicycle	21 051	19	0,13	19	
Other crimes	60 907	15	0,31	13	
South Africa	1 468 279	3	7,2	3	

Table 4 shows that more than half of households in South Africa experienced housebreaking/burglary, followed by theft of livestock, poultry and other animals owned by the household, as well as home robbery. The crimes least experienced by households were murder and theft of crops planted by the household. Motor vehicle related crime (theft of motor vehicle, theft out of motor vehicle and motor vehicle vandalism/deliberate damage of motor vehicle) accounted for about 14,7% of all household crime.

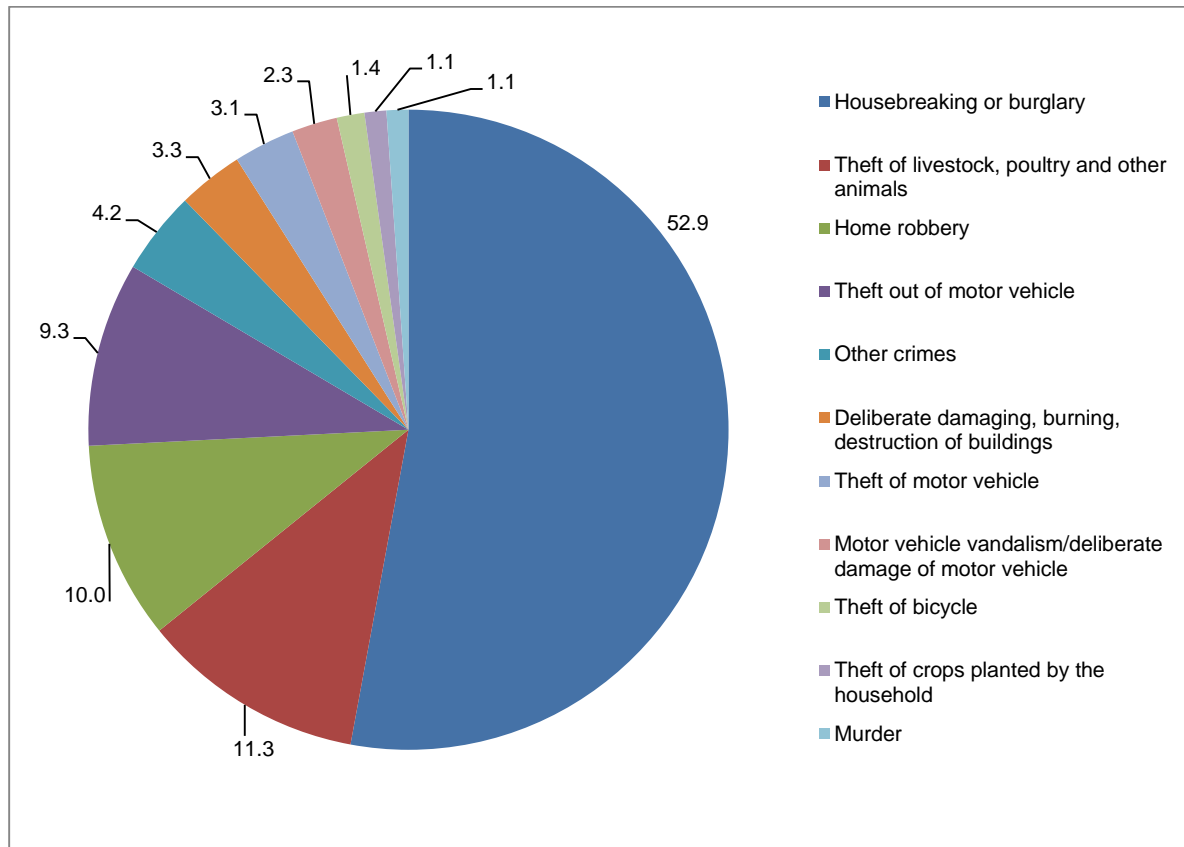
Figure 3: Percentage distribution crime experienced by households, 2016/17

Figure 3 shows that over half of all crime experienced by households in South Africa in 2016/17 as housebreaking/burglary. Theft of livestock/poultry and other animals that belong to the household, was the second most common type of crime experienced. Murder and theft of crops planted by households were the least common type of crime experienced by households in 2016/17 standing at about 1,1 per cent for each crime type.

Table 5: Total number of crime incidences and the proportions of crimes experienced by individuals, by type 2016/17

Type of individual crime	Percentage of individuals aged 16 years and older, who were victims of crime	CV %	Qty	Number of victims	CV %	Percentage of total individual crime experienced	CV %	Qty
Theft of personal property	1,7	6		708 356	7	44,2	5	
Hijacking of motor vehicle	0,1	30		30 664	30	1,9	29	
Robbery	0,7	13		294 874	13	18,4	12	
Sexual offence	0,2	21		73 842	21	4,6	21	
Assault	0,7	11		318 077	12	19,8	11	
Consumer fraud	0,2	21		85 848	22	5,4	21	
Corruption	0,1	31		37 778	31	2,4	31	
Other crimes	0,1	30		53 200	48	3,3	47	
South Africa	3,5	5		1 602 640	6	100,0	6	

According to Table 5, randomly selected individuals aged 16 years and above were most likely to be victims of theft of personal property, followed by robbery and assault. The same trend can be seen when observing the total individual crime experienced by selected individuals aged 16 years and above. Crime that are considered to be of violent nature (hijacking of motor vehicle, robbery, sexual offence and assault) accounted for about 40% of individual crime experienced in 2016/17.

Figure 4: Percentage distribution crime experienced by individuals, 2016/17

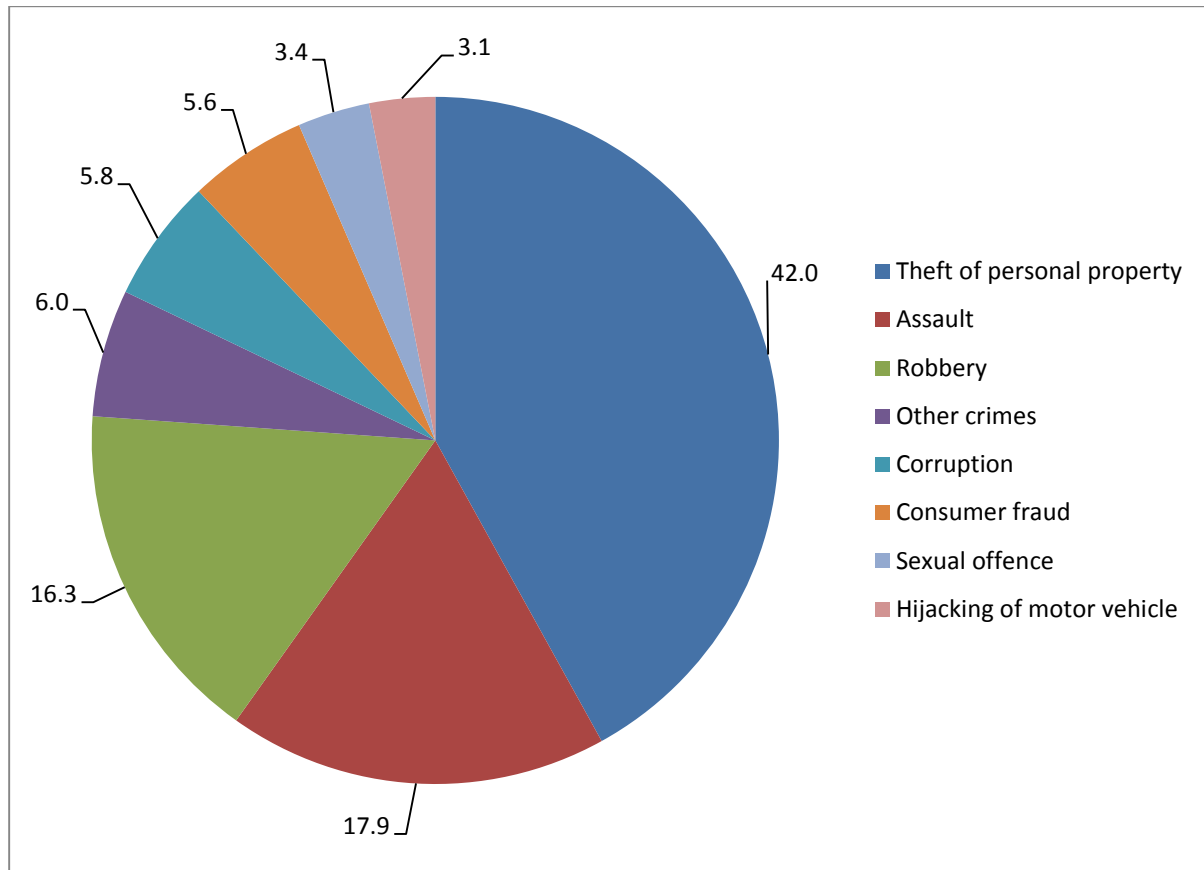


Figure 4 shows that the theft of personal property, assault and robbery were the most common crimes against individual adults 16 years and older.

5. HOUSEHOLD EXPERIENCE OF CRIME

In this chapter crime statistics will be presented according to the type of crime. The Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) focuses on eleven types of household crime and seven types of crimes against individuals. Crimes against individuals will be discussed in the next chapter. The household crimes measured in VOCS are theft of motor vehicle, housebreaking or burglary, home robbery, theft of livestock/poultry and other animals, theft of crops planted by households, murder, trafficking in persons, theft out of motor vehicles, deliberate damaging/burning/ destruction of dwellings, motor vehicle vandalism/deliberate damage of motor vehicles, and theft of bicycles.

Every section will start with presenting statistics for a particular type of crime disaggregated where possible. Disaggregated statistics will be presented only when the majority of the statistics are of acceptable quality. This will be followed by a four-year series of statistics trying to capture the trend of the particular type of crime. The focus will be on two key statistics, namely the proportion of households that have experienced the crime during the last 12 months and the average number of incidents of the particular type of crime experienced by a household. It is obviously desirable that both these statistics decline over time.

5.1 Theft of motor vehicle

Estimates of the total number and percentages of households affected by motor vehicle theft in 2016/17 are presented according to the gender of the household head.

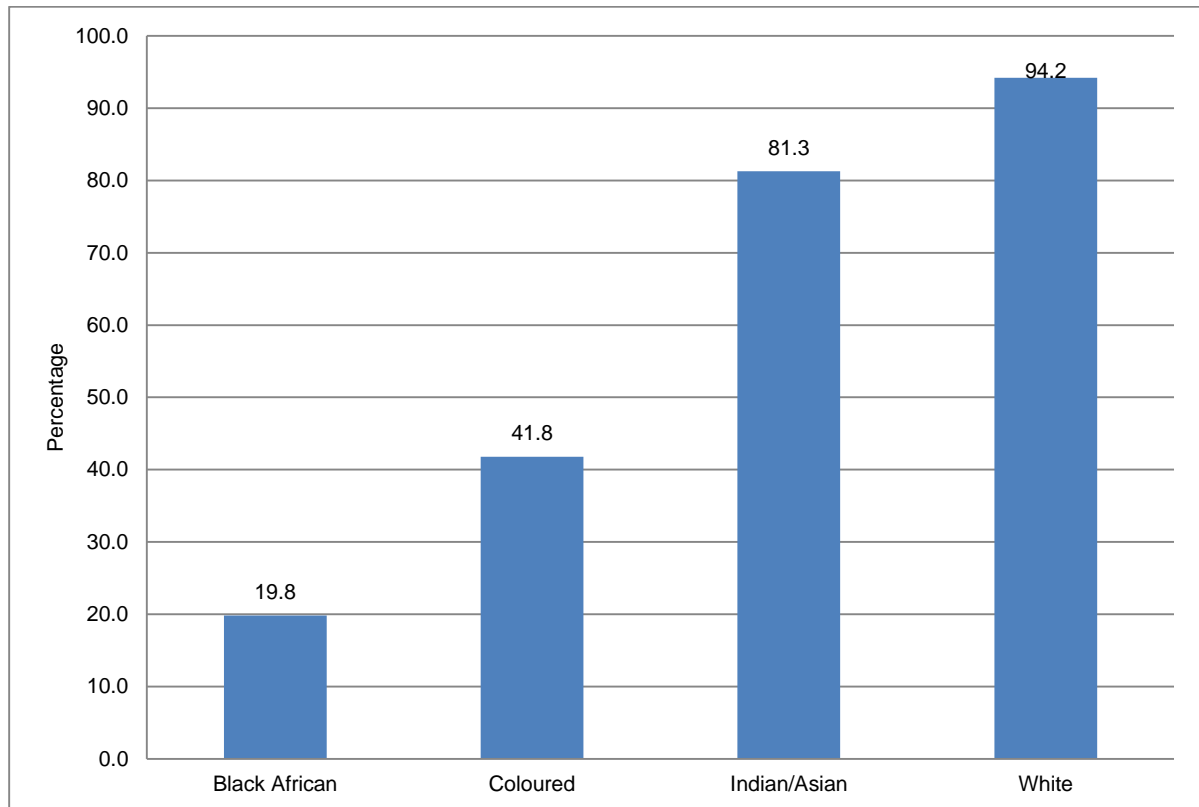
Information on the household ownership of motor vehicles for various groups of people in South Africa may provide useful information when analysing the profiles of victims of theft of motor vehicles later in the section.

Table 6: Distribution of vehicle ownership by gender and population group, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	3 534 427	2	37,6	1	
Female	1 282 109	3	19,6	3	
Population group					
Black African	2 534 899	2	19,8	2	
Coloured	466 611	5	41,8	3	
Indian/Asian	311 401	7	81,3	3	
White	1 503 626	3	94,2	1	
South Africa	4 816 536	1	30,0	1	

Household ownership of motor vehicles according to population group of household head is highlighted in a bar chart below:

Vehicle ownership among the four official population groups differed a lot. Fewer than two out of ten black African households own a motor vehicle, in working condition, while more than nine in ten of white households own a motor vehicle in a working condition.

Figure 5: Percentage distribution of vehicle ownership by population group, 2016/17

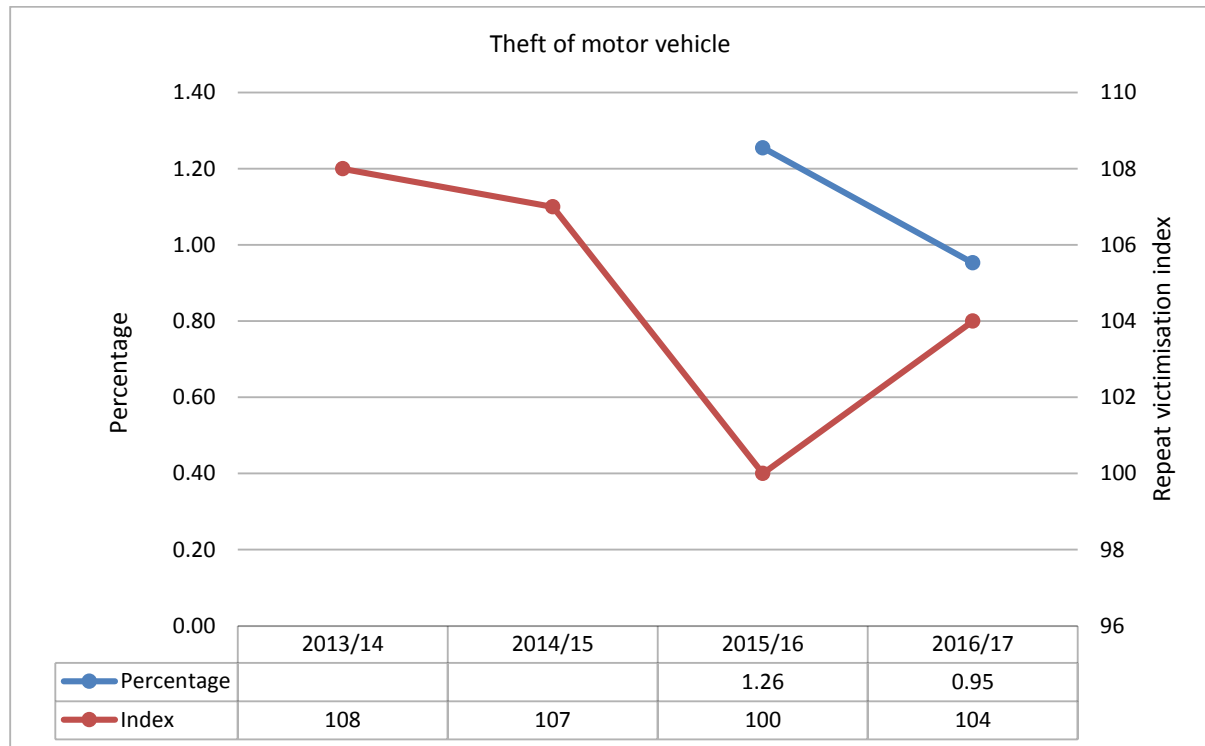
It is useful to examine the trend of motor vehicle theft over a number of years. As indicated in the introduction two trends are presented: one is the proportion of households that experienced motor vehicle theft in the past twelve months, and the other is the Repeat Victimization Index (RVI). Successful interventions against motor vehicle theft requires that both trends decline over time.

Table 7: Trends of motor vehicle theft, 2013/14 – 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	57 415 (15)	67 104 (12)	57 783 (14)	47 586 (15)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	53 172 (15)	62 819 (12)	57 783 (14)	45 593 (14)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	*	*	1,26 (14)	0,95 (14)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	108 (5)	107 (3)	100 (0)	104 (4)	

*Vehicle ownership was not asked in this period

Percentage and frequency of theft of motor vehicles between 2013/14 and 2016/17 are depicted below:

Figure 6: Percentage and repeat victimisation index for theft of motor vehicle, 2013/14 - 2016/17

The graph shows a decline in the percentage of households that experience theft of motor vehicle while the RVI for theft of a motor vehicle per household went up during 2016/17

Table 8: Distribution of theft of motor vehicle by gender of household head, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	34 389	16	0,4	16	
Female	11 204	30	0,2	30	
South Africa	45 593	14	0,3	14	

Reporting of crime incidents to the police helps the police to compile accurate statistics which is crucial in planning effective interventions against crime. Examining the insurance status of vehicles for households that experienced theft of motor vehicle is also useful in establishing possible motives behind reporting.

Table 9: Distribution of motor vehicle reporting, by insurance, 2016/17

Reporting	Vehicle insured	Vehicle not insured	Total	% reported	CV %	Qty
Theft of vehicle reported to police	21 735	13 577	39 023*	94*	3	
Theft of vehicle not reported to police	0	1 321	6 570	6		
South Africa	21 735	14 898	45 593*	100	14	

*These estimates were obtained independently of the cross-table estimates of reporting vs insurance

About 94 per cent of households that experienced theft of motor vehicles reported the crime to the police. Clearly, there is a relationship between reporting of stolen vehicles and insurance status. Households are more likely to report vehicles that are insured (100%) than vehicles that are not insured (91%).

5.2 Housebreaking/burglary

The lowest level at which the 2016/17 housebreaking statistics can be presented within reasonable error level is the district level. The statistics will be disaggregated by gender, race, province, metro and district.

Table 10: Distribution of housebreaking/burglary by gender and population group, 2016/17

Gender of the household head	Number of households that experienced at one housebreaking/burglary	CV %	Percentage of households that experienced at least one housebreaking/burglary	CV %	Qty
Male	408 043	5	4,3	5	
Female	239 297	6	3,6	6	
Population group*					
Black African	533 901	4	4,1	4	
Coloured	43 869	13	3,9	13	
Indian/Asian	15 163	25	4,0	24	
White	54 407	14	3,4	13	
Province					
Western Cape	77 723	11	4,3	10	
Eastern Cape	71 433	10	4,1	10	
Northern Cape	18 234	18	4,5	17	
Free State	36 330	16	3,9	16	
KwaZulu-Natal	126 647	9	4,7	9	
North West	33 576	14	3,3	14	
Gauteng	190 568	8	4,1	8	
Mpumalanga	41 916	14	3,4	14	
Limpopo	50 912	13	3,3	13	
Metro and non- metro					
WC – Non- metro	21 506	21	3,4	20	
WC - City of Cape Town	56 218	12	4,7	12	
EC - Non- metro	38 037	14	3,4	14	
EC - Buffalo City	15 883	22	6,9	21	
EC - Nelson Mandela Bay	17 513	19	4,7	18	
NC - Non- metro	18 234	18	4,5	17	
FS - Non- metro	27 659	19	4,2	19	
FS - Mangaung	8 672	28	3,4	28	
KZN - Non- metro	72 627	12	4,4	12	
KZN - eThekweni	54 021	14	5,1	14	
NW - Non- metro	33 577	14	3,3	14	
GP - Non- metro	23 378	18	3,8	19	
GP - Ekurhuleni	59 822	14	5,0	14	
GP - City of Johannesburg	55 334	13	3,2	13	
GP - City of Tshwane	52 035	15	4,7	15	
MP - Non- metro	41 916	14	3,4	14	
LP - Non- metro	50 912	13	3,3	13	
South Africa	647 340	4	4,0	4	

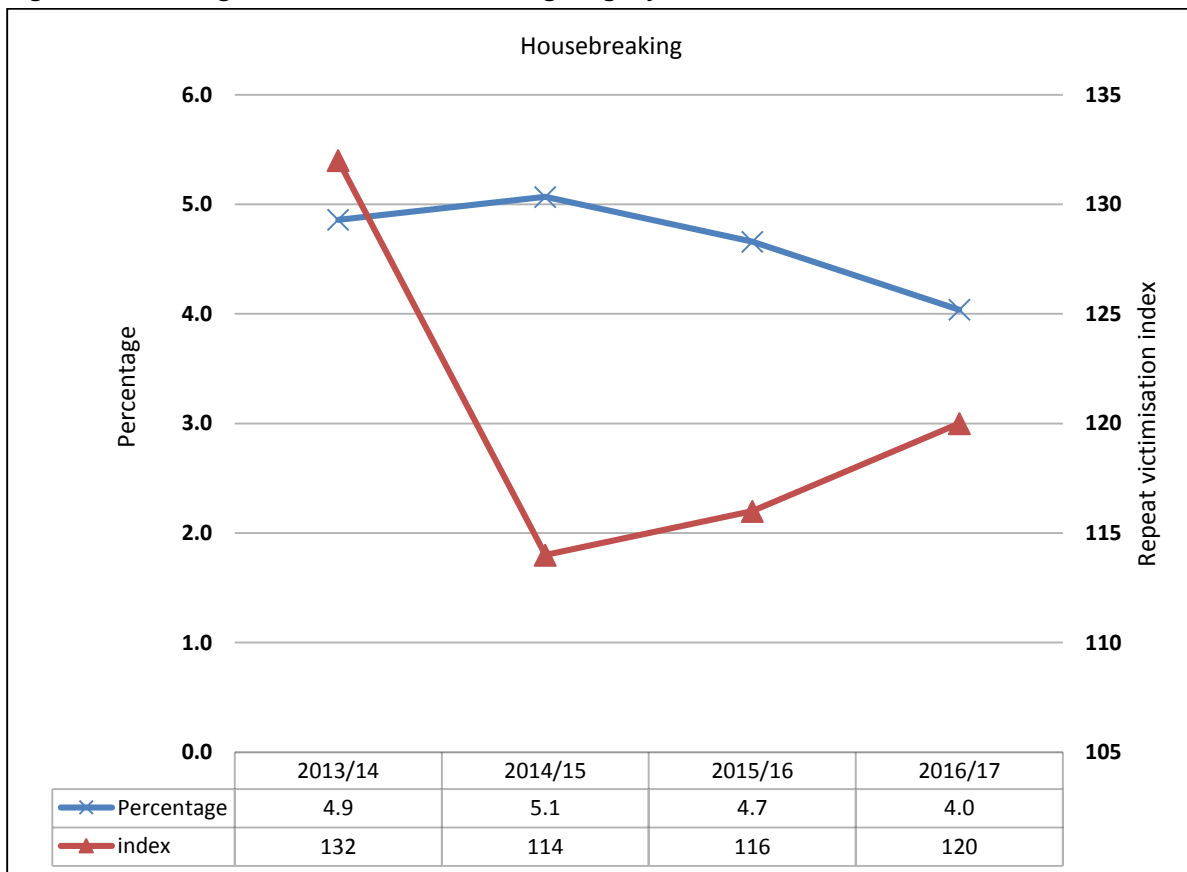
*of the household head

Trend for the number of housebreaking incidents, proportions of households that were victims of housebreaking and RVI for housebreaking per household are presented in Table 11 and Figure 7.

Table 11: Trends of housebreaking/burglary, 2013/14 – 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	940 954 (5)	874 606 (4)	844 982 (4)	776 933 (4)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	714 089 (4)	767 917 (4)	727 130 (4)	647 340 (4)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	4,86 (4)	5,07 (4)	4,66 (4)	4,04 (4)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	132 (4)	114 (2)	116 (2)	120 (2)	

Figure 7: Percentage and RVI for housebreaking/burglary, 2013/14 - 2016/17



While the proportion of households that experienced housebreaking declined steadily over a three- year period, the RVI increased during the same period after a decline between 2013/14 and 2014/15.

What criminals look for or find during housebreaking may also be of interest to law enforcement authorities and political authorities. It is however not possible to say whether housebreakers target some items or whether they simply take what they find during housebreaking. Such information can be gathered only through surveys of perpetrators.

Table 12: Percentage of household goods stolen during housebreaking/burglary by type, 2016/17

Item stolen	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Handbag/wallet	11,6	10	
Money	23,9	7	
Electronic equipment (e.g. laptop)	54,4	4	
Travelling bag	10,8	11	
Food stuff	22,8	7	
Personal effects (e.g watches)	25,3	7	
Cellphone	29,1	6	
Other	36,4	5	

It is estimated that over 54 per cent of households lost electronic equipment while 29 per cent of households lost cellphones during housebreakings in 2016/17. The least likely items to be stolen were travelling bags, which about 11 per cent of households are estimated to have lost in 2016/17 during housebreakings.

Table 13: Reporting housebreaking to the police and other authorities, 2016/17

Reporting to the police and reporting elsewhere	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Reported to the police	328 677	5	51,2	4	
Reported to anyone else	237 241	6	37,0	5	
Other authorities where households reported housebreaking					
Religious/traditional leader	41 757	14	6,5	14	
Local gang	4 806	39	0,7	39	
Community policing forum	52 430	13	8,1	12	
Local vigilante	8 664	31	3,7	30	
Local ward councilor	16 824	25	7,1	24	
Private security	20 354	21	3,1	21	
insurance company	29 254	17	4,5	17	
Other	67 294	12	10,4	11	

Not all victims of housebreaking in 2016/17 reported the crime to the police. It is estimated that just over 51 per cent of victims of housebreaking reported the incident to the police. Table 14 gives a summary of reasons for not reporting housebreaking to the police.

Table 14: Reasons for not reporting housebreaking to the police, 2016/17

Reason for not reporting housebreaking/burglary to the police	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Solved it myself/perpetrator known to me	7,5	18	
Inappropriate for police/police not necessary	7,0	19	
Reported to other authorities instead	3,5	26	
My family resolved it	4,3	25	
No insurance	1,2	44	
Police could do nothing/lack of proof	31,9	8	
Police won't do anything about it	28,3	9	
Fear/dislike of the police/no involvement wanted with police	1,3	41	
Did not dare (fear of reprisal)	0,6	59	
Other reasons	10,4	15	
Do not know	0,6	71	

“Police could not do anything” and “police won’t do anything” together account for over 60 per cent of the reasons given by households for not reporting housebreaking to the police. This could be an indication of lack of confidence in the police, and follows the same pattern as the previous where 58 per cent of households gave the same reason for not reporting housebreaking to the police.

Table 15: Satisfaction with the police by gender, population group and province, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	81 950	10	38,2	8	
Female	41 276	15	38,8	11	
Population group					
Black African	78 458	10	33,3	8	
Coloured	11 391	24	41,4	18	
Indian/Asian	5 424	43	50,2	29	
White	27 953	18	59,5	11	
Province					
Western Cape	24 176	19	49,3	13	
Eastern Cape	9 274	30	33,5	23	
Northern Cape	7 524	28	52,6	19	
Free State	9 526	31	36,5	25	
KwaZulu-Natal	16 431	22	28,1	19	
North West	8 321	29	44,5	22	
Gauteng	31 407	17	35,6	13	
Mpumalanga	6 925	34	41,0	27	
Limpopo	9 642	28	44,5	20	
South Africa	123 225	8	38,4	6	

Over 38 per cent of households that experienced housebreaking were satisfied with police response. There is no difference in the percentage of satisfied households between those headed by males and those headed by females. Whites and Indians/Asians were the population groups most satisfied by police response compared to other groups.

5.3 Home robbery

Home robbery is when there is contact between the perpetrator and one or more household members when the robbery takes place. Typically the victims are subdued by force when the crime is committed. This makes home robbery a more violent crime than housebreaking, where there is, per definition, no contact between perpetrators and victims when the crime is committed.

Table 16: Distribution of home robbery by gender, population group and province, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	77 136	11	0,8	11	
Female	51 070	13	0,8	13	
Population group					
Black African	93 042	9	0,7	9	
Coloured	13 888	23	1,2	22	
Indian/Asian	1 785	58	0,5	59	
White	19 490	24	1,2	24	
Province					
Western Cape	18 073	23	1,0	23	
Eastern Cape	14 176	23	0,8	23	
Northern Cape	1 988	53	0,5	53	
Free State	n/a	n/a			
KwaZulu-Natal	22 885	20	0,9	20	
North West	5 364	34	0,5	34	
Gauteng	43 044	15	0,9	15	
Mpumalanga	13 082	22	1,1	22	
Limpopo	9 595	28	0,6	28	
South Africa	128 206	8	0,8	8	

Nationally it is estimated that 128 206 home robberies were committed in 2016/17. There is no difference in the percentage of households that experienced home robberies between male and female headed households. Northern Cape and Free State did not have enough incidents of home robbery in the sample to obtain an accurate estimation of the totals and proportions.

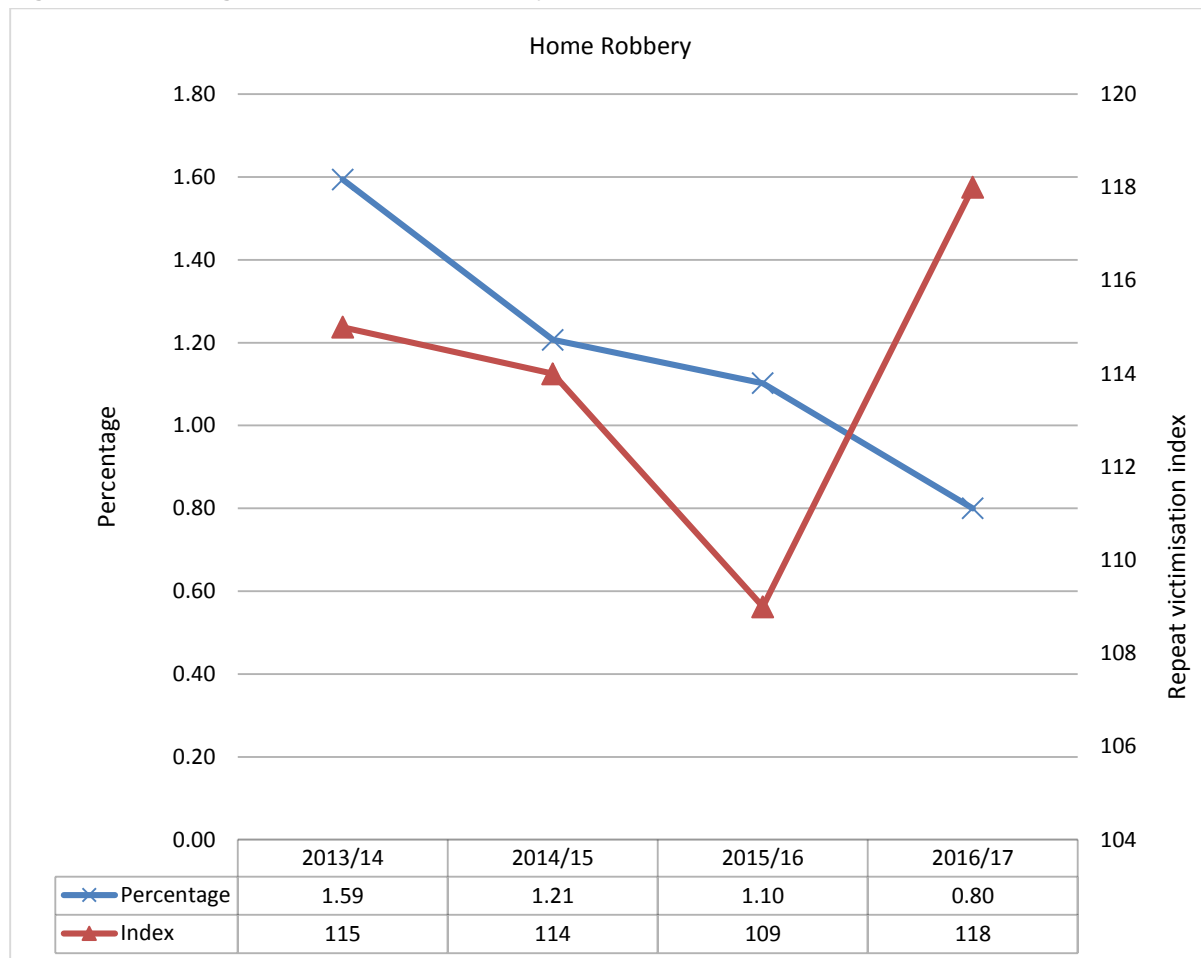
Table 17 presents time series of total number of home robberies, total number of households affected by home robberies, proportion of households that experienced at least one home robbery in the last one year and the frequency of home robbery incidents per household. The coefficients of variation (CVs) are indicated in brackets.

Table 17: Trends of home robbery, 2013/14 – 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	268 639 (7)	208 401 (8)	187 830 (7)	151 279 (9)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	234,045 (7)	182 692 (7)	171 739 (7)	128 206 (8)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	1,59 (7)	1,21 (7)	1,10 (7)	0,80 (8)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	115 (3)	114 (4)	109 (2)	118 (4)	

Trends of proportions of households victimised by home robbery and the RVI for home robbery are presented in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Percentage and RVI for home robbery, 2013/14 - 2016/17



The graph portrays a declining trend in the proportion of households that experienced home robbery from 2013/14 to 2016/17. The RVI trend does not suggest a sustained improvement during the four years. The RVI for home robberies actually increased from 109 to 118 between 2015/16 and 2016/17. The statistical significance of the increase would be a question of interest, but is beyond the scope of this report.

Table 18: Number and Percentage of households that reported home robbery to the police, 2016/17

	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Home robbery reported to police	71 170	11	56,7	4	
Home robbery not reported to police	57 036		43,3		

5.4 Theft of poultry, livestock and other animals

In the case of theft of livestock, poultry and other animals, it is reasonable to present statistics according to geographical areas, as animals are kept mostly in rural areas. Two types of classifications of geographical areas are used. The first has two categories: metropolitan (metro) and non-metropolitan

(non- metro) areas. Metropolitan areas are areas within and around big cities and the remaining areas are called non-metropolitan areas. The second classification consists of four geographical categories; Urban formal, Urban informal and Farms.

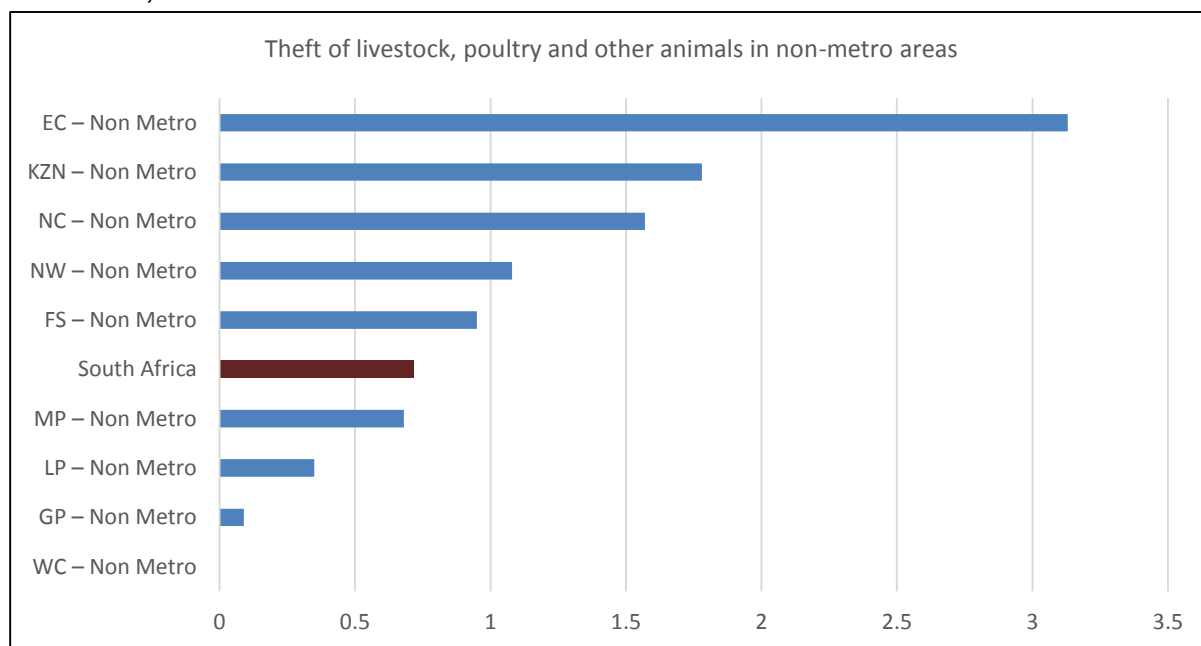
Since agricultural activities are undertaken mostly in non-metropolitan areas, provincial statistics will be presented only for non-metropolitan areas. The number of households in metropolitan areas that said they experienced theft of livestock, poultry and other animals is so small that it is not possible to obtain reasonably accurate estimates of the totals and percentages.

Table 19: Distribution of theft of poultry/livestock by gender and province, 2016/17

Geographical type I	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Metro	14 119	27	0,2	27	
Non- metro	101 835	8	1,15	8	
Settlement type					
Urban metro	12 782	29	0,19	29	
Urban non-metro	12 261	24	0,28	24	
Rural	90 910	9	1,90	9	
Geographical type II					
WC – Non-Metro	0	n/a	0	n/a	
EC – Non-Metro	35 020	12	3,13	12	
NC – Non-Metro	6 301	30	1,57	30	
FS – Non Metro	6 328	31	0,95	31	
KZN – Non-Metro	29 007	17	1,78	17	
NW – Non-Metro	10 852	29	1,08	28	
GP – Non-Metro	553	100	0,09	100	
MP – Non-Metro	8 382	28	0,68	28	
LP – Non-Metro	5 392	38	0,35	37	
South Africa	115 953	8	0,72	8	

One in 500 households in metro areas said they experienced theft of livestock, poultry and other animals while one in 100 households in non-metro areas said they have experienced this crime during the past twelve months. Just over 26 000 households and, one in 400 households in urban formal areas said they experienced theft of livestock, poultry and other animals. This may sound strange as people do not usually keep animals for economic activities in formal urban areas. It is possible that most of these households refer to the livestock they have in the rural areas. Traditional areas seem to be safer than urban informal areas in terms of theft of livestock, poultry and other animals. The percentage of households in urban informal areas that experienced this crime during the past twelve months is more than double the percentage in traditional areas. Only two households in farms reported theft of livestock, poultry and other animals resulting in poor estimates of totals and percentages.

Figure 9: Percentage of households that experienced theft of livestock, poultry or other animals in non-metro areas, 2016/17



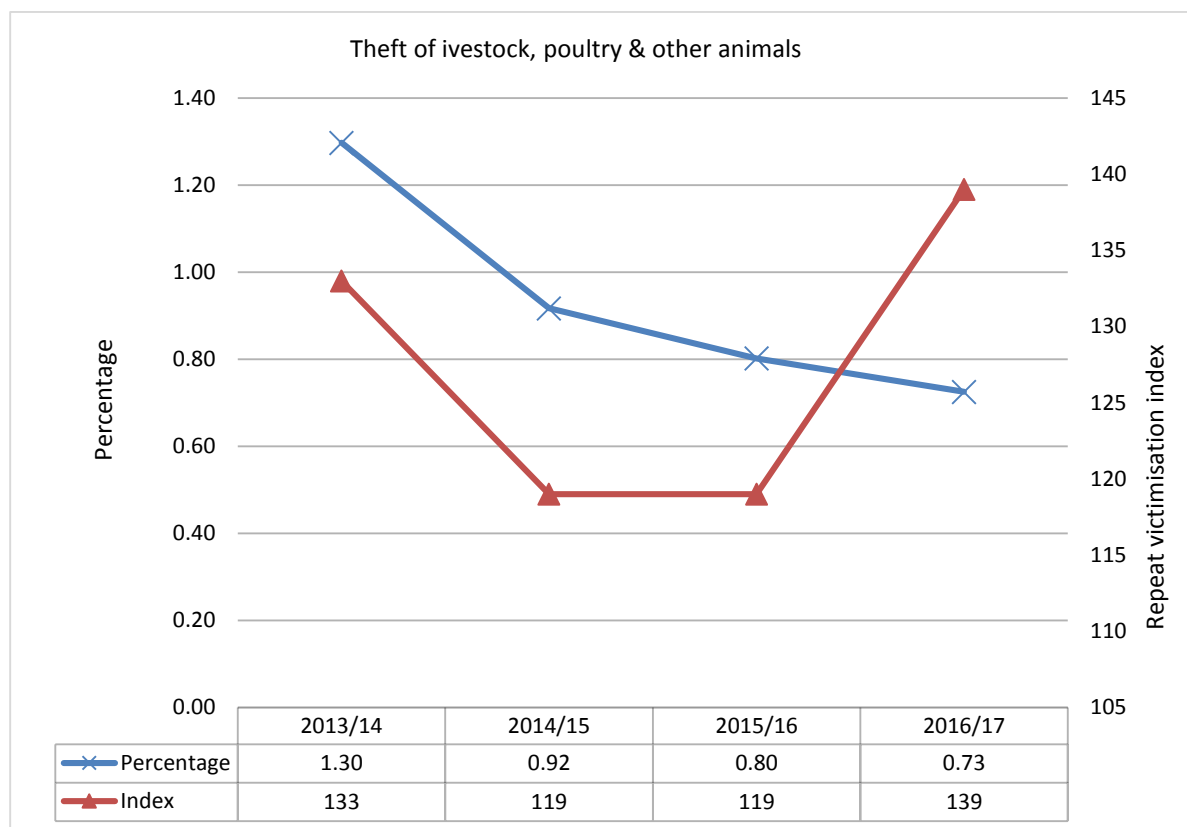
The Eastern Cape non-metro area dominates in the percentage of households that experienced theft of livestock, poultry and other animals. The Western Cape and Gauteng statistics are poor because of the very small numbers of households that experienced this type of crime.

A series of totals and percentages of households that experienced theft of livestock, poultry and other animals are presented in Table 20 and Figure 9 below for the period 2013/14 to 2016/17.

Table 20: Trends of theft of livestock, poultry and other animals, 2013/14 – 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	253 373 (8)	164 710 (8)	148 785 (8)	161 063 (10)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	190 135 (6)	138 397 (7)	124 913 (8)	115 953 (8)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	1,30 (6)	0,92 (7)	0,80 (8)	0,73 (8)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	133 (4)	119 (4)	119 (4)	139 (7)	

Figure 10: RVI and percentage of household the experienced theft of livestock and other animals, 2013/14 - 2016/17



The percentage of households that experienced theft of livestock, poultry and other animals declined by 44 per cent over the four years, while the frequency of this crime per household remained basically unchanged.

5.5 Theft of crops planted by household

Only ten households out of 21 095 surveyed reported that they experienced theft of crops during the past twelve months and all of them were located in non-metro areas. Therefore only national statistics will be presented.

Table 21: Theft of crops planted by households by geographical area, 2013/14 – 2016/17

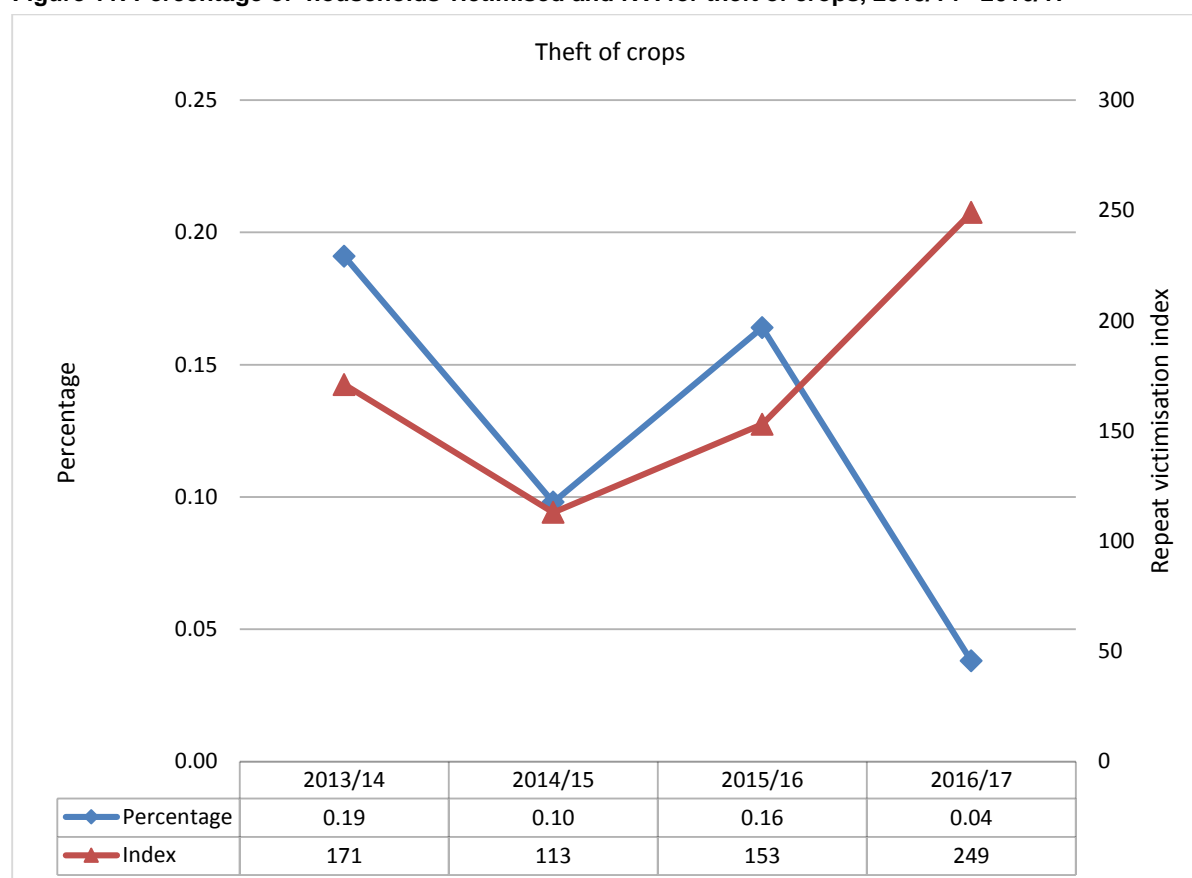
Geographical type	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Metro	0	n/a	n/a	n/a	
Non -metro	6 031	32	0,07	32	
South Africa	6 031	32	0,07	32	

An estimated 7 per 10 000 households experienced theft of crops and all were situated in non-metro areas.

Time series data for the period 2013/14 to 2016/17 is summarised in Table 22 and Figure 11.

Table 22: Trends of theft of crops planted by the household, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17
Number of incidents	47 977 (23)	16 843 (22)	39 155 (26)	15 003 (65)
Quality of statistics above				
Number of households that experienced at least one incident	28 005 (17)	14 870 (23)	25 552 (17)	6 031 (32)
Proportion of households that experienced at least one incident	0,0019 (17)	0,001 (23)	0,0016 (17)	0,0004 (32)
Quality of statistics above				
Repeat victimisation index for crop theft	171 (16)	113 (7)	153 (20)	249 (57)
Quality of statistics above				

Figure 11: Percentage of households victimised and RVI for theft of crops, 2013/14 - 2016/17

While the percentage of households that experienced theft of crops declined significantly during the four years, the RVI for theft of crops may have increased during the same period. The value for 2016/17 cannot be trusted and hence the use of the phrase “may have increased”.

5.6 Murder

Murder is another crime that had a very low count among households interviewed. Only 25 out of a total 21 095 households reported that they were victims of murder during the past year. Therefore the lowest level of disaggregation possible is by gender as given in Table 23.

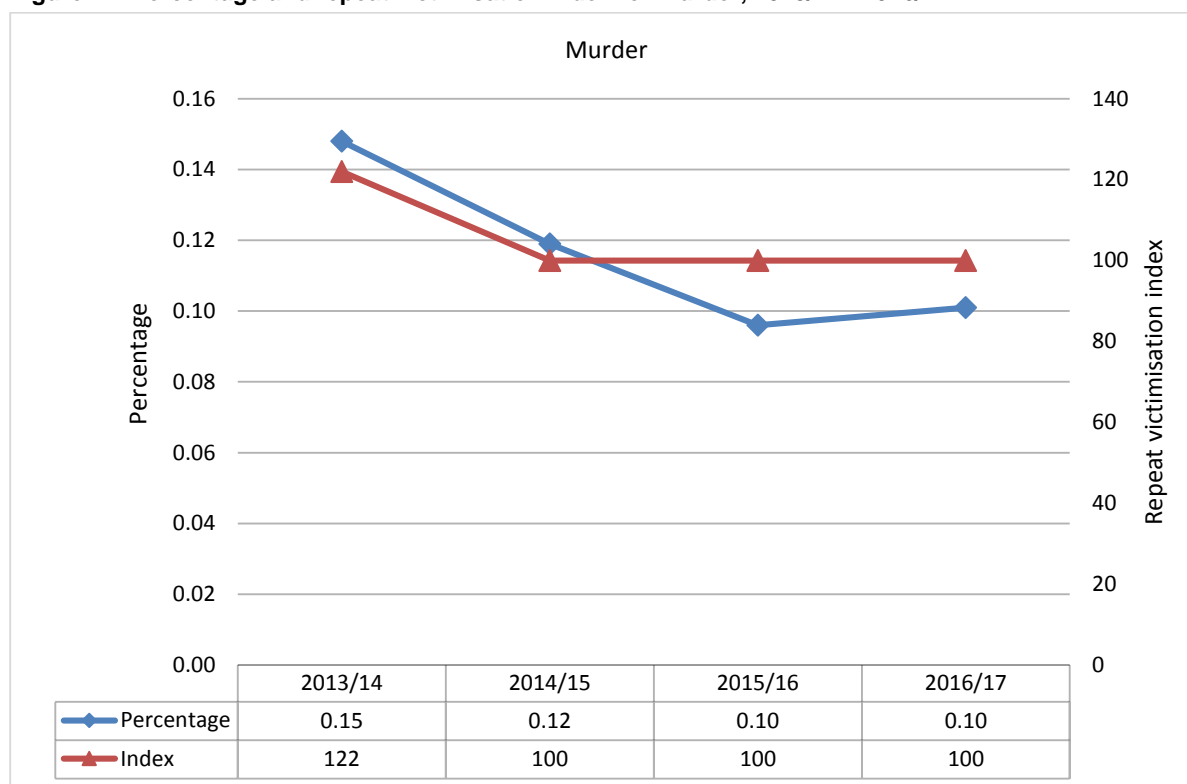
Table 23: Distribution of murder by gender, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	5 847	35	0,06	35	
Female	10 354	32	0,16	32	
South Africa	16 201	24	0,10	24	

Over 10 000 female-headed households were victims of murder representing 0,16 per cent of all female-headed households. This percentage of victimised households is more than twice the corresponding percentage in the case of male-headed households. Time series of murder totals, percentages and ratios are given in Table 24 and Figure 12.

Table 24: Trends of murder, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	26 529 (24)	18 012 (21)	14 930 (24)	16 201 (24)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	21 693 (20)	18,012 (21)	14 930 (24)	16 201 (24)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,15 (20)	0,12 (21)	0,10 (24)	0,10 (24)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	122 (15)	100 (0)	100 (0)	100 (0)	

Figure 12: Percentage and repeat victimisation index for murder, 2013/14 - 2016/17

During the four years both the percentage of households that experienced murder and the RVI moderately declined.

5.7 Theft out of motor vehicle

Theft out of a motor vehicle occurs when a person gains access to the interior of a motor vehicle, by force or otherwise, when the owner is not present and takes valuable items. It is estimated that a total of 121 764 households experienced theft out of motor vehicle in 2016/17 which represents 2,54 per cent of all households in South Africa. A total of 139 432 incidents of theft out of a motor vehicle were experienced by households in 2016/17.

Table 25: Number and percentage of households that experienced theft out of motor vehicle by gender, population group, settlement type and province 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	92 028	10	0,97	10	
Female	29 736	19	0,45	19	
Population group					
Black African	58 542	12	0,45	12	
Coloured	16 589	24	1,48	23	
Indian/Asian	7 481	33	1,95	33	
White	39 153	17	2,43	17	
Settlement type					
Rural	11627	26	0,24	26	
Urban metro	76952	11	1,13	11	
Urban Non-metro	33186	18	0,76	18	
Province					
Western Cape	37 822	18	2,07	17	
Eastern Cape	16 635	21	0,97	21	
Northern Cape	3 147	38	0,78	38	
Free State	6 417	36	0,69	36	
KwaZulu-Natal	9 629	28	0,36	28	
North West	4 286	38	0,43	38	
Gauteng	30 050	18	0,65	18	
Mpumalanga	5 295	38	0,43	38	
Limpopo	8 484	37	0,55	37	
South Africa	121 764	9	2,54	9	

Table 25 presents a summary of statistics. Male-headed households were more at risk for theft out of a motor vehicle, as the percentage of households that fell victim to this crime was twice that of female-headed households. However the difference is significantly reduced (2,4 per cent for male-headed against 1.8 per cent for female-headed households) when the percentages are calculated only for households owning a vehicle in working condition. The percentages for different population groups also reflect the pattern of household ownership of vehicles. When the percentages are calculated only for households owning motor vehicles, the coloured turn out to be the most at risk of theft out of motor vehicle compared to other population groups. Western Cape had the highest percentage of households that experienced theft out of a motor vehicle.

Trends for theft out of a motor vehicle are summarised below.

Table 26: Trends of theft out of motor vehicle, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	208 978 (10)	196 236 (8)	192 736 (10)	139 432 (10)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	163 242 (8)	173 978 (8)	151 485 (8)	121 764 (9)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	1,12 (8)	1,16 (8)	3,284 (8)	2,54 (9)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	128 (6)	113 (2)	127 (6)	115 (6)	

Note: Coefficients of variation (CVs) in brackets

Figure 13: Percentage of households that experienced theft out of motor vehicle and RVI, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Figure 13 shows that both indicators, the percentage of households that experienced theft out of a motor vehicle and the MVI, fluctuate over time.

5.8 Deliberate damaging, burning or destruction of dwelling

This crime include all deliberate actions that cause damage to or destruction of residential dwellings. Not many interviewed households indicated that they experienced this type of crime. Only one Indian/Asian household indicated that they experienced deliberate damaging, burning or destruction of property. This puts a limit on the level of disaggregation of the statistics.

Table 27: Number and percentage of households that experienced deliberate damaging, burning or destruction of dwellings, by gender and population group, 2016/17

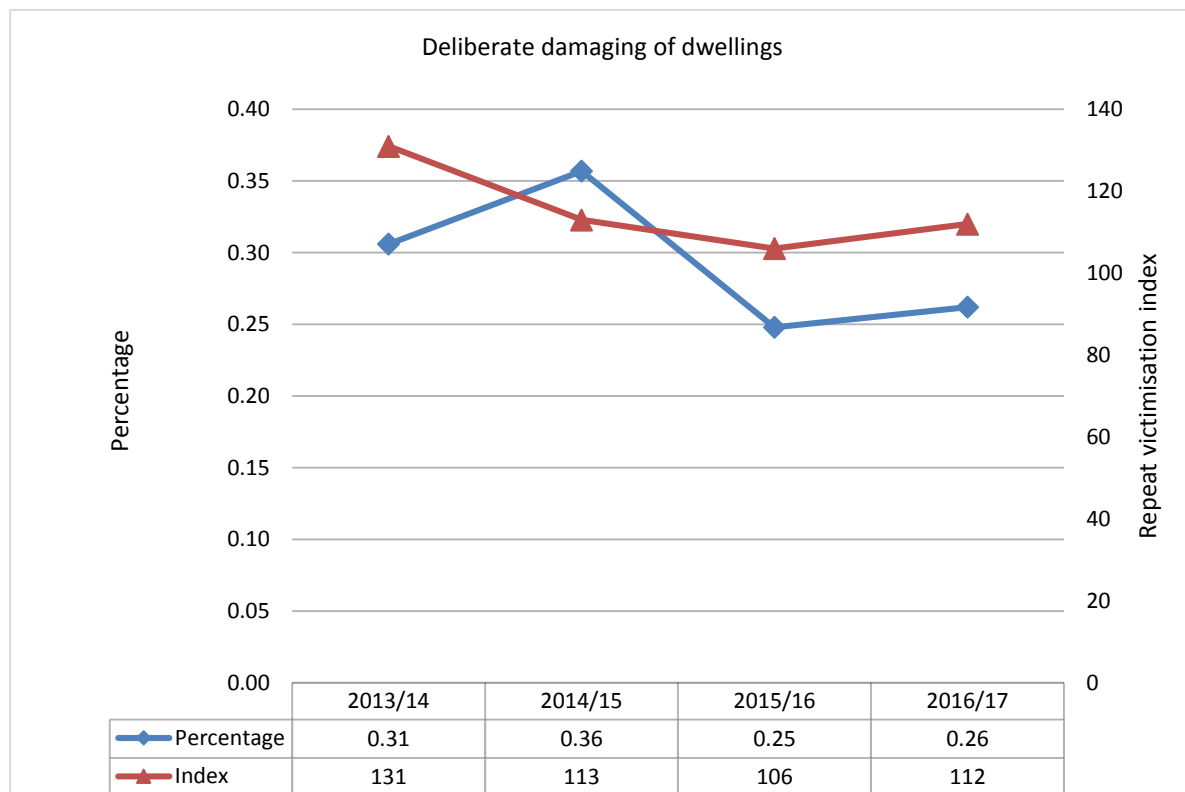
Settlement type	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Rural	8210	26	0,17	26	
Urban metro	22040	20	0,32	20	
Urban non-metro	11646	25	0,27	25	
Gender					
Male	25 052	18	0,27	18	
Female	16 842	21	0,26	21	
Population group					
Black African	28 994	16	0,22	16	
Coloured	6 688	31	0,6	31	
Indian/Asian	830	100	0,22	100	
White	5 383	38	0,34	39	
South Africa	41 895	14	0,26	14	

An estimated total of 41 895 households experienced deliberate damaging, burning or destruction of dwellings representing 0,26 per cent of all households in South Africa. There was no significant difference between male-headed and female-headed households as far as the proportion of households that experienced this type of crime was concerned.

Table 28: Trends of deliberate damaging, burning or destruction of dwellings, 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	58 452 (17)	60 624 (14)	40 892 (15)	46 915 (14)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	44 660 (13)	53 576 (14)	38 626 (15)	41 895 (14)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,31 (13)	0,36 (14)	0,25 (15)	0,26 (14)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	131 (9)	113 (4)	106 (4)	112 (4)	

Figure 14: Percentage of households that experienced deliberate damage of dwellings, and RVI, 2013/14 - 2016/17



The graph shows a slight downward trend for both indicators.

5.9 Motor vehicle vandalism or deliberate damaging of motor vehicles

This crime is only about vandalism of vehicles under the care of or belonging to households. It does not include vandalism of public vehicles. The challenge of insufficient data for disaggregated statistics also applies in this case. Even estimation by gender compromises the quality of the statistics.

Table 29: Number and percentage of motor vehicle vandalism, by gender, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	18 838	21	0,20	21	
Female	10 613	39	0,16	39	
South Africa	29 450	19	0,18	19	

Table 30: Trends of motor vehicle vandalism, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	54 633 (12)	74 824 (15)	67 715 (19)	31 907 (20)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	54 633 (12)	64 705 (14)	50 424 (15)	29 450 (19)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,37 (12)	0,43 (14)	0,18 (15)	0,18 (19)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	100 (0)	116 (7)	134 (10)	108 (8)	

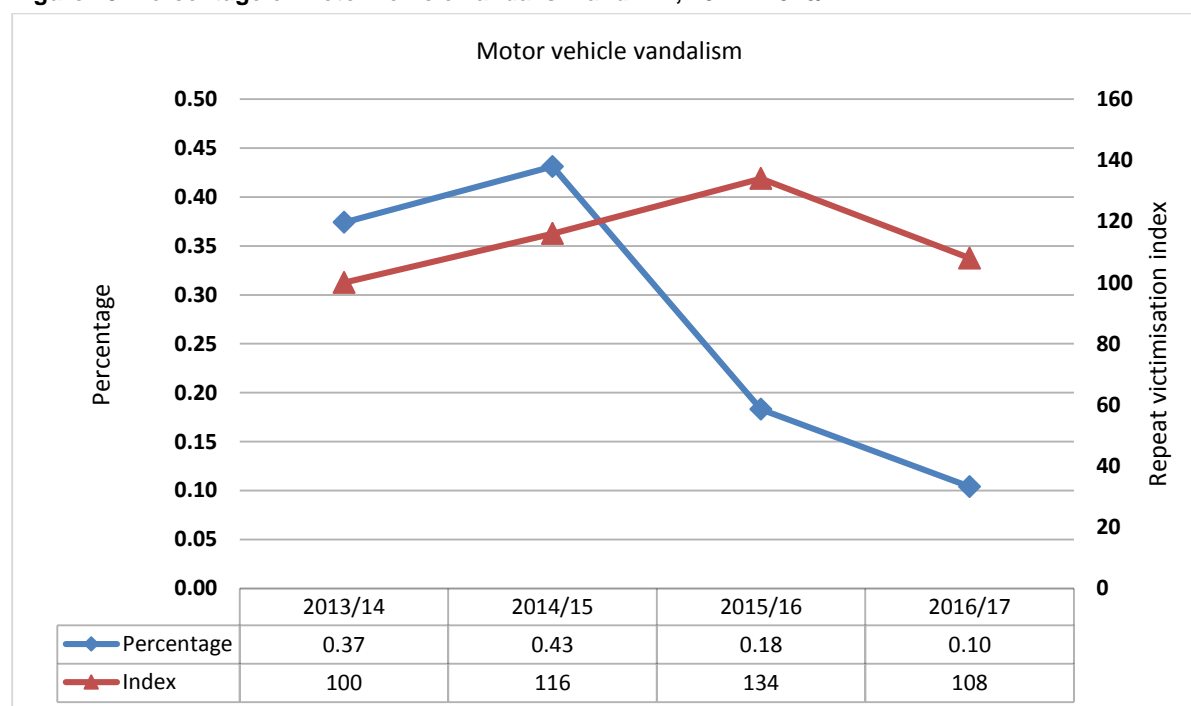
Figure 15: Percentage of motor vehicle vandalism and RVI, 2011 - 2016/17

Figure 15 shows that both the percentage of households that experienced motor vehicle vandalism and the RVI show declining trend.

5.10 Theft of bicycle

While motor vehicles are the common mode of transport in urban areas, some rural areas depend on modest modes of transport such as bicycles. In South Africa urban areas bicycles are mostly used for recreational purposes. In 2016/17 a total of 21 051 households were victims of bicycle theft representing 0,13 per cent of households.

Table 31: Distribution of theft of bicycle, by gender and geographical area, 2016/17

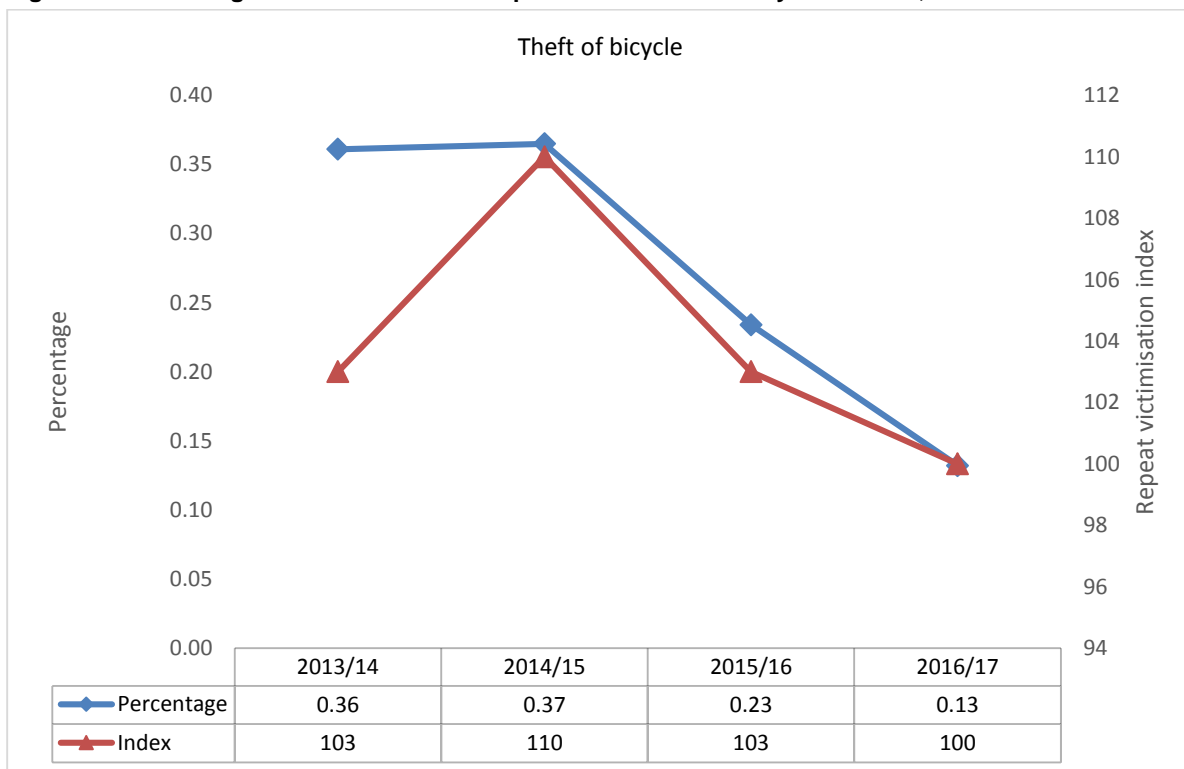
Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	14 830	23	0,16	23	
Female	6 221	36	0,1	36	
Geographical type					
Metro	8 950	30	0,13	30	
Non-metro	12 102	25	0,14	25	
South Africa	21 051	19	0,13	19	

The results above shows no significant difference between metro and non-metro areas with regard to this crime.

Table 32: Trends of theft of bicycle, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	54 119 (13)	60 375 (16)	37 227 (17)	21 051 (19)	
Number of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	52 720 (13)	54 847 (16)	36 319 (17)	21 051 (19)	
Percentage of households that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,36 (13)	0,37 (16)	0,23 (17)	0,13 (19)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	103 (2)	110 (4)	103 (2)	100 (0)	

Figure 16: Percentage of households that experienced theft of a bicycle and RVI, 2013/14 - 2016/17



The percentage of households that experienced theft of a bicycle and the RVI both declined between 2014/15 and 2016/17, the former more sharply than the latter.

5.11 Comparison of household crimes experienced

Except for the case of theft out of a motor vehicle, trends of household crime presented in the preceding sections show declining patterns of the percentage of households that experienced crime. However, the Repeat Victimization Index (RVI) has not always followed a downward trend, and as a matter of fact, in the case of housebreaking, home robbery, theft of livestock, poultry and other animals and theft of crops, the trend was upward. The interpretation of this is that while there has been an improvement in terms of proportion of households that were victimised, the number of the same types of crime increased during the past four years. It is important to investigate this phenomenon further to find out why households fall victim to the same type of crime repeatedly. Is it inadequate measures taken in response to crime or are they unable to afford effective measures of protection?

6. INDIVIDUAL EXPERIENCE OF CRIME

This section measures the extent of crime perpetrated against individuals in a twelve month period. VOCS randomly selects individuals from sampled households aged sixteen years and older, and asks if they had been victims of crime in the preceeding twelve month period. Individual crimes are typically crimes that mostly affect individuals rather than entire households. The crimes covered in this section are theft of personal property, motor vehicle hijacking, robbery, assault and consumer fraud.

6.1 Theft of personal property

Personal property includes all items of personal nature such as cloths, jewellery, watches, cell phones. An estimated 640 179 of individuals who were interviewed had personal items stolen in 2016/17.

Table 33: Distribution of theft of personal property, by gender, population group and province, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	306 649	9	1,67	9	
Female	333 530	9	1,69	9	
Population group					
Black African	497 189	7	1,66	7	
Coloured	65 938	21	1,92	21	
Indian/Asian	22 982	37	2,12	36	
White	54 070	25	1,47	25	
Province					
Western Cape	132 947	14	2,87	14	
Eastern Cape	71 087	19	1,59	19	
Northern Cape	8 873	37	1,06	37	
Free State	32 765	26	1,64	26	
KwaZulu-Natal	83 875	19	1,20	19	
North West	42 149	23	1,64	23	
Gauteng	178 587	12	1,81	12	
Mpumalanga	46 555	25	1,59	25	
Limpopo	43 340	22	1,14	22	
South Africa	640 179	6	1,68	6	

While the data shows marginal gender differences among victims of theft of personal property, disaggregating by population group shows that theft of personal property was highest among Indians/Asians and coloureds.

Table 33 shows that the prevalence of theft of personal property is highest among those residing in the Western Cape (2,87%) and lowest among people who reside in Northern Cape (1,06%). However the estimates of theft of personal property in the Northern Cape are questionable. In terms of the number of individuals who experienced theft of personal property, Gauteng recorded the highest figures at 178 587.

Profiling victims of crime may assist in planning intervention strategies. For each individual crime an age distribution of the victims will be presented.

Figure 17: Age distribution of victims of theft of personal property, 2016/17

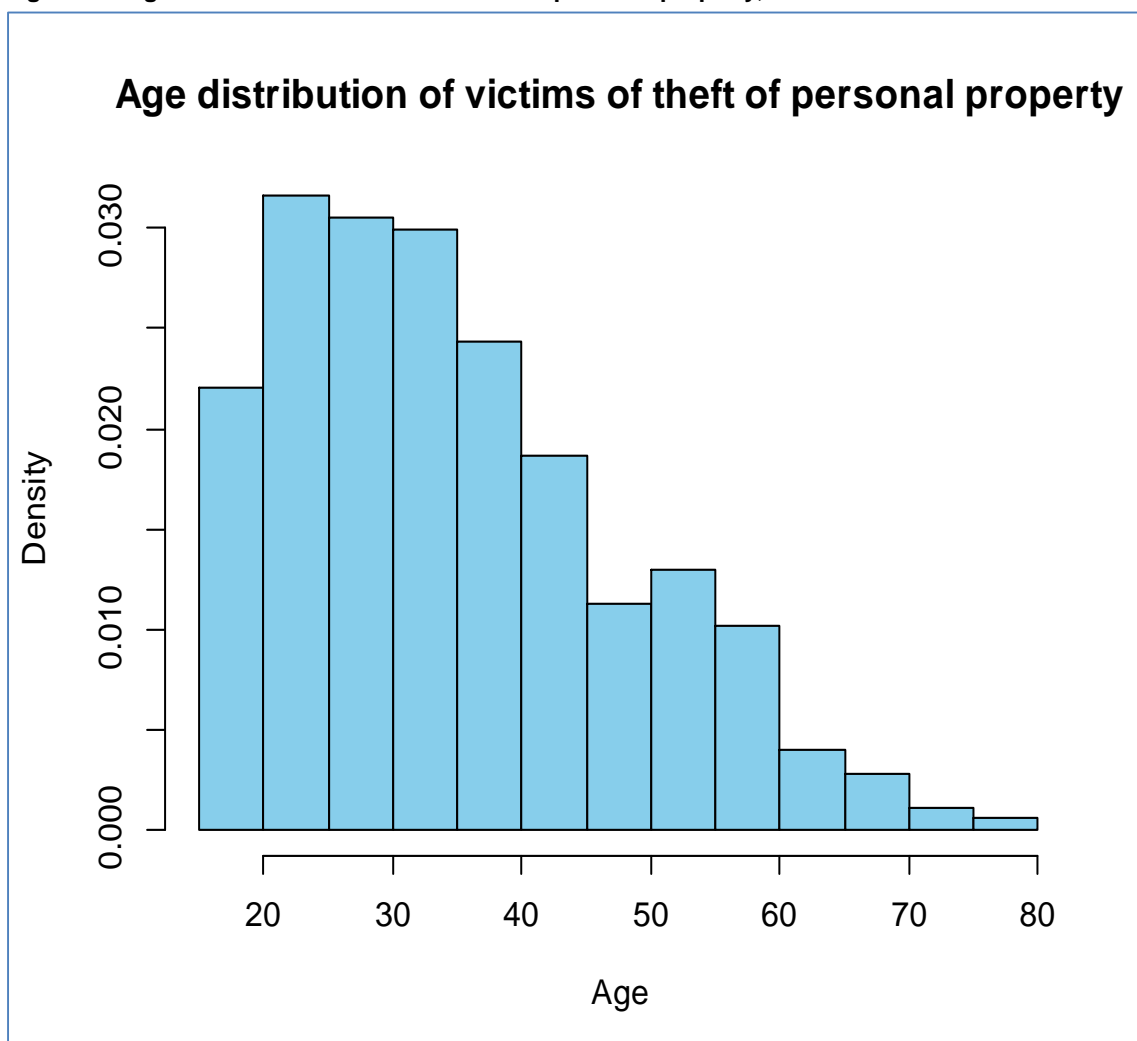
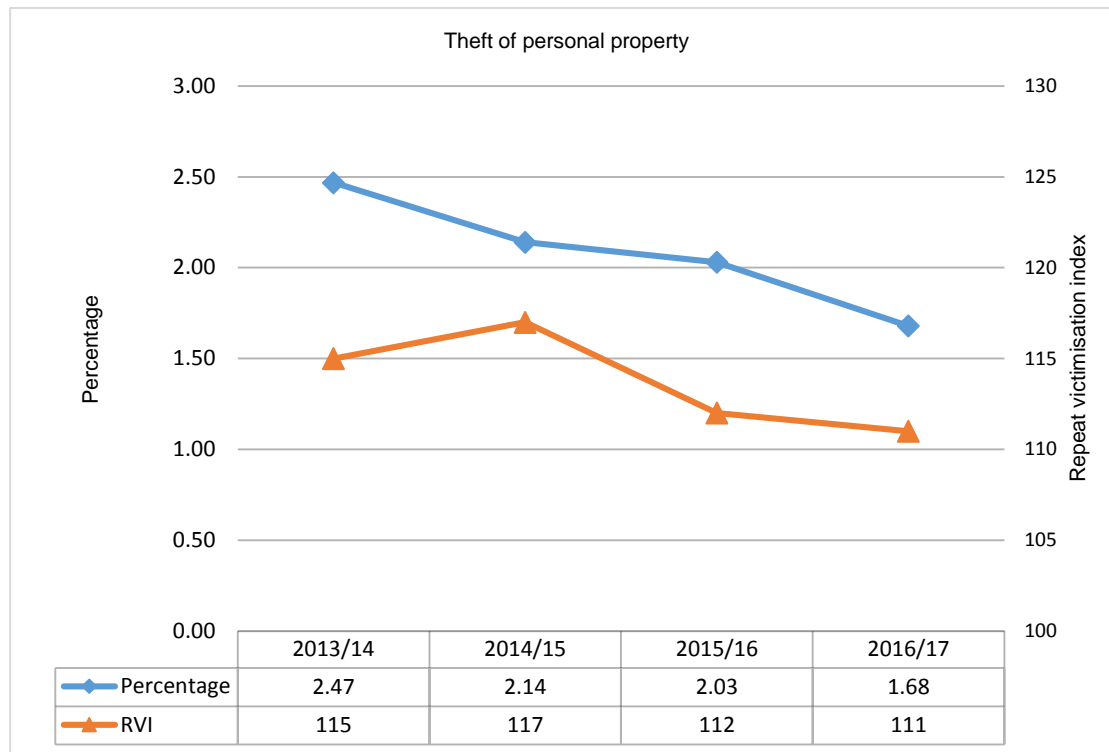


Figure 17 shows that victims of theft of personal property were mostly persons in their twenties.

Table 34: Trends of theft of personal property, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	1 012 537 (8)	921 773 (9)	842 478 (8)	708 357 (7)	
Number of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	880 028 (7)	786 895 (6)	750 553 (6)	640 179 (6)	
Percentage of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	2,47 (6)	2,14 (6)	2,03 (6)	1,68 (6)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	115 (3)	117 (6)	112 (5)	111 (7)	

Figure 18: Percentage of individuals that experienced theft of personal property and RVI, 2013/14 - 2016/17



The graph in Figure 18 shows that the percentage of individuals over the age of 16 that experienced theft of personal property steadily declined during the four year period. The number of incidents per individual as indicated by the repeat victimisation index also decreased during the same period.

Table 35: Number and percentage of victims who reported theft of personal property to the police, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Qty	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	111 395	14		39	11	
Female	90 673	18		30	15	
Population group						
Black African	137 842	12		30	10	
Coloured	15 425	43		25	37	
Indian/Asian	14 010	50		61	28	
White	34 793	33		87	8	
South Africa	202 069	11		34	9	

An estimated total of about 202 069 or 34 per cent of all victims reported theft of personal property to the police. A greater percentage of male victims reported the crime to the police compared to female victims. Over 87 per cent of white victims reported to the police compared to only about 30 per cent of black African victims. The majority (62 per cent) of the victims said that the reason they did not report theft of personal property to the police was that the police could not do or won't do anything.

Table 36: Number and percentage of victims who lost various items through theft of personal property, 2016/17

Stolen items	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Money/purse/wallet	284 252	9	45,0	7	
Bankbooks/cards	105 034	15	16,6	14	
Cell phone	479 584	7	75,9	3	
Travel document	27 372	26	4,3	25	
Travelling bag	18 119	33	2,9	33	
Personal effects (e.g jewellery)	50 321	23	8,0	22	
Portable radio/MP3 player	7 337	41	1,2	41	
Clothings	51 355	21	8,1	21	
Portable computer	44 319	26	7,0	25	
Other	43 080	22	6,8	22	

Cellphones dominated the list of items lost through theft of personal property affecting 76 per cent of the victims. This was followed by theft of money, purse or wallet affecting over 45 per cent of the victims.

6.2 Hijacking of motor vehicle

Hijacking of motor vehicles is a type of crime committed against an individual while driving their own vehicles or vehicles belonging to another person or institution. The question of ownership was not relevant when respondents were asked whether they had experienced incidents of hijacking during the past twelve months.

Table 37: Motor vehicle hijacking by gender, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	18 754	35	0,10	35	
Female	11 910	52	0,06	52	
South Africa	30 664	30	0,08	30	

Table 37 shows that an estimated 30 664 people in South Africa were victims of motor vehicle hijackings hijacked in 2016/17. The standard errors for the estimates disaggregated according to gender of the victim are so large that any comparison between them is meaningless.

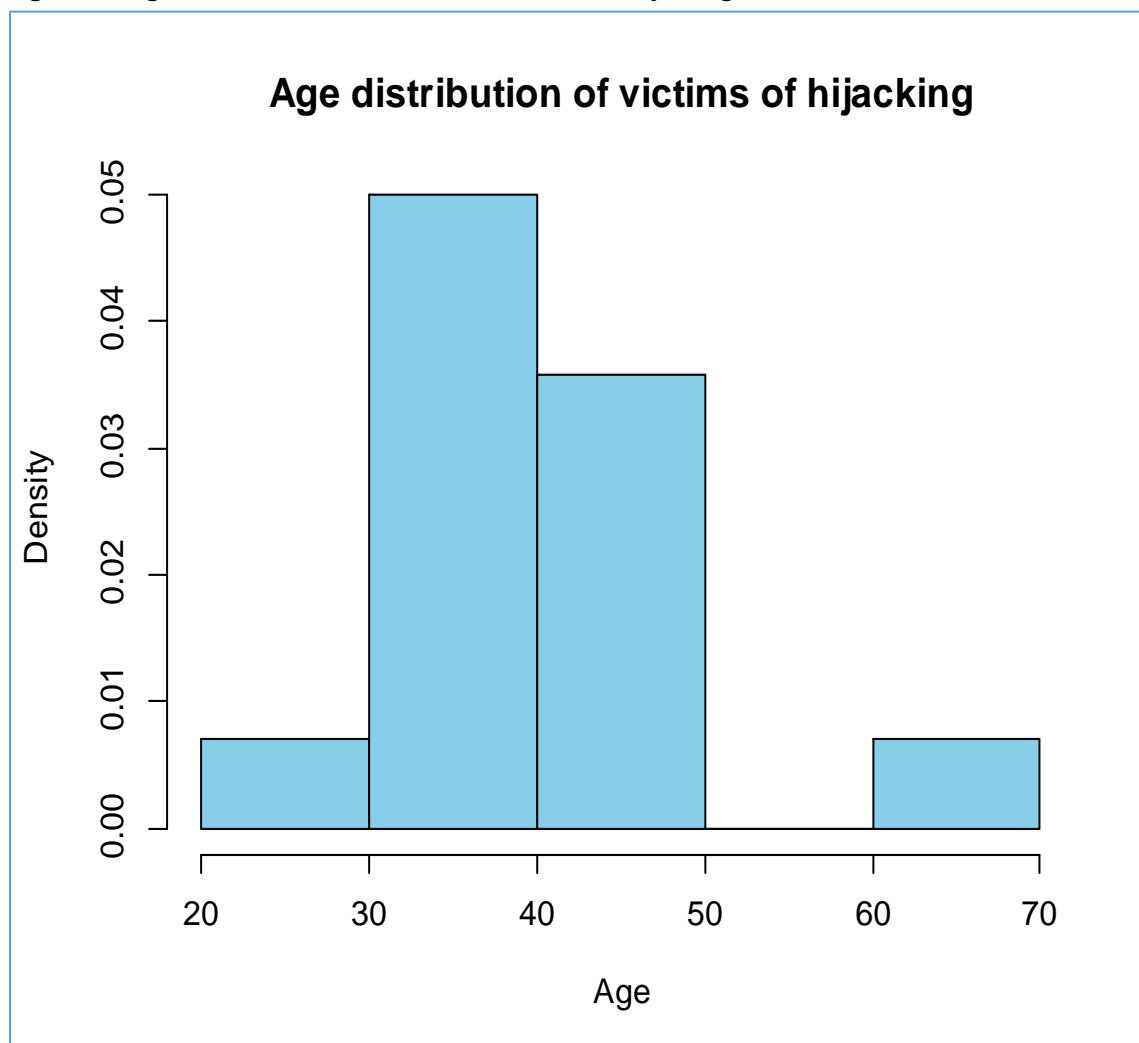
Figure 19: Age distribution of victims of motor vehicle hijacking, 2016/17

Figure 19 shows that victims of hijacking are older than victims of theft of personal property. Victims of hijacking on the average are in their thirties.

Table 38: Trends of motor vehicle hijacking, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17
Number of incidents (CV%)	26 098 (43)	53 427 (24)	27 414 (32)	30 644 (30)
Quality of statistics above				
Number of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	26 098 (43)	53 427 (24)	27 414 (32)	30 644 (30)
Percentage of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,07 (43)	0,15 (24)	0,07 (32)	0,08 (30)
Quality of statistics above				
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	100 (0)	100 (0)	100 (0)	100 (0)
Quality of statistics above				

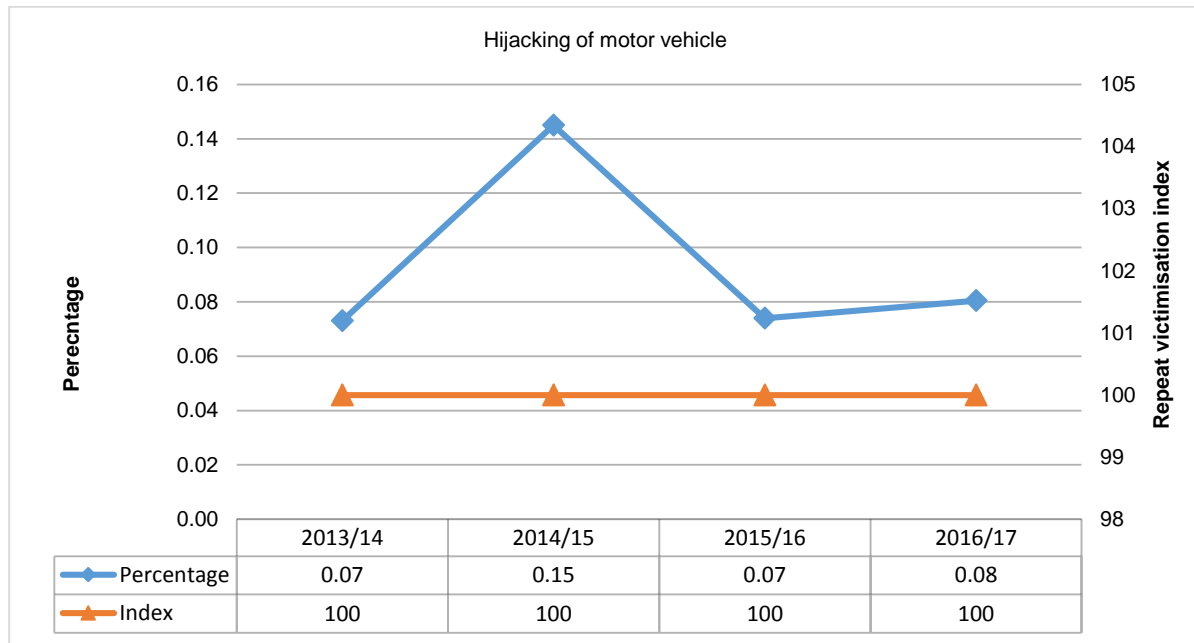
Figure 20: Percentage of individuals who experienced motor vehicle hijacking and RVI, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Figure 20 shows that the percentage of individuals who experienced hijacking has been fluctuating between 2013/14 and 2016/17. The number of hijackings per individual has essentially remained one as may be expected since hijacking could be considered as a rare event.

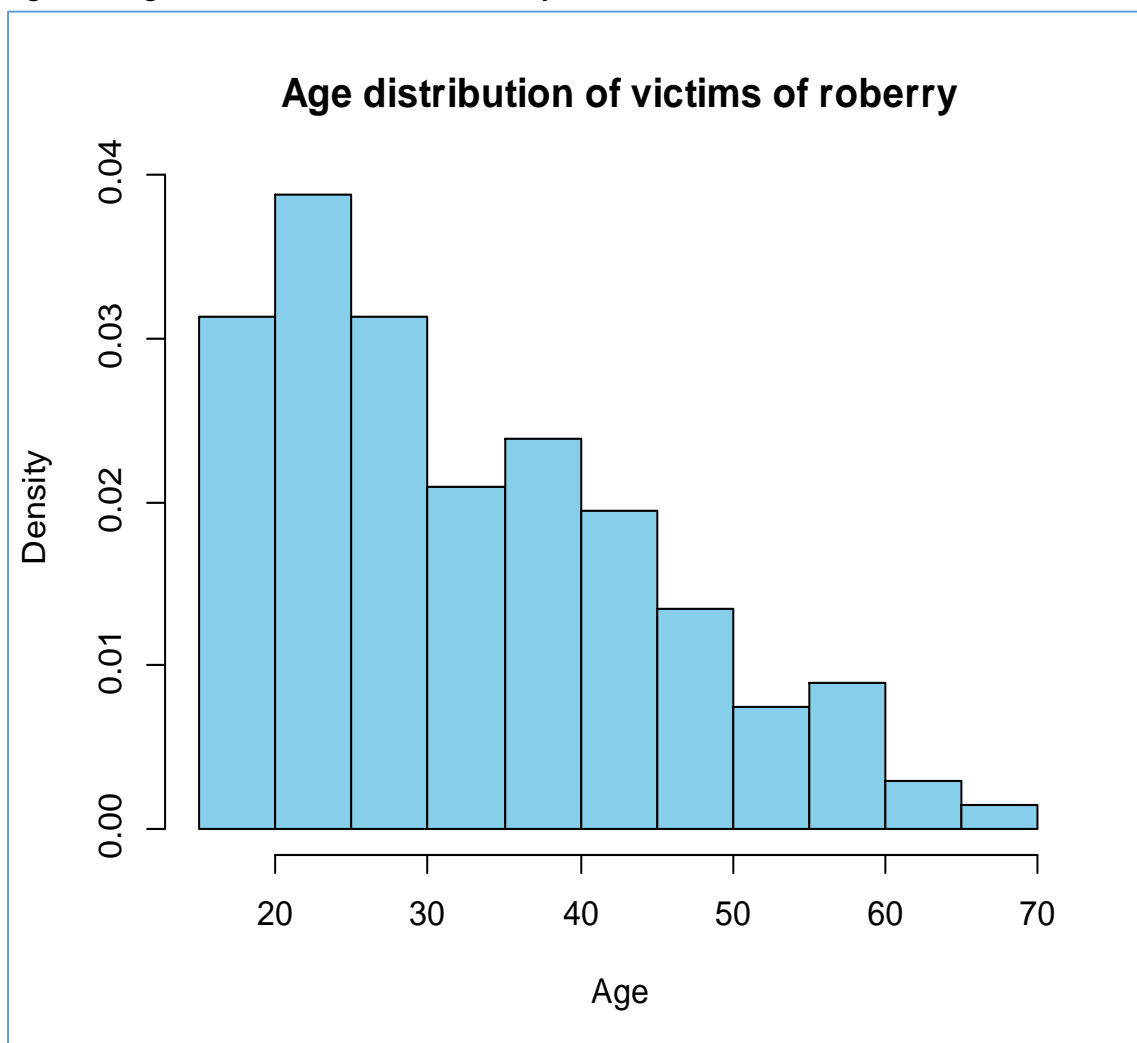
6.3 Robbery outside home

This is robbery committed against individuals outside their homes. It could happen in the street, at the work place, in a shopping mall or other places outside a person's home.

Table 39: Distribution of robbery, by gender, population group and province, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	166 574	16	0,91	16	
Female	103 036	17	0,52	17	
Population group					
Black African	184 126	12	0,62	12	
Coloured	68 928	38	2,00	37	
Indian/Asian	5 436	58	0,50	57	
White	11 119	53	0,30	52	
Province					
Western Cape	83 132	32	1,79	31	
Eastern Cape	55 570	25	1,24	25	
Northern Cape	5 256	48	0,63	48	
Free State	16 995	36	0,85	36	
KwaZulu-Natal	12 502	38	0,18	38	
North West	11 905	46	0,46	46	
Gauteng	36 471	30	0,37	30	
Mpumalanga	30 139	26	1,03	25	
Limpopo	17 640	35	0,46	35	
South Africa	269 610	13	0,71	13	

About 270 000 South African adults(or one in every 141 adults), 16 and older, were victims of robbery in 2016/17. Results in Table 39 also show that males were more affected by this crime than females. Comparison among the four population groups is not possible because only the estimate for the black African population is a quality statistic (reasonably low coefficient of variation). Robbery prevalence was lowest in KwaZulu-Natal and highest in the Western Cape.

Figure 21: Age distribution of victims of robbery, 2016/17

The distribution in Figure 21 shows that victims of robbery were younger than the victims of hijacking.

Table 40: Trends of robbery, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	373 148 (18)	348 349 (12)	283 544 (10)	294 874 (13)	
Number of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	303 205 (10)	297 683 (10)	267 613 (10)	269 610 (13)	
Percentage of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,85 (10)	0,81 (10)	0,72 (10)	0,71 (13)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	123 (12)	117 (6)	106 (2)	109 (3)	

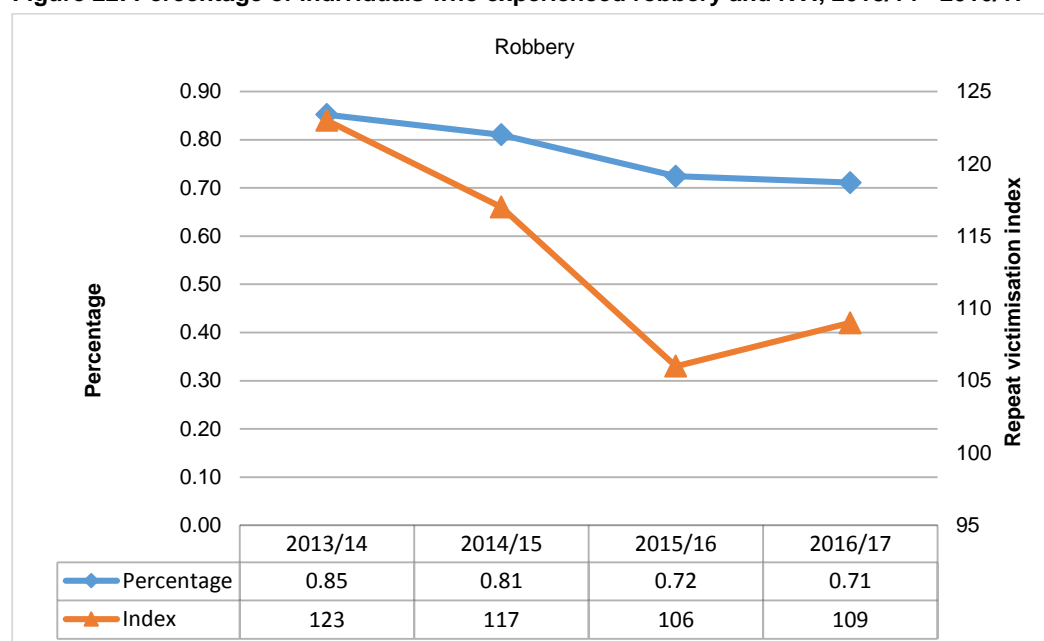
Figure 22: Percentage of individuals who experienced robbery and RVI, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Figure 22 shows that the both the percentage of individuals who were victims of robbery and the number of times an individual was victimised declined slightly between 2013/14 and 2016/17.

Table 41: Number and percentage of victims of robbery who reported to the police, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Qty	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	58 402	22		35	15	
Female	30 676	31		30	24	
South Africa	89 078	18		33	13	

Table 41 shows that in 2016/17 a total of over 89 000 or 33 per cent of victims of robbery reported to the police. The difference in reporting rates between female and male victims was not significant.

6.4 Sexual offence

Sexual offences include rape, grabbing or touching without consent. Not many respondents sampled had been victims of a sexual offence. It is also possible that some victims among the respondents did not want to share their experience due to trauma, stigma or fear associated with this type of crime. Due to the small number of victims not much disaggregation of estimates can be done.

Table 42: Distribution of sexual offences by gender, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	22 332	35	0,12	35	
Female	48 481	24	0,25	24	
South Africa	70 813	21	0,19	21	

Table 42 shows that an estimated 70 813 or one in five hundred individuals, mostly women, experienced a sexual offence in 2016/17. Sexual victimization for women was more than twice the rate for men. It

would have been useful to estimate the number and percentage of victims who reported the crime to the police, among other things, but no meaningful estimates can be obtained due to the small number of victims sampled in the survey.

Table 43: Trends of sexual offences, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17
Number of incidents (CV%)	62 074 (27)	44 464 (25)	29 473 (27)	73 842 (21)
Quality of statistics above				
Number of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	41,925 (20)	43 696 (26)	29 473 (27)	70 813 (21)
Percentage of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,12 (20)	0,12 (26)	0,08 (27)	0,19 (21)
Quality of statistics above				
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	148 (20)	102 (2)	100 (0)	104 (4)
Quality of statistics above				

Figure 23: MVI and percentage of individuals who experienced sexual offence, 2013/14 - 2016/17

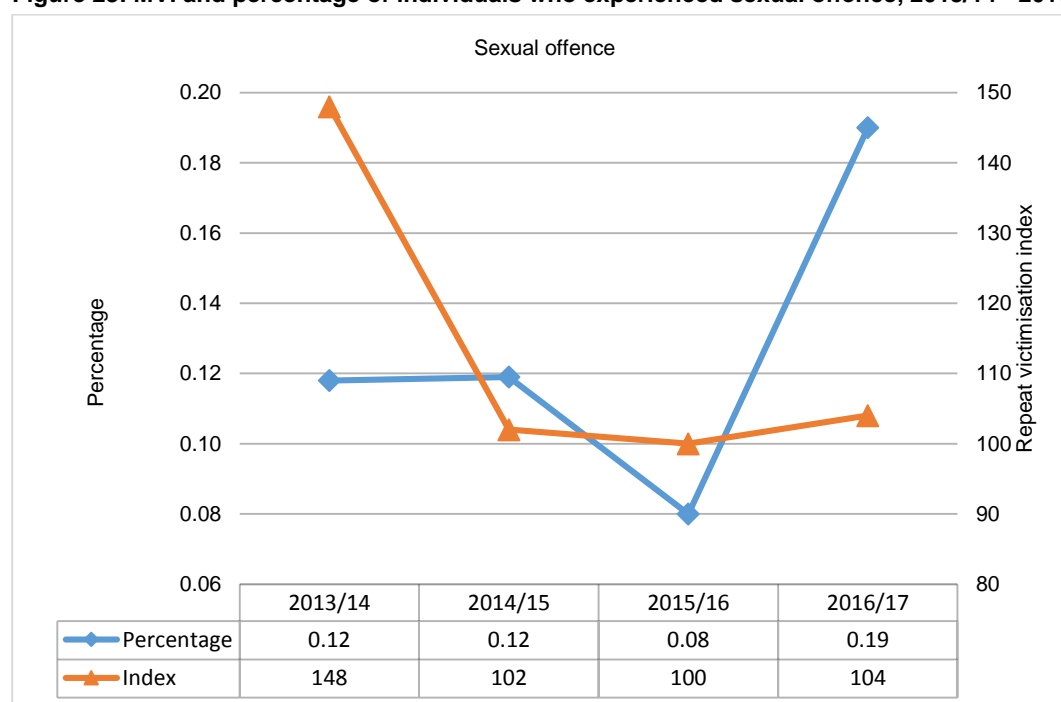


Figure 23 shows that both indicators decline between 2013/14 and 2015/16 but went up again between 2015/16 and 2016/17. Thus, crimes pertaining to sexual offences worsened in the later period.

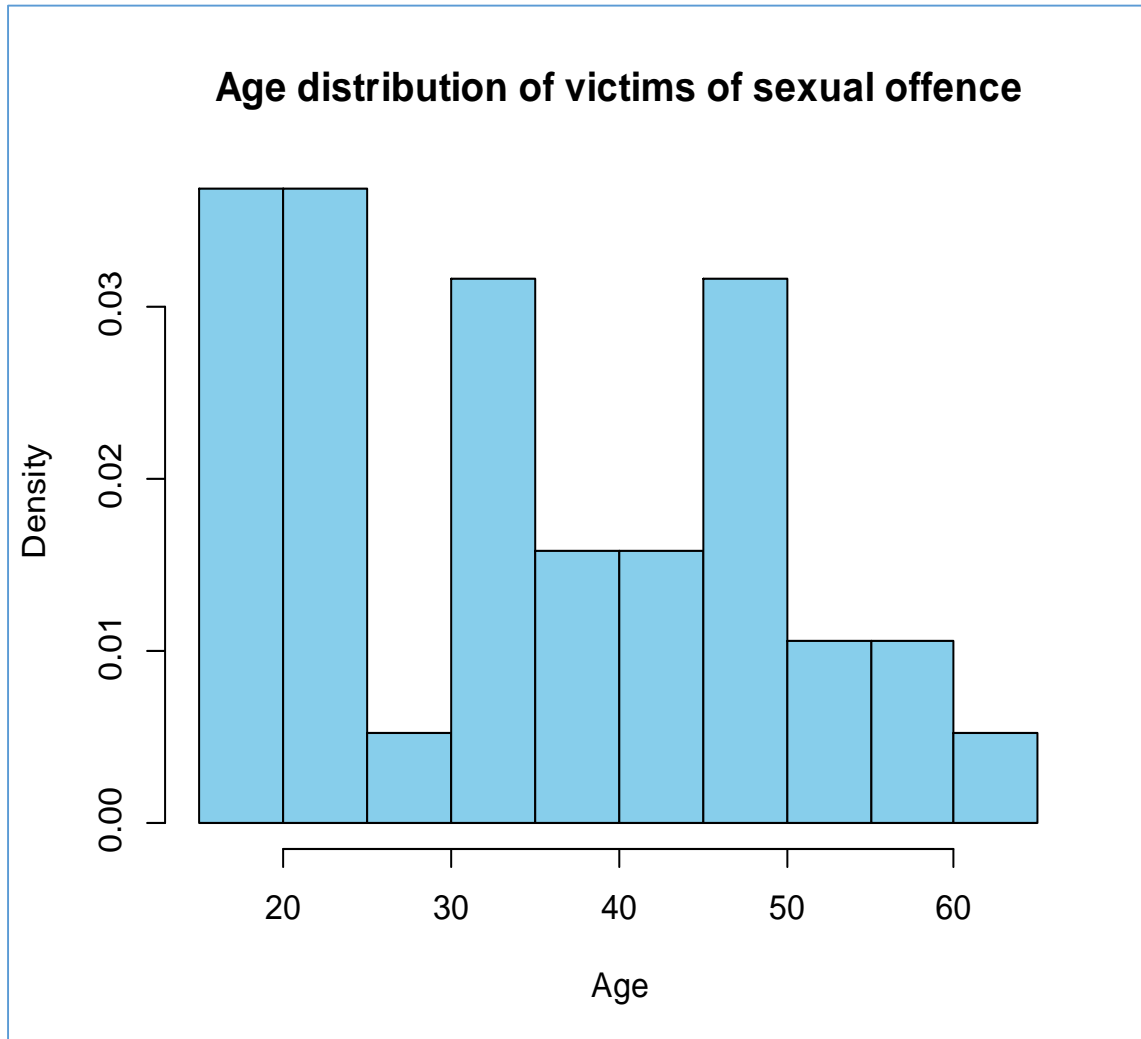
Figure 24: Age distribution of victims of sexual offences, 2016/17

Figure 24 suggests that the risk of falling victim of sexual offence was more or less evenly distributed across the age range.

6.5 Assault

Assault is defined as an attack, physical beating or threat of attack without taking anything from the victim. This includes domestic violence. Only one Indian/Asian and four white respondents said they were assaulted during the survey reference period. Again this poses a great challenge to the estimation of population parameters.

Table 44: Number and percentage of individuals who experienced assault, by gender, population group and province, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	142 601	15	0,78	15	
Female	129 368	15	0,66	15	
Population group					
Black African	233 455	11	0,78	11	
Coloured	28 087	34	0,82	33	
Indian/Asian	5 956	88	0,55	88	
White	4 471	63	0,12	63	
Province					
Western Cape	30 108	32	0,65	32	
Eastern Cape	67 992	24	1,52	24	
Northern Cape	9 216	39	1,10	38	
Free State	12 909	33	0,64	33	
KwaZulu-Natal	40 474	32	0,58	32	
North West	27 968	31	1,09	31	
Gauteng	39 783	23	0,40	23	
Mpumalanga	17 038	32	0,58	32	
Limpopo	26 483	34	0,70	34	
South Africa	271 970	11	0,71	11	

Table 44 shows that a total of about 270 000 individuals aged 16 years and above were victims of assault in 2016/17, which is equivalent to about 0,7 per cent of all adult people in the country. The difference in the victimisation rate between males and females appears not to be significant as the difference between population groups. Indeed estimates for Indians/Asians and whites cannot be used for comparison as they are of poor quality. Eastern Cape had the highest percentage of adults who were assault victims during 2016/17.

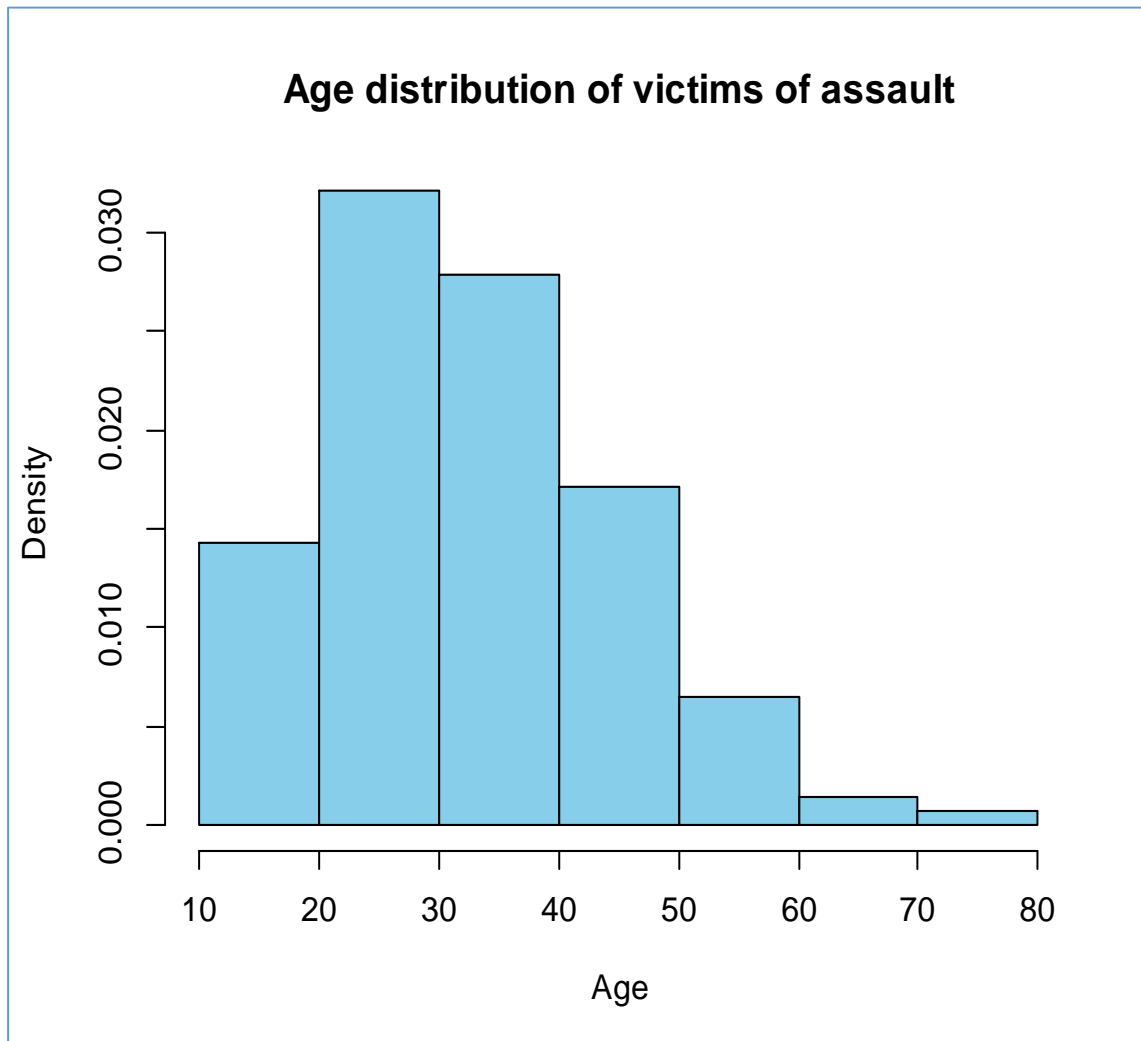
Figure 25: Age distribution of victims of assault, 2016/17

Figure 25 shows that typical victims of assault were adults in their twenties.

Table 45: Trends of assault, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	431 043 (10)	431 914 (11)	331,913 (12)	318 077 (12)	
Number of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	345 030 (9)	344 554 (9)	272 712 (9)	271 970 (11)	
Percentage of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,96 (9)	0,94 (9)	0,74 (9)	0,71 (11)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	125 (5)	125 (6)	122 (7)	117 (7)	

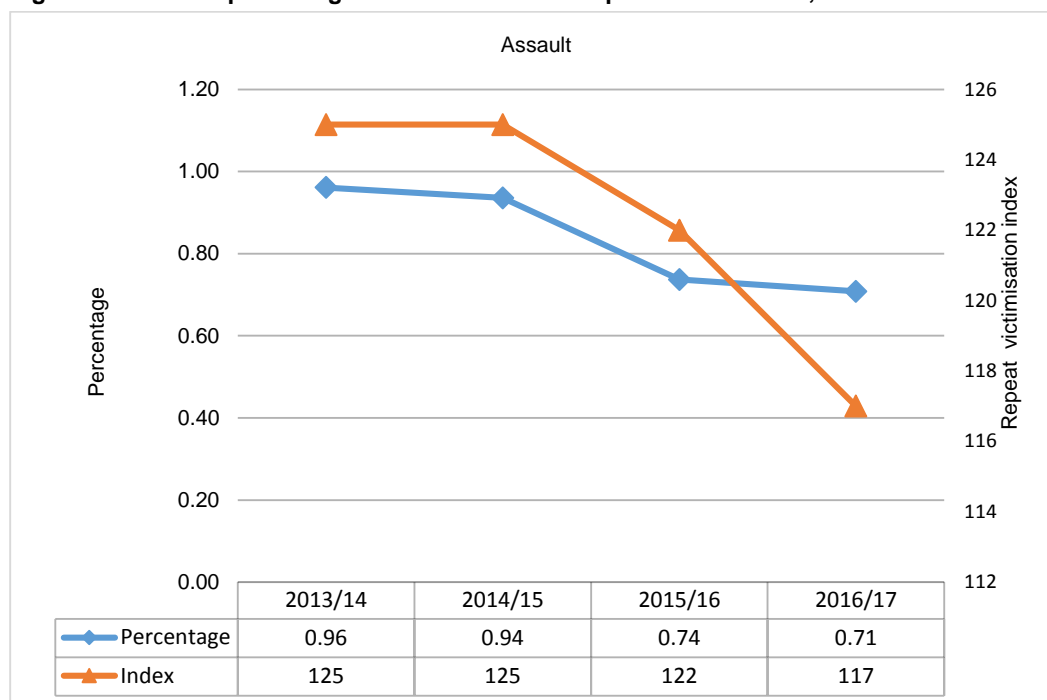
Figure 26: RVI and percentage of individuals who experienced assault, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Figure 26 shows that while the percentage of adults aged 16 and above who experienced assault has been moderately declining in the period 2013/14 to 2016/17, the series on the number of attacks per individual followed the same pattern. The RVI decreased noticeably between 2014/15..

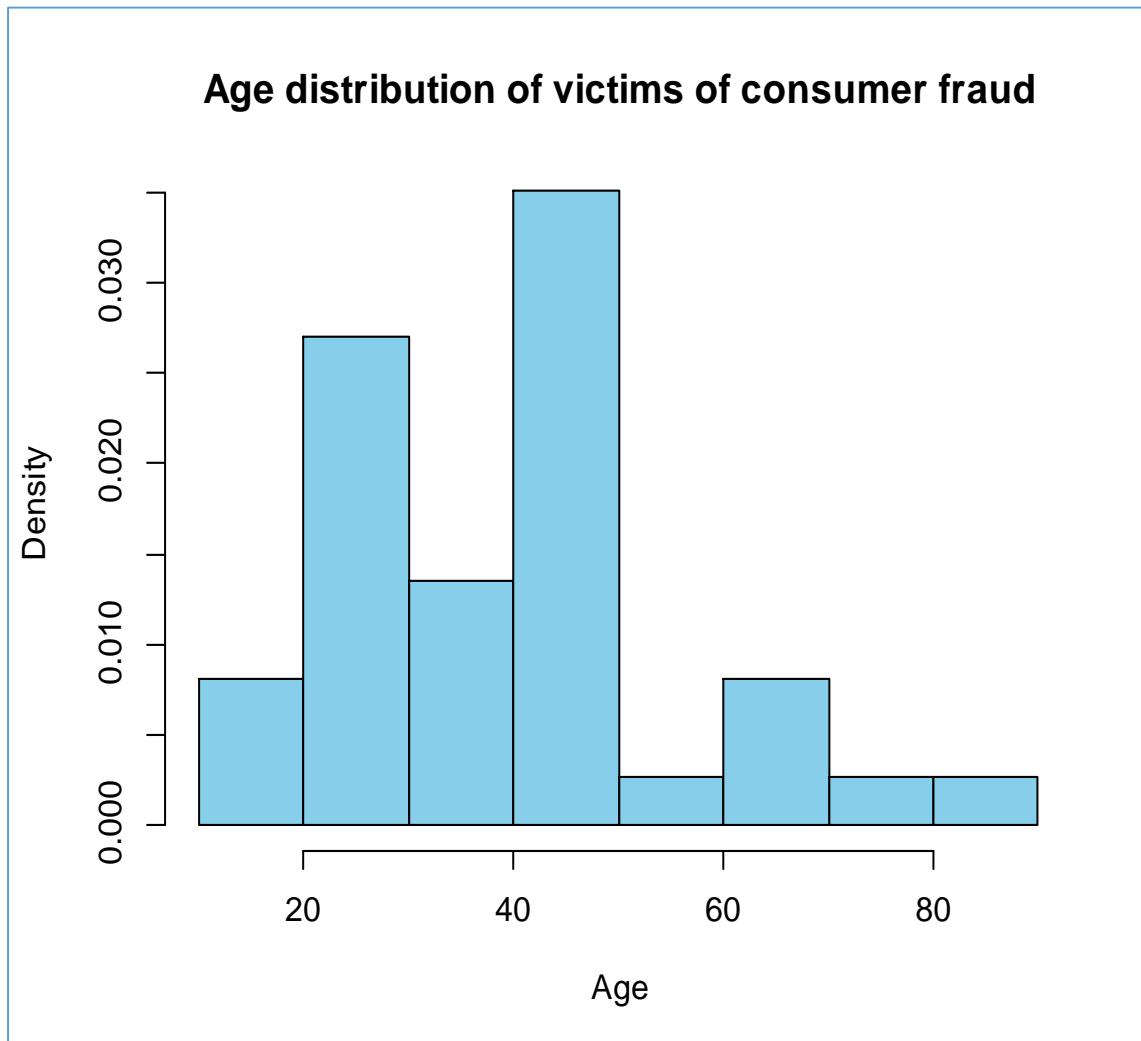
6.6 Consumer fraud

Adults aged 16 and above were also asked whether they were victims of consumer fraud during the past twelve months. Estimates were calculated for the entire population and were disaggregated according to the gender of respondents.

Table 46: Distribution of consumer fraud, by gender and population group, 2016/17

Gender	Number	CV %	Percentage	CV %	Qty
Male	37 935	32	0,21	32	
Female	42 155	26	0,21	26	
South Africa	80 089	21	0,21	21	

Over 80 000 adult consumers (or one in every 500 adults) were victims of fraud in 2016/17. The difference in the victimisation rate between males and females appears identical

Figure 27: Age distribution of victims of consumer fraud

Distribution of victims of consumer fraud according to age in Figure 27 above shows that in general fraud affected mostly individuals between 20 and 50.

Table 47: Trends of consumer fraud, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Statistic	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	Qty
Number of incidents (CV%)	86 012 (18)	90 249 (18)	160 076 (25)	85 848 (22)	
Number of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	86 012 (18)	87 664 (18)	108 799 (15)	80 089 (21)	
Percentage of individuals that experienced at least one incident (CV%)	0,24 (18)	0,24 (18)	0,30 (15)	0,21 (21)	
Repeat victimisation index (CV%)	100 (0)	103 (3)	147 (20)	107 (6)	

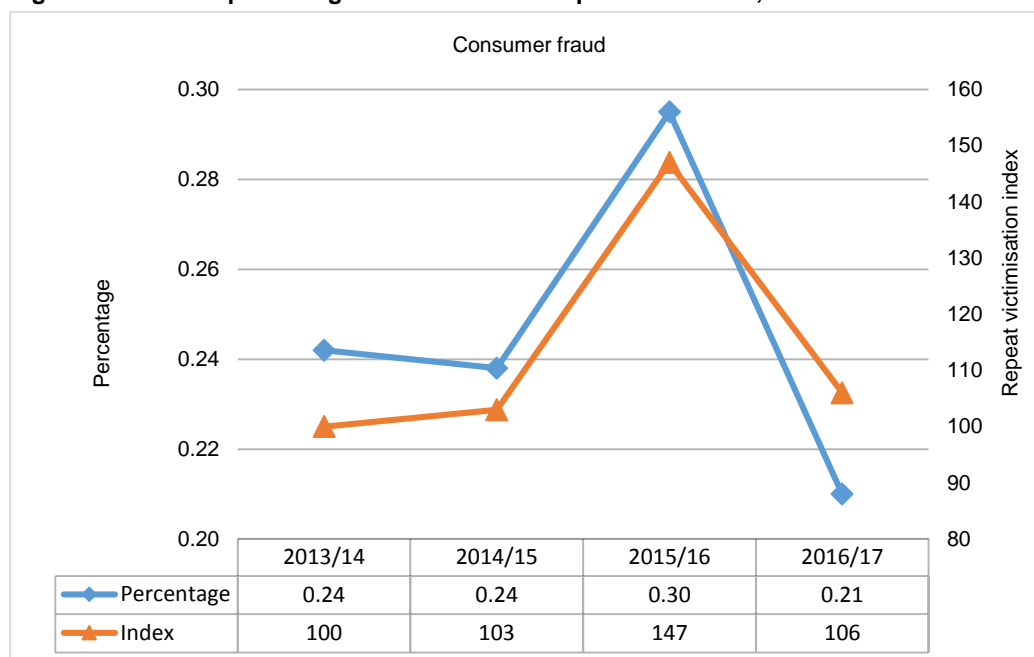
Figure 28: RVI and percentage individuals who experienced fraud, 2013/14 - 2016/17

Figure 28 shows that both the percentage of adult who were victims of fraud and the number of fraud incidents per adult consumer declined between 2015/16 and 2016/17 after an increase in the previous period.

6.7 Comparison of individual crimes experienced

Theft of personal property and assault are the only crimes on the individual that saw a decline in both the percentage of adults who experienced the crime and the Repeat Victimization Index (RVI) between 2013/14 and 2016/17. Robbery showed decreasing trends in the percentage of adults who experienced these crimes, but the RVI produced increasing trends. Both indicators for sexual offences declined between 2013/14 and 2015/16 but increased between 2015/16 and 2016/17. In the case of hijack of motor vehicle, the RVI indicator showed an unchanging trend during the four year period. In conclusion, evidence show that sexual offences should be the main areas of concern.

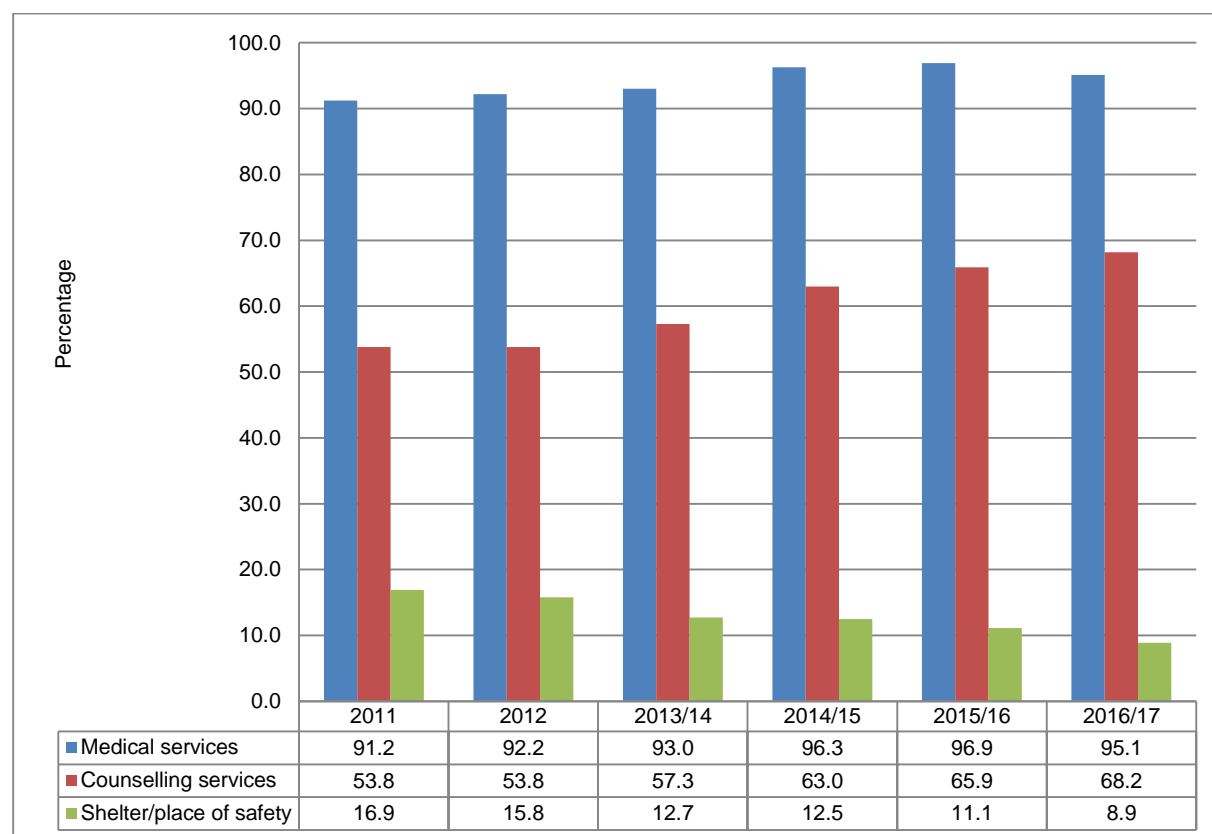
7. INDIVIDUAL AND COMMUNITY RESPONSE TO CRIME

The previous chapters provided facts about the crime situation in the country. In this chapter statistics on how individuals and communities responded to crime will be presented and discussed. The chapter will focus on three key areas; (1) the extent of community awareness of support services for victims of crime (2) Measures taken by households to protect themselves against crime; and (3) the extent of community cohesion. In general every response category of questions relevant to this section enjoys a large number of responses to the extent that the standard errors (and CVs) are very small. The CVs will therefore be reported only in cases where some estimates are doubtful.

7.1 Victim support and other interventions

Figure 29 is a graphical representation of the households' knowledge of victim support services/institutions in their area of residence, from 2011 to 2016/17.

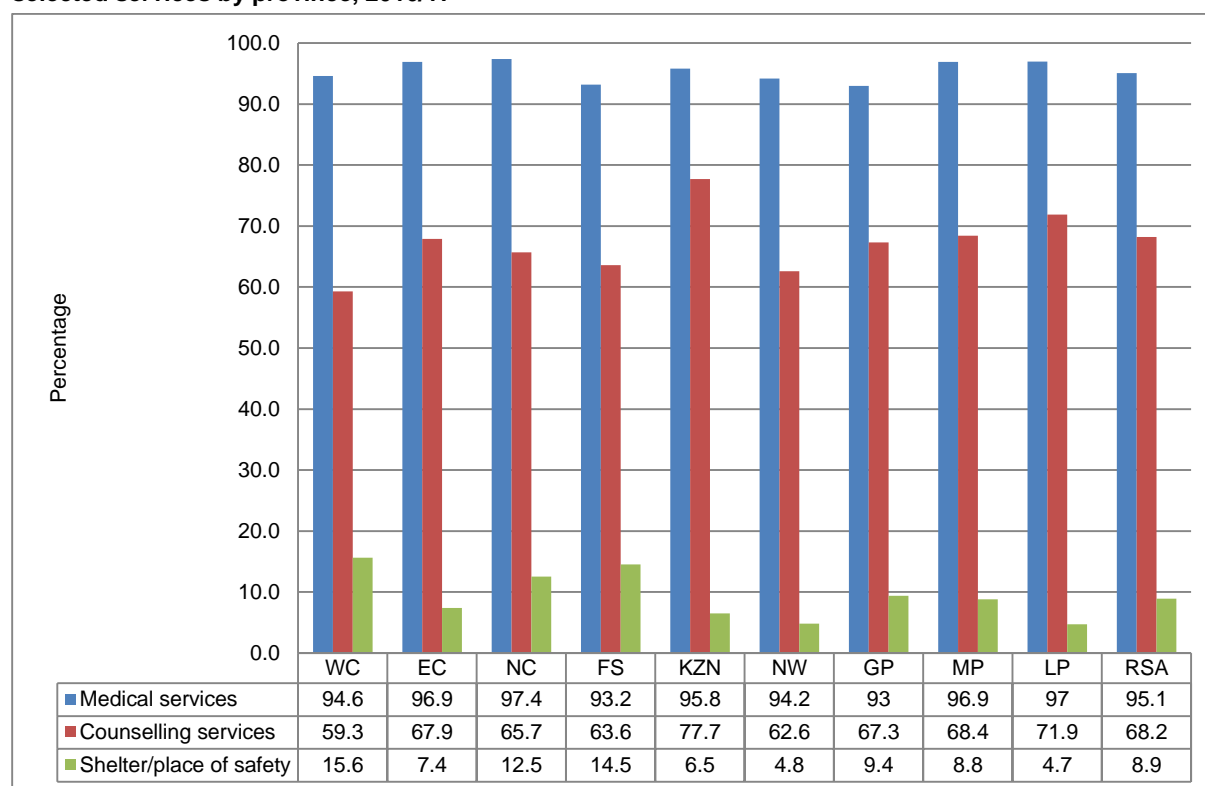
Figure 29: Percentage distribution of households who knew where to take a victim crime to access selected services 2011- 2016/17



The chart shows that the majority of households knew where to take victims of crime to access medical services, as compared to counselling services and places of shelter. There is a clear increasing trend in the percentage of households who knew where to take victims for counselling services. Also evident is the downward trend among households who knew the location of shelters or places of safety where they could take victims of domestic violence.

A provincial distribution of the percentage of households who knew where to take a victim of crime to access selected services is depicted in Figure 30.

Figure 30: Percentage distribution of households who knew where to take victims of crime to access selected services by province, 2016/17



The same pattern is repeated in all nine provinces where knowledge about medical services for victims of crime ranks highest (over 90%) followed by counselling services (over 68%) while knowledge about the location of shelters or places of safety for victims of crime ranked lowest (8,9%). Residents of KwaZulu-Natal (77,7%), Limpopo (71,9%) and Mpumalanga (68,9%) were the most knowledgeable of the location of counselling services for victims. Nationally a much lower percentage of households in the country responded that they knew of a shelter or place of safety where they could take a victim of crime (8,9%); residents of Western Cape (15,6%) and Free State (14,5%) had the highest awareness of the locations of shelters or places of safety.

Table 48: Number and percentage of households who knew where to take a victim of crime to access medical services by type of institution and province, 2016/17

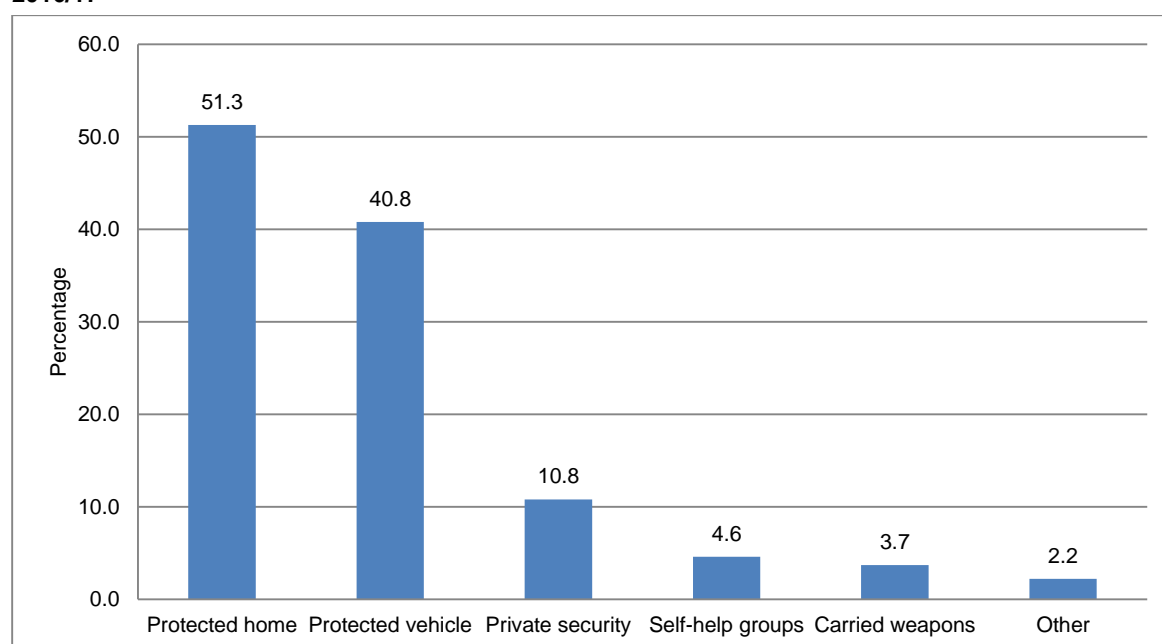
Institution	Statistics	Province									
		WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
Police	Number '000	442	472	109	291	927	138	1 078	345	116	3 917
	Per cent	42,1	42,2	43,3	50,5	44,7	22,6	35,1	41,8	10,6	36,8
Hospital or trauma unit	Number '000	902	1001	205	473	1 579	443	2 524	587	815	8527
	Per cent	86,0	89,4	82,0	82,0	76,2	72,6	82,3	71,0	75,0	80,0
Local clinic	Number '000	428	723	121	366	1 684	490	2 311	480	974	7 579
	Per cent	40,8	64,6	48,4	63,4	81,3	80,5	75,4	58,0	89,8	71,1
Private doctor	Number '000	184	464	61	192	718	207	1 294	161	469	3 750
	Per cent	17,6	41,5	29,4	33,4	34,7	33,9	42,2	19,4	43,3	35,2
NGO/volunteer group	Number '000	91	128	167	43	119	25	250	65	113	853
	Per cent	8,8	11,5	6,6	7,6	5,7	4,2	8,2	8,0	10,4	8,0
Victim Empowerment/ Thuthuzela Centres	Number '000	22	14	1	16	78	9	71	17	44	275
	Per cent	2,1	1,3	0,4	2,9	3,8	1,6	2,3	2,0	4,0	2,6
Religious/Traditional group/leader	Number '000	13	85	4	55	15	37	234	26	181	794
	Per cent	1,3	7,6	1,6	9,7	7,5	6,0	7,6	3,2	16,8	7,5
Courts	Number '000	5	159	19	89	226	7	226	44	39	811
	Per cent	0,4	14,3	7,4	15,4	10,9	1,1	7,3	5,4	3,5	7,6
Other	Number '000	6	3	3	42	3	*	15	43	*	118
	Per cent	0,7	0,2	1,1	7,4	0,2	0,1	0,5	5,3	0,1	1,1

Table 48 presents the number and percentage of households who knew where to take a victim of crime to access medical services by type of institution and province. Approximately seven in every ten households responded that they could take victims to a hospital or trauma unit, or a local clinic, respectively.

7.2 Protection measures taken by victims

Figure 31 shows the distribution of households who took measures to protect themselves from crime in 2015/16.

Figure 31: Percentage distribution of households who took measures to protect themselves from crime, 2016/17



Most households in the country took physical protection measures for their homes (51,3%), followed by protecting their vehicles (40,8%) and using private security (10,8%).

Table 49: Percentage distribution of households who took measures to protect themselves from crime, by province 2016/17

Protective measure	Statistics	Province									
		WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
Protected home	Number '000	1 167	726	170	476	1 122	417	3 044	606	493	8 222
	Per cent	63,9	42,2	42,5	51,5	41,5	41,4	65,5	48,8	31,9	51,3
Protected vehicle	Number '000	611	243	77	145	426	167	1 498	234	159	3 561
	Per cent	58,4	34,3	34,7	20,7	25,9	45,5	50,2	44,6	29,9	40,8
Carried weapons	Number '000	92	49	21	39	49	38	229	50	20	587
	Per cent	5,0	2,9	5,2	4,3	1,8	3,8	4,9	4,0	1,3	3,7
Private security	Number '000	311	94	13	52	204	47	861	93	48	1 722
	Per cent	17,1	5,4	3,2	5,7	7,6	4,6	18,5	7,5	3,1	10,8
Self-help groups	Number '000	70	86	7	24	25	16	390	42	73	733
	Per cent	3,8	5,0	1,7	2,6	0,9	1,6	8,4	3,4	4,7	4,6
Other	Number '000	46	61	45	32	44	3	66	41	12	351
	Per cent	2,6	3,6	11,2	3,4	1,7	0,3	1,4	3,3	0,8	2,2

Table 49 shows the provincial distribution of households who took measures to protect themselves from crime. Among households who reported having taken measures to protect their home, the majority were in Gauteng (65,5%), followed by Western Cape (63,9%). The table shows that, in general, a higher percentage of households in Gauteng and Western Cape, compared to other provinces, took protective measures.

7.3 Community interaction

This section measures the level of interaction among community members. This measure is used as a proxy for the level of community cohesion. The survey asked household heads, answering on behalf of their households, if they knew the name of their next-door neighbour. About 5,5% of households indicated that they did not know the name of their next-door neighbour.

Table 50: Percentage distribution of households' knowledge of their neighbours' name by their trust in neighbours, 2016/17

Knowledge of neighbour's name	Trust in neighbour		Total
	Do not trust neighbour	Trust neighbour	
Do not know neighbour's name	84,3	15,7	100,0
Know neighbour's name	16,2	83,8	100,0
Total	20,0	80,0	100,0

Table 50 below shows that among households that knew the name of their neighbour, the majority (84%) trust them. The table also shows that there is high level of mistrust if the neighbours do not know each other's names. Among households that did not know their neighbour's name, 84% did not trust their neighbours, while 16% had trust in their neighbours.

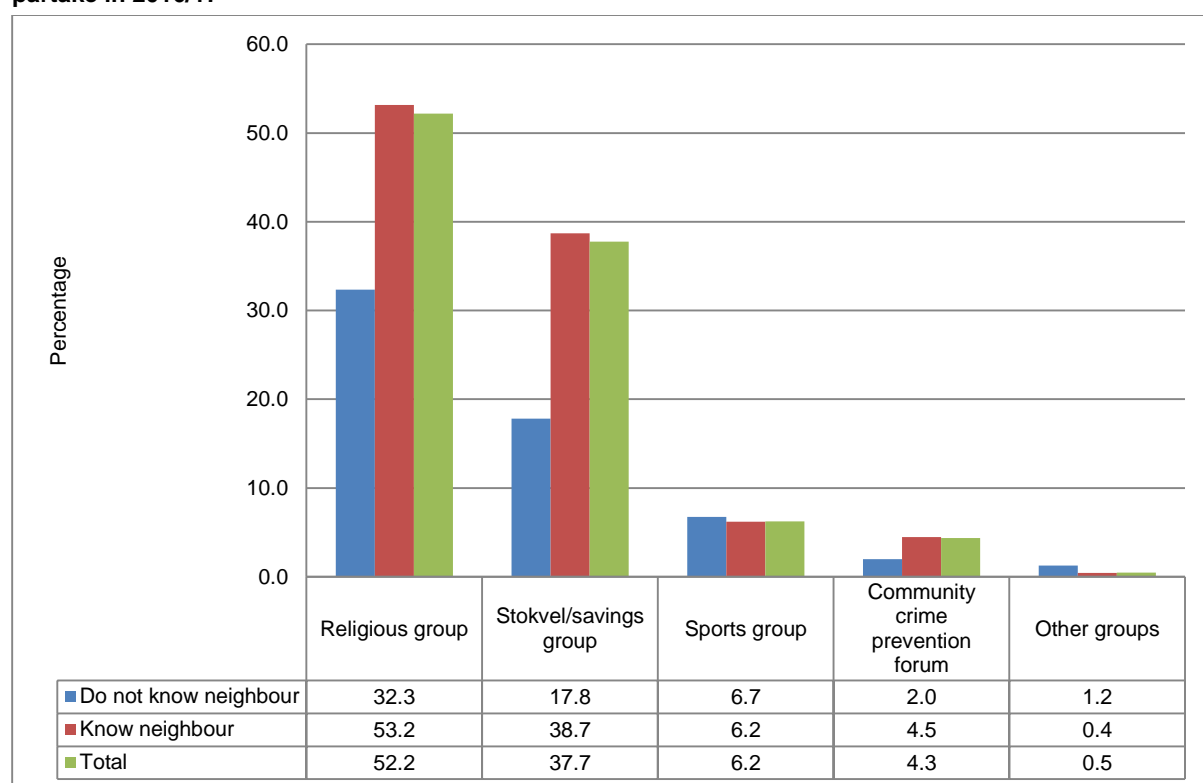
Table 51: Percentage distribution of households' knowledge of their neighbours' name by whether they would let them watch their children, 2016/17

Knowledge of neighbour's name	Watch over children		Total
	Would not let neighbour watch children	Would let neighbour watch children	
Do not know neighbour's name	82,8	17,2	100,0
Know neighbour's name	9,3	90,7	100,0
Total	13,3	86,7	100,0

The general trends observed in Table 51 are also observed in Table 50. Among households that knew the name of their neighbour, the majority (91%) would let them take care of their children. Households that did not know their neighbour's name, 83% did not trust their neighbours enough to let them take care of their children.

The respondents were also asked if their households participated in any community-based activities. Figure 32 on the next page depicts the percentage distribution of these community-based initiatives.

Figure 32: Percentage distribution of households' knowledge of their neighbours name by activities that partake in 2016/17



The findings of the survey suggest that households who know their neighbours are more likely to belong to religious groups and stokvels/savings groups than those who do not.

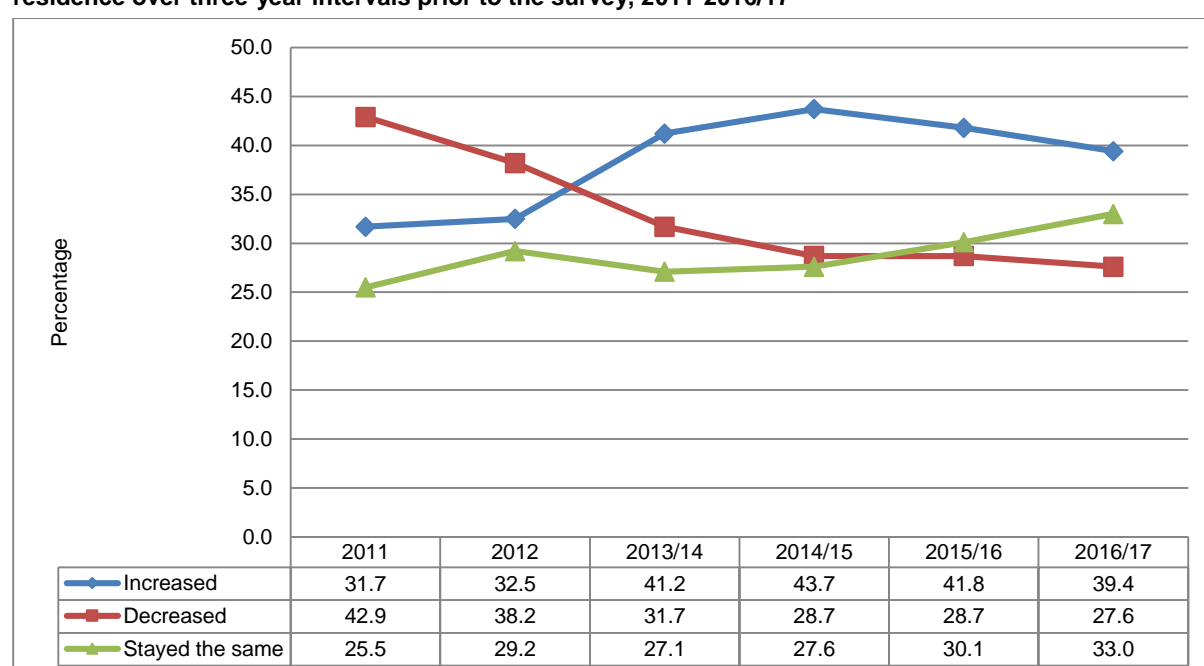
8. ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME

8.1 Perceptions on crime trends

This section addresses the extent to which people in South Africa feel safe as outlined in the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) for the period 2014–2019. Households were asked about their perceptions of how the levels of violent crime have changed in the three years prior to the survey.

Households' perceptions about change in violent crime levels between 2011 and 2016/17 are depicted in Figure 33 below.

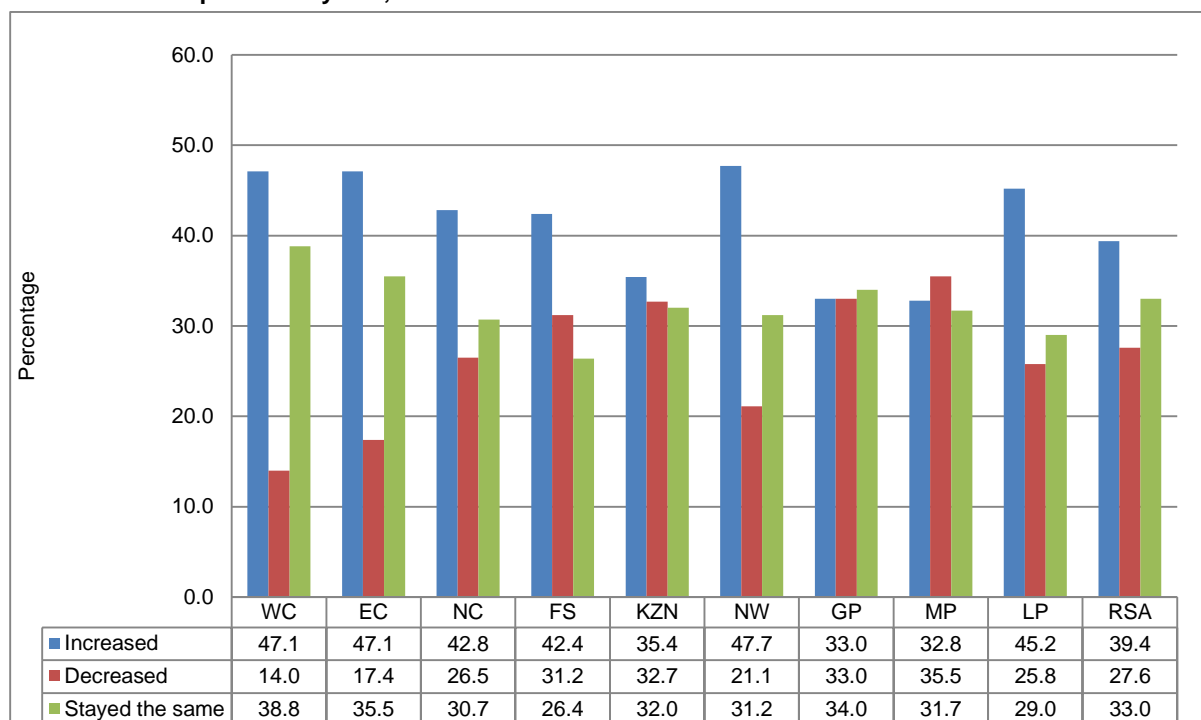
Figure 33: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of violent crime levels in their areas of residence over three-year intervals prior to the survey, 2011-2016/17



There is a clear downward trend between 2011 and 2015 in the numbers of those who believe that crime had decreased over the last three years. However in 2016/17 the proportion of households who were of the view that violent crime in their area had increased in the last three years, decreased between 2015/16 and 2016/17 following a period of upward trend from 2011 to 2014/15. This is a sign of an emerging positive public perception of the violent crime situation. The number of those who feel that the level of violent crime has not changed was also on the rise.

Figure 34 depicts the provincial distribution of households' perceptions of the levels of violent crime in their areas of residence in 2016/17.

Figure 34: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of violent crime levels in their areas of residence in the past three years, 2016/17



According to Figure 34, North West had the highest proportion of households who said that crime increased (47,7%), followed by Western Cape and Eastern Cape (both at 47,1%). The proportions of households that thought crime had decreased were higher in Mpumalanga (35,5%), followed by Gauteng (33,0%).

Households' perceptions about property crime levels between 2011 and 2016/17 are shown in Figure 35 below.

Figure 35: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of property crime levels in their areas of residence over three-year intervals prior to the survey, 2011-2016/17

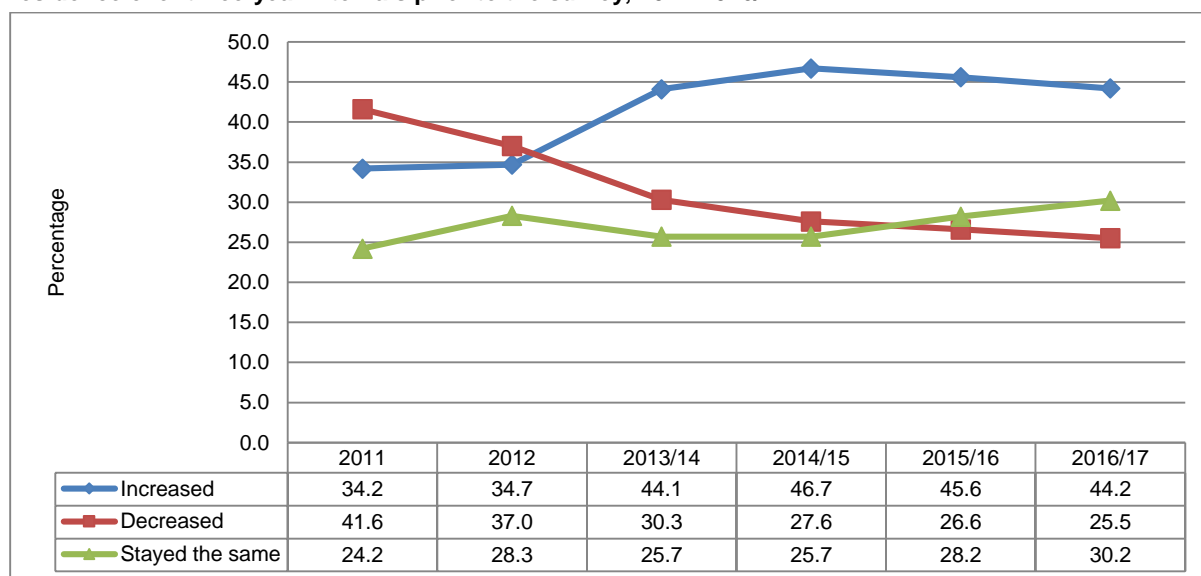


Figure 35 projects the same trends of perceptions on property crime as those for violent crime i.e. there has been a general decline over time in the percentage of households who feel that property crime has decreased. This was accompanied by an increase until 2015 in the number of those who thought that crime was increasing, followed by a slight decrease towards 2016/17.

Figure 36: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of property crime levels in their areas of residence in the past three years, 2016/17

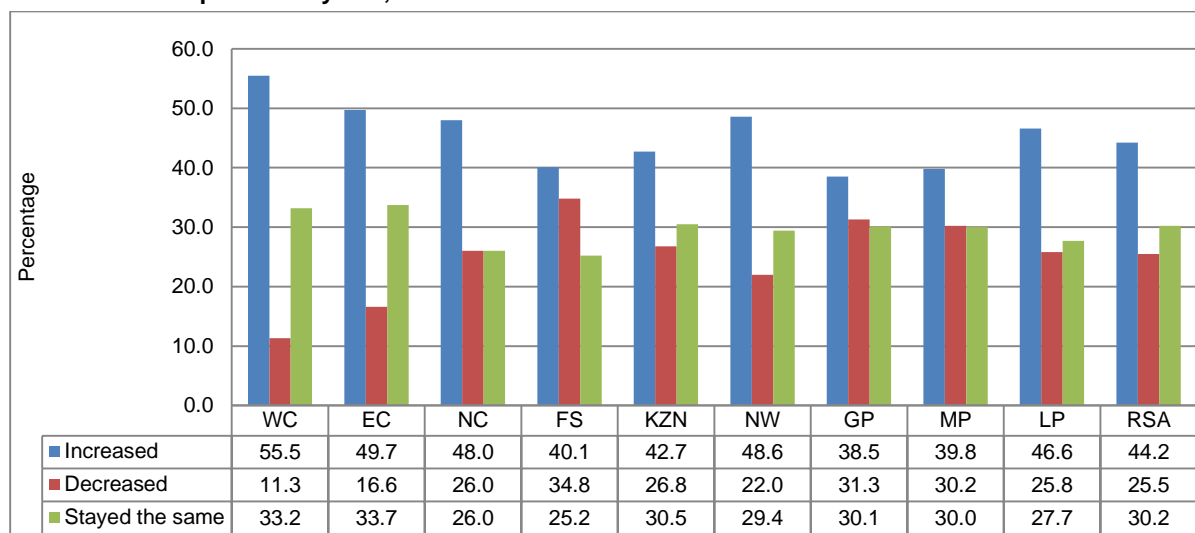
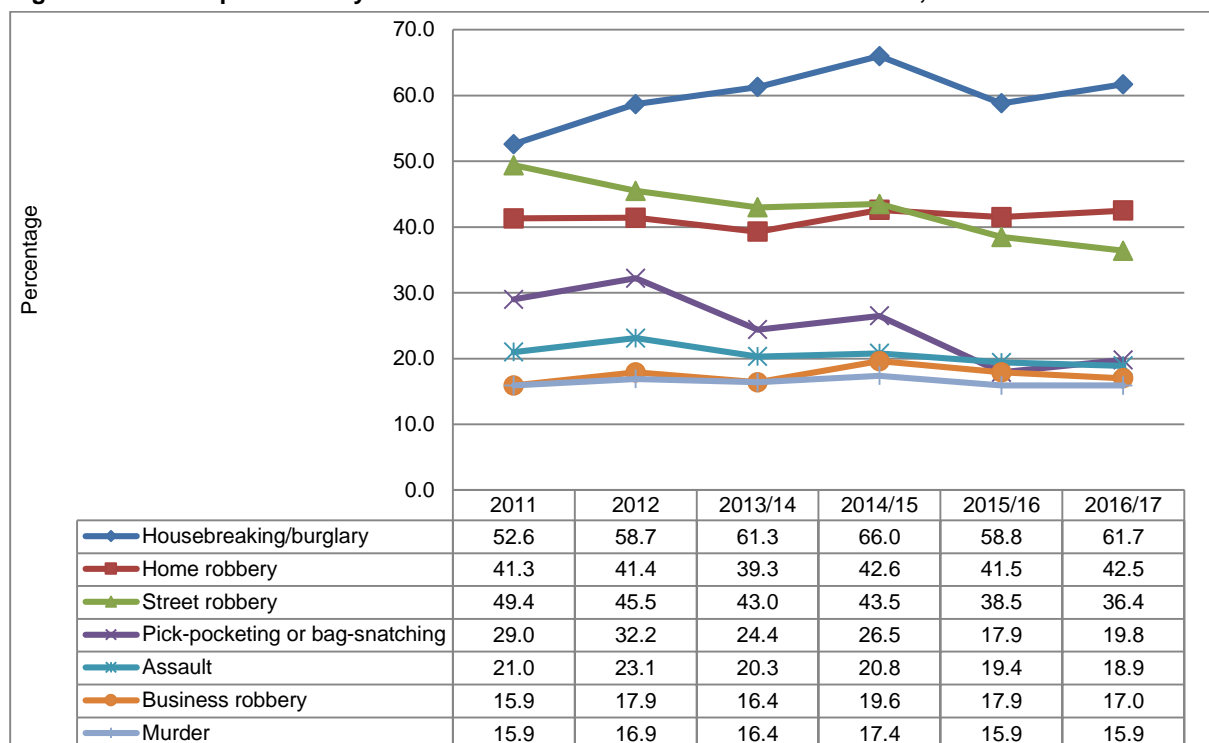


Figure 36 shows the provincial distribution of households' perceptions of the levels of property crime in their areas of residence for the period 2011–2016/17. About 44,2% of households in South Africa indicated that property crime increased, while 25,5% of the households indicated that they thought that it decreased. Western Cape (55,5%) had the highest proportion of households who said that property crime increased, followed by Eastern Cape (49,7%). The proportion of households that thought crime had decreased were higher in Free State (34,8%) and Gauteng (31,3%) as compared to other provinces.

Figure 37: Crimes perceived by households to be most common in South Africa, 2011 - 2016/17

A time series analysis of crime types perceived to be the most common by households in their area of residence between 2011 and 2016/17 is shown in Figure 37. The majority of households perceived housebreaking/burglary as the most common crime type followed by robbery. The percentage of households that thought that housebreaking was the most common crime steadily increased from 52,6% in 2011 to 61,7% in 2016/17.

Table 52: Crimes perceived by households to be the most common and feared in South Africa, 2016/17

Crime type	Crime perceived to be most common		Crime feared most	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Housebreaking/burglary	9 910	61,7	8 168	50,9
Robbery outside home	6 822	42,5	6 676	41,6
Home robbery	5 846	36,4	7 206	44,9
Pick-pocketing or bag-snatching	3 162	19,8	3 105	19,3
Assault	3 038	18,9	3 384	21,1
Business robbery	2 723	17,0	2 438	15,2
Murder	2 561	15,9	5 728	35,7
Sexual assault	1 972	12,3	3 981	24,8
Drug trafficking	1 933	12,0	1 986	12,4
Car theft or any type of vehicle	1 624	10,2	2 044	12,8
Livestock/poultry theft	1 616	10,1	1 585	9,9
Vehicle hijacking	1 607	10,0	2 251	14,0
Mob justice/vigilante group	949	5,9	1 568	9,8
Political violence	894	5,6	1 463	9,2
Child abuse	708	4,4	1 704	10,6
Crop theft	659	4,1	1 274	7,9
Other crimes	583	3,6	350	2,2
Bicycle theft	573	3,6	1 110	6,9
Hate crime	472	2,9	1 165	7,3
Deliberate damage to dwelling	381	2,4	1 133	7,1
Trafficking in persons	352	2,2	1 209	7,5
White-collar crime	348	2,2	1 078	6,7
Identity document theft	228	1,4	1 102	6,9

Table 52 shows crimes that were perceived to be the most common and those that were feared most by households. About 61,7% households perceived the most common crime to be housebreaking/burglary, followed by robbery outside home (42,5%) and home robbery (36,5%). Housebreaking/burglary (50.9%) and home robbery (44,9%) were perceived to be the most feared crimes followed by robbery outside home (41,6%). It appears as if the fear of crime is driven by experience rather than the severity of the crime. Housebreaking/burglary and home robbery being perceived as the most common crimes are also the most feared, even more than the severe crimes of murder and assault.

8.2 Feelings of safety

Figure 38: Comparison of feeling of safety when walking alone in their areas of residence during the day and when it is dark, 2016/17

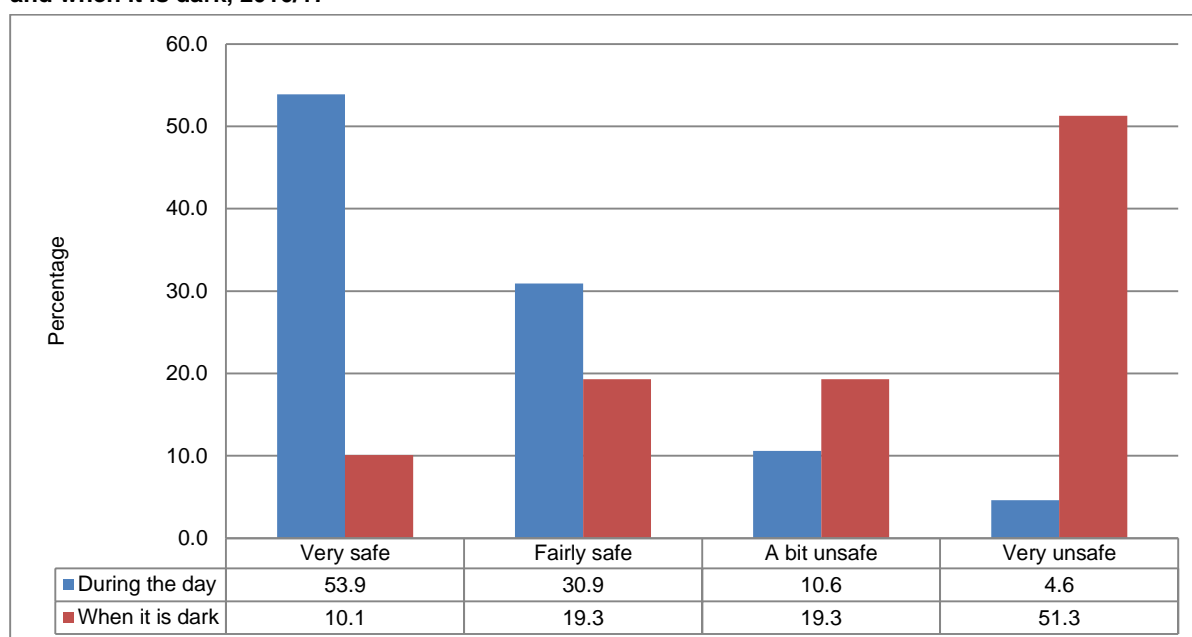
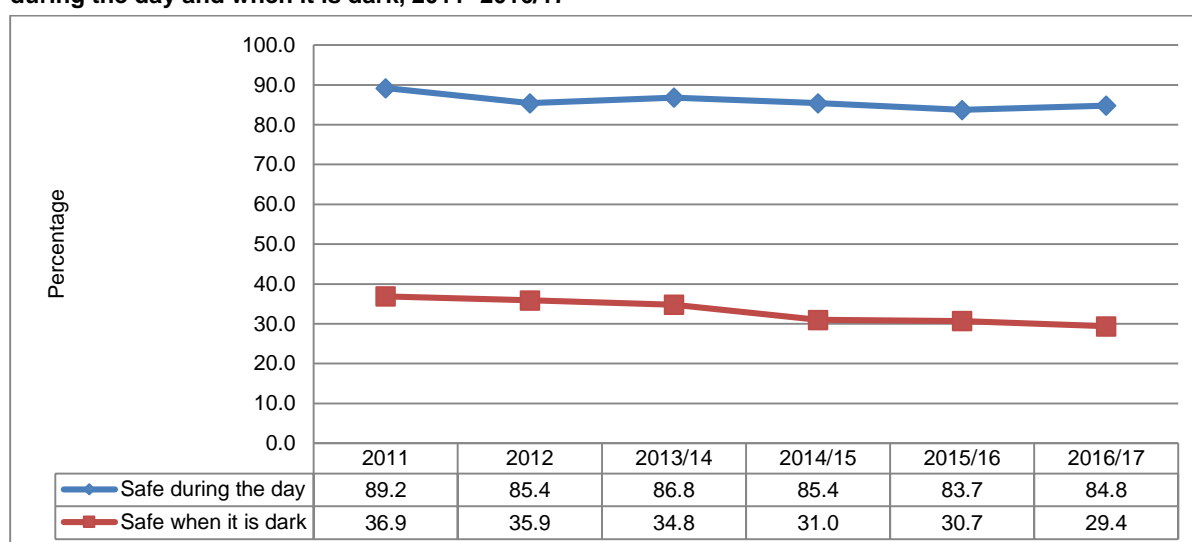


Figure 38 shows the percentage distribution of households' feelings of safety when walking alone in their areas of residence during the day and when it is dark. About 84,8% of households felt safe in their area during the day (53,9% felt very safe and 30,9% fairly safe), while 15,2% felt unsafe when it is dark (10,6% felt a bit unsafe and 4,6% very unsafe).

Figure 39: Percentage distribution of households who felt safe walking alone in their areas of residence during the day and when it is dark, 2011- 2016/17



The percentage of households who felt safe walking alone in their areas of residence during the day and when it is dark from 2011 to 2016/17 is shown in Figure 39. The graphs show that during the last five years people in South Africa consistently felt a lot safer walking in their neighbourhoods during the

day than when it is dark. There is also evidence of a steadily declining trend for both series indicating that the feeling of safety walking alone has been declining.

Table 53: Percentage distribution of households who were prevented from engaging in daily activities, as a result of crime in their area, 2016/17

Activity	Households prevented from engaging in daily activities	
	Number in thousands	Per cent
Going to open spaces	4 820	31,5
Allowing children to play in area	2 458	19,9
Walk to town	2 026	15,0
Dressing in any way	1 802	11,3
Walk to shops	1 770	11,3
Public transport	1 747	11,5
Allowing children to walk to school	1 668	13,9
Starting a home business	1 623	12,1
Expressing sexual orientation	1 489	9,3
Keeping livestock	846	11,1
Walking to fetch water	549	6,0

Table 53 summarises the distribution of households who were prevented from engaging in daily activities. The VOCS 2016/17 data shows that, due to the fear of crime, the majority of households were prevented from going to open spaces (31,5%), allowing children to play in their area (19,9%) and walking to town (15,0%). About 13,9% of households that have children were prevented from allowing their children to walk to school due to the fear of crime.

Figure 40: Percentage distribution of households' perception on the most likely perpetrators of property crime, 2011- 2016/17

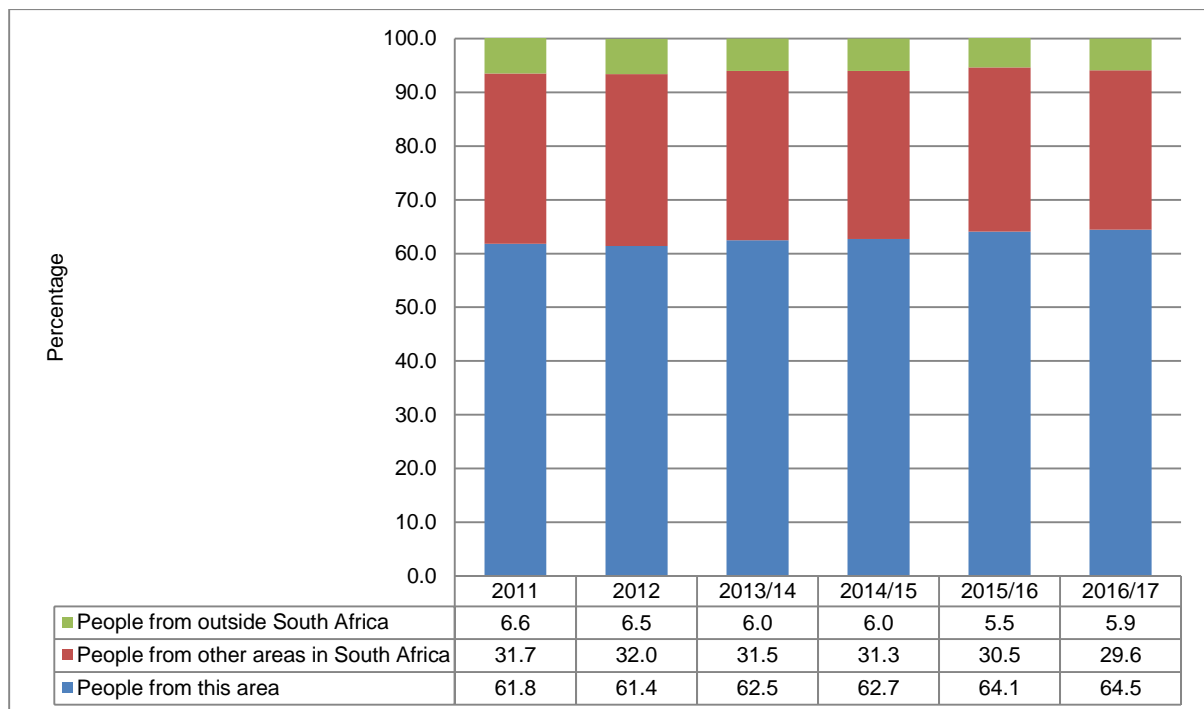


Figure 40 and Figure 41 depict the distribution of perceptions on who were likely perpetrators of property and violent crime, respectively. From 2011 to 2016/17, the general perception was that perpetrators of property crime are people from around the neighbourhood. In 2016/17, the majority of households (65%) thought that perpetrators of property crime are people from around the neighbourhood.

Figure 41: Percentage distribution of households' perception on the most likely perpetrators of violent crime, 2011- 2016/17

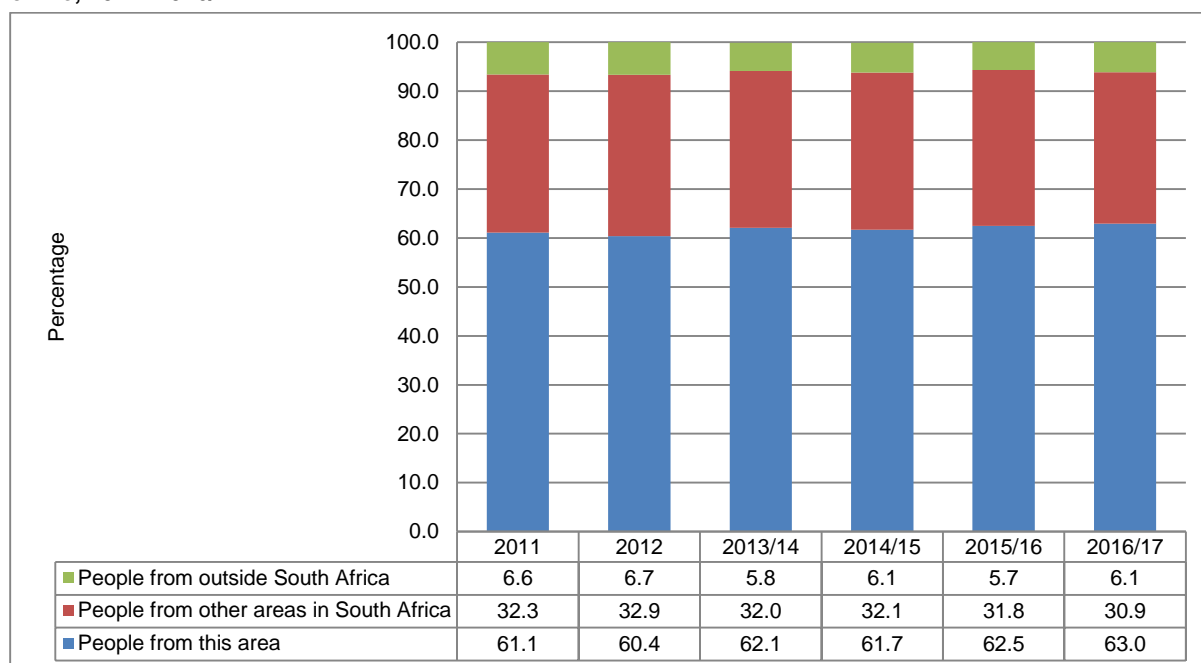
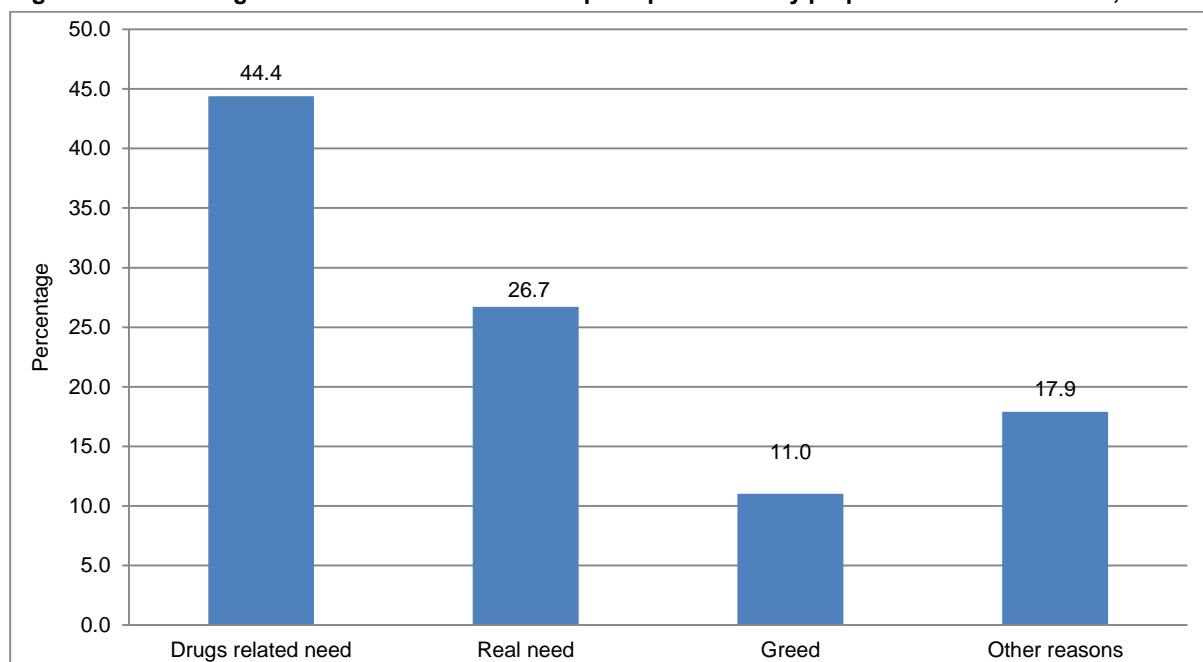


Figure 41 shows a time series of the distribution of households' perceptions about who they thought were likely to commit violent crimes. From 2011 to 2016/17, more than six in every ten households were of the view that violent crime was perpetrated by people from their residential areas. More than three in every ten households thought that violent crime was committed by people from other areas in South Africa.

8.3 Beliefs about reasons for committing crime

In the VOCS 2016/17 questionnaire, respondents were asked what they thought could be the motive for perpetrators committing crime. This question was asked differently in 2016/17 as compared to the previous years. Users are advised to use caution when these responses across the series.

Figure 42: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of why perpetrators commit crime, 2016/17

In 2016/17, the majority of households in South Africa thought that the need for drugs (44%) was the main reason perpetrators committed crime. More than a quarter (27%) felt that they did so because of a real need. About 11% of households were of the view that the perpetrators of crime commit crime because they are greedy. About 18% of households attribute the motives for committing crime to other motives which include: jealousy, hatred, ritual killings and a lack of parental influence over children.

8.4 Attitudes towards police

A descriptive analysis of the average length of time it takes households to reach their nearest police station and for the police to respond to emergency calls, police visibility, as well as household levels of satisfaction with police services, by selected demographic variables produced the following results.

Figure 43: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of the average time it takes to reach the nearest police station using their usual mode of transport, 2011 – 2015/16

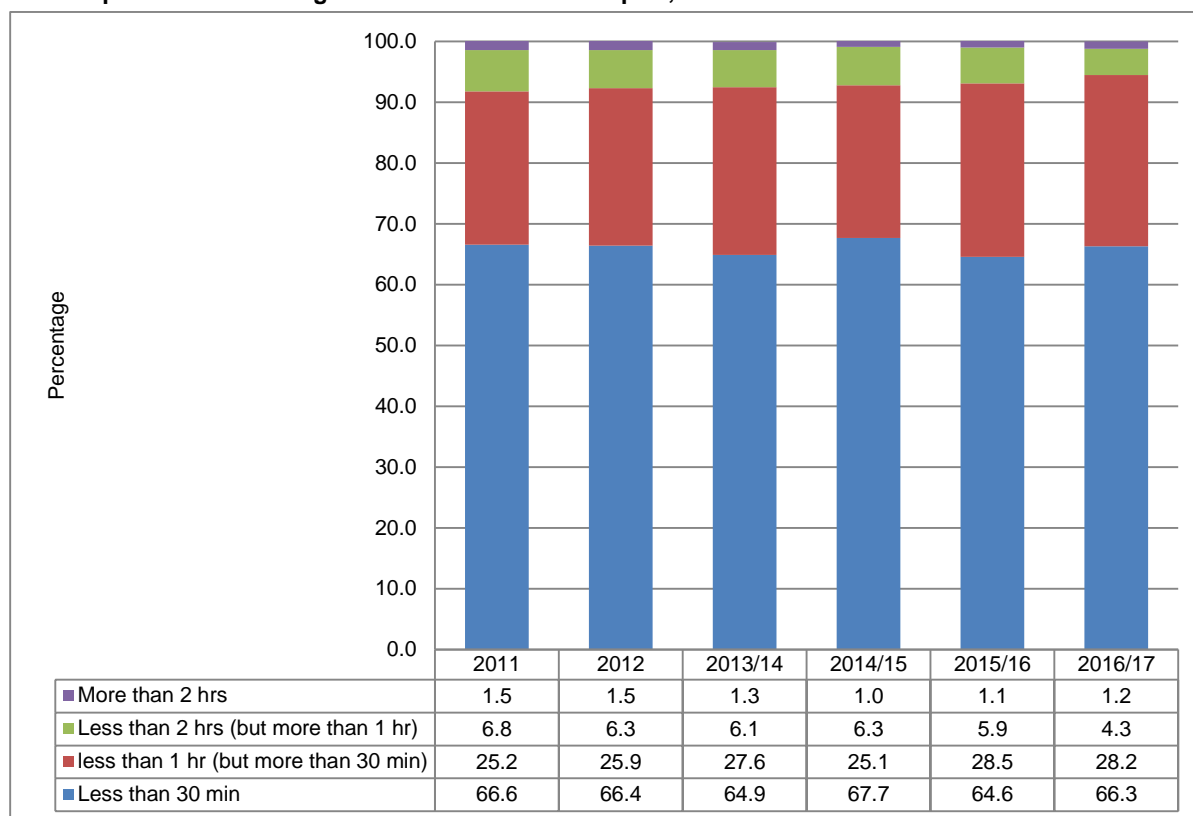


Figure 43 shows households' perceptions of the average length of time it would take to reach their nearest police station when using their usual mode of transport between 2011 and 2016/17. The graphical depiction shows a similar response between the years under observation. In 2016/17, slightly less than two-thirds of households in South Africa took less than half an hour to reach their nearest police station. For the same period, about 28% of households thought it took between thirty minutes and an hour on average to reach a police station.

Figure 44: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of the average length of time it takes to reach the nearest police station using their usual mode of transport by province, 2016/17

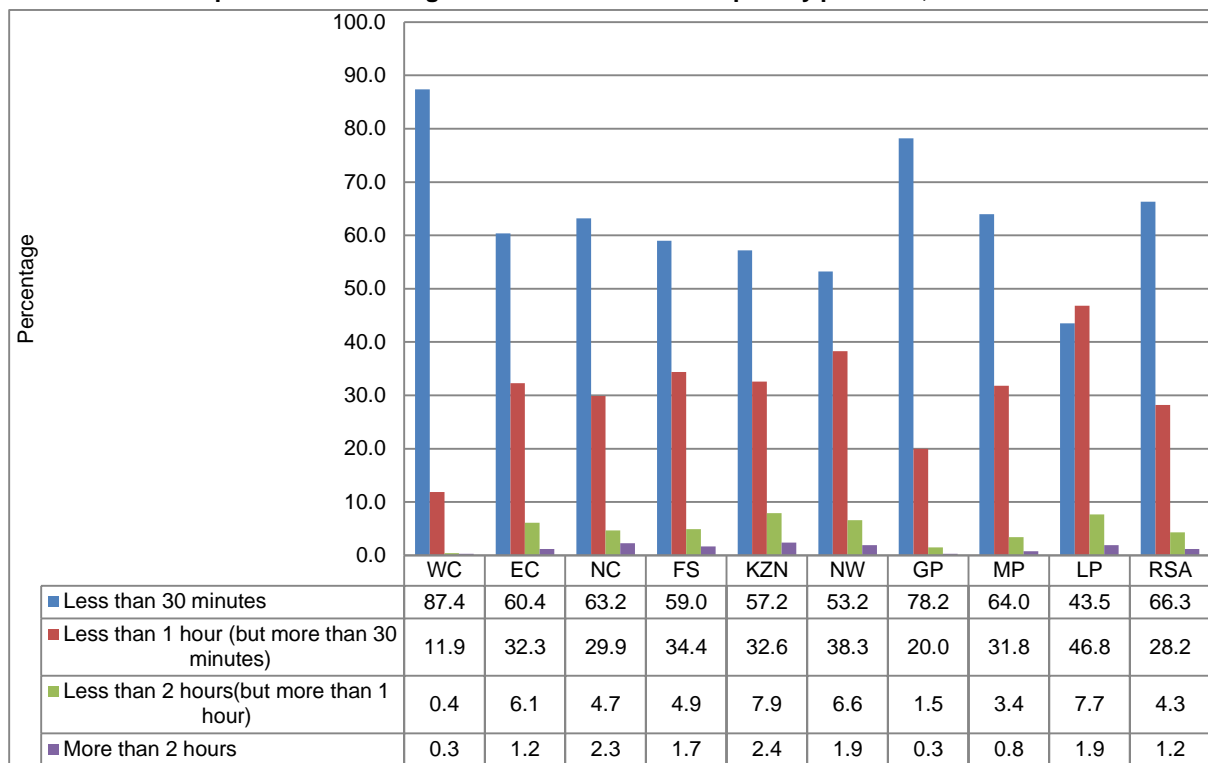


Figure 44 shows the provincial distribution of the average length of time it takes to reach the nearest police station. The figure indicates that the police stations that are relatively accessible to the public are in the Western Cape (87%), followed by Gauteng (78%), where households are able to reach a police station in less than an hour.

Figure 45: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions of the average length of time it takes the police to respond to an emergency call by province, 2016/17

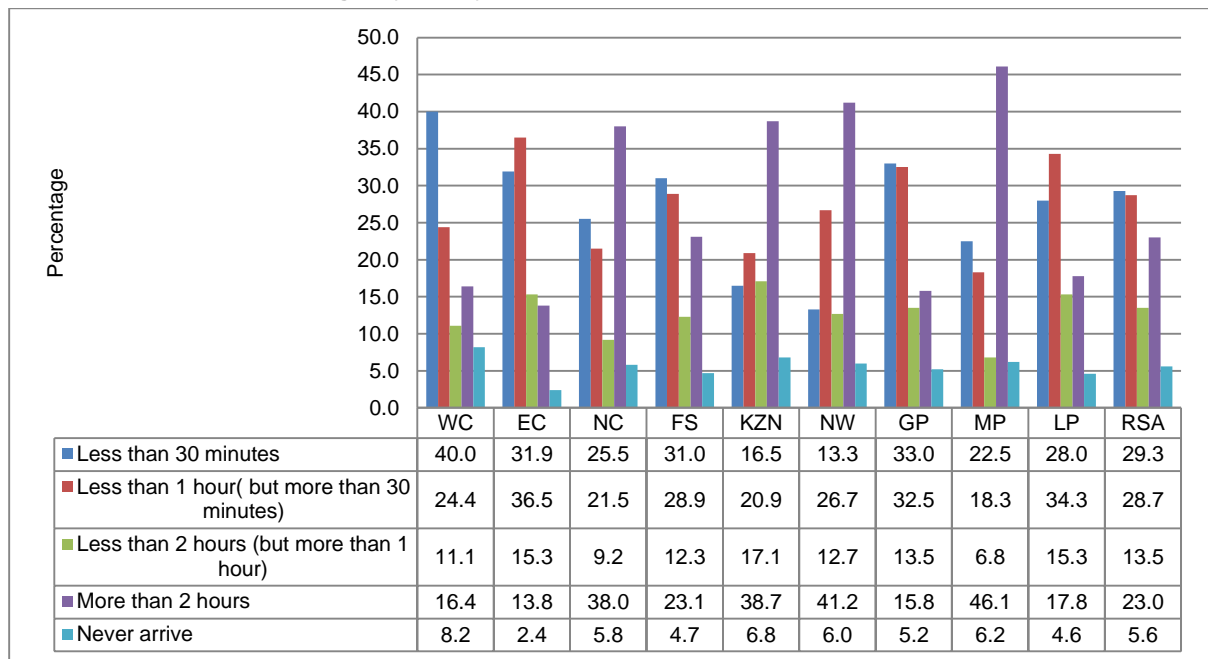


Figure 45 depicts the average length of time it takes the police to respond to an emergency call. Figure 44 showed that police stations in Western Cape and Gauteng were less than thirty minutes away from most households, and Figure 45 confirms that as these provinces also had the fastest police response time.

Figure 46: Percentage distribution of households who saw the police, in uniform and on duty, in their area of residence, 2011–2016/17

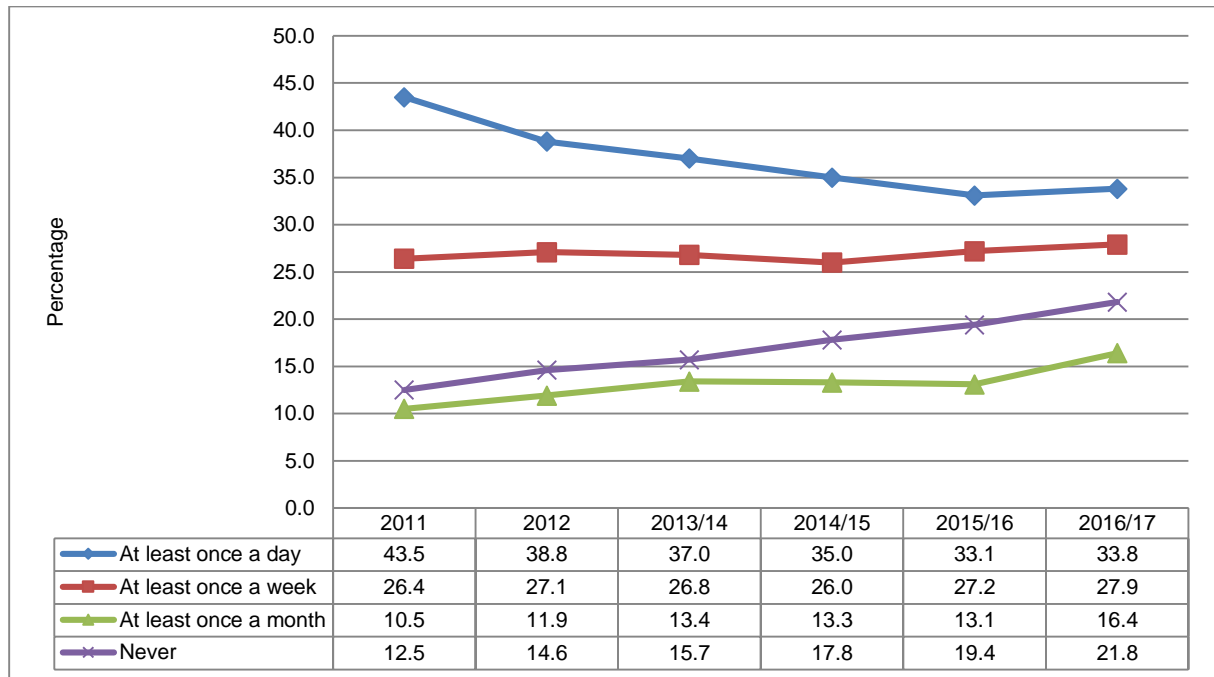
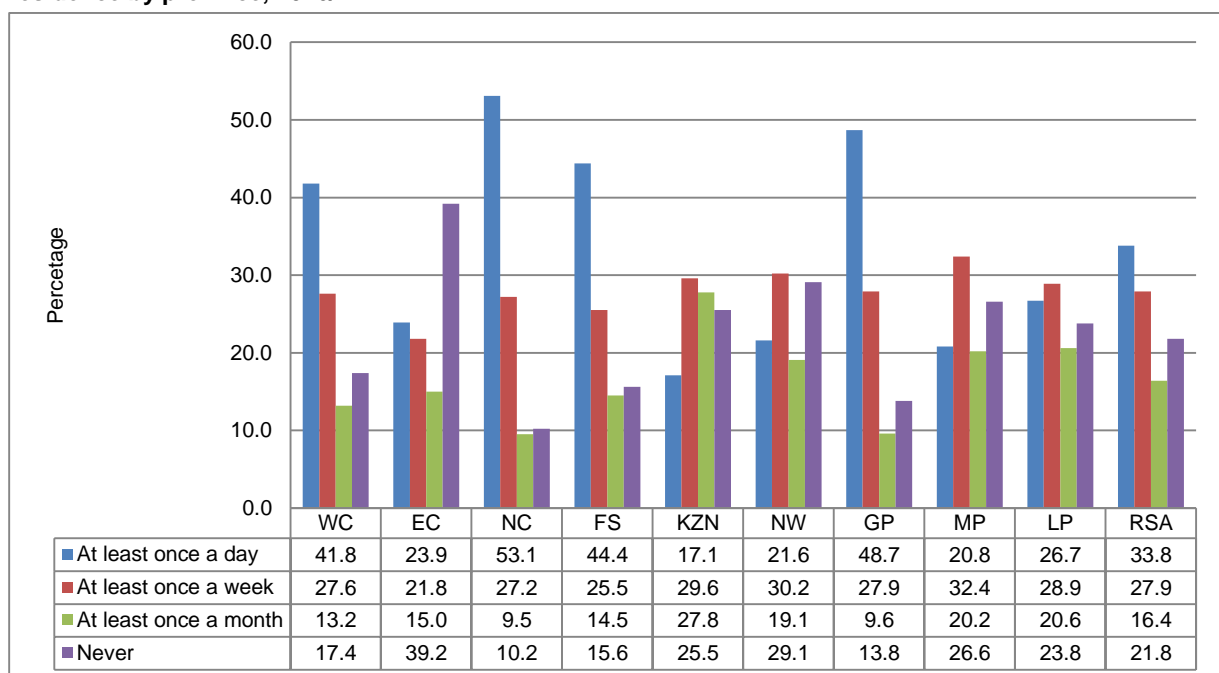


Figure 46 represents a time series of police visibility from 2011 to 2016/17. The proportion of households who saw police in uniform in their neighbourhoods at least once a day tended to decline over the years.

Figure 47: Percentage distribution of households who saw police, in uniform and on duty, in their area of residence by province, 2016/17



A provincial distribution of households who saw police, in uniform and on duty, in their area of residence is depicted in Figure 47. While data shows that the police stations are more accessible in the Western Cape and Gauteng, Figure 47 shows that a larger proportion of households who saw police on duty, in their area of residence were in the Northern Cape (53%).

Figure 48: Percentage distribution of households who were satisfied with police in their area, 2011 - 2016/17

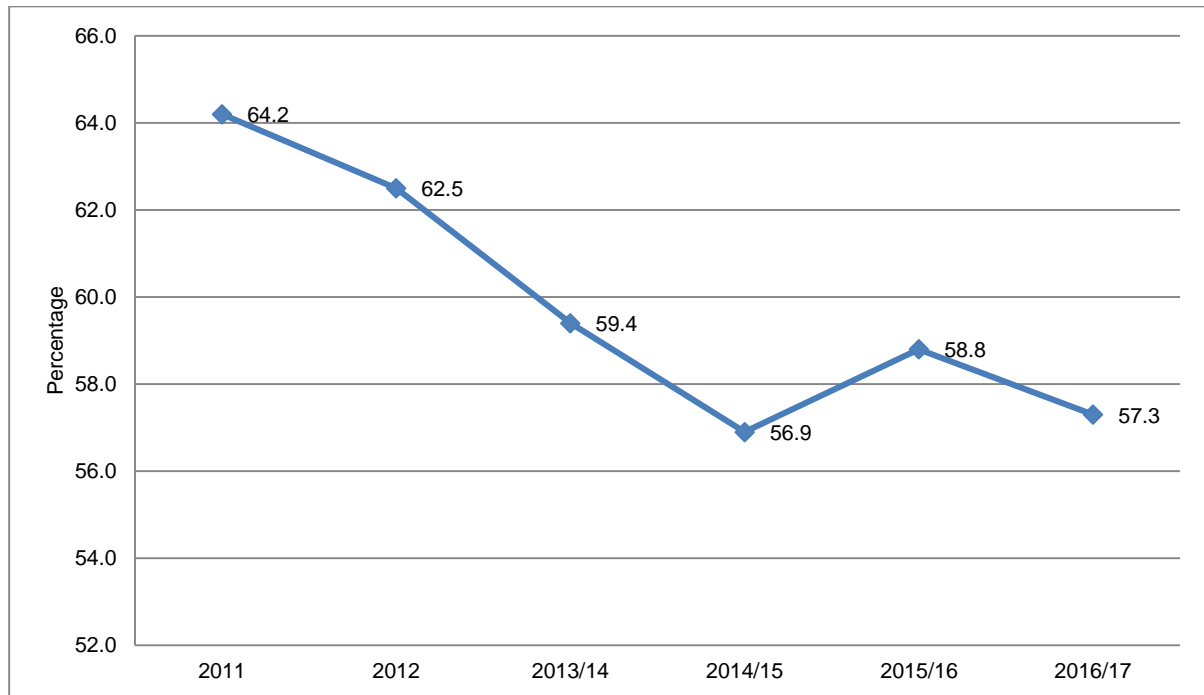
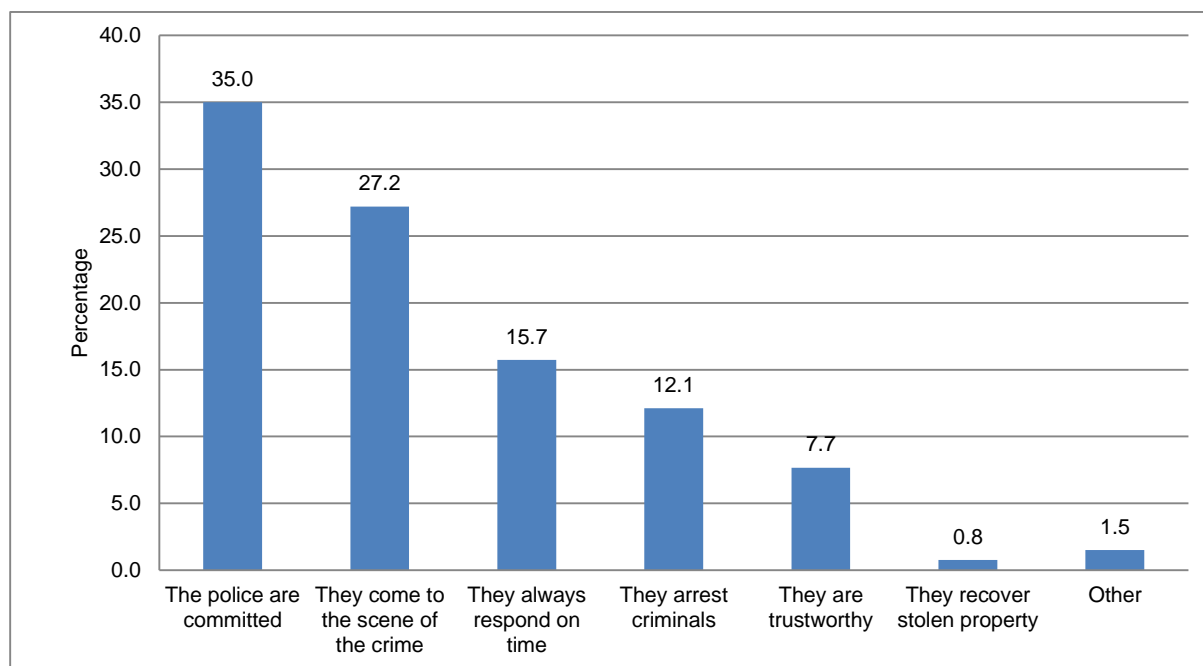


Figure 48 represents the proportions of households who are satisfied with the police in their area of residence. The figure shows that South African households' satisfaction with police has been on a general decline since 2011.

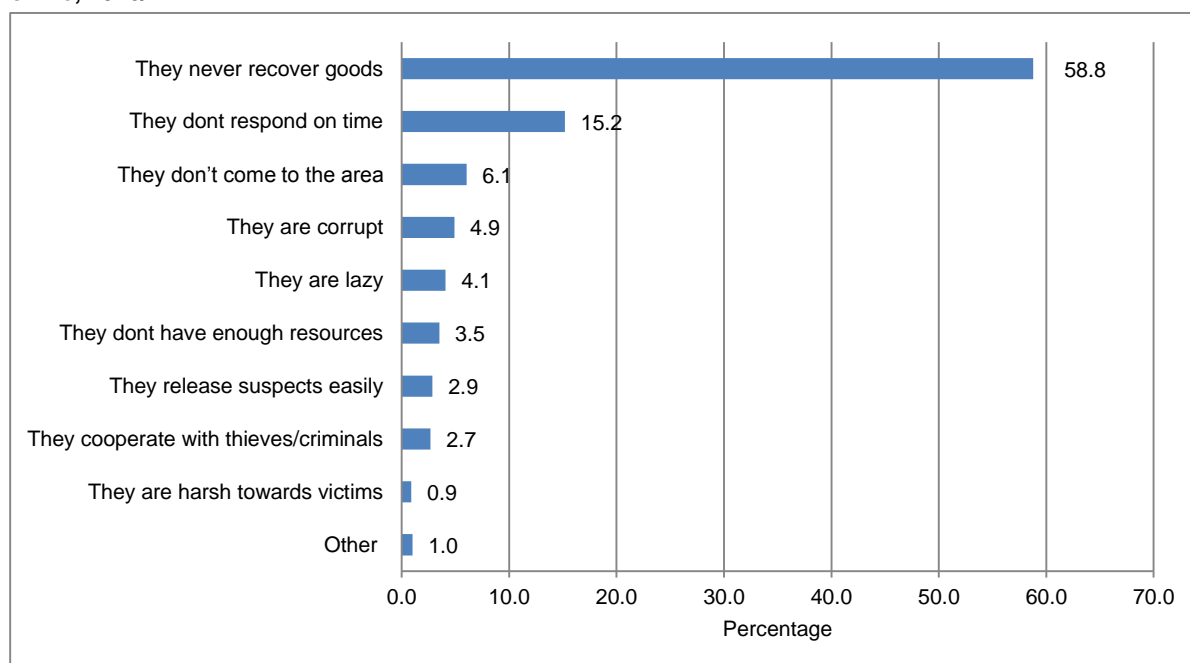
Figures 49 and Figure 50 summarise households' reasons for being satisfied/dissatisfied with the way in which the police deal with crime. It is worth noting that questions on police satisfaction in the VOCS 2016/17 were asked differently from the previous years. Readers are advised to exercise caution when comparing VOCS 2016/17 and data from preceding years. The category "Other" comprises a collation of reasons such as "They are disability sensitive/tolerant" and "They are gender sensitive/tolerant"

Figure 49: Distribution of households' reasons for being satisfied with the way the police deal with crime, 2016/17



More than a third of households who were satisfied with the police, were satisfied because they are committed and a further 27 per cent are happy because they came to the scene of the crime. The reasons why households are dissatisfied are summarised in Figure 50 below.

Figure 50: Distribution of households' reasons for being dissatisfied with the way the police deal with crime, 2016/17



Among households who were dissatisfied with the way in which the police deal with crime in their area, the majority (59%) felt that the police never recover their goods. About two-thirds of households who

held this view were in Limpopo. The category “Other” comprises reasons such as “They are disability insensitive/intolerant” and “They are gender insensitive/intolerant”.

8.5 Attitudes towards courts

Households were asked about their satisfaction with the way in which courts generally deal with perpetrators, reasons for being satisfied, reasons for being dissatisfied and their feelings about the appropriateness of sentences imposed on perpetrators of violent crime.

Figure 51: Percentage distribution of households' satisfaction with the way in which courts generally deal with perpetrators of crime by province, 2011 - 2016/17

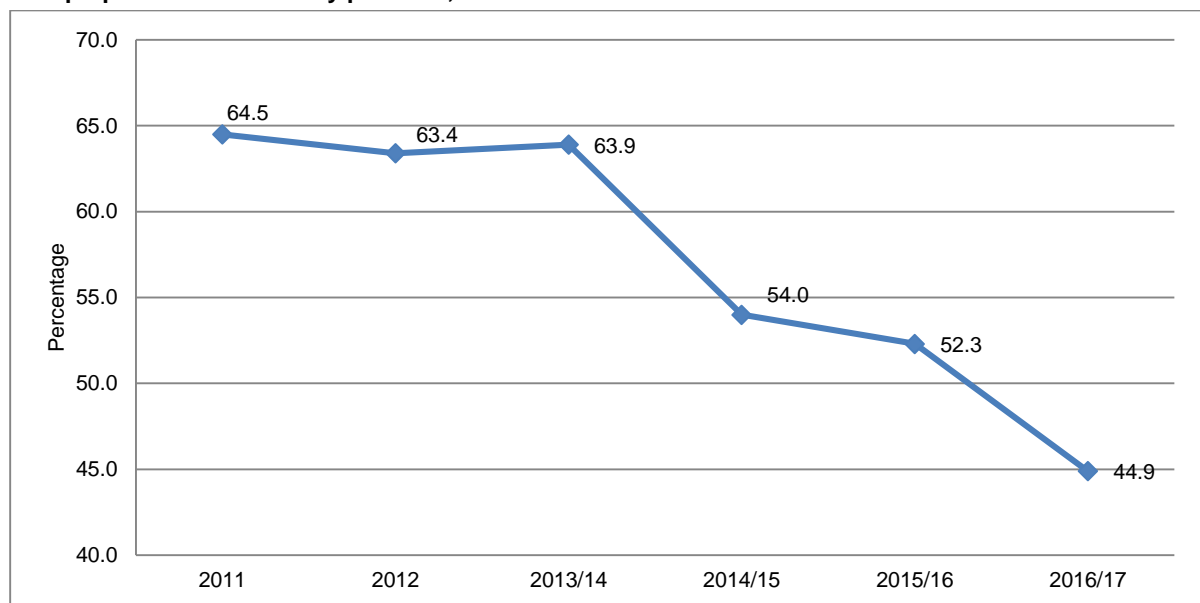


Figure 51 shows that satisfaction with courts has been declining from 2011 to 2016/17, as perceived by households in South Africa.

Figure 52: Percentage distribution of reasons for households being satisfied with the way in which courts generally deal with perpetrators of crime by province, 2016/17

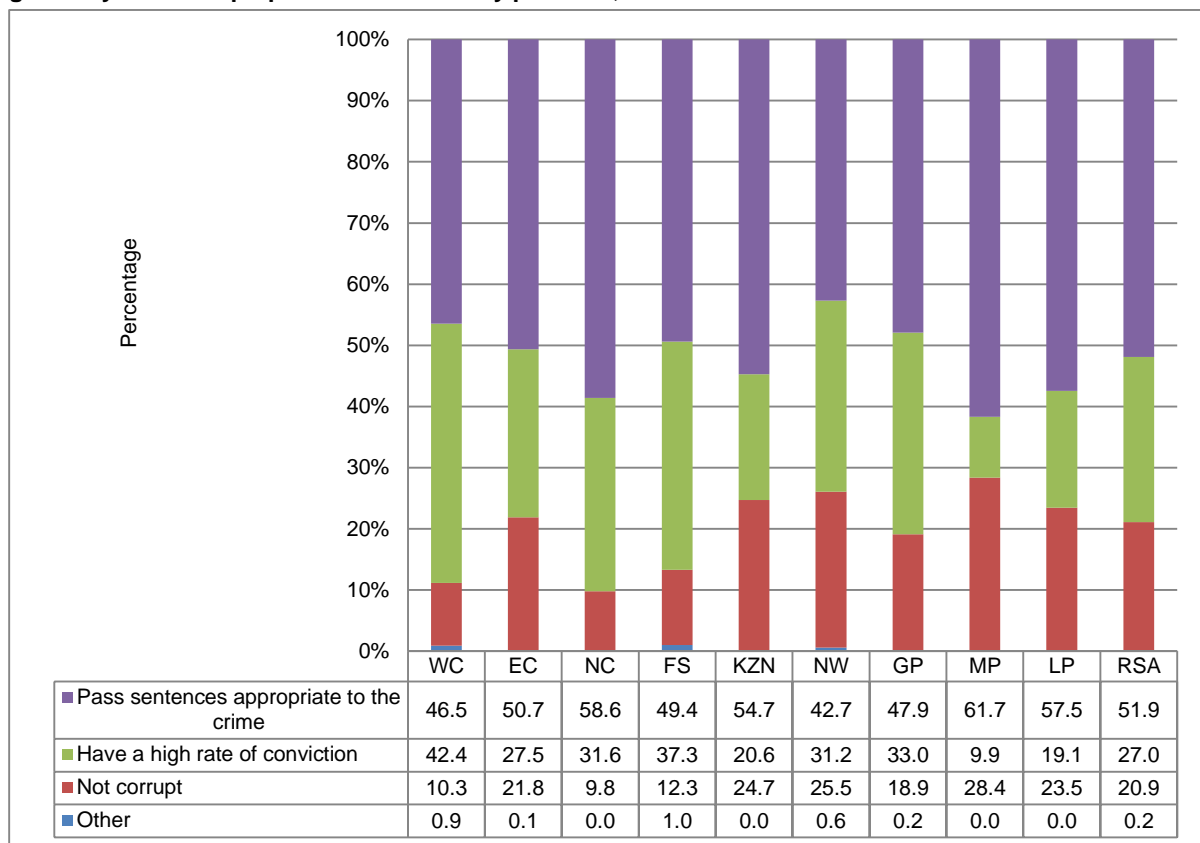


Figure 52 summarises the reasons why households are satisfied with the way in which courts generally deal with perpetrators of crime. The majority (51,9%) of those who were satisfied with the courts, thought that the courts passed sentences that were appropriate to the crimes committed, while 27% stated that courts had a high rate of conviction and 20,9% were of the opinion that courts were not corrupt. Mpumalanga (61,7%) had the highest percentage of households who were satisfied with the passing of appropriate sentences, followed by Northern Cape (58,6%) and Limpopo (57,5%). Western Cape (42,4%) had the highest percentage of households who thought that there was a high rate of conviction.

Figure 53: Percentage distribution of reasons for households being dissatisfied with the way in which courts generally deal with perpetrators of crime by province, 2016/17

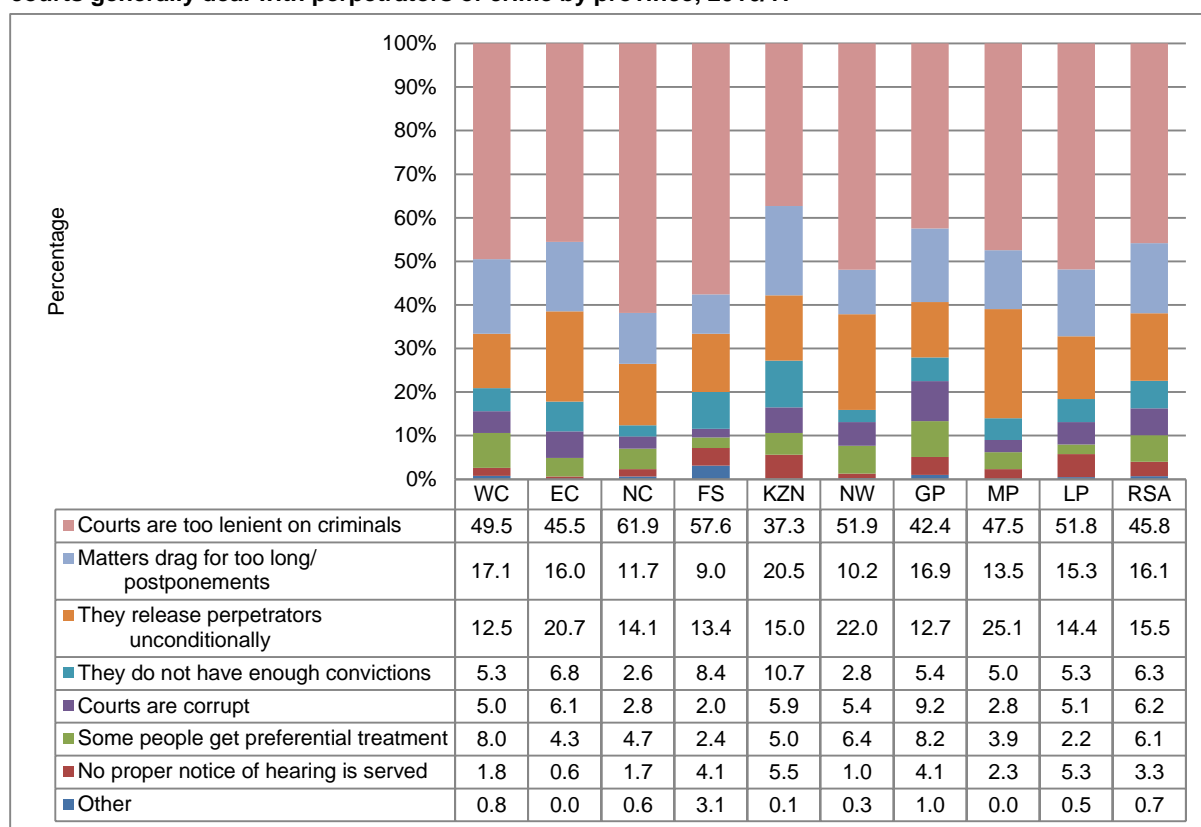
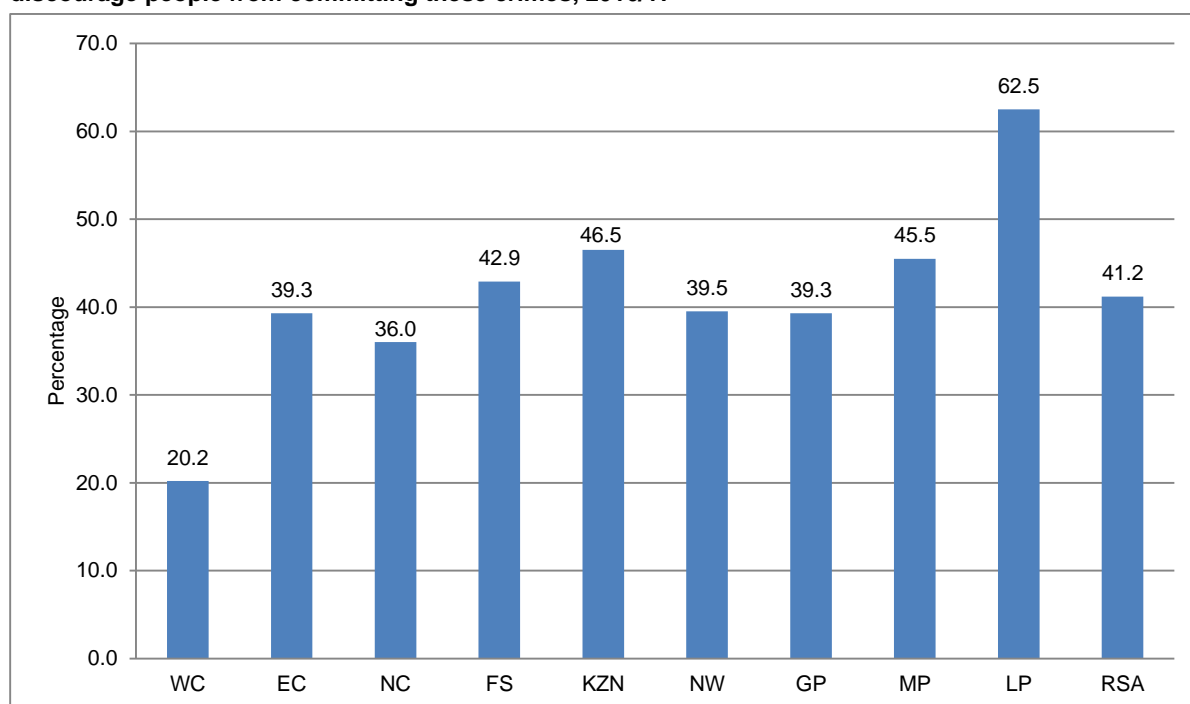


Figure 53 depicts the percentage distribution of reasons for being dissatisfied with the way courts generally deal with perpetrators of crime by province. Households were asked to give reasons why they were not satisfied with the performance of courts. The majority (45,8%) of the households indicated that the courts were too lenient on criminals when passing judgement. This was followed by households who felt that matters dragged for too long(16,1%). A high percentage of households who indicated that courts were too lenient on criminals was observed in Northern Cape (61,9%) and Free State (57,6%).

Figure 54: Percentage of households who thought that sentencing of violent crime was long enough to discourage people from committing these crimes, 2016/17



According to Figure 54 Limpopo had the greatest proportion of households (62.5%) who thought that the sentence for violent crimes is long enough to discourage people from committing crimes, followed by KwaZulu-Natal (46.5%) and Mpumalanga (45.5%). Western Cape (20.2%) had a significantly lower percentage of households who thought that the sentence for violent crimes was long enough to discourage people from committing the crimes as compared to other provinces.

8.6 Attitudes towards correctional services

This section presents findings on households' perceptions of the services provided by Correctional Services, household's willingness to welcome a former prisoner back in their community, and their willingness to provide employment to a former prisoner.

Figure 55: Percentage distribution of households' perceptions about services provided by Correctional Services 2016/17

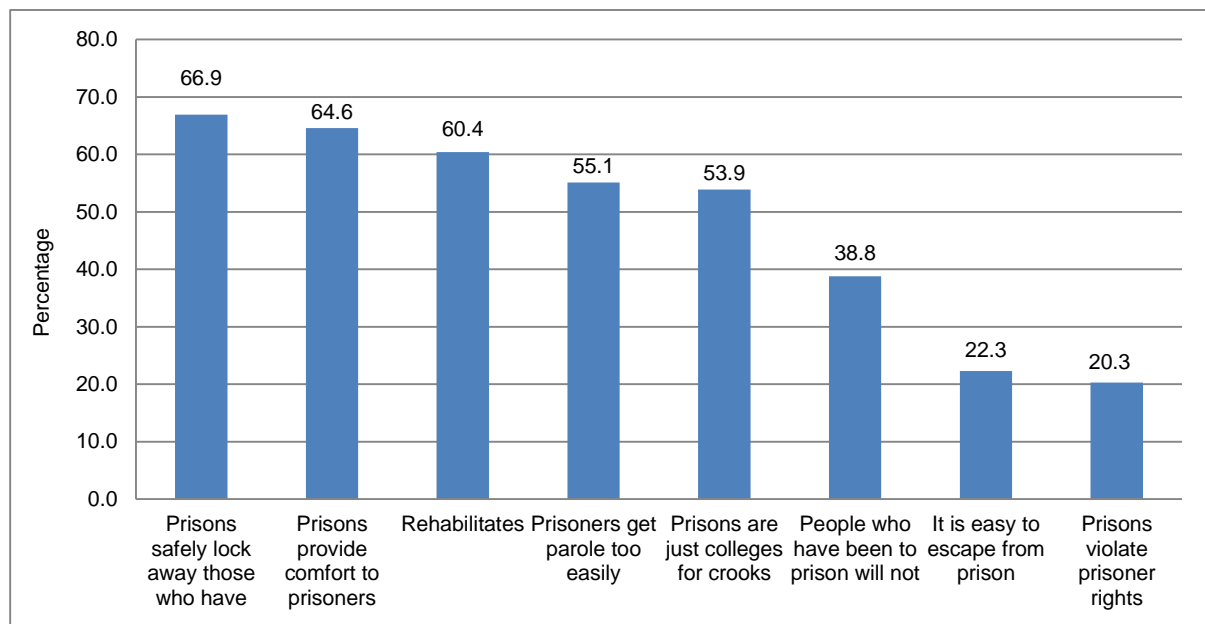
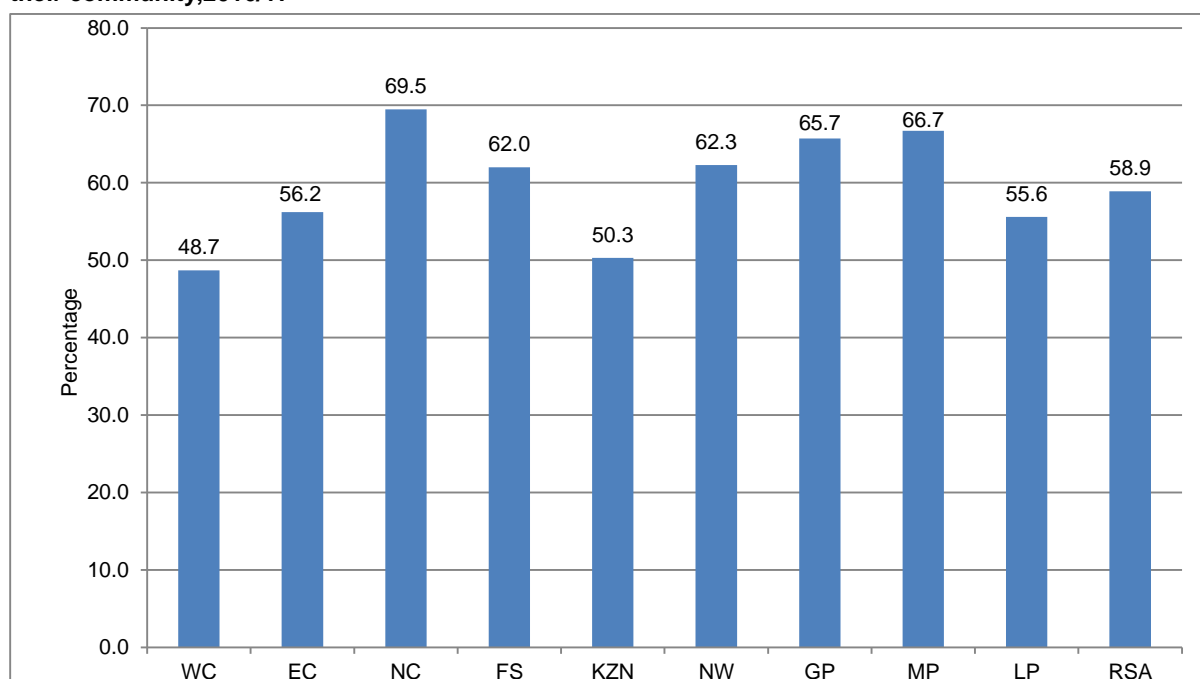


Figure 55 depicts the percentage distribution of the perceptions about services provided by Correctional Services. Households in South Africa were asked whether or not they agree with certain statements about the services that are provided by Correctional Services. The majority (66,9%) of households in the country were of the opinion that prisons safely lock away those who have been sentenced, while 22,3% agreed with the statement that prisons violate prisoners right. About two-thirds (64,6%) of the population indicated that prisons provide comfort to prisoners, the majority being in Eastern Cape (84,0%) and Western Cape (75,5%). More than half of households (55,1%) indicated that prisoners get parole too easily and the highest percentage holding this opinion was observed in Western Cape (71,0%).

Figure 56: Percentage distribution of households who were willing to welcome a former prisoner back in their community, 2016/17

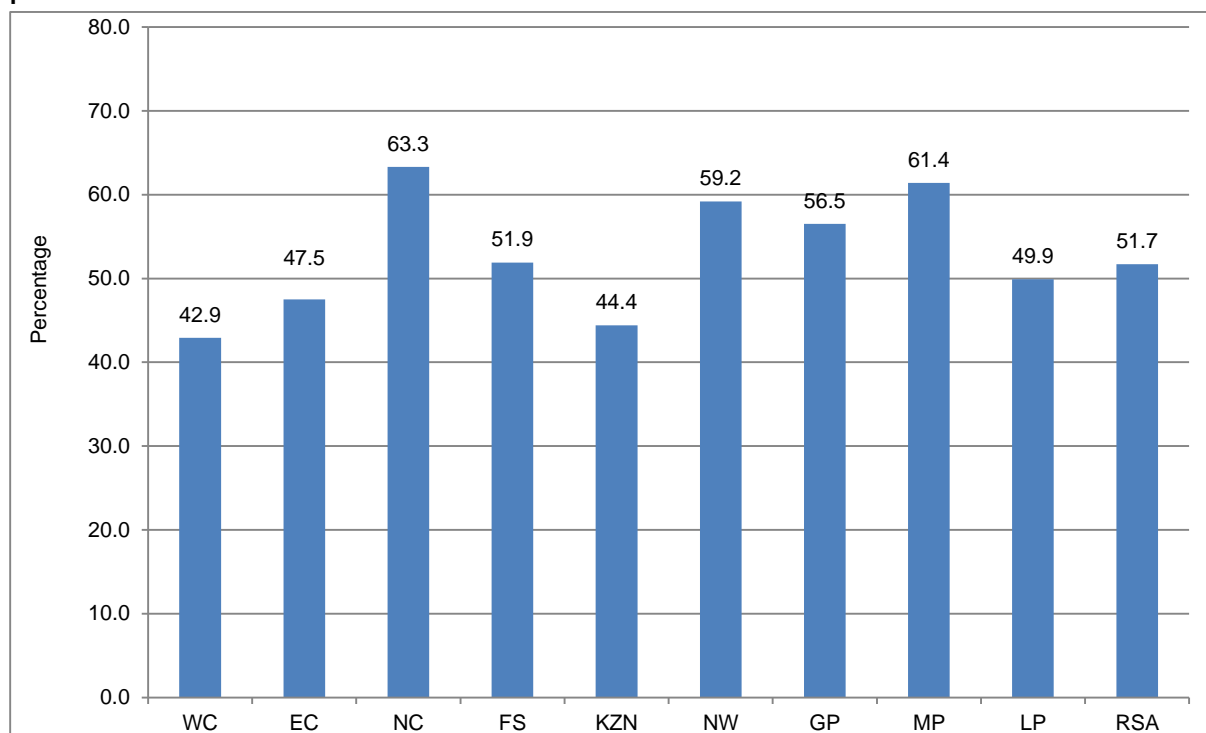


According to Figure 56 about 58,9% of households in South Africa were willing to welcome a former prisoner back in their community. Northern Cape (69,5%) had the highest percentage of households who were willing to welcome back former prisoners, followed by Mpumalanga (66,7%) and Gauteng (65,7%).

More than half of households in South Africa (51,7%) indicated that they were willing to provide employment to a former prisoner. Northern Cape (63,3%) had the highest percentage of households who were willing to do this, followed by Mpumalanga (61,4%) and Northern West (59,2%).

Comparing Figures 57 and 58 below, it is reasonable to conclude that South Africans are more willing to welcome former prisoners in their communities than to provide them with employment. For every province the proportion of households willing to welcome former prisoners in their community is higher than the proportion of households willing to provide employment to former prisoners.

Figure 57: Percentage distribution of households' willing to provide employment to a former prisoner by province 2016/17

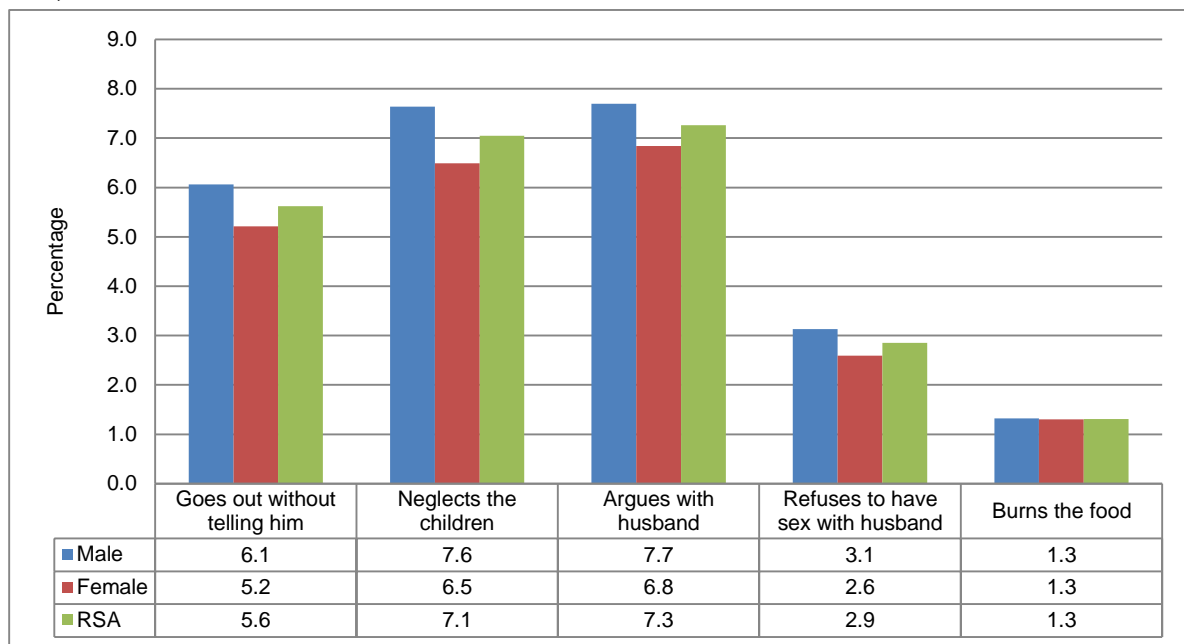


8.7 Attitudes related to women and gender based violence

In this section we introduce a series of questions that seek to broaden insights on perceptions about women and gender based violence in South Africa. These questions were asked for the first time in the Victims of Crime Survey 2016/17 and were asked to randomly selected individuals aged sixteen years and older.

When asked whether they think that women should have the same constitutional rights as men, the majority of respondents (71%) answered in the affirmative. The view that 'women should have the same constitutional rights as men' tended to be higher among females (73%) than among males (68%).

Figure 58: Percentage distribution of individual's views on when it is acceptable for a husband to hit his wife, 2016/17



The majority of respondents (97%) opposed the view that, in general it is acceptable for a man to hit a woman. Figure 59 below depicts the distribution of opinions on whether it is acceptable for a husband to physically hit his wife under certain circumstances. Although the proportion of individuals that agree that it is acceptable for a husband to beat his wife in certain situations is relatively low, there are noticeable differences from one situation to another. More respondents felt it was tolerable for a husband to hit his wife when she argues with him than when she burns the food. Relatively more males than females were of the opinion that it was okay for a husband to hit his wife.

Figure 59: Percentage distribution of individual's knowledge of children and women oriented institutions, 2016/17

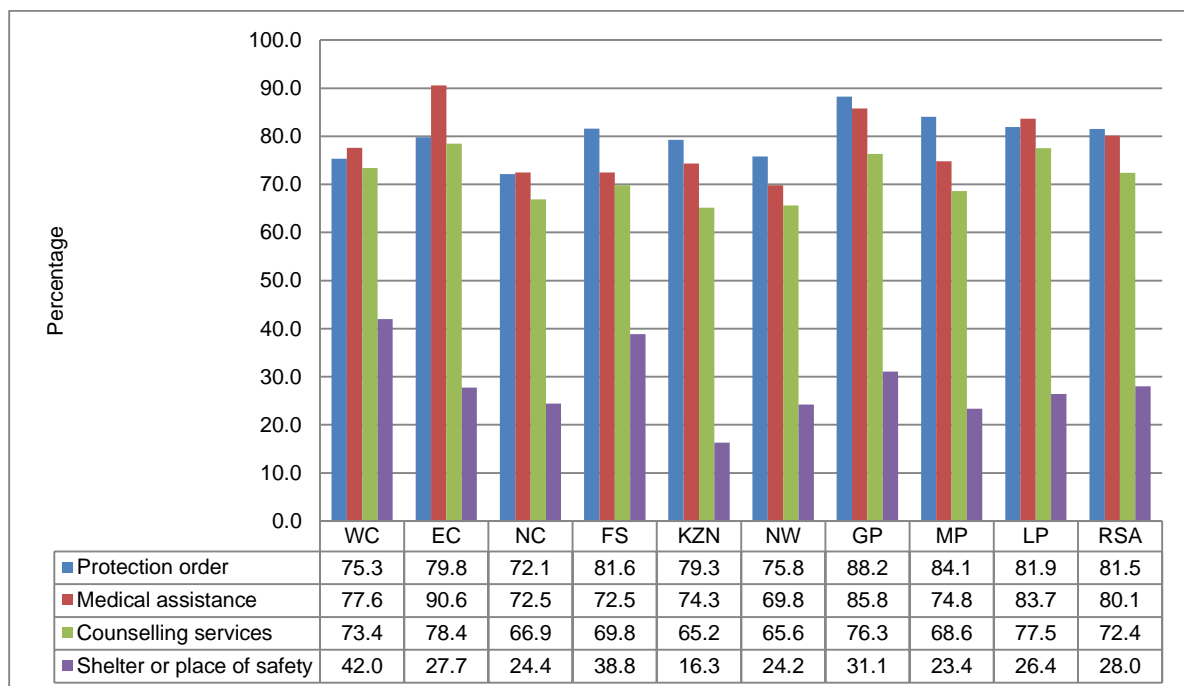


Figure 59 shows the percentage distribution of the individual's knowledge of children and women oriented institutions in 2016/17. The majority of sampled individuals reported knowing about protection orders (82%), followed by medical assistance (80%). Respondents that reported knowing a protection order were noticeably higher in Gauteng (88%) and Mpumalanga (84%). About 72% of respondents knew a place where women and children could access counselling services; these respondents were highest in Eastern Cape and Limpopo at about 78%.

Figure 60: Percentage distribution of media where individuals have heard of children and women oriented campaigns, 2016/17

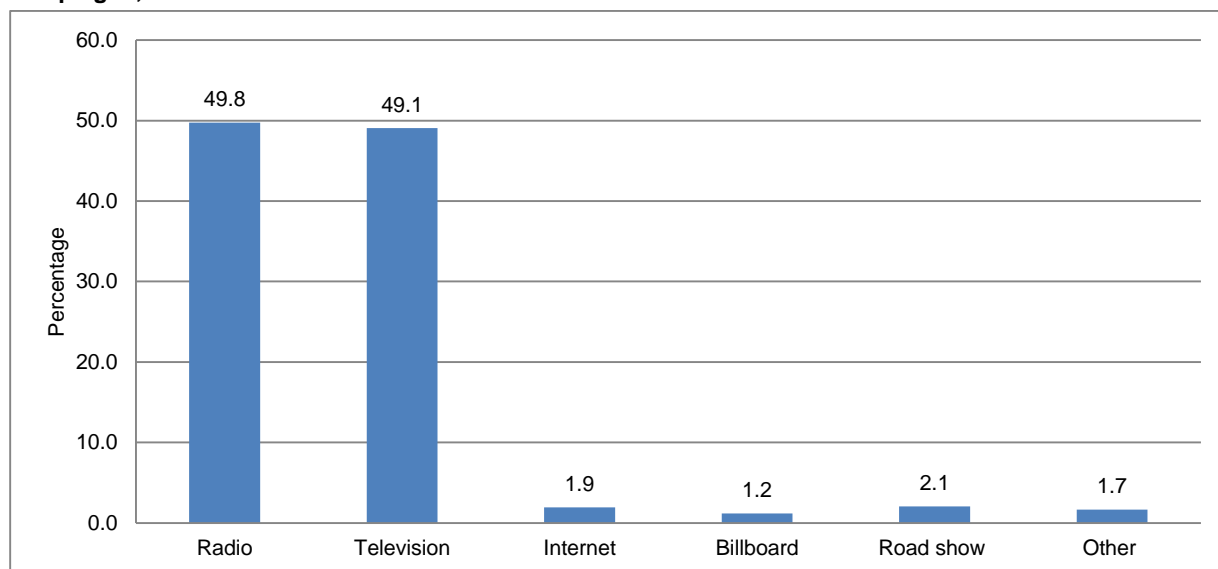


Figure 60 shows the percentage distribution of media where individuals have heard of children and women -oriented campaigns in 2016/17. The majority of respondents indicated that their knowledge of children and women- oriented campaigns was gained through radio (49,8%) and television (49,1%) media. Billboards (1,2%) was the medium making the smallest contribution to respondents knowledge of children and women- oriented campaigns.

9. TECHNICAL NOTES

9.1 Survey requirements and design

The questionnaire design, testing of the questionnaire, sampling techniques, data collection, computer programming, data capture, and weighting constituted the research methodology used in this survey, as discussed below.

9.2 Questionnaire design

Stats SA has committed itself to the highest international standards of data collection. In this regard, without compromising South African values and concepts, the VOCS 2016/17 strives to bring the questionnaire content to international standards, so that comparative analyses with other countries can be undertaken. The VOCS 2016/17 questionnaire was developed based on the questions used in the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS), previous VOCSs (both conducted by ISS and Stats SA) with modifications in some instances. The Stats SA questionnaire design standard for household surveys was also used as a normative reference. In order to minimise fieldworker and capturing errors, the questionnaire was largely pre-coded. Some minor changes and additions were made to the questionnaire for VOCS 2016/17.

Sections 10 to 20 of the questionnaire represent household crimes for which a proxy respondent (preferably head of the household or acting head of household) answered on behalf of the household. All analysis done in this report that included demographic variables was done using the demographic characteristics of the household head or proxy.

Section 21 to 28 of this questionnaire required that an individual be selected using the birthday section method to respond to questions classified as individual crimes. This methodology selects an individual who is 16 years or older, whose birthday was first to follow the survey date.

Table 54 summarises the details of the questions included in the VOCS questionnaire. The questions are covered in 28 sections, each focusing on a particular aspect.

Table 54: Contents of the VOCS 2016/17 questionnaire

Section	Number of questions	Details of each section
Cover page		Household information, response details, field staff information, result codes, etc.
Flap	10	Demographic information (name, sex, age, population group, etc.)
Section 1	10	Household-specific characteristics (education, economic activities and household income sources)
Section 2	13	General thinking / beliefs on crime
Section 3	6	Individual and community response to crime
Section 4	7	Victim support and other interventions
Section 5	4	Citizen interaction or community cohesion
Section 6	16	Perception of the police service
Section 7a	9	Perception of the courts
Section 7b	11	Perception of Trafficking in Persons
Section 8	4	Perception of correctional services
Section 9	4	Corruption experienced by the household
Section 10	4	Experience of household crime (screening table)
Section 11	21	Theft of car experienced by a household member(s) in the past 12 months
Section 12	23	Housebreaking or burglary when no one was at home in the past 12 months
Section 13	28	Home robbery (including robbery often around or inside the household's dwelling) experienced by a household member(s) in the past 12 months
Section 14	20	Theft of livestock, poultry and other animals in the past 12 months
Section 15	19	Theft of crops planted by the household in the past 12 months
Section 16	23	Murder experienced by a household member(s) in the past 12 months
Section 17	21	Theft out of the motor vehicle experienced by a household member(s) in the past 12 months
Section 18	20	Deliberate damaging/burning or destruction of dwelling experienced by a household member(s) in the past 12 months
Section 19	20	Motor vehicle vandalism or deliberate damage of a motor vehicle experienced by a household member(s) in the past 12 months
Section 20	17	Theft of bicycle experienced in the past 12 months
Section 21	7	Experience of individual crimes (screening table) in the past 5 years and in the past 12 months
Section 22	19	Theft of personal property experienced in the past 12 months
Section 23	30	Hijacking of motor vehicle (including attempted hijacking) experienced in the past 12 months
Section 24	27	Robbery (including street robberies and other non-residential robberies, excluding car or truck hijackings, and home robberies) experienced in the past 12 months
Section 25	28	Sexual offences (including rape) experienced in the past 12 months
Section 26	27	Assault experienced in the past 12 months
Section 27	18	Consumer fraud experienced by the individual experienced in the past 12 months
Section 28	7	Corruption (when someone is in a position of authority fails to do something he/she is required to do and solicits a bribe)
Section 29	3	Survey officer to answer questions

9.3 Sample design

The VOCS 2016/17 uses the Master Sample frame which has been developed as a general-purpose household survey frame that can be used by all other Stats SA household-based surveys having design requirements that are reasonably compatible with the VOCS. The VOCS 2016/2017 collection was based on the 2013 Master Sample. This Master Sample is based on information collected during the 2011 Census conducted by Stats SA. In preparation for Census 2011, the country was divided into 103 576 enumeration areas (EAs). The census EAs, together with the auxiliary information for the EAs,

were used as the frame units or building blocks for the formation of primary sampling units (PSUs) for the Master Sample, since they covered the entire country and had other information that is crucial for stratification and creation of PSUs. There are 3 324 primary sampling units (PSUs) in the Master Sample with an expected sample of approximately 33 000 dwelling units (DUs). The number of PSUs in the current Master Sample (3 324) reflect an 8,0% increase in the size of the Master Sample compared to the previous (2008) Master Sample (which had 3 080 PSUs). The larger Master Sample of PSUs was selected to improve the precision (smaller coefficients of variation, known as CVs) of the VOCS estimates.

The Master Sample is designed to be representative at provincial level and within provinces at metro/non-metro levels. Within the metros, the sample is further distributed by geographical type. The three geography types are Urban, Tribal and Farms. This implies, for example, that within a metropolitan area, the sample is representative of the different geography types that may exist within that metro.

The sample for the VOCS is based on a stratified two-stage design with probability Percentageal to size (PPS) sampling of PSUs in the first stage, and sampling of dwelling units (DUs) with systematic sampling in the second stage.

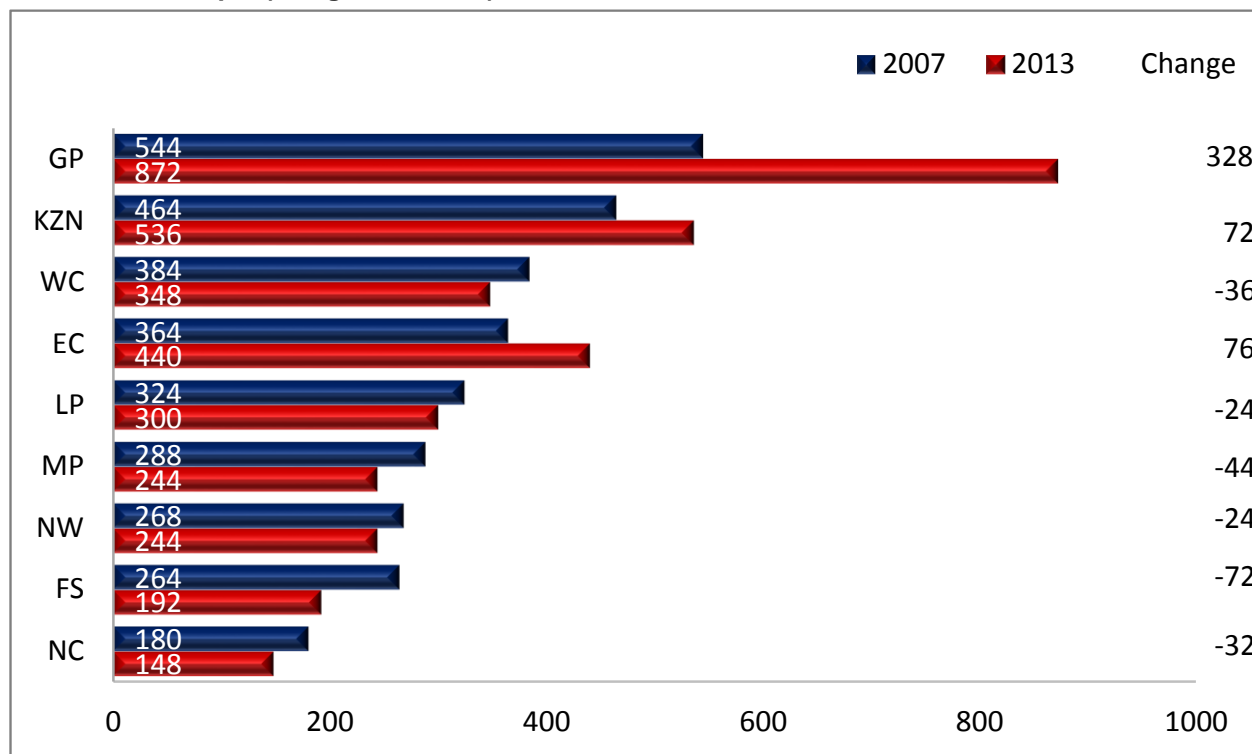
Table 55: Comparison between the 2007 (old) Master Sample and the new Master Sample (designed in 2013)

	2007 Master Sample (VOCS 2008-2014)	2013 Master Sample (VOCS 2015/2016 onwards)
Design	Two-stage stratified design	Two-stage stratified design
Number of primary sampling units (PSUs)	3 080 PSUs	3 324 PSUs
Number of dwelling units (DUs)	Approximately 30 000 DUs	Approximately 33 000 DUs
Stratification	No stratification by geo-type within metros/non-metros	Stratification by geo-type within metros/non-metros
Geo-types	4 geo-types, namely urban formal, urban informal, tribal areas, and rural formal	3 geo-types, namely urban, traditional, and farms
Sample	Sample representative at national, provincial and metro levels, but estimates only produced to provincial level	Sample representative at national, provincial and metro levels Weights produced to publish estimates at metro level

There are a number of aspects in which the two Master Samples differ. The number of geo-types was reduced from 4 to 3 while the new Master Sample allows for the publication of estimates at metro level.

Primary stratification occurred at provincial and metro/non-metro levels, for mining, and geography type, while the secondary strata were created within the primary strata based on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the population.

Figure 61: Distribution of primary sampling units by province, 2007 (old) Master Sample and the new Master Sample (designed in 2013)



Given the change in the provincial distribution of the South African population between 2001 and 2011, the Master Sample was adjusted accordingly. There was also an 8% increase in the sample size of the Master Sample of PSUs to improve the precision of the VOCS estimates. In particular, the sample sizes increased most notably in Gauteng, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal.

9.4 Data collection

Stats SA conducted the fifth annual Victims of Crime Survey in close collaboration with other role players in the Safety and Security cluster in April 2016–March 2017. Since 2013 the Victims of Crime Survey, the Domestic Tourism Survey (DTS) and the General Household Survey (VOCS) have adopted the Continuous Data Collection (CDC) methodology. The Victims of Crime Survey conducts data collection from April to March. In the long run, this methodology will enable data collection to coincide with the financial year and the reporting cycle of administrative data related to crime.

Data collection took place from April 2016 to March 2017 with a moving reference period of 12 months. This is different from the 2011 and 2012 collections which were done from January to March and had a fixed reference period from January to December of the previous year. The sample has been distributed evenly over the whole collection period in the form of quarterly allocations. This will provide a guarantee against possible seasonal effects in the survey estimates. It will, in future, provide an opportunity for the production of rolling estimates relating to any desired time period. It has been noted that the change of data collection methodology may cause concerns over the survey estimates, particularly upon

comparisons of years before and after the change. Victimization questions referred to the twelve calendar months ending with the month before the interview.

Statistics South Africa is committed to meeting the highest ethical standards in its data collection processes. In addition to being bound to the Statistics Act, the Victims of Crime Survey, due to its sensitive nature, required additional measures to ensure that the integrity and well-being of the households are protected.

9.5 Editing and imputation

All questionnaires were scanned, and the data was sent to the post-capture process for editing and imputation. At each stage of checking, data was edited to ensure consistency. Data editing is concerned with the identification and, if possible, the correction of erroneous or highly suspect survey data. Data was checked for valid range, internal logic and consistency.

The focus of the editing process was on clearing up skip violations and ensuring that each variable only contains valid values. Very few limits to valid values was set and data were largely released as it was received from the field.

When dealing with internal inconsistencies, logical imputation was used, i.e. information from other questions was compared with the inconsistent information. If other evidence was found to back up either of the two inconsistent viewpoints, the inconsistency was resolved accordingly. If the internal consistency remained, the question subsequent to the filter question was dealt with by either setting it to missing and imputing its value or printing a message of edit failure for further investigation, decision-making and manual editing. Hot-deck imputation was used to impute for missing age.

9.6 Construction of household sample weights

The household sample weights for VOCS 2011 to 2016/17 were constructed in such a manner that the responses from the respondent households could be properly expanded to represent the household population. The sample weights therefore are a product of several factors, including the original selection probabilities (design weights), adjustments for PSUs that were sub-sampled or segmented, excluded population from the sampling frame, non-response, weight trimming and benchmarking to known household estimates.

The base weights for the household weighting process are the same as those for the person weighting process. The adjustments applied to the base weights to obtain the adjusted base weights for household weighting. In the final step of constructing the household sample weights, the adjusted base weights were calibrated such that the aggregate totals match with the independently derived (by Stats SA Demography Division) household estimates by the head of households age, population group and gender at national and provincial level. The calibrated weights are constructed with a lower bound on the calibrated weights of 50 within the StatMx software from Statistics Canada.

The household estimates used in the calibration of the adjusted base weights for VOCS 2011 to 2016/17 were the Mid-November 2010, Mid-November 2011, Mid-May 2013 and Mid-May 2015 population estimate, respectively, based on the 2016 mid-year population model. The household estimates were used in benchmarking to two sets of control totals:

- National level totals that were defined by the cross-classification of age, population group and gender of the head of the household. Age represents the four age groups of 0-34, 35-49, 50-64

and 65+. Population group represents the four groups of black African, coloured, Indian/Asian and white. Gender represents the two groups of male and female. The cross-classification resulted in 32 calibration cells at the national level.

- Provincial level totals were defined within the provinces by age of head of household. The country has 9 provinces; Age represents the four age groups of 0-34, 35-49, 50-64 and 65+. The cross-classification of the areas with age resulted in 36 calibration cells.

9.7 Individual sample weights

The final survey weights were constructed by calibrating the non-response-adjusted design weights to the known population estimates as control totals using the 'Integrated Household Weighting' method.

The VOCS 2016/17 sample was calibrated using the Population Estimates of Mid May 2016 (based on the 2016 series). The final weights were benchmarked to the known population estimates of 5-year age groups by population groups by gender at national level, and broad age groups at province level. The 5-year age groups are: 0–4, 5–9, 10–14, 15–19, 20–24, 25–29, 30–34, 35–39, 40–44, 45–49, 50–54, 55–59, 60–64, 65–69, 70–74, and 75 and older. The provincial level age groups are 0–14, 15–34, 35–64; and 65 years and older. The calibrated weights are constructed such that all persons in a household would have the same final weight.

The VOCS 2016/17 had an extra level of selection where one person, 16 years or older, was selected per household to complete sections 21 to 28 of the questionnaire. The individual weights were benchmarked to an estimated national population of age 16 and older in Mid-May 2016. Records for which the age, population group or gender had item non-response could not be weighted and were therefore excluded from the dataset. No additional imputation was done to retain these records.

9.8 Estimation

The final survey weights were used to obtain the estimates for various domains of interest at a household level, for example, victimisation level in South Africa; households' perceptions of crime levels in the country, etc. The following is the R code used to obtain estimates of totals, proportions and ratios.

Table 1

```
svyby(~HoCrime, by=~prov, des1,vartype="cvpct", na.rm=TRUE, svytotal)
svyby(~HoCrime, by=~prov, denominator=~one, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE, svyratio)
y <- svytotal(~HoCrime, des1,na.rm=TRUE, vartype="cvpct")
cv(y)
y <- svyratio(~HoCrime, denominator=~one, des1,vartype="cvpct", na.rm=TRUE)
cv(y)
```

Table 2

```
svyby(~NHoCrime, by=~gender, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE,svytotal)
svyby(~NHoCrime, by=~gender, denominator=~one, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE,svyratio)
svyby(~HoCrime, by=~gender, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE,svytotal)
svyby(~HoCrime, by=~gender, denominator=~one, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE,svyratio)
svyby(~HoCrime, by=~race, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE,svytotal)
svyby(~HoCrime, by=~race, denominator=~one, des1,vartype="cvpct",na.rm=TRUE,svyratio)
```

Table 7

```
y <- svytotal(~NCarTheft, des1,na.rm=TRUE, vartype="cvpct")
```

```
cv(y)
y <- svyratio(~NCarTheft, denominator=~CarTheft, des1, vartype="cvpct", na.rm=TRUE)
cv(y)
```

With minor changes the above code was used to obtain results other than those in tables mentioned above.

9.9 Reliability of the survey estimates

The survey estimates for questions related to perceptions of crime and the criminal justice system are reliable and provide good estimates at provincial level and even at lower levels in some cases. However, statistics related to specific types of crime should be used with caution. Crimes that are relatively rare – such as murder – resulted in very few cases from the sample resulting in large standard errors. In the past guidelines given to determine the quality of estimates were based on rules of a thumb. In this report for every estimate a coefficient of variation was calculated and presented together with the estimate. The quality of every estimate is based on the interval range that the CV falls. The methodology chapter at the beginning of this report describes the four quality intervals.

9.10 Comparability with previous surveys

The VOCS 2016/17 is comparable to the previous VOC surveys in that several questions have remained unchanged over time. Where comparisons were possible, it was indicated in the report. The current survey can provide for more accurate estimates at provincial level. Caution should be exercised when running cross tabulation of different crimes by provinces and other variables. For several crimes the reported experienced cases were too few to allow for extensive analysis. This is due to the survey being the first in the series of continuous data collection methodology which was applied.

9.11 Sampling and the interpretation of the data

Caution must be exercised when interpreting the results of the VOCS at low levels of disaggregation. The sample and reporting are based on the provincial boundaries as defined in 2011. These new boundaries resulted in minor changes to the boundaries of some provinces, especially Gauteng, North West, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and Eastern and Western Cape. In previous reports the sample was based on the provincial boundaries as defined in 2006, and there will therefore be slight comparative differences in terms of provincial boundary definitions.

9.12 Limitations of crime victimisation surveys

Victimisation surveys are likely to produce higher crime estimates than police-recorded administrative data. This is because that many crimes are not reported to the police. Victim surveys deal with incidents that not necessarily match the legal definition of crime. Although data from crime victim surveys are likely to elicit better disclosure of criminal incidents than data from police records, they can also be subject to undercounting, as some victims may be reluctant to disclose information, particularly for incidents of a sensitive nature, such as sexual offences.

The accuracy of statistics is influenced by the ability of people to recall past victimisations. The longer the elapsed time period, the less likely it is that an incident will be recalled accurately. Surveys are also

subject to sampling and non-sampling errors. The survey is also limited by not involving a monthly cycle of field work, and the sample of each month being a random subset of the annual sample. Currently, the survey sample is randomly distributed per quarter.

9.13 Differences between victim surveys and police-reported data

The most basic difference between the two types of crime measurement is the method of data collection. Police-reported statistics obtain data from police administrative records. In contrast, victim surveys collect both household and personal information about their victimisation experiences, through face-to-face interviews. The survey covers victims' experiences of crime at microdata level, including the impact of crime on victims.

Police-reported statistics normally collate information on all incidents reported to a variety of police stations. Victim surveys ask a sample of the population about their experiences and, if well designed, this sample should be representative of the population as a whole. Although police statistics and victim surveys normally cover comparable geographic areas, if appropriately nationally representative, victim surveys may exclude some categories of victims, such as very young children or persons residing in institutions such as a prisons, hospital, care centres or military barracks. The reference period for the police-recorded statistics is April 2016 to March 2017, whereas the reference period of the VOCS 2016/17 estimates is April 2016 to February 2017.

10. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Acting household head – any member of the household acting on behalf of the head of the household.

Arson – unlawful and intentional damaging of an immovable structure which is suitable for human occupation or the storing of goods and which belongs to another, by setting fire to it with the intention to prejudice the owner.

Assault – direct or indirect application of force to the body of another person.

Note: Includes domestic violence

College for crooks – a place where people learn how to become crooks/criminals or how to become even better crooks/criminals.

Consumer fraud – deceptive practices that result in financial losses for consumers during seemingly legitimate business transactions. Also includes cases where someone provides misleading information and tricks a person into buying something or signing documents.

Court - an official public forum established by lawful authority to adjudicate disputes and dispense civil, labour, administrative and criminal justice under law.

Hijacking of motor vehicle – unlawful and intentional forceful removal and appropriation of a motor vehicle from the occupant(s).

Household – a group of persons who live together and provide themselves jointly with food and/or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone.

Note: The persons basically occupy a common dwelling unit (or part of it) for at least four nights in a week on average during the past four weeks prior to the survey interview, sharing resources as a unit. Other explanatory phrases can be 'eating from the same pot' and 'cook and eat together'.

Household head – the main decision-maker, or the person who owns or rents the dwelling, or the person who is the main breadwinner.

Housebreaking/burglary – unlawful and intentional breaking into a building or similar structure, used for human habitation, and entering or penetrating it with part of the body or with an instrument, with the intention to control something on the premises, intending to commit a crime on the premises, where there is no contact between the victim(s) and the perpetrator(s).

Home robbery – unlawful and intentional forceful removal and appropriation of tangible property from residential premises of another person while there is contact between the victim(s) and perpetrator(s).

Imputation – a procedure for entering a value for a specific data item where the response is missing or unusable.

Individual crime – crime affecting a single person rather than an entire household.

Deliberate damage of dwellings – unlawful and intentional damaging of dwellings

Motor vehicle vandalism – unlawful and intentional to a vehicle or parts of a vehicle

Murder – unlawful and intentional killing of another human being.

Multiple households – occurs when two or more households live in the same dwelling unit.

Note: If there are two or more households in the selected dwelling unit and they do not share resources, all households are to be interviewed. The whole dwelling unit has been given one chance of selection and all households located there were interviewed using separate questionnaires.

Panga – a large cutting knife with a broad blade.

Parole – early release of a prisoner who is then subject to continued monitoring as well as compliance with certain terms and conditions for a specified period.

Perpetrator – person(s) who committed the crime.

Personal property – asset(s) belonging to an individual rather than a group of persons.

Physical force – bodily power, strength, energy or might.

Note: In the context of this survey, physical force includes actions where the human body is used to compel/force someone to do something or to hurt or kill someone. It can include actions such as pushing, pressing, shoving, hitting, kicking, throttling, etc.

Police station – building or converted shipping container from which the police force operates and police officers do their duties.

Prison – a building in which a person is legally held as a punishment for crime he/she has committed or while awaiting trial.

Property crime – unlawful and intentional threatening or damaging or appropriation of threatening property belonging to other(s).

Prosecutor/state advocate – legal specialist (lawyer/advocate) whose job it is to make a case on behalf of the State against someone accused of criminal behaviour.

Robbery involving force – unlawfully obtaining property with use of force or threat of force against a person with intent to permanently or temporarily to withhold it from a person.

Sexual offences (including sexual assault, rape and domestic sexual abuse) – refers to grabbing, touching someone's private parts or sexually assaulting or raping someone.

Note: In terms of the Sexual Offences Act No 32 of 2007 section 5, (1) A person ('A') who unlawfully and intentionally sexually violates a complainant ('B'), without the consent of B, is guilty of the offence of sexual assault. (2) A person ('A') who unlawfully and intentionally inspires the belief in a complainant ('B') that B will be sexually violated is guilty of the offence of sexual assault.

Stick/club – a long bar or stick made of wood, plastic or other material and used as a weapon.

Theft – unlawful taking or obtaining of property with the intent to permanently deprive it from a person or organization without consent and without the use of force, threat of force or violence, coercion or deception.

Theft of motor vehicles (excluding hijacking) – unlawful taking or obtaining of vehicles with an engine, including cars, buses, lorries, construction and agricultural vehicles (excluding motorcycles) with the intent to permanently deprive it from a person or organization without consent and without the use of force, threat of force or violence, coercion or deception.

Threat – an intentional behaviour that causes fear of injury or harm.

Vandalism – deliberate damage to property belonging to someone else.

Violent crime – crime where a person was threatened, injured, or killed.

Weapon – an instrument used to cause harm or death to human beings or other living creatures.

Note: Includes knives, guns, pangas and knobkerries, metal or wooden bars/rods, broken glass, rocks, bricks, etc.

11. GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

CJS	Criminal Justice System
CV	Coefficient of Variation
DCS	Department of Correctional Services
DoJ & CD	Department of Justice and Constitutional Development
DPME	Department of Monitoring and Evaluation
DSD	Department of Social Development
DTS	Domestic Tourism Survey
DU	Dwelling unit
EA	Enumeration area
EC	Eastern Cape
FS	Free State
GCIS	Government Communications
GHS	General Household Survey
GP	Gauteng
ICVS	International Crime Victim Survey
ISS	Institute for Security Studies
JCPS	Justice and Crime Prevention and Security
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LP	Limpopo
MP	Mpumalanga
MS	Master sample
MTSF	Medium Term Strategic Framework
MVI	Multiple Victimisation Index
NC	Northern Cape
NDP	National Development Plan
NHTS	National Household Travel Survey
NPC	National Planning Commission
NW	North West
PSU	Primary Sampling Unit
RVI	Repeat Victimisation Index
SA	South Africa
SAPS	South African Police Service
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
VOCS	Victims of Crime Survey
WC	Western Cape