Statistics South Africa

SURVEY

VICTIMS OF CRIME

Statistics South Africa

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Victims of crime survey

Statistics South Africa
1998

Dr FM Orkin
Head

Note: In September 1998, the Central Statistical Service (CSS) changed its name to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). It is referred to by the new name throughout this publication.

Acknowledgements

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South African Police Districts

FAR NORTH

GIYANI

BUSHVELD

CENTRAL

LOWVELD

MARICO

PRETORIA

HIGHVELD

WEST RAND

NORTH RAND

MOLOPO

JOHANNESBURG

SOWETO

EAST RAND

MOOI RIVER

VAAL RAND

EASTERN HIGHVELD

DIAMOND FIELDS

NORTHERN FREE STATE

ULUNDI

EASTERN FREE STATE

TUGELA

UMFOLOZI

GORDONIA

MIDLANDS

SOUTHERN FREE STATE

DURBAN

UMZIMKULU

NAMAQUALAND

UPPER KAROO

DRAKENSBERG

UMTATA

KAROO

QUEENSTOWN

EAST LONDON

BOLAND

SOUTHERN CAPE

GRAHAMSTOWN

UITENHAGE

EASTERN METROPOLE

PORT ELIZABETH

WESTERN METROPOLE

Source: South African Police Services (SAPS)

KM

0   100   200

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Executive summary

Background

The *victims of crime survey* is the first national survey of its kind in South Africa. A countrywide, household-based survey, it examines crime from the point of view of the victim. While surveys of crime victims cannot replace police statistics, they can provide a rich source of information which will assist in the planning of crime prevention.

A victim survey can also examine the extent of reporting of crime, explore the perceptions that different people have about the police and police services, and act as a benchmark against which future surveys of the same nature can be compared.

This report gives an outline of the overall results of this survey. The data will be made available through Statistics South Africa for those wanting to do further analysis.

International surveys on victims of crime

Many countries have conducted victims of crime surveys. However, in those developing countries which have participated in a programme of international comparative studies, city surveys rather than countrywide ones were conducted.

These surveys show that, in cities of the developing world, inhabitants are at a high risk of crime victimisation. The highest level of victimisation is found in the cities of Sub-Saharan Africa, whilst the lowest is found in the cities of Asia. Property crime (theft from cars, burglary and attempted burglary, theft of personal property and car vandalism) is the most frequent form of victimisation, followed by violent crimes against the individual such as robbery with force and assault. Theft of bicycles is also a common crime, particularly in the developing world. Crime reporting in developing countries tends to be rather low – often less than 50%. Internationally, public opinion of police forces tends to be low.

South African research

In South Africa itself, a number of city surveys on crime victimisation have been conducted in the recent past. For example, the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) has conducted crime victimisation research in Johannesburg (Louw *et al,* 1998), Durban (Shaw, in press), Cape Town (Camerer *et al,* 1998) and Pretoria (Louw, 1998). The University of South Africa (UNISA) has conducted another Johannesburg-based city survey (Naudé *et al*, 1995). The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) has been conducting studies on crime for the past 20 years, but these do not focus specifically on victims.

South African studies show similar trends to those in other developing countries. For example, property crime is the most frequently-occurring type of crime in South African cities. This is followed by violent crimes against individuals, such as robbery and assault.

Commissioning of and assistance with this survey

The Department of Safety and Security (DSS) commissioned Statistics South Africa (Stats SA), South Africa's official statistics agency, to carry out this study. The survey was jointly funded by the DSS, and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

An advisory committee, consisting of representatives of the DSS, non-governmental organisations, researchers and the police, and a smaller executive committee of a sub-set of these members, was formed to give advice and assistance on all aspects of the survey. Technical assistance, particularly in questionnaire design and data analysis, was also received from the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) and researchers and consultants from Statistics Sweden.

Survey methodology

The questionnaire design, the pilot study, sampling techniques, workshops, publicity, training of fieldworkers, fieldwork, computer programming, data capture, analysis and report writing constituted the research methodology used in this survey.

- The survey questionnaire was based on the standard international questionnaire, but with certain modifications for use in South Africa.
- Both the questionnaire and the methodology were tested by means of piloting.
- The sample consisted of 4 000 people aged 16 years or more. This sample size may be too small, in some instances, for area-level analysis, although it does give a good overall national picture.
- During the course of the survey, two workshops were held, each for approximately 50 people, to discuss the survey and the results.
- Fieldwork was conducted over a two-week period, between 16 and 27 March 1998. An extra week was allowed for carrying out check-back procedures and finalising interviews. The survey was favourably received, and 97% of the sample was realised.
- The 1996 population census formed the basis for weighting the data to the population of the country. Two different sets of weights were used for this study, i.e. household and individual weights.
- In this study, population group or race was used as a classification variable so that the effects of crime on those groups which were disadvantaged in the past could be studied. Self-classification, rather than a legal definition formed the basis of this categorisation.

Definitions of crimes

The definitions of crimes as used in this survey are set out in Box 1 on page 9 of this report.

Four concepts, i.e. household versus individual crimes, and violent versus non-violent crimes, need further explanation.

Household crimes are those which are committed against members of a household, for example burglary of property from a dwelling. Murder is regarded as a household crime, since the victim can no longer describe its effects.

Individual crimes affect a single person rather than a household. Sexual assault is an example of such a crime. The distinction drawn between household and individual crimes is based on UNICRI international methodology.

A violent crime can be committed against an individual or a household. It is usually a 'contact' crime, where the perpetrator comes in contact with, or confronts, the victim. Assault or hijacking are examples of this. The exception involves deliberate damage to a dwelling, where contact does not always occur.

A non-violent crime is a property crime, for example car theft, burglary, fraud or theft of personal property.

Crimes against individuals are more often violent than crimes against households.

Survey results

Crimes committed against households in 1997

- Twenty-one per cent of households experienced at least one crime during 1997.
- Housebreaking and burglary was the most common crime (7%) in 1997, followed by theft of livestock (5%).
- One household in 200 (45 000 households) experienced at least one incident of deliberate killing or murder in 1997.
- Among those households which owned or had access to certain items, theft of livestock was the most-common crime, and theft of bicycles the second most-common crime.
- In 1997, household crime rates were highest in Gauteng. Almost a quarter of all households in this province (24%) experienced at least one household crime during the year. In Northern Province, a low proportion of households (12%) experienced at least one crime in 1997.
- Households living in urban areas experienced about twice as much crime compared with households in non-urban areas.
- Household crime rates differ markedly by the police area in which the household lives. The Midlands police area in KwaZulu-Natal had the highest household crime rate (32%), followed by Johannesburg and East Rand (31% each), while the Giyani police area in Northern Province had the lowest (5%).
- In actual numbers, more poor households experience crime incidents than rich households.
- *Violent* household crimes include deliberate damage, burning or destruction of dwellings, deliberate killing or murder, and hijacking or attempted hijacking of motor vehicles. *Non-violent* household crimes include housebreaking and burglary, attempted housebreaking and burglary, theft of livestock, theft of motor vehicles (excluding hijacking), theft of goods from vehicles, motor vehicle vandalism, theft of motor cycles and scooters, and theft of bicycles.
- Non-violent household crimes were far more common in 1997 than violent household crimes (15% as against 3%).
- The higher the income category of the household, the higher the chance of experiencing at least one non-violent household crime, but violent household crime does not appear to be directly related to annual household income.
- Poor people are more likely, overall, to be the victims of crime, because they vastly outnumber the more affluent people.

Crimes committed against individuals in 1997

- Crimes committed against individuals affect a single person rather than an entire household, for example, stealing a person's camera mainly affects that particular person. Individual crimes include the following: sexual offences (including rape and domestic sexual abuse), robbery involving force, assaults and threats of assault (including domestic violence), consumer fraud, corruption by public officials, and theft of personal property.
- Fifteen per cent of people aged 16 years or more, or about 3,8 million people in South Africa, experienced at least one individual crime during 1997.
- Theft of personal property was the most frequent crime, experienced by 5% of individuals, followed by assault (4%). Approximately one person in 200, or 0,4% of all individuals, experienced at least one sexual offence.
- A higher proportion of coloured and white respondents were susceptible to individual crime in 1997 than Africans and Indians. One in every six males (16%) experienced at least one individual crime in 1997, compared to slightly more than one in every eight females (13%).
- People in the younger age categories were more likely to have experienced at least one crime committed against them in 1997 than those in the older age categories.
- The percentage of crimes committed against individuals was highest in the Port Elizabeth and Lowveld (26% each) police areas, where unemployment among males tends to be high. In police districts which contain a large proportion of mineworkers living in hostels, for example, Northern Free State (24%), individual crime percentages also tend to be high. The percentage of individuals who experienced at least one crime in 1997 was lowest in the more sparsely populated and rural police areas, for example, Giyani (3%), and Central and Upper Karoo (5%).
- Among individuals aged 16 years or more in South Africa as a whole, 7% experienced at least one violent crime and 8% at least one non-violent crime in 1997.
- African and coloured people (7% each) were the most likely to have experienced violent crimes against individuals in 1997. The percentage of white (5%) and Indian (3%) respondents was lower. Non-violent crimes were experienced by a higher proportion of white respondents (14%) followed by coloureds (11%), while proportionately fewer Indian (9%) and African (8%) respondents aged 16 years or more experienced at least one non-violent crime in 1997.
- Regarding violent crimes committed against individuals in 1997, the higher the income, the lower the risk.
- Males were also more likely than females to have experienced all categories of violent crime against individuals except for sexual offences.

Circumstances surrounding the crime

- A large proportion of crimes are likely to occur in the environment in which a person lives.
- Individuals are highly likely to know the perpetrators of crimes such as assault and sexual offences.
- Where the victim knows the offender, it is highly likely to be a friend or relative.
- Where a weapon is used, it is highly likely to be a firearm or knife.

Reporting of crime

- The extent to which a household crime is reported to the police depends on the type of crime. Theft of a motor vehicle is most likely to be reported (95%), followed by murder (83%). Crimes least likely to be reported are theft of livestock (39%), theft of bicycles (40%), and attempted burglary or housebreaking (41%).
- Household crimes against those living in urban areas are more likely to be reported than household crimes in non-urban areas, where police are likely to be less-accessible.
- Overall, individual crimes tend to be less-frequently reported than household crimes. Theft of personal property (28%) is the least likely crime to be reported, followed by assault (38%), then robbery with force (41%) and then sexual offences (47%). The high percentage of reporting of sexual offences is surprising. Perhaps those who report sexual offences to a survey interviewer are the same type of people who report it to the police. Perhaps the number who experienced this crime is too small for further analysis.
- Males are more likely to report individual crimes committed against them than females. For example, 44% of males said that they had reported robbery with force, as against 37% of females.
- The reasons why people did not report a crime to the police were grouped together into four main categories:

  Police issues: the respondents believed that either the police would fail to solve crime, or else that some police are corrupt or inaccessible, or else that sometimes the police behaviour is inappropriate. In addition some respondents indicated that they had previously had bad experiences when dealing with the police, and others feared that there would be reprisals when reporting to the police, while yet others held the belief that police would not take the incident seriously.

  Perpetrator issues: some respondents did not report a crime to the police because they could not identify the perpetrator(s), while others feared reprisals from the perpetrator(s).

  Crime-related issues: some respondents did not report a crime because it was not serious enough, others did not report it because items stolen were not insured or old or not valuable, while others claimed that they had solved the crime themselves.

  Self-blame issues: these included fear of being blamed, belief that it was partly the victim's own fault, and fear of being exposed or embarrassed.

Satisfaction with the service when reporting to the police

- Respondents who reported certain household crimes to the police were asked, by type of crime, to indicate whether or not they were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter. More than half the respondents (52%) were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the crime of vehicle theft. This proportion decreased to 47% amongst those reporting hijacking or attempted hijacking, and then to 37% amongst those reporting either murder or deliberate killing, or housebreaking and burglary.
- Respondents who reported certain individual crimes to the police were also asked to indicate whether or not they were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter on which they reported. Sixty-four per cent of those who reported sexual offences were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the crime. Special measures introduced to deal with this type of crime may account in part for this high percentage of satisfaction. This proportion decreased to 41% amongst those reporting robbery with force, and then to 26% amongst those reporting assault.

- In general, there were four main reasons why people were dissatisfied with the way in which police dealt with the crime after it was reported: police did not do enough to solve the case, they showed a lack of interest, they failed to find or arrest the offender, or they failed to recover the stolen property. The percentage of responses for each reason varied by the type of crime.

The public's satisfaction with policing in their neighbourhood

- All respondents, irrespective of whether or not they personally or their households had experienced any crime in the past five years (or in 1997), were asked to indicate, taking everything into account, how satisfied they were with the way in which the police in their neighbourhood were controlling crime.
- Thirty-eight per cent of respondents indicated that they were satisfied, while 23% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and 40% were dissatisfied.
- More than half of those living in Northern Cape (58%), Western Cape (54%) and Free State (51%) are satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.
- On the other hand, relatively few people in North West (37%), Mpumalanga (37%), KwaZulu-Natal (34%) and Gauteng (25%) are satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.
- Seven in every ten respondents in the police areas of Gordonia (71%) and in Southern Cape (70%) are satisfied with the way in which police are controlling in their neighbourhood. On the other hand, fewer than three in every ten respondents in the police areas of Lowveld (28%), Soweto (27%), Drakensberg (26%), Durban (23%), Johannesburg (23%), Central (22%), East Rand (22%), North Rand (21%) and Vaal Rand (20%) are satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.
- As far as annual household income is concerned, those in the highest income group (R96 000 or more per annum) were more likely to be dissatisfied (44%) than those in the other income groups.

The effectiveness of the police since the April 1994 elections

- All respondents, irrespective of whether or not they had experienced crime in the previous five years (or in 1997), were asked to focus on the time period since South Africa's first democratic elections in April 1994, and whether they thought the police had become more effective, had stayed the same or had become less effective in the area where they live since that date.
- A rather small proportion of respondents believed that the police had become more effective (26%) since that date, while a larger proportion believed they had stayed the same (32%), and an even larger proportion believed they had become less effective (42%).
- If one adds the proportion of those which thought the police had become more effective with the proportion of those which thought the police had stayed the same (26% and 32%), then 58% thought that the police had not become worse since the elections.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Background

The *victims of crime survey* described in this report is the first national survey of its kind in South Africa. Prior to this study, diverse research had been conducted on victims of crime, but these studies did not cover the entire country. In particular, they excluded rural areas. The only information available on criminal activities in the country as a whole was through police and court records.

While these records are highly valuable sources of statistics about criminal activity, they rely largely on the extent to which the reporting of crimes takes place. Those incidents which are not reported by victims remain largely unknown and unrecorded. Police and court records allow for the monitoring of policing and of the criminal justice system. But they do not necessarily give enough detail on crime from the point of view of the victims.

An important supplementary way of gaining an understanding of crimes, and of improving planning for crime prevention, is by speaking to citizens to find out about their experiences of crime and the criminal justice system. A survey which attempts to do this is known either as a victimisation, or victims of crime or, else simply, a victim, survey.

Through a victim survey such as this one, it is also possible to examine the extent of reporting of crime and to learn about the perceptions that different people have about the police and police services. Victims of crime surveys cannot replace police statistics but they can provide a rich source of information on additional aspects of crime.

A victim survey can also act as a benchmark against which future surveys of the same nature can be compared. This comparison, through repeated cross-sectional surveys, enables the monitoring of change in:

- the patterns and extent of crime;
- the reporting of crime; and
- citizens' perceptions of police and police services.

International surveys on victims of crime

Victimisation surveys have been conducted in many countries. Some, for example those carried out in the USA, the Netherlands and Finland, have formed the basis for the development of internationally comparable studies (Zvekic and Alvazzi Del Frate, 1995).

The first international survey of crime victimisation was carried out in 1989 in 14 industrialised countries by means of telephone interviews (in Spain, however, part of the sample was interviewed face-to-face). This exercise was followed by another series of comparable surveys carried out mainly in 1992, but also in 1993 and 1994 in a few countries, which were co-ordinated by an International Working Group. A United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) gave assistance to selected developing countries, so that they could participate in international comparisons (Zvekic and Alvazzi Del Frate, 1995). A questionnaire was used in all countries participating in the study.

In the developing countries which were taking part in these internationally comparative studies, city surveys rather than countrywide studies were conducted, by means of face-to-face interviews. The African cities which were selected for participation in the study were: Tunis in Tunisia (Bchir, 1998), Cairo in Egypt (El-Magdoub, 1998), Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania (Safari, 1998), Kampala in Uganda (Ssamula, 1998) and Johannesburg in South Africa (Naude *et al*, 1998). This last survey is discussed in more detail in the section on South African research.

In general, these surveys show that, in cities of the developing world, inhabitants are at a high risk of crime victimisation. The highest level of victimisation is found in cities in Sub-Saharan Africa, whilst the lowest is found in cities in Asia. Property crime (theft from cars, burglary and attempted burglary, theft of personal property and car vandalism) is the most frequent form of victimisation, followed by violent crimes against the individual such as robbery with force and assault. Theft of bicycles is also a common crime, particularly in the developing world, including countries such as China.

Crime reporting in developing countries tends to be rather low, and it is often lower than 50% for most crimes. It is highest for car theft (usually more than 85%), and lowest for personal theft and sexual incidents (usually less than 30%).

The reasons for not reporting crimes are threefold:

- they are related to the event itself including its perceived low level of seriousness;
- they are associated with solutions which do not involve law enforcement; and
- they are connected with negative attitudes towards the police.

Internationally, even in developed countries where the crime rate seems to have stabilised, opinions of the police force tend to be low (Louw *et al,* 1998).

Following on the international comparison which included developing countries, another round of international victimisation surveys took place in 1996. Conclusions drawn from this round indicate that 'many crime patterns seem universal' (Mayhew and White, 1997). For example, risks of property crime are higher than risks of violent crime and the two main determinants of property crime world-wide are urbanisation, which increases its rate, and affluence, which decreases its rate.

South African research

In South Africa itself, a number of city surveys on crime victimisation have been conducted in the recent past. For example, the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) has conducted crime victimisation research in Johannesburg (Louw *et al,* 1998), Durban (Shaw, in press), Cape Town (Camerer *et al,* 1998) and Pretoria (Louw, 1998). These have been conducted as street-based surveys with quota samples, rather than as household-based surveys, using probability sampling methods. They have focused on crime in the metropolitan and the large urban areas, while rural and smaller urban areas have been excluded. They have been based on the standard international questionnaire, but with some modifications and additions.

Another Johannesburg-based city survey, conducted by the University of South Africa (UNISA), was part of the previously mentioned UNICRI international comparison exercise. It was based on households in the Greater Johannesburg metropolitan area, and made use of systematic sampling, stratified by population group and type of dwelling. It was conducted in 1993, using the standard international questionnaire with some slight modifications (Naude *et al*, 1995).

Other studies on crime in South Africa, conducted by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), have been taking place for 20 years. They include public opinion surveys, which tend to focus on attitudes towards safety and fear of crime, rather than on victimisation (Glanz, 1994), focus group discussions (Letsebe *et al*, 1998) and a combination of qualitative and quantitative research. For example, in Midrand, both qualitative and quantitative research techniques were used to develop a model for a community-based crime prevention strategy (Schurink *et al*, 1998).

South African studies reveal trends similar to those in other developing countries. For example, property crime is the most frequently occurring type of crime in South African cities. This is followed by violent crimes against individuals, such as robbery and assault. In the ISS Johannesburg study, for instance, a striking finding was that

> the incidence of burglary, robbery, assault and car theft … does not differ markedly from that of urban areas in other countries. Indeed, in some cases, rates of both property and violent crimes are lower here than in certain African, Latin American and Central and Eastern European countries (Louw *et al*, 1998, p.18).

In common with most other countries, negative attitudes towards the police tend to be predominant in South African cities. For example, of the people interviewed in Cape Town, more than half (53%) thought that the police were not doing a good job in controlling crime. In particular, the coloured population (67%) were likely to think that the police were doing a poor job (Camerer *et al*, 1998, p. 94).

Africans in South African cities are at greater risk of experiencing violent crimes than those categorised into other population groups. This is similar to the outcome of a national survey in the United States of America, where the young black males were found to be most susceptible to violent crime (Perkins and Klaus, 1996).

The present study took place against this background of a high degree of fear of crime (Louw *et al*, 1998) and misperceptions about the extent of crime in South Africa.

The first South African nationwide victims of crime survey

The *victims of crime survey* described in this report was designed to place the victim in the context of the household in which he or she lives, and to link crime patterns and victimisation to life circumstances, including:

- geographic variables such as province, living in an urban or a non-urban milieu, and type of settlement (for example, formal residential area, informal settlement, traditional rural area or commercial farm);
- demographic variables such as gender, age and population group; and
- socio-economic variables such as income and education.

Commissioning of and assistance with the survey

The Department of Safety and Security (DSS) commissioned Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) to carry out this study. The survey was jointly funded by the DSS, and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

An advisory committee, consisting of representatives of the DSS, non-governmental organisations, researchers and the police, was formed to give advice and assistance on all aspects of the survey. In addition, a smaller executive committee was set up as a sub-group of the advisory committee to meet more regularly, and to monitor the progress of the project. The names of participants in this committee are set out in the Acknowledgements section. Technical assistance, particularly in questionnaire design and data analysis, was also received from UNICRI researchers and from consultants from Statistics Sweden.

Aims of the survey

The survey aimed to:

- conduct the first national benchmark household victimisation survey in South Africa;
- collect information to feed into the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) on the nature, extent and patterns of crime from the perspective of victims;
- examine the extent of crime reporting for different types of crimes;
- obtain a picture of the perceptions that members of the public hold of police and policing;
- look at the type of support structures that exist for victims of crime;
- determine the crime prevention measures that South Africans use; and
- compare, where possible, South African crime patterns and reporting behaviour with those in other countries.

Survey methodology

The questionnaire design, the pilot study, sampling techniques, workshops, publicity, training of fieldworkers, fieldwork, computer programming, data capture, analysis and report writing constituted the research methodology used in this survey, as discussed below.

The questionnaire

The questionnaire used for this survey was based on the standard international questionnaire, but with certain modifications.

The international questionnaire covers 11 main crimes (theft of a car or other motor vehicle; theft from a car or other vehicle; car vandalism; theft of a motor cycle or scooter; theft of a bicycle; burglary or housebreaking; attempted burglary; robbery with force; personal theft; sexual incidents and assault); and two supplementary crimes (consumer fraud and corruption). In the South African questionnaire, the following crimes were added on the recommendation of the advisory committee to meet specific South African needs: theft of livestock, poultry and other animals; hijacking or attempted hijacking of vehicles; deliberate damage, burning or destruction of dwellings; and deliberate killing or murder.

- The questions on theft of livestock, poultry and other animals were included because this type of crime is likely to affect the livelihoods of rural inhabitants, including those from previously disadvantaged communities. For subsistence farmers in particular, this type of theft is likely to have severe economic consequences.
- The questions on burning and deliberate damage to vehicles were added because these crimes were commonplace just prior to the first democratic elections in the country. Indeed, there were a number of these incidents after the elections, for example in KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng. Household-based crime surveys in other countries examine similar types of incidents. The *British crime survey,* for example, examines the risk of fire in the home (Budd and Mayhew, 1997).
- The questions on hijacking or attempted hijacking were added because this type of crime is perceived as being highly prevalent, particularly in the more affluent suburbs of South African cities. Hijacking as a crime was also covered in the city surveys of the ISS (see, for example, Louw, 1998).
- The questions on murder were added to this survey, in common with the South African ISS city victimisation studies (see for example, Louw, 1998), because of beliefs that it is a highly prevalent crime in this country. In some other countries, for example the USA, murder statistics are obtained from local police agency statistics (Perkins and Klaus, 1996) and integrated into the victimisation report.

The wording of some of the questions was modified after the pilot study described below, to make them more understandable to South Africans. In addition, the categories in some of the questions were sub-divided into smaller sub-categories to probe more deeply into attitudes and reasons, for example for non-reporting. The order in which the questions were asked was also slightly changed. For example, theft of cars was not asked first, since the members of the advisory group felt that it affected only a minority of people in the country, and therefore should not be given such high prominence. The questions on sexual offences were put to both males and females, even though internationally they are usually put only to women. Finally, the questionnaire was translated into South Africa's 11 official languages before going into field with the main study.

The pilot study

Both the questionnaire and the methodology were tested by means of piloting.

- The questionnaire was first tested using behind-the-glass viewing techniques.
- Respondents selected according to pre-defined criteria were interviewed behind a one-way mirror, with researchers watching on the other side (with the respondents' awareness and permission).
- The researchers were able to observe the victims' responses to questions pertaining to particular crimes, thus enabling them to reformulate sensitive questions, and to make other questions which were not clearly understood more easily understandable.
- A pilot survey among 300 households was also carried out in all nine provinces, mainly to further test the questionnaire and the logistics in field.
- A debriefing session, attended by those who carried out the pilot survey in the provinces, was conducted soon after it was completed.
- During this session, a number of problems and issues related to fieldwork were discussed. For example, it was confirmed that the gender of the fieldworker was an important consideration, particularly when asking about sexual incidents. The need for sensitivity and the building of rapport was also stressed. Other problems related to privacy during the interview, particularly in large households, and male attitudes in traditional rural households. For example, on occasion the

male head of the household refused to allow anyone other than himself to be interviewed.
- Strategies for tackling these difficulties were developed.

Sampling techniques

The sample consisted of 4 000 people aged 16 years or more. It was drawn in three stages.

- Firstly, a probability sample of 800 enumerator areas (EAs) was drawn from the sampling frame of 86 000 EAs, as demarcated for the 1996 population census. This sample was stratified explicitly by province, and implicitly by the 42 police districts of the country.
- Secondly, within each of the 800 EAs, five households were selected for interviewing, using systematic sampling.
- Thirdly, one respondent aged 16 years or more was selected to be interviewed in each of the five households in each sampled EA. This person was chosen using a table of random numbers. Once a respondent had been selected, fieldworkers were instructed to make sure that they interviewed only that specific person and nobody else. In case of non-contacts with that person, repeated call-backs (at least three) had to be made. There were no substitutions for refusals or non-contacts.

Workshops

During the course of the survey, two workshops were held, each for approximately 50 people. Participants included representatives from various government departments, for example Welfare and Education, non-governmental organisations, researchers and other stakeholders.

- In the first workshop, the questionnaire was discussed. Following on the workshop, some of the questions were modified, based on these discussions.
- In the next workshop, the first results coming out of the survey were presented and debated. This workshop had an impact on deciding what information should be contained in this report.

Publicity

Publicity was given to the survey to encourage people to participate, before carrying out the fieldwork. This campaign was organised by the DSS.

- Pamphlets in various official languages were distributed to households within the 800 EAs selected for the survey.
- Posters were put up in prominent public places in each of these EAs.
- The staff members of the DSS participated in radio talk-shows to explain and discuss the research and its purpose.

Training of fieldworkers

Training was planned centrally and conducted at two levels.

- Firstly, training was provided for the Stats SA fieldwork managers responsible for planning, organising and supervising household survey fieldwork in each of the nine provinces.

This training took place over the three days prior to the pilot survey, since the survey managers were directly responsible for conducting the pilot survey in each province.

The training was handled at the head office of Stats SA in Pretoria, by the Directorates of Human Resource Development and Household Surveys.

Emphasis was placed not only on questionnaire administration, record-keeping and logistics, but also on building rapport with respondents and handling sensitive situations.

- This was followed up with additional information on changes to the questionnaire and methodology before the main fieldwork, but after the debriefing sessions following on the pilot survey.
- The second level of training was for fieldworkers and fieldwork supervisors. This training was conducted by the fieldwork managers in each province. During training, members of staff from head office visited each of the provinces to monitor its progress and to assist where necessary.

Fieldwork

Fieldwork was conducted over a two-week period, between 16 and 27 March 1998. An extra week was allowed for carrying out check-back procedures and finalising interviews.

- Fieldwork was organised through teams of five people, each consisting of one supervisor and four fieldworkers. There were 49 such fieldwork teams, each covering an average of 16 EAs. Each team had access to a vehicle.
- An approach letter bearing the fieldworker's name and ID number was sent out with each fieldworker, introducing him or her to the household.
- To reduce the incidence of a selected female respondent being confronted by a male interviewer, the ratio of male to female interviewers in a team was kept at 1:3.
- Teams were provided with contact telephones for organisations with specialist expertise in case their advice was needed during the course of fieldwork.
- A control questionnaire was administered by the fieldwork supervisor in one of the five households selected for participation in each enumerator area. This served as a check on the accuracy of the random selection process of the individual in the household, and of the quality of information collected.
- The survey was favourably received, and 97% of the sample was realised.

Computer programming, data coding, capture and analysis

The processes of computer programming, data capture and data analysis involved several steps:

- A tabulation plan was drawn up beforehand to assist with writing the computer programme for data capture.
- The data-input programme, containing both range and consistency checks, was written by a programmer working in Stats SA's Directorate of Household Surveys.
- Coding of the questionnaires and data capture were handled by temporary staff.
- Once the capturing was completed, additional editing programmes were written, and then the data-cleaning process was completed.
- Tables from the data set, based on the tabulation plan, and the data set itself were then made available for analysis and report-writing.

Weighting the data to the population of households and individuals

The 1996 population census formed the basis for weighting the data to the population of the country. Two different sets of weights were used for this study, i.e. household and individual weights.

- The questions posed on crimes committed against households were weighted to the population of households in the country, while those concerning crimes committed against individuals were weighted to the population of individuals aged 16 years or more.
- This explains why the two types of crimes are discussed separately in this report.
- Factors taken into account in weighting households were province, police area and EA type (urban formal, urban informal, non-urban traditional, commercial farms and other types of non-urban areas, for example small villages or mission stations).
- Additional factors taken into account for individual weights were population group, age, gender and population growth.

Definitions of crimes

The definitions of crimes as they are used in this survey are set out in Box 1, on the next page. The terminology is the same as that used by UNICRI in international victim surveys. It differs from the vocabulary used by the South African Police Services (SAPS) when recording crimes, or from legal terms used to define crimes in the South African criminal justice system. The advantage of the terminology used here is that this study can be compared to surveys in other countries. In addition, the classification and coding of crimes by the SAPS and the legal system in South Africa is presently highly complex, and is in the process of being modified. Other South African victim surveys (for example, Naude *et al*, 1995, Camerer *et al*, 1998) also use the international victim surveys terminology, rather than the SAPS or legal one, 'since the criminal justice process requires the collation of the offender's rather than the victim's details' (Louw, 1998, p. 1).

The terms used in the international classification for victimisation surveys are more easily understood by respondents than the complicated legal phrases used in the criminal justice system. In any case, Louw (1998) points out that terms such as burglary, robbery, vehicle theft, car hijacking, assault and murder have similar meanings for both the SAPS and the general public, and therefore do not present a problem.

Some crimes in victims surveys are broader in concept than they are in police statistics. For example, livestock theft as it is defined here includes poultry and other animals which are excluded in the definition used by the police. Poultry theft can have a severe effect on the livelihood of subsistence farmers, and that is, why it is included.

Box 1: Definitions of crimes as they are used in this survey

- *Household crimes* are those crimes which are committed against people living together, eating together and sharing resources. For example, burglary of property from a dwelling is a crime committed against a household, rather than against an individual, since household goods are usually shared or used by all members. Vehicle theft is a household crime, since vehicles are usually shared by or made available for all household members. Household crimes can be divided into those that are violent and those that are non-violent.
- *Violent household crimes*
  - *Deliberate damage, burning or destruction of dwellings* includes acts of deliberately setting fire to, or damaging a household's dwelling, but excludes forced removals.
  - *Deliberate killing or murder* includes a deliberately inflicted death, which could have happened during housebreaking, hijacking, assault including domestic violence, rape or in any other circumstances. It is regarded as a household crime, since the individual to whom it happened cannot report its occurrence.
  - *Hijacking/attempted hijacking of motor vehicles* occurs when someone steals or attempts to steal a car, van, truck or bakkie when a member or members of the household are inside, or just outside the vehicle. With the exception of deliberate damage to dwellings, all violent household crimes are 'contact' crimes, where the perpetrator comes in contact with the victim.
- *Non-violent household crimes*
  - *Housebreaking and burglary* occurs when someone breaks into the dwelling without permission and steals or attempts to steal something.
  - *Attempted housebreaking and burglary* occurs when there is evidence that someone tried to get into the dwelling unsuccessfully, for example, damage to locks, doors or windows, or scratches around the lock.
  - *Theft* of livestock, poultry and other animals involves the actual stealing of animals such as cattle, sheep, goats and chickens.
  - *Theft of motor vehicles (excluding hijacking)* occurs when somebody steals a car, van, truck or bakkie when nobody is present in the vehicle.
  - *Theft of goods from vehicles* includes theft of car radios or goods left in the car or parts of the car such as a car mirror or spare tyre.
  - *Motor vehicle vandalism* happens when someone deliberately damages a vehicle or parts of a vehicle, such as a car, van, truck or bakkie, for example through scratching the paint-work.
  - *Theft of motor cycles and scooters* excludes bicycles.
  - *Theft of bicycles.*
  - All *non-violent household crimes* are property crimes.
- *Individual crimes* affect a single person rather than an entire household, for example, stealing a camera. Individual crimes can also be classified into violent and non-violent incidents.
- *Violent individual crimes*
  - *Sexual offences (including rape and domestic sexual abuse)* include grabbing, touching or sexually assaulting or raping someone.
  - *Robbery involving force* involves taking something from a person by the use of force or the threat of force, for example, pointing a knife at someone.
  - *Assaults and threats of assault (including domestic violence)* include being attacked, physically beaten or threatened by an attacker in a frightening way without the attacker taking anything from the victim.
  - All *violent individual crimes* are 'contact' crimes.
- *Non-violent individual crimes*
  - *Fraud* means consumer fraud, or someone cheating another person by selling him or her something inferior, or delivering a service of inferior quality, or selling the wrong quantity.
  - *Corruption by public officials* involves public officials such as police officers or customs officials accepting payment for services.
  - *Theft of personal property* includes pick-pocketing, or the theft of a purse, wallet, clothing, jewellery or sports equipment, without the use of or threat of force.
  - All *non-violent individual crimes* are property crimes.

This use of these definitions means that crime statistics recorded by the police and the data gathered from victims surveys are not directly comparable. Indeed, it is not the intention that they should be directly compared, because they are collected in different ways with different aims and objectives.

Data from victims of crime surveys supplement police records. They expand knowledge about crimes by examining them from a different perspective, rather than serving as a substitute for recorded crime statistics or as a comparative collection of data.

Other definitions used in this survey

Other definitions used in this survey, for example the meaning of an urban and a non-urban area, are given in Box 2.

Box 2: Definitions of non-crime terms used in this survey

- *A household* consists a group of people who live together for at least four nights a week, who eat together and who share resources; or of a single individual living alone.
- *Primary education* extends over seven years. It consists of the following school classes: Grade 1 to Grade 7.
- *Secondary education* follows on primary education, and extends over another five year period. It consists of Grades 8 to 12.
- *Higher education* consists of all education undertaken by those who have completed their Grade 12 at accredited institutions. Certificates, degrees and diplomas issued by an accredited institution are all regarded as examples of higher educational qualifications.
- An *urban* area is one which has been legally proclaimed as being urban. These include towns, cities and metropolitan areas.
- A *semi-urban* area is not part of a legally proclaimed urban area, but adjoins it. Informal settlements are examples of these types of areas. In this publication, *semi-urban* areas have been *included* with non-urban areas.
- All other areas are classified as *non-urban* or *rural*, including commercial farms, small settlements, rural villages and other areas which are further away from towns and cities.
- An urban *formal area* is one in which most houses, flats or other dwellings are brick structures.
- An urban *informal area* is one in which most of the dwellings are shacks or shanties.
- A *traditional non-urban area* is a rural area, usually in the former 'homelands', where most of the dwellings are traditional huts. Some small-scale subsistence agriculture occurs here.
- A *commercial farm area* consists mainly of large-scale, cultivated or grazing commercial farm lands.
- *Other non-urban areas* are areas which have not been classified elsewhere, for example mission stations and small villages.
- *Population group* describes the racial classification of a particular group of South African citizens. The previous government used this type of classification to divide the South African population into distinct groupings on which to base apartheid policies. Stats SA continues to use this classification wherever possible, since it clearly indicates the effects of discrimination of the past, and permits monitoring of policies to alleviate discrimination. In the past, population group was based on a legal definition, but it is now based on self-perception and self-classification.
- *A*n *African/black* person is someone who classifies himself or herself as such. The same applies to a *coloured, Indian/Asian or white* person. Thus, this classification does not necessarily correspond with the previous one where people were classified into population groups by law.

Strengths of victim surveys

Louw (1998, pp. 2-3) points out the following strengths of surveys focusing on victims of crime:

- They help to determine the extent of crime by reflecting the nature of those crimes which are not reported to the police.
- They identify who is most at risk with regard to particular crimes.
- They give a better understanding of particular types of crime, including where and when they are likely to occur, particularly those crimes which are poorly recorded in police statistics.
- They give clear indications of trends and patterns with regard to crime. For example, they indicate which types of crime occur most frequently, and which occur least frequently.
- They measure the extent of fear of crime among members of the public.
- They examine public opinion on police effectiveness and service delivery.
- They help to develop crime prevention strategies and appropriate interventions to assist victims.

Limitations of victim surveys

Zvekic and Alvazzi Del Frate (1995, p. 4) indicate the following limitations of victims surveys:

- They are prone to response errors, particularly with regard to failing memory.
- Victims may be reticent to discuss some of their experiences, for example in relation to crimes involving domestic violence and sexual offences. This leads to under-reporting.
- Respondents may fail to realise that an incident which they experienced may be relevant to the study.
- The crimes selected for discussion in victim surveys are limited, and may not necessarily cover all crimes affecting a household or an individual.
- Interviewers may differ in their ability to obtain sensitive information from respondents, giving data of variable quality.
- Response rates vary in different countries, and under different circumstances.

On balance, these authors believe that international crime victim surveys undercount the extent of crime. They focus on public perceptions of crime as expressed to interviewers, rather than the 'real experience'. Certain crimes, particularly those which are not perceived as being crimes, tend to be excluded. Louw (1998) supports this view.

On the other hand, there may be reason to believe that some crimes are over-counted. For example, people may remember the details of a serious crime which they experienced such as robbery, but not the exact dates, so they may include it in the five-year or one-year period which the questionnaire covers, even though the event occurred outside this time frame.

Nevertheless, these studies provide useful information to assist in the development of crime prevention strategies, and set out criminal justice information for informed decision-making. They indicate who is most at risk of crime, by variables such as age, population group and gender, and reveal crime patterns.

Layout of the rest of the report

Chapter 2 deals with household and individual crimes in the past five years (1993-1997).

- In the questionnaire, questions were asked regarding crimes committed against both households and individuals during the five-year period prior to the interview, i.e. from the beginning of 1993 to the end of 1997.
- For such an extended time period it is highly likely that the memory of a respondent, rather than the actual event, influences crime reporting. At least two different effects of memory may be observed – selective remembering and telescoping. For example, respondents may forget certain crimes that happened during the period, particularly crimes which they regarded as less serious; or they may mention crimes that happened beforehand, particularly more serious crimes, collapsing them into a shorter time span (Louw, 1998). The impact of such effects on the results is difficult to estimate.
- The main reason for asking questions about crime over a five-year period is to bring crimes that happened in the year just prior to the interview, i.e. 1997, into clearer focus. Therefore only a brief description of the findings over the five-year period will be given.

Chapter 3 deals with household crimes in 1997.

- Details are given on the relationship of variables such as age, population group, annual household income, and gender of the household head and the geographical location of the household and the experience of crime.
- The extent of both violent and non-violent household crimes in 1997 is described.

Chapter 4 deals with individual crimes in 1997.

- The extent of individual crimes during 1997 is examined, taking geographical variables into account.
- Demographic variables regarding the individual and their relationship to the experience of crime in 1997 is explored.
- Both violent and non-violent crimes in relation to the individual's life situation are discussed.

Chapter 5 considers circumstances surrounding certain crimes and the relationship of the victim to the offender.

- For certain crimes, such as assault, robbery and sexual offences, an indication is given of where these crimes occurred, for example in the home, or in a street or alley.
- Information is also given regarding whether or not the perpetrator knew the victim, and if so, what this relationship was, for example, a family member or friend.

Chapter 6 examines the extent of reporting of crimes to the police.

- The extent of overall crime reporting, and reporting of specific crimes is indicated.
- Reasons for failing to report crimes are identified and described.

Chapter 7 focuses on perceptions of police and policing among respondents.

- Amongst those who had reported a crime to the police, the extent of satisfaction with the service they received will be examined. Where respondents were dissatisfied, reasons for this

dissatisfaction are explored.

- Respondents were asked to indicate how satisfied they are overall with the way in which the police in their neighbourhood were controlling crime. The answers to these questions are analysed.
- Responses to a series of questions regarding the effectiveness of the police since South Africa's first democratic election (April 1994) are examined.

Chapter 8 examines assistance available for victims and preventative measures taken by the public to avoid crime.

Chapter 2

Household and individual crimes in the past five years (1993-1997)

Households
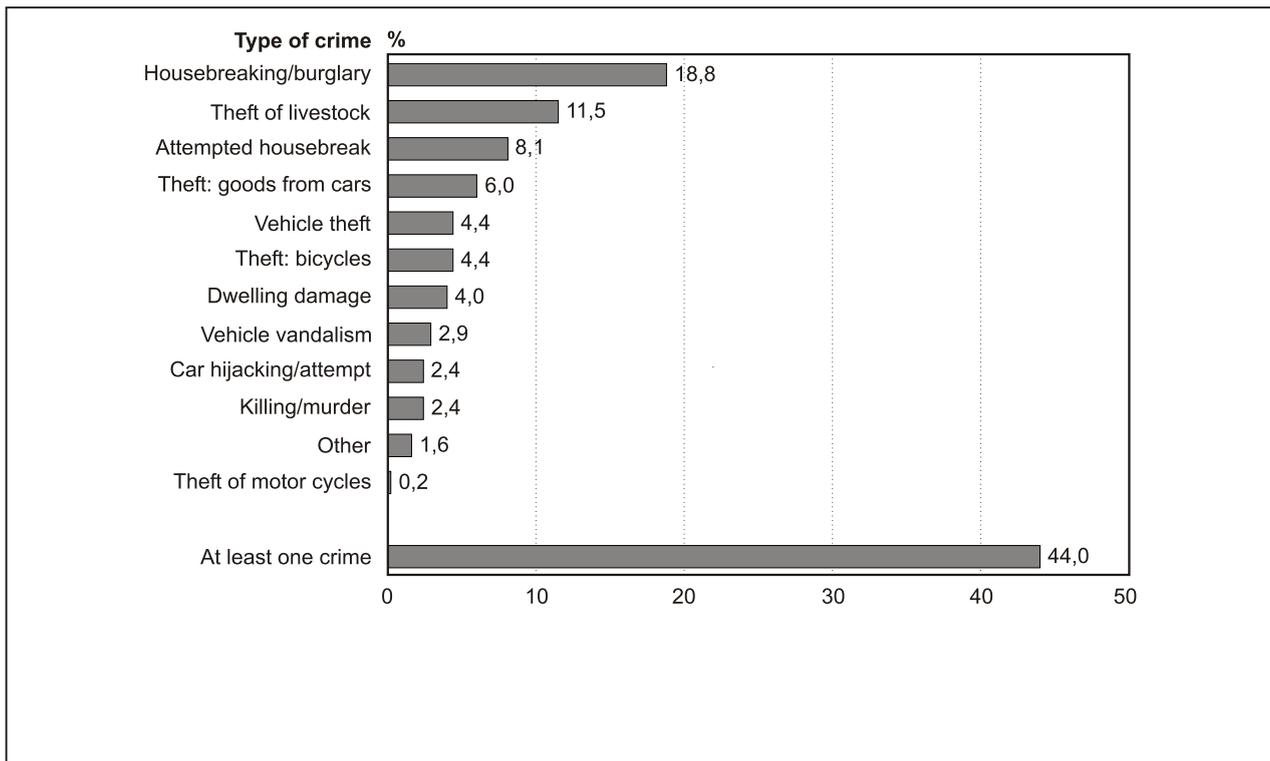
Figure 1: Percentage of households which had experienced specific crimes, and at least one crime, during the five-year period 1993-1997

- Forty-four per cent of all households in South Africa claimed to have experienced at least one crime during the five-year period 1993-1997.
- Housebreaking and burglary was the most common of all household crimes. Almost one-fifth of all households (19%) had experienced this crime at least once during the five-year period.
- Theft of livestock, poultry, etc., was the second most common type of crime, experienced by approximately one in every nine households (12%) over this time period.
- Attempted housebreaking was the third most common household crime (8%).
- Approximately one household in 40 (2%), or around 221 000 households, had experienced at least one deliberate killing or murder during the five-year period.

Type of crime	%
Theft of livestock*	35,0
Theft: bicycles*	24,9
Theft: goods in cars*	22,8
Housebreak/burglary•	18,8
Vehicle theft*	16,8
Vehicle vandalism*	10,8
Theft: motor cycles*	9,9
Attempted housebreak•	8,1
Dwelling damage•	4,0
Car hijack/attempt•	2,4
Killing/murder•	2,4
Other•	1,6

0   5   10   15   20   25   30   35   40

• % of all households
* % of households who own or have access to this item
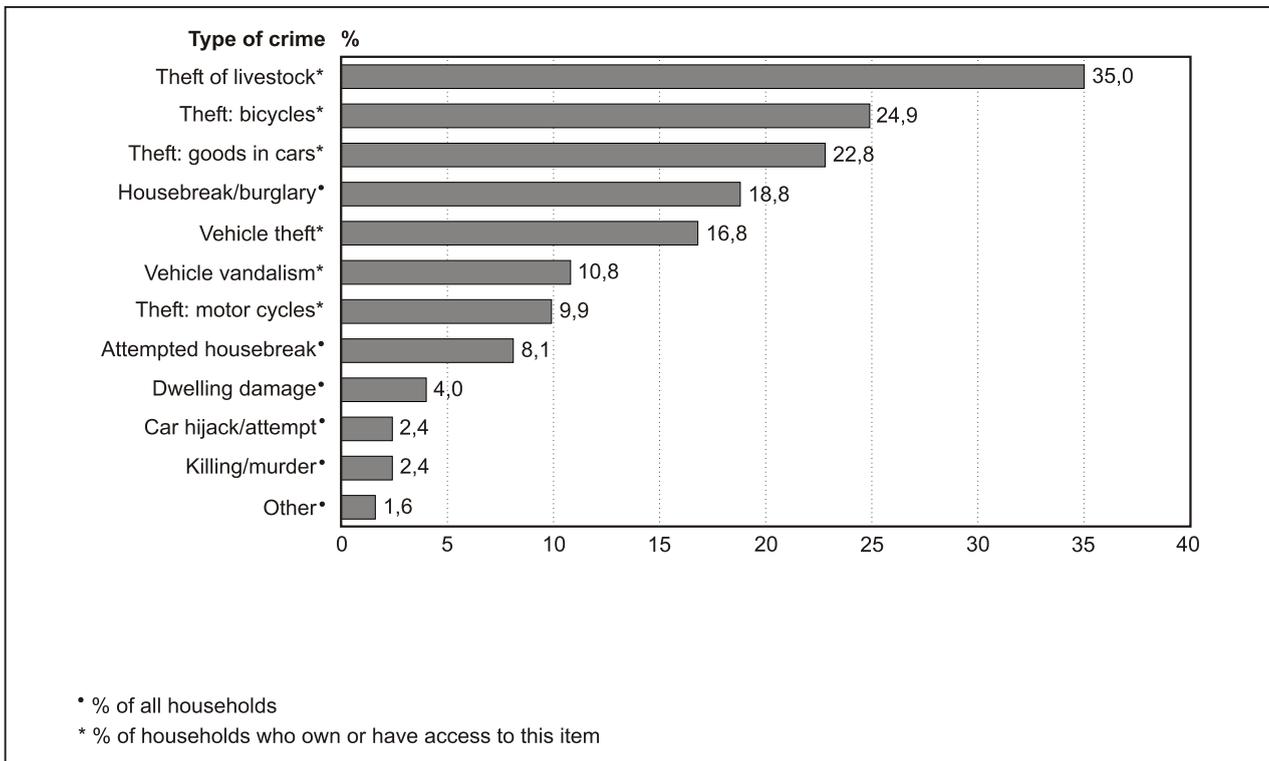
Figure 2: Percentage of households which owned or had access to relevant items, which had experienced specific crimes, and at least one crime, during the five-year period 1993-1997

- Ownership of, or access to, different items, is a prerequisite for some household crimes.
- Figure 2 shows the proportion of households which had ownership of or access to items such as cars, bicycles and cattle, and who had experienced a particular crime during the five-year period (those crimes marked * in the graph).
- On the other hand, certain crimes such as burglary or attempted burglary, could be common to all households (those crimes marked with• in the graph). For these crimes, the percentages are based on all households.
- The most common crime amongst those households which had ownership or access to specific items was livestock theft. Approximately three million households (33%) had access to these animals. Just over a third of households with access (35%) had experienced at least one incident of theft of livestock during 1993-1997.
- Among the 1,6 million households which owned or had access to a bicycle, a quarter (25%) had experienced at least one incident of bicycle theft over the five years.
- Almost a quarter (23%) of the 2,4 million households which owned or had access to motor vehicles had experienced theft of goods from motor vehicles during the five-year time span, while one in six households (17%) had experienced theft of a motor vehicle.

Individuals

Type of crime   **% of individuals**

Type of crime	%
Theft: personal prop.	10,8
Assault	10,7
Fraud	6,1
Robbery with force	5,4
Corruption	4,2
Sexual offences	1,4
At least one crime	28,5
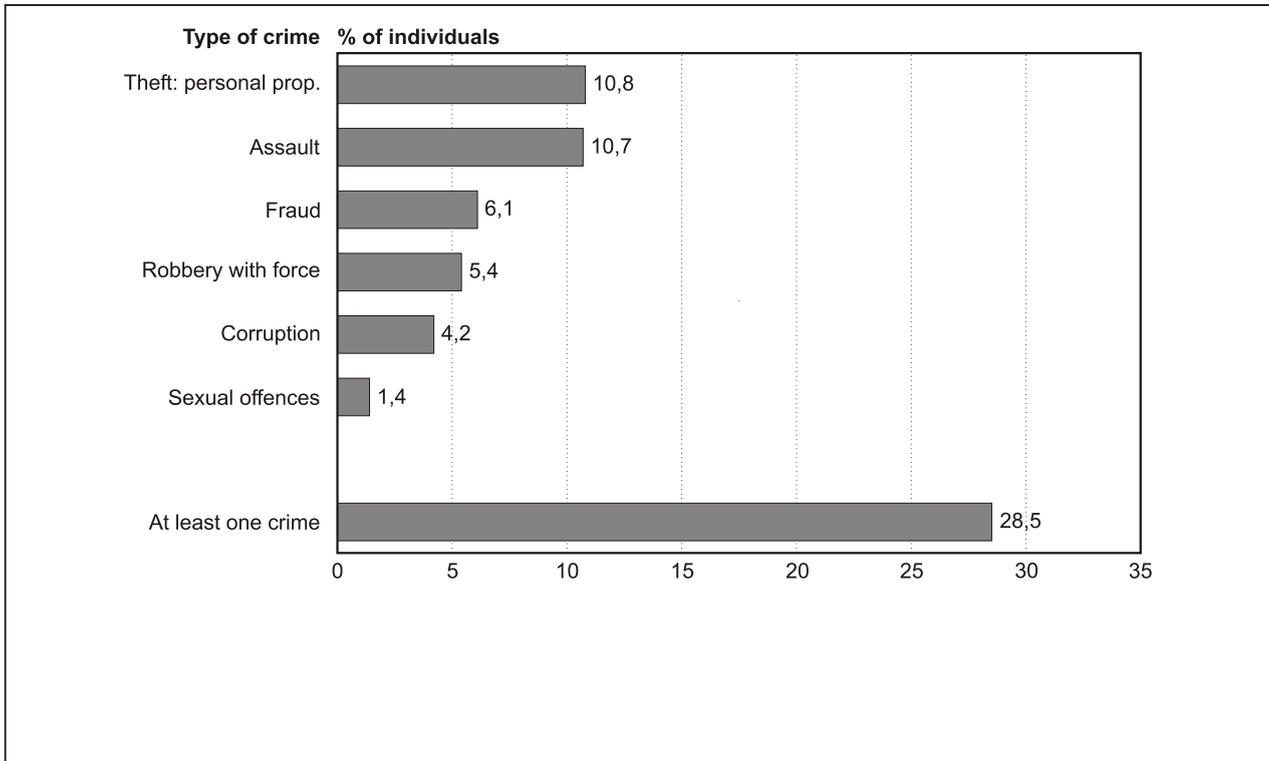
Figure 3: Percentage of individuals who had experienced specific crimes, and at least one crime, in the five-year period 1993-1997

- Approximately 29% of individuals in South Africa aged 16 years or more indicated that they had experienced at least one crime during the five-year period 1993-1997.
- The two most common individual crimes over the five-year period were theft of personal property and assault (11% for each).
- Among individuals aged 16 years or more, more than 1% had been victims of sexual offences between 1993 and 1997.

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Chapter 3

Household crimes experienced in 1997

Type of crime **%**

Type of crime	%
Housebreaking/burglary	7,2
Theft of livestock	4,9
Attempted housebreak	3,3
Theft: goods from cars	2,5
Theft: bicycles	1,9
Car hijacking/attempt	1,4
Vehicle vandalism	1,3
Vehicle theft	1,2
Dwelling damage	1,1
Killing/murder	0,5
Theft of motor cycles	0,0
At least one crime	20,6

(Axis: 0, 5, 10, 15, 20)
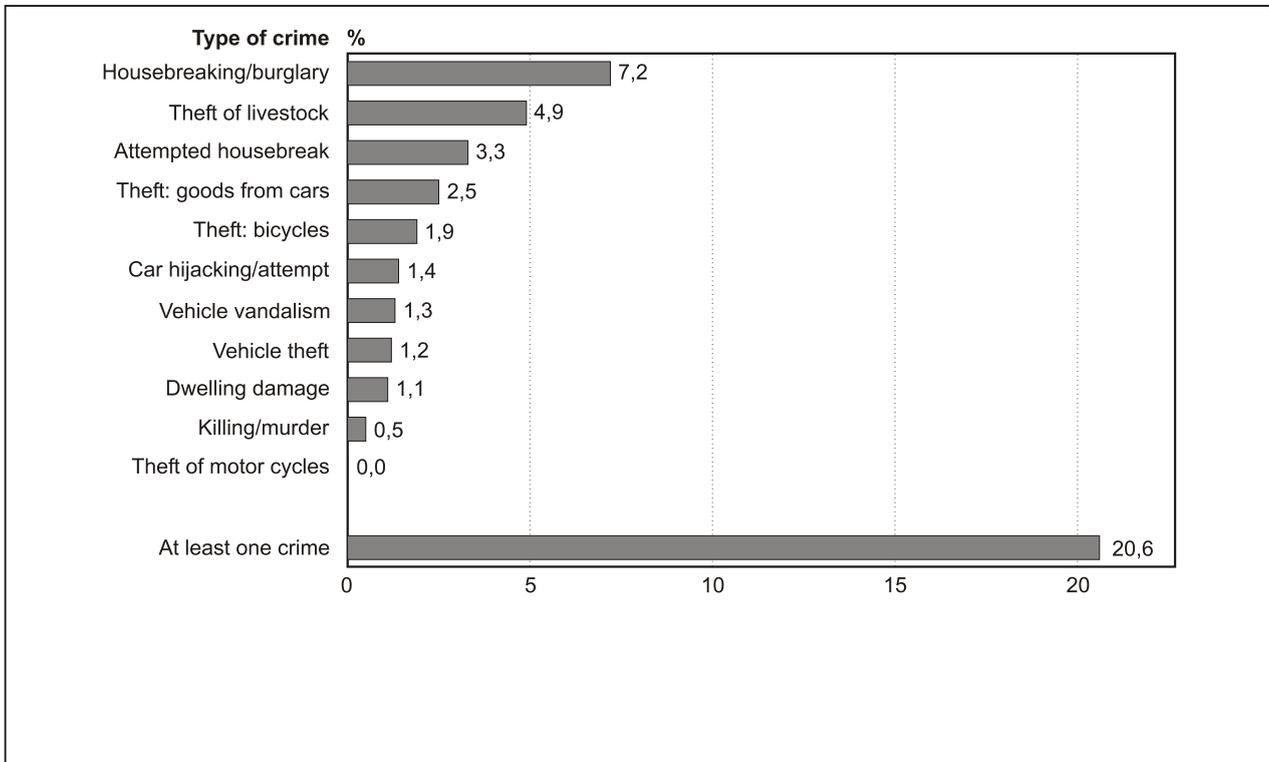
Figure 4: Percentage of households which experienced specific crimes, and at least one crime, in 1997

- Respondents in the survey were asked to focus on the year 1997 and to indicate whether their households had experienced specific crimes during 1997.
- Figure 4 shows that 21% of households had experienced at least one crime during this year.
- The patterns of crime victimisation are similar over the five-year and the one-year period.
- Housebreaking and burglary was the most common crime (7%) in 1997, followed by theft of livestock (5%). These were also the two most common crimes in 1993-1997.
- One household in 200 (45 000 households) had experienced at least one incident of deliberate killing or murder in 1997.

% of all households
Theft of livestock* 15,0
Theft: bicycles* 10,9
Theft: goods in cars* 9,4
Housebreak/burglary• 7,2
Vehicle vandalism* 4,8
Vehicle theft* 4,4
Attempted housebreak• 3,3
Car hijack/attempt• 1,4
Dwelling damage• 1,1
Killing/murder• 0,5
Theft: motor cycles* 0,0

• % of all households

* % of households who own or have access to this item
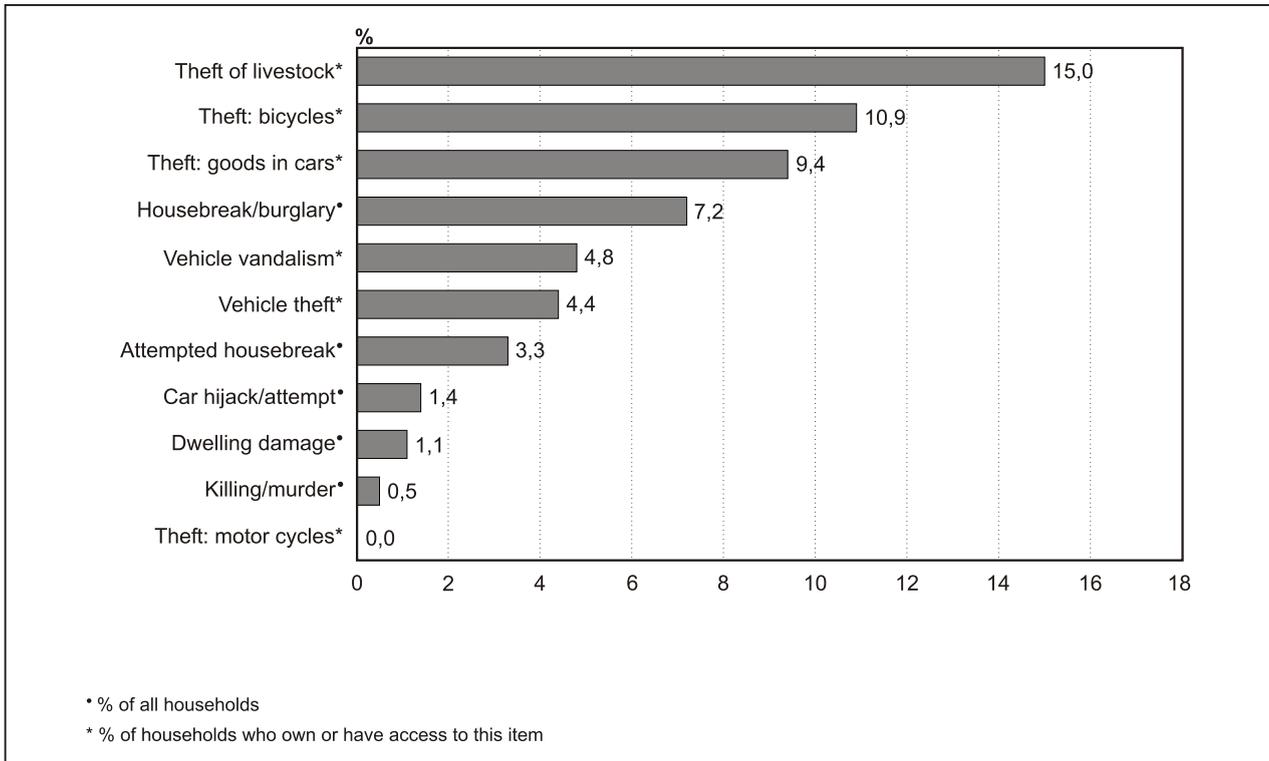
Figure 5: Percentage of households which owned or had access to relevant items, and which had experienced specific crimes in 1997

- Figure 5 shows the proportion of those households which owned or had access to certain items, and which had experienced crime in relation to that item in 1997.
- In common with the five-year period, theft of livestock was again the most common crime amongst households which owned livestock in 1997 (15%).
- Theft of bicycles was again the second most common crime, reported by 11% of those households which had bicycles.
- Theft of goods from motor vehicles was experienced by 9% of households which owned or had access to vehicles.
- The order of crimes amongst those who owned or had access to relevant items, from most to least common, remains almost the same for the five-year and the one-year period.
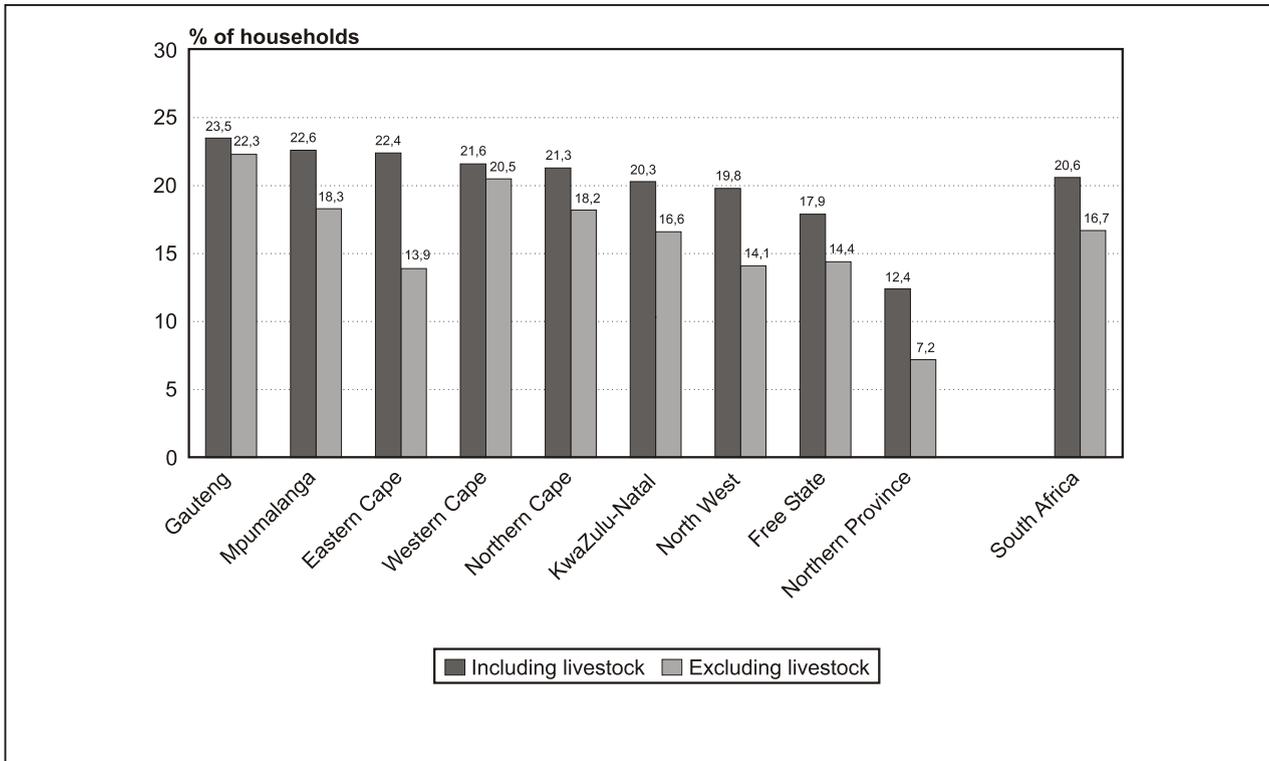
Figure 6: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one crime in 1997 (including and excluding livestock theft) by province

- Theft of livestock is a crime that is rarely reported. It does not form part of the international list of crimes. Nevertheless, it is an important crime affecting South Africans, particularly the poor. Therefore household crimes by province in 1997 are shown here with and without livestock theft.
- Figure 6 indicates that, in 1997, household crime rates were highest in Gauteng. Almost a quarter of all households (24%) had experienced at least one household crime during the year.
- The percentage point differences between the provinces are, in general, small, with the exception of Northern Province, where only 12% of households had experienced at least one crime in 1997 (about half that of Gauteng).
- Theft of livestock is more likely to occur in non-urban areas. Thus, when excluding this crime, the proportion of households which experienced at least one crime in 1997 by province changes somewhat.
- The percentage of households which had experienced at least one crime in Gauteng is not affected much when livestock thefts are included or excluded (24% versus 22%). However, some more-rural provinces, for example Eastern Cape (22% versus 14%), North West (20% versus 14%) and the Northern Province (12% versus 7%) have far smaller percentages of household crimes committed against them in 1997 when livestock is excluded.

**% **

Police Area	%
Midlands	32,0
Johannesburg	31,1
East Rand	30,9
Umtata	29,9
Grahamstown	28,6
Karoo	28,4
Southern Free State	28,0
Molopo	26,8
Boland	26,8
Lowveld	26,1
Pretoria	25,5
Diamond Fields	24,5
Umzimkulu	24,4
Mooi River	24,1
Tugela	23,5
Umfolozi	23,5
Drakensberg	23,0
Western Metropole	22,8
Eastern Highveld	22,3
West Rand	20,5
Highveld	20,3
Upper Karoo	19,7
Queenstown	19,4
Eastern Metropole	18,8
Gordonia	18,8
Central	18,7
Vaal Rand	17,5
Port Elizabeth	17,1
Bushveld	16,1
North Rand	15,7
Ulundi	15,5
Marico	14,6
Durban	14,3
Namaqualand	14,0
East London	13,8
Eastern Free State	13,7
Far North	12,6
Northern Free State	12,5
Uitenhage	11,9
Soweto•	11,5
Southern Cape	11,0
Giyani	5,3

• Household crimes are largely property crimes. They do not describe the full extent of crime in police areas such as Soweto.

Figure 7: Percentage of households in each police area which had experienced at least one household crime in 1997

22

- Household crime rates differ markedly by the police area in which the household lives.
- This graph should be interpreted with caution, because the number of households in some of the police areas is very small.
- Figure 7 indicates that the Midlands police area in KwaZulu-Natal had the highest household crime rate (32%), followed by Johannesburg and East Rand (31% each).
- The percentage of households which had experienced at least one crime in 1997 is surprisingly low in the police areas of Soweto (12%) and the Southern Cape (11%).
- Other relatively low, surprising percentages for household crimes in 1997, are found in the urban police areas of Durban and East London (each 14%). These percentages are comparable with the rural police areas of Namaqualand (14%) and the Far North (13%).
- The percentage of households which had experienced at least one household crime in 1997 is lowest in the Giyani police area in Northern Province (5%).
- Soweto is surprising, because household crimes are largely property-related. This does not reflect the extent of total crime in the area.

Income (Rands)	% of households
0 - 2 999	17,5
3 000 - 5 999	16,5
6 000 - 11 999	19,1
12 000 - 23 999	20,1
24 000 - 47 999	20,1
48 000 - 95 999	30,8
96 000 +	32,9

Excluding unstated and don't know
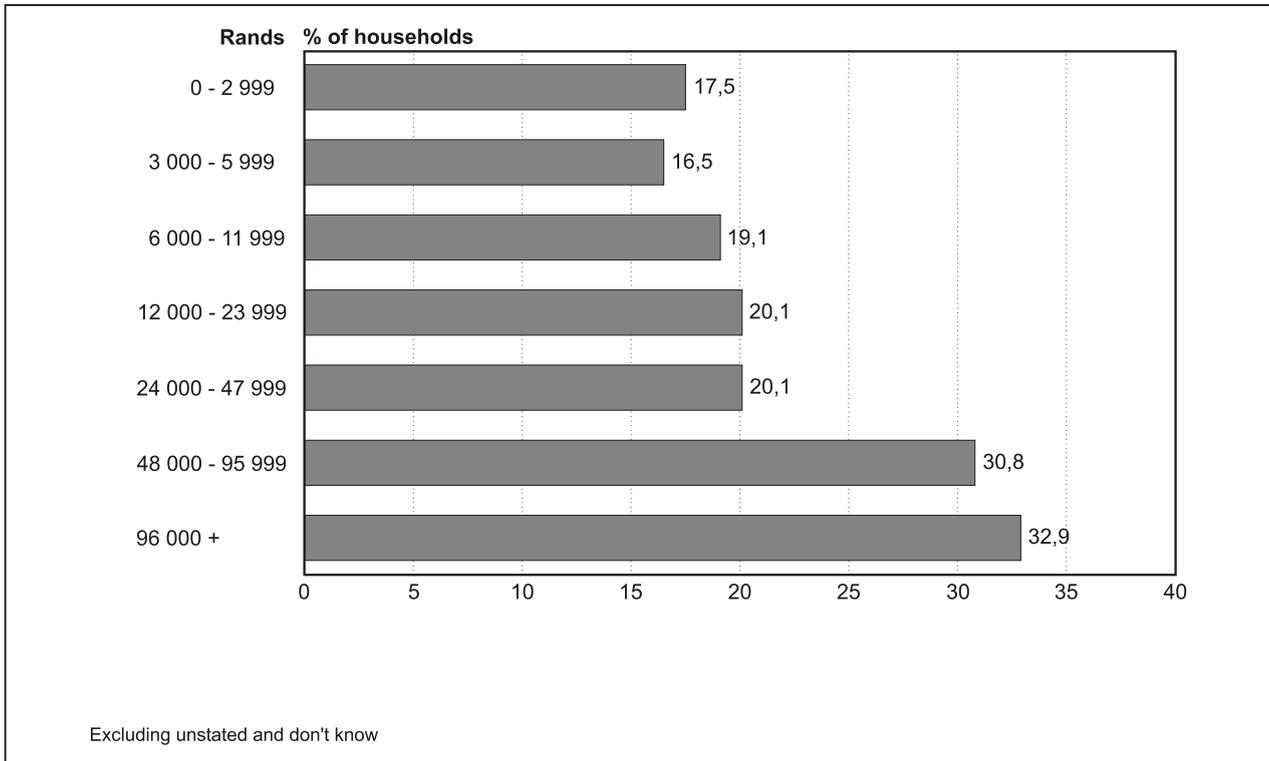
Figure 8: Percentage of households which experienced at least one crime in 1997 by annual total household income

- Figure 8 indicates that the higher the annual household income category, the larger the proportion of households in that category which had experienced at least one household crime in 1997.
- The households in the highest income group (R96 000 per annum or more) had experienced the highest proportion of crime in 1997 (33%).
- The households in the second highest income group category (R48 000 to R95 999) were not far behind with 31% of them having experienced at least one crime in 1997.
- Of the households in the lower income groups, between 17% and 20% had experienced at least one crime in 1997.
- When comparing this figure to Figure 9, however, it becomes clear that larger numbers of poorer households are victims of crime, compared to the numbers of affluent households.

Rands Thousands

Income (Rands)	Households (000s)
0 - 2 999	313,0
3 000 - 5 999	285,8
6 000 - 11 999	252,9
12 000 - 23 999	244,6
24 000 - 47 999	199,0
48 000 - 95 999	203,9
96 000 +	123,2

Excluding unstated and don't know
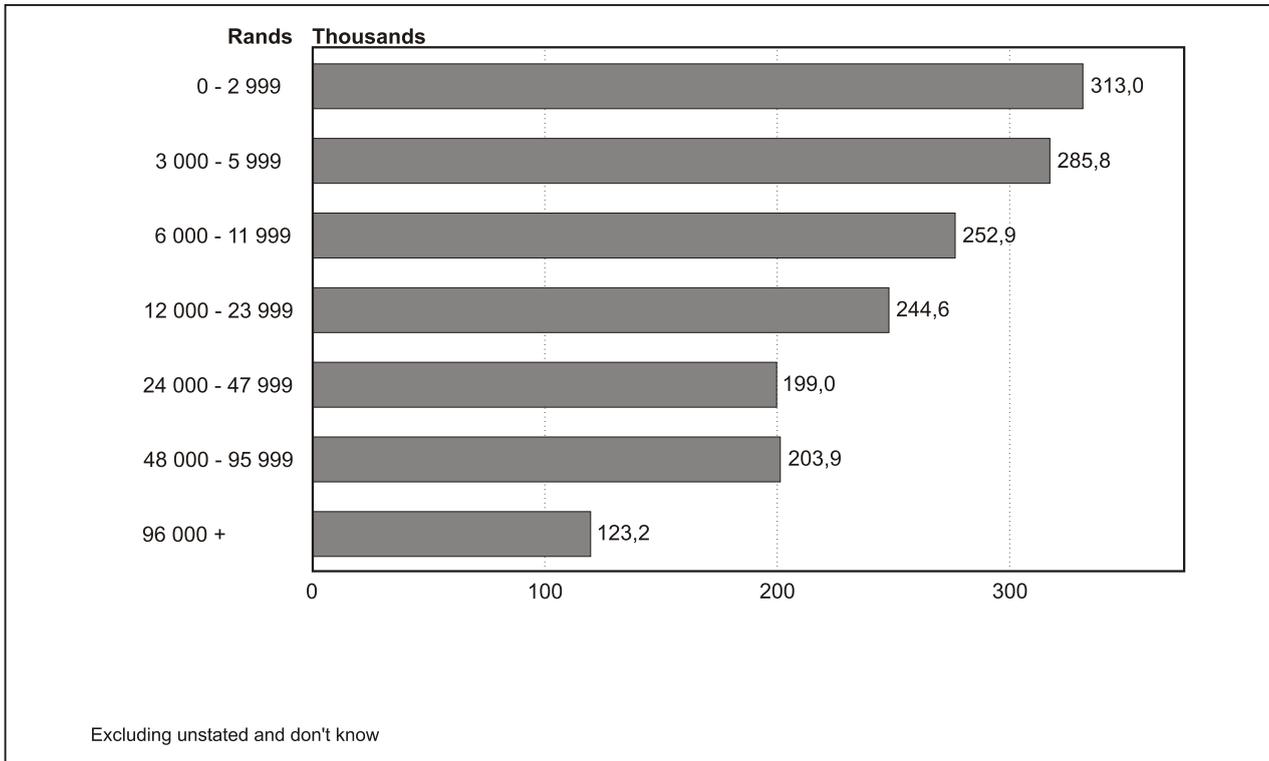
Figure 9: Number of households (000s) which experienced at least one crime in 1997 by annual total household income

- Examination of the actual number of households in each annual income category which had experienced at least one household crime in 1997, rather than the proportions of households within income categories, reveals a different picture of the extent of household crimes.
- Figure 9 shows that 313 000 households in the lowest and 286 000 in the second-lowest income categories had experienced at least one household crime in 1997, as against only 123 000 in the highest and 204 000 in the second-highest categories.
- Overall, the number of households in the lower income categories which had experienced at least one household crime in 1997 was far more than the number of households in the higher ones. Even though a smaller proportion of low income households experienced at least one crime in 1997, numerically there are three times as many households in the lowest than in the highest income categories that had experienced at least one household crime in 1997.

Violent and non-violent household crimes in 1997

% of households

Excluding unstated and livestock theft
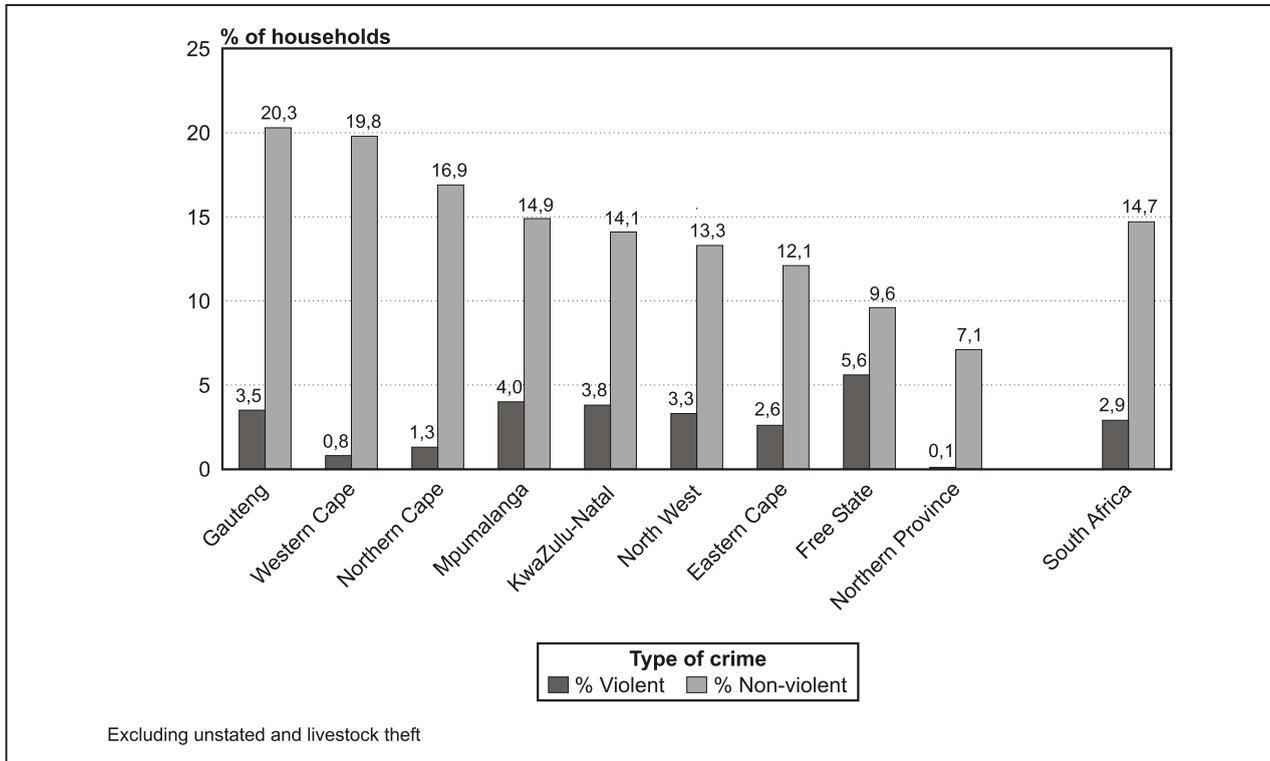
Figure 10: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one violent and at least one non-violent household crime in 1997 by province

- *Violent* household crimes include deliberate damage, burning or destruction of dwellings, deliberate killing or murder, and hijacking or attempted hijacking of motor vehicles.
- *Non-violent* household crimes include housebreaking and burglary, attempted housebreaking and burglary, theft of livestock, theft of motor vehicles (excluding hijacking), theft of goods from vehicles, motor vehicle vandalism, theft of motor cycles and scooters, and theft of bicycles.
- Figure 10 shows that non-violent household crimes were far more common in 1997 than violent household crimes (15% as against 3%). In actual numbers, more than 1,3 million South African households had experienced at least one *non-violent* crime in 1997, while as many as 261 000 (3%) had experienced at least one *violent* crime.
- Non-violent household crimes were highest in Gauteng (20%) and Western Cape (19%) in 1997.
- Violent household crimes were highest in Free State (6%) and Mpumalanga (4%).
- The study shows that households living in urban areas experienced about twice as much crime compared with households in non-urban areas. Thus, in South Africa as a whole, 4% of urban households had experienced at least one violent household crime in 1997, as against 2% of non-urban households.
- As distinct from crimes against individuals where a large proportion are violent, (see Figure 20) crimes against households tend to be non-violent.
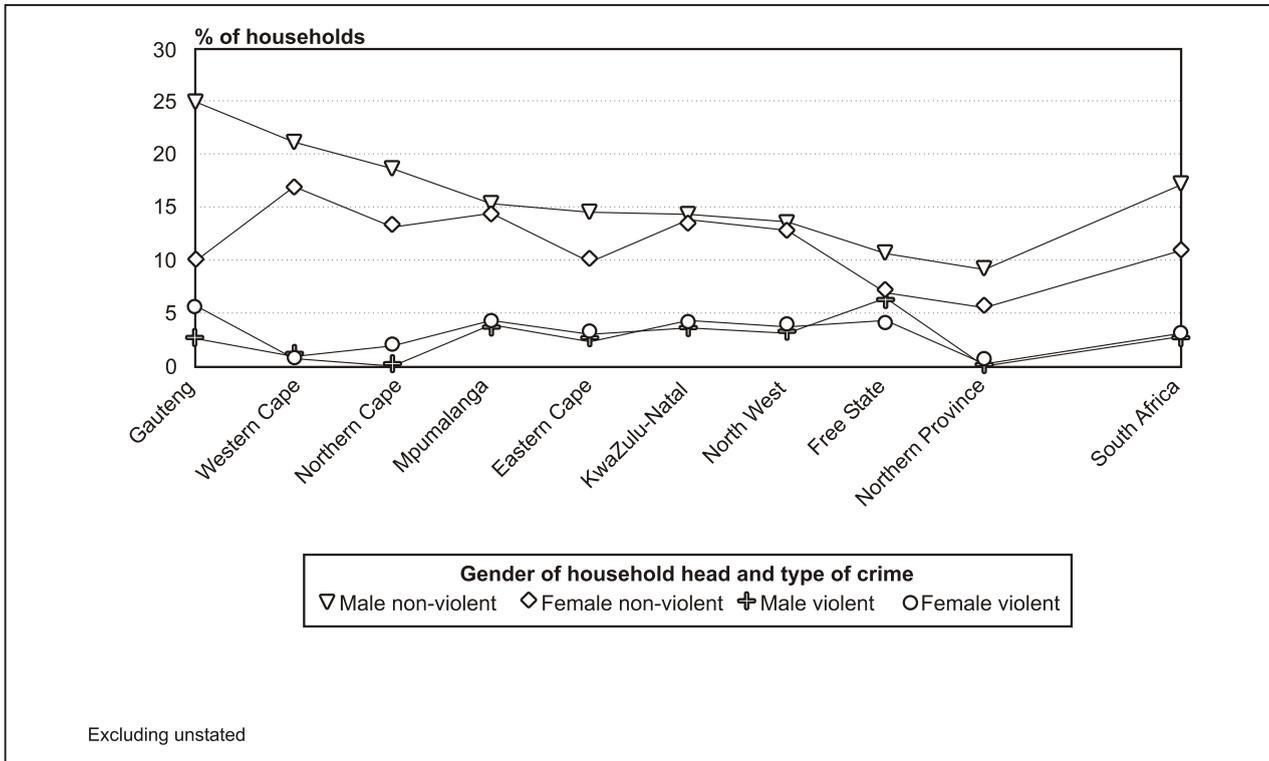
Figure 11: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one violent household crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by province and gender of the household head

- About 40% of households in the country have a female head.
- Figure 11 shows that, in South Africa as a whole, both male-headed and female-headed households were equally likely to have experienced *violent* household crimes in 1997 (3% in both cases).
- In Gauteng, however, higher percentages of female-headed households had experienced at least one violent household crime in 1997, compared with male-headed ones (6% against 3%). In Free State, on the other hand, a higher proportion of male-headed (6%) than female-headed (4%) households had experienced at least one violent crime in 1997. In the other provinces, approximately equal proportions of male-headed and female-headed households had experienced at least one violent crime in 1997.
- In the country as a whole, a larger proportion of households with a male head (17%) experienced at least one *non-violent* crime in 1997 compared with households with a female head (11%).
- This difference in percentages was largest in Gauteng, where 10% of female-headed households had experienced non-violent crimes compared to 25% of male-headed ones.

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% of households

Excluding other, unstated and livestock theft
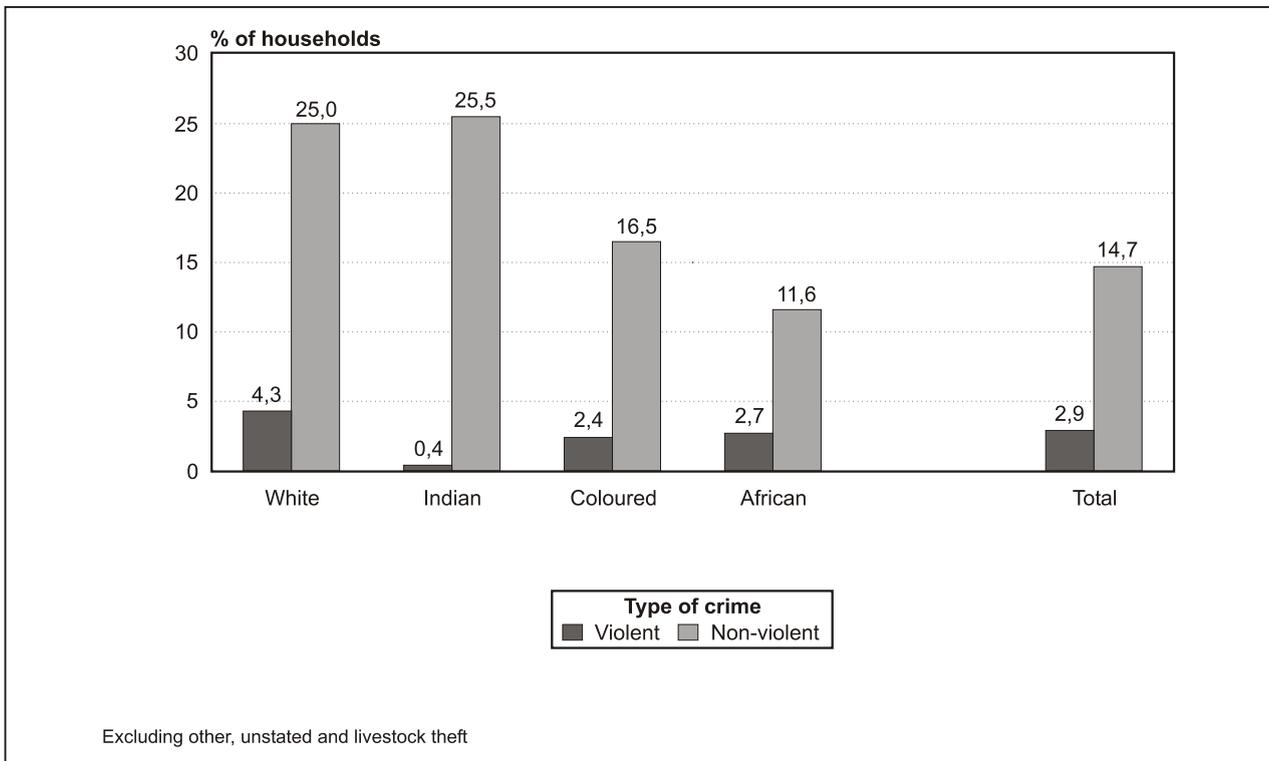
Figure 12: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one violent household crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by population group

- Figure 12 indicates that white households (4%) had experienced a higher percentage of violent household crimes in 1997 than households of other population groups. They were followed by coloured (3%) and then African (2%) households. Fewer than 1% of Indian households had experienced at least one violent household crime in 1997.
- A larger proportion of Indian households (26%), followed by white households (25%), were victims of non-violent crimes in 1997. A relatively small percentage of African households (12%) had experienced non-violent household crimes in 1997.

% of households

Chart data by age group:

Age group	Violent	Non-violent
16 - 25	2,4	12,4
26 - 35	3,9	15,9
36 - 45	2,5	16,9
46 - 55	3,4	16,7
56 or more	2,7	14,2

Type of crime
■ Violent   ■ Non-violent

Excluding unstated
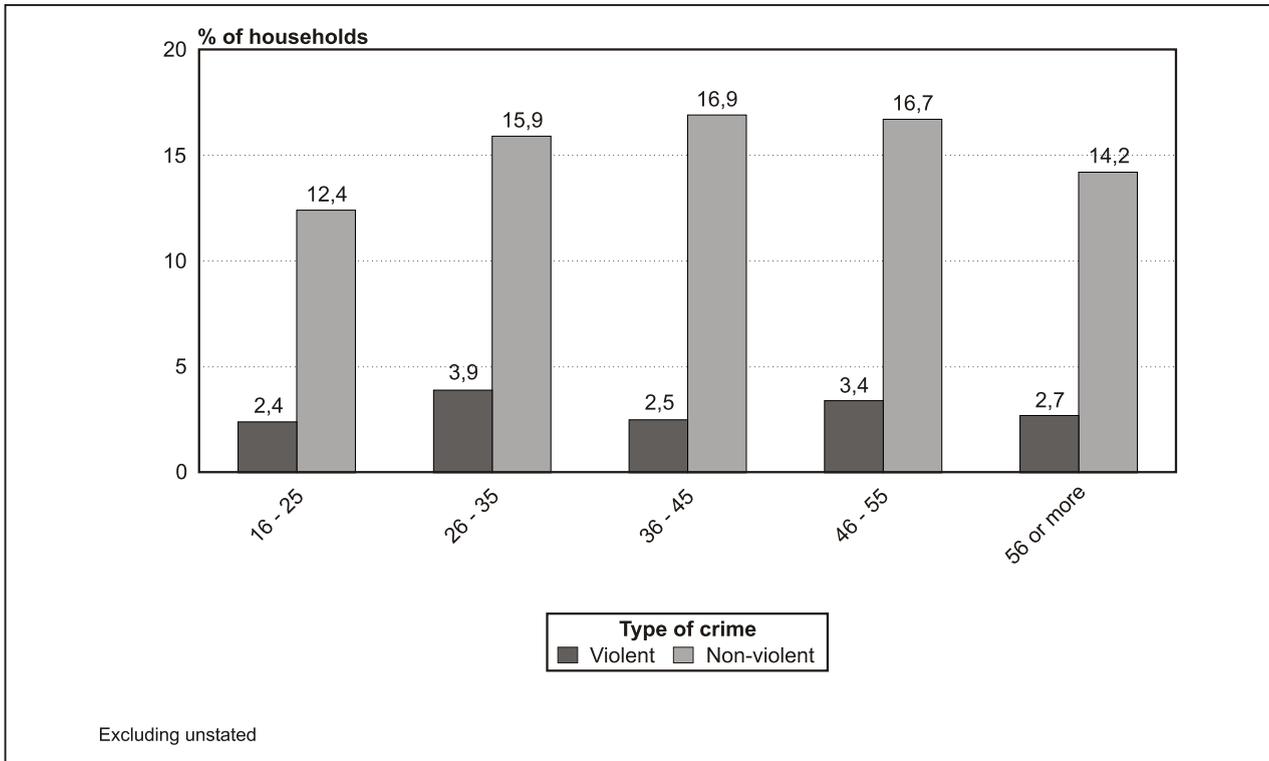
Figure 13: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one violent crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by age of the household head

- Non-violent household crimes show an interesting curvilinear pattern by age of the household head. Figure 13 indicates that the percentage of households which had experienced at least one non-violent crime in 1997 was least for those households with heads in the youngest (12%) and oldest (14%) age groups.
- Households with a head in the age categories 36 to 45 and 46 to 55 years had the highest chance of experiencing at least one non-violent crime in 1997 (17% for each). These are the age categories of the highest level of economic activity.
- There is no clear pattern of relationship between age and violent household crimes.

% of households

Excluding unstated and livestock theft

Annual household income (Rands)

Type of crime
■ Violent   □ Non-violent
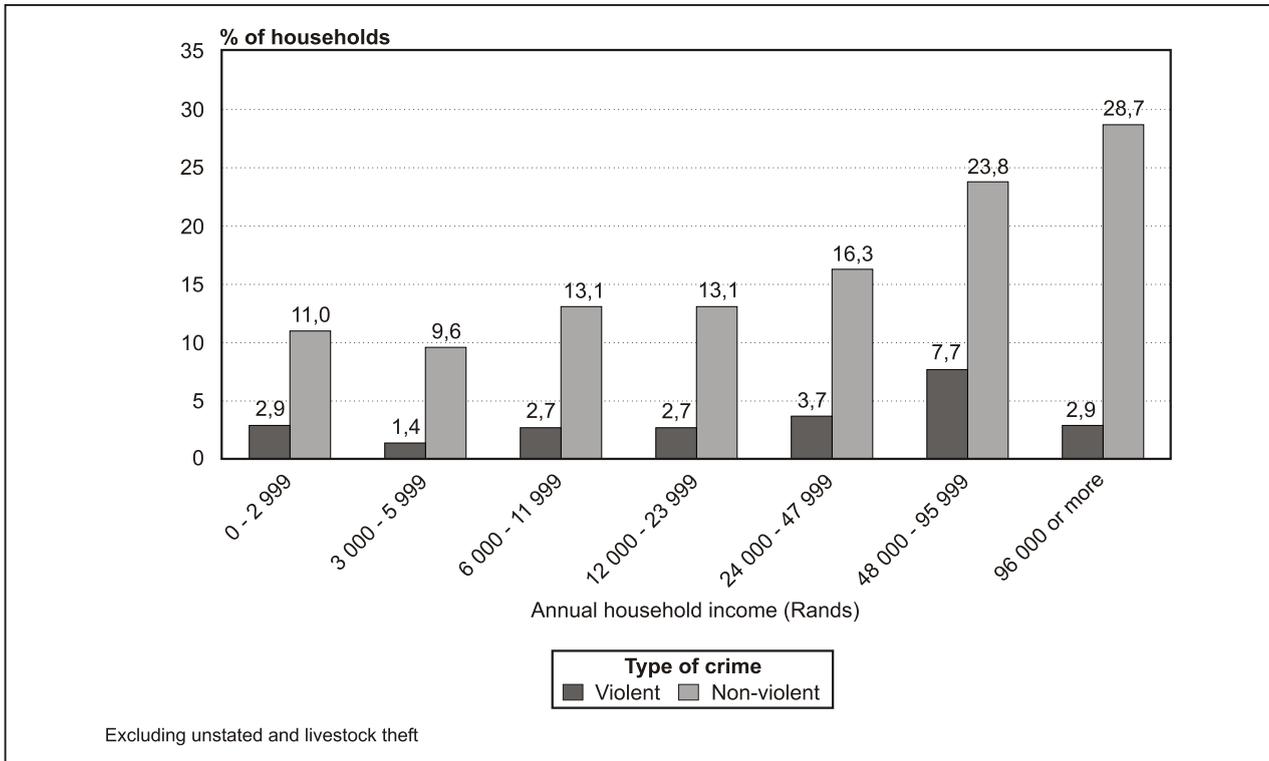
Figure 14: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one violent crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by annual household income

- Figure 14 shows that the higher the income category of the household, the higher the chance of experiencing at least one non-violent household crime. For example, among those households earning less than R3 000 per annum (the bottom income category), only 11% had experienced at least one non-violent crime in 1997, as against 29% earning R96 000 or more per annum (the top income category).
- On the other hand, violent household crime does not appear to be as clearly related to annual household income. Households in the income category R48 000 to R95 999 experienced the highest percentage of violent household crimes in 1997.

% of households

19,1	Urban formal: Violent 3,9 / Non-violent 19,1

*Excluding unstated and livestock theft*

Type of crime
■ Violent ■ Non-violent
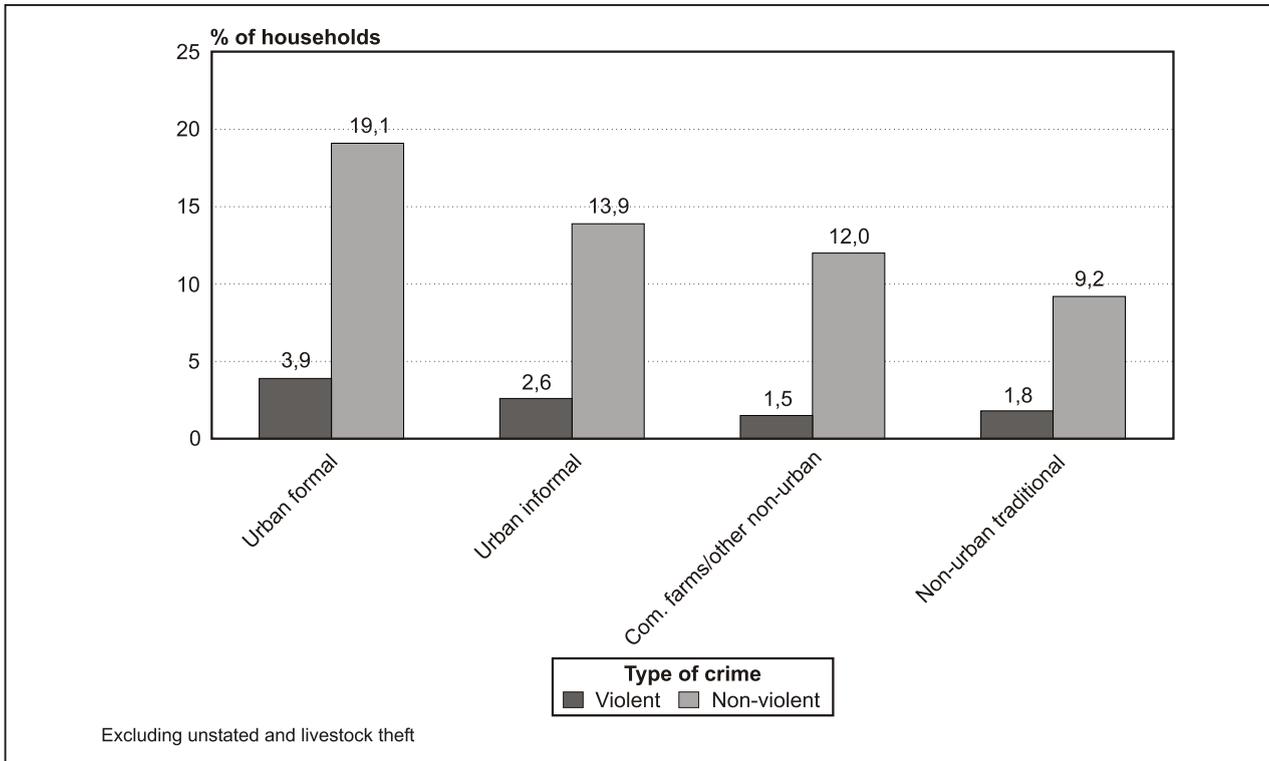
Figure 15: Percentage of households which had experienced at least one violent crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by settlement type

- For sampling stratification purposes, South Africa has been divided into five settlement types: urban formal, urban informal, non-urban traditional, commercial farms and other non-urban areas (for example, mission settlements and small villages). Because of the relatively small proportion of household crimes in the last category, it has been combined with the commercial farms category.
- Figure 15 shows that households in urban formal areas were most likely to have experienced the highest percentage of both violent (4%) and non-violent crimes (19%) in 1997.
- This was followed by those households in informal urban areas (3% for violent crimes and 14% for non-violent crimes).
- Those living on commercial farms were least likely to have experienced at least one violent household crime (2%) while those living in traditional non-urban areas were least likely to have experienced non-violent household crime (9%) in 1997.

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Chapter 4

Individual crimes experienced in 1997

% of individuals

Crime	Value
Theft: personal prop.	4,8
Assault	4,2
Fraud	3,0
Robbery with force	2,4
Corruption	2,0
Sexual offences	0,4
At least one crime	14,6
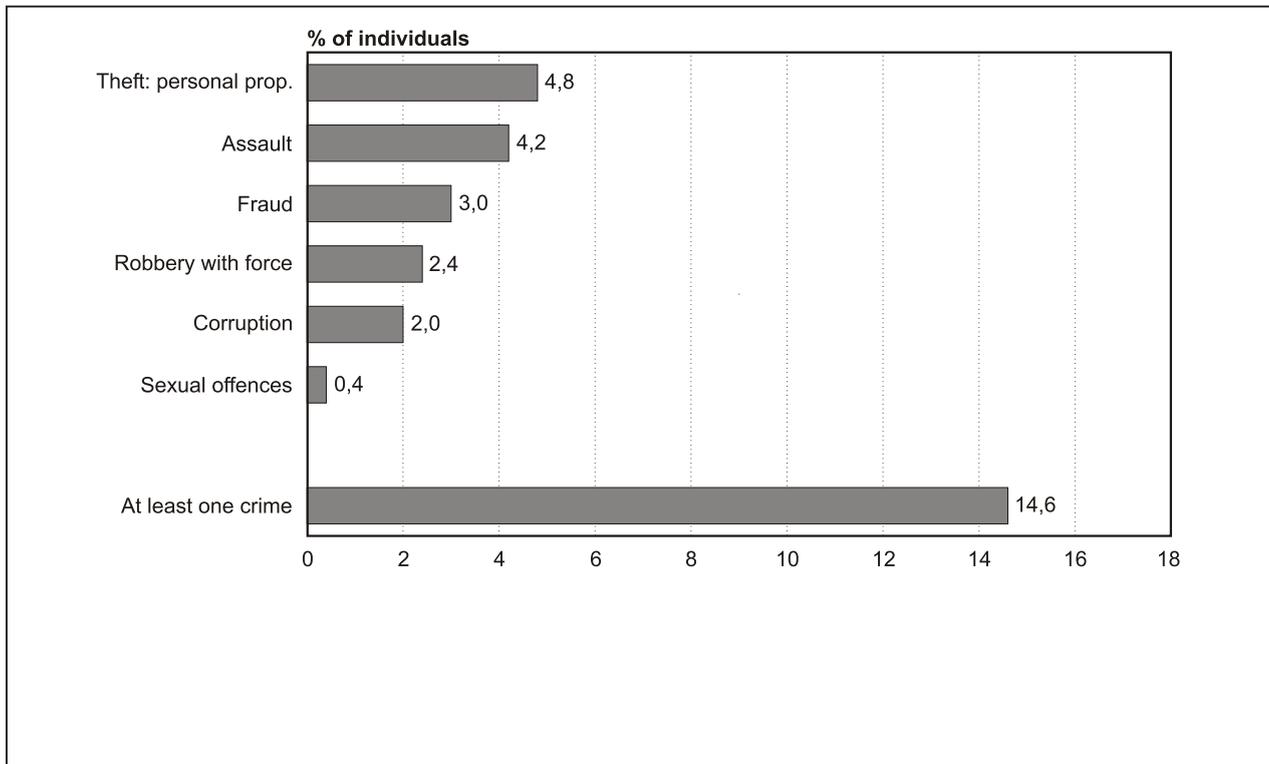
Figure 16: Percentage of individuals who had experienced specific crimes, and at least one crime in 1997

- Crimes committed against individuals affect a single person rather than an entire household. For example, stealing a wallet mainly affects that particular person.
- Individual crimes include the following: sexual offences (including rape and domestic sexual abuse); robbery involving force, assaults and threats of assault (including domestic violence); consumer fraud; corruption by public officials; and theft of personal property. The respondents in the survey were asked whether they personally had experienced these types of crime during 1997.
- Figure 16 shows that 15%, or about 3,8 million people, had experienced at least one individual crime during 1997.
- Theft of personal property was the most frequent crime, experienced by 5% of individuals, followed by assault (4%).
- Approximately one person in 200, or 0,4% of all individuals, had experienced at least one sexual offence.
- A comparison of Figure 16 with Figure 3 reveals a similar pattern of individual crimes. The order of crimes experienced remains the same. For example, the percentage of individuals which had experienced theft of personal property was highest for both the five-year (1993-1997) and the one-year period (1997), while the percentage of sexual offences reported to fieldworkers was lowest for both time periods.

Population group   **% of individuals**

Coloured — 16,8
White — 16,5
African — 14,1
Indian — 11,4

Gender

Male — 16,4
Female — 12,9

Total — 14,6

0   5   10   15   20

Excluding other and unstated
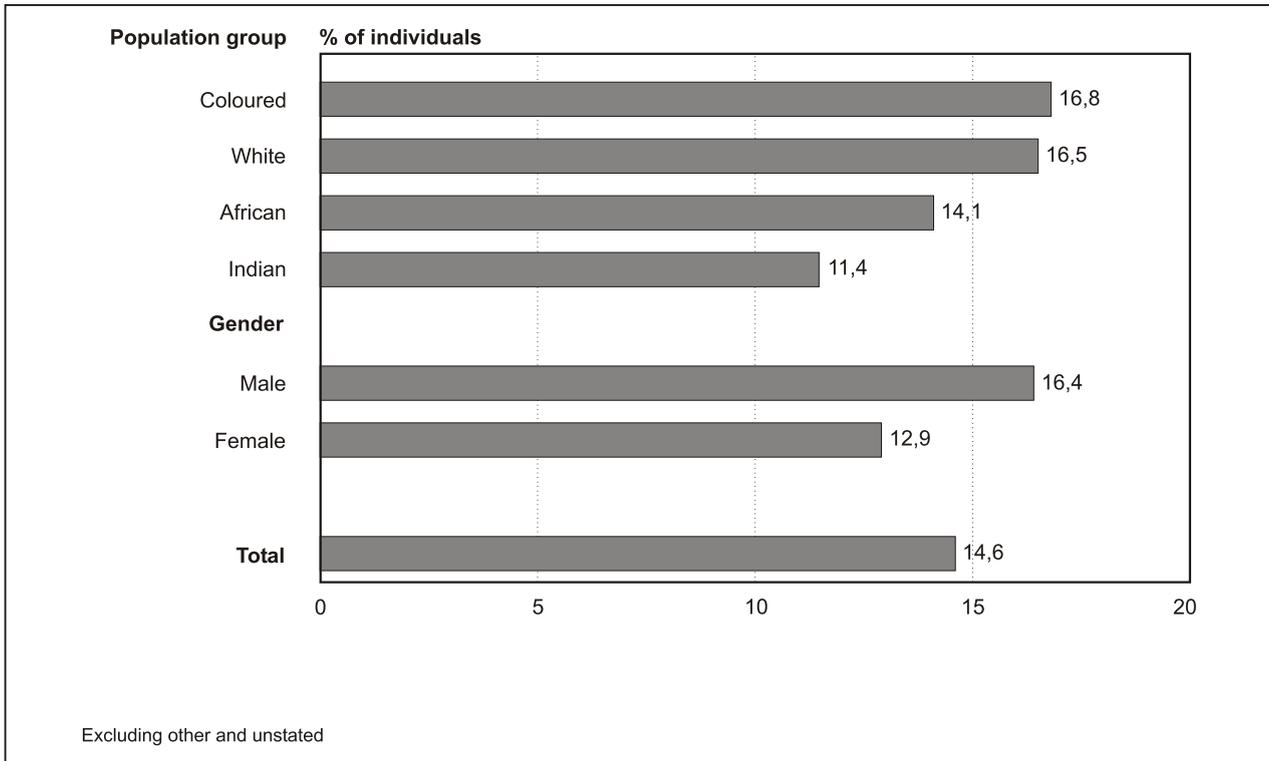
Figure 17: Percentage of people who had experienced at least one individual crime in 1997 by population group and gender

- A higher proportion of coloured and white respondents were susceptible to individual crime in 1997 than Africans and Indians. Males were at greater risk of experiencing individual crimes than females.
- Figure 17 shows that 17% of individuals aged 16 years or more, who classified themselves as coloured and white, had experienced at least one crime in 1997 (in numbers, however, there were 371 000 coloureds as against 550 000 whites).
- The percentage of individuals in the African population group was 14%. In actual numbers, this means that a total of 2,6 million Africans aged 16 years or more had experienced at least one crime in 1997. For Indians, the percentage was 11% (approximately 128 000 individuals).
- One in every six males (16%) had experienced at least one individual crime in 1997, compared to slightly more than one in every eight females (13%).

34

% of individuals

Age category	%
16 - 25 years	16,9
26 - 35 years	17,6
36 - 45 years	12,7
46 - 55 years	13,8
56 - 65 years	13,0
66 years +	7,8
At least one crime	14,6

Excluding other and unstated
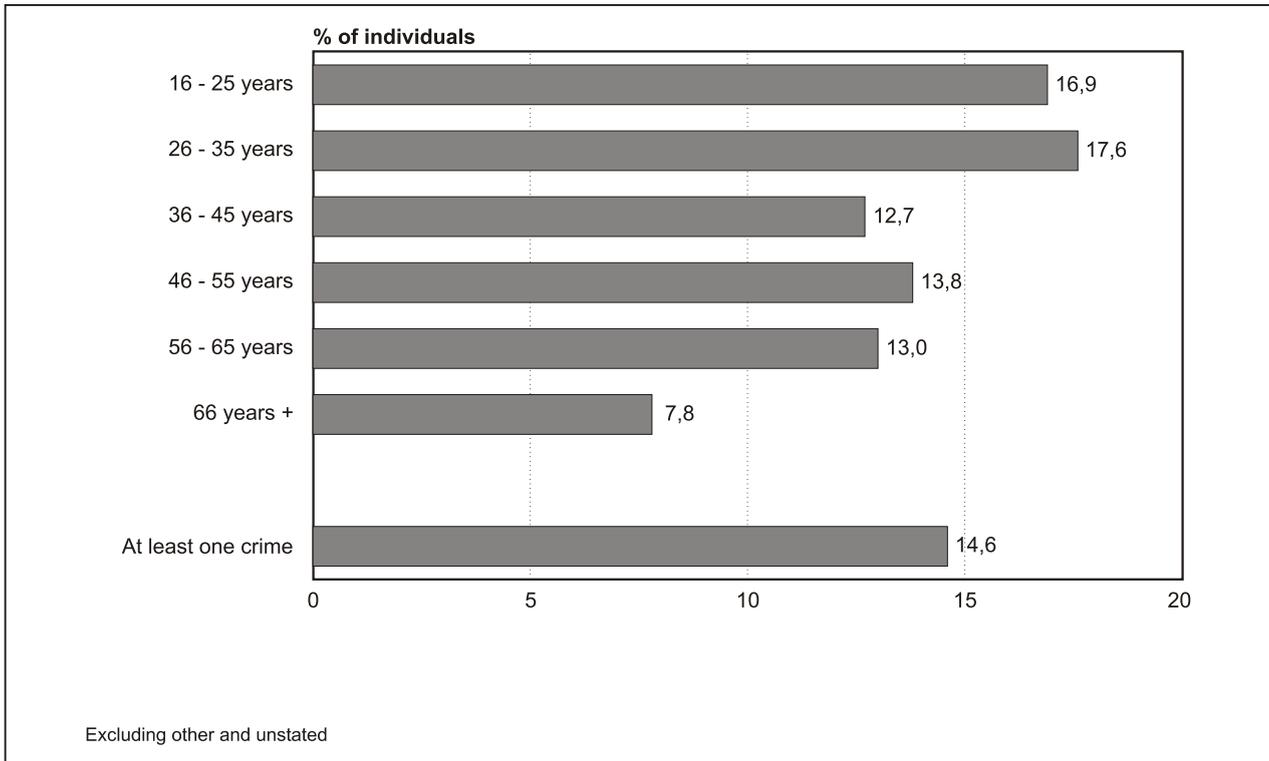
Figure 18: Percentage of people who had experienced at least one individual crime in 1997 by age category

- People in the younger age categories were more likely to have experienced at least one crime committed against them in 1997 than those in the older age categories.
- For example, Figure 18 shows that approximately 17% of those in the age category 16 to 25 years, and 18% in the age category 26 to 35 years, had experienced at least one individual crime in 1997.
- The percentage for those between 36 and 65 years was between 13% and 14%. Amongst those aged 66 years or more, however, it dropped to 8%.

% of individuals

Police area	%
Port Elizabeth	26,3
Lowveld	26,2
Northern Free State	23,5
Western Metropole	23,3
Johannesburg	23,0
Umtata	22,5
Tugela	19,7
Southern Free State	19,4
Highveld	18,1
Midlands	16,0
East Rand	15,7
Eastern Free State	15,7
Diamond Fields	15,5
East London	15,2
Mooi River	15,1
Marico	14,5
Molopo	14,4
Soweto	14,3
Boland	13,3
Gordonia	12,8
North Rand	12,7
Durban	12,4
Far North	12,3
Vaal Rand	12,3
Karoo	12,2
Uitenhage	11,8
Ulundi	11,7
West Rand	11,6
Pretoria	11,1
Eastern Highveld	10,3
Umfolozi	10,1
Umzimkulu	7,9
Namaqualand	7,8
Grahamstown	7,7
Bushveld	7,3
Queenstown	6,8
Drakensberg	6,7
Eastern Metropole	6,2
Southern Cape	5,6
Upper Karoo	5,2
Central	5,0
Giyani	2,9

Figure 19: Percentage of individuals who had experienced at least one crime in 1997 by police area

- Figure 19 shows the extent to which crimes committed against individuals vary by police area (the area reflects where they were living in 1998, rather than in 1997).
- These percentages should be treated with caution, because of the small number of people in some police areas.
- The percentage of crimes committed against individuals was highest in Port Elizabeth and Lowveld (26% each) police areas, where unemployment among males tends to be high.
- In police districts which contain a large proportion of mineworkers living in hostels, for example Northern Free State (24%), individual crime percentages also tend to be high.
- The percentage of individuals who had experienced at least one crime in 1997 was lowest in the more sparsely-populated and rural police areas, for example Giyani (3%) and Central and Upper Karoo (5%).

Violent and non-violent individual crimes in 1997
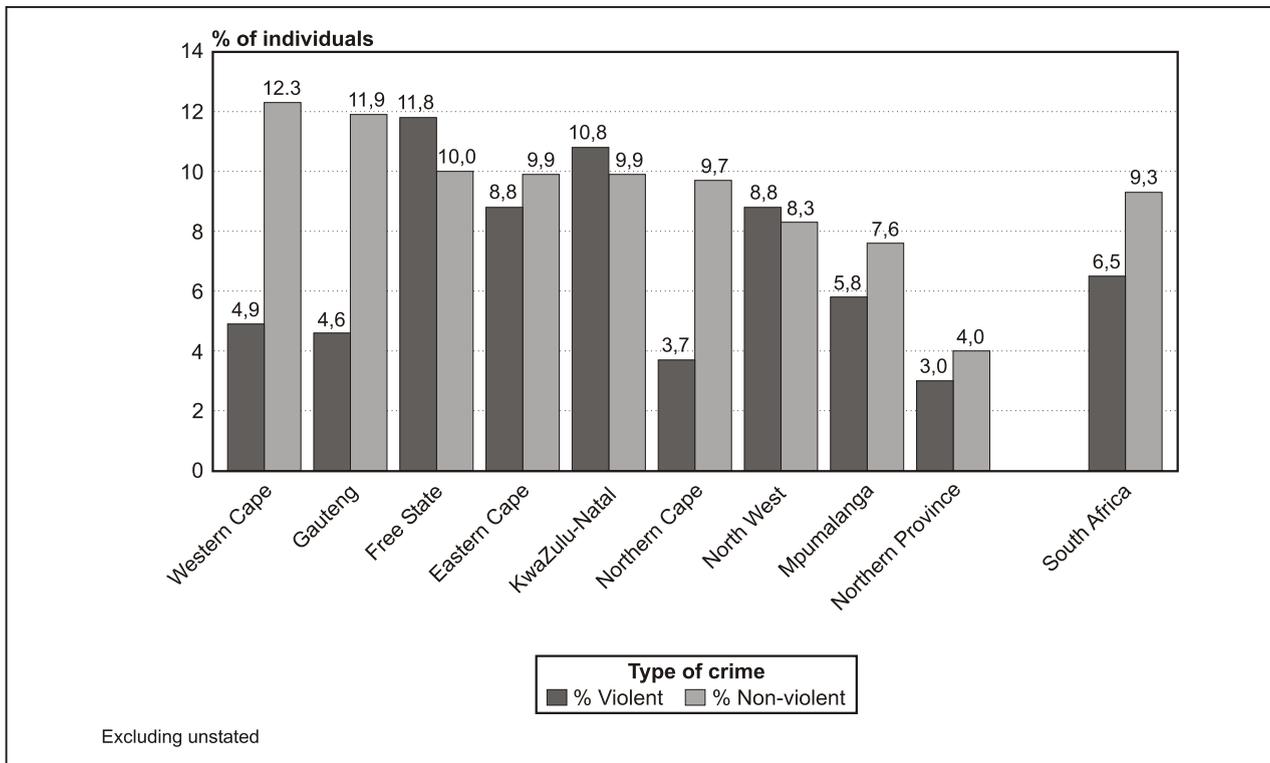
Figure 20: Percentage of individuals who had experienced at least one violent crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by province

- Violent crimes against individuals include robbery involving force, assault and sexual offences, while non-violent crimes include consumer fraud, corruption by public officials, and theft of personal property.
- Among individuals aged 16 years or more in South Africa as a whole, 7% experienced at least one violent crime and 8% at least one non-violent crime in 1997.
- The results given here for the Northern Cape and Free State should be regarded with caution, since there was a smaller sample size in these provinces than in the other provinces.
- Figure 20 shows that in 1997 the largest percentage of violent crimes against individuals was experienced in Free State (12%) followed by KwaZulu-Natal (11%), and then Eastern Cape and North West (both 9%).
- Northern Province (3%), Northern Cape (4%), and Western Cape and Gauteng (5% each), had lower percentages of violent crimes committed against individuals than the other provinces.
- The largest proportions of non-violent individual crimes were experienced by those living in Western Cape and Gauteng (12% each) and Free State (10%). The smallest proportions were experienced by those living in Northern Province (4%) and Mpumalanga (8%).
- Urbanised provinces tend to have less violent individual crime and more non-violent individual crime, except for Northern Cape (low violent, high non-violent) and Northern Province (low for all types of individual crime).

Excluding other and unstated
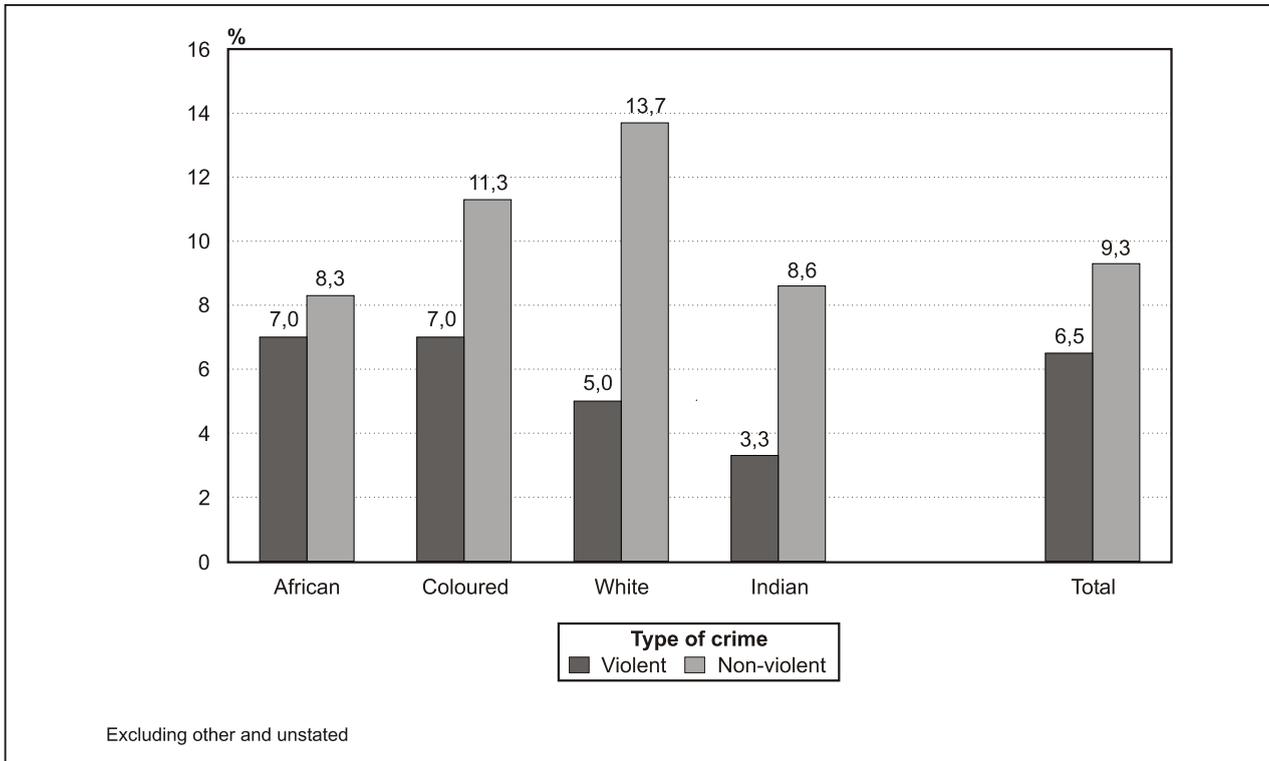
Figure 21: Proportion of individuals who had experienced at least one violent crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by population group

- Figure 21 shows that persons belonging to the African and coloured population groups (7% each) were the most likely to have experienced violent crimes against individuals in 1997. The percentage of white (5%) and Indian (3%) respondents was lower.
- Non-violent crimes were experienced by a higher proportion of white respondents (14%) followed by coloureds (11%), while proportionately fewer Indian (9%) and African (8%) respondents aged 16 years or more had experienced at least one non-violent crime in 1997.

39
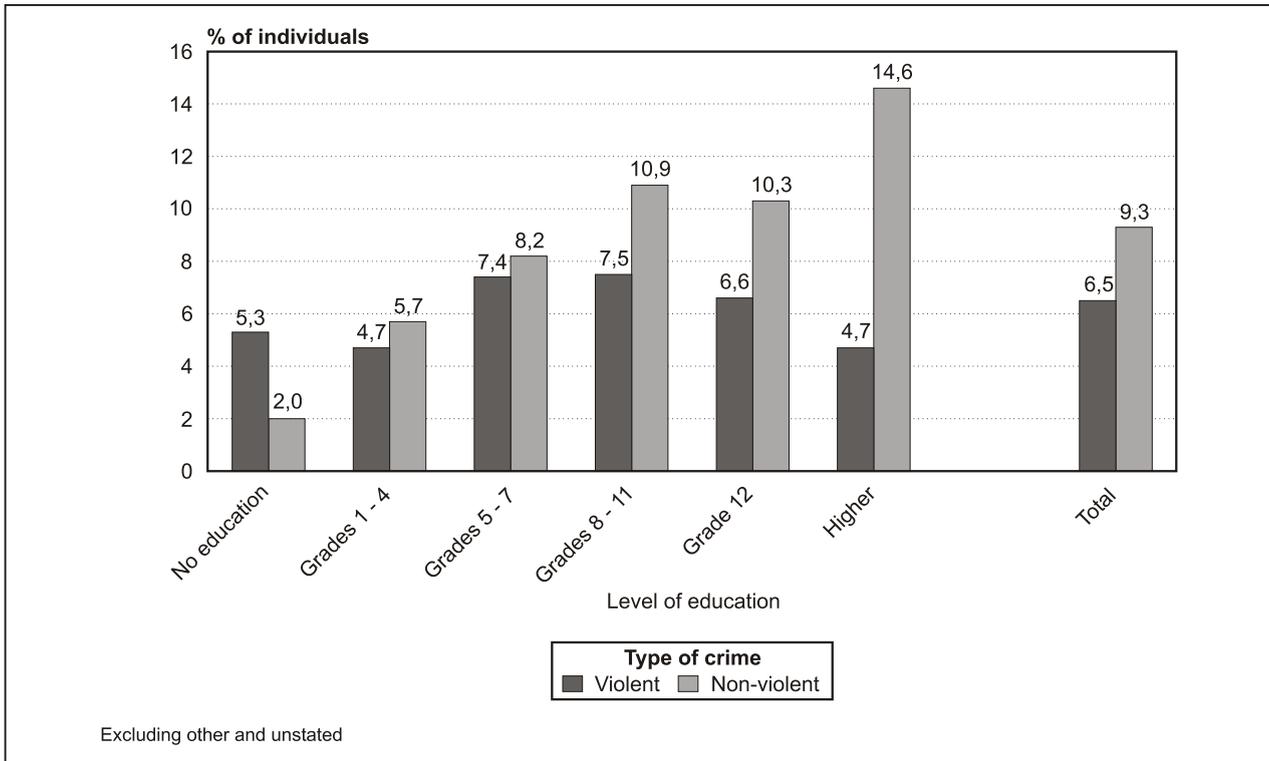
% of individuals

Figure 22: Percentage of individuals who had experienced at least one violent crime and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by level of education

- Figure 22 indicates a curvilinear relationship between level of education and individual experience of a violent crime in 1997.
- A larger proportion of people in the middle educational levels had experienced at least one violent crime in 1997 compared to persons with either lower or higher levels of education. An exception is those who had not received any education.
- On the other hand, there is a linear relationship between level of education and having experienced at least one non-violent crime in 1997. The higher the level of education, the larger the percentage was of those who had experienced at least one non-violent individual crime in 1997.
- The percentage at the highest level of education (post-school qualifications) was 15%, compared to 6% among those who had completed Grades 1 to 4 and 2% among those with no education.
- There is probably a relationship between level of education, income and access to valuable items. This would render individuals with higher education and income more susceptible to property crime.
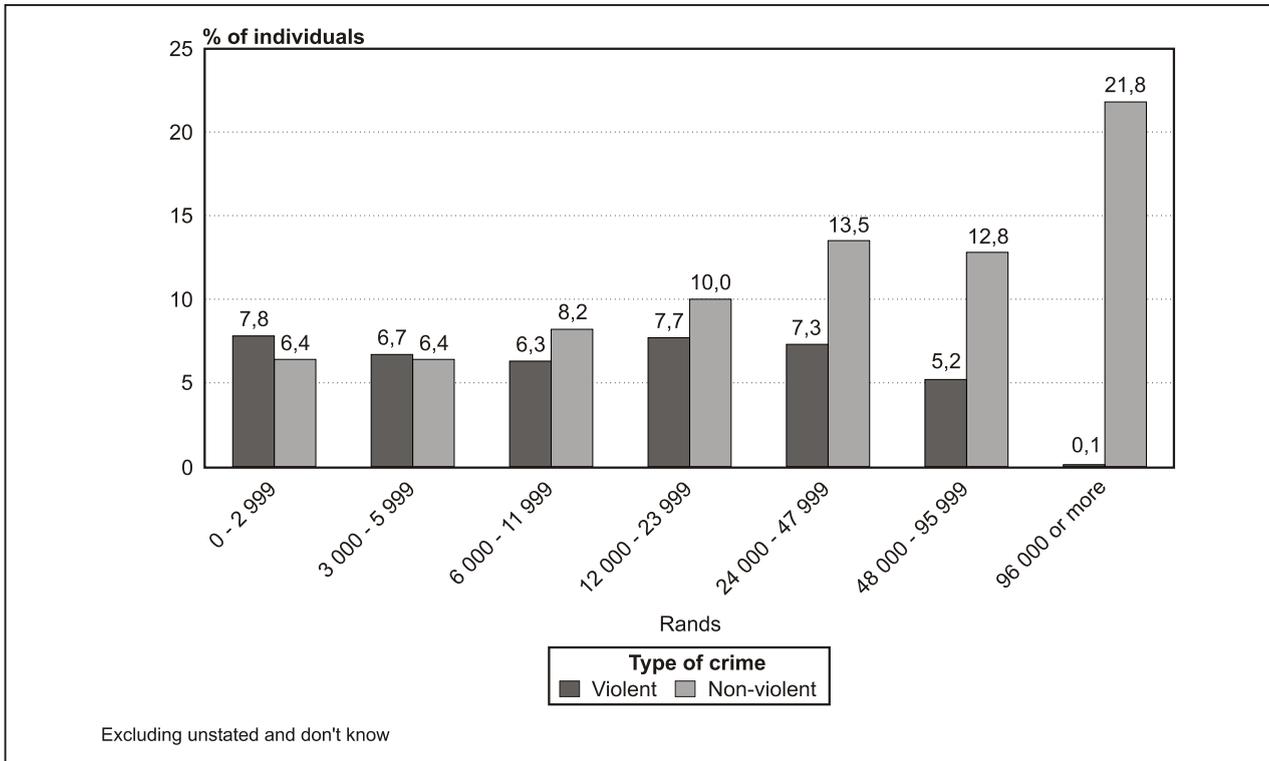
Figure 23: Percentage of individuals who had experienced at least one violent and/or at least one non-violent crime in 1997 by annual household income category

- Figure 23 shows the distribution of violent and non-violent crimes among individuals in 1997 by annual household income category.
- It indicates that violent crime against individuals in the highest income categories was lower than it was for those in the middle categories. Those in the lowest income category (8%) were most susceptible to violent crime in 1997.
- Regarding non-violent crimes committed against individuals in 1997, the higher the income, the higher the risk.
- The percentage of persons which had experienced at least one non-violent crime in 1997 in the highest household income category (22%) was much higher than in any other category. A relatively small percentage of those in the lowest income category (6%) had experienced a non-violent crime in 1997.
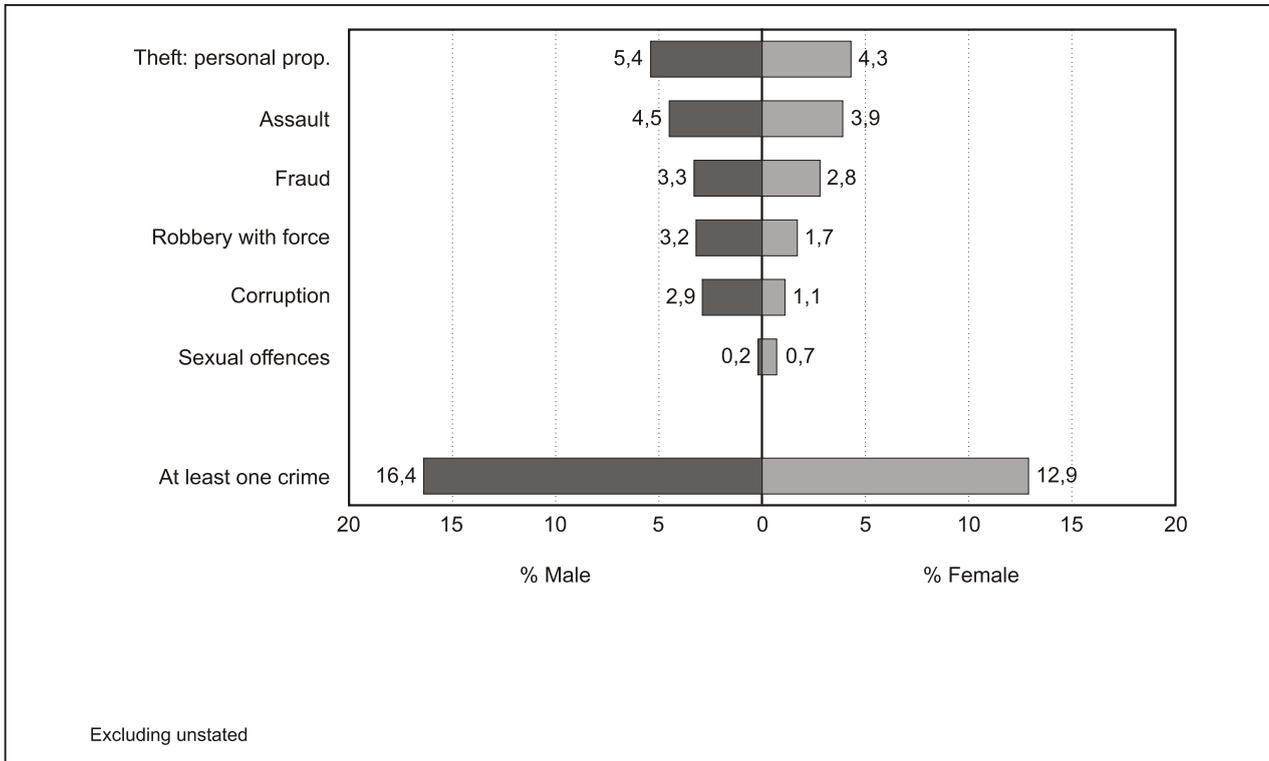
Figure 24: Percentage of males and females who had experienced at least one crime in 1997 by type of crime

- Figure 24 indicates that, overall, males were more likely than females to have experienced at least one individual crime in 1997 (16% of males as against 13% of females).
- Males were also more likely than females to have experienced all categories of violent crime against individuals, except for sexual offences.

Repeat victimisation

Table 1: Extent of repeat victimisation amongst individuals who had experienced a particular crime in 1997

Type of crime	Number of incidents in 1997				
	One %	Two %	Three %	More %	Total %
Assault	64,4	16,0	4,4	15,2	100,0
Corruption	75,0	12,9	4,8	7,3	100,0
Fraud	78,2	6,1	3,9	11,8	100,0
Robbery with force	80,6	14,6	2,5	2,3	100,0
Sexual offences	55,0	4,8	11,8	28,4	100,0
Theft of personal property	80,0	10,2	4,7	5,1	100,0

- Table 1 indicates that repeat victimisation in 1997 was most likely to occur in cases of assault or sexual offences.
- Amongst those victims who had experienced at least one sexual offence in 1997, 28% had experienced this crime more than three times during this time period.
- Amongst those victims who had experienced at least one case of assault in 1997, 15% had experienced this crime more than three times during this time period.
- Repeat victimisation was least likely to occur among victims of robbery with force or theft of personal property.

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Chapter 5

Circumstances surrounding crime

%

50
40
30
20
10
0

Inside dwelling   Outside dwelling   Street/alley   Shop/shopping centre   Inside vehicle   Open space/parking

○ Assault   ✚ Robbery with force   ◇ Theft   ▽ Sexual offences

Excluding responses < 7% i.e. workplace, bus stop, educational institute and other
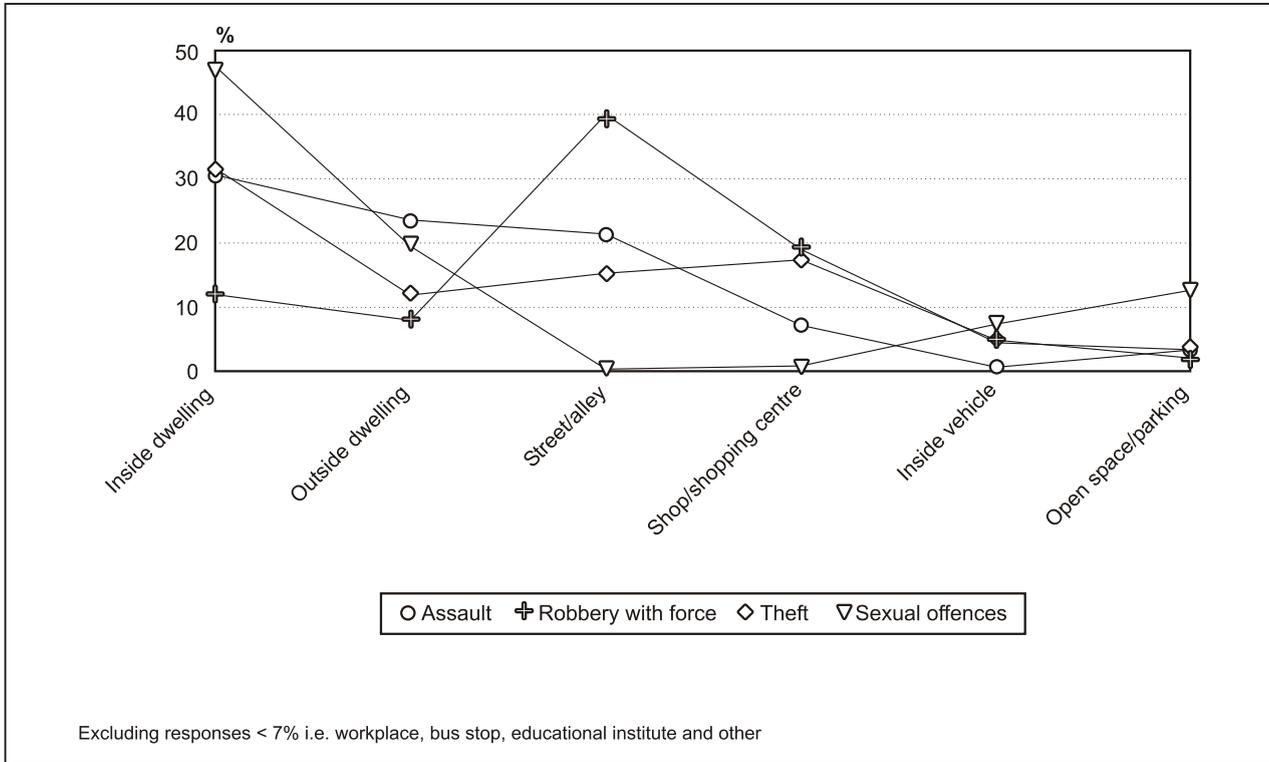
Figure 25: Type of individual crime by place of occurrence

- Among those who had experienced at least one crime in the five-year period, respondents were asked to indicate where the crime had actually happened (the last time a particular crime happened if it had occurred more than once).
- Diverse types of crime are likely to occur in different types of geographical locations.
- Figure 25 indicates that 48% of sexual offences, 32% of incidents of theft and 31% of incidents of assault took place inside a private dwelling.
- In addition, 24% of assaults, 20% of sexual offences and 12% of theft of personal property took place outside the dwelling, for example, in the garden.
- On the other hand, as many as 40% of cases of robbery with force and 21% of cases of assault took place in a street or alley.
- People are vulnerable to theft and robbery with force at shops and shopping centres: 19% of cases of robbery, and 17% of theft of personal property, occurred in such locations.

% households

Household crime
Theft: bicycles
Vehicle theft
Car hijacking/attempt
Killing/murder
Individual crime
Theft: personal prop.
Assault
Sexual offences
Robbery with force

0   20   40   60   80   100

■ At residence/property ■ Near residence ■ Local area □ Elsewhere
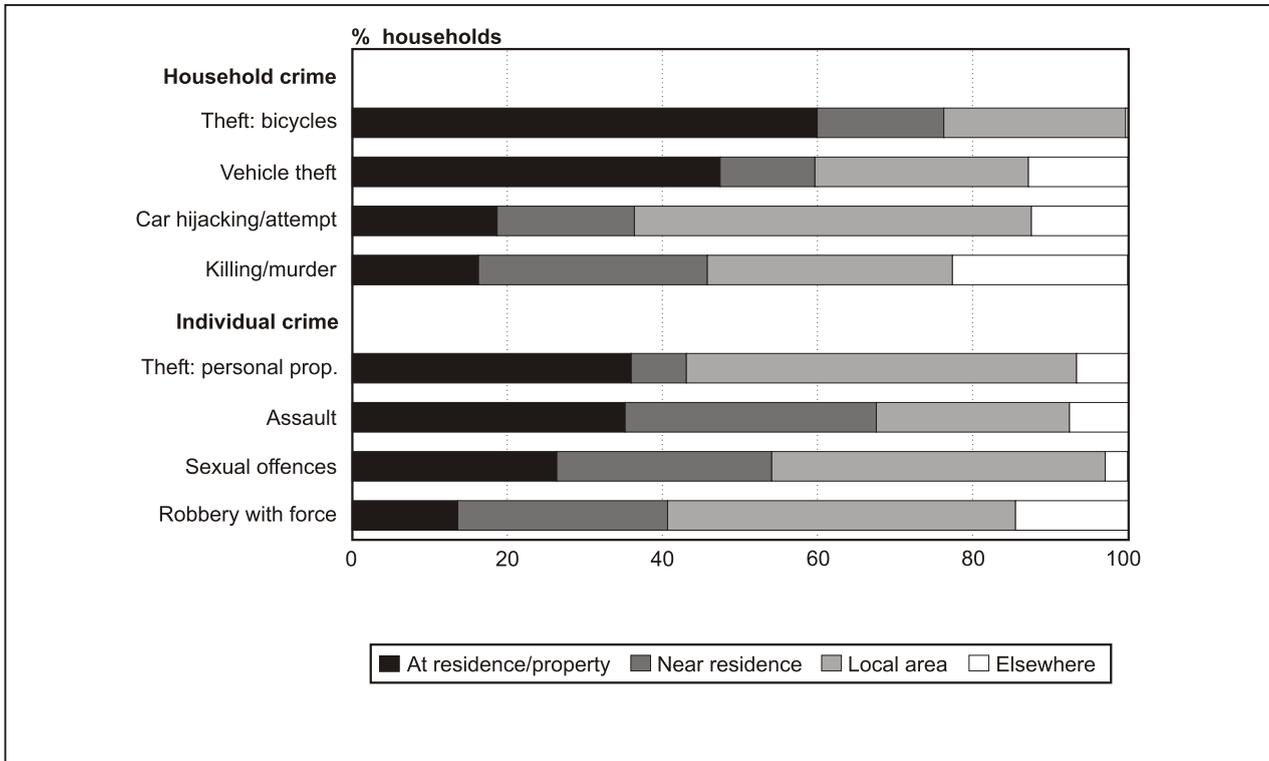
Figure 26: Actual place at which the crime happened

- A large proportion of both household and individual crimes were likely to occur within the environment where the person lives, for example, at the respondent's place of residence or on the property, in the neighbourhood near this residence, or else in the local area, town or city where the person lives. Relatively few crimes occur outside of this environment.
- Figure 26 shows that the crimes most likely to happen at the respondent's residence or property is theft of bicycles (60%), followed by theft of goods from vehicles (47%).
- As many as 35% of assaults and 26% of sexual offences took place at the person's residence, while a further 32% of assaults and 28% of sexual offences took place near the place of residence.
- Robbery with force (45%) and theft of personal property were more likely to occur somewhere in the city, town or local area where the person lives than in or near the residence.

% of individuals

	Assault	Sexual offence
Knew him/her by name ☐	59,8	63,3
Knew him/her by sight ▨	17,3	11,9
Did not know him/her ▨	19,5	23,8
Did not see him/her ■	3,3	0,9

Excluding unstated
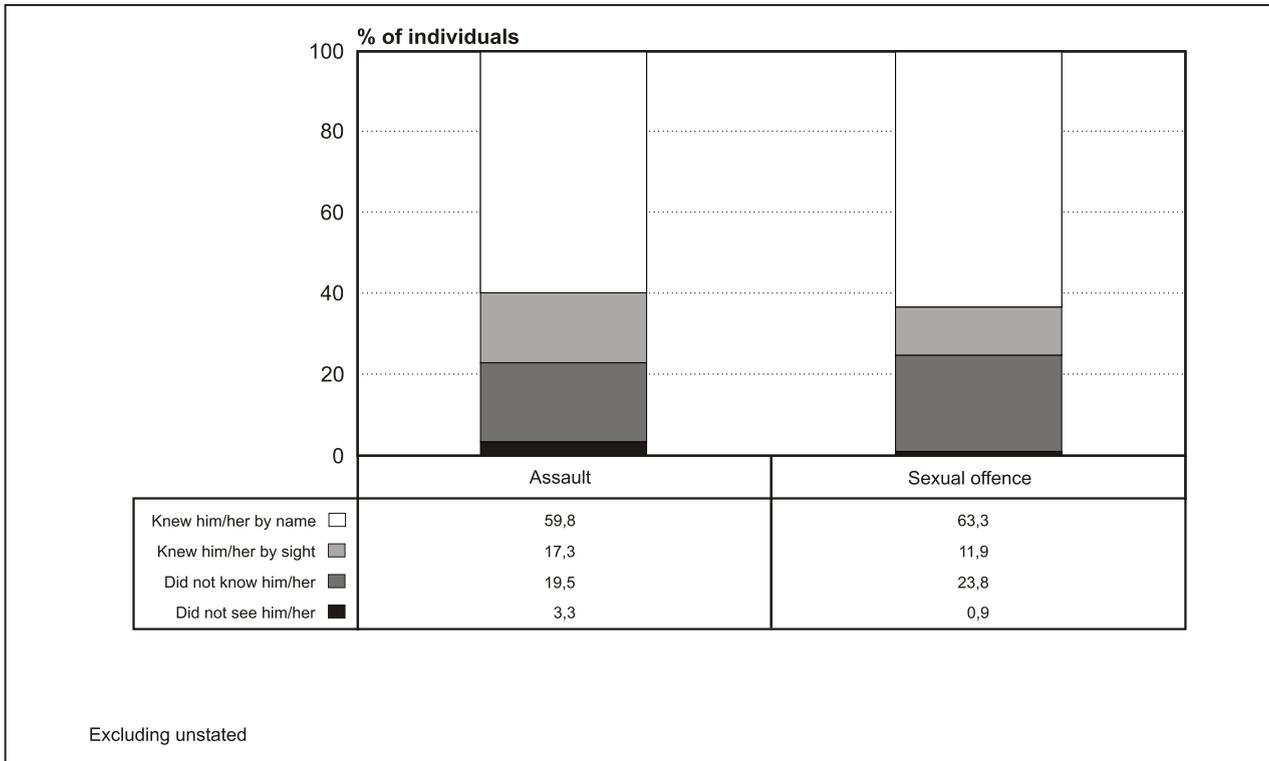
Figure 27: Amongst those who had experienced a sexual offence or assault, whether or not the offender was known

- Individuals are highly likely to know the perpetrators of violent individual crimes such as sexual offence or assault.
- Figure 27 indicates that 60% of assault victims and 63% of sexual offence victims knew the offender by name, while a further 17% of assault victims and 12% of victims of a sexual offence knew the offender by sight.
- Fewer than a quarter (20% for assault, and 24% for sexual offences) did not know the victim at all.

% of individuals

[Chart showing horizontal stacked bar graph with categories:]

Assault
- Urban formal
- Urban informal
- Non-urban traditional
- Commercial farms
- Other non-urban

Sexual offence
- Urban formal
- Urban informal
- Non-urban traditional
- Commercial farms
- Other non-urban

[X-axis: 0, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100]

Identity of the offender
- ■ Did not see him/her
- ■ Did not know him/her
- ■ Knew him/her by sight
- □ Knew him/her by name

Excluding unstated

Figure 28: Amongst those who had experienced a sexual offence or assault, whether or not the offender was known by type of settlement

- Figure 28 indicates that, among victims who had experienced at least one assault or sexual offence in the past five years, the type of settlement in which they lived was associated with whether or not the perpetrator was known.
- The victims of assault living in non-urban areas were more likely to know their assailants by name than those living in urban areas. For example, 72% of those living in non-urban traditional areas knew their attacker by name, as against 49% living in urban informal areas.
- The victims of sexual offences living in non-urban areas were highly likely to know the perpetrators. For example, 82% of respondents in traditional non-urban areas, and all the respondents living on commercial farms and in other non-urban areas such as small villages, knew the perpetrator by name. Fifty-one per cent in urban formal areas, and 54% in urban informal areas, knew the perpetrator by name.
- When looking at age and income of victims of both assault and sexual offences, no clear pattern emerged regarding whether or not the perpetrator was known to the victim. In all cases, more than half the people knew the offender either by sight or by name.

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Table 2: Amongst the victims who knew the perpetrator, their relationship, if any, to the perpetrator

Relationship to the victim	Type of crime	
	Assault %	Sexual offences %
Spouse/partner	11,7	10,8
Ex-spouse/partner	1,6	9,7
Boy/girlfriend	4,3	1,6
Ex-boy/girlfriend	3,2	0,0
Relative	13,0	15,8
Close friend	19,3	10,8
Work colleague/boss	1,7	0,0
Acquaintance	25,7	26,4
No relation/acquaintance	18,1	23,4
Refusal	1,4	1,4
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**

- Table 2 indicates that, in cases of assault or sexual offences where the victim knew the offender, this offender was highly likely to be a friend or relation of the victim.
- In only 18% of assaults and 23% of sexual offences, the perpetrator was neither a relation, friend nor acquaintance of the victim.
- Acquaintances (26%) and close friends (19%) were more likely than any other category to be the perpetrators in cases of assault on the victim.
- A large percentage of sexual offences were committed by acquaintances (26%), relatives (16%), spouses (11%) or close friends (11%) of the victim.

% of crimes

Household crimes	
Murder	73,4
Hijacking/attempt	62,9
Housebreaking/burglary	30,7
Individual crimes	
Robbery with force	58,1
Assault	54,9
Sexual offences	46,2

Excluding unstated
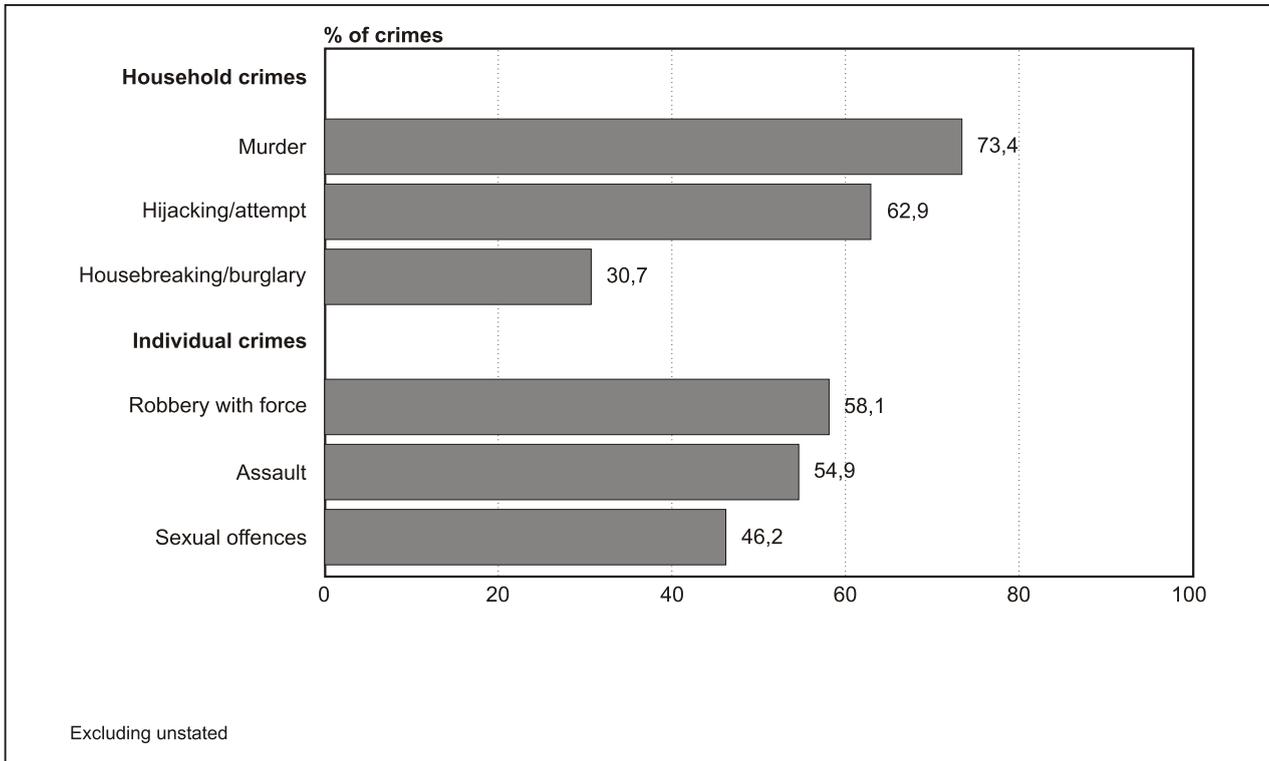
Figure 29: Amongst households and individuals who had experienced a crime where they had come in contact with the perpetrator, whether a weapon was used

- For those crimes where the victims came into contact with the offender, respondents were asked to indicate whether or not a weapon was used.
- Figure 29 shows that a weapon such as a firearm or a knife was most likely to be used for murder (73%).
- Where no weapon was used for this crime, death occurred as a result of beating or assault, poisoning, strangulation, or throwing from a building or moving vehicle or train.
- Weapons were least likely to be used for housebreaking and burglary (31%).

% of crimes

Household crimes

Hijacking/attempt

Murder

Housebreaking/burglary

Individual crimes

Robbery with force

Assault

Sexual offence

0   20   40   60   80   100

Type of weapon
■ Firearm   ■ Knife/sharp object   □ Other (e.g. stick)

Excluding unstated
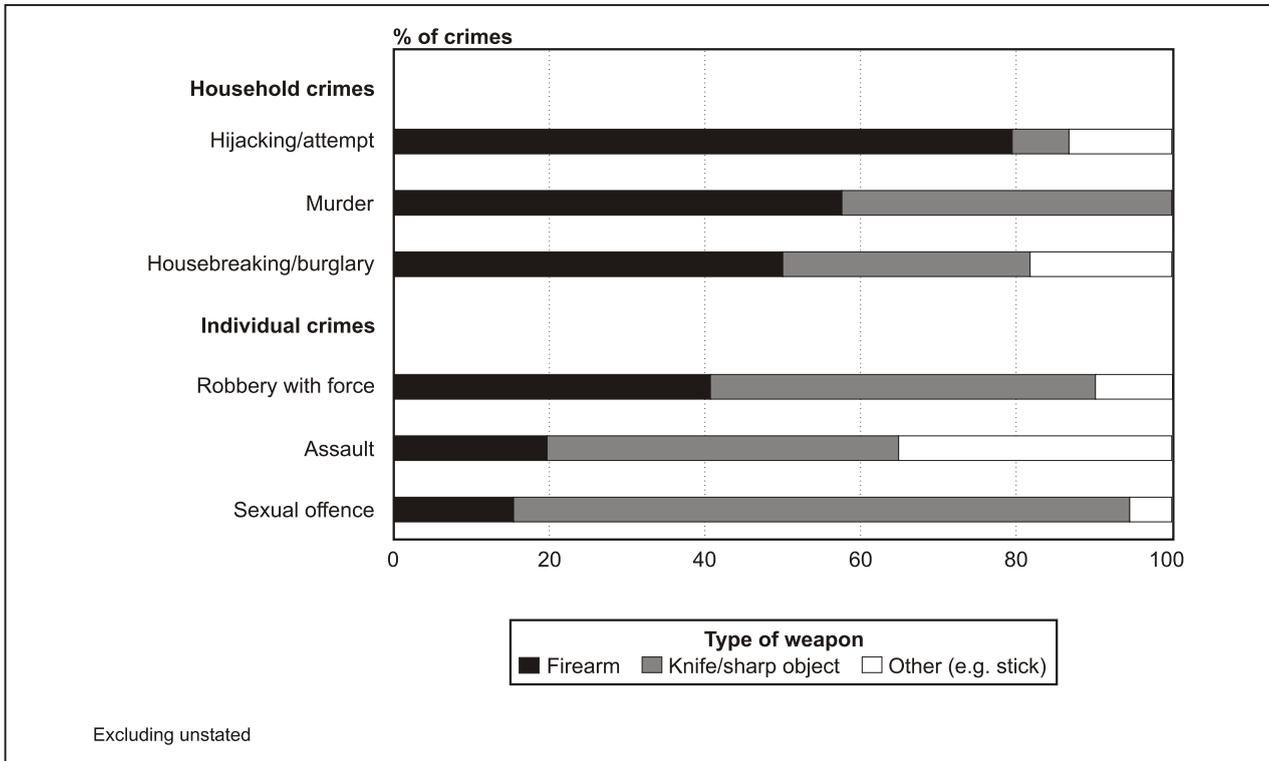
Figure 30: For those crimes where a weapon was used, type of weapon

- For those crimes where a weapon had been used, the type of weapon varied by type of crime.
- Figure 30 shows that, where a weapon was used in cases of hijacking, the weapon was a firearm in 80% of incidents.
- In murder incidents where a weapon was used, this weapon was either a firearm (58%) or a knife or other sharp object (42%).
- For violent individual crimes such as sexual offences (79%), robbery with force (50%) and assault (45%), the weapon was likely to be a knife or other sharp object.

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Chapter 6

Reporting of crime

Household crimes

% reported

Crime	Value
Vehicle theft	95,0
Killing/murder	83,0
Theft of motor cycles	78,8
Car hijacking/attempt	59,7
Theft: goods from cars	58,8
Housebreaking/burglary	58,7
Dwelling damage	56,4
Vehicle vandalism	54,6
Attempted housebreak	41,2
Theft: bicycles	40,4
Theft of livestock	38,9
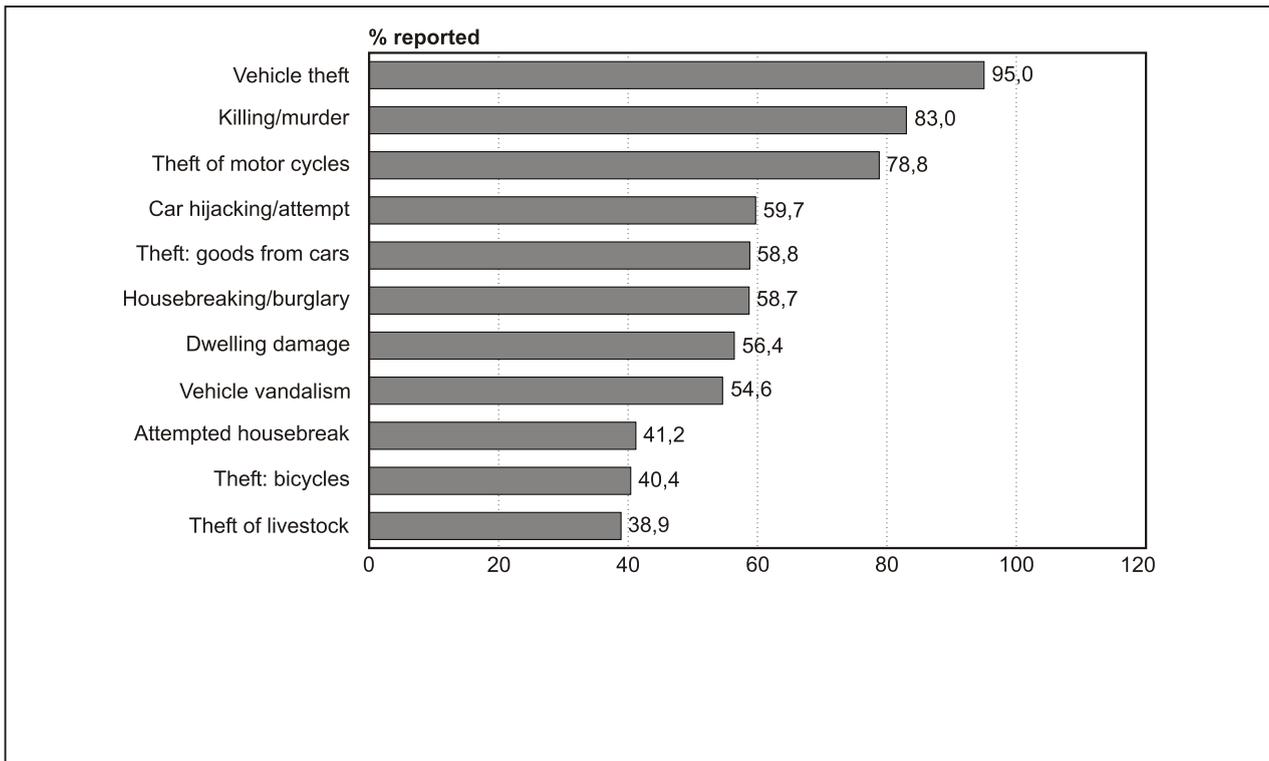
Figure 31: In the last five years, percentage of household crimes that were reported (the last time it happened if it had occurred more than once)

- The extent to which a household crime is reported to police depends on the type of crime. Some crimes are more frequently reported than others.
- Theft of a motor vehicle is most likely to be reported (95%), followed by murder (83%).
- Crimes least likely to be reported are theft of livestock (39%), theft of bicycles (40%) and attempted burglary or housebreaking (41%).
- If a crime is not reported, this does not necessarily mean that the police are unaware of the crime. For example, they could have arrived at the scene beforehand, a murder could have been reported as a missing person, etc.
- The terminology used for crimes in this report differs from the legal terminology used by police. It is therefore highly unlikely that reported crimes in victim surveys will tally with crime statistics collected by the police.

% households

Crime	% urban households	% non-urban households
Vehicle theft	95,7	91,2
Killing/murder	89,2	77,0
Theft of motor cycles	78,8	
Housebreaking/burglary	67,4	43,0
Theft: goods from cars	64,6	34,0
Car hijacking/attempt	61,0	53,9
Dwelling damage	56,7	56,1
Vehicle vandalism	55,3	49,4
Attempted housebreak	44,4	33,9
Theft: bicycles	44,0	26,1
Theft of livestock	30,1	41,7

Excluding unstated

Figure 32: In the last five years, percentage of household crimes that were reported (the last time it happened if it had occurred more than once) by urban and non-urban areas

- Figure 32 shows that, with the exception of livestock theft (30% in urban versus 42% in non-urban areas), household crimes occurring to those living in urban areas are more likely to be reported than household crimes happening to those living in non-urban areas.
- For example, while 67% of cases of housebreaking and burglary are reported in urban areas, only 43% are reported in non-urban areas.
- Regarding motor cycle thefts, there were too few in non-urban areas for the extent of reporting to the police to be noted. However 79% of these crimes were reported in urban areas.
- Better access to police stations, telephones and transport may be the main reasons why a higher percentage of urban than non-urban crimes are reported.

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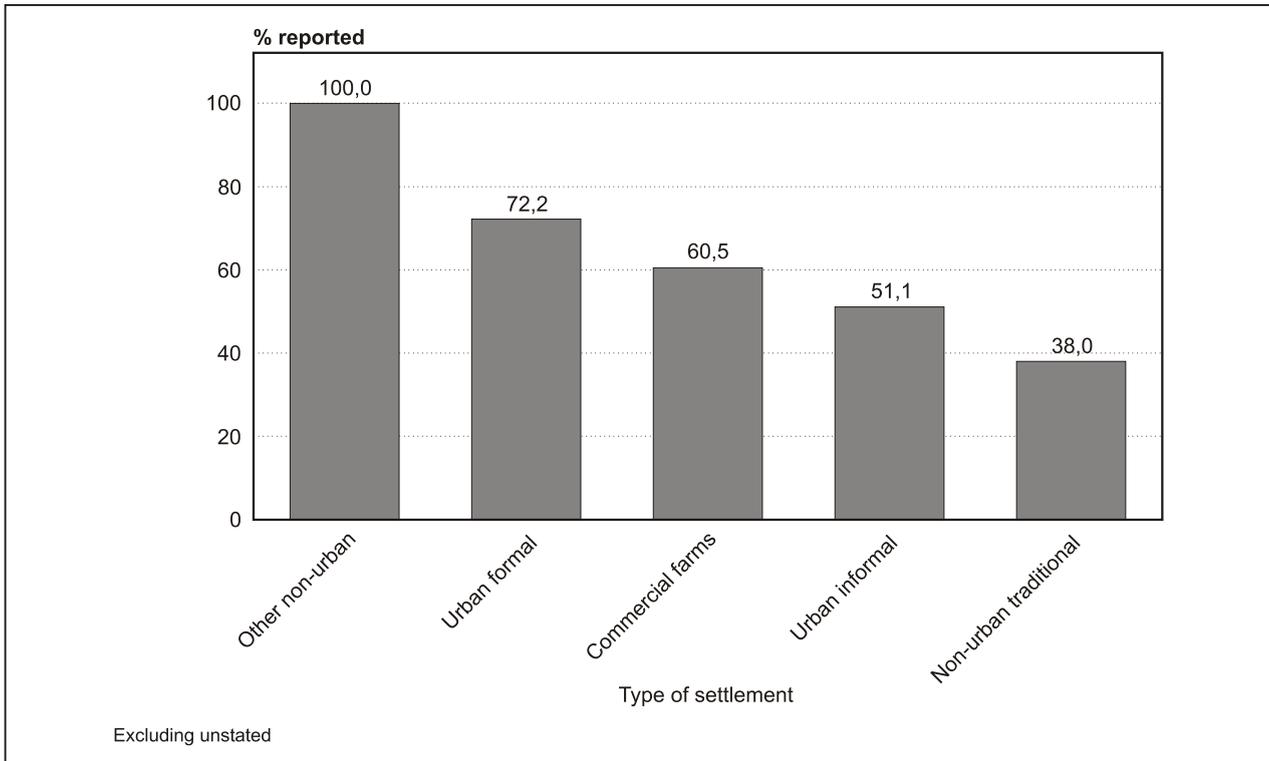
% reported

Figure 33: Percentage of households which reported the crime of housebreaking and burglary by type of settlement

- Reporting of household crime to the police varies by type of settlement in which the household is situated. The most common household crime – housebreaking and burglary – is taken here as an example of this variation.
- All incidents of housebreaking and burglary were reported in the category of other non-urban areas, such as mission settlements and small villages. This result should be interpreted with caution, due to the small sample size.
- But in non-urban traditional areas, only 38% of these crimes were reported.
- These crimes are more likely to be reported in urban formal areas (72%) than in urban informal areas (51%).

% reported

Province	%
Free State	79,6
Western Cape	75,1
Northern Cape	69,3
Gauteng	59,1
KwaZulu-Natal	55,4
Mpumalanga	53,4
Eastern Cape	45,9
North West	39,6
Northern Province	39,0
South Africa	58,7
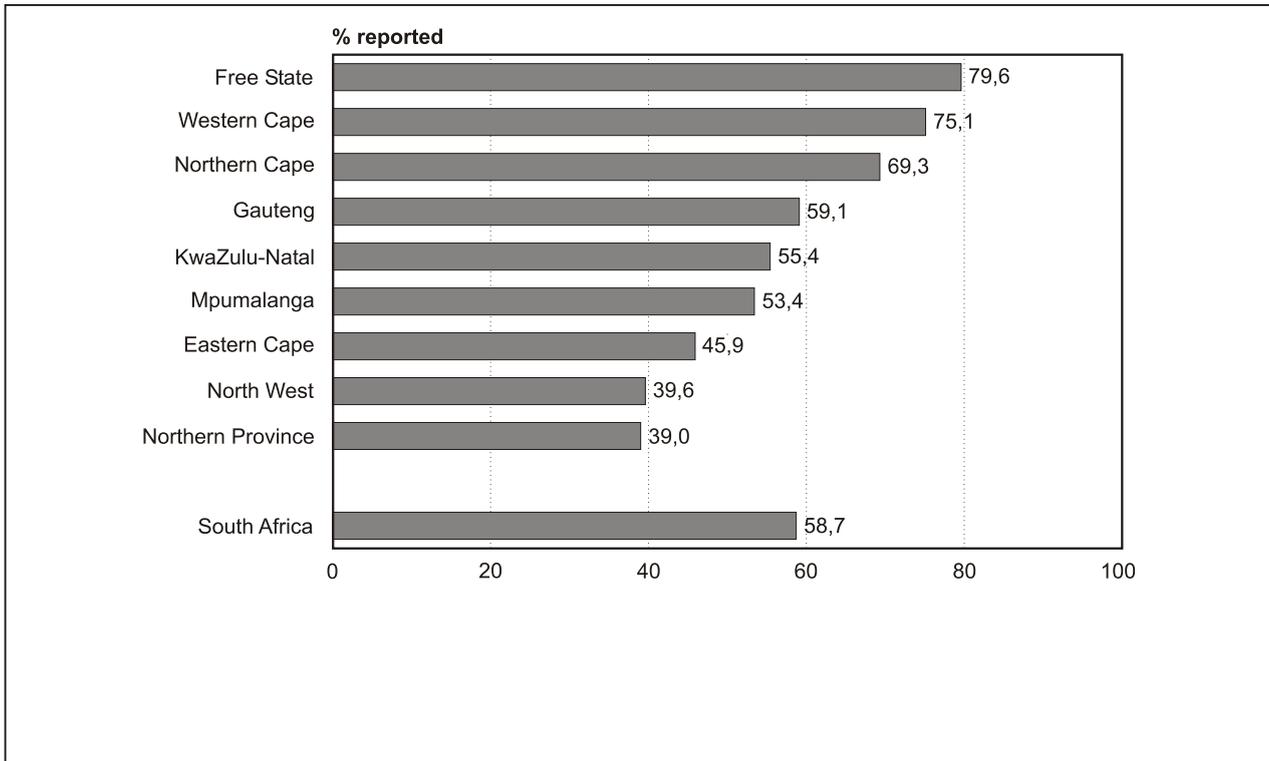
Figure 34: Percentage of respondents who said that the crime of housebreaking and burglary was actually reported to the police, by province

- Reporting of household crime varies by province. The example of housebreaking and burglary will again be used as an example of the extent to which this crime was reported to the police in each province.
- As many as 80% of respondents in Free State and 75% of respondents in Western Cape said that this crime had been reported to the police, compared with only 40% in North West and 39% in Northern Province.

Individual crimes

% of individuals reporting crime

Excluding unstated
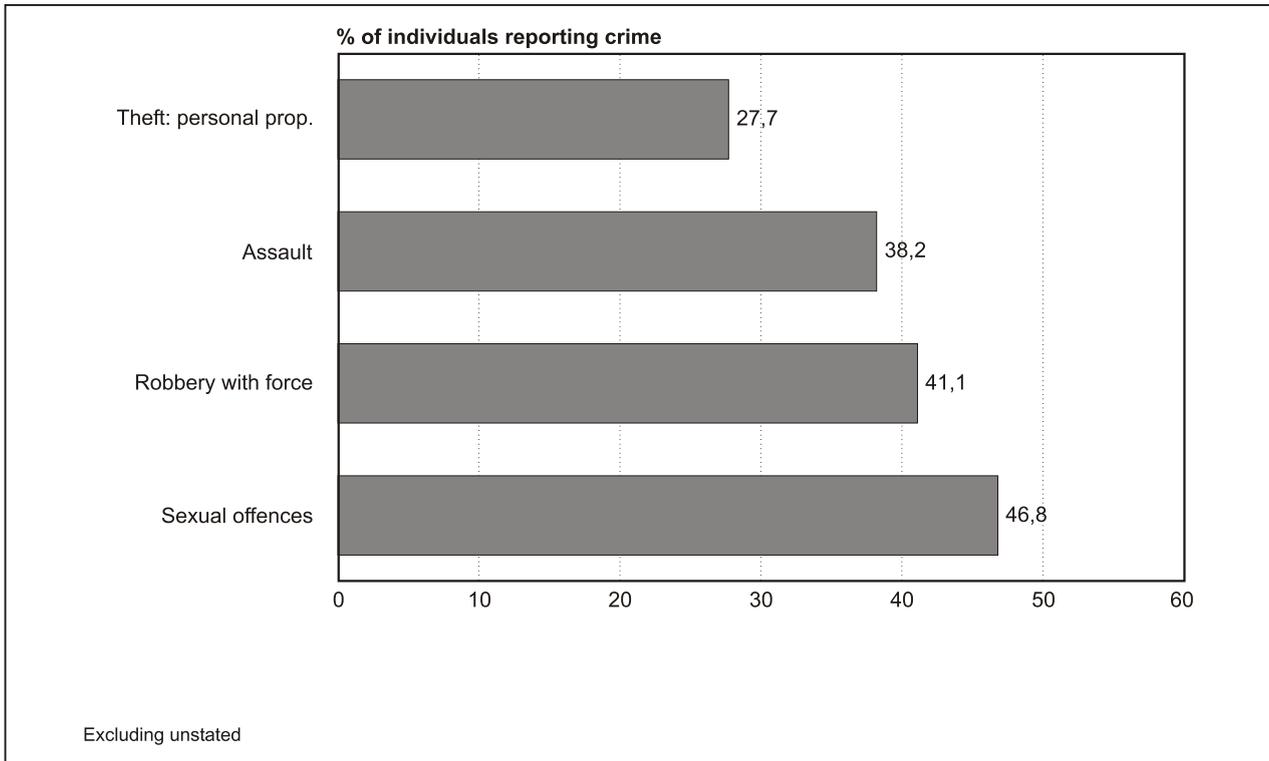
Figure 35: Percentage of individuals which reported crimes committed against them (the last time it happened, if it had occurred more than once in the last five years)

- Overall, individual crimes tend to be less-frequently reported than household crimes.
- Figure 35 shows that theft of personal property (28%) is the least-likely crime to be reported, followed by assault (38%), then robbery with force (41%) and then sexual offences (47%).
- The relatively high reporting of sexual offences may be due to the fact that those who report this type of crime to an interviewer are also likely to report it to the police.

% of individuals reporting crime

	Male	Female
Sexual offences	51,4	45,8
Robbery with force	43,8	36,7
Assault	34,2	42,5
Theft: personal prop.	31,9	23,8

Excluding unstated
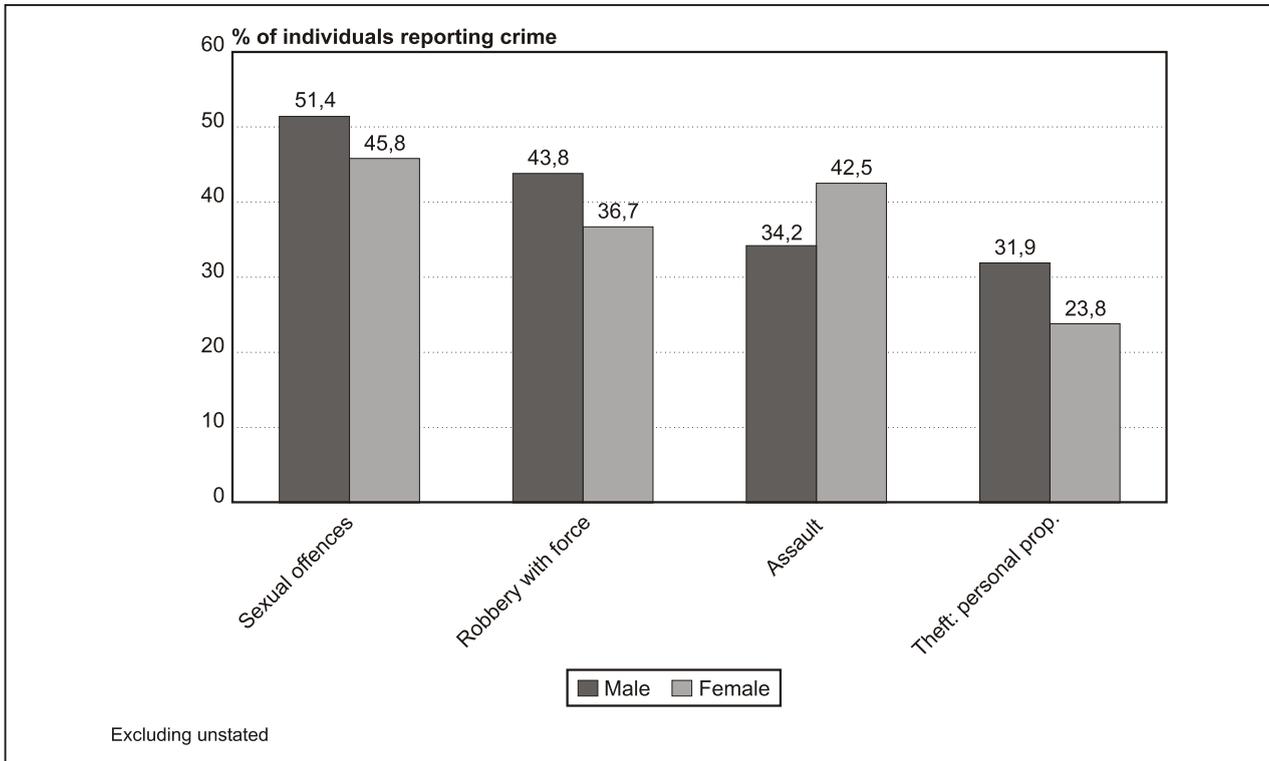
Figure 36: Percentage of males and females who reported crimes committed against them (the last time it happened, if it had occurred more than once in the last five years)

- Figure 36 indicates that males are more likely to report individual crimes committed against them than females. For example, 44% of males said that they had reported robbery with force, as against 37% of females.
- The only exception is assault, where proportionately more women (43%) than men (34%) reported this crime.
- The high proportion of males reporting sexual offences should be treated with caution, since a small number of male respondents had been victims of sexual offences.

% of individuals who reported the crime
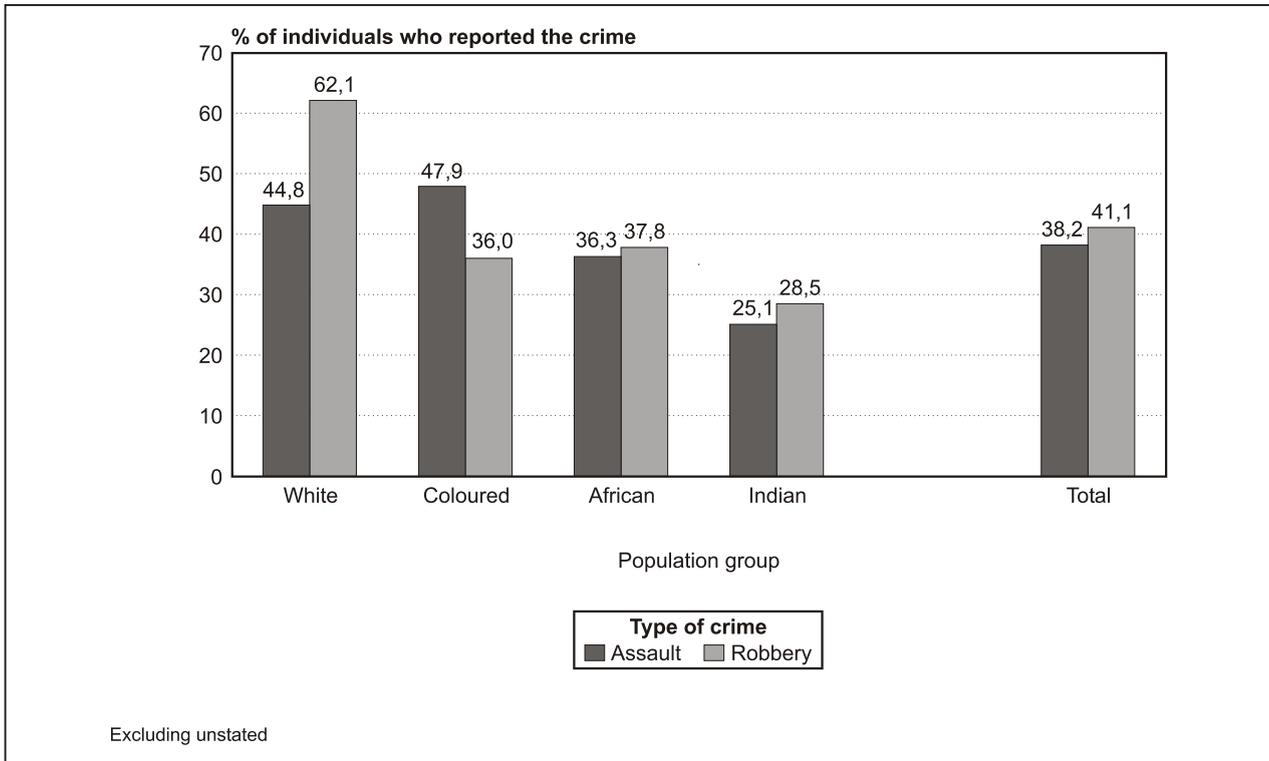
Figure 37: Percentage of individuals who reported crimes committed against them (the last time it happened, if it had occurred more than once in the last five years) by population group

- Complex relationships exist between the extent of crime reporting and demographic variables.
- For example, the rate of crime reporting varies not only by population group, but within population group and by type of crime. Two crimes – assault and robbery with force have been chosen to illustrate this point.
- Figure 37 shows that white respondents (62%) are more likely to report robbery with force than any other group.
- On the other hand, they are less likely to report assault (45%).
- Coloured respondents are more likely to report assault (48%) than any other group, but they are less likely to report robbery (36%).
- Indian respondents have the lowest reporting rate for both crimes (29% for robbery and 25% for assault).

% of individuals reporting crime

| Category	16 - 35	36 - 55	56 or more
Theft: personal prop.	17,2	37,3	36,4
Assault	32,0	42,3	60,5
Robbery with force	34,6	36,1	65,6
Sexual offences	38,3	69,4	42,5

Age group in years
■ 16 - 35　■ 36 - 55　□ 56 or more
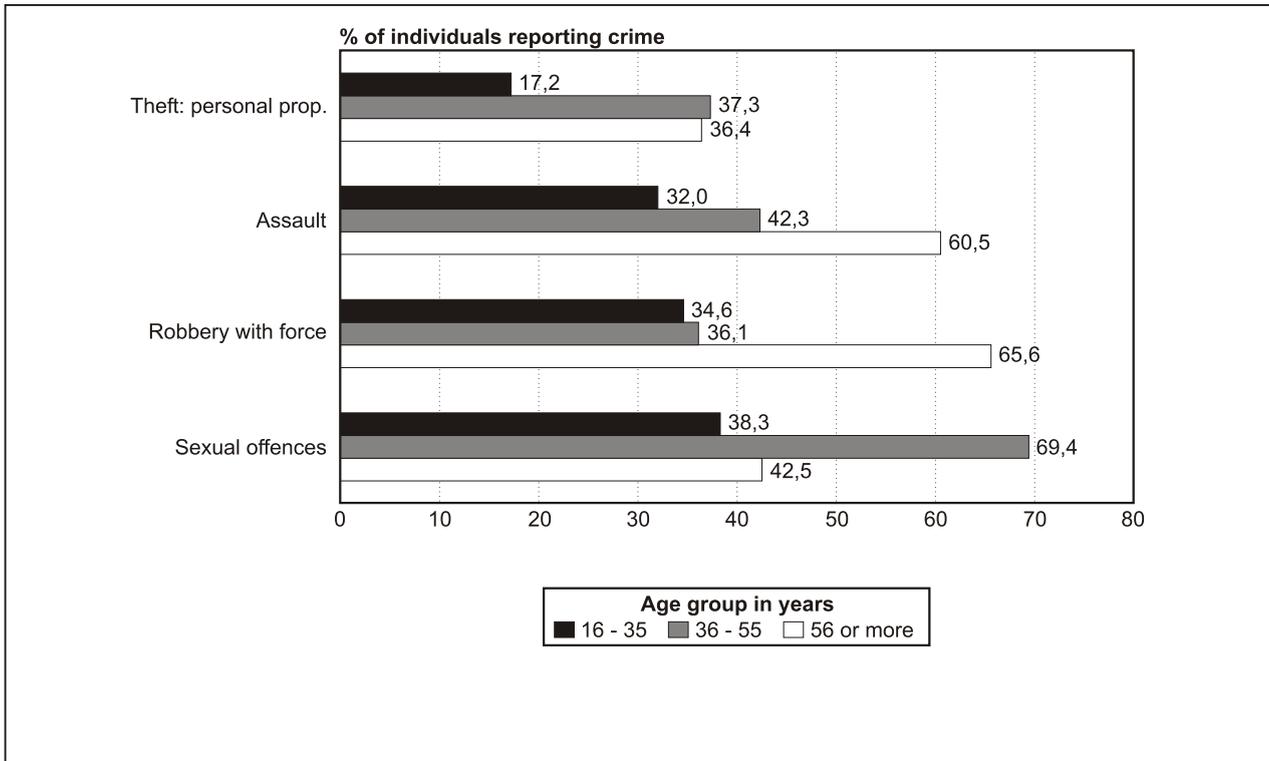
Figure 38: Percentage of individuals who reported crimes committed against them (the last time it happened, if it had occurred more than once in the last five years) by age group

- There is a complex relationship between crime reporting and age group.
- Figure 38 indicates that both assault (61%) and robbery with force (66%) were most likely to be reported by those aged 56 years or more, while sexual offences (69%) were most likely to be reported by those aged 36 to 55 years.
- Those in the youngest age category of 16 to 35 years were least likely to report any of the individual crimes.

Reasons for not reporting crimes

- The reasons given in the questionnaire as to why people did not report a crime to the police were grouped together into five categories:

    Police issues: the respondents believed that either the police would fail to solve crime, that some police are corrupt or inaccessible, or that sometimes police intervention is inappropriate. In addition some respondents indicated that they had previously had bad experiences when dealing with the police; others feared that there would be reprisals when reporting to the police; while yet others held the belief that that police would not take the incident seriously.

    Perpetrator issues: some respondents did not report a crime to the police because they could not identify the perpetrator, while others feared reprisals from the perpetrator.

    Crime-related issues: some respondents did not report a crime because it was not serious enough, others did not report it because the items taken were not insured or they were old or not valuable, while yet others claimed that they solved the crime themselves.

    Self-blame issues: these included fear of being blamed for the crime, belief that it was partly the victim's own fault, and fear of being exposed or embarrassed.

    Other issues: these included specific aspects of each person's life circumstances.
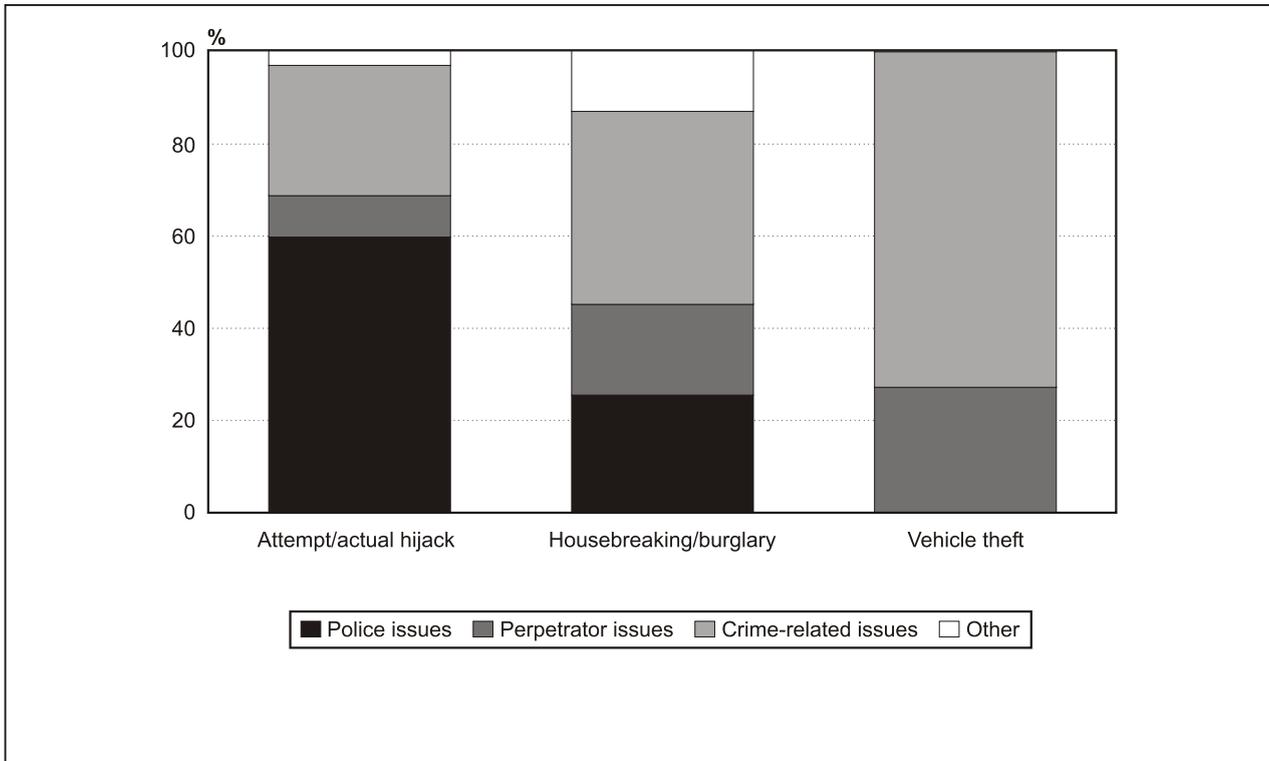
Figure 39: Reasons for not reporting hijacking/attempted hijacking, housebreaking and burglary, and vehicle theft amongst those who failed to report these crimes to the police

- Figure 39 indicates that, for car hijacking or attempted car hijacking, 60% of people who did not report this crime gave police issues as the reason for failure to report the crime.
- On the other hand, for housebreaking and burglary, 42% of respondents gave crime-related issues for failure to report the incident to the police.
- An even higher proportion of 78% of those who did not report the theft of a vehicle to the police gave crime-related issues for failure to do so.

% Male   **% Female**

Legend: ■ Police issues ■ Perpetrator issues ▨ Crime-related issues ▢ Self-blame issues □ Other
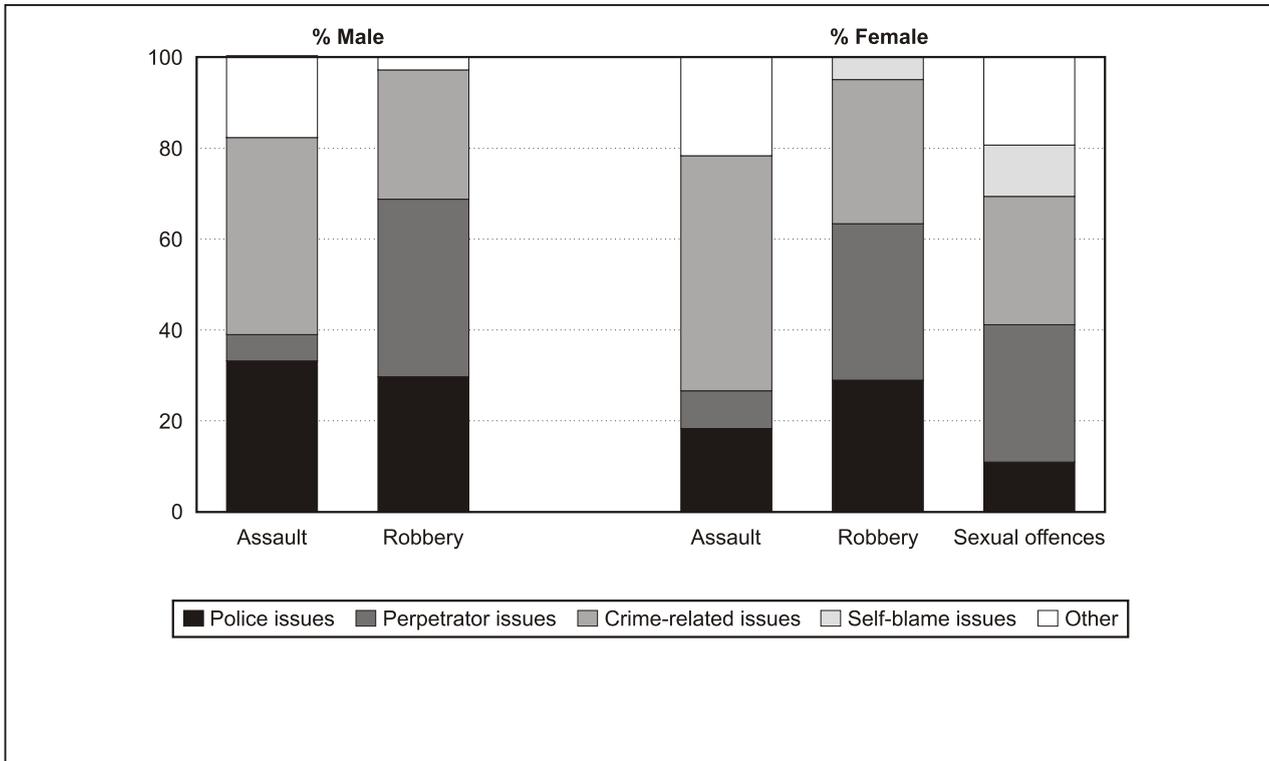
Figure 40: Reasons for not reporting assault, robbery and sexual offences amongst those who failed to report these crimes to the police

- Figure 40 indicates that, among males, failure to report assault to the police tended to focus on crime-related issues (43%) and, to a lesser extent, on police-related issues.
- However, among males failing to report robbery with force, a large percentage mentioned perpetrator issues (39%).
- There were too few males who did not report sexual offences to analyse this category further.
- Among females, failure to report assault was associated with the perpetrator (52%) and other issues (22%).
- Failure to report robbery among females was associated with the perpetrator (35%), crime-related (32%) and police issues (29%).
- Approximately one in ten females who did not report sexual offences (11%) raised self-blame issues for failure to do so.
- The large proportion of assault victims who indicated that the police were inappropriate for dealing with this sort of crime, or who said that they had dealt with the matter themselves requires further research.

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Chapter 7

Perceptions of police and policing

Satisfaction with the service when reporting to the police
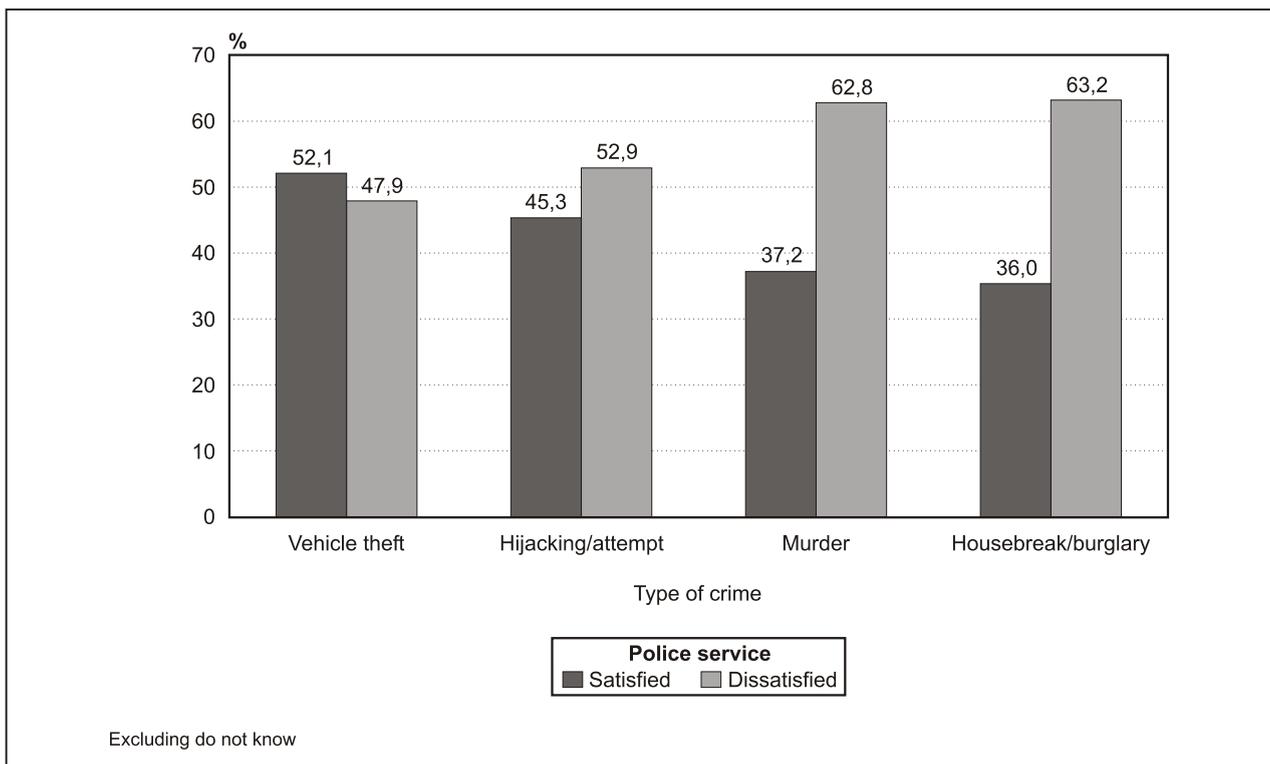
Figure 41: Amongst respondents who reported theft of vehicles, hijacking/attempted hijacking, murder, housebreaking and burglary, whether or not they were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter

- Respondents who reported certain household crimes to the police were asked, by type of crime, to indicate whether or not they were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter.
- Figure 41 indicates that more than half the respondents who reported theft of motor vehicles (52%) were satisfied with the way police dealt with the crime of vehicle theft.
- This proportion decreased to 45% amongst those reporting hijacking or attempted hijacking, and then to 36% amongst those reporting murder, deliberate killing, housebreaking or burglary.
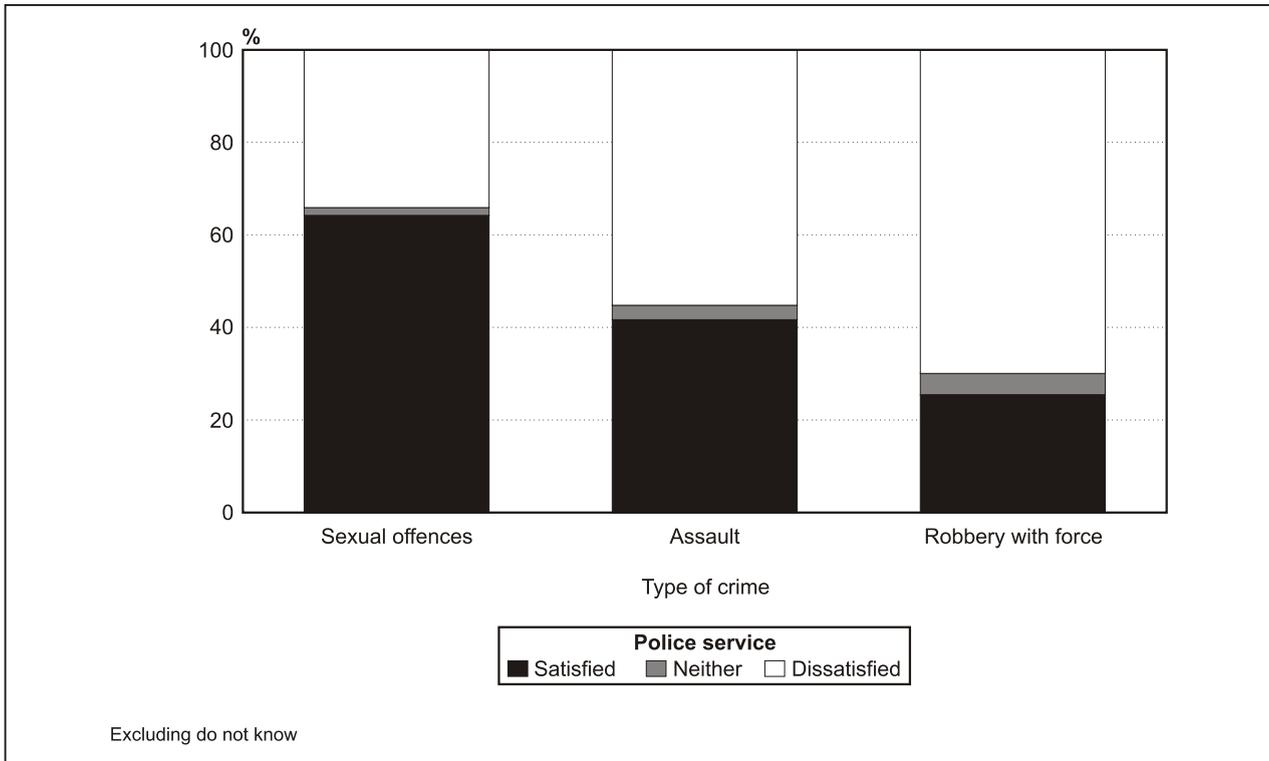
Figure 42: Amongst respondents who reported sexual offences, assault and robbery with force, whether or not they were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter.

- Respondents who reported certain individual crimes to the police were also asked to indicate whether or not they were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter on which they reported.
- Figure 42 shows that 64% of those who reported sexual offences were satisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the crime. It is possible that existence of special measures introduced for dealing with this type of crime account in part for this high percentage of satisfaction. This result should be treated with caution, since we are dealing with small numbers of people who experienced the crime.
- This proportion decreased to 41% amongst those reporting assault, and then to 26% amongst those reporting robbery with force.
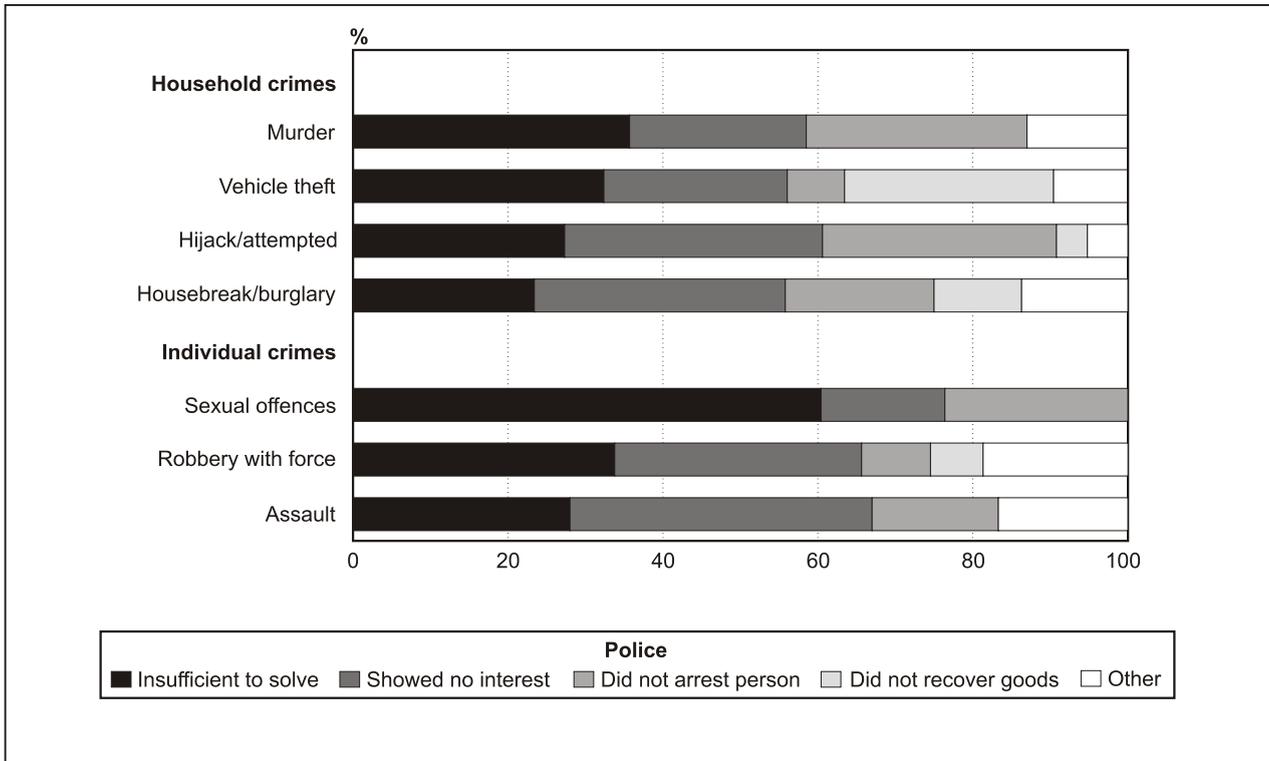
Figure 43: Reasons for dissatisfaction amongst those who reported certain crimes to the police and were dissatisfied with the way in which the police dealt with the matter

- In general, there were four main reasons why people were dissatisfied with the way in which police dealt with the crime after it was reported: police did insufficient to solve the case; they showed a lack of interest; they failed to find or arrest the offender; or they failed to recover the stolen property.
- The percentage of responses for each reason varied by the type of crime. For example, among those who had reported sexual offences and were dissatisfied, 60% believed that the police did insufficient to solve the case. This percentage was lower for other crimes, even though it remained an important reason of dissatisfaction for all of them. For example, it was mentioned as the main reason for dissatisfaction in 36% of cases of murders and 34% of cases of robbery involving force.
- Amongst those who reported the crime to the police and were dissatisfied with the way they dealt with the matter, lack of interest by the police was expressed as the main reason for dissatisfaction by 39% of those who reported assault, 33% of those who reported hijacking and 32% of those who reported either housebreaking and burglary or robbery with force.
- For hijacking or attempted hijacking, 30% of the dissatisfaction was attributed to failure by the police to arrest the offender. The equivalent percentage was 29% in the case of murders and 24% in the case of sexual offences.

The general public's satisfaction with the police in their neighbourhood

% of individuals

Identity of the offender
■ Satisfied ■ Neutral □ Dissatisfied

Excluding unstated
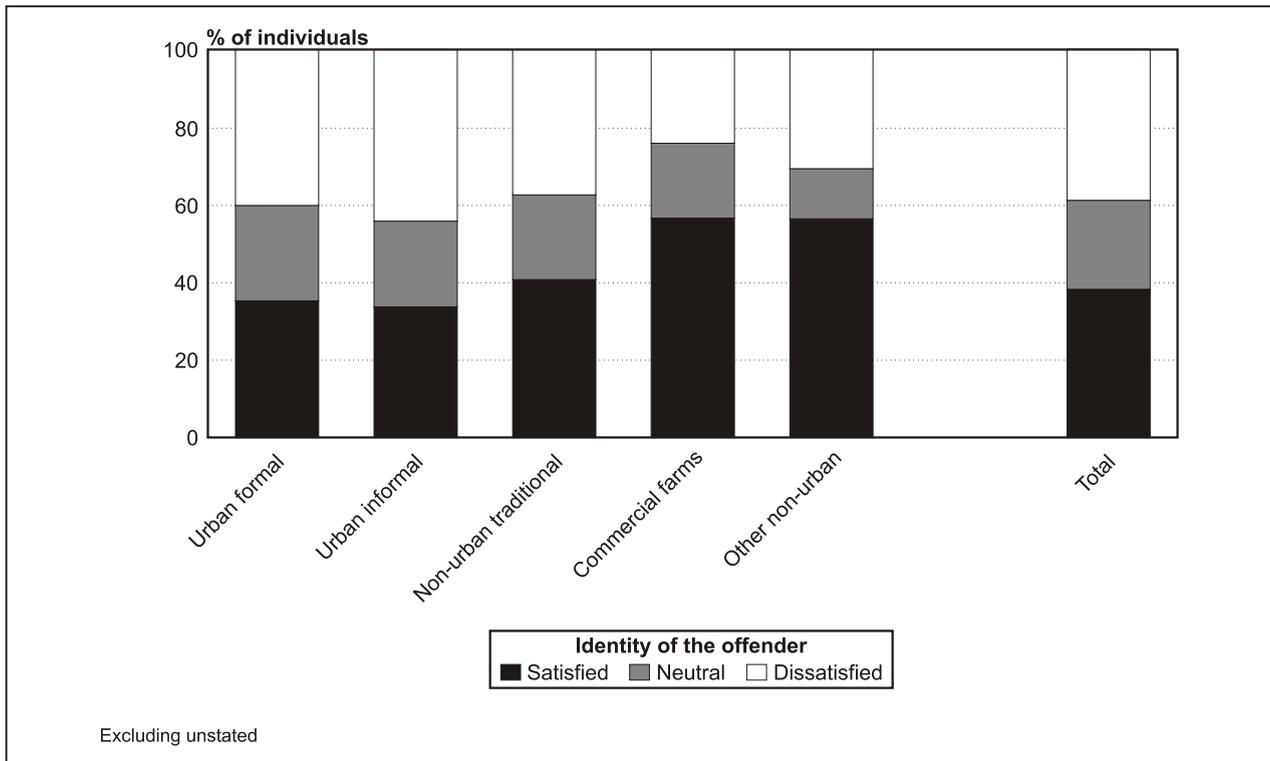
Figure 44: Satisfaction with the way in which the police are controlling crime in respondents' neighbourhood by settlement type

- All respondents, irrespective of whether or not they or their households had experienced any crime in the past five years (or in 1997), were asked to indicate, taking everything into account, how satisfied they were with the way in which the police in their neighbourhood were controlling crime.
- Figure 44 indicates that 38% of respondents were satisfied with the way in which police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood, while 23% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and 40% were dissatisfied.
- The highest proportion of satisfied people were found on commercial farms (57%) and other non-urban areas such as small villages (56%), followed by those in traditional areas (41%).
- A smaller proportion of satisfied people were found in urban formal (35%) and urban informal areas (34%).

% who were satisfied

Province	Value
Gauteng	25,3
KwaZulu-Natal	33,5
Mpumalanga	36,9
North West	37,1
Northern Province	37,8
Eastern Cape	42,8
Free State	51,3
Western Cape	54,4
Northern Cape	57,5
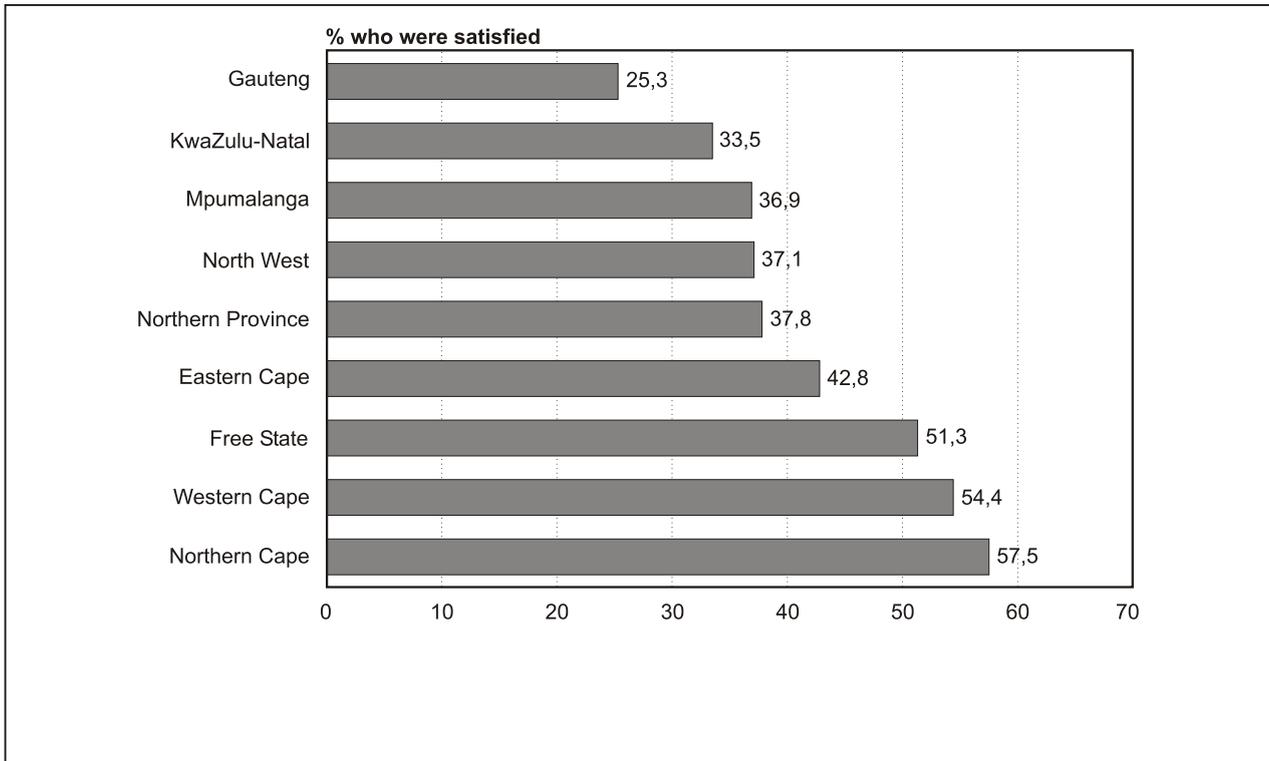
Figure 45: Proportion of those in each province who were satisfied with the way in which police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood

- Figure 45 indicates that more than half of those living in Northern Cape (58%), Western Cape (54%) and Free State (51%) were satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood. These results should be treated with caution, in view of the small sample sizes in the Northern Cape and Free State.
- On the other hand, relatively few people in North West (37%), Mpumalanga (37%), KwaZulu-Natal (34%) and Gauteng (25%) were satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.

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% who are satisfied

Police Area	%
Gordonia	70,5
Southern Cape	70,1
Umzimkulu	67,5
Upper Karoo	62,6
Eastern Metropole	59,3
Northern Free State	56,7
Karoo	53,8
Diamond Fields	51,3
Namaqualand	50,5
Boland	50,5
Western Metropole	48,8
Southern Free State	47,8
Umfolozi	47,7
Eastern Free State	47,5
Uitenhage	47,3
Umtata	47,1
Grahamstown	46,9
Giyani	46,3
Far North	45,6
Port Elizabeth	45,4
Ulundi	44,8
Bushveld	41,9
Queenstown	40,1
Midlands	38,7
Mooi River	38,8
Marico	37,1
East London	36,5
Highveld	35,9
Tugela	35,7
Eastern Highveld	35,1
Molopo	33,1
West Rand	31,6
Pretoria	31,2
Lowveld	28,4
Soweto	27,4
Drakensberg	26,4
Durban	23,3
Johannesburg	22,5
Central	22,3
East Rand	21,6
North Rand	21,2
Vaal Rand	19,8

Figure 46: Proportion of those in each police area who are satisfied with the way in which police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood

- When looking at the extent of satisfaction with the way in which the police were controlling crime in the neighbourhood for each police area, a wide range of percentages are obtained.
- Seven in every ten respondents in the police areas of Gordonia (71%) and Southern Cape (70%) were satisfied with the way in which police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.
- More than half of the respondents in the police areas of Umzimkulu (68%), Upper Karoo (63%), Eastern Metropole (59%), Northern Free State (57%), Karoo (54%), Diamond Fields, Namaqualand and Boland (51% each) were satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.
- On the other hand, fewer than three in every ten respondents in the police areas of Lowveld (28%), Soweto (27%), Drakensberg (26%), Durban (23%), Johannesburg (23%), Central (22%), East Rand (22%), North Rand (21%) and Vaal Rand (20%) were satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood.
- Areas with the highest levels of crime tend to be those with high levels of dissatisfaction.
- There are higher levels of dissatisfaction in urban police areas than in non-urban ones.
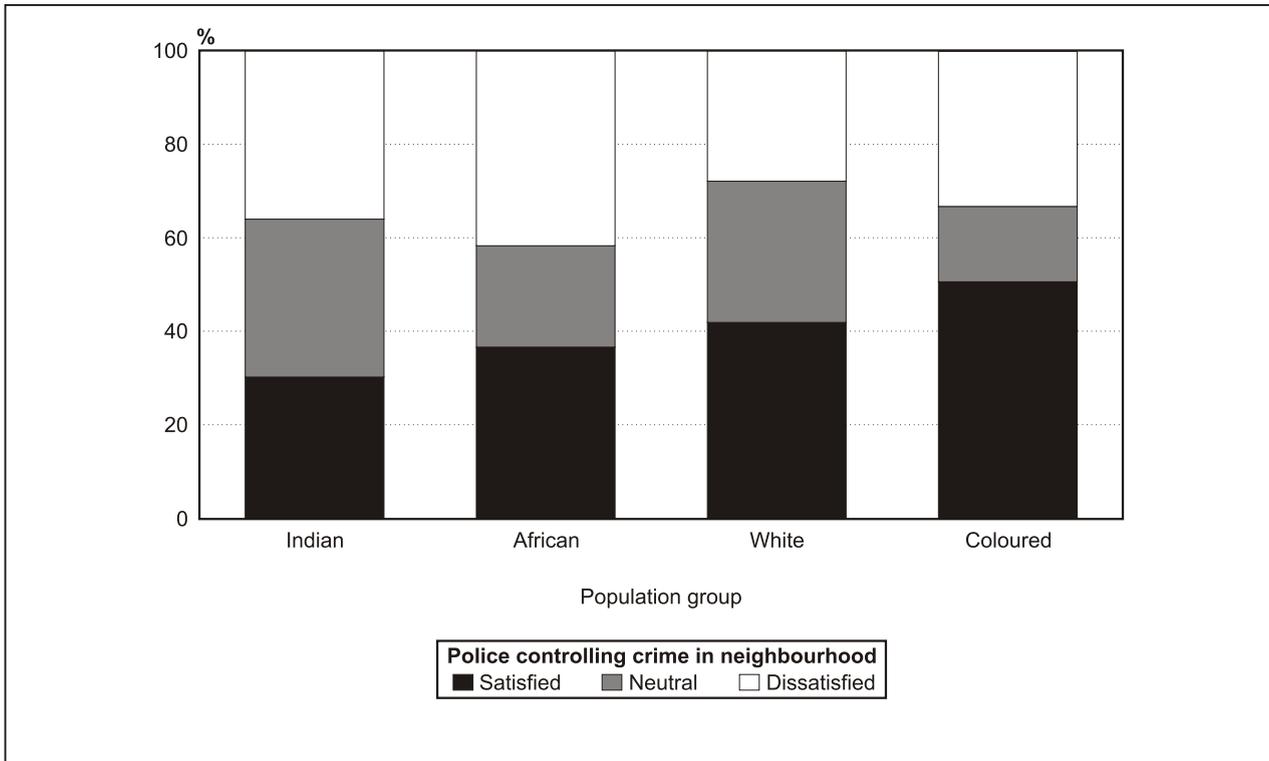
Figure 47: Respondents' satisfaction with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood by population group

- Figure 47 indicates that a relatively small percentage of Indians (30%) were satisfied with the way in which the police are controlling crime in their neighbourhood, followed by Africans (37%), whites (42%) and coloureds (51%).
- Looking at the data from the point of view of dissatisfaction, Africans were most likely to be dissatisfied (42% were dissatisfied, while 22% were neither satisfied or dissatisfied), followed by Indians (36% were dissatisfied, with 34% being neither satisfied or dissatisfied), then coloureds (33% were dissatisfied, with 16% being neither satisfied or dissatisfied) and then whites (28% were dissatisfied, with 30% being neither satisfied or dissatisfied).
- As far as annual household income is concerned, those in the highest income group (R96 000 or more per annum) were more likely to be dissatisfied (44%) than those in the other income groups.

The effectiveness of the police since the April 1994 elections
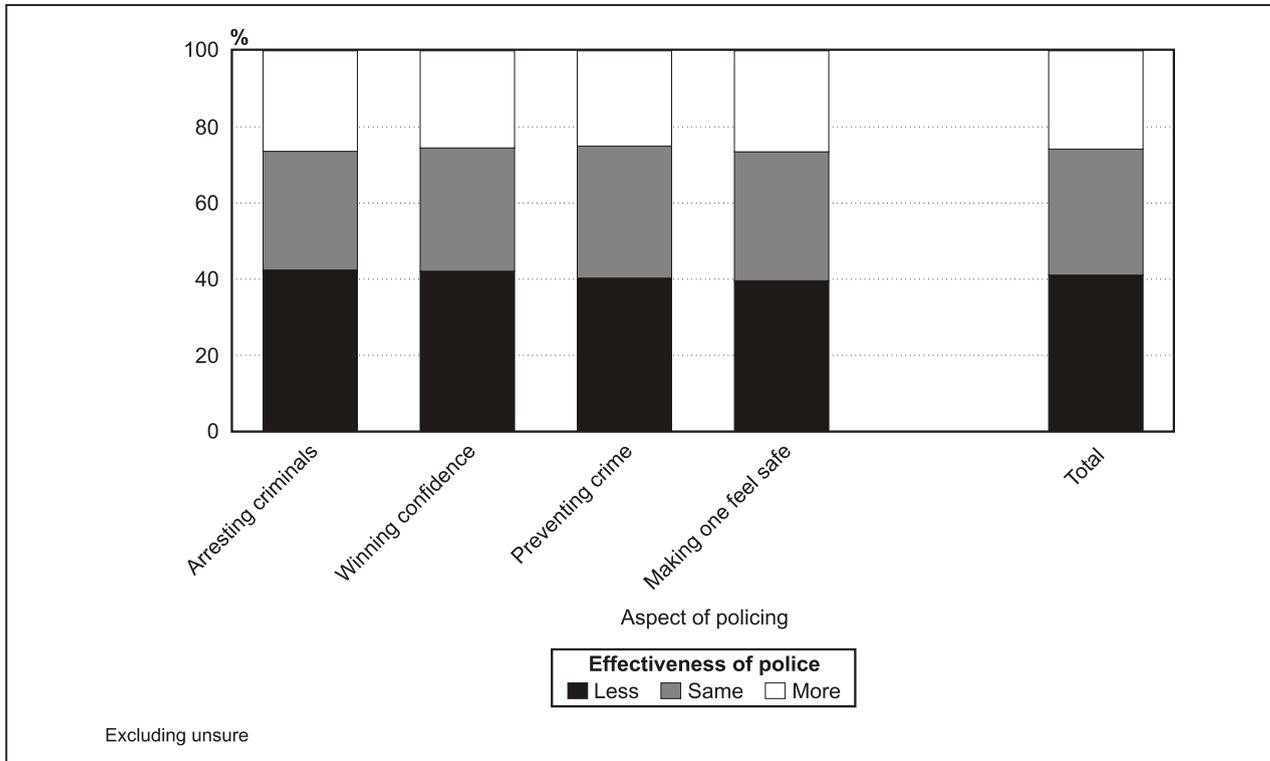
**Figure 48: Beliefs regarding whether the police had become more effective, had stayed the same or had become less effective since the April 1994 election**

- All respondents, irrespective of whether or not they had experienced crime in the previous five years (or in 1997), were asked to focus on the period since South Africa's first democratic elections in April 1994.
- Since that date, they were asked to indicate whether or not they thought the police had become more effective, had stayed the same or had become less effective in the area where they live regarding the following aspects of policing: preventing crime, arresting criminals, winning the confidence of people and making them feel safe.
- Figure 48 shows that, across all four of the above aspects of policing, a similar and rather small proportion of respondents believed that the police had become more effective (approximately 26%), while a larger proportion believed they had stayed the same (approximately 32%), and an even larger proportion believed they had become less effective (approximately 42%).

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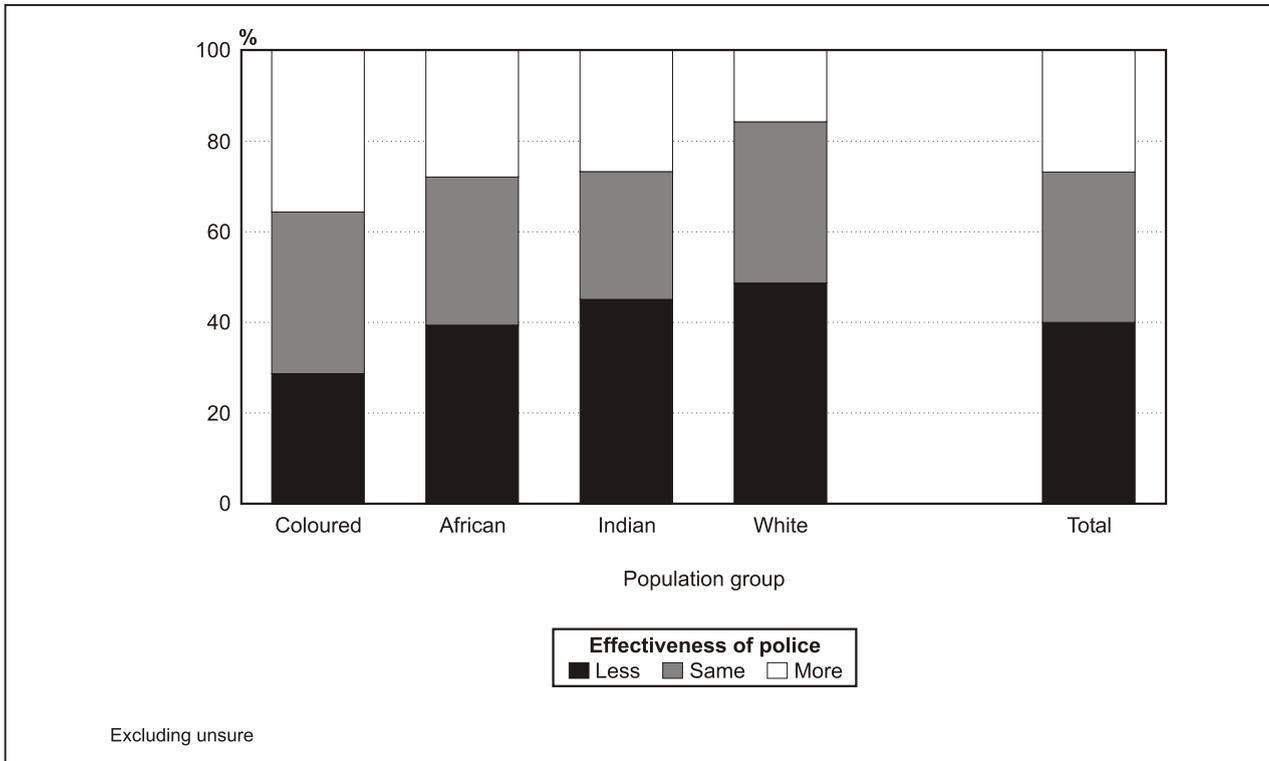
Figure 49: Perceptions on the effectiveness of police since the April 1994 election in making people feel safe by population group.

- Since there is very little difference in the way in which people rated the police regarding preventing crime, arresting criminals, winning the confidence of people and making them feel safe, any of these could have been chosen as an example of the way in which demographic and other variables influence these ratings. The variable 'making people feel safe' was chosen for further comparisons.
- When looking at the variable population group and whether or not respondents thought the police had become more effective, had stayed the same or had become less effective in the area where they live regarding making people feel safe, Figure 49 indicates that a larger than average percentage of coloureds (36%), and a smaller than average percentage of whites (16%) thought that the police had become more effective.
- Almost half of the white (49%) and Indian (45%) respondents thought that the police had become less effective.
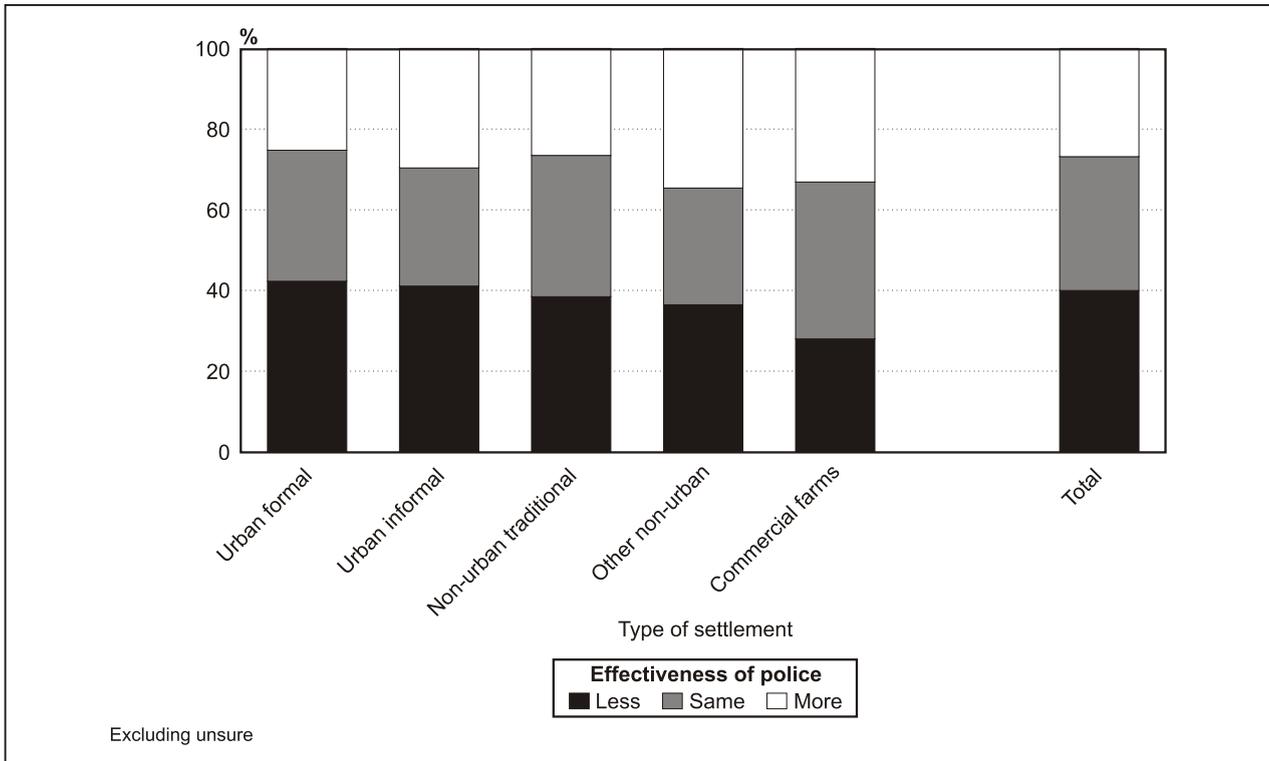
Figure 50: Perceptions on the effectiveness of police since the April 1994 election in making people feel safe by type of settlement

- As far as type of settlement in which the respondent lives is concerned, a large proportion of those living in urban formal (42%) or informal (41%) areas thought that the police were less effective in making people feel safe, followed by those living in non-urban traditional (39%) and other non-urban areas (37%).
- A relatively small proportion of those living on commercial farms (28%) thought that the police had become less effective.

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Chapter 8

Assistance available for victims and preventive measures taken to avoid crime
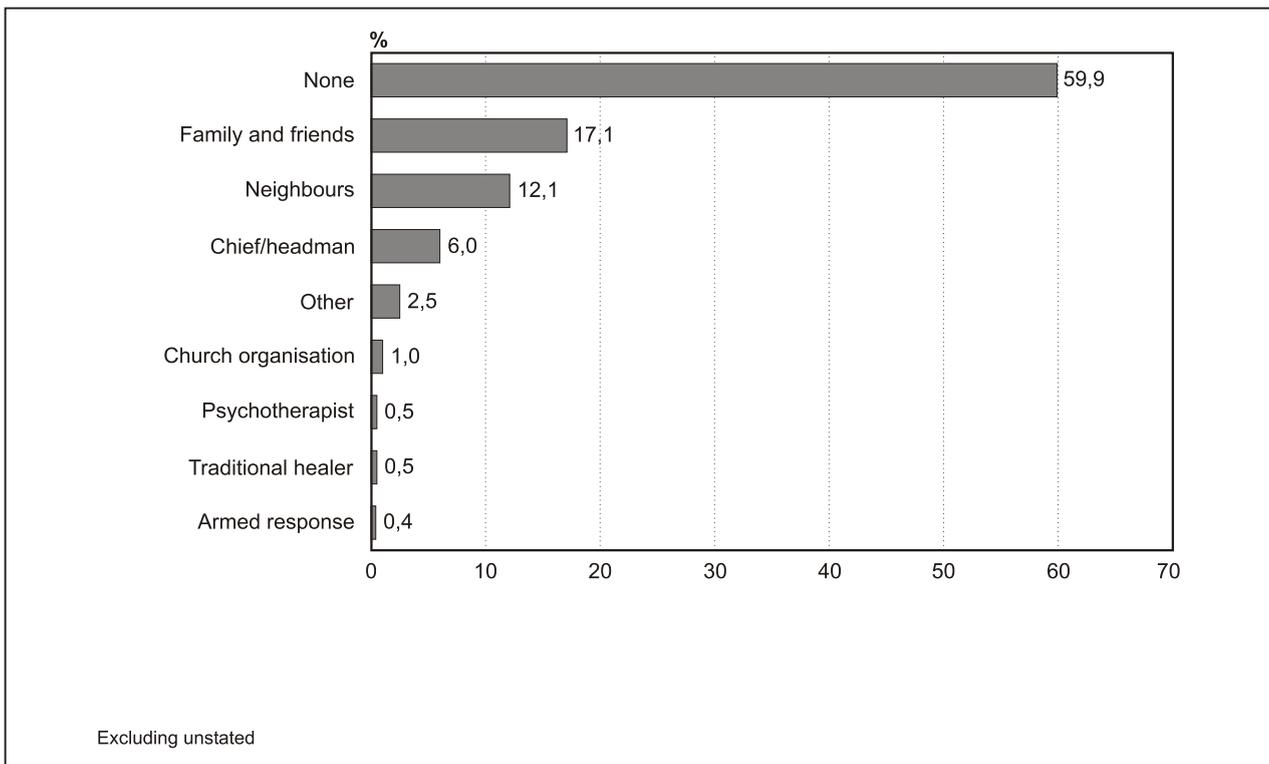
Figure 51: Where victims of crime turned to for emotional support, besides or instead of the police

- When the victims in this survey were asked where they turned to for emotional support at the time of the crime, 60% indicated that they went nowhere, while 17% turned to relatives and friends, 12% to neighbours and 6% to a chief or headman.
- One per cent or less turned to those who could offer professional assistance, for example, a psychotherapist or counsellor, a traditional healer or an armed response organisation.
- When looking at provincial breakdowns, in the more rural provinces such as Eastern Cape (19%), KwaZulu-Natal (7%) and Northern Province (5,9%), a group of people turned to their traditional chief or headman for support.
- No other specific pattern of emotional support by province emerged.

Province	Value
Eastern Cape	76,8
Free State	79,6
Gauteng	80,1
KwaZulu-Natal	81,6
Northern Province	82,5
North West	87,2
Mpumalanga	88,0
Western Cape	90,9
Northern Cape	96,9
Total	82,4

Excluding unstated
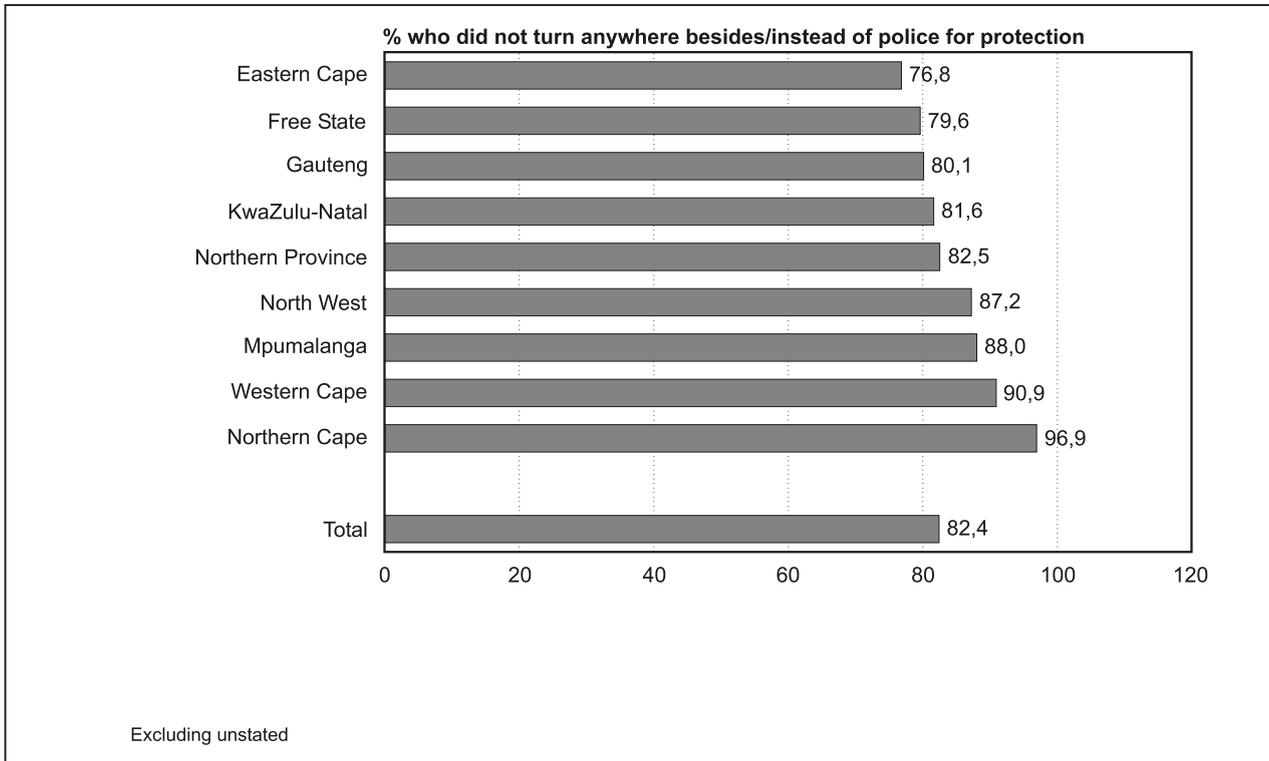
Figure 52: Percentage of victims of crime who indicated they had nowhere to turn to for protection after the crime they experienced, besides or instead of the police

- Figure 52 shows that, when the victims in this survey were asked where they turned to for protection after the crime, 82% indicated that there was nowhere they turned to.
- Among those who sought help (not shown in the graph), sources of help included neighbourhood watch groups (6%), street committees (3%), private security firms (3%), local chiefs and headmen (3%), community police forums (1%) and other sources (2%).
- Almost all victims living in the sparsely populated Northern Cape (97%) indicated that they had nowhere to turn for protection after the crime.

% who did not turn anywhere beside/instead of police to ensure punishment

Eastern Cape	81,9
Northern Province	82,8
North West	91,0
KwaZulu-Natal	91,6
Free State	93,1
Mpumalanga	94,2
Gauteng	94,8
Northern Cape	97,3
Western Cape	98,7
Total	90,9

Excluding unspecified
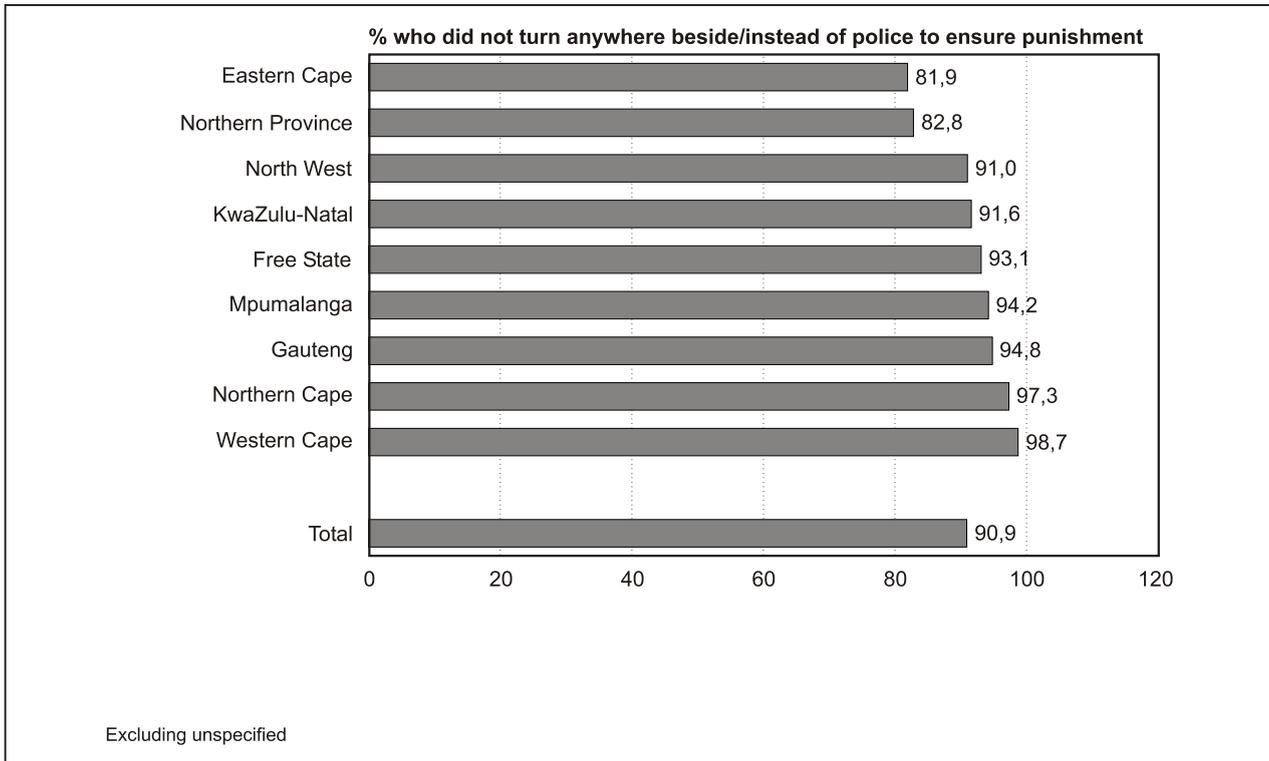
Figure 53: Percentage of victims of crime who indicated they did not go anywhere to ensure that criminals were punished after the crime they experienced, besides or instead of the police

- When the victims in this survey were asked where they went in order to ensure that criminals were punished, 91% indicated that there was nowhere that they turned to.
- Sources of help included people's courts (4%), street committees (2%), vigilante groups (2%) and other sources (1%).
- People' courts were relatively common in Northern Province (12%) and Eastern Cape (10%).

Preventive measures taken to avoid crime

% who took this protective measure

Measure	%
Burglar bars on window	40,2
Dog/s	30,8
Security gate at door	24,5
High wall or fencing	24,1
Neighbourhood watch	17,3
Lockup/electronic gate	10,5
Private security co.	8,1
Burglar alarm	7,3
Electric/razor/spikes	2,9

Excluding unspecified
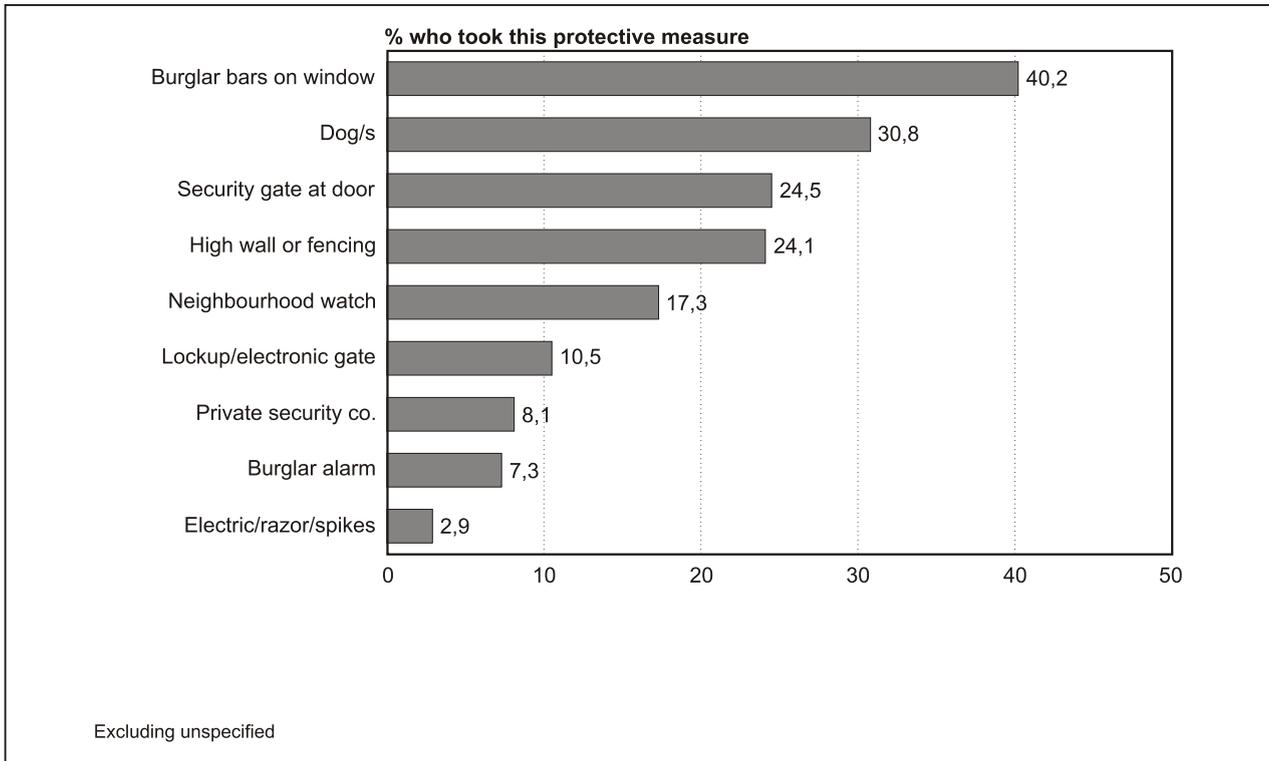
Figure 54: Proportion of respondents who took a particular preventive measure to avoid crime

- Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they took a number of preventive measures against crime.
- Figure 54 indicates that the most common form of prevention against crime involved burglar bars over windows, followed by a dog to deter criminals.

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