

**AN EXPLORATION OF STREET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER
MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA**

By

HLAMALANI MILDRED HLUNGWANI

Submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

In

CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

SUPERVISOR: Dr DL KGOSIMORE

CO-SUPERVISOR: Dr W MALULEKE

2021

DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation ***AN EXPLORATION OF STREEET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA*** hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Arts in Criminology has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

.....

Ms H.M. Hlungwani

.....

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to the following people who supported me all the way throughout the journey of Master's Degree in Criminology and Criminal Justice.
- To my supervisor, Dr DL Kgosimore and my co-supervisor, Dr W Maluleke: Thank you for your time and supervision. Your efforts and commitment to my dissertation are very much appreciated.
- A special gratitude to the participants. You allowed me to enter your personal space and shared your stories.
- To my parents: Thank you for everything. You believed in me and made sacrifices to help realise my dreams. Your unconditional love and support carried me through thick and thin. *Ndza Khensa swinene* [Thank you very much].
- Mrs Idah Rikhotso, my Aunt: Thank you for helping me and providing constructive feedback to improve the quality of this study.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my family, their support kept me going throughout this academic journey.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore street robberies at Bungeni village, situated under Makhado Municipality of Limpopo Province, South Africa. The study sought to identify factors contributing to street robberies, to assess experiences of victims of these robberies and to determine measures that can be applied to prevent them.

This qualitative study applied the exploratory research design to recruit participants using non-probability sampling techniques, specifically purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Thirteen (13) participants, including ten (10) victims of street robbery and three (3) local SAPS officials were selected for this study. Data was collected using individual face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Based on the transcribed data, themes were extracted and analysed using Thematic Content Analysis (TCA).

This study established that there are factors that contribute to the occurrence of street robberies; victims are affected by street robberies (i.e. be it social, psychological and financial); and that there are measures that may reduce the occurrence of these robberies. Findings of the research indicate that factors such as time, space, individual's lifestyle and routine activities contribute to victims being robbed in the streets and that these victims experience victimisation of street robberies differently. For recommendations, this study argues that some of these factors are lifestyle exposure, individual activities, spatial and temporal factors. Street robberies are characterised by the use of weapons, force and threat of force by offenders. Lastly, street robberies have a negative impact on victims.

Keywords: Aggravated robbery, Crime prevention, Robbery, Street robbery and Victims

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND DESCRIPTIONS	xiii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
STUDY GENERAL ORIENTATION.....	1
1.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND.....	1
1.2. DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS AND OPERATIONALISATIONS.....	2
1.2.1 Aggravated robbery.....	2
1.2.2 Crime prevention	2
1.2.3 Robbery.....	2
1.2.4 Street robbery.....	2
1.2.5 Victim(s).....	3
1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	3
1.3.1 Academic community.....	3

1.3.2 Industry	3
1.3.3 South African Society	4
1.4. RESEARCH PROBLEM	4
1.5. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	5
1.5.1 Exploration	5
1.6. STUDY AIM	6
1.7. STUDY OBJECTIVES.....	6
1.8. SCOPE OF THE STUDY	6
1.9. SUMMARY	7
CHAPTER TWO	8
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON STREET ROBBERY	8
2.1. INTRODUCTION	8
2.2. EXPLORING STREET ROBBERIES: UNDERSTADING THE NATURE AND EXTENT	8
2.2.1 Types of street robbers.....	10
2.2.1.1 Opportunistic street robbers.....	10
2.2.1.2 Professional street robbers	11
2.2.1.3 Addict or substance-habituated robbers.....	11
2.2.1.4 Alcoholic robbers.....	11
2.2.2 <i>Modus Operandi</i> of street robbers	11
2.2.3 Characteristics of street robberies.....	13

2.2.3.1 Street robberies occur between offender and the victim.....	13
2.2.3.2 The offender uses force or the threat of force against the victim ...	13
2.2.3.3 The offence occurs in a public or semi-public place	14
2.2.3.4 Street robbery involve may or may not involve weapons.....	14
2.3. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE OCCURRENCE OF STREET ROBBERIES	
.....	15
2.3.1 Lifestyle exposure and individual routine activities	15
2.3.2 Temporal factors	15
2.3.2.1 Seasonal factors.....	15
2.3.2.2 Time	16
2.3.3 Spatial factors	17
2.4. VICTIMS EXPERIENCES ON STREET ROBBERIES	18
2.5. MEASURES APPLIED TO PREVENT STREET ROBBERIES	20
2.5.1 Social crime prevention	21
2.5.2 Environmental crime prevention	21
2.6. ADOPTED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND STUDY APPLICABILITY	23
2.6.1 Lifestyle Exposure Theory	23
2.6.1.1 Role expectations.....	24
2.6.1.2 Structural constraints.....	25
2.6.1.3 Adaptations.....	25
2.6.1.4 Associations.....	26

2.6.1.5 Exposure.....	26
2.6.2 The criticisms of Lifestyle Exposure Theory	27
2.6.3 The application of Lifestyle Exposure Theory: The lasting value	28
2.7. SUMMARY	29
CHAPTER THREE	31
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	31
3.1. INTRODUCTION	31
3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN.....	31
3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	31
3.3.1 Adopted research approach.....	31
3.3.2 Study location	32
3.3.3 Study population.....	33
3.3.4 Sample size and procedures	34
3.3.5 Method of data collections	34
3.3.5.1 The interview process	35
3.3.6 Method of data analysis	36
3.4. METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS	37
3.4.1 Credibility.....	38
3.4.2 Transferability	39
3.4.3 Dependability.....	40
3.4.4 Conformability.....	40

3.5. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	40
3.5.1 Permission to conduct this study	41
3.5.1.1 Gatekeeper permission	41
3.5.2 South African Police Service National Instruction 1/2006: Research in the service	42
3.5.3 The University of Limpopo Policy on Research Ethics	42
3.5.4 Informed consent and voluntary participation	42
3.5.5 Anonymity and confidentiality	43
3.5.6 Purpose of the study	44
3.5.7 Procedures	44
3.5.8 Benefits	44
3.5.9 Protection from harm (Risks and discomfort)	44
3.5.10 Participants privacy and involvement of the researcher	45
3.6. SUMMARY	45
CHAPTER FOUR	46
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.....	46
4.1. INTRODUCTION	46
4.2. FINDINGS BASED ON THE AIM OF THE ON STUDY	46
4.2.1 Exploring street robberies at Bungeni village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province.....	46
4.3. FINDINGS BASED ON THE STUDY OBJECTIVES	48

4.3.1 Identification of factors contributing to street robberies at Bungeni village	48
4.3.1.1 When did the robbery occur?	49
4.3.1.3 How often do you find yourself in the place where you were robbed?	50
4.3.2 Assessing victims' experiences of street robberies at Bungeni village	51
4.3.2.1 How many times have you been a victim of street robberies?	51
4.3.2.2 How many offenders were involved in the robbery?	52
4.3.2.3 How did they commit the robbery? That is, did they threaten you? If so, was the threat verbal or physical, or did they threaten you with a weapon? Can you describe the weapon?.....	52
4.3.2.4 How has the incident affected you?	54
4.3.2.5 Were there other people (bystanders) around when you were robbed, and what was their reaction?	55
4.3.2.6 What were you robbed of?	55
4.3.3 Determining measures applied to prevent street robberies at Bungeni village	56
4.3.3.1 How would you describe the safety level of the place where you were robbed?	56
4.3.3.2 As a victim of street robbery, what safety measures do you think should be implemented in this place to prevent incidents like the one you experienced?	57
4.4. INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS	58
4.4.1 Overview of evolving themes	58

4.4.1.1 Time where street robberies occur	58
4.4.1.2 Places where street robberies occur	60
4.4.1.3 Items robbed from victims	60
4.4.1.4 Experiences of victims and outcomes of street robberies.....	61
4.4.1.5 Preventative measures.....	61
4.4. RESULTS: THEMES AND SUB-THEMES	63
4.5. FINDINGS OF THE INTERPRETED DATA	64
4.6. SUMMARY	65
CHAPTER FIVE.....	66
GENERAL SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, STUDY STRENGTH AND LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	66
5.1. INTRODUCTION	66
5.2. GENERAL SUMMARY	66
5.3. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS	67
5.4. STUDY STRENGTHS	68
5.5. STUDY LIMITATIONS	68
5.6. STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS	69
5.6.1 Recommendations to improve study aim.....	69
5.6.1.1 To explore street robberies at Bungeni village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa	69
5.6.2 Recommendations to improve study objectives.....	69

5.6.2.1 To identify factors contributing to street robberies at Bungeni village	69
5.6.2.2 To assess victims' experiences of street robberies at Bungeni village	69
5.6.2.3 To determine measures applied to prevent street robberies at Bungeni village	69
5.7. FUTURE RESEARCH STUDIES.....	70
LIST OF REFERENCES	71
APPENDIX A: STUDY INFORMATION SHEET	88
APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM	88
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE	89
APPENDIX D: BUNGENI TRIBAL AUTHORITY LETTER OF APPROVAL.....	91
APPENDIX E: SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE APPROVAL LETTER.....	92
APPENDIX F: UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO RESEARCH ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER.....	94
APPENDIX G: EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE.....	96
APPENDIX H: TURNITIN REPORT	97

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 4.1: Summary of the emerging themes, categories and codes coming from the data analysis.....	63
---	-----------

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Bungeni village map.....	32
---	-----------

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND DESCRIPTIONS

ABBREVIATIONS	DESCRIPTIONS
AM	<i>Ante Meridiem</i>
ATM	Automated-Teller Machine
CCTV	Closed-Circuit Television
COVID-19	Coronavirus Disease-2019
CPTED	Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design
CSVR	Centre for The Study of Violence and Reconciliation
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
MO	<i>Modus Operandi</i>
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PM	Post Meridiem
PSDT	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
RAT	Routine Activities Theory
SAPS	South African Police Service
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
TCA	Thematic Content Analysis
TREC	Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee
UL	University of Limpopo
VOCS	Victims of Crime Survey

CHAPTER ONE

STUDY GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

This study explored street robberies at Bungeni village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa. Chapter one gives an overview of the study, including operational key definitions and study background as well as the motivation of the study, which lead to the research problem that is also going to be analysed. The chapter highlighted the purpose of the study, its aim and objectives. Lastly, the scope of this study was also presented.

The background of this study emanates from the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation [CSV] (2007), which asserted that street robberies count among the most reported crimes in South Africa. These crimes entail the act of one or more individuals, who may, or may not be armed, confronting a victim in the street and taking their valuables, such as purses, handbags, computers, cell phones, jewellery or money (CSV, 2007). Willis (2006) argued that street robberies are characterised by direct contact and violence between the victim and the offender. Violence arises from the fact that victims do not want to be dispossessed of their belongings; they resist and get injured or killed (Rennison & Meide, 2013).

This crime (street robberies) occurs at a specific time and location (Bernasco, Ruiters & Block, 2016; Snyders & Landman, 2017). Bernasco, Ruiters and Block (2016) confirmed that the success of robbers in committing street robberies depends on the specific time and place; that is, when and where the crime is committed. Similarly, Snyders and Landman (2017) noted that places with a high crime rate have an influence on the occurrence of street robberies. Fear of falling victim to street crime and robberies has led people to modify their activities such as not carrying a large amount of money when they go out and walk with friends or alone (Smit, Landman & Venter, 2015).

Lindegaard, de Vries and Bernasco (2018) contended that unplanned situations like robberies involve threat and force to the victim by the offender and sometimes resistance by the victim. Hart and Mieth (2014) indicated that street robberies have a huge financial or practical impact on people. Zondeka and Barkhuizen (2017) asserted

that South Africans who are victims of aggravated robberies, including street robberies are struggling to manage their daily lives.

1.2. DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS AND OPERATIONALISATION

1.2.1 Aggravated robbery

Aggravated robbery can be defined as the use of a firearm or any other dangerous weapon and the use of threat to inflict grievous bodily harm by the offender during and after committing robbery (Thobane, 2017). When the robbery is serious, it is classified as aggravated robbery (Zoutenberg, 2013). From the given definitions, 'aggravated robbery' in this study refers to perpetrators using firearms and other dangerous weapons in the commission of street robbery as a form of robbery.

1.2.2 Crime prevention

Adebayo (2013) defined crime prevention as a way or strategy of reducing the threat of crime from flourishing by providing a sense of safety and security that influences the quality of life in a positive way. Lab (2016) stated that crime prevention must not only include interventions for the causes of criminal and disorderly events that help in decreasing risks of victimisation, but it must also cover the impacts on the society. In this study, this concept [crime prevention] means actions to be used or applied in order to prevent or curb street robberies.

1.2.3 Robbery

Lurigio (2014) defined robbery as a process of taking or trying to take a person's or people's valuables from their care, custody or control by force or threat of force or violence. Dlamini (2015) argued that robbery relies on the use of weapons in order to succeed. Matthews (2014) indicated that robbery is the kind of crime that is violent in nature and has an impact that manifests in physical and psychological harm. In this study, 'robbery' was regarded as a scenario where a person's property is taken by force or threat of force or violence with the use of weapons.

1.2.4 Street robbery

Glasner and Leitner (2016) postulated that street robberies are types of robberies that consist of the use of force or threat of force to steal the property of the person in a

public space. They include snatch and grab; and sometimes perpetrators may threaten the victim with a gun or a knife (Lindegaard, Bernasco & Jacques, 2015).

There are several types of street robberies. The victim's reaction to the offence determines whether weapons can be used or not (Deakin, Smithson, Spencer & Medina-Ariza, 2007). In this study, 'street robbery' refers to taking a person's property by using force and weapons in a public space.

1.2.5 Victim(s)

Burgers, Regehr and Roberts (2013) defined a victim as the person who was confronted, attacked, violated, or assaulted by an offender, where the offence resulted in temporary or permanent injuries. Dlamini (2015) highlighted that the person is considered a victim whether the perpetrator is recognised, arrested and prosecuted. In this study, 'victim' was defined as the person who has been robbed of his/her property with the use of strength or energy as an attribute of physical action or movement and the use of weapons.

1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Blaickie (2009) and Brynard and Hanekom (2006) stated that research must make a useful contribution to some field of high priority in the public or private sector. To satisfy Denscombe (2010), this study will add new knowledge in the following areas:

1.3.1 Academic community

The new knowledge will be available to UL libraries and the greater academic community. The knowledge can be used both in curriculum and learning programmes and as a referral source for students and researchers for further research studies on the subject.

1.3.2 Industry

The South African law enforcement industry with investigative capabilities would benefit from this study as South African Police Service (SAPS) investigators will acquire more knowledge, improved skills, methods and techniques in terms of taking complainants' statement in street robbery cases. This will also translate into communal work to effectively police this crime. This study will contribute to a higher competency level

during the taking of statements relating to street robbery. The information will be used in curriculum for future training to cultivate more professional investigators.

1.3.3 South African Society

Society will benefit because investigators will be better skilled and competent, resulting in increased prosecution and conviction rates in street robbery cases. The South African Community will, by providing information regarding the subject under investigation, empower themselves with knowledge and stimulate their way of reasoning and thinking about the effective ways of taking statements about street robberies.

1.4. RESEARCH PROBLEM

Street robberies are increasing when compared to the past years; and the rate is alarming (South African Police Service Annual Report, 2019). Lancaster and Mbanyele (2020) asserted that street robberies are far the largest problem in South Africa, and they are mostly ignored by media and law enforcement. Limpopo Province is experiencing high levels of aggravated robberies, including street robberies.

As a category of violent crime, street robbery is a major cause of fear among the public because victims face an unexpected threat to their lives, loss of control, and invasion of personal space (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). Lancaster and Mbanyele (2020) supported that street robbery is a major problem in South Africa and a lack of attention to these kind robberies is problematic to victims. People from Limpopo, in Bungeni village (which is the research site of this study) also fear and experience these crime trends. Viljoen (2019) reported that a suspect was fighting for his life at Elim Hospital after angry residents from Bungeni cut off his penis. The suspect was said to rob people their Automated Teller Machine (ATM) cards and force them to give him their pins. Furthermore, the researcher's communal experience is that many people were robbed in and around Bungeni between the year 2013 and 2019. Therefore, the study focuses on the five consecutive statistics financial years starting from 1st of April 2013 to 1st of April 2019. There was a case where a man was robbed and brutally beaten in 2017. The man went to a nearby house to ask for help. Another man was robbed recently (2019 December) on the way to a nearby place of entertainment.

According to the Institute for Security Studies' Crime statistics wizard (undated), Street robberies reported cases has been declining since 2014. In 2017/18, Limpopo Province was reported to have 9 887 cases of common robbery; and according to statistics, there was a decrease in reported cases (South African Police Service Crime Statistics, 2018). However, Statistics South Africa (2019) showed that street robberies have increased in 2018/19 since 9 914 people were victims of this crime in Limpopo Province.

According to Wasserman and Ellis (2010), the impact of street robberies is devastating to victims and their loved ones. It alters the victims' view of the world as a just place and leaves victims with new and difficult feelings and reactions that they may not understand. Wright and Decker (1997) argued that street robberies have a negative impact on victims when it comes to socialisation or personal freedom since fear of victimisation can lead to limitation of public activities, the avoidance of strangers, and people may lock themselves in their houses.

The current situation of street robberies at Bungeni (Hlanganani), and its effect on the lifestyles of its residents warrant a better understanding of this crime. This study seeks to offer suitable measures for implementation, and possibly, for combating this crime.

1.5. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

According to Creswell (2014), Denscombe (2010), De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011), Litchman (2014) and Singleton and Straights (2010) and Thomas (2013), this study was undertaken to achieve the following purpose:

1.5.1 Exploration

The focus of this study was to explore street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa. It was envisaged that this can help in identifying factors that contribute to street robberies at the village, to assess victims' experiences and to determine measures that can be taken to prevent these robberies. Only after contributing factors and victims' experiences have been assessed can measures of preventing and reducing street robberies be applied.

1.6. STUDY AIM

Gray (2014), Mills and Birks (2014) and Oliver (2010) agreed that a qualitative study acts as a framework which will permeate the entire research study as it gives the reader a clear idea of the direction of the research, and what the researcher wishes to do, and as such has a significant effect upon future planning of the research. Davies and Hughes (2014) and Thomas and Hodges (2010) argued that the aim of the study usually refers to the main goal or overarching purpose of a research project, and is usually brief and to the point. To comply with this viewpoint and suggestions by Blaickie (2000), Flick (2011) and Gray (2014), the aim of the study was to explore street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

1.7. STUDY OBJECTIVES

This study was guided by the following objectives:

- To identify factors contributing to street robberies at Bungeni Villlage.
- To assess the victims' experiences of street robberies at Bungeni Village.
- To determine measures that can be taken to prevent street robberies at the village.

The scope of the questions is informed by the research aim and the research objectives. Hence, the study have study objectives only.

1.8. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was confined to Bungeni Village which is divided into seven subsections as follows: Bungeni Xikhulu, Manyunyu, Basani, Xivambu, N'wa-Mhandzi, Njhakanjhaka and Hlanganani Township. The study will also be limited to the selected communities except in the literature review. In this study, thirteen (13) participants were sampled using non-probability sampling: purposive [local SAPS officials] and snowball sampling [victims of street robbery] techniques to reach saturation. The lifestyle/exposure theory helped to explain the aim and objectives of the study. The fieldwork of this is study lasted for three months to complete.

1.9. SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the orientation of the study. It indicated how operational key definitions are defined and the background and motivation of the study. The research problem, purpose of the study and the aim as well as the objectives of the study were highlighted. The scope of the study was also presented. The next chapter covers the literature review of the study. This was presented in line with the aim and objectives of the study, and was aided by the theoretical framework that guided the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON STREET ROBBERY

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Crime is known to concentrate in space and time; hence, spatial-temporal concentration helps in understanding and addressing problems of crime (Haberman, Sorg & Ratcliffe, 2018). This chapter reviews literature studies on experiences of victims, including the times during which street crimes occur, and places of occurrences. The chapter also explored the adopted theory of the study to clearly explain the occurrence of street robberies based on spatial-temporal factors. Evidentially, Statistics South Africa [Stats SA] (2017) showed that the overall percentage of robbery in 2016/17 was 16.3 % in South Africa, with a flagged sudden increase in street robberies that affected over 1.1 million people in 2018/2019. This figure represented a 2.5% increase when compared with the 2017/2018 statistics as showed by the Victims of Crime Survey [VOCS] (Mahlakoana, 2019).

Furthermore, Wright and Decker (1997) argued that street robberies are among South Africa's most serious crime problems and are central components of fear of crime among members of the public. This was supported by other studies such as Tompson (2015) and Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010), which stated that street robberies are known to be major sources of fear to the public at large, and affects routine activities of individuals.

Therefore, the aim and objectives of this study guide the following sections.

2.2. EXPLORING STREET ROBBERIES: UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE AND EXTENT

Historically, street robberies used to take place during evening hours, particularly after drinking establishments were closed and in dark areas (Harlow, 1987). Harlow (1987) indicated that street robberies include mugging, car-jacking and purse snatching. According to SAPS Annual Crime Report (2019), street robberies are contact crimes in nature. Victims are the target of violence or are in the vicinity of property targeted by criminals and subjected to violence or threats of violence by perpetrators wanting to control such property. SAPS Annual Crime Report (2017) asserted that the violence

that victims are subjected to lead to incidents such as fatal injuries. Mahlakoana (2019) presented that there is a significant rise in the number of street robberies. Mahlakoana (2019) revealed that 1 125 971 people were victims of street robberies and that the number of victims of street robberies has increased when compared to the past three years (2018, 2017 and 2016) (Mahlakoana, 2019). Moreover, street robbery is distinguishable according to the type of weapon used, that is, common or aggravated. SAPS's annual crime report of 2018 concurs with the presented discussions *Supra*, to indicate that common robberies are limited to grabbing, snatching and threats used to take a victim's moveable property; and that aggravated robberies include the use of weapons that range from firearms to knives, and other sharp and blunt objects

SAPS (2018) indicated on the 2017/2018 'Annual Crime Report' that 50 730 counts of common robbery were reported and reflected a decrease of 5,0% or 2 688 counts compared to the previous financial year of 2016/2017. In the 2016/2017 financial year, incidents of common robbery reached the lowest level recorded over the past decade (SAPS, 2018). During the 2018/2019 financial year, a total of 51 765 counts of common robbery were reported and there was an increase of 2,0% counts compared to 2017/2018 (SAPS, 2019). According to South African Police Service Annual Crime Report (2019), 2018/2019 annual crime report indicated that the increase recorded in the financial year under review represents a reversal of the above-mentioned decreasing trend. South African Police Service Annual Crime Report (2019) further breaks down the record of incidents per province where Western Cape had a decline of 5.4% counts, Free State 4,9% and North West 2,1%. Free State and North West were the only provinces that recorded increases in incidences of common robbery in 2017/2018 (South African Police Service Annual Crime Report, 2018). Notable reversals in the incidence of this crime also occurred in six provinces that recorded increases in 2018/2019, ranging from the increase recorded in the Northern Cape (9,6%) and the Eastern Cape (8,8%) to the increase recorded in Limpopo (2,4%) (South African Police Service, 2019).

A total of 140 032 counts of robbery (including street robbery) with aggravating circumstances were reported during the 2018/2019 financial year, reflecting an increase of 1,2% compared to 2017/2018. Two provinces in South Africa recorded a decrease in the incidence of street robberies with aggravating circumstances during the 2018/2019 financial year, compared to the previous financial year. The most

significant decrease was recorded in the Western Cape (1,1%), followed by Limpopo (0, 6%). These two provinces recorded increases in the incidence of robbery with aggravating circumstances in 2017/2018. Seven provinces recorded increases in 2018/2019, ranging from the highest increases recorded in the Northern Cape (8,6%) and the Free State (6,1%) to the lowest increase recorded in Gauteng (0,6%).

2.2.1 Types of street robbers

There are different types of street robbers (Lindegaard, Bernasco & Jacques, 2015). They include opportunistic street robbers, professional street robbers, addict robbers and alcoholic robber. Professional Street robbers and addict or substance-habituated robbers are prevalent for this study.

2.2.1.1 Opportunistic street robbers

Opportunistic street robbers are known as amateurs. They prey upon community members as the opportunity presents itself (Dutelle & Becker, 2017). They select their victims when circumstances are favourable; and are violent and reckless (Dutelle & Becker, 2017). Zinn (2010) further explained that most opportunistic street robbers do not receive any prior training on how to rob; but some of them may have committed robbery before. An amateur robber is more likely to commit an offence outside their neighbourhood, have previous convictions for offences against the person and property and may be under the influence of an illegal substance (Yapp, 2010). According to Dutelle and Becker (2017), these robbers focus on people who are at the wrong place at the wrong time, and they attack their victims without warning.

The cited findings show that opportunistic robbers do not plan before they attack (Dutelle & Becker, 2017). Willis (2006) supported the arguments by indicating that over a third of the number of interviewed offenders in their study reported that they decide to rob people there and then. These findings are in line with observations by Feeney (1986), who found that the majority of robberies are particularly opportunistic and sudden offenders.

2.2.1.2 Professional street robbers

A professional street robber is older and more experienced, more likely to offend in a commercial location, and more likely to commit the crime in a planned and controlled manner using high levels of interaction and lower levels of violence (Yapp, 2010). Thobane (2014) indicated that professional street robbers spend more time planning their robbery. They can minimise the risk of being caught since they can study the place before they can attack (Thobane, 2014).

2.2.1.3 Addict or substance-habituated robbers

According to Dunn (1974), addict robbers commit robberies as a way of financing their drug habit. They are not really committed to robbery as a means of obtaining money, but a comparatively high commitment to theft (Duttele & Becker, 2017). Robberies committed by these people reflect some degree of planning and casual use of weapons (but rarely firearms). However, the regular absence of a weapon often increases the likelihood that physical force is used to frighten a victim (Dunn, 1974). According to Duttele and Becker (2017), these robbers have graduated to robbery from other less-profitable criminal activities. They once in a while rob drugstores or drug dealers to get drugs directly, but most often, they commit robberies as their need for a drug increases and their ability to purchase the drug decreases (Yapp, 2010).

2.2.1.4 Alcoholic robbers

Alcoholic robbers commit street robberies for reasons normally connected to excessive consumption of alcohol (Dunn, 1974). Harlow (1987) argued that they display some characteristics of opportunistic robbers and some of the addicts. That is, they often rob only to get little extra money for drink or as the opportunity presented itself. These opportunities include robbing other drinkers or passers-by, drinking buddies and co-workers (Yapp, 2010 & Harlow, 1987).

2.2.2 *Modus Operandi* of street robbers

According to SAPS Annual Crime Report (2019), the *MO* of street robbers depend on whether the robbery is common or aggravated. In street robberies, targets are commonly discovered by opportunity. But there may be some selection process; women, the elderly and the disabled may be victims of choice (Duttele & Becker, 2017).

Duttele and Becker (2017) further indicated that *MO* of street robbers may include target selection procedure, weapons chosen and used, manner of the loot or grab and method of departure.

SAPS Annual Crime Report (2019) indicated that the *MO* of professional robbers is to rob victims on their way to the bank, just before they enter or in a parking lot (i.e. after parking their car). Professional robbers approach a victim entering or exiting his or her car, or when stopped at a traffic light; and they then order the victim out of the car and demand keys (Harlow, 1987). SAPS Annual Crime Report (2019; 2018) further explained that some victims are robbed after withdrawing money mostly in parking areas. Zinn (2010) further postulated that some perpetrators study victims and use the information gathered to attack them. Harlow (1987) revealed that a group of three to eight people will stalk victims around shopping malls, training stations, street or recreational areas. Those that select vulnerable victims on streets usually prefer dark, overgrown or desolate walkways used by pedestrians to move from and to transit hubs, public services, schools or shopping centres (Mahlakoana, 2019).

Robbers that mug people when the opportunity presents itself are one or two men who approach the victim with a knife or gun and demand cash (Harlow, 1987). Findings from Wright and Decker (2002) showed that most of the robbers approach their victims from behind and quickly pull their gun so as to get the ups on them. Other instances involve physical force from the start. According to Lindegaard, Bernasco and Jacques (2015), robbers walk up to their victim and would just hit them. Harlow (1987) further presents that opportunistic robbers do not always plan the robbery, but mostly rob male victims between the ages of 15 – 25 who are walking alone or who are simply in a wrong place at the wrong time (Harlow, 1987).

Opportunists also do bag snatches where they are generally unarmed and have little intent to cause injury (Duttele & Becker, 2017). After chasing a victim, usually a female carrying a purse, bag or wallet, these robbers approach quickly on foot or by bicycle, and snatch the item out of the victim's hands or off her shoulder before the victims can get a chance to react, often effecting a body check in the process (Harlow, 1987). Lastly, many incidents also involve the snatching of purses from the ground outside cafes where accessibility is easy (Harlow, 1987).

Other perpetrators such as alcoholics and addicts attack victims out of desperation of immediate gain, and use whatever they have to achieve their goal (Deakin, Smithson, Spencer & Medina-Ariza, 2007). Wright and Decker (2002) further indicated that offenders hope to reduce the chances of attempting to flee or fight by catching victims off guard.

2.2.3 Characteristics of street robberies

Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010) discuss characteristics of street robberies below:

2.2.3.1 Street robberies occur between offender and the victim

For offenders to commit street robberies, there must be victims. An offender may target a victim who may be a pedestrian and unknown to them where they try to steal their money or property (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). Street robbers look-up for victims such as students, workers and commuters who seem to have money or other valuables (Lancaster & Mbanyele, 2020). According to Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010), street robbers also target people who appear to be the most vulnerable such as young adults using ATMs alone at night or under the influence of alcohol. Furthermore, victims who seem to be unaware of their places, who look lost and are using cell phones at the time, or are searching through their bags or listening to MP3 players become victims of street robberies (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010).

2.2.3.2 The offender uses force or threat of force against the victim

Robberies that include street robberies are characterised by striking fear in the hearts of victims because they involve the use of violence or threats of violence to get into victims' belongings (Piza & Kennedy, 2003). International scholars such as Cook (1987), Indermaur (1995) and Zimring and Zuehl (1986) established that robberies may begin with the threatened use of force, but can also escalate to include more serious forms of criminal violence such as homicide, assault and sexual violence. Street robberies have potential to change into a serious and harmful crime because they may result in assaults, shootings and homicide when violence arises (Piza & Kennedy, 2003).

Barker, Garegthy, Webb and Key (1993) also showed that street robberies involve the use of threat and that offenders attack when victims are not expecting anything. Street robberies tend to involve force, threat and physical contact injury (Barker *et al.*, 1993). According to security expect in Loss Angeles, McGoey (2018) supports by indicating that robbers like to use surprise and an extreme show of force to get victims to comply with their demands. Lindegaard, de Vries and Bernasco (2018) revealed that offenders use threats because dangerous threats reduce resistance by the victim. In street robberies, dangerous threats raise the probability of victim resistance (Lindegaard, de Vries & Bernasco, 2018). Unfortunately, victims do not always act appropriately when surprised and frightened and sometimes do things to startle the robber (McGoey, 2018).

2.2.3.3 The offence occurs in a public or semi-public place

Lancaster and Mbanyele (2020) from the Institute for Security Studies stated that street robbers select a place and their potential victims carefully based on the vulnerability of their targets and quick and easy escape routes. Public routes that are dark, overgrown and isolated walkways where potential victims use from and to public transit hubs are preferred by offenders since there are few bystanders. Harlow (1987) concured with Lancaster and Mbanyele (2020) by collaborating that more people are likely to be in public places such as parking lots and parks.

2.2.3.4 Street robbery may or may sometimes not involve weapons (Depending on the situation)

Security expect, McGoey (2018) indicated that street robberies are characterised by the use of weapons such as firearms (42.2%) with knives or cutting instruments second (8.6%). McGoey (Security Expect in Los Angeles) (2018) also shared that strong-arm tactics like punching, pushing, kicking or threats are used mainly in the street (39.9%). This is due to the opportunistic nature of most street robberies (McGoey, 2018). Some of the street robberies such as purse snatch do not involve the use of weapons. According to Lancaster and Mbanyele (2020), Institute for Security Studies showed that purse snatchers are generally unarmed. Their intention is not to cause harm. Lancaster and Mbanyele (2020) further argued that the main focus of the offender is to get the property, hence they use a bicycle or come running and grab the item from the victim before they can get a chance to react.

2.3. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE OCCURRENCE OF STREET ROBBERIES

2.3.1 Lifestyle exposure and individual routine activities

Individual lifestyle exposure to crime risks, as well as an individual's daily routine activities are seen as factors contributing to occurrence of street robberies (Etuk & Macpherson, 2018). It is established that the absence of a capable guardian was found to be one of the exposures that create favourable conditions for the offender to pick their suitable targets (Tompson & Bowers, 2012). In addition, criminals tend to look at people's everyday routine activities to pick their victims (Tompson & Bowers, 2012), which means that individuals' routine activities can put them at a risk of being victimised (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010).

Engaging in risky behaviours such as illegal gambling, being in places that are exposed to crime while in possession of expensive items such as cell phones, jewellery, laptops and a large sum of money may give rise to criminal victimisation (Etuk & Macpherson, 2018). The lifestyle exposure theory purports that individuals are targeted based on their lifestyle choices, and that these lifestyle choices expose them to criminal offenders (Harper, 2014; Luty, 2010). Kokkinos and Saripanidis (2017) also alluded that a risky lifestyle could include the time the victim spends online, the number of friends, what they display when they are in public as well as what they do in public spaces. In addition, Harper (2014) indicated that some risky lifestyle choices include going out at night alone, living in bad parts of town, associating with known offenders, being promiscuous, excessive alcohol use and doing drugs.

2.3.2 Temporal factors

2.3.2.1 Seasonal factors

Tompson and Bowers (2012) asserted that weather conditions influence people's victimisation because people are more willing to go outdoors when it is hot and that winter or cold weather limits people from having contact with potential offenders. Linning, Andresen, Ghaseminejad and Brantingham (2017) examined crime seasonality across eight cities in British Columbia, Canada between 2000 and 2006. The study found that temperature impacted assault levels but that few weather variables such as rain and snow affected the occurrence of robberies. Their findings

suggest that changes in weather patterns modify people's routine activities and, in turn, influence when a crime is committed (Linning *et al.*, 2017). Research conducted by Thompson and Bowers (2012) contended that whether it is winter or summer, people engage in unrestricted routine activities such going out with friends in the cool temperature between 4pm and 10 pm.

Breetzeke (2015) mentioned that there is no monthly difference when it comes to crimes, as crimes are committed on a monthly basis, and contact crimes depend much on direct contact between an offender and the victim. Contrarily, Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2015) indicated that robberies mostly occur during December, as the month comes with pressure and expectations for buying gifts. Subsequently, Gale and Coupe (2005) highlighted that street robberies are not seasonal. However, more attacks occur at night when it is dark. Lighting conditions have an obvious bearing on observation activities such as going out (Thompson & Bowers, 2012). Poor lighting conditions, whether they are due to weather variables (i.e. poor visibility or heavy rain) or the absence of sunlight could be a significant obstacle to surveillance and thus influence guardianship, and as a corollary, crime (Thompson & Bowers, 2012). Findings of the cited study confirm that robberies that include street robberies often increase during the winter months and other dark conditions because of extended periods of darkness (McGoey, 2018). This was supported by Thompson and Bowers (2012), who indicated that during the winter season, it gets darker earlier than in summer, and that darkness creates a conducive environment for the commission of street robberies.

2.3.2.2 Time

Deakin, Smithson, Spencer and Medina-Ariza (2007) confirmed that most street robberies are committed between 1pm and 2am. South African Police Service Crime Statistics at Watervaal indicated that victims who reported street robbery indicated that they were robbed between 21:00pm and 04:00am and most of them were men. Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010) indicated that young people of age 17 years and below are more likely to be robbed between 3pm and 6pm as it is the time for school dismissal in the United States. The crime of robbery is mainly at night, increasing after 8 pm and subsiding after 3 am in most areas (McGoey, 2018). Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010) highlighted that young adults are mostly robbed in the evening and midnight because some of them are from or going to places of entertainment and work.

2.3.3 Spatial factors

Living conditions of victims such as living in areas where there is a high level of crimes can contribute to criminal victimisation (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). Etuk and Macpherson (2018) mentioned the following as examples of spatial factors: staying in a place where there are lots of criminals, such as informal settlements; and in low income places, as examples of spatial factors that expose an individual to the risk of crime. Research investigating temporal crime distributions across space provide that crime rates associated with temporal factors are more pronounced in areas with lower socioeconomic wealth (Harries, Stadler & Zdorkowski, 1984; Rotton & Cohn, 2004; Ceccato, 2005).

The CSVR (2008) pointed out that violent crimes that include street robberies stem from factors such as environments that are favourable to criminal acts, including informal settlements. Van Der Spuy and Shearing (2014) established that marginalised people of Khayelitsha who live in informal settlements that are densely populated are at risk of becoming targets of crimes such as street robberies. Environmental criminology hypothesises that most activities, including crime occur in an area known to the offender and perhaps, the victim (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1990, 1999; Rossmo, 2000). Block, Galary and Brice (2007) argued that street robbery incidents are most likely to occur at or near the offender's home, work, or play or on the paths between them. Knowledge of these neighbourhoods is high while travel costs are relatively low (Block, Galary & Brice, 2007). As the distance from home, work or play increases, offending decreases. A buffer zone is an area where the offender is less likely to commit a crime because of fear of being recognised (Rossmo, 2000). Combining distance decay and a buffer zone, most predatory crimes occur close to home but not immediately at victims' address (Block, Galary & Brice, 2007).

Vaphi (2016) argued that crimes such as robbery are more likely to occur in public places and streets. Lan (2016) elaborated that street robbers dominate places such as bus stops and grocery stores. Matthews (2014) indicated that street robberies also occur at taxi ranks. Hart and Miethe (2014) revealed that places like bus stops are conducive for potential offenders to rob people because they are more likely to be overcrowded. Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010) illustrated that street robberies occur at

or near places of business and other places of entertainment that close late or at midnight.

Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010) stated that street robbers attacked most victims while they are on their way to or from work, school, shopping or running errands. In addition, Hart and Miethe (2014) posited that most people are victimised at public bus stops than inside buses or public transport. International findings (Stremple, 2018; Piza & Kennedy, 2003) indicated that most people reported that they were robbed of their belongings and some nearly lost their lives in New York train stations.

Moreover, street robberies usually occur in places where legal and illegal commercial activities take place (Bernasco, Block & Ruiter, 2012). Illegal commercial places include places where prostitutes conduct their business, taverns and gambling dens. Some of these places, including places dominated by prostitutes, are isolated and have poor lighting, making it easy for perpetrators to commit a crime without detection (Hart & Miethe, 2014). Other places such as shopping centres are overcrowded, making it easy for perpetrators to disappear in crowds without trace (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). These places also have features that enable offenders to succeed in escaping. Places that have many exit areas and those that are far from business areas, abandoned areas, as well as residential areas favour the occurrence of street robberies (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). Street robbery usually happens in congested areas (Hart & Miethe, 2014).

2.4. VICTIMS EXPERIENCES ON STREET ROBBERIES

Street robbery has been compared to the crime of rape because of the threat to life, loss of control, and invasion of personal space that often characterise both offences (Gale & Coupe, 2005). Associated effects are frequently described as fear, nervousness, depression, confusion and paranoia. These are often manifested in nightmares, sleep disruption, difficulty adjusting to work and problems with social functions (Gale & Coupe, 2005). Victims of robberies can suffer severe trauma from the violence, and it may, in turn, stimulate the development of mental health problems and posttraumatic stress disorder (Giorgi, Perez, D'Antonio, Mucci, Ferrero, Cupelli & Arcangeli, 2015). The stress disorder may result from the fact that robberies involve

the use of firearms or dangerous weapons to threaten victims (Zondeka & Barkhuizen, 2017).

Van der Merwe (2008) stated that victims who suffer emotionally take time to recover from the experience. A research study done by Elklit (2002) revealed that 80 per cent of victims of armed robberies still had psychological problems six months after the incident. Research conducted by Gale and Coupe (2005) indicated that psychological effects of street robbery may be long-lasting since 35% of victims suffer from psychological effects three months after the crime. The effects reduce to only 31% after nine months. After 18 months, 10% of a different sample was still displaying severe post-traumatic stress symptoms (Gale & Coupe, 2005). Gale and Coupe (2005) further highlighted that even though there is deterioration in the brutality of symptoms nine months later, there is little evidence of improvement after this time. Manton and Talbot (1989) contended that 75 per cent of victims of armed robberies and assaults still experience trauma from one to three weeks after the victimisation.

Victims of street robberies develop a change in behaviour after the incident, such as isolating themselves from other people or avoiding certain places (Rossetti, Dinisman & Moroz, 2016). Victims of robberies go through mourning and health problems (Giorgi *et al.*, 2015). Giorgi *et al.* (2015) posited that health problems that victims suffer from may demand medical attention. Van der Merwe (2008) revealed that robberies are intimate; therefore, victims engage with their offenders face-to-face. Their belongings and personal safety are greatly threatened and as such, they are immediately placed in a crisis (Van der Merwe, 2008). Van der Merwe (2008) further indicated that victims are victimised differently. But in the end, it seems like they all show similar physical, psychological/emotional and financial distress.

Van der Merwe (2008) asserted that physical consequences of street robbery are easy to observe, and they are obvious, hence, victims are very much aware of them since they are visible. The study shows that victims' robberies lose their property due to being broken/damaged or stolen (Van der Merwe, 2008). Van der Merwe (2008) further indicated that victims use money that they were not going to use to replace stolen or damaged items. Given its psychological effects, it can be expected that street robbery victims will also manifest huge increases in fear of crime, mainly of repeat victimisation (Gale & Coupe, 2005). Alternatively, it has been suggested that experiencing robbery

might reduce fear because anxieties are eased and the worst is no longer feared (Gale & Coupe, 2005).

Ross and Rasool (2019) highlighted that victims end up creating strategies that they use to cope after victimisation. Ross and Rasool (2019) divided these strategies into cognitive and behavioural strategies. Cognitive strategies involve efforts aimed at trying to change someone's thinking processes about the situation, while behavioural strategies involve physical and noticeable changes, such as withdrawing from others or equally seeking social support or avoiding problems (Ross & Rasool, 2019). Maree, van den Berg and Pretorius (2002) also named strategies that victims can use to cope after the robbery as control versus victimisation. They indicate that victims use these strategies to control and adjust post-traumatic symptoms. The victim must accept that they will not always be able to control the post-traumatic symptoms and understand their behaviour (Maree, van den Berg & Pretorius, 2002).

2.5. MEASURES APPLIED TO PREVENT STREET ROBBERIES

Street robberies must be prevented from escalating, as the safety of respective communities is often promoted when strategies of crime prevention are well-planned (Newham, 2005). Lee and Hilinski-Rosick (2011) further explained that preventative strategies can be taken when there is a fear of crime by the victim and the community. Dastile (2004) argued that when there is a fear of crime by potential offenders, precautionary measures may be applied by that person as a way of preventing criminal victimisation.

Kapur (2018) stated that all levels of government must contribute in preventing crime and in formulating policies and rules. Manaliyo and Muzindutsi (2013) indicated in their study conducted in *Khayelitsha* that an individual cannot prevent crime on their own but by collective efforts of the community that have a will. The SAPS (2010) also suggested preventive measures for violent crimes like aggravated robbery as massive economic development and promoting growth in the informal sector in order to create employment; and by so doing reduce the unemployment rate. Street robberies can also be prevented by developing suitable human settlements where people can live a meaningful life which will result in the development of strong and positive self-esteem (SAPS, 2010).

Walsh (2008) posited that in fighting the problem of street robberies, local councils, charities and government must work together to form safety awareness campaigns. Rwizi (2015) asserted that crimes such as street robberies can be prevented by reducing dangerous weapons. In addition, Rwizi (2015) indicated that illegal weapons can be reduced by the introduction of enforcement laws which restrict possession of guns without licences and carrying them in public.

2.5.1 Social crime prevention

Social crime prevention is generally directed at trying to influence the fundamental social and economic causes of crime, as well as offender motivation (Morgan, Boxall, Lindeman & Anderson 2012). Morgan *et al.* (2012) further indicated that this approach includes crime prevention methods that take some time to produce anticipated results and an action to improve housing, community cohesion as well as health and educational achievements (Morgan *et al.*, 2012).

Monk, Monk, Heinonen and Eck (2010) argued that in preventing street robberies, public safety campaigns are not effective but instead, prevention strategies must be targeted or directed to those who are at high risk. Directed patrols prevent street robbers and reduce street robbery (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). According to Zinn (2010), community crime prevention such as neighbourhood watch guards located at street corners with radio communication and patrol help to reduce the risk of certain areas becoming targets of robberies. Furthermore, the patrol must work as a task force that is proactive, highly visible and must focus only on reducing street robberies (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010).

2.5.2 Environmental crime prevention

Environmental crime prevention is an approach that attempts to modify the characteristics of the environment that may cause criminal events to occur (Morgan *et al.*, 2012). The theory of Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) is based on one simple idea that crime results partly from opportunities presented by the physical environment (Clarke, 1983). This being the case, it should be possible to alter the physical environment so that crime is less likely to occur (Clarke, 1983).

Hodgkinson and Farrel (2017) indicated that situational crime prevention is the type of strategy that is used to minimise crime opportunities by addressing a certain nature of

the crime, factors of the environment that permit for the occurrence of the crime and risks of crime. According to Headley, Guerette and Shariati (2017), when factors of the environment that permit crime are examined, ways of reducing crime are going to be found. Kapur (2018) argued that situational crime prevention can be in the form of installation of streetlights, and designing and building houses or towns in such a way that it does not allow criminals to commit street robberies and escape easily.

In line with the CPTED, the physical environment needs to improve natural surveillance by those in the neighbourhood as a means of making streets safe for appropriate users (Lab, 2016). Furthermore, public housing surveillance in Chicago noted that resident surveillance and activity enhanced safety (Lab, 2016). According to Mackey (2012), changing the built environment makes it harder to commit street robberies since motivated offenders may decide not to commit street robberies due to lack of opportunities.

Morgan *et al.* (2012) highlighted that CPTED includes both situational approaches to crime prevention and broader planning initiatives, and aims to reduce crime by designing and modifying the physical environment to reduce opportunities for crime to occur. To prevent street robberies, local governments must maintain infrastructure like cutting overgrown trees in parks and demolishing old buildings that are unoccupied since these provide hiding spots for perpetrators (Kruger, Lancaster, Landman, Liebermann, Louw & Robertshaw, 2016). They must as well supply rural villages with electricity as a way of eliminating options for offenders to rob people in dark areas (Kruger *et al.*, 2016). Current explanations and developments of Situational Crime Prevention suggest that potential offenders can be prevented if opportunities are reduced, when the benefits of crime outweigh the risk, and when changes in the environment successfully alter the reward structure (Connealy & Piza, 2019).

2.6. ADOPTED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND STUDY APPLICABILITY

A theoretical framework was applied in this study to validate understanding of perceptions from the reviewed literature studies and related linkages. The Lifestyle Exposure Theory was used to guide the study and further explain street robberies in the study location.

2.6.1 Lifestyle Exposure Theory

The Lifestyle Exposure Theory is often used to explain the personal victimisation of street robberies as it is the primary model for explaining lifestyle exposure (Dastile, 2004). Peacock (2013) indicated that this theory is based on the concept that the likelihood of criminal victimisation depends on the lifestyle and that any change in routine activities of people may increase or decrease their exposure to victimisation. According to Dietrich (2008), this theory explains how specific lifestyles as displayed by victims influence their chances of becoming victims of crime [street robbery included]. This theory argues that victimisation is not distributed randomly throughout social structures, but is based on identifying situations that increase the risk of victimisation (Kavanaugh, 2015). Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garofalo (1978) went on to show that this theory emphasises the role of being exposed to high-risk times, places, and people when it comes to victimisation. In this conception, both risk and victimisation are viewed in probabilistic terms as variables that exist along a continuum (Pratt & Turanovic, 2015).

This theory also stresses that the convergence of offenders and targets in the absence of capable guardians should not be attributed to any risky activities on the part of victims, but instead to the distribution of legitimate activities away from the home (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen, Felson & Land, 1980; Messner & Blau, 1987). Cohen and Felson (1979) were of the view that the core macro-level measure of routine activities (like the household activity ratio) is an indicator of labour force participation. They assume that daily work activities separate many people from those they trust and the property they value. The household activity ratio was therefore intended to be a structural placeholder for the proportion of the population who would be presenting themselves as potential targets to potential offenders away from the safety of their living rooms (Pratt & Cullen, 2005).

This theory posits that a person's demographic characteristics regulate chances of becoming a victim of crime (Lutya, 2010; Peacock, 2013). Burney (1990) made several observations about the relationships between age, sex and vulnerability to street crime. However, previous research concludes that vulnerability is predicted best by lifestyle and habits such as going out at night or returning home late from work rather than simply age or sex (Hough & Mayhew, 1983; Felson, 1987; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). McNeeley (2015) maintained that there are differences in victimisation rates

across demographic groups because of differences in lifestyles led by people of different groups. McNeeley (2015) further indicated that lifestyle is defined as routine daily activities, both vocational activities (such as work, school, and keeping house) and leisure activities. Demographic characteristics of young people can be linked to the time they spend away from home in the absence of guardianship and demographic characteristics, including age, gender, marital status, race and income (Lutya, 2010).

Ross and Rasool (2019) revealed in their study of victimisation of university students that students who live far away from the security of homes and those walking alone are particularly vulnerable targets; and that carrying valuable items such as cell phones and laptops is a further contributory factor in target attractiveness. Therefore, victimisation is not evenly distributed accidentally across space and time; there are places and times with high-risk of criminal victimisation (Pope, 2015). Therefore, the elements that may result in criminal victimisation are outlined and discussed in the preceding sections.

2.6.1.1 Role expectations

Role expectations are believed to be affected by demographic characteristics such as age, race, sex, marital status, education, income and occupation (McNeeley, 2015; Peacock, 2013). Tilley (2015) highlighted that role expectations vary according to certain characteristics such as age, gender and so forth where children's role expectations are different from those of adults. Moreover, role expectations are cultural standards related to an individual's status (Reyns & Scherer, 2018).

Lee and Hilinski-Rosick (2011) argued that after World War II, American people started to spend their time outside their home working or doing other leisure activities which resulted in a change of lifestyles and role expectations as they were supposed to provide for their families. Policastro (2013) posited that adults and adolescents are expected to spend more time outside their homes socialising with their peers, working or going to school.

2.6.1.2 Structural constraints

Structural constraints refer to limited resources driving people to regular areas with limited or no security, and are also known as social and economic structures that hinder

people's patterns of behaviour (Lutya, 2010). These limited resources may prevent people from rural villages from changing daily routine activities that expose them to criminal victimisation. According to Policastro (2013), a change in social or structural constraints shifts individual's role expectations. Because of economic strains, subcultural norms and the weakening of formal and informal social controls, residents of disadvantaged communities face more pressures in engaging in risky lifestyles that expose people to situations favourable to crime and violence (Turanovic, Pratt & Piquero, 2016).

Turanovic, Pratt and Piquero (2016) showed that situations favourable to crime and violence increase contact with potential offenders and the likelihood of victimisation. For example, people who reside in informal settlements are at risk of becoming victims of crime since nobody regulates the issuing of houses. These are places where dagga is mostly sold, and people walk long distances from their houses to the bus stop since half of the houses are built far from the main road.

2.6.1.3 Adaptations

Lutya (2010) highlighted that society regulates roles for people, and structural constraints put people under pressure by imposing social and legal structures. When people adapt to role expectations and social constraints, they are emerging a predictable, regular pattern of behaviour that in turn incorporates an individual's style (Policastro, 2013). Lutya (2010) argued that when people adapt to lifestyles that are characterised by going out at night, drinking alcohol and drug abuse, they become victims because they are at risk of meeting potential offenders. People from rural villages adapt to roles that the society has imposed on them (such as men known to be masculinity and to provide for their families), and in the process of adaptation, they are exposed to criminal victimisation.

2.6.1.4 Associations

Choices and interests that people make in life push them to have associations with those who have similar interests and lifestyle choices; therefore, people with similar characteristics with perpetrators are more vulnerable to personal victimisation (Tilley, 2015). According to Dietrich (2008), offenders who sell and use drugs and those who are under the influence of alcohol and at the same time associate with others who are

involved in the same behaviour are at risk of criminal victimisation since they associate themselves with offenders of the same lifestyle. The same may apply to people from villages; when they sell drugs, hang out with people who sell drugs or use drugs, they are at great risk of criminal victimisation because they will be associating themselves with those who have characteristics with them.

2.6.1.5 Exposure

Exposure to the person's or an object's accessibility as well as their physical visibility at a certain place or time can be measured by the person's activities and the time spent outside (Tilley, 2015). McNeeley (2015) pointed out that when people or objects are more visible or easily accessible, they are at risk of being victimised. The convergence of factors that are favourable to criminal victimisation is facilitated by an individual's lifestyle or daily activities where the potential target has a higher risk of becoming the victim (Reyns & Scherer, 2018). McNeeley (2015) argued that the lifestyle of a person influences their victimisation because these lifestyles expose them to high-risk places where they have direct contact with potential offenders.

People's adaptations to victimising roles where they are supposed to wake up and leave home at dawn or being involved in criminal activities as a way of providing for their families, and when they pass or are in environments that favour crime, they are consistently exposed to criminal victimisation (Tilley, 2015). Characteristics that are like one of the potential offenders (such as being male, from a minority group or being young) have a greater risk of criminal victimisation (McNeeley, 2015). Individuals from rural villages also go out at night or go out for leisure activities such as going to park; they are exposed to criminal victimisation because they are more likely to meet potential offenders. As previously mentioned, these individuals [rural areas residents] are accessible and visible to offenders when they spend time outside.

2.6.2 The criticisms of Lifestyle Exposure Theory

Different researchers such as Sampson and Wooldredge (1987), Gottfredson (1984) and Sampson and Lauristen (1990) tried to apply this theory in order to account for individuals' risk of personal victimisation. Garofalo (1987) revealed that this theory has been criticised for failing to provide explanations of policies that govern role expectations and structural constraints. Consequently, Garofalo (1987) declared that

there are some ordered institutional and economic policies. Certain rules are, for example, stipulated and enforced in schools, work and other related institutions (Dastile, 2004). For example, workers are subjected to regulations such working shifts that include night shifts in their work places except for self-employed people.

Therefore, people's lifestyles are shaped by these rules and restrictions. This increases their risk of victimisation (Dastile, 2004). Peacock (2013) argued that the problem of lifestyle exposure theory is that it does not explain the existence of these policies. Peacock (2013) stated that the failure of this theory lies in differentiating between absolute and probabilistic exposure. Garofalo (1987) concurred with Peacock (2013) by indicating that failure to differentiate between these two aspects contradicts this model indicating that there can be no victimisation of individuals if they are not exposed. In addition, Garofalo (1978) revealed that because victimisation does not always occur when there is direct contact between the victim and the offender, factors which could lead to victimisation should be highlighted and included in this theory. Walklate (1992) also criticised that Hindelang (1978) and his colleagues fail to take into account certain activities that are carried out habitually, that individuals are not aware that they exist. Again, Walklate (1992) showed that in private domains, certain forms of personal victimisation such as domestic violence are not explained by this theory.

Peacock (2013) further indicated that some of the most serious forms of personal victimisation such as child abuse happen in family contexts, and that this theory fails to distinguish crimes among men and women of the same lifestyle. Garofalo (1987) also asserted that this theory assumes certain levels of offender motivation; and that it is true by definition that there is limited victimisation of people and their property if they are not exposed to potential offenders. Garofalo (1987) considered that there is victimisation that occurs without direct contact of the offender, the victim and their property and that other factors that are contributing to victimisation must be included and taken into consideration.

Last, Garofalo (1987) stated that the lifestyle model does not specify or suggest ways in which individuals can protect themselves from victimisation. For example, people who work at night are not given guidance on how to alter their lifestyles so as to minimise the risk of victimisation. Despite the criticisms levelled against this theory, it also has some worth. It can be used as a tool for a primary crime prevention strategy. If people, for example, change the way they spend their leisure time, they could

decrease their risk of victimisation. In order to address some of the above criticisms, the original lifestyle exposure theory was adapted by Garofalo in 1987.

2.6.3 The application of Lifestyle Exposure Theory: The lasting value

Combining the knowledge presented by this theory and existing criticisms, the researcher submits that this theory assumes that victims influence their chances of becoming victims of crime. Thus, the theory can be utilised to understand the victimisation of people in rural villages. This approach emphasises that the occurrence of a victimisation event largely depends on lifestyles of individuals, demographic characteristics as well as the convergence of a motivated offender in a suitable place and time with a suitable target in the absence of a guardian. Street robberies are more likely to occur when suitable (likely) potential victims' daily activities bring them into contact with motivated offenders in places where there is an absence of capable guardians or people who are likely to intervene.

The researcher went on to state that the convergence of motivated offenders and suitable targets in the crime hot spot setting is made possible by the fact that people have routines that make it possible for perpetrators to study them and attack. Lifestyle activities such as going to night clubs and concerts as well as those with demographic characteristics such as being single and being young allow the convergence of a motivated offender in a suitable place and time with a suitable target in the absence of a guardian. Events such as music concerts and sports competitions are rarely restricted to people from one community/village alone. Unaccompanied females and those that have valuable items with them could, therefore, be seen as suitable targets for street robberies. When people go to these events, they are no longer under the confines of their parents or any other capable guardian.

The researcher also confirms that males and other parties that were with females at night clubs could rob them of their belongings on their way home when they refuse to comply with what they want after buying them alcohol. They may take their gadgets as payment of what they have spent on women. Motivated offenders could ascertain where the security personnel is situated in shopping complexes and outside taverns and which areas they often patrol. This knowledge could help them to devise ways and means of identifying suitable areas and targets for committing an offence of street

robbery. Thus, a combination of lack of security personnel around open spaces, dark areas, lack of surveillance cameras as well as a motivated offender may increase the likelihood of individuals being seen as suitable targets of street robberies.

The researcher concludes that it can be drawn from the presented applications that this theory draws the elements of Routine Activities Theory (RAT) to explain some forms of street robberies. Peacock (2013) reveals that any change of routine activities and lifestyles of people determine their vulnerability to criminal victimisation. However, the lifestyle theory explains victimisation in terms of exposure of victims in terms of their lifestyle and demographic characteristics.

2.7. SUMMARY

This chapter summarily showed that criminal victimisation does not happen randomly, but there are places and times with high rate of criminal victimisation. Residents may be able to avoid some places and look out for other places in their daily routines. Some victims may perceive strangers with suspicion and secure their belongings. One advantage of spatial-temporal factors is that they enable us to be able to identify the ideal point of control and prevention for unwanted events robbery. Victims suffer from criminal victimisation and their loss may be psychological, financial and emotional. The lifestyle-exposure theory provides evidence of how people cause their victimisation through routine activities and lifestyle choices. Lastly, the literature on preventative measure posits that by taking precautionary measures such as avoiding crime hot spots, one may avoid criminal victimisation.

The next chapter discusses the adopted research design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an outline of the research methods followed. It provides information on the participants, research design as well as the instruments used for data collection.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study followed an exploratory [qualitative] research design, and the phenomenology approach. Phenomenology defines the meaning, to different individuals of their experiences of a concept or a phenomenon (Marjan, 2017). The researcher used this research design to explore experiences of victims of street robberies. According to Mohajan (2018), qualitative research approach refers to a system of social action that focuses on how people interpret, and make logic of their experiences in order to comprehend the social reality of human beings.

Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014) indicated that the exploratory research design permits understanding of an unknown part of research. For the purpose of this study, the researcher integrated exploratory research design with the phenomenological paradigm to solicit real life experiences of selected participants on this subject. Mohajan (2018) defined this paradigm as an approach to explore life experiences of people on a daily basis. Specifically, this paradigm assisted the researcher in getting an explanation of common experiences of research participants of street robberies (Marjan, 2017). In addition, an in-depth general interview strategy was employed because it allowed the researcher to adjust the focus of the conducted interviews (du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis & Bezuidenhout. 2014).

3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.3.1 Adopted research approach

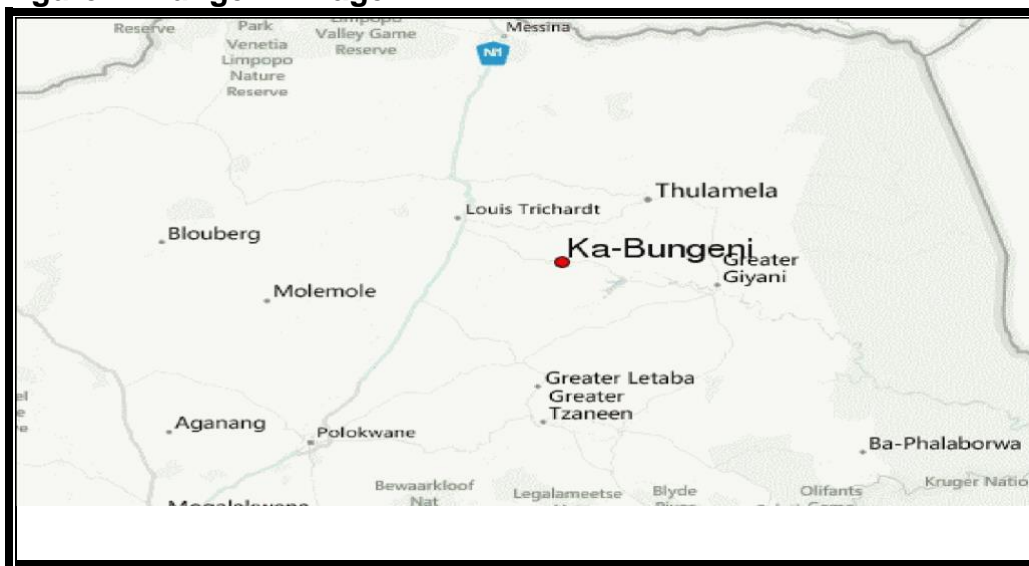
According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011), the qualitative research approach is holistic in nature, and aims mainly in understanding social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life. De Vos *et al.* (2011) also revealed that qualitative research refers to the research that evokes participant accounts of

meanings, experiences or perceptions. On the other hand, Cresswell (2014) argued that in qualitative research, the researcher frequently makes knowledge assertions based primarily on constructivist perspectives or advocacy/participatory perspectives or both.

For the researcher to explore street robberies in the identified study location, the qualitative research approach was used. The reasons for using this research approach rests on the fact that the researcher wanted to get rich detailed information, as well as participants' first hand experiences of street robberies. It is submitted that the explored nature and extent, contributory factors, associated experiences and prevention measures of combating this crime were not going to be easily attained using the quantitative research approach.

3.3.2 Study location

Figure 1: Bungeni Village



Source: Weather-forecast (2020)

This study was confined to Bungeni Village, under Makhado Municipality, Limpopo. When compared to other municipalities, Makhado Municipality has the highest number of population (Vhembe District Municipality Integrated Development Plan - IDP, 2019/2020) and the population growth of 416 728 when compared to 2011 where the population stood at 516 031 (Stats SA, 2016/2017). Makhado Municipality covers 8 567.38 km² (Vhembe District Municipality IDP, 2019/20). Robbery with aggravating

circumstances and robbery at non-residential places are some of the dominating crimes in Makhado (Vhembe District Municipality IDP, 2019/2020).

Makhado is the second on the rank with a total number of 1737 informal settlements on the backyards of households and the total number of 1736 informal settlements that people build in an open area (Vhembe District Municipality IDP, 2019/2020). Vhembe District Municipality IDP (2019/2020) also asserted that Makhado

Municipality (where Bungeni is located) has unplanned settlements. According to Roelofse (2007), an increase in the number of informal settlements increases the rate of crime.

3.3.3 Study population

Maxfield and Babbie (2011) explained that population is a theoretically specified grouping of study elements. According to Sarantakos (2013), the most significant issues researchers have to consider when designing a project is the type and number of people who will be included in the study. In addition, Wellman, Kruger and Mitchell (2008) said population is the study of objects consisting of individuals, groups, organisations, humans, products and events, or conditions to which they are exposed. This view is also supported by Brynard and Hanekom (2006), who referred to the population as the group in the universe that possess specific characteristics. In this study, the target population were individuals who experienced victimisations of street robberies. The researcher used snowball sampling, as advised by the selected local SAPS members and administered by the researcher, as well as the purposively selected local SAPS officials (i.e. Constable, Warrant officer and Sergeant), to share the nature and extent on this crime, contributory factors, experiences and effectiveness nor ineffectiveness of the current applied measures respectively. This was based on study aim and objectives.

There are 7 subsections at Bungeni. The sample was drawn from all these subvillages. The researcher is a native resident of Bungeni Village and decided to use Waterval Police Station and Bungeni village as the target population of this study. The researcher heavily relied on local SAPS knowledge to help with the snowball sampling technique application. Due to time constraints, restrictions of Corona virus (Covid-19) and financial constraints, a total population of 13 participants were interviewed.

Leedy and Omrod (2012) argued that for qualitative research studies, researchers select a few participants that can shed light on the phenomenon. In the selection of the target population, the researcher used snowball sampling to select ten (10) participants [victims of street robberies] from Bungeni village and three (3) purposively selected SAPS officials from the Waterval Police Station.

The participants from Bungeni who experienced street robberies and who shed light on the problem that was researched and the local SAPS officials are the ones who take statements from victims who report street robberies. They record the number of reported cases of street robberies. All participants were selected because they were likely to produce the most valuable data and to make a valuable contribution to the research results (Joubert, Hartell & Lombard, 2016; Maree, 2011).

3.3.4 Sample size and procedures

According to Mpata (2011), qualitative research studies allow researchers to study people's experiences in small samples. As initially explained, this study adopted non-probability sampling: purposive and snowball sampling techniques. The three (3) purposively selected SAPS officials had first-hand experience of street robberies. Snowball sampling was adopted for the other ten (10) participants [victims of street robbery], as referred by the local SAPS office.

The criteria for inclusion of participants was that they must be victims of street robberies and that they must be local SAPS officials as they are the ones who investigate and make arrests of these crimes. Furthermore, they should give consent to participate in the interviews. Purposive sampling was conducted. Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2015) described purposive sampling as a method in which the researcher selects participants in terms of their qualities.

3.3.5 Method of data collections

The researcher identified different meanings of core views of participants on street robbery at Bungeni village. As initially illustrated, the study adopted the qualitative research approach to adequately apply the field research technique where one-on-one semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. An audio recorder was used and supported by field notes to ensure that no information is lost. With the application of semi-structured interviews, the researcher has a set of planned questions about the

interview schedule. However, these questions only guide the interview as opposed to dictating it (Greeff, 2005).

The advantage of using semi-structured interview was because it provided an atmosphere in which participants could feel free to speak about their perspectives and perceptions, especially important in an unnatural environment (May, 2011). To get in-depth understanding of street robberies, the researcher requested clarity from participants through probing, follow-up questions, as well as by encouraging them to elaborate on some of their responses. For these interviews to be easy and participants to feel comfortable, the researcher was solely guided by an Interview Schedule Guide. The accessibility of participants was not very difficult as most of the victims are originally from Bungeni. Due to the accessibility of participants, individual interviews were then conducted with the use of the in-depth interviews technique between the ten (10) victims of street robberies and three (3) local SAPS officials.

Vaphi (2015) highlighted that the advantages of one-on-one interviews is the achievement of at least 80 to 85 percent rate after completion and that the presence of the interviewer also minimises the number of "I do not know" and "no answers." In reference to May (2011), this type of interviews allow more detailed questions to be asked, and participants are allowed to express their feelings or answers in their own terms. However, Cinini (2015) argued that when questions are not fixed and open-ended, there is sharing of views by the interviewer and the interviewee.

During the data collection process, the interviewer used Xitsonga and English to collect perceptions of participants. The aim of the use of these languages was to enable participants to express themselves using their own language because they are Tsonga speaking people. For a clear understanding between the interviewer and the interviewee, the translation of questions from English to Xitsonga was done prior to the interviews.

3.3.5.1 The interview process

The interview was first conducted on the 19 of March 2020 and the rest were done between 19 March to 04 July 2020. The reasons for these data were the availability of participants due to Covid-19. The interviewer used these dates due to the appointments that she made with participants. The type of interviews was face to face. Before the

start of the interview, the interviewer thought it will be fair for participants to know the importance of the study. Participants were then asked to give audio consent as well as written one where they signed. The researcher used the questions to gather data. The duration of the interviews was between five and ten minutes.

As previously mentioned, the one-on-one semi-structured interviews were guided by open-ended questions. This helped participants to get as many thoughts as they can. Thirteen participants answered questions and they all expressed their feelings about street robberies. Some experiences were sensitive, but no harm was done during the interview sessions. Therefore, all questions were answered. After all the interviews were finished, the data was used to generate themes.

3.3.6 Method of data analysis

The collected data was analysed using the TCA method. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), TCA helps in analysing texts in order to establish key ideas. The researcher played and listened to audio recordings of participants' responses several times until she obtained themes that were relevant to the research, which was then highlighted. The researcher then analysed the data by following the six phases of data analysis identified by Braun and Clarke (2006).

- **Phase 1** involves the process of reading and re-reading data in order to become familiar with their entailment by paying specific attention to patterns (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013). After collecting the data, the researcher transcribed the audio interviews into written data and then read it in order to become familiar with it as well as search for themes. Maguire and Delahunt (2017) highlighted that it is important to write notes and to note down interesting areas of the data.
- **Phase 2** involves initial codes generated by documenting patterns that occur through data reduction (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher organised data and selected meaningful groups of themes. Braun and Clarke (2006) argued that codes pinpoint core features of the data that are meaningful and interesting to the researcher. Maguire and Delahunt (2017) added that coding helps in reducing data.
- **Phase 3** is the process of combining codes into overarching themes that accurately represent the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Maguire and Delahunt (2017) indicated that a theme is anything that is important, interesting and that says something about

the research question. The researcher sorted generated codes in order to get primary themes by using a mind map where there were core and sub-themes.

- **Phase 4** is the process of reviewing themes to find a theme that is not related to the research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This phase involves the evaluation, alteration and development of primary codes to check if they make sense (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). The researcher reviewed how the themes supported or contradicted the data and the overarching theoretical perspective. The researcher also eliminated data that were not themes.
- **Phase 5** is the process of defining themes in order to find out what they are all about. If there are sub-themes, the researcher should identify the relationship between the main theme and the sub-themes (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). The researcher defined each theme, which aspects of data are captured, and what is interesting about the themes. Braun and Clarke (2006) posited that the researcher can define themes by identifying the story from each theme.
- In **phase 6**, the researcher wrote the report. The researcher took a decision on which themes made meaningful contributions to understanding what is going on within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). At the end, thematic analysis narrated the composition of data and helped the reader to see how valid the analysis was and to see the logic of the data.

3.4. METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS

Kumar (2011) posited that one of the areas of difference between quantitative research and qualitative research is in the use of and the importance given to the concepts of validity and reliability. There are some attempts to define and establish validity and reliability in qualitative research. These are trustworthiness and authenticity. According to Kumar (2011), trustworthiness in a qualitative study is determined by four indicators: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. It is these indicators that reflect validity and reliability in qualitative research approach..

Silverman (2005) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013) highlighted that several social researchers have invalidated the concern for reliability and validity as it arises only within the quantitative research tradition. In reaction to this sentiment, Silverman (2005) argued that there is no point in concluding a research dissertation unless researchers can demonstrate the procedures used to ensure the reliability of their methods and the

validity of their conclusions. Leedy and Ormrod (2013) stated that under the heading “Validity in Qualitative Research” that regardless of the kind of study you decide to conduct, the researcher must address the validity of the study to prevent it to be insignificant. Flick (2011) pointed out that classical criteria in social research (i.e. reliability, validity and objectivity) can be applied in qualitative research, while Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) are of the opinion that trustworthiness may be used in qualitative research.

According to Creswell (2014), validity is seen as strength in qualitative research and is used to determine whether findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, participants or readers. According to Creswell (2014) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013), terms such as ‘dependability’, ‘conformability’, ‘verification’, ‘transferability’, ‘trustworthiness’, ‘authenticity’ and ‘credibility’ are used to describe the idea of validity.

In reply to this, Lichtman (2014) argued that these terms originate from Lincoln and Guba’s (in Kumar, 2011) work, but seem to be outdated. According to Creswell (2014) and Gray (2014), credibility in qualitative research is equivalent to internal ‘validity’ in quantitative research. To increase the validity (credibility) of the research, strategies outlined by Flick (2011), Creswell (2014) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013) can be used by the researcher in a qualitative study to support the validity of findings.

In an attempt to ensure the validity of this study, Vithal and Jansen (2010) stated that validity is an attempt to check out whether the meaning and interpretation of an event is sound, or whether a particular measure is an accurate reflection of what you intend to find out. Data and information obtained from literature and interviews was used to establish patterns and trends to ensure the validity of data and information. In order to ensure validity, the researcher used numerous sources of information such as literature and interviews.

3.4.1 Credibility

Credibility in qualitative research is defined as the point in which the data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy from perspectives of participants in research (Kumar, 2011). Credibility and genuineness are used to determine whether the research is authentic, dependable or authoritative (Magadze, 2016). Magadze (2016) further explained that credibility implies a fit between what the participants say and the

representation of their perspectives by the researcher. Since qualitative research studies explore perceptions, experiences, feelings and beliefs of the people, it is believed that participants are the best judge to determine whether or not research findings have been able to reflect their opinions and feelings correctly. The researcher gave testimony of the trustworthiness by ensuring that findings were acceptable and that correct interpretations of the original data from participants were handled in a professional manner.

3.4.2 Transferability

Transferability or applicability requires findings and insights generated in the study's context to be generalised or applied to other individuals or contexts (Hammond & Wellington, 2013). In other words, a study must be able to be compared to others. Transferability expresses that the theoretical knowledge obtained from qualitative research can be applied to other similar individuals, groups or situations (Liamputtong, 2009). Applicability or generalisability as applied in qualitative research is different from its application in positivist science (quantitative research) in which case it relates to the external validity of findings (Kubayi, 2013). Social contexts are too complex to be reduced to a limited list of generalisable variables, and thus, it is not possible to replicate qualitative studies in the same way as in natural science because social research deals with human agency which cannot be generalised (Hammond & Wellington, 2013). The results that are almost the same can be obtained if another researcher can subject the findings of this study to similar circumstances or apply the same research design and methodology.

In ensuring the reliability of this study, Singleton and Straits (1999) and Gray (2014) agreed that reliability is concerned with questions of stability and consistency. It has to do with the question of whether repeated applications of the operational definition under similar conditions yield the same results. 'Dependability' is the concept used in qualitative research in relation to reliability (Creswell, 2014). Ritchie *et al.* (2014) were of the opinion that reliability remains relevant in qualitative research if the researcher can show the audience as much as possible of the procedures that have led to a particular set of conclusions which the researcher intends to do in his research. The data will be rigorously and consistently interpreted so that raw data and meanings that participants attach to it are dependable and consistent. Gray (2014) was of the opinion

that for most qualitative research approaches, reliability is improved if not guaranteed by triangulation. For example, using multiple sources of data gathering.

3.4.3 Dependability

Dependability is very similar to the concept of reliability in quantitative research. According to Kumar (2011), dependability is concerned with whether one would obtain the same results if one observes the same thing twice. De Vos *et al.* (2011) explained that the researcher must attempt to account for changing situations in the phenomenon chosen. Dependability requires a fit between research findings and data from which the former have been derived (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This requires the research process to display logic, traceability and clear documentation (Liamputtong, 2009). Therefore, a research design can be viewed as a prototype model. Such in-depth reporting also allows the reader to evaluate the degree to which proper research patterns have been followed.

3.4.4 Conformability

Conformability refers to the degree to which results could be confirmed or supported by others (Kumar, 2011). Here steps must be taken to help ensure, as far as possible, that findings are result of experiences and ideas of informants, rather than characteristics and preferences of the researcher. It is only possible if both researchers follow the process in the same way for the results to be compared (Kumar, 2011). The detailed elaboration of how the data was collected and analysed in this study supported confirmability. This allows other researchers to inspect the adopted research design and methodology to ensure if the same data collection methods can establish similar conclusions. According to Liamputtong (2013), a person would be able to prove that findings and their interpretation are not the author's imagination but are clearly linked to the data.

3.5. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Silverman (2000), it is important for a researcher to always remember that they are literally entering the private space of their participants when doing research. Bryman (2004) affirmed that admittance to the research site is usually mediated by gatekeepers who are taken up by the researcher's motives. The researcher's entry into the field is gained after all the formal requirements have been fulfilled. The researcher

addressed ethical issues that were followed during and after the research has been conducted. Kubayi (2013) contended that the qualitative research approach is based on the mutual trust and cooperation as well as the involvement of the researcher and the participant. Therefore, the researcher has limits and little freedom of action during the research process. This gives him or her few limits and much freedom for action.

Ethics is defined as a set of moral principles or rules whereby people and societies uphold moral standards (Matthews & Ross, 2010). The aim of ethics is to prevent participants in the research from being harmed by both the researcher and the research process. The issues of ethics are considered when one is conducting studies on human behaviour (Thobane, 2017). Every researcher is bound to follow research ethics such as ensuring that participants are not harmed and that they exercise their free will to participate in the research. The researcher of this study strove to meet these ethical requirements, as the discussion below illustrates.

3.5.1 Permission to conduct this study

Furthermore, Welman and Kruger (2002) argued that ethical considerations come into play when participants are recruited, during the involvement with the research that they are subjected to and in the release of results obtained during the research. Bak (2004) stated that the goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed because of research activities. This calls for adherence to the following ethical principles:

3.5.1.1 Gatekeeper permission

Gatekeeper permission refers to access to an institution/organisation. This access can either be physical or informational. All institutions/organisations have the right to be aware of and be given the right to grant or decline permission to conduct research in their domains. Research being conducted in public settings do not usually need gatekeeper permission, but one must be aware that some 'public' spaces, for example, malls, concerts, among others, are private spaces where management permission is required to conduct research.

Gatekeepers can only provide access permission and do not provide consent for the study. Consent is only obtained from individual participants, caregivers and guardians, among others. The gatekeeper permission letter must ideally be presented as an official document bearing either a school/company/clinic stamp or letterhead. An

electronic communication is accepted provided that correspondence from the SAPS is attached. Permission was granted from different organisations (SAPS and Chief Bungeni).

3.5.2 SAPS National Instruction 1/2006: Research in the service

Application to conduct research within the SAPS is guided by National Instruction 1/2006. The purpose of this instruction is to regulate requests to conduct research in the service by persons from outside the service or by employees who wish to conduct the research for private purposes. The researcher adhered to sections (1-6) of the said document and fully understood the instructions in her capacity as an applicant, and undertook the submission of indemnity and declaration documents. Gatekeeper permission was granted by the SAPS.

3.5.3 The University of Limpopo Policy on Research Ethics

Ethical clearance was granted by Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC). The study adhered to UL Policy on Research Ethics (2020). Research at UL is conducted and governed within the framework of policies and guidelines that promote impeccable ethical standards. All research protocols, irrespective of the level (postgraduate, post-doctoral, staff research) are reviewed using a standard predetermined set of criteria.

3.5.4 Informed consent and voluntary participation

Informed consent is founded on the perception that the researcher must give information to participants about the purpose of the research, its operation, potential risks, benefits and alternatives so that they can understand this information and can make a voluntary decision whether to enrol and continue to participate or not (Liamputtong, 2009; Kubayi, 2013). Participants of this study were assured that they understand what they are willing to take part without influence (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

They must be aware of the grounds of the research, what the applicable implications of the research are, and that their participation is voluntary. Therefore, they have the right to withdraw at any stage of the research (Marshall & Ross, 2006). According to Creswell (2009), this implies making a full disclosure of the nature of the study

according to which participants are required to read and sign an informed consent form. When the researcher was done explaining the purpose and nature of this study, participants were willing to form part of this study. They were requested to sign a consent form. Those who refused were allowed to do so. These interviews were conducted only with participants who had signed consent forms.

3.5.5 Anonymity and confidentiality

The purpose of confidentiality is to hide the true identity and to ensure the privacy and anonymity of participants (Liamputtong, 2009). Confidentiality is settled on the principle of respect for liberty of people in terms of safekeeping their identity and making them unknown (Creswell, 2009). In terms of this principle, the selected participants were told that they have the right to adjudicate who should know about their private lives, including the disclosure of their names or any other sort of identification in the final report, since the revelation may result in serious emotional, social or physical harm (Kubayi, 2013; Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

Accordingly, it is compulsory for the researcher to take responsibility by ensuring that subjects' participation in the research does not harm them (Liamputtong, 2009). In this regard, the researcher did not ask participants questions that would reveal their identity during the collection of data. Instead, where necessary, pseudonyms or fictitious names were used in field notes, transcripts, in reference to the villages or municipalities where they come from, and in the research report itself when discussing their verbatim explanations. Consequently, no information in data analysis or in the final report of the study could be associated with any particular individual. In addition, the researcher ensured that the data collected from participants were treated with the utmost confidentiality, and was used only for the purpose for which it was collected.

3.5.6 Purpose of the study

This study was undertaken in fulfilment of requirements for a master's degree in Criminology and Criminal Justice at the UL to explore street robberies at Bungeni Village under Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

3.5.7 Procedures

The data collection method used in the study was one-on-one semi-structured interview. This was used to gain valuable information from participants. This technique further served as a means to gain insight and knowledge of participants' respective fields (Local SAPS members and victims of this crime). These interviews lasted for 30-60 minutes and were held according to participants' convenient time schedules. The discussions made were recorded, and notes were written during these sessions.

3.5.8 Benefits

No perceptible benefits or incentives were available for the selected participants of the study. However, they were all told that they will benefit through the process of knowledge production. They were also informed that if they give the researcher permission to publish their names in the final dissertation, this was going to be done.

But this did not happen.

3.5.9 Protection from harm (Risks and discomfort)

Ormrod and Leedy (2005:101) stated that the researcher should not expose research participants to unnecessary physical and psychological harm. To comply with this statement, the researcher ensured that study participants were protected from psychological harm. This comes from the fact that to be a victim of street robbery is, by its very nature, intrusive and may violate a number of constitutional guaranteed rights of victims. To this course, the researcher conducted interviews with participants in their respective homes to create a conducive environment where their respective safety measures were prioritised without exposing them to psychological associated risks. In anticipation of any risk that may arise while conducting these interviews, the researcher was in a position of a contingency plan where selected participants would be subjected to psychological interventions if any need arise. These interviews lasted for an hour.

3.5.10 Participants' privacy and the researcher's involvement

The researcher did not at any time violate the privacy of participants. This was ensured at all costs (their right to privacy) – by informing participants that their identity will remain anonymous. To achieve 'Involvement of the researcher' aspect, the researcher guarded against manipulating participants or treating them as objects or numbers

rather than individual human beings. The researcher did not use unethical tactics and techniques of interviews. Furthermore, the researcher did not release or publish findings of this study without the consent of the selected participants (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005).

3.6. SUMMARY

With the issues presented in this chapter, it can be concluded that this study used a suitable research design and methodology to fulfil its aims and objectives as outlined in Chapter One. The chapter has outlined the research methodology employed in the study. The following chapter presents, analyses and interprets findings of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to explore street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa using a sample of ten (10) victims who reside at the village and three (3) local SAPS officials attached to Waterval Police Station. The research is believed to help in identifying factors that contribute to street robberies at Bungeni, to assess victims' experiences and to determine measures that can be taken to prevent these robberies in the identified study location.

This study attempted to empower victims of this crime to be vigilant about crime while working closely with local SAPS officials by providing rich information about what happened to them so that they become more effective and efficient in doing their work when investigating street robbery. This chapter presented results obtained from 13 one-on-one semi-structured interviews with victims of street robbery and local SAPS officials. The names of participants are not revealed to afford them confidentiality and privacy. This was guided by the aim and objectives of the study.

4.2. FINDINGS BASED ON THE AIM OF THE STUDY

4.2.1 Exploring street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province

The aim of the study was to explore street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa. The researcher first determined the characteristics of research participants namely; that they were victims of street robberies; that they reside at Bungeni Village; and that the selected police officials worked closely with reported cases. The researcher employed three research objectives and the whole study was guided by such objectives. The aim of the study was also met by the discussion in chapter two of the study.

Some of the selected participants highlighted that *“the robbery occurred late night of Friday, 28 June 2019”*. Another victim said that he was robbed *“at the early hours on Tuesday (last year June) 2019”*. The reasons for being robbed at that time is that they were going to or from work, church and places of entertainment. Two out Ten participants were robbed during the day, either on their way to or from school and shopping complex. When asked about the time of robbery, one of the participants said: *“on the 07th of April 2020, I was collecting child support grant”*. One of the police officers confirms that most street robberies occur late at night and that most victims are from places of entertainment. He said: *“when we talk about time that street robberies are committed we can talk about between 21h00pm and 04h00am”*.

There are days that street robberies are more likely to occur. Some of the participants were robbed on weekends, while others were robbed during the week. One of the participants indicated that *“the robbery occurred late night of Friday, 28 June 2019”* and another one said *“It happened during the day, it was after school between 16:00 and 17:00 on Thursday”*. There are places that have an impact on occurrence of street robberies. Some of the selected participants were robbed on the road, one of the participants said *“I was robbed on the way between church and the place where I stay, there was a bush on that road”*. While others were robbed at bus stops, participants responses proves this *“It happened at a bus stop (a busy place)”*. Others indicated that they were robbed on the way to or from and near taverns, a shopping complex and near a taxi rank. Participant said this *“It happened at Sasekisa complex”*.

Some of the factors that contribute to the occurrence of street robberies are walking alone in places where offenders can rob them without being seen by bystanders. There are participants who were robbed at places where there were no bystanders, one answered the question that asked if there were other people when they get robbed and they said *“No, I was alone.”*, *“No, there were no other people since it was early in the morning.”*, *“No, they made sure I was isolated before they can attack.”*, *“No, I think there were no other people. I could not see since it was dark.”* *“No, we were on the car with those two people”*. Those who were robbed late also confirmed that there were no bystanders. They said: *“No, it was late it was only us and the robbers”*. Engaging in risky behaviour such as walking alone, especially at night increases chances of being robbed. Majority of participants mentioned that they were alone when they got robbed, whereas a few participants were in the company of other people when they got robbed.

From victims' experiences, street robberies have a negative impact on victims as they are left traumatised or psychologically affected. This study confirmed that fear of being robbed in the street made people not to feel safe when walking in their neighbourhoods, especially at night. One of the participants responded to question about how the incident/robbery affected them by saying “:” *I am always watching my back when I walk, I feel like someone is going to attack me again.*” Another participant said: *“It affected me emotionally and psychologically. I was so scared I thought they were going to kill us.* They tend to be anti-social as they fear to go out and do not socialise since they do not know who will rob them in the future. The reason for the participants' psychological impact is that offenders use weapons, threats and force when they rob them. Majority of the selected participants indicated that they are afraid of walking alone. They want to be accompanied by other people, and that they were threatened with violence and forced to comply during street robberies. A few street robbers were bag snatchers. Another impact of street robbery to victims is that they are affected physically and financially. Less number of participants were hospitalised due to injuries sustained during street robberies. All participants suffered financially since they either had to replace money, gadgets or clothes that they were robbed.

4.3. FINDINGS BASED ON THE STUDY OBJECTIVES

4.3.1 Identification of factors contributing to street robberies at Bungeni Village

4.3.1.1 When did the robbery occur?

The purpose of this question was to determine the time that participants are robbed in the streets at Bungeni Village. One of the factors that contribute to street robberies is a temporal factor. It became clear during interviews that participants of the study were robbed at different times. Winter seasons are conducive to the commission of street robberies since it gets darker earlier than in summer. In response to the above statement, one of the victims confirmed that he was robbed in winter, and said *“the robbery occurred late night of Friday, 28 June 2019”*. Another victim hinted that he was robbed *“at the early hours on Tuesday (last year June) 2019”*. Street robberies mostly occur during December. When interviewed, one of the victims said: *“It was Sunday morning at around 3AM in December 2017”*. There are days of the month where street

robberies are more likely to occur, be it end of the month or mid-month. One of the victims replied that *"It occurred month end, during the day"*.

When she was asked about when she was robbed, another victim mentioned that *"on the 07th of April 2020, I was collecting child support grant"*. Participant 13 said that *"when we talk about time that street robberies are committed we can talk about between 21h00pm and 04h00am"*. Participant 13 gave reasons, and he responded by saying that *"it is because they are staying in Taverns until late, so that is where the offenders get the opportunity"*.

During interviews, most victims confirmed the literature in chapter 2 that most street robberies are committed between 1pm and 2am. *"It occurred on Friday early in the morning"*, that was the answer from the interview with one of the victims. Some people are robbed during the day between 3pm and 6pm. The participant confirmed by saying that *"It happened during the day, it was after school between 16:00 and 17:00 on Thursday"*. The crime of street robbery mainly occurs at night, increasing after 8pm and subsidising after 3am in most areas. Most of the participants mentioned that they were robbed at night. The following are their confirmations: *"Saturday midnight, last year November."*

The second participant highlighted that he was robbed on *"Sunday night 2018 April"* and another one on *"Saturday night, during Easter holidays"*. It was highlighted in the literature review that young adults are mostly robbed in the evening and midnight because some of them are from or going to places of entertainment and work.

4.3.1.2 Where did the robbery take place? (Please describe the area for me)

The purpose of this question was to gain insight of the places that are conducive to street robberies. It was found that there are living conditions that are more favourable to the occurrence of street robberies. Answers from participants point out that street robbery incidents are most likely to occur at or near the offender's home, work, or play or on the paths between them. One of the participants' response confirmed the above statement. The response is: *"I was robbed on the way between church and the place where I stay, there was a bush on that road"*.

Participants were determined that most people are robbed at public places as well as streets. Five out of Ten participants responded to questions about where they were robbed. The first participant said: *"It happened at a bus stop (a busy place)"*. It also emerged that street robberies dominate places such as bus stops and grocery stores. One of the participant said: *"I was robbed (heavy breathing), It happened at Sasekisa complex"*. One of the participants also mentioned that *"my church mates and I we were coming from a night when a group of young buys rob us"*. Another participant also responded by saying: *"I got robbed when I was on the way from a tavern, it was on the street just outside the tavern"*. Participant 11 gave answer to this question when asked about where the victims were coming from or going to when they got robbed. He said: *"uh my girl, from the reports that we receive, they are from night clubs and Taverns"*.

Evidently, street robberies also occur at taxi ranks as well as places of business and entertainment that close at midnight. There are participants who gave their experience on the way they were robbed, *"I was robbed at the bus stop, not far from where I was going"*, another one said *"I was on the way to a concert, just 3 Kilometres away from a tavern"*. Participant 12's response to this question gave support to what participants said. He responded that *"most of the time victims are robbed on their way from taverns"*.

4.3.1.3 How often do you find yourself in the place where you were robbed?

The purpose of this question was to find out how often victims are exposed to street robberies. Most people are exposed to street robberies on a daily basis due to role expectations. During interviews, one of the victims argued: *"I always catch a bus home from school. So I find myself at the bus stop twice a day"*. As societies maintain certain cultural standards and beliefs, children are expected to go to school every day. One of the participants confirmed: *"I am working, so I find myself every day from Monday to Saturday"*. There are people who spend their time outside their home working or doing other leisure activities.

There are certain lifestyles that people adapt to, which lead to their victimisation. Spending much time in places of entertainment puts them at great risk of being robbed. The participant said: *"I go to a Tavern almost every weekend"*. Another one said: *"I go there with friends during holidays and festive seasons, since there are lot of people with money"*, and another one argued: *"I usually go there when there are concerts (laughs)"*. People associate themselves with those that have similar interests and

lifestyle choices; and in turn they are more likely to associate with potential offenders. One participant said: *“I use the road almost every weekend, especially on Fridays and Sundays”*.

Lastly, some people become victims of street robberies due to their exposure at that specific time and place. During interviews, one of the participants said: *“I go there for shopping, every month end, I collect my social grant there since I do not need taxi”*. Another participant responded by saying: *“I go to town once every month.”* Some of the participants are criminal victims in places that they cannot avoid. A participant answered: *“It is the stop that we take taxi from when we go to town or anywhere. So I go there whenever I want to take a taxi.”*

4.3.2 Assessing victims’ experiences of street robberies at Bungeni Village

4.3.2.1 How many times have you been a victim of street robberies?

The aim of this question was to determine if people are being victimised over and over and if they become alert of what caused their exposure to street robbery before. It was found that most participants were not aware of their exposure to victimisation of street robberies since they had not been robbed before in the street. Most participants were straight forward when answering this question. They said the following in response: *“It was for the first time”*, *“Once”*, *“It was for the first time”*, *“Once, it was for the first time I got mugged”*. However, there are those that were victims before but they found themselves in the same place where they were robbed due to circumstances. Their answers were also straight forward: *“It happened twice”* and *“I was robbed three times”*.

4.3.2.2 How many offenders were involved in the robbery?

The aim of the question was to get a sense of what the victim went through and how many perpetrators threatened them. Most participants were robbed by one offender. They replied to this question by saying that *“one”*, *“I was alone and the robber was alone”*, *“one”*, *“one tall, dark young man. Though his face was covered but I could see his hands”* and *“one man”*. There are those who were robbed by more than one offender. They responded by saying *“they were two”*, *“they were three”*, *“Six offenders”*, *“two offenders”* and *“two men”*.

4.3.2.3 How did they commit the robbery? That is, did they threaten you? If so, was the threat verbal or physical, or did they threaten you with a weapon? Can you describe the weapon?

The purpose of the question was also to get a sense of how the robbery was committed and the *MO* used by offenders. It was found that offenders use force or threats of force in order to make victims comply with their demands. Some of the participants explained how force and threat of force were used against them. *"They started by walking closely with me, they told me to keep walking and no scream for help. They showed me a gun and then commanded me to give them money. I did as I was told, and they then rushed to the car parked 1Kilometre away from where we were."* Another participant said: *"The guy was standing on the corner, when I approach he asked me to give him what was inside my handbag if not he was going to kill me. I had money that I was going to use for transport, cellphone and keys. I feared for my life, I just handed my handbag to him. He took the handbag and he told me to stand still until he disappears. I watched him disappear with my handbag".*

When asked about how offenders commit street robberies, Warrant officer X responded: *"offenders use knives, guns and other weapons. According to reports, they use same weapons and same style"*. Furthermore, some participants sustained physical injuries in the process of being robbed. One participant explained that he was hit on the head with a gun. He said: *"Two men approached me from the front, one stood in front of me and the other one passed. After passing, he stopped and wait for his friend to attack. The one on the front asked me what do I have with me, I said nothing (stopped talking for a minute) He then took out the gun, he hit me on the head and started taking out all the valuables that I had with me."*

Another participant who sustained physical injuries said: *"I was from the Tavern alone midnight around 3am. My friends left me there since I was still enjoying myself. They told me to go home since they were about to close. I went out through the gate, I walked 6-10 meters until I started noticing that I was being followed. I thought that they were also from the Tavern, so I asked them to hurry so that we can walk together. When they arrived they asked me what I had on me, I said nothing I drank all the money I had. They told me to stand still so that the can be able to search me, but I refused. They took out the knife, I tried to fight them until one of them shot me on the knee with a gun. They*

then searched me and take my cellphone, my sneakers, jacket and shirt. They then left me on the street. I crawled until I get to the nearby house, I asked for help and they called the ambulance.”

A participant who is a student explained how he became a victim of street robbery: *“I got separated with my friends when they board on their transport. I remained on the station for the bus, while I was waiting, a dark tall guy came and stand next to me. He pointed me with a knife in such a way that nobody noticed, he told me to give him whatever I had on me. I tried to attract people’s attention but he threatened to stab me. I gave him my cellphone and few rands that I had on my pocket.”* Another participant explained what offenders used in order to force them to comply: *“They forced us, they were carrying knives, Pangas and a firearm.”* Another lady who was robbed with her friend said: *“They stopped us, they were on the VW Polo. They asked if we do not want a lift since it was late night, we got in a car. They drove for almost 1KM, then they asked us to pay for the lift they gave us. We told them that we do not have money. They then asked us how are we going to pay, we told them to let us go. They threatened to rape us, we begged them not to but they took our cell phones and warned us not to walk at night again and not to board in cars we do not know.”*

It was also during interviews that resistance by participants led to the use of violence by an offender towards the participant. One of the participants said: *“The person saw me coming out from the ATM. I think he followed me until I was alone since I was walking home. He asked me to give him all the money that I withdrew. I wanted to resist and he slapped me on the face. I gave him all the money”.* A lady said: *“The guy gave me (offered) a lift from town to home, actually I hiked since there were no taxis during this time of covid-19. we talked about life and we ended up talking about Stokvel. I asked to get off when I arrived where I was supposed to get off and he dropped me off and left. He turned back and he found me not far from where he dropped me of. He called me and I went back. Immediately when I get in the car, he locked the car and told me to give him money that I had for Stokvel. Since he knew that I had it I gave him because he would drive off with me and he was going to kill me and bury me where people are not going to find me. My child is still young and I did not want to leave my child without a mother, so I gave him the money and he let me out of the car and he drove away.”*

Some of the experiences of participants involve grab and run situations where the offender attacked without the victim knowing what was happening. A lady said: *"I was walking to the bus station alone, there were people who were already at the bus stop. Before I could arrive at the bust stop, someone grabbed my handbag and ran with it"*.

4.3.2.4 How has the incident affected you?

The aim of the question was to get a clear understanding of the impact of street robberies on participants. During interviews, it emerged that participants experienced psychological, social, financial and physical impacts. Most participants suffered from both psychological and social effects of street robberies. A man explained how street robbery affected him: *"I am always watching my back when I walk, I feel like someone is going to attack me again."* Another participant said: *"It affected me emotionally and psychologically. I was so scared I thought they were going to kill us."* Another lady said *"I am afraid to ask for a lifts. I do not go to Taverns anymore. I am still trying to figure out how life was going to be if they had raped us."* It also emerged that participants have Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) due to street robberies. One of the participants said: *"It deeply affected me, I am not free whenever I walk alone. My heart skips a bit when i bump into a dark and tall men. Those flashback appear again in my mind."* Another answered in short and then kept quiet, saying, *"It affected me psychologically"*.

Some of the participants spoke about being anti-social and not trusting anyone. A lady answered, *"I am afraid to be alone at the bus station"* another lady said *"I always ask my husband or a friend to accompany me when I go to collect grant."* A participant said: *"I do not go alone from the Tavern, I make sure that I go with my friends. I do not go with expensive phone or clothes."* Another lady said: *"I am afraid to withdraw money and walk alone, I need company of other people. I trust no one."* Another participant who had been impacted both financially and emotionally said: *"It affected me emotionally since I am always clumsy when someone approach me from the back. I had to borrow money for transport that month since the offender took my monthly ticket."*

4.3.2.5 Were there other people (bystanders) around when you were robbed, and what was their reaction?

The purpose of this question was to determine if the participants were isolated and vulnerable before an offender or offenders rob them. It became clear during interviews that most participants were alone or in desolate walkways when they got robbed. Participants' responses were: *"No, I was alone."*, *"No, there were no other people since it was early in the morning."*, *"No, they made sure I was isolated before they can attack."*, *"No, I think there were no other people. I could not see since it was dark."* *"No, we were on the car with those two people"*. Those who were robbed late also confirmed that there were no bystanders. They said: *"No, it was late it was only us and the robbers."* Another one said: *"no, I did not see other people"*.

Other participants demonstrated that their robbers made sure that nobody noticed what was happening. A lady said: *"Yes there were there, unfortunately they did not see what was happening."* Another said: *"They were far, and when I scream for help we tried to chase the offender but it was already late since he was far."* Another participant confirmed by saying: *"Yes, there were lot of people who were moving/ going both directions on the street."*

4.3.2.6 What were you robbed of?

The purpose of this question was to find out what participants were robbed of. All participants gave answers to this question. It was clear that they were all robbed valuable items, including money. The first participant said: *"Transport fare, cellphone and handbag. I had a wallet that had bank cards, Identify Document (ID) and a receipts for lay-by's"*. The second one said: *"Cellphone and money"*, another one said *"Handbag, there was cellphone inside, lunchbox, bus ticket and cosmetic"*, *"Cell phones, they only took our phones"*. Another participant revealed the following: *"I had nothing except phone, they took my cellphone"* and other three participants responded in short by saying *"Money"*. Yet, another one said: *"phones"*, and the last one said: *"money"*. These participants also demonstrated that offenders went as far as taking their clothes and left them naked. Participants responded by saying: *"Cellphone, clothes and shoes"*. Another one said, *"They took my cellphone and shoes"*.

4.3.3 Determining measures applied to prevent street robberies at Bungeni village

4.3.3.1 How would you describe the safety level of the place where you were robbed?

The aim of this question was to get understanding of measures that may be applicable to reduce and prevent street robberies at Bungeni village. It was found that most places are not safe to walk at. Participants responded by saying: *“the road is not safe for someone to walk alone, especially at the night since there are long grasses and it is bushy because the land on the sides of the road is vacant”*. Another one responded by saying: *“I cannot say the place is not safe since I was not expecting it to have securities, it is the street and no one is responsible for it. It has long grass and lot of trees on both sides of the street and there are no street lights in our village.”*

The study found that patrols are needed at Bungeni. Participants said: *“not safe because there are no street lights and police do not patrol, boys’ are always there targeting people”*. Another participant mentioned that *“the road to the tavern is very busy so one can get robbed without people noticing”*. A female participant confirmed that *“the road is not safe for women, especially at night”*. Busy places like taverns and shopping complexes can be conducive to crime if there are no CCTV cameras and security. Participants shared their views during interviews.

A lady said: *“It is a busy place; everyone is always on the own cases minding their business. So it is easy for a person to get robbed without people noticing, so I can say it is not safe”*. Another responded by saying the following: *“Yooo I do not want to go there, that place is not safe since there are no lights on the streets and it is dark every morning when I go to work, especially on winter and on rainy days.”* Another lady confirmed by saying: *“The place does not have CCTV cameras according to what I heard. There are no ATM attendants that is the reason why users get robbed so easily”, another lady shared her experience regarding street or roads of Bungeni by saying “ohhh, the streets are not safe at all, no lights on the street and no police patrols (keep quite), eish.”*

Lastly, it was found that there are places that are not conducive to the commission of street robberies; it is just that people are reckless. A lady gave her insights into the safety of the place where she was robbed. She said: *“the place is safe, it is just that the*

person who robbed knew that I had money since he gave me a lift from town and he dropped me off there.” The researched asked: “how, did you show him the money?” The participant said: “we talked about lot of things and we ended up talking about where I was going and what I was going to do, so I guess he became alerted that I was carry lot of money since I was to Stokvel”.

4.3.3.2 As a victim of street robbery, what safety measures do you think should be implemented in this place to prevent incidents like the one you experienced?

The purpose of this question was to find out which measures are applicable to reduce and prevent street robberies at Bungeni Village. All participants gave their views by saying: *“If people from municipal can come and cut the grass and develop that vacant land, robbers are not going to rob people on that area.”* Another one said: *“Government (municipal) must make sure that there is no vacant land that is not occupied. Decay infrastructure must be used for something else because that is where robbers hide. Chiefs must follow-up on those that they are given stands, to make sure that they build.”* Another one said: *“The government must install street lights, the police must patrol”.* And another one said: *“Installation of street lights will help, I think what municipal has started with installation of Apollo lights is a good initiative. And again, I think there must neighbourhood watch and also police must do round patrols.”* The first participants who responded outlined that government and the police must take responsibility to prevent street robberies.

Participants also indicated that patrols are some of the good measures. One lady responded by saying: *“The place would be safe if there are securities or police who patrol”.* Another said: *“I think the police must patrol that street every night. We need the visibility of police officers there”.* There are other participants who demonstrated that victims or civilians must also take initiatives to reduce street robberies. They responded by saying: *“I think we women must stop going to clubs with the mentality that someone will buy us alcohol and maybe they will take us home”.* Another one said: *“the owner of the tavern must at least approach municipal to install street lights or he must install the street light at least one KM outside the tavern. Walking in groups can prevent robberies.”* Another one responded by saying: *“People as ladies must stay away from hitch hiking because people end up being killed by strangers who give them lifts”.* However, there

are those who demonstrated that nothing can change the situation. They said: *“There is nothing that can be done if robbers are able to rob people in crowded places”*.

4.4. INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

The findings of this study were interpreted in such a way that others would be able to make sense of it. The interpretation of data focuses on giving a distinct explanation based on data analysis. The results and findings in regard of research studies will either confirm or contradict the researcher’s own interpretation (Mounon, 2011). Interpretation also means taking into consideration contending justifications or interpretations of one’s data and displaying levels of support provided by the data for ideal interpretation. The above-mentioned opinions are complemented by Neuman (2011), who stated that the interpretation of the collected data will be converted into research findings, and the literature will either support or contradict the findings.

4.4.1 Overview of evolving themes

Interpretation of findings begins with an outline of each emergent theme, which is highlighted and accompanied by relevant literature sources, as indicated in Chapter Two. The main purpose of interpreting findings was to arrive at an understanding of street robberies at Bungeni Village. The following section presents the discussion of the overview of developing themes:

4.4.1.1 Time where street robberies occur

The time when street robberies occur is seasonal, including days and months. As discussed in section 2.5.3.1 of chapter two of this study, change of seasons influences changes in weather patterns, which in turn modify the routines of people (Linning, Andresen, Ghaseminejad & Brantingham, 2017). It was also discussed in the same section that change of seasons does not restrict people from engaging in all sorts of routine activities (Tompson & Bowers, 2012). The data collected confirmed that street robberies occur in all seasons since participants were robbed in different seasons. There are those who were robbed in June and it was winter season; and there are those who were robbed in December which is in summer. It was asserted in section 2.5.3.1 of this study that robberies mostly occur during December, as the month comes with pressure and expectations of buying gifts (Brown, Esbensen & Geis, 2015). The

above literature is supported by findings from the data collection where participants indicated that they were robbed in different months.

It was also indicated in section 2.9.1.1 of chapter two of this study on the element (role expectations) of lifestyle exposure theory that people have different role expectations that are affected by characteristics such as age, race, sex, marital status, education, income and occupation (McNeeley, 2015; Peacock, 2013).

Participants' reasons for them being in places where they were victimised are in line with the element of lifestyle exposure theory (role expectations) as they were on the scene because they were either coming back from work or going to work, going to school or shopping. Some were going to places of entertainment in those days as expected. The theory went further on the same section (paragraph two) and indicated that people started to spend their time outside their homes working or doing other leisure activities which resulted in a change of lifestyles and role expectations (Lee & Hilinski-Rosick, 2011).

When interviewed, the selected participants indicated that they were robbed during weekends that is from Friday and Sunday. Most participants also indicated that they were robbed on week days. Participants' responses during interviews also confirmed what Policastro (2013) mentioned in paragraph two of section 2.9.1.1 of chapter two of this study, that adults and adolescents are expected to spend more time outside their homes socialising with their peers, working or going to school.

In relation to *'time'*, some of the participants mentioned that they were robbed at night, others at mid-night, and most of the participants during the day. Recorded interviews of police officers from Waterval Police Station also indicated that most victims are robbed at night and in the early hours (between 21h00pm and 04h00am). The above findings are in line with section 2.5.3.1 of chapter two of the study where Tompson and Bowers (2012) indicated that most people are robbed at night when it is dark since lighting conditions have a bearing on activities such as going out.

4.4.1.2 Places where street robberies occur

When the researcher asked participants about where they have been robbed or where street robberies occur at Bungeni, most of their responses were that they were at home

going to taxi ranks. Literature confirms these findings. Block, Galary and Brice (2007) indicated in section 2.5.3 of chapter two of this study that most predatory crimes occur close to home but not immediately at the victims' addresses.

Participants said that they were robbed in the streets when they were going somewhere (i.e. either school, shop, work or taverns). As discussed in section 2.5.3 of chapter two of the study, Vaphi (2016), Lan (2016), Mathews (2014) and Hart and Miethe (2014) confirmed that street robberies occur in streets and public places that are overcrowded such as bus stops, grocery stores and taxi ranks. Some participants said that they were robbed at bus stops, taxi ranks and shopping complexes. It was further discussed in section 2.5.3 that street robberies occur in places of business and other places of entertainment that close late or at midnight. The interview from SAPS officers also showed that most people are robbed on their way from taverns (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010).

4.4.1.3 Items robbed from victims

Section 2.7.1 of chapter two of this study indicated that street robbers target students, workers and commuters who seem to have money or other valuable items (Lancaster, 2020). It was further indicated in section 2.5.1 paragraph two of chapter two of this study that when people engage in risky behaviour while in possession of expensive items such as cell phones, jewellery, laptops and large sums of money, it may give rise to criminal victimisation (Etuk & Macpherson, 2018). All participants mentioned that they were robbed their valuable items that include money, cell phones, handbags and clothes. One of the police officers also indicated that most victims are robbed of their cell phones and money by those that they know.

4.4.1.4 Experiences of victims and outcomes of street robberies

In terms of *'physical and emotional outcomes of street robberies,'* most victims mentioned that street robberies affected them either psychologically and physically. What participants said in the above statement is supported by the literature in section 2.6 of chapter two of this study, where Giorgi *et al.* (2015) indicated that victims of robberies can suffer severe trauma from the violence. It may, in turn, stimulate the development of mental health problems and post-traumatic stress disorder. They mentioned that they are always afraid to walk alone in the streets. Some said that they

suffered from injuries caused by offenders when they rob them. Participants indicated that weapons that were used left trauma in their lives.

Considering the '*financial and social outcome of street robberies*,' it was discussed in section 2.6 of chapter two of this study that the problems that victims are encountering may demand medical attention, which is a loss to them (Giorgi *et al.*, 2015). Some participants mentioned that they suffered from financial problems because they had to replace items and money taken from them by force and threat. It was further indicated by Van der Merwe (2008) in section 2.6 of chapter two of this study that victims' belongings are at great risk as soon as they come into contact with offenders. It was also indicated in chapter two that victims of street robberies lose their property due to damage or theft and that they spent money in order to replace stolen or damaged items (Van der Merwe, 2008).

Furthermore, it was discussed in section 2.6 of chapter two of this study that victims of street robberies develop a change in behaviour after the incident, such as isolating themselves from other people or avoiding certain places (Rossetti, Dinisman & Moroz, 2016). Some participants showed that they isolate themselves because they do not trust anyone. Literature in section 2.6. paragraph seven of this study highlighted that victims end up creating strategies that they use to cope after victimisation where there are physical and noticeable changes, such as withdrawing from others or equally seeking social support or avoiding problems (Ross & Rasool, 2019).

4.4.1.5 Preventative measures

This study argues that the '*social crime prevention*' can be effectively used to prevent this crime as the selected victims said that police officers must do patrols to reduce the number of street robbery. It was indicated in section 2.8.1 of chapter two of this study that community crime prevention such as neighbourhood watch guards located in street corners with radio communication and patrols assist in reducing the risk of certain areas becoming targets of robberies (Zinn, 2010). It was also discussed in the section (paragraph two) of the study that patrols must work as a task force that is proactive, highly visible and must focus only on reducing street robberies (Monk, Heinonen & Eck, 2010). Lastly, section 2.8 of chapter two of this study also asserted that in fighting street robberies, collaboration are made by local councils, charities and government in order to form awareness campaigns (Walsh, 2008).

Some participants showed that people such as ladies must stay away from hitch hiking because people end up being robbed and killed by strangers who give them lifts. The above mentioned measure is in support of literature in section 2.8. of chapter two of the study that preventative strategies can be taken when there is a fear of crime by victims (Lee & Hilinski-Rosick, 2011). It was also seen in section 2.8 of chapter two of this study that victims can only take precautionary measures if they have fear of being victimised (Dastile, 2004). Some participants of the study indicated that people must stop going to night clubs with the mentality that someone is going to buy alcohol for them because they end up being robbed and raped as a way of paying for their debts. Lastly, walking in groups can prevent street robberies.

The '*environmental crime prevention*' was also cited as a preventative measure of this crime. This is discussed in section 2.8 of chapter two of this study. When there are restrictions on the environmental or situational opportunities for crime and upgrade of existing infrastructures, crimes such as street robberies will be prevented (Newham, 2005). Participants said that the municipality must make sure that there is no vacant land that is not occupied; and that decaying infrastructure must be used for something else because that is where robbers hide. They also indicated that chiefs must follow up on those that they are giving stands to make sure that they build something.

Most participants mentioned that street robbery can be prevented when the municipality can install street lights. They also mentioned that the municipality has started installing street lights at Bungeni. The above responses from participants are in line with the CPTED in section 2.8.2 of chapter two of this study; natural surveillance needs to be improved by those in the neighbourhood as a means of making streets safe for appropriate users (Lab, 2016). It was found in section 2.8.2 paragraph four of the study that street robberies may be prevented when local governments maintain infrastructure like cutting overgrown trees in parks and demolishing old buildings that are unoccupied since these provide hiding spots for perpetrators (Kruger *et al.*, 2016).

4.4. RESULTS: THEMES AND SUB-THEMES

From the recorded interviews with thirteen people who participated in the study, themes and sub-themes are drawn by the researcher.

Table 4.1: Summary of emerging themes, categories and codes coming from data analysis

Identified themes	Categories	Codes
Time where street robberies occur	Light and dark (Hours)	At night At mid-night During the day
	Days	Friday Saturday
	Months and seasons	June
Place where street robberies occur	Public places	Bus stop Shopping complex Taxi rank
	Places of entertainment	Tavern
	On the road	On the road near places Taverns, church and taxi ranks
	Months and seasons	June
Items robbed from victims	Valuable Items	Money Cellphone(s) Handbags Clothes
Experiences of victims and outcomes of street robberies	Physical Emotional Financial Social	Injuries Trauma Loss of money Anti-social
Preventative measures	Social crime prevention Environmental crime prevention	Action to improve housing Directed patrols Eliminating risky activities Neighbourhood watch
		CPTED

Source: Researcher's emphasis

4.5. FINDINGS OF THE INTERPRETED DATA

This study explored experiences of victims of street robbery on how they perceive factors contributing to their victimisation. Participants experienced victimisation differently. According to them, street robberies are also happening at Bungeni Village even though no literature has been documented. Major factors contributing to street robberies are lifestyle exposure and individual routine activities as well as time and place where street robberies occur.

From the Lifestyle Exposure Theory, people spend most of their time outside working and doing other leisure activities due to role expectations (i.e. cultural standards). Limited resources force people to go out of their homes where routine activities are created (structural constraints). Individuals end-up adapting to these role expectations and structural constraints. They associate themselves with potential offenders. By so doing, they are exposed to street robberies (i.e. criminal victimisation). Findings from victims confirm what the theory is asserting. Below are findings from victims.

Victims suggested that street robbery can be prevented by maintaining (installing street lights and fixing them) and developing vacant land in the area. Some victims said that the municipality has started installing street lights; they also need to maintain them. Decaying infrastructure must be used for something else because that is where robbers hide. Chiefs must follow up on those that are given stands to make sure that they build something. Some of the participants indicated that there must be neighbourhood watch, and police must do round patrols. Lastly, people must stop putting their lives at risk. They must stop engaging in risky behaviours such as going alone at night and going to night clubs since they will meet potential offenders. Ladies must stay away from hitch hiking because people end up being killed by strangers who give them lifts.

4.6. SUMMARY

This chapter presents data analysis and discusses findings of emergent themes as well as their sub-themes. Participants' responses to the in-depth interviews are presented and discussed by means of developing themes and sub-themes to explore outcomes of these interviews. A description of each theme and sub-theme improves the discourse of such themes and their sub-themes. Participants' responses to questions are furthermore supplemented by their verbatim replies. Lastly, interpretations of research

findings are also presented in this chapter. The next chapter discusses the summary, conclusions, strengths and limitations, as well as recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

GENERAL SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, STUDY STRENGTH AND LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a summary of the study and conclusions drawn regarding the exploration of street robberies at Bungeni Village. Based on the findings, recommendations are made in respect of how to prevent and reduce street robberies at Bungeni village. These recommendations address all the aspects gathered from the empirical study. The researcher conducted in-depth interviews with people who were victims of street robberies and police officials in order to obtain their views, opinions and perceptions of street robberies at the village.

5.2. GENERAL SUMMARY

Chapter one begins with the introduction of the study that was undertaken, namely an exploration of street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa. Furthermore, the background and motivation of the study was given, including the importance of doing this study. Key theoretical concepts fundamental to this study were defined to provide a common understanding of their meaning. A broad problem statement was delivered, distinctively presenting the problem to be researched. The purpose of the study was followed by the presentation of the research aim and objectives of the study. The aim of this study was to explore street robberies at Bungeni Village. Accordingly, the scope of this study concluded the chapter.

Chapter two presented an overview of literature review on street robberies in South Africa. This overview included the nature and the extent of street robberies, types of street robbers, their *modus operandi* and factors that contribute to the occurrence of street robberies. Experiences of victims of street robberies, characteristics of street robberies as well as measures that can be taken to prevent street robberies are presented. Lastly, an adopted theoretical framework and how it is applicable to the study is presented in this chapter.

Chapter three consisted of an overview of research design and research methodology used in the study. The research methodology included the adopted approach, study location, study population, sample size and proceedings. Methods of data collection are also presented in this chapter as well as the method of data analysis and methods of ensuring trustworthiness. Consequently, ethical considerations of the study are presented in this chapter.

As presented in **chapter four**, the aim of data analysis was to gain an improved understanding of the data obtained. This aim was accomplished by means of analysis of the relationship between concepts, constructs and variables, the identification and isolation of patterns and trends, as well as the establishment of emergent themes and subthemes. Data obtained from individual interviews were illustrated and described. Each evolving theme was initiated with an explanation, which was further enriched with direct verbatim accounts of participants' responses. The results of the analysis were interpreted and measured against a comprehensive body of literature, as presented and discussed in chapter two. The emergent themes and subthemes provided the basis for the structure of this chapter. These themes are: time and place where street robberies occur, items robbed from victims, experiences of victims, outcomes of street robberies and preventative measures. The discussion of each theme presented was substantiated by the inclusion of various literature sources, as described in chapter two. Furthermore, this chapter included perspectives of participants that were integrated to form a comprehensive interpretation of findings.

Chapter five presented that general summary, conclusions, study strengths, limitations and recommendations based on the aim and objectives of the study.

5.3. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

This study is important since it explores and describes factors relating to occurrence of street robberies at Bungeni, and experiences of victims of street robberies as well as measures of preventing street robberies at this village. It is the researcher's hope that this study encourages other people or organisations to conduct further research on street robberies at Bungeni as people are being robbed even though they do not report the incidents. The above statement is supported by statistics from Waterval Police Station that revealed that only 17 cases of street robberies were reported from 2013 to 2019. These included robbery involving firearms, armed robbery and common robbery.

The researcher also hopes that this study will bring a positive impact. The findings might help to develop preventative strategies and to provide information relating to victims' empowerment services since there are victims that are not aware that there are free services for victims of street robberies.

5.4. STUDY STRENGTHS

It is hoped that this study is going to be helpful at Bungeni as it shown that there is a need for interventions by civil managers, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOS), state's departments such as Department of Social Development, the criminal justice system and the civil society. If all precautionary measures suggested by participants can be implemented, street robbery can be eliminated at Bungeni. The study will empower investigators/ police officers to become more effective and efficient in doing their work when investigating crimes of street robbery.

However, the study does not guarantee that there will be help or cooperation from the mentioned organisations and people. Furthermore, the study does not guarantee that participants will benefit, but it may at least challenge these people and organisations and give them an understanding of what is happening at Bungeni and what victims are going through.

5.5. STUDY LIMITATIONS

This study has few limitations. Covid-19 is one of the limitations since it was not easy to meet participants and interview them. Police officers were also not around at police station since they were working on shift due to the pandemic. The sample size of the study was 10 participants who have experienced victimisation of street robbery and three local SAPS officials. Therefore, findings of experiences of victims cannot automatically represent experiences of all victims of street robbery at Bungeni. This means that one must be careful in generalising findings of other people who have the same experiences.

The strategy of sampling had limitations. Purposive sampling was used and this means that only people who were victims of street robbery and those who reside at Bungeni participated in the study. The study excluded potential participants who meet the criteria of the study as they were not staying at Bungeni Village.

5.6. STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS

5.6.1 Recommendations to improve study aim

5.6.1.1 To explore street robberies at Bungeni Village in Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa

- It is recommended that similar research must be undertaken with bigger samples in order to increase validity and reliability of this study, as well as to allow a wider generalisation since the researcher followed the qualitative approach to conduct research on street robberies at Bungeni Village. Not all representatives of victims of street robberies participated.

5.6.2 Recommendations to improve study objectives

5.6.2.1 To identify factors contributing to street robberies at Bungeni Village

- It is recommended that people must change routine activities that are more likely to expose them to criminal victimisation of street robberies.
- People must also change risky behaviours that may lead to criminal victimisation of street robberies.
- Civilians must avoid isolated routes, infrastructures and places that potential offenders can hide and rob them when there are no bystanders or anyone is watching.
- Lastly, civilians must avoid going out at late especially when it is not necessary since they may be in contact with potential offenders during late hours.

5.6.2.2 To assess victims' experiences of street robberies at Bungeni Village

- Victims and other people must be alerted about services that are available for victims of violent crimes such street robberies. This will encourage them to seek help when they experience victimisation.

5.6.2.3 To determine measures applied to prevent street robberies at Bungeni Village

- Street lights must be installed at Bungeni and the police should start patrols.
- Civil society and the police must work together in preventing and controlling street robbery. This must happen through the establishment of community police forums.

5.7. FUTURE RESEARCH STUDIES

Even though a small sample was used in this study, the researcher succeeded in exploring street robberies at Bungeni Village. Although this research shed some light into the nature and difficulties of street robberies at Bungeni Village, themes for further research should use larger samples and include other victims of street robberies at Bungeni village and other parts of South Africa. This can be longitudinal in nature, employing mixed-methods approaches to cover many participants and respondents on this subject.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Adebayo, A.A. (2013). Youths' Unemployment and Crime in Nigeria: A Nexus and Implications for National Development. *International Journal of Sociology and Anthropology*, vol. 5(8), pp. 350-357.
- Bak, N. (2004). *Writing a Research*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Barker, M., Geraghty, J., Webb, B. & Key, T. (1993). *Police Research Group. Crime Prevention Unit Series Paper No.44*. London: Home Office Police Department.
- Bernasco, W., Block, R. & Ruiter, S. (2012). Go Where the Money Is: Modelling Street Robbers' Location Choices. *Journal of Economic Geography*, vol.13, pp.119 – 143.
- Bernasco, W., Ruiter, S. & Block R. (2016). Do Street Robbery Location Choices Vary Over Time of Day or Day of Week? A Test in Chicago. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 54(2), pp.244–275.
- Blaickie, N. (2000). *Designing Social Research*. Cornwall: MPG Books.
- Blaickie, N. (2009). *Designing Social Research*. 2nd Edition. Cambridge. London: Polity Press.
- Block, R., Galary, A. & Brice, D. (2007). The Journey to Crime: Victims and Offenders Converge in Violent Index Offences in Chicago. *Security Journal*, vol. 20, pp.123-137.
- Braga, A.A., Hureau, D.M. & Papachristos, A.V. (2011). The Relevance of Micro Places to citywide robbery trends: A Longitudinal Analysis of Robbery Incidents at Street Corners and Block Faces in Boston. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 48 (1), pp.7-32.
- Brantingham, P. & Brantingham, P.J. (1999). A Theoretical Model of Crime Hot Spot Generation. *Studies on Crime and Crime Prevention*, Vol. 8 (1), pp. 7-26.
- Brantingham, P.J. & Brantingham, P.L. (1990). 2nd edition. *Environmental Criminology*. Waveland: Prentice Inc.

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, vol. 3(2), pp.1-41.

Breetzeke, G. (2015). A Time for Crime: The Temporal Variation of Crime in Tshwane, South Africa, *Acta Criminologica: A South African Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 28(3).

Brown, S.E., Esbensen, F.A. & Geis, G. (2015). *Criminology: Explaining Crime and its Context*. Routledge, New York: Taylor and Francis.

Bryman, A. (2004). *Social Research Methods*. 2nd Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.

Brynard, P.A. & Hanekom, S.X. (2006). *Introduction to Research in Management Related Field*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Burgers, A.W., Regehr, C. & Roberts, A.R. (2013). *Victimology: Theories and Application*. Sudbury, Mass: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Burney, E. (1990). *Putting Street Crime in its Place. A Report to the Community/Police Consultative Group for Lambeth*. London: Goldsmith's College.

Ceccato, V. (2005). Homicide in São Paulo, Brazil: Assessing Spatial-Temporal and Weather Variations. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, vol. 25, pp. 307- 321

Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. (2007). *The Violent Nature of Crime in South Africa – A Concept Paper prepared for the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster- August* . Pretoria: Government Printers.

Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. (2008). *Study of the Violent Nature of Crime in South Africa – Creating a violence free society, Presentation at press briefing of the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security cluster 25 August 2008*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Cinini, S.F. (2015). *A Victimological Exploration of the Victimisation Vulnerability of a Foreign Nationals in the City of Durban*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. University of KwaZulu-Natal: KwaZulu-Natal.

Clarke, R.V. (1983). *Situational Crime Prevention: Its Theoretical Basis and Practical Scope*. In M. Tonry & N. Morris (eds.). *Crime and Justice: An Annual Review of Research*, vol. 4. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Cohen, L. & Felson, M. (1979). Social Change and Crime Rates Trends: A Routine Activity Approach. *American Sociological Review*, vol.44, pp.588-608.

Cohen, L. E., Felson, M. & Land, K. C. (1980). Property crime rates in the United States: A macrodynamic analysis, 1947–1977. *American Journal of Sociology*, vol.86, pp.90–117.

Connealy, N.T. & Piza, E.L. (2019). Risk factors and high-risk place variations across different robbery targets in Denver: Colorado, *Journal of Criminal Justice*, vol.60, pp.47-56.

Cook, P.J. (1987). Robbery violence. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*. Vol. 78, pp.357.

Cresswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*, 3rd Edition. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Approaches*. 4th Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dastile, N.P. (2004). *Victimisation of Female Students at the University of Venda with Specific Reference to Sexual Harassment and Rape*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Davies, M. & Hughes, N. (2014). *Doing a Successful Research Project*. 2nd Edition. Palgrave: Macmillan.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. (2011). *Research at Grass-roots for the Social Sciences and Human Services Professions*. 2nd Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Deakin, J., Smithson, H., Spencer, J. & Medina-Ariza, J. (2007). *Taxing on the Streets: Understanding the Methods and Process of Street Robbery*. Manchester, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Denscombe, M. (2010). *The Good Research Gguide: For all Small-scale Social Research Projects*. London: McGraw-Hill, Open University Press.

Dietrich, H.L. (2008). *Victimology: An Emphasis on the Lifestyle –Exposure Theory and the Victim Precipitation Theory as it Applies to Violent Crime*. United States: US Department of Justice.

Dlamini, S. (2015). *A Victimological Exploration of the Programmes and Services available to Victims of Trio-Crimes in Durban Metropolitan Area*. Master's Thesis.

Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Du Plooy-Cilliers, F., Davis, C. & Bezuidenhout, R. (2014). *Research Matters*. Cape Town: Juta.

Dunn, C.S. (1974). *Patterns of Robbery Characteristics and their Occurrence Among Social Areas*. Department of Justice, Utilisation of Criminal Justice Statistics Project Analytic Report: United States.

Dutelle, A.W. & Becker, R.F. (2017). *Criminal Investigation*. 5th Edition. United States: Jones and Bartlett Publishers, Inc.

Elklit, A. (2002). Acute Stress Disorder in Victims of Robbery and Victims of Assault. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, vol. 17 (8), pp.872-887.

Etikan, I., Musa, S.A. & Alkassim, R.S. (2015). Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, vol. 5(1), pp.1-4.

Etuk, G.R. & Macpherson, U.N. (2018). Predictors and Risk Factors in Armed Robbery Victimization in Nigeria: An Integrated Theoretical Perspective. *European Scientific Journal*, Vol. 12(29).

Feeney, F. (1986). Robbers as Decision Makers. *The Reasoning Criminal: Rational Choice Perspectives on Offending*. In Borzycki, M. (2006). *Armed Robbery in Australia: 2004 Armed Robbery Monitoring Program Annual Report*. Australian Institute of Criminology.

Felson, M. (1987). Routine activities and crime prevention in the developing metropolis. *Criminology*, vol. 25(4), pp.911-931.

Flick, U.W.E. (2011). *Introducing Research Methodology: A Beginners Guide to Doing a Research Project*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Gale, J. & Coupe, T. (2005). The behavioural, emotional & Psychological Effects of Street Robbery on Victims, *International Review of Victimology*, vol.12, pp.1-22. AB Great Britain: Academic Publishers.

Garofalo, J. (1987). *Reassessing the Lifestyle Model of Criminal Victimization*. In Gottfredson, M. & Hirschi, T (Eds). *Positive Criminology*, Pp.23-42. Newbury Park, CA: Sage

Giorgi, G., Perez, F.S.F., D'Antonio, A., Mucci, N., Ferrero, C., Cupelli, V., Arcangeli, G. (2015). Psychometric Properties of the Impact of Event Scale-6 in a Sample of Victims of Bank Robbery. *Journals of Psychology Research and Behaviour Management*, vol. 8, pp. 99-104.

Glasner, P. & Leitner, M. (2016). Evaluating the Impact the Weekday has on NearRepeat Victimization: A Spatio-Temporal Analysis of Street Robberies in the City of Vienna, Austria. *International Journal of Geo-Information*.

Gottfredson, M. (1984). *Victims of Crime: The Dimensions of Risk*. Home Office Research Study No. 81. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

Gray, D.E. (2014). *Doing Research in the Real World*. 3rd Edition. London: Sage.

Greeff, M. (2005). *Information collection: Interviewing*. In De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delpont, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 3rd Ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Haberman, C.P., Sorg, E.T. & Ratcliffe. (2018). The Seasons They are Changing: Testing for Seasonal Effects of Potentially criminogenic Places on Street Robbery, *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 55(3), pp.425-459.

Hammand, M. & Wellington, J.J. (2013). *Research Methods: The Key Concepts*. London: Routledge.

Harlow, C.W. (1987). *Robbery Victims*. Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report. United States: Department of Justice.

Harper, L. (2014). *The Four Theories of Victimisation*. Available from: <https://soapboxie.com/government/The-Four-Theories-of-Victimization>. [Accessed: 2020/08/24].

Harries, K., Stadler, S. & Zdorkowski, R. (1984). Seasonality and Assault: Explorations in Inter Neighbourhood Variation, Dallas 1980. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, vol. 74, pp. 590-604.

Hart, T.C. & Miethe, T.D. (2014). Street Robbery and Public Bus Stops: A Case Study of Activity Nodes and Situational Risk. *Security Journal*, vol. 27(2), pp.180– 193.

Headley, A.M., Guerette, R.T. & Shariati, A. (2017). A Field Experiment of the Impact of Body-Worn Cameras (Bwcs) on Police Officer Behaviour and Perceptions. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, Elsevier, vol. 53(C), pp. 102-109.

Hindelang, M. J., Gottfredson, M. R. & Garofalo, J. (1978). *Victims of Personal Crime: An Empirical Foundation for a Theory of Personal Victimisation*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Hodgkinson, T. & Farrel, G. (2017). Situational Crime Prevention and Public Safety Canada's Crime-Prevention Programme. *Security Journal*, 31, 325-342.

Hough, M. & Mayhew, P. (1983). *The British Crime Survey: First Report*. London: HMSO. (1985), *Taking Account of Crime: Key Findings from the Second British Crime Survey*. London: HMSO.

Indermaur, D. (1995). Are we becoming more violent? A comparison of trends in violent and property offenses in Australia and Western Australia. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, vol.11 (3), pp.247-270.

Institute for Security Studies. (Undated). *Crime Statistics Wizard*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Joubert, C.I., Hartell, C. & Lombard, K. (2010). *Navorsing: 'n Gids vir begynnernavorser*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Kavanaugh, P.R. (2015). Pathways on the Sexual Violence Continuum: A Lifestyle Theory of Victimization in Urban Nightlife. *Journal of Crime and Justice*, vol. 38 (4), pp. 454-472.

Kokkinos, C.M. & Saripanidis, I. (2017). A Lifestyle Exposure Perspective of Victimization through Facebook among University Students. Do Individual Differences Matter? *Computers in Human Behaviour*, vol. 74.

Kruger, T., Lancaster, L., Landman, K., Liebermann, S., Louw, A. & Robertshaw, R. (2016). *Making South Africa Safe: A Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention*. Pretoria: The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research.

Kubayi, S.J. (2013). *Address Forms in Xitsonga: A Socio-Pragmatic Perspective*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Kubayi, S.J. (2013). Subject Constructions in Xitsonga. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 31(1): 39-59.

Kumar, A. (2011). *Research and Writing Skills*. New York: Lulu Press.

Kumar, R. (2011). *A Step by Step Guide for Beginners*. 3rd Edition. London: Sage

Kupar, R. (2018). *Crime Prevention Strategies*. Research Gate Papers. Available from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/323733776_Crime_Prevention_Strategies [Accessed: 2019/06/21].

Lab, S.P. (2016). *Crime Prevention: Approaches, Practices and Evaluations*. England: Routledge.

Lan, M. (2016). *Examining the Impact of Bus Stop Location Change on Robbery* Unpublished Master's dissertation. Cincinnati, Ohio: University of Cincinnati.

Lancaster, L. & Mbanyele, S. (2020). *Why Police should Focus on Street Robberies*. Available from: <https://www.dailymaverick.co.za/article/2020-01-08-why-policeshould-focus-on-street-robberies/#gsc.tab=0> [Accessed: 2020/04/16].

Lee, D & Hilinski-Rosick, C. (2011). The role of Lifestyle and Personal Characteristics on Fear of Victimization among University Students. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, vol.37, pp. 647-668.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. (2005). *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 8th Edition. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. (2013). *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 10th Edition. Boston: Merrill / Prentice Hall.

Liamputtong, P. (2009). Qualitative Data Analysis: Conceptual and Practical Considerations. *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, vol. 20(2).

Liamputtong, P. (2013). *Qualitative Research Methods*. 4th Edition. South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Lichtman, M. (2014). *Qualitative Research for Social Science*. London: Sage. Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Lindegaard, M.R., Bernasco, W. & Jacques, S. (2015). Consequences of Expected and Observed Victim Resistance for Offender Violence during Robbery Events. *Journal of Research in Crime Delinquency*, vol.52 (10), pp.32–61.

Lindegaard, M.R., de Vries, D.T. & Bernasco, W. (2018). Patterns of Force Sequences of Resistance: Revisiting Luckenbill with Robberies Caught on Camera, *Journal of Deviant Behaviour*, vol. 39, pp. 421-436.

Linning, S.J., Andresen, M.A., Ghaseminejad, A.H. & Brantingham, P.J. (2017). Crime Seasonality across Multiple Jurisdictions in British Columbia, Canada.

Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice, vol. 59 (2), pp. 251-280.

Litchman, M. (2014). *Qualitative Research for Sciences*. Virginia: Sage.

Lurigio, A. (2014). *Violent Victimization in the United States: Major Issues and Trends*. Chicago: Loyola University College of Arts and Sciences.

Lutya, T.M. (2010). *Lifestyles and Routine Activities of South African Teenagers at*

Risk of Being Trafficked for Involuntary Prostitution. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. Hartfield:University of Pretoria.

Mackey, D.A. (2012). *Introduction to Crime Prevention.* Burlington: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Magadze, T.O. (2016). *A Study of the Participatory of Vhembe District Community Corrections Forum Members in the Re-intergration of Ex-offenders into the Community.* Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy Thesis. Sovenga:University of Limpopo.

Maguire, M. & Delahunt, B. (2017). Doing a Thematic Analysis: A Practical, Step-by-Step Guide for Learning and Teaching Scholars-AISHE-J. *The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, vol. 9(3), pp.1–14.

Mahlakoana, T. (2019). *Victims of Crime Survey: Street Robberies on the Increase in South Africa.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Manaliyo, J. & Muzindutsi, P. (2013). Community Participation in Crime Prevention: Informal Social Control Practices in Site B, Khayelitsha Township. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, vol. 3, pp.121-127.

Manton, M & Talbot, A. (1989). Crises Intervention after an Armed hold up: Guidelines for Counselors. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 3 (4). 507-522.

Maree, B., van den Berg, D. & Pretorius, R. (2002). The Direct Victim's Experience of an In-transit Robbery. *Acta Criminologica*, vol. 15 (2).

Maree, K. (2011). *First steps in Research.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Marjan, M. (2017). A Comparative Analysis of two Qualitative Methods: Deciding between Grounded Theory and Phenomenology for your Research. *Vocational Training: Research and Realities*, vol.28 (1).

Matthews, B. & Ross, L. (2010). *Research Methods: A Practical Guide for the Social Sciences.* Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Matthews, L. (2014). *Robbery Guidelines Consultation.* London: The Sentencing Council.

Maxfield, M.G. & Babbie, E.R. (2011). *Research Methods for Criminal Justice and Criminology*. 6th Edition. US: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

May, T. (2011). *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Process*. 4th Edition. Maidenhead, Berks: Open University Pres / McGraw-Hill.

McGoey, C. (2018). *Robbery Facts and Statistics-Violent Crime Against Person*. Available from: <https://crimedoctor.com/robbery-facts/> [Accessed: 2020/03/14].

McNeeley, S. (2015). Lifestyle-Routine Activity and Crime events. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, vol. 31 (1), pp. 30-52.

Messner, S. F. & Blau, J. R. (1987). Routine Leisure Activities and Rates of Crime. A Macro-Level Analysis. *Social Forces*, vol. 65, pp.1035-1052.

Mills, J. & Birks, M. (2014). *Qualitative Methodology*. London: Sage.

Mohajan, H. (2018). Qualitative Research Methodology in Social Sciences and Related Subjects. *Journal of Economic Development, Environment and People*, vol. 7(1), pp. 23-48.

Monk, K.M., Heinonen, J.A. & Eck, J.E. (2010). Street Robbery. Problem-Oriented Guides for Police Problem-Specific Guides Series No. 59. United States: Department of Justice.

Morgan, A., Boxall, H., Lindeman, K. & Anderson, J. (2012). *Effective Crime Prevention Interventions for Implementation by Local Government*. Research and Public Policy Series No. 120. Canberra: Australian Institution of Criminology.

Mouton, J. (2011). *How to Succeed in your Masters and Doctoral Studies*. Hartfield: Van Schaik.

Mpata, M.F. (2011). *Personal Experiences of Violent Crimes: An African Perspective*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Neuman, W.L. (2011). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. 7th Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Newham, G. (2005). *A Decade of Crime Prevention in South Africa: From a National Strategy to a Local Challenge*. Johannesburg: Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation.

Oliver, P. (2010). *Understanding the Research Process*. London: Sage.

Peacock, R. (2013). *Victimology in South Africa*. 2nd Edition. Hartfield: Van Schaik.

Piza, L. E. & Kennedy, D. (2003). *Transit Stops, Robbery, and Routine Activities: Examining Street Robbery in the Network, NJ Subway Environment*. Available from <https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=2ahUK...> [Accessed: 2020/08/24].

Policastro, C. (2013). *Victimization of the Elderly: An Application of Lifestyles/Routine Activities Theory*. Unpublished Criminal Justice Dissertations: Georgia: Georgia State University.

Pope, K. (2015). *Young People's Experiences of Crime: An Investigation into the Victimization and Offending of Inner-City Dublin Youth*. Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy Thesis. Dublin: Dublin Institute of Technology.

Pratt, T.C. & Cullen, F.T. (2005). Assessing Macro-level Predictors and Theories of Crime: A Meta-analysis. *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research*, 32, 373–450.

Pratt, T.C. & Turanovic, J.J. (2015). Longitudinal Effects of Violent Victimization during Adolescence on Adverse Outcomes in Adulthood: A Focus on Prosocial Attachments. *The Journal of Pediatrics*, vol. 166 (4), pp. 1062-1069.

Rennison, C.M. & Meider, I. (2013). Gender and Robbery: A National Test. *Journal of Deviant Behaviour*, vol. 35(4).

Reyns, B.W. & Scherer, H. (2018). Stalking Victimization among College Students: The Role of disability within a lifestyle-Routine Activity Framework, *Crime and Delinquency Journal*, vol.64 (5), pp. 650-673.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nichollis, C. & Ormston, R. (2014). *Qualitative Research Practise: A Guide for Social Science Students & Researchers*. London: Sage.

Roelofse, C.J. (2007). *Challenges of Community Policing: A Management Perspective*. Durban: LexisNexis.

Ross, E. & Rasool, S. (2019). University Students' Experiences of Crime: You go to Campus with Fear and Come back with Fear, *South African Crime Quarterly*, vol.68, pp.7-20.

Rossetti, P., Dinisman, T & Moroz, A. (2016). *An Easy Target? Risk Factors Affecting Victimisation Rates for Violent Crime and Theft*. United Kingdom: Victim Support Insight Report.

Rossmo, D.K. (2000). *Geographic Profiling*. Boca Raton: FL CRC Press.

Rotton, J. & Cohn, E.G. (2004). Outdoor Temperature, Climate Control, and Criminal Assault: The Spatial and Temporal Ecology of Violence. *Environment and Behaviour*, Vol, 36(2), pp 276-306.

Rwizi, T. (2015). *Canonical Correlation Analysis of Aggravated Robbery and Poverty in Limpopo Province*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Sampson, R. J. & Lauritsen, J. L. (1990). Deviant lifestyles, proximity to crime, and the offender-victim link in personal violence. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 27, pp.110–139.

Sampson, R.J.& Wooldredge, J.D. (1987). Lifestyle and Routine Activity Theories of Crime. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, vol.3(4),pp. 371-393.

Sarantakos, S. (2013). *Social Research*. 4th Edition. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Schurink, W., Fouche, C.B. & De Vos, A.S. (2011). *Qualitative Data Analysis and Interpretations*. In De Vos, AS., Strydom, H., Fouche, CB & Delport, L (Eds), *Research at Grass Roots to the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*.

Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook*. London: SAGE publications.

Singleton, R.A. & Straits, B.C. (1999). *Approaches to Social Research*. 3rd Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.

Singleton, R.A. & Straits, B.C. (2010). *Approaches to Social Research*. New York: Oxford University.

Smit T., Landman K. & Venter C. (2015). *The Impact of Crime and Neighbourhood Enclosures on Travel Behaviour and Transport Patterns in South Africa*. In: Ceccato, V & Newton, A (Eds). *Safety and Security in Transit Environments*. Crime Prevention and Security Management. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Snyders, E. & Landman, K. (2017). Perceptions of Crime Hot-Spots and Real Locations of Crime Incidents in Two South African Neighbourhoods. *Security Journal*, vol. 31, pp.265–284.

South Africa Police Service. (2010). *Annual Crime Report 2009/2010*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa Police Service. (2019). *Annual Crime Report 2018/2019: Addendum to the SAPS Annual Report*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South African Police Service. (2017). *Annual Crime Report: Addendum to the SAPS Annual Report 2016/2017*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South African Police Service. (2018). *Annual Crime Report: Addendum to the SAPS Annual Report 2017/2018*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South African Police Service. (2019). *Crime Statistics: Crime Situation in Republic of South Africa Twelve (12) Months*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South African Police Services Crime Statistics. (2017). *Annual Crime Report 2016/2017 South African Police Service Addendum to the SAPS Annual Report*.

Pretoria: Government Printers.

South African Police Services Crime Statistics. (2018). *Annual Crime Report 2017/2018 South Africa Police Service Addendum to the SAPS Annual Report*.

Pretoria: Government Printers.

Statistics South Africa. (2016/17). *Community Survey*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Statistics South Africa. (2019). *Victims of Crime Survey*. Pretoria: Government Printers..

Stremple, P. (2018). *Wednesday Crime Blotter: A Tag-Team Robbery at an L Train Station and Second Look for Suspects*. Available from: <http://bklyner.com/wednesday-crime-blotter-aug-29-18/> [Accessed: 2020/03/07].

Thobane, M.S. (2014). *The Criminal Career of Armed Robbers with Specific Reference to Cash-in-transit Robberies*. Unpublished Master of Arts Dissertation. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Thobane, M.S. (2017). *A Criminological Exploration of Associated Robbers in Gauteng, South Africa*. Unpublished Doctor of Literature and Philosophy Thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Thomas, D.R. & Hodges, I.D. (2010). *Designing and Managing your Research Project: Core Skills for Social Health*. London: Sage.

Thomas, G. (2013). *How to do your Research Project: A Guide for Students in Education and Applied Sciences*. London: Sage.

Tilley, M. (2015). *The Role of Lifestyles and Routine Activities on Youth Sexual Assault and Intimate Partner Victimization*. Georgia: Kennesaw State University.

Tompson, L. & Bowers, K. (2012). A Stab in the dark? A Research Note on Temporal Patterns of Street Robbery. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 50(4), pp. 616-631.

Tompson, L. (2015). Testing Time-Sensitive Influences of Weather on Street Robbery. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, vol. 39, pp. 463-470.

Turanovic, J.J., Pratt, T.C. & Piquero, A.R. (2016). Structural Constraints, Risky Lifestyle and Repeat Victimization, *Journal of Quant Criminology*, vol. 34, pp.251-274.

Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee. (2020). *Postgraduate Manual*. Sovenga:

University of Limpopo.

Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H. & Bondas, T. (2013). Content Analysis and Thematic Analysis: Implications for Conducting a Qualitative Descriptive Study. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 15(3): 398–405.

Van der Merwe, N. (2008). Empirical Phenomenological Research on Armed Robbery at Residential Premises: four Victims' Experiences. *Acta Criminologica: Journal of Criminology & Victimology*, Special Edition (2), pp.139-161.

Van Der Spuy, E. & Shearing, C. (2014). *Curbing the Killing Fields: Making South Africa Safer*. Cape Town: Strengthening Governance in South Africa.

Vaphi, Y.Y. (2016). *An Exploratory Study on Lifestyle and Its Contribution to Personal Victimization among Students at University of Fort Hare in Alice Campus*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Eastern Cape: University of Fort Hare.

Vhembe District Municipality. (2019). *2019/20 IDP Review*. Thohoyandou: Vhembe District Municipality:.

Viljoen, B. (2019). *Suspected Bank Card Thief in ICU After Angry Residents Cut off His Penis*. Available from: <https://m.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/suspected-bankcard-thief-in-icu-after-angry-residents-cut-off-his-penis-20190904> [Accessed:

2020/02/04].

Vithal, R. & Jansen, J. (2010). *Designing your First Research Proposal*. Cape Town: Juta & co.

Wagner, C. Kawulich, B. & Garner, M. (2012). *Qualitative Data Analysis in Doing Social Research: A Global Context*. United States: McGraw-Hill.

Walklate, S. (1992). *Appreciating The Victim: Conventional Realist or Critical Victimology?* In Matthews, R. & Young, JJ (Eds). *Issues in Realist Criminology*. London: Sage.

Walsh, A. (2008). *Introduction to Criminology*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Wasserman, E. & Ellis, C.A. (2010). *Impact of Crime on Victims*. Available from: <https://ce4less.com/Tests/Materials/E075Materials.pdf> [Accessed: 2020/04/16].

Welman, J.C. & Kruger, S.J. (2002). *Research Methodology for the Business and Administrative Sciences*. 2nd Edition. Johannesburg: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Wellman, J.C., Kruger, S.J & Mitchell, B. (2008). *Research Methodology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Welman, C. & Kruger, F. & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research methodology*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa (Pty) Ltd.

Willis, K. (2006). *Armed Robbery: Who Commits It and Why? Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice*, Issue no. 328. Australia: Australian Institute of Criminology.

Wright, R.T. & Decker, S.H. (1997). *Armed Robbers in Action: Stickups and Street Culture*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.

Wright, R.T. & Decker, S.H. (2002). *Robbers on Robbery: Prevention and the Offender*. United States: National Criminal Justice Reference Service.

Yapp, J.R. (2010). *The Profiling of Robbery Offenders*. Unpublished forensic psychology Thesis. Birmingham: The University of Birmingham.

Zimring, F.E. & Zuehl, J. (1986). Victim Injury and Death in Urban robbery: A Chicago study. *J Leg Stud*, vol. 15(1), pp.1-40.

Zinn, R. (2010). *Extracts from a Residential Robbery Research*. Available from: www.crimestatssa.com/SA%20Residential%20robbery%20research.pdf [Accessed: 2020/08/24].

Zondeka, F.M. & Barkhuizen, J. (2017). Psychological and Social Consequences of Aggravated Robberies on Victims: Evidence from Selected Precincts in the Eastern Cape, *Acta Criminologica: South African Journal of Criminology*, vol. 30 (5), pp. 5-37

Zoutenberg, S. (2013). *Access to Justice for Victims of Aggravated Robbery in the Tongaat Area*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. Glenwoon: University of KwaZuluNatal.

APPENDIX A: STUDY INFORMATION SHEET

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. This Information Sheet explains what the study is about and how we would like you to take part in it.

The main purpose of this study is to explore temporal and spatial characteristics of street robberies. The interview will take 30-45 minutes of your time. The information that you provide in the interview will be used for research purposes only. It will not be used in a manner that would identify you with your individual responses. In order to protect you as a participant in this research, the proposed study has been submitted to the Institutional Ethics Committee at the University of Limpopo for approval.

Once again, I would like to thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. If you have any questions about the research at any stage, please do not hesitate to contact me.

[076 425 1262, hlamalanimildred@gmail.com].

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I, the undersigned, have read and understood the Study Information Sheet provided. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the study. I understand that taking part in the Study will include being interviewed and audio recorded. I have been given adequate time to consider my decision and I agree to take part in the study. I understand that my personal details such as name and employer address will not be revealed to people outside the project.

I understand that I may be quoted verbatim in publications, reports, web pages and other research outputs but my name will not be used. I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any material related to this project to (Hlamalani Mildred Hlungwani). I understand that I can withdraw my participation in the study at any time and I will not be asked any questions about why I no longer want to participate.

Name of Participant: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE

1. Demographic information

Age.....Gender.....

Date.....

2. Factors associated with street robberies in Bungeni village

2.1. Temporal explanation of the robbery

2.1.1 When did the robbery occur?

You may include the time of the day (was it in the morning, afternoon, evening, or at night); day of the week (was it during the weekend or mid-week); and month of the year (or was it summer or winter)?

2.2. Spatial explanation of the robbery

2.2.1 Where did the robbery take place? (Please describe the area for me).

2.2.2 How often do you find yourself in the place where you were robbed?

3. Victims' experiences of street robberies

3.1. How many times have you been a victim of street robberies?

3.2. How many offenders were involved in the robbery?

3.3. How did they commit the robbery? That is, did they threaten you? If so, was the threat verbal or physical, or did they threaten you with a weapon? Can you describe the weapon?

3.4. How has the incident affected you?

3.5. Were there other people (bystanders) around when you were robbed, and what was their reaction?

3.6. What were you robbed of?

4. Measures applied in reducing street robberies at Bungeni village

4.1. How would you describe the safety level of the place where you were robbed?


4.2. As a victim of street robbery, what safety measures do you think should be implemented in this place to prevent incidents like the one you experienced?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS INTERVIEW

APPENDIX D: BUNGENI TRIBAL AUTHORITY LETTER OF APPROVAL

BUNGENI TRADITIONAL COUNCIL

☒ 01
SIFAHLA
0957




☎ 073 232 7008

Ref: TA 8/1
Enq: Mabunda H.S (mrs)

To Whom It May Concern:

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON STREET ROBBERIES: HLAMALANI MILDRED HLUNGWANI I.D NO: 891018 0859 08 6.



1. The above matter refers.
2. May this receipt serve to inform you that the above-mentioned figure is a resident of Bungeni Traditional Council under the Chieftainship of Chief G Bungeni.
3. Our subject is hereby requesting for permission to conduct data collection research covering street robberies here at Bungeni Village, this is towards her attaining her Maters in Criminology.
5. We do not hesitate at all to recommend she get the support from who-ever
6. We are willing to furnish any other information about her if required.
7. Thank you;


..... Admin Officer

BUNGENI TRADITIONAL Council

DEPARTMENT OF CO-OPERATIVE GOVERNANCE
HUMAN SETTLEMENT & TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS
BUNGENI TRADITIONAL COUNCIL
2020 -06- 03
P. O. BOX 01
SIFAHLA, 0957
VHEMBE DISTRICT SUPPORT CENTRE

APPENDIX E: SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE APPROVAL LETTER

			
<i>South African Police Service</i>	<i>Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie</i>		
Privaatsak Private Bag X94	Pretoria 0001	Faks No. Fax No.	(012) 334 3518
Your reference/U verwysing: My reference/My verwysing: 3/34/2		THE HEAD: RESEARCH SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE PRETORIA 0001	
Enquiries/Mavrae: Tel: Email:	Lt Col Joubert AC Thenga (012) 393 3118 JoubertG@saps.gov.za		
Ms HM Hlungwani UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO		APPROVED	
PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AN EXPLORATION OF STREET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA: UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HM HLUNGWANI			
The above subject matter refers.			
You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2006.			
Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following office:			
The Provincial Commissioner: Limpopo:			
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Contact Person: Lt Col Montjane▪ Contact Details: (015) 290 6300/6090			
Kindly adhere to paragraph 6 of our attached letter signed on the 2020-03-11 with the same above reference number.			
		MAJOR GENERAL	
THE HEAD: RESEARCH DR PR VUMA			
DATE: 2020-03-20			

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS  SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak/Private Bag X 94

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

THE HEAD: RESEARCH
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
PRETORIA
0001


The Provincial Commissioner
LIMPOPO

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AN EXPLORATION OF STREET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA: UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HM HLUNGWANI

1. The above subject matter refers.
2. The researcher, Ms HM Hlungwani, is conducting a study titled: An exploration of street robberies at Bungeni Village under Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa, with the aim *to research street robberies at Bungeni Village in the Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province.*
3. The researcher is requesting permission to interview three (3) police members at Watervaal police station. The respondents will consist of one (1) warrant officer, one (1) sergeant and one (1) constable.
4. The proposal was perused according to National Instruction 1 of 2006. This office recommends that permission be granted for the research study, subject to the final approval and further arrangements by the office of the Provincial Commissioner: Limpopo.
5. We hereby request the final approval by your office if you concur with our recommendation. Your office is also at liberty to set terms and conditions to the researcher to ensure that compliance standards are adhered to during the research process and that research has impact to the organisation.
6. If approval is granted by your office, this office will obtain a signed undertaking from researcher prior to the commencement of the research which will include your terms and conditions if there are any and the following:
 - 6.1. The research will be conducted at his/her exclusive cost.

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AN EXPLORATION OF STREET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA: UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: HM HLUNGWANI

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


MAJOR GENERAL
THE HEAD: RESEARCH
DR PR VUMA

DATE: 2020 -03- 11

APPENDIX F: UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO RESEARCH ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER



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

TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

MEETING: 05 November 2019

PROJECT NUMBER: TREC/466/2019: PG

PROJECT:

Title: An exploration of street robberies at Bungeni village under Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

Researcher: HM Hlungwani
Supervisor: Dr DL Kgosimore
Co-Supervisor/s: N/A
School: Social Science
Degree: Master of Arts in Criminology


PROF P MASOKO
CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

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

Note:

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

Finding solutions for Africa

APPENDIX G: EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE



University of Limpopo
Department of Linguistics, Translation and Interpreting
School of Languages and Communication Studies
Private Bag x1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
Tel: (015) 268 3707, Fax: (015) 268 2868, email:kubayij@yahoo.com

08 September 2020

Dear Sir/Madam

SUBJECT: EDITING OF DISSERTATION

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled 'An exploration of street robberies at Bungeni village under Makhado Municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa' by Hlamalani Mildred Hlungwani has been copy-edited, and that unless further tampered with, I am content with the quality of the dissertation in terms of its adherence to editorial principles of consistency, cohesion, clarity of thought and precision.

Kind regards



Prof. S.J. Kubayi (DLitt et Phil - Unisa)
Associate Professor
SATI Membership No. 1002606

Finding solutions for Africa

APPENDIX H: TURNITIN REPORT

turnitin

Digital Receipt

This receipt acknowledges that **Turnitin** received your paper. Below you will find the receipt information regarding your submission.

The first page of your submissions is displayed below.

Submission author: **Hlamalani Mildred Hlungwani**
Assignment title: **DEPARTMENT OF CRIMINOLOGY...**
Submission title: **AN EXPLORATION OF STREET R...**
File name: **FINAL DISSERTATION_HM_HLUN...**
File size: **3.66M**

Submitted on 11/21/2020 14:04:43

HLAMALANI TURNITIN.pdf - Adobe Acrobat Reader DC

File Edit View Sign Window Help

Home Tools HLAMALANI TURN... x

108 / 124 100%

AN EXPLORATION OF STREET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA

ORIGINALITY REPORT

15%	12%	4%	10%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	Submitted to University of the Free State	1%
	Student Paper	
2	www.myauz.com	1%
	Internet Source	

Search 'OCR'

- Export PDF
- Edit PDF
- Create PDF
- Comment
- Combine Files
- Organize Pages
- Compress PDF

Create, edit and sign PDF forms & agreements

Start Free Trial

13:38 2020/11/04

C:\Users\witness.makuleke\Documents\DISSERTATION SUBMISSION\COMPLETED FORMS\Turnitin_Originality_Report_1435828498.html

Turnitin

Turnitin Originality Report

Processed on: 04-Nov-2020 13:15 SAST
 ID: 1435828498
 Word Count: 29555
 Submitted: 1

Similarity Index	Similarity by Source
15%	Internet Sources: 12%
	Publications: 4%
	Student Papers: 10%

AN EXPLORATION OF STREET ROBBERIES AT BUNGENI VILLAGE UNDER MAKHADO MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA By Hlamalani Mildred

1% match (Internet from 09-Aug-2015)	http://www.myauz.com/lu/Social%20Research%20Methods.pdf
1% match (student papers from 28-Sep-2020)	Submitted to University of Pretoria on 2020-09-28
1% match (Internet from 14-May-2019)	http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Libraries/Research_Document/General_Guidelines_for_the_Ethics_Review_Processes.sflb.ashx
1% match (Internet from 24-Sep-2019)	https://archive.org/stream/RanjitKumarResearchMethodologyAStepByStepG/Ranjit_Kumar-Research_Methodology_A_Step-by-Step_G_djvu.txt
< 1% match (Internet from 30-May-2009)	http://www.palgrave-journals.com/sj/journal/v20/n2/full/8350030a.html
< 1% match (student papers from 25-Sep-2019)	Submitted to University of the Free State on 2019-09-25
< 1% match ()	https://journals.assaf.org.za/index.php/sacq/article/view/4895
< 1% match (student papers from 19-Nov-2019)	

13:40 2020/11/04