Promoting public participation in community policing forums: The case of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality

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Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Master of Arts in Public Management and Governance at the North-West University

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Graduation ceremony: May 2019
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This study investigates public participation in community policing forums within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality and sets out to introduce recommendations towards developing a public participation strategy. The foundations of this study are set in the earlier chapters which provide a theoretical exposition and conceptual knowledge of public participation highlighting various definitions captured in a literature review. Challenges, approaches, mechanisms and models of public participation are also analysed to uncover best practice. Furthermore, statutory prescripts and regulatory guidelines governing public participation are explored to uncover the legal obligations that the South African Police Service (SAPS) in general and Community Policing Forums (CPF) in particular have toward ensuring effective public participation in crime prevention strategies.

The study further explores community policing as a new international policing approach and uncovered international and national best practices that could lead to creative solutions to address public participation challenges in general and to enhance participation strategies in particular.

Finally, this study pinpoints and analyses key challenges faced by the SAPS and CPFs in Stellenbosch through the use of an empirical survey to examine the knowledge, understanding and perceptions of the SAPS, the CPFs chairpersons and CPF members within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality regarding challenges associated with promoting public participation. This empirical investigation outlines the community policing and public participation functions and systems in Stellenbosch and determine whether there is adequate understanding of the CPFs’ roles and functions in accordance with statutory prescripts. Moreover, the study has highlighted current challenges experienced by participants regarding the scope and quality of public participation in CPFs. The study concludes by introducing recommendations towards promoting public participation in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality that aims to combat the various challenges brought to light in the empirical investigation.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My academic journey and all my success in my pursuit of understanding the public sector and how it interacts in its relationship with society would have never been possible if it weren’t for the following magnificent souls whom I have the pleasure of calling my friends, family and supervisor.

My late grandparents: I would like to thank my late grandparents Patrick and Lilly Geoghegan who understood the importance of education and inspired me to pursue my academic journey in Public Management and Governance. It was in the year 2008 when my grandparents’ home in the town of my birth Welkom in the Free State got invaded by five perpetrators. I soon realised that SAPS failure to bring the perpetrators to justice left my family living in fear. I remember feeling that a huge injustice was done upon my family, where a crime that was temporary forever changed the way my family felt about our safety in South Africa. Therefore, I had a desire to understand the public sector and its mechanisms as well as shortfalls, I believe through studying the public sector throughout my academic journey will someday help me in bringing about positive changes that will ensure my family and all South Africans feel safe. It is this tragic event and my grandparent’s continuous motivation that encouraged me to seek solutions and embark on my studies.

My loved ones: I would like to thank my family Patrick, Fernanda and Tiffany Geoghegan for their continuous support, motivation and encouragement to excel in my studies. My academic success would not be possible without my family. Furthermore, I would like to thank my girlfriend Nancy Tolken for her understanding in the mammoth task I have taken upon myself in completing my masters and the time-consuming nature of the degree, thank you for your motivation and involvement in ensuring that I remain positive and focused.

My supervisor: My Master’s degree supervisor Professor Gerrit van der Waldt, you are a phenomenal academic whose insight, motivation and support I value. Thank you for all the time you have spent in leading me throughout my study.

My God: Most importantly my God almighty, nothing is impossible with you in my life. I am forever grateful for the enormous amount of blessings, peace, love and happiness I experience in every corner of my life.
ABSTRACT

Public participation and community policing are central constructs in this study. The study revealed that community policing as a new approach and style of policing should become embedded in all operational activities and in the organisational culture of the South African Police Service (SAPS) as the primary law enforcement body. This is essential to adhere to the Constitutional mandate and statutory obligations of SAPS. Community policing can be conceptualised as a police-community partnership where local communities become key stakeholders in preventing crime. The study revealed that community involvement in policing through utilising various public participation mechanisms and opportunities is critical to an effective police-community partnership in crime prevention endeavours.

Sections 214 to 223 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, indicate that the SAPS must serve as a partner in crime along with communities regarding the safety and security of civil society. SAPS is further obligated to ensure effective and efficient public consultation regarding crime-related issues as well as ensure the public is afforded an opportunity to be part of police decision-making through the use of public participation mechanisms. Therefore, this study embarked on an empirical investigation into public participation in Community Policing Forums (CPF) within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality as case study. Two police stations in Stellenbosch, namely Stellenbosch Police Station and Cloetesville Police Station, were sampled since these Stations have established CPFs in compliance with Section 64 of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995. A number of challenges experienced by the respective CPFs in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville were identified. This included a lack of adequate public participation in matters regarding public safety as well as the absence of a public participation strategy to foster public participation in crime prevention efforts.

Based on the challenges identified in the empirical investigation of this study a number of recommendations aimed at the development of a comprehensive public participation strategy were introduced in the final chapter. The recommendations will make a significant contribution to encourage public participation in CPFs. This include the realisation of broader achievements such as active citizenry, a new community policing philosophy, transparency and information sharing on a continuous basis that will better equip police crime intelligence in preventing crime, as well as the praxis of community policing.

Keywords:

Public participation, community policing, Stellenbosch Local Municipality, local government, public participation strategy, democracy.
DECLARATION

I, Trevor Geoghegan, hereby declare that this dissertation “Promoting public participation in community policing forums: The case of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality” submitted to North West University for the degree Magister Artium in Public Management and Governance has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at this or any other University; that it is my own work and that all sources consulted therein have been duly acknowledged in the bibliography and the list of references.

Signature:  T.M GEOGHEGAN

Date:  27 September 2018
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORIENTATION

The introduction of the new democratic dispensation founded in 1994 required that the South African Police Service (SAPS) would need to make a paradigm shift in its policing demonstrations, methods and techniques. Thus, the SAPS requires an adjustment in the very nature in which policing of society is undertaken (SAPS, 2013:21). It is important to note that before the advent of democracy, the SAPS was characterised as a police service that often used extreme force on its own citizens and the abuse of human rights commonly took place (SAPS, 2013:21). In reconstructing itself and thus recreating itself, the SAPS embraced an advanced new approach which was designed for cultivating positive community-policing relationships between the SAPS and the community at large (SAPS, 2013:22). This advanced approach is referred to as “community policing” by law enforcement agencies (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:2). It is an approach that includes the local community as a partner in identifying crime and anticipating any wrongdoings in accordance with the law (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:23).

According to Friedmann (1992:3), community policing is not easily amenable to a specific definition. Definitions and interpretations of community policing highlight different approaches, dimensions and principles and do not yield themselves easily to a single description. In its broadest form, community policing is generally regarded as a philosophy and approach requiring significant and fundamental organisational change to engage local communities in policing affairs. Murphy and Muir (1985:22) in this regard view community policing as a recognition of the significance of community involvement in influencing the philosophy, management and delivery of police services. Therefore, Bayley (1989:13) opines that community policing represents a paradigmatic shift and an entirely new policing philosophy of policing. Goldstein (1987:65) and Clairmont (1991:469) further suggest that, rather than a specific programme, community policing is a philosophy that incorporates an expanded role of the police in society, coupled with internal organisational change and a greater linkage between the police and the community. Trojanowicz and Bucqueraux (1994:2) view community policing also as a philosophy and an organisational strategy that promote a new partnership between people and the police. Reyneke (1996:12) further adds that community policing as a philosophy guides the management style and operational strategies of SAPS, which emphasises the establishment of community-police partnerships and problem-solving approaches responsive to the needs of the community.
All definitions mentioned above share two important elements, namely partnership and participation. These two elements are of utmost importance, because for a partnership to be formed there is indeed a need to participate. These definitions further imply that community policing is primarily aimed at promoting partnerships, co-operation and involvement through public participation where the local community can identify, prioritise and participate in solving issues related to crime and the prevention thereof.

From the above-mentioned points of view the study argues that community policing involves not only increased police involvement with the public but a complete overhaul of police management and structures to make possible this change in the policing philosophy. In discussing this issue, Cordner (1995:24) cited three major dimensions of community policing, namely philosophical, strategic and programmatic. The philosophical dimension focus on broader meta-underpinnings of policing and entails the interpretation of citizen input in policing as well as the adjustment of policing activities to local conditions and needs. The strategic dimension translates the philosophy into action and include organisational structural adjustments. The programmatic dimension translates philosophies and strategies into tactical programmes, operational and managerial systems and processes, as well as organisational procedures and methods. These three dimensions will receive particular attention in this study since all three will influence the design of appropriate public participation strategies for community policing.

The interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 200 of 1993 (section 214) suggested that community policing ought to be viewed as a "SAPS methodology" to guarantee that the security prerequisites of the Republic are accomplished. In adherence to this Constitutional obligation, the SAPS has a statutory mandate to operationalise an alliance between communities and the SAPS through the creation of community policing forums (CPFs) (South Africa, 1993). Furthermore, CPFs legal principles are formalised in:

- the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (hereinafter referred to as Constitution, 1996), Section 206(3) which states that each province is entitled to (c) promote good relations between the Police and the Community;
- the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, Section 10 (1) which states that a provincial commissioner shall, subject to the direction of the member of the executive council, be responsible for establishing community policing fora at the stations in the province;
- the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, Section 18 (1) which describes that the SAPS shall, in order to achieve the objects contemplated in Section 215 of the Constitution, 1996, also be known as the powers and functions of the SAPS shall be (a) the prevention of crime (b) the investigation of any offence or alleged offence; (c) the maintenance of law and order; and
(d) the preservation of the internal security of the Republic. To achieve the objects set out in Section 215 of the Constitution, 1996, liaise with the community through community police forums at the stations in the province; and

- the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, Section 64C which details that the executive head of the municipal police shall – (2)(f) either personally or through a member or members of the municipal police service designated by him or her for that purpose, represent the municipal police service on every community police forum or sub-forum established in terms of Section 19 within the area of jurisdiction of the municipality.

In terms of section 214-223 of the Constitution, 1996, SAPS serves as a key role-player in the maintenance of safety and security in South Africa. In adhering to the Constitution, 1996, the SAPS requires adequate public input that will be beneficial to the local community as well as the SAPS intelligence through consultation and participation mechanisms that take place within the local community, to operationalise its constitutional mandate (Boyte and Kari, 1996:29).

Moreover, with reference to Section 7, Chapter 19(1)(2) of the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, arrangements have been made for the creation of community policing fora within local police stations across the Republic. The South African Police Service Act further purports the objects of the CPFs as (South Africa, 1995: Section 18 (1) (and c):

- creating and preserving an alliance between the community and SAPS; and
- advancing co-operation between the SAPS and the community in satisfying the requirements of the community with respect to policing.

Furthermore, the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997, describes the *Batho Pele* principles which are principles guiding the manner in which public servants should serve their communities. The *Batho Pele* principles are aligned to Section 195 of the Constitution, 1996 where public servants are required to be polite, open and transparent and to deliver good quality services to the public (Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997:15). In accordance with the principles of *Batho Pele*, the purpose of a CPF in connection to public participation incorporates (Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997:15):

- cooperation: CPFs ought to encourage a co-agent or partnership process with the local community;
- critical thinking: CPFs and the SAPS have the obligation of identifying and examining the reasons for wrongdoing and struggle within the local community, and through creating inventive procedures, CPFs and the SAPS should address issues experienced by the local community; and
• strengthening the local community: The purpose of CPFs ought to be to make
the local community have a sense of control over the community’s safety and
security as well as create a culture of duty in identifying wrongdoing.

South Africa embraced the philosophy that citizens have the right to influence what
affects them as mentioned earlier in the Batho Pele principles. Thus, involving the
public and seriously considering the local populations input and needs is more often
than not the right thing to do. Public participation provides a method for incorporating
the public’s ideas, values and interests into decisions, resulting in more responsive
and democratic governance (Boyte and Kari, 1996:28). As such it is important that all
citizens have equal access to CPFs in order to find lasting solutions to problems
faced by the local community.

According to the statutory obligations of the CPFs mentioned above, community
policing can be regarded as an approach where partnerships, problem-solving and
empowering the local community should become a reality, while it is important to
acknowledge the common obligation of the SAPS and the general public to furnish
the local community with a sheltered and secure environment. The study argues that
this approach requires active participation by the community.

Priscoli (2004:206) as well as Boyte and Kari (1996:28) view public participation as
"a way to modify and help make democracy work for every one of its nationals, in
addition public participation helps to re-evaluate societies at large". Priscoli
(2004:206) suggests that with the goal for democracy to win the day, the general
population needs to take an interest in the business of government, such as through
the CPF. Furthermore, Hassink (2011:546) highlights the requirement for dynamic
contribution of the key role players in CPFs within each municipal area to make
CPFs effective in local communities. Hassink (2011:548) is of the view that public
participation is principally about educating, connecting and formally counselling the
local community about issues of concern. Mishra (2011:8) proposes that so as to
guarantee sufficient public participation, equality is of extreme significance where
individuals from various backgrounds can gather and connect with one another, with
equal access to CPFs being practiced and, thus, every community member having a
say in the identification and addressing of local concerns and problems.

Public participation is based on the belief that those who are affected by a decision
have a right to be involved in the decision-making process. Public participation is
also known as the process by which government consults with interested or affected
individuals, communities and organisations, before making a decision. Public
participation is collaborative problem-solving with the goal of achieving better and
more acceptable decisions (International Association for Public Participation, 2007).

This particular study has initiated an in-depth study on the current procedures and
activities of CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality where
recommendations and conclusions have been drawn in order to promote the importance of public participation in CPFs which may lead to effective crime prevention. The study has utilised a single case study research design and focussed on one case, namely the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. The Stellenbosch Local Municipality area of jurisdiction is situated in the Stellenbosch and Cloetesville areas (South Africa, 2010).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The South African Government’s vision on community policing, as captured in the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP 2030) – South Africa 2012, and crime prevention strategies place an obligation on SAPS to focus on, inter alia, working in partnership with the community. The National Development Plan thus stipulates that Government’s crime prevention strategies should encourage SAPS to work in association with the local community in crime prevention endeavours. A major challenge experienced by the SAPS since the establishment of CPFs has been that public participation is characterised by an absence of dedication with respect to the local community in taking interest regarding the daily functions of the CPFs. As a result, the local community’s participation in CPFs has declined (Mishra, 2011:14). Bekink (2006:280-287) confirms that the lack of participation on behalf of the local community is a trend that needs a strategy in order to improve. Bekink (2006:285) further confirms that CPFs need to develop capacity, systems and strategies to encourage and cultivate community support.

Two police stations in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality, namely Stellenbosch Police Station and Cloetesville Police Station have established CPFs in compliance with Section 64 of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995. However, the challenges experienced by the respective CPFs in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville are as follows (see Bekink, 2006:286, Morebodi and Van der Waldt, 2016:75):

- all CPFs have a challenge regarding adequate public participation; and
- all CPFs have no public participation strategy in place to ensure adequate public participation by the local community.

Based on the challenges mentioned above, chapter five of this study has produced recommendations aimed at the development of a comprehensive public participation strategy for the two police stations in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality that will help encourage the local community to actively take part in the activities of CPFs. Peak and Glensor (1996:7) recommend that a well-organised strategy for public participation within a local community will help the SAPS to ensure that community-based policing philosophy becomes a reality in adherence with the Constitution, 1996. A comprehensive public participation strategy needs to recognise that new policing praxis demand active participation by communities (Department of Police, 2013:20).
The main problem the study has as focus is the absence of a comprehensive SAPS public participation strategy resulting in poor community participation in CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. This study has proposed several recommendations for the development of such a comprehensive public participation strategy for CPFs in chapter five.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research questions for this particular study that have been conceptualised in the orientation and problem statement and are as follows:

- What do community policing and public participation entail and what are their principles, approaches and theories?
- What existing legislation governs the SAPS to ensure adequate public participation takes place with specific reference to the CPFs?
- Which international best practices exist in promoting public participation in CPFs?
- What challenges are the SAPS and the CPFs currently facing in ensuring adequate public participation in Stellenbosch Local Municipality?
- What recommendations can be made towards the development of a comprehensive public participation strategy to ensure adequate public participation by the SAPS and local communities in CPFs?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study are to:

- provide a theoretical framework for community policing and public participation describing their principles, approaches and theories;
- analyse existing legislation governing the SAPS in ensuring adequate public participation in CPFs;
- analyse international best practice in using public participation strategies to enhance public participation in CPFs;
- identify and explain the challenges faced by the SAPS and the CPFs in promoting public participation; and
- propose recommendations towards developing a comprehensive public participation strategy for CPFs.
1.5 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS

Community policing is not a programme or a set of activities but rather a law enforcement philosophy, a way of thinking about improving public safety (Diamond and Weiss, 2009:145). According to Weisburd (2010:134), community policing can generally be grouped into two categories namely, community partnership, and problem-solving. Community partnerships are absolutely critical in order for community policing efforts to be effective (Diamond and Weiss, 2009:146). Community involvement permeates almost every aspect of community policing as a style of policing (Diamond and Weiss, 2009:145).

It is of utmost important that the SAPS and community partners jointly prioritise and tackle public safety issues that are most important to the community. Successful partnerships are more than just frequent contact or simply sharing information (Weisburd, 2010:135). Partnerships between the community and the SAPS involve on-going efforts to work together in meaningful ways to address problems facing the community (Weisburd, 2010:135). Furthermore, a problem-solving approach puts a focus on efforts to prevent crime before it happens by systematically identifying and addressing specific social issues associated with criminal activity (Weisburd, 2010:136). Problem-oriented policing tends to encourage creative problem solving among community members and the SAPS to identify the root causes of a problem and then figure out how best to address problems faced by the community (Weisburd, 2010:136).

Public participation can be regarded as a process by which public concerns, values, and needs are incorporated into governmental decision-making (Bleiker and Bleiker, 1994:154). Public participation can be viewed as two-way communication and interaction, with the overall goal of better decisions that are supported by the community (Bleiker and Bleiker, 1994:154). It applies to “administrative decisions that are those typically made by government agencies” (Creighton, 1992:15).

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology can be described as the manner in which the researcher gathers, analyses and presents evidence throughout the research process (Auricacombe and Mouton, 2007:447). This study has utilised a qualitative research design approach with a case study design, integrating literature and empirically gathered data in order to address the research objectives.

1.6.1 Research approach and design

A qualitative research approach has been used to examine the knowledge, understanding and perceptions of the SAPS, the CPFs chairpersons and CPF
members within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality regarding challenges associated with promoting public participation through CPFs. As concurred to by Fenley (2005:2) and Webb and Auriacombe (2006:59), qualitative research is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations about phenomena.

The advantages of qualitative research are that the approach is good at simplifying and managing data without destroying the complexity and the context of the data (Fenley, 2005:2). Due to the nature of qualitative research that seeks to understand the perceptions of the participants taking part in the study, it is important that the researcher understands the context of the study and the participants in order to achieve the objectives of the study (Fenley, 2005:2). Furthermore, Kothari (2008:13) states that qualitative methods are highly appropriate for questions asked to participants where in-depth information and data capturing on the research topic are core mandates. If the purpose of the study is to learn from participants in a setting or to process the way participants experience public participation, as well as attach the meanings participants have about public participation, and how participants interpret what they experience, then the researcher conducting the qualitative research study needs methods that will allow for discovery and analysis of data captured (Neuman, 2006:112). Qualitative methods have the goal of generating new ways of seeing existing data that can lead to recommendations and conclusions to be drawn (Latimer, 2003:33). If the purpose is to construct a theory or a theoretical framework that reflects reality rather than the researchers own perspective or prior research results, one needs methods that assist in the discovery of theory in data (Latimer, 2003:34). If the purpose is to understand a phenomenon such as public participation deeply and in detail, the researcher needs methods for discovery of central themes and analysis of core concerns, which is what a qualitative research approach could achieve.

The strengths of quantitative research can, however, also be weaknesses. While data can be understood in its natural setting, it is also true that many communities are made up of people with different identities, perceptions, beliefs and languages, and in order to understand data in its natural setting it is important that the researcher understands participants in their local contexts and be able to overcome any language barriers (Dudwick et al., 2006:3). Qualitative research methods can examine social processes at work in particular contexts in considerable depth, but the collection and especially the analysis of this material can be time-consuming (Griffin, 1985:97).

The research design that has been chosen as mentioned earlier will be a single case study of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. Gerring (2004:341) notes that the efforts of many authors to clarify the concept of a case study have often led to a definitional jumble “because every time someone tries to clarify the confusion using definitions, it only makes it more confusing”. However, Flyvbjerg (2011:301)
suggests authors cannot say that the definition of a case study is unnecessary because it is the definition that places the case study within its own space and gives it its own characteristics in comparison to other types of qualitative research, therefore several researchers have provided general definitions of case studies. According to Sturman (1997:61) a case study is “a general term for the exploration of an individual, group or phenomenon” thus, a case study is a comprehensive description of an individual case and the analysis thereof, the characterisation of the case and the events, as well as a description of the discovery process of these features that is the process of research itself (George and Bennett, 2005:45). Furthermore, Schurink and Auriacombe (2010:437) suggest that a case study is a design that analyses a phenomenon within its natural context, through the use of several sources of information. Therefore, a case study can help understand how participants interact in their natural setting. This makes the case study design appropriate for this specific study as it is important that participants from the SAPS, the CPF chairpersons and CPF members need to be comprehensively understood in order to make deductions, recommendations and conclusions to contribute towards developing a public participation strategy.

Advantages of case study research are that the research design allows expanding and generalising theories by combining the existing theoretical knowledge with new empirical insights (Yin, 1994:166). Furthermore, the application of a case study design can be useful for capturing new layers of reality, and developing new, testable and empirically valid theoretical and practical insights (Stuart et al., 2002:419; Voss et al., 2002:195; Ghauri, 2004:109; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007:25). Case studies are especially helpful for description, mapping and relationship building, but case studies may also be used for theory testing, refutation, refining and discovery (Voss et al., 2002:195). The case study design will help achieve this specific study’s objective through capturing new layers of reality, and developing new, testable and empirically valid theoretical and practical insights through information gathered and captured.

Despite the case studies advantages as mentioned earlier, critiques of case studies suggest that it may take a whole day or even more to arrange with interviewees to take part in the study, as well as a case study design can make an hour-long interview turn into two hours (Daniels and Cannice, 2004:185). Carrying out a case study design may involve travelling as such a trip may have to be repeated in order to conduct a second interview (Leonard-Barton, 1990:248; Simon et al., 1996:32; Nieto and Pérez, 2000:723; Stuart et al., 2002:419). Moreover, transcribing a 60-minutes interview may sometimes take ten hours or even more, especially if the recording is of poor quality and if it contains many names that need to be checked while e-mailing an interview can take some convincing for a respondent to take part in the interview process (Daniels and Cannice, 2004:198). In order to counter the critique and challenges faced by the researcher, it is important that the researcher
should exercise time management in an effective and efficient manner (Voss et al., 2002:195).

1.6.2 Population and sampling

According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:55), a population in any study includes all persons who have particular qualities that are specified in the specific study. Therefore, a population alludes to all subjects/people who have the traits in which the study’s researcher is interested for the purpose of gathering data or information. Green and Browne (2005:45) clarify that it is exorbitantly expensive and thus not feasible to study a whole population and consequently the researcher needs to choose a sample. As mentioned earlier, this study had been conducted in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. The Stellenbosch Local Municipality comprises two police stations situated in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville (Department of Police, 2013:23). The study population consists of police station management, CPF chairpersons and CPF members.

In order to ensure that the objectives of the study are achieved, purposive sampling was used to sample units of analysis in the case, namely police station management, CPF chairpersons, and CPF members. Burger and Silima (2006: 663) argue that purposive sampling is a configuration that enables the researcher to apply his/her own particular judgment in choosing the sample that best suits the study. Through analysing legislation regarding the SAPS and the CPFs in the orientation of this proposal it becomes clear that the SAPS and the CPFs have a clear obligation to establish and maintain a relationship with the local community as part of government policy to ensure public participation. Therefore, in a qualitative research approach, such as this study, the case study recognises the diverse nature of the population studied as such, a purposive sampling design is ideal for this specific study. A total sample size of 14 participants from the mentioned population groups has been utilised. The focus on the selected population such as the SAPS, the CPF chairpersons and CPF members serves to capture the diversity of the population, thereby saving costs, as only the most relevant people have been included in the sample. A breakdown of the sampling is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Group</th>
<th>Sampling design</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police station management</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPF chairpersons</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPF members</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.6.3 Data-collection instruments

The study has utilised two instruments for the purpose of data collection, namely document analyses through a literature review as well as semi-structured interviews that have been conducted with the selected participants.

According to Tlhoalele et al. (2007:56), a literature review comprises information derived from documents within which a specific problem is located. In this study, a literature review has been conducted on a number of international and local sources regarding CPFs. The legislative framework enabling and promoting CPFs, in South Africa, such as the Constitution, 1996, have been analysed. Furthermore, journal articles, dissertations and government publications have been used as additional sources to this study. The theoretical background has been obtained from a literature study regarding the various CPFs used in South Africa and around the world. Information regarding the Stellenbosch Local Municipality has been gathered from various documents made available by the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

The advantages of utilising a literature review are that it gives the researcher a wide understanding regarding what has been published on the topic as well as providing a literature foundation and information about the past and current improvements with respect to the research to be conducted (Villian and Vogt, 2001:178). A literature review additionally gives the researcher distinctive thoughts on the most proficient method to manage present issues identified by the study (Villian and Vogt, 2001:187). The disadvantage of a literature review is the huge measure of data that is managed and viewed by the researcher, all the information retrieved is not all directly related to the study, resulting in the researcher deciding on which information are pertinent to the study being researched (Majam and Theron, 2006:599).

This study has highlighted various legislative frameworks on community policing and CPFs specifically. The first step the study has taken is highlighting the concepts of community policing, with specific focus on the CPFs and the important role public participation plays in CPFs. Secondly, the statutory and regulatory guidelines for the functioning of CPFs have been discussed and thirdly the use of an international and national benchmark have been highlighted which aims to introduce solutions for bettering public participation with regards to CPFs. Lastly recommendations on a strategy for public participation for CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality has been put into perspective.

Schutte (2006:152) stipulates that “multiple data-collections can be utilised in a single study”. The study, therefore, has employed semi-structured interviews to be conducted in Stellenbosch. The significance of interviews is that the researcher can get greater clearness on the questions that he/she may have inquiries on (Van der Waldt, 2004:60-62), thus it can be said that the researcher is in a position to ask the
respondents to the study open-ended questions through the interview process, so as gain knowledge and an understanding about respondents' convictions, perspectives and points of view. According to Maree (2012:89) the general purpose of a semi-structured interview is to gain spellbinding data that will empower the researcher to comprehend the social reality of the respondents and soak data as well as information. A semi-structured interview can be viewed as an adaptable technique for acquiring information and data from respondents.

Semi-structured interviews are known to be practical where large amounts of information can be collected in one sitting with a respondent. The results of the semi-structured interviews can usually be quickly and easily analysed; however, there is no way to tell how truthful a respondent is being and how much thought the respondent has put into the answering of questions is unclear (Van As and Van Schalkwyk, 2001:24).

1.6.4 Data-analysis strategy

Data analysis is referred to as a “form of analysis of data that was gathered using qualitative techniques, regardless of the paradigm used to govern the research” (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:491). According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:60), once the data-collection process has been completed, an in-depth analysis of the data captured by the researcher should be filtered, mind-mapped and integrated into various views of different authors. Thus, the importance of data analysis is to aid the researcher in defining and clarifying an individual account on a specific phenomenon under study, which must be produced through analysing various perspectives from different sources of information (Brynard and Hanekom, 2006:60). The importance of integrating a variety of sources of information helps contribute to a study that ensures its research and findings is conducted without fear or favour. This specific study utilised two data-collection instruments as mentioned earlier, using semi-structured interviews, and various documents through a literature review that has grant the researcher the opportunity to integrate a variety of different authors’ viewpoints and contributions to finally produce an objective analysis of the findings researched in Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

This study utilised thematic analysis as a data-analysis strategy. According to Boyatzis (1998:22), thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data. It minimally organises and describes the researcher’s dataset in detail. However, thematic analysis also often goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic. Furthermore, thematic analysis can be described as a type of qualitative analysis. Thematic analysis is used to analyse classifications and present themes or patterns that relate to the data captured. Thematic analysis illustrates the data in great detail and deals with diverse subjects via interpretations (Boyatzis, 1998:25). According to Marks and Yardley (2004:112), thematic analysis is considered the most appropriate for any study that seeks to
discover using interpretations. Thematic analysis provides a systematic element to data analysis. Thematic analyses allow the researcher to associate an analysis of the frequency of a theme such as public participation with one of the whole content. This will confer accuracy and intricacy and enhance the research’s whole meaning (Marks and Yardley, 2004:113). Qualitative research requires understanding and collecting diverse aspects and data. Thematic analysis gives an opportunity to understand the potential of any issue more widely (Marks and Yardley, 2004:114).

Furthermore, Namey et al. (2008:146) state that thematic analysis allows the researcher to determine precisely the relationships between concepts and compare them with the replicated data. Thus, by using thematic analysis there is the possibility to link the various concepts and opinions of the participants and compare these with the data gathered in different situations at different times during the research. All possibilities for interpretation are possible. Therefore, thematic analysis will help this specific study achieve its objectives where participants’ responses through interviews and literature gathered can be compared in order to draw conclusions to contribute towards recommendations for a public participation strategy.

1.6.5 Ethical considerations

Social research involves the study of human beings and as such the research strategy and methods have been explained to the participants. The significance of clarifying the research strategy, techniques and methods of the research to be conducted to participants is of utmost importance, with a specific end goal to guarantee that suppositions about the study are comprehended by all that take part in the study (Schurink, 2010:433). Paten (2004:26) stipulates that all participants have the privilege of confidentiality of all information gathered about him/her which remains classified in order to be morale sound. The following approaches have been adopted throughout the study (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:497):

- Informed consent of participants: The informed consent of participants occurred during the sampling process where details and an explanation of the study was thoroughly provided along with the assurance that confidentiality with regards to information provided by the participants will be practiced throughout the study. Respondents have been asked to sign an informed consent letter indicating their consent to participate in the study.
- Possible harm to participants: In this study, participants have not been presented with harmful tools or exposed to destructive circumstances. Participants have not been put in a situation where personal information regarding the study could be at risk of exposor. Permission to make use of data retrieved from participants is highlighted in the covering letter of the interview questions.
• Covering letter: A covering letter explaining the outline of the study was presented to participants where they were urged to participate. Confidentiality was assured and no other parties have been given access to any individual data.

An ethics clearance certificate was obtained from the Ethics Committee of North-West University to ensure that all processes and research procedures comply with ethical standards.

1.6.6 Limitations and delimitations

Mouton (1996:24) believes limitations in social research can be explained as factors or elements which restricts research from being conducted. The information required for this particular study has reviled limitations to the study as a whole, due to the vast majority of the CPF documents not being promptly and effortlessly available by the SAPS, this has posed as a challenge to the researcher to gain information that is vital to the study. Due to information, not being ready and easily accessible, it could have an impact on the study in the sense that the qualitative research design employed by the study depends on the accessibility of specific information.

Countering this limitation to the study has been achieved through obtaining clearance from the North-West University to proceed carrying out research on this specific topic. Through presenting an ethics approval certificate granted by the North-West University to the SAPS, officials have been willing to go the extra mile in making sure CPF documents are made available. Furthermore, data collection with regards to semi-structured interviews has placed limitations on the study, as most of the CPFs chairpersons and other targeted sampling groups as mentioned earlier are volunteers and not readily available at any given time. Countering this limitation to the study has been achieved through ensuring that the researcher makes full use of the data-capturing instruments as well as ensuring that the data-capturing process is organised and planned before being carried out in the field. Moreover, geographical limitations regarding the distance between the various targeted sampling groups could be challenging. However, the research can make use of public transport or own vehicle at the researcher’s expense.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This particular study has contributed to an improved understanding of the current state of CPFs in South Africa and more specifically within the context of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. Through the use of participation in an effective research strategy, the study was enabled to depict the Stellenbosch Local Municipality’s SAPS officials’ knowledge and understanding of their constitutional responsibilities as well as CPF members’ understanding of CPF functions and responsibilities in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. The inclusion of CPFs
participants in the study has furthermore highlighted the shortcomings experienced with reference to the research conducted. These shortcomings have helped provide the basis for specific recommendations and conclusions pertaining to the development of a public participation strategy. Finally, this specific study has contributed to the body of knowledge of Public Administration regarding government institutions such as the SAPS by achieving the objectives set out earlier.

1.8 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The first chapter provided an orientation and problem statement for the study. A brief background on the contents of the study is provided, as well as the study’s importance and how the main research problem has been addressed. Moreover, research objectives, purpose and central theoretical statements have been presented as well as the research methodology of the study. Lastly, the study’s chapter layout was formulated and presented.

Chapter two has provided legislative, theoretical and conceptual knowledge of public participation, with specific reference to the local government context in which it occurs. Furthermore, definitions and problems with regards to public participation have been explored. The chapter follows with various approaches on how public participation can be enhanced as well as enhancing the chances of the SAPS to carry out its constitutional mandate. Lastly, a summary was provided regarding public participation principles, approaches and models that were put into perspective.

In Chapter three of the study, community policing was analysed as well as a number of findings and conclusions through the use of international and national best practices, aimed at introducing solutions into developing a public participation strategy with regards to CPFs, were pinpointed.

Chapter four outlined the community policing and public participation functions and systems in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. This chapter is specifically placed within a municipal context and has been used to prove what CPFs’ roles and functions are in accordance with legislation. Stellenbosch being a local municipality has been analysed accordingly. Furthermore, in this chapter through an empirical investigation the study has highlighted empirical evidence regarding the current challenges experienced by participants associated with public participation and CPFs in Stellenbosch.

In the final chapter, recommendations and conclusions towards a public participation strategy are made. This chapter also serves as a summary and conclusions of the entire study.
1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter served to attempt to provide an orientation and problem statement to the study. A brief background was provided by way of orientation as well as the study’s importance and how the main research problem has been addressed. Moreover, research objectives, purpose and central theoretical statements were presented. Lastly, the study’s chapter layout was formulated and presented.
CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Public participation can be regarded as the process by which government consults with society, interested parties, affected individuals, organisations, and other government entities before making a decision (Girma, 2012:123). Public participation is also known to be a two-way communication process between government and citizens as well as a collaborative problem-solving mechanism with the purpose of achieving representative and more acceptable decisions. As such, public participation in the overall governance of the state tents to become an important aspect in the democratic way of life (Scott, 2009:112).

The introduction of post-1994 South Africa brought about a focus on effective implementation of policies and laws, and overseeing delivery on the ground and in this regard government has continued strengthening the core functions of government by developing strong oversight and public participation strategies within government that is in line with government’s constitutional mandate (Girma, 2012:123). Masango (2002:52) suggests that the introduction of democracy in South Africa has drawn public participation in government to the forefront. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Section 1(c) more specifically states that South Africa is founded on a “multi-party system of a democratic government, that is responsible for ensuring accountability, responsiveness and openness” to all its citizens. Therefore it is important that public representatives value the local communities feedback and participation in matters that affect the community (Scott, 2009:112).

The existence of local government in South Africa has always been characterised as the foundation that serves as a crucial level of government that intensifies the spirit of democratisation and mass participation of the local community in the decision-making process that affects citizens at grass-root levels, such an entity like local government is elected locally by local citizens (Ismail, Bayat and Meyer, 1997:2). Matshe (2009:12) adds that no political system can be considered complete and democratic by nature if it does not have a system of local government.

Local government is known as the third level of government deliberately established to bring government to local communities and gives the local community a sense of involvement and ownership of the political processes that control the local community’s daily lives with regards to the delivery of essential services (Ismail et al., 1997:2) Local government denotes a political system that consists of
geographical areas that are governed by metropolitan, district and local municipalities. The Stellenbosch Local Municipality which is the focus of this study, is categorised as a local municipality (SALGA, 2011:1). In terms of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, municipalities across South Africa are obligated to have effective community participation structures in place, thus central to this democratic process of conducting public participation within local communities is local governments ability to establish effective and efficient public participation strategies to engage the local community (Matshe, 2009:1).

This chapter aims to provide legislative, theoretical and conceptual insight into public participation, with specific reference to the local government context in which it occurs. Furthermore, definitions and problems with regards to public participation will be explored. The chapter continues with various approaches on how public participation can be enhanced as well as enhancing the chances of the SAPS to carry out its constitutional mandate. Lastly, a summary will be provided of public participation principles, approaches and models that will be put into perspective.

2.2 DEMOCRATIC THEORY

According to Bekker (1996:12), the word “democracy” originates from the Greek words “demos”, meaning ‘people’, and “kratos”, meaning “power”. The concept of democracy is often defined as “the rule of the people” or “the will of the people” (Bekker, 1996:13). Boman (2006:23) argues that democracy can be regarded as a system of making rules determined by the people who are governed by those rules and are obligated to obey rules that are agreed upon. Forbrig and Joerg (2005:134) stipulate that democracy is found on two fundamental principles that are vital to democracy’s existence, namely the principle of “individual freedoms” that no individual should be subject to laws that have been imposed and enforced by others; as well as the principle of “equality”, which is the belief that all citizens should have the opportunity to influence the decision-making process of government. Van Hanen (1990:6) adds that different forms of government around the world violate and are in contrast of both principles mentioned earlier, due to power held by a certain individual, social class or elites that take executive decisions on behalf of the entire population.

An example of other forms of government that are in direct contrast with a democracy is an oligarchy which is ruled by a small, privileged group of individuals that are often characterised by qualities such as wealth or elite families. In a plutocracy, government is known to be controlled by wealthy individuals, and in a dictatorship government is controlled by a single and powerful individual (Van Hanen, 1990:70). It becomes evident that these other forms of government experienced around the world simply do not prioritise individual freedoms or equality. Motale (2012:14) describes a democracy as the rule of, by and for the people, democracy is power exercised by the people as a whole. Cloete (1993:4) adds that
democracy is in direct contrast to government exercised by only a small group of elite individuals. Democracy is regarded as a process where all the citizens have an opportunity to share inputs and concerns, and ultimately citizens have the opportunity to take part in the decision-making process of government (Cloete, 1993:4). Therefore, the purpose of a democracy is to serve the interest of every individual as well as ensure that their well-being is kept close to heart, irrespective of the person’s race, culture or social standing. Van Hanen (1990:9) in turn defines democracy as a specific type of society and suggests that a democracy is a particular form of a political system. According to Van Hanen (1990:10), a democratic society provides the fairest and most just method of governance for the most number of people and the most equality that can be experienced by individuals, with majority of citizens playing an active role such as holding regular free and fair elections as well as public participation encounters are encouraged throughout society.

Bratton et al. (1997:337) offer a more functional definition of democracy for the purpose of this study in suggesting that a democratic society is more than a democratically elected government and a system of national, provincial and local institutions. Democracy functions more effectively and serves the interests of its citizens better if people participate in government related issues such as formulating demands, exerting pressure and monitoring government’s actions continuously. Local communities through participating in public affairs can be the driving force and the principal agents of change for a more democratic and just world.

Meyer and Breyer (2007:112) suggest that the following principles should be incorporated with any growing democracy:

- respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- freedom of association;
- freedom of expression and opinion;
- access to power and its exercise in accordance with the rule of law;
- the holding of regular free and fair elections by universal suffrage and by secret ballot as the expression of the will of the people;
- a democratic system of political parties and organisations;
- the separation of powers;
- the independence of the judiciary and media; and
- transparency and accountability in the managing of public affairs.

Grigsby (2005:325) clarifies the definition of democracy by explaining that participatory democracy is a system divided into three fundamental spheres, namely the social sphere, economic sphere and political sphere. The understanding of these three spheres of participatory democracy is vital to the study of public participation.
which highlights the relationship between public participation and democracy within a society.

- The social sphere of participatory democracy. In the social sphere people are participating in community matters and issues regarding public affairs on a daily basis, this for example is individual involvement in community projects, self-help groups, CPFs or charity initiatives, other examples include religious groups and churches, sport clubs, traditional and cultural activities and events that take place throughout society.

- The economic sphere of participatory democracy. This specific sphere of a participatory democracy explains that local community members’ jobs and various income-generating activities allow people to also participate in the economy by producing, offering and purchasing goods and services, through these activities people become participants in the overall market place.

- The political sphere of participatory democracy. In the political sphere people in a democratic system have opportunities to participate through different mechanisms, from local government to national government. The most common form of political participation in a democracy is voting in elections. Apart from voting in elections for other candidates people can also become candidates and run for public office. Forms of political participation other than elections include referendums and consultations by leaders for example through community meetings held on a regular basis. Participation, however, can also occur in alternative forms such as initiatives organized by citizens who can, for example, engage their leaders in discussions and dialogues. Some of these alternative forms can be institutionalised to a certain extent. For instance, people can join political parties or start their own political party as well as form certain interest and lobby groups. The political sphere requires political equality, suggesting that all members of the local community should possess equal opportunities to participate in political processes. Therefore, opportunities should exist or be provided to facilitate equal participation and access by all members of the community.

From the analysis of different government systems and the clarifications of democracy covered in this section, it becomes clear that public participation is dependent on the type of democracy a government ultimately practices. Therefore, types of democracy should be defined and explained as public participation is a central theme in this specific study.
2.2.1 Types of democracy

Democracy is a system of government that is known to be ruled by the people and for the people in most modern societies (Cloete, 1993:6). Cloete (1993:6) explains that although democracy is ruled by the people and for the people it is important to understand the practical terms of a functional democracy and how democracy is formalized in terms of different types of democracies. There are several types of democracies around the world and include the following:

- **Direct democracy:** According to Murunga and Nasong'o (2007:22) a direct democracy is a system of popular self-government, where citizens decide on their own fate. In support of the latter, Christian (1996:43) states that in a direct democracy, citizens, without acting as a mediator of elected or appointed political officials, can participate in making public decisions that concern public affairs. Direct democracy thus reduces the distinction and closes the gap between the government and the governed and or between the government and civil society. Nnoli (2003:23) clarifies that a direct democracy in essence is when citizens get to vote for a policy directly, without any intermediate representatives or houses of parliament, the people decide directly what is best for the local community or country as a whole. If the government has to pass a certain law or policy, it goes to the people.

- **Representative democracy:** According to Green and Luehrmann (2004:55), representative democracy is when the citizens of the country elect officials to make political decisions, formulate laws, administer programmes and deliver services for the public good. Mushemeza (2009:23) is of the opinion that representative democracy is limited and rather viewed as an indirect type of democracy. It is limited in the sense that popular participation in government is infrequent and brief, where criticizes are being restricted to the act of voting every few years (Mushemeza, 2009:24). Therefore representative democracy is indirect in that the public do not exercise power themselves directly; they merely elect representatives who will make decisions on the public’s behalf. Mushemeza (2009:25) suggests that representative democracy or indirect democracy is formulated and operationalised when citizens choose to vote for who will represent their interests in a parliament. A representative democracy is the most common form of democracy found across the world. Its emphasis lies on protecting the rights of not only the majority of the people, but also the minorities within society (Mushemeza, 2009:24).

- **Presidential democracy:** According to Shugart and Carey (1992:15) after analysing constitutional powers of a presidential democracy suggests that presidentialism or a presidential democracy can be defined as a type of democracy based on the idea of practising maximum separation of powers as
well as granting the executive full and exclusive responsibility of the cabinet and government to the president. Mainwaring and Shugart (1995:72) add that "a presidential democracy is only presidential if the effective head of government is elected for a fixed term where the election may be direct or indirect". According to Linz (1994:87), the presidential system of government is that "in which the executive is constitutionally independent of the legislature in respect to the duration of his/her tenure and responsible to it for his/her political policies". For Shugart and Stephan (2001:179) a "presidential system of government is characterised by a constitutional and political separation of powers between legislative and executive branch of government". Samuels and Shugard (2003:65) further elaborates and add that a government should be characterised as a presidential system only if the head of state is elected by the public; and during his/her tenure parliament can neither appoint nor remove the government from office. From the above given definitions and explanations it becomes clear that under a presidential democracy, the head of state has a significant amount of power over the government.

- Parliamentary democracy: According to Cheibub (2007:29), a parliamentary system of governance is characterised by parliament’s formal or informal vested powers, where the president as well as the cabinet are usually also members of parliament. A parliamentary system of governance is known to hold the president and cabinet accountable for any executive actions taken individually or by cabinet members’ specific offices. Linz (1994:77) adds that the parliamentary majority in extreme cases can force the cabinet and president of the republic to resign. Stephan and Skach (1993:3) define parliamentary regimes as a system of mutual dependence. The chief executive and thus the president must be supported by a majority in the legislature and can be removed from his/her post with a vote of no confidence. Mainwaring and Shugart (1995:15) defined parliamentary systems in contrast to presidential democracy, suggesting that while in presidential systems the head of government has significant powers over the government, this is not the case with a parliamentary system. Likewise, Samuels (2007: 75) maintains that "if the assembly has the power to remove the executive, the regime is known to be parliamentary". Therefore, a democracy that gives more power to the legislature is called a parliamentary democracy. The executive branch derives its democratic legitimacy only from the legislature.

- Consociation democracy: Lijphart (1999:22) identified main characteristics of a consociation democracy and suggests that a consociation democracy is in essence executive power sharing among a “grand coalition” of political leaders drawn from all significant parts of society. According to Lijphart (1999:25), a consociation democracy entails a government where minorities
are included in government decision-making that requires mutual agreement among all parties in the executive as well as a proportional representation of major groups being elected and appointed for public office. Byman (2002:34) states that the theory of consociationalism emphasizes the importance of governing incentives which work through power sharing arrangements and are thought to mitigate conflict among leadership elites throughout society. Stephan (1999:19) clarifies that consociation democracies are designed to maximize the number of stakeholders who share an interest in participating in public affairs. A consociation democracy is a system that produces more inclusive parliaments that includes many minor parties representing various segmented communities.

- Liberal democracy: Lynn (1999:129) regards a liberal democracy as an idea that suggests the existence of three types of rights, namely political, economic and social human rights. These rights set the foundation for the right to participate in the political process of government; to enjoy a fair distribution of resources throughout society; and to be free from the oppression of government. Turner (2003:12) adds that in the case of a liberal democracy there is a link between democracy being understood in terms of it being a political system that requires participation from its citizens, whereby participation results in the ultimate success of democracy. Held (2006:56) clarifies that a liberal democracy is associated with the idea that within the state, individuals should be free to pursue their socio-economic and political preferences. Therefore, Saul (2008:22) states that leaders are elected through free and fair elections which nurture and appreciate political diversity which is often reflected by having multiple political parties participate in elections. A liberal democracy operates through a liberal democratic constitution which guides the government on how to govern as well as providing a system of transparency and accountability (Saul, 2008:23).

- Pluralist democracy: According to Ravitch (1991:23) the idea of a pluralistic government is centred on the idea that many interest groups throughout society should compete to have their views heard and policies adopted. Newton (1969:200) adds that a key identifier of a pluralistic society or government is that it contains numerous special interest groups, which are government, non-profit or profit organizations that are created to represent specific interest ranging from economic policy to social development. Ravitch (1991:24) suggests that the primary perspective of a pluralist democracy is that there is no single centre of power, but rather multiple centres of power. The idea of multiple centres of power is the basic characteristic of a pluralist democracy.
It becomes evident from the various types of democracy that public participation is indeed vital for ensuring the overall success of democracy within any society. The successes and failures of any type of democracy are determined by the ability of citizens to engage and participate in public affairs. The next section aims to highlight the foundations of public participation in order to understand its theoretical and conceptual frameworks.

2.3 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: A THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL APPROACH

According to Simpson (2001:520), a concept is considered to be “an ideal or mental construction elaborated and understood with regard to a specific phenomenon that is essential for research development and the construction of theories”. Therefore, concepts are known to be a term that is widely used throughout academia, to mean an idea and viewed as a building block to formulating theories which are essential in order to understand a specific discipline like Public Administration. According to Van der Waldt (2010:2) disciplines in academia such as Public Administration and Management are defined, conceptualized and maintained by the disciplines theoretical foundations. Van der Waldt (2010:3) further states that for a discipline to remain relevant, it should be supported by theories. Neuman (1997:12) adds that a theory is a well-established area of scientific knowledge or principles that are supported by convincing experimental and observational empirical evidence. Neuman (1997:13) further suggests that a theory has strong explanatory power that helps scientist and academics to understand and describe the universe and make predictions about future events. Laurence and Margolis (1999:43) further indicated that theory becomes stronger as more supporting evidence is gathered regarding a specific phenomenon; and it provides a context for predictions, moreover theory has the ability to generate new research where it is always relevant and tentative.

Based on the definitions and explanations a theory can be regarded as a framework for observation and the understanding of a specific phenomenon. Theory allows the researcher to make links between the abstract and the concrete; the theoretical and the empirical evidence (Leslie, 2002:22).

According to Shipley and Utz (2012:27), the battle of public participation in modern history is one where citizens are excluded from the decision-making process of government. The late 1960s was considered a period of substantial social, political and economic change around the world. Maslin (2007:34) further states that African colonies were gaining independence from Europe and a social revolution was underway with civil rights, independence and anti-racism movements along with other changes characterizing this period in time.

The 1960s was a particularly challenging time for public representatives because their roles were changing from agency advocates for foreign governments to public
representatives on a local level that are for the people, this caused local communities and criticizes powers to increase (Warren, 1969:34). Warren (1969:35) adds that citizens’ power increased because of the frequency of social movements that took place demanding change where ordinary citizens demanded participation in public affairs. Thus, local officials were forced to share power with residents due to the increased demand for “planning with the people” (Wilson, 1963:242). Citizens wanted higher levels of engagement in the projects that took place in their communities (Wilson, 1963). According to Brody, Godschalk and Burby (2003:245), at this point in time public participation was a key element in the planning and decision-making process of public affairs, where ordinary men and women were participating in the governing of state affairs in many independent African states. At the end of the 1960s, public participation became an important issue where citizens and academics questioned the influence of power in the decision-making process Maslin (2007:35). Since that time, the theory of public participation has raised many questions among academics, but the issue of power remains the main challenge in the practice of public participation.

According to some theorists like Day (1997:421), public participation benefits the planning process of new projects by making the plan comprehensive and improving public affairs and decision making by bringing in new insights and ideas. Smith and McDonough (2001:239) add that public participation can benefit government with the implementation of new projects that affect local communities. In essence it can bring new ideas and solutions to the process public participation where the decision-making is aimed at promoting transparency, responsiveness and fairness.

Rowe and Frewer (2005:45) contribute by explaining that the most effective way of public participation is by communication and the sharing of information in personal face-to-face communication with a person or a group. Two-way flows of information give the participants an opportunity to express opinions and receive feedback on participant’s comments. For a good decision-making process, the interaction between citizens and government has to be meaningful (IAPP, 2007).

In the context of public participation Rowe and Frewer (2005:254) argue that there are several definitions for the term “public participation”. The general definition of public participation is “the involvement of those who are potentially affected by a decision” (IAPP, 2007). Rowe and Frewer (2005:254) add that, while the definition of public participation is fairly broad, scholars have attempted to narrow its scope by proposing to use public participation based on the principles of the flow of information: communication, consultation, and participation. That is, participation can be active through the use of public meetings and conversation circles or passive with representative participation.

The next section focuses on types of public participation where questions relating to various powers in public participation are brought to light.
2.3.1 Types of public participation

According to Abelson and Eyles (2004:279), good governance is about creating transparency, accountability and building strong relations between government and its citizens, thus making it important that citizens understand different types of public participation that are available and essentially influence public affairs. Governments around the world are striving towards building strong public relations and partnerships with citizens, because it is through these community partnerships that local challenges and good governance could be addressed through citizens being a part of the decision-making process (Edwards, 2005:12).

The South African Government has shown commitment to the creation of a better life for all its citizens through the implementation of the Constitution (1996), and various other policies such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994), and the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1997) to name a few. These policies place an obligation on citizens to participate in public affairs, thus facilitating the development of the potential of individual citizens for self-sustenance and installing a sense of ownership over public affairs (Edwards, 2005:14). Cooke and Kothari (2001:12) add that building trust between government and local communities is vital to encourage participation that affords citizens the opportunity to play an active role in the decision-making process and bring about trust and a strong relationship between government and the local community.

Ledingham and Bruning (2000:87) explain that government institutions in any democracy are required by the laws of the country to engage communities on policies, programmes, projects and any decisions which might affect such communities either positively or negatively. Public participation is an essential tool for gathering opinion and the views of communities on all public related issues in a manner that would minimize or avoid unnecessary conflict (Ledingham and Bruning, 2000:90). According to Arnstein’s (1969:215) “ladder of citizen participation” there are eight different types of public participation:

- **Manipulation:** According to Arnstein (1969:215), manipulation is a type of public participation that is carried out in the form of advisory committees or advisory boards for the express purpose of “educating” participants or engineering participants support. Instead of genuine citizen participation, a manipulation type of participation is an illusory form of participation. At public participation meetings, such as citizen advisory committees, it was the officials and the elite who educated, persuaded, and advised the citizens, not the reverse. Government guidelines for this type of public participation legitimized the manipulative agenda by emphasizing the terms information-gathering, public relations, and support as the explicit functions of the committee instead of public participants granted the opportunity to engage officials and consider feedback.
• Therapy: According to Arnstein (1969:215), in some respects group therapy, masked as public participation, should be considered as the lowest form of public participation due to the fact that in the case of therapy public participation it administrators-mental health experts from social workers to psychiatrists-assume that powerlessness is related to mental illness. On this assumption, under a pretence of involving citizens in planning public affairs, the experts subject the citizens to clinical group therapy. Participants are engaged in extensive group activities, but the focus of the group activities lies in curing participants of their powerlessness regarding the running of the state rather than changing the terms of public participation. Therapy as a type of public participation involves privileges that are granted to participants by the administrator or ruler.

• Informing: According to Arnstein (1969:215), access to public information is vital to public participation, and is a basic and important right which underlines the whole process of participation. Whilst informing means that the government informs the public about government’s plans and the types of documents government wants to adopt at the beginning of a project or programme, informing as a type of public participation also highlights the rights of the public to have access to all information which includes drafts, comments and reasoning throughout the public participation process. Although informing citizens of their rights, responsibilities, and options can be the most important first step toward legitimate public participation. However, informing as a type of public participation too often places an emphasis on a one-way flow of information from officials and public representatives to citizens with no channel provided for feedback and no power for negotiation. Under these conditions, particularly when information is provided at a late stage in planning, people have little opportunity to influence the project or programme designed for the publics benefit.

• Consultation: According to Arnstein (1969:215), consultation can be regarded as a form of participation where the government invites the public to provide its opinion, comments, views and feedback on a specific issue. Consultation through inviting citizens’ opinions and informing participants on community related issues, can be a legitimate step toward full participation. Although if consulting participants is not combined with other types of participation, consultation as a type of public participation cannot be considered as full participation, when consultation still offers no assurance that the local communities concerns and ideas will be taken into account by public representatives. The most frequent methods used for consulting local communities are attitude surveys, neighbourhood meetings, and public hearings. When powerholders restrict the input of the local community’s ideas
solely to a level of public hearings, people are primarily perceived as statistical abstractions, and participation is measured by how many come to meetings, or answer a questionnaire. What the local community achieves in all of this activity is that the local community has “participated in participation”. And what powerholders achieve is the evidence that public representatives have gone through the required motions of involving the public.

- Placation: According to Arnstein (1969:215), it is at a placation type of public participation that the local community begin to have some degree of influence in the decision-making process regrading public affairs. A placation type of public participation strategy is to place a few handpicked local community members to serve on the boards of community projects or programmes like education, police or housing, in this case the local community as a sense of ownership over projects and programmes, although if community members serving on boards are not accountable to a constituency and if the traditional power elites hold the majority of seats, the community member’s concerns can simply take a backseat because the elites can easily outvote community members’ representatives.

- Partnership: According to Arnstein (1969:215), a partnership type of public participation means collaboration and jointly undertaken responsibilities at all stages of the decision-making process, a partnership may also be described as a situation where the community representatives share a seat at the table with the government representatives. A partnership type of public participation is where power is in fact redistributed through negotiation between the local community and powerholders such as the government. Public/community representatives from the local community and government agree to share planning and decision-making responsibilities through such structures as joint policy boards, planning committees and mechanisms for resolving issues. Partnerships can work most effectively when there is an organised power-base in the community to which the public representatives are accountable to the local community; and when the local community have the financial resources to pay its leaders reasonable honoraria for time-consuming efforts; and when the community has the resources to hire and fire its own technicians, lawyers, and community organizers. With these ingredients, the local community has some genuine bargaining influence over the outcome of community projects and programmes.

- Delegated power: According to Arnstein (1969:215), negotiations between the local community and public officials can also result in the local community achieving dominant decision-making authority over a particular project or programme. Delegated power as a type of public participation can be scaled to the point where the local community holds significant power to ensure
accountability of projects and programmes. To Arnstein (1969:215) this type of public participation is regarded as full participation by the local community where public representatives of the local community resolve differences with powerholders and powerholders such as government need to start the bargaining process with the local community rather than the community asking government for services to be delivered.

2.3.2 Public participation methods and mechanisms

According to Adams (2004:43), public participation can be any process conducted that directly engages the public or local community in decision-making and gives full consideration to community members’ input in making various decision that affect public affairs. Seltzer and Mahmoudi (2013:3) add that public participation is known as a process, not a single event, action, project or programme. It consists of a series of activities and actions by different stakeholders over the full lifespan of a project to both inform the local community and obtain input from the local community. Public participation affords stakeholders those that have an interest in an issue, such as individuals, interest groups, local businesses, communities the opportunity to influence decisions that affect their daily lives. Therefore, public participation can have various methods. Rowe and Frewer (2000:251) identify different methods of public participation which include:

- informing the public by providing information to help the local community understand the issues, options, and solutions;
- consulting with the local community to obtain feedback on alternatives or decisions;
- involving the local community to ensure concerns are considered throughout the decision process;
- collaborating with the local community to develop decision criteria and alternatives and identify the preferred solution for a specific issue; and
- empowering the local community by placing the final decision-making authority in a local community’s hands.

From the discussion above public participation methods can reflect the extent and level of full public participation taking place against Arnstein’s (1969:215) types of public participation discussed earlier.

According to Seltzer and Mahmoudi (2013:4) the principle behind public participation is that all stakeholders affected by a public institutions decisions or actions have the right to be consulted as well as contribute to the overall decision-making process. Municipalities are therefore obligated to engage in and encourage the involvement of communities in matters that affect local governance. In order to support local
government or municipalities in this regard, Rowe and Frewer (2005:251) and SALGA (2013:8) suggest the following different public engagement mechanisms:

- Ward committees: According to SALGA (2013:8), formal ward committees have been established in the majority of municipalities throughout South Africa. SALGA (2013:8) adds that it is evident that there is a strong willingness by municipalities to encourage public participation, and more specifically through effective ward committees; therefore there is no need to oblige municipalities to establish formal ward committees but rather, focus should be placed on the effective operation of ward committees, with specific regard to encouraging accountability, transparency and ensuring the resourcing thereof, where ordinary community members are granted the opportunity to voice opinions regarding public affairs.

- Identification of interest groups: According to SALGA (2013:8), local community representatives with the assistance of the formal ward committees must establish a database that includes all interest groups that are present within the wards geographical area to ensure that interest groups are represented in the ward committee and thus form part of issues that concern public affairs. Interest groups may involve groups such as school governing bodies, child welfare institutions, and institutions caring for abused women and children. In addition to the public participation of the various interest groups in the activities of the ward committee, the municipality can establish processes to address the needs of specific interest groups, such as focus groups. Focus groups can serve as a vital tool in addressing the needs and interests of vulnerable groups within a community.

- Learning forums in communities: According to Rowe and Frewer (2005:251), learning forums in communities should involve public communication that includes the local community, public representatives as well as contractors of the municipality working on specific community projects or programmes. The learning forums can facilitate community-based projects and programmes as well as share lessons learnt in various projects and programmes. The various role players present at the learning form will help ensure that transparency and accountability are upheld throughout the lifespan of community projects and programmes.

- Effective communication and consultation: According to Rowe and Frewer (2005:251) continuous communication and consultation are some of the most important elements of public participation. Municipalities communication channels used to communicate with members of the local community have a significant potential to promote public participation throughout the community. Municipalities can use municipal newsletters and mayoral imbizos to
communicate with the local community as well as municipal accounts, the local media, posters, and public notice boards as well as municipal websites, emails and billboards. The municipality can determine the most effective way of communication with the local community through determining which method of communication is preferred amongst members of the local community.

- Feedback from and to the local community: According to Rowe and Frewer (2005:251) feedback and ensuring dialogue between members of the local community and the municipality are vital for effective public participation. A municipality can place suggestion boxes at frequently used customer care centres for community feedback as well as establish a formal complaint handling process where providing feedback to the local community is a priority. Feedback to the local community is vital to the public participation process, therefore various communications channels can be utilized by municipalities to provide feedback on the activities of the municipalities in general. Municipalities can use media announcements, public notices, ward committees and ward meetings to provide feedback to communities.

2.3.3 Advantages of public participation

According to Creighton (2005:45), public participation on a large scale is a cornerstone of responsible democratic governance and is of utmost importance to achieve sustainable development within any democratic society. Lerner (2003:5) adds that public participation is a process beyond traditional methods such as public consultations by creating opportunities of open enchantments and the transfer and deliberation of ideas, transparency, mutual learning and informed decision-making processes. Therefore, Petts (2001:207) and Creighton (2005:34) highlight the following benefits of a deliberative public participation process:

- Strengthens democracy: According to Creighton (2005:45), successful public participation strengthens democracy by engaging local communities and taking part in a trading process where the local community are encouraged to exercise their democratic rights. As a result of public participation final decisions are made that influence the local community becomes more representative. Furthermore, public participation is a process that encourages openness to the public that enables the local community to better assess information and gain a greater forum in which to present concerns and cooperate with government.

- Increases accountability: According to Petts (2001:207), public participation can contribute to overall accountability of the social, economic, and environmental decisions taking by government officials. The public
participation process helps to ensure that governments are accountable for any actions and ultimately responsive to public interests. Public participation encourages an enlivenment that links the local community with decision-makers in government, the local community’s confidence in and support of government official’s decisions are strengthened and government officials are held responsible for any actions and decisions made.

- Manages social conflicts: According to Petts (2001:207), public participation can alleviate social conflicts that may be experienced within local communities, public participation provides conflict resolutions by inviting different stakeholders and interest groups to assess the impacts of projects and programmes on local communities. Government’s investment in public participation at an early stage of implementing projects or programmes can minimize both the number and the magnitude of social conflicts arising over the course of the implementation of specific projects or programmes.

  - Enhances public participation legitimacy: According to Creighton (2005:45), effective public participation enhances the overall processes legitimacy among members of the local community. Public participation that is meaningful to members of the local community who experience a sense of ownership over community decisions, projects and programmes legitimize the public participation process. Without significant public participation, the local community may feel manipulated which undermines an effective dialogue and can create distrust between government and the local community.

In addition to Petts (2001:207) and Creighton (2005:34) advantages of public participation, Neshkova and Guo (2012:267) add that effective public participation processes could bring about the following benefits:

- public participation processes that involve local communities are opportunities for mutual education of all stakeholders that are affected by public affairs;
- government officials, public representatives and the local community can in a relatively short amount of time often get insight on public opinions, additional information, technical expertise, and social data about values, attitudes, and preferences regarding community members or interest groups who will be most impacted on by decisions that affect the local community;
- public participation may yield changes in behaviour or attitudes of local community members. The likelihood of the local community changing their behaviours or attitudes increases when local community members are aware, informed, and self-convinced that the change is needed within the local community;
- effective public participation provides an environment where government officials and community members relationships get strengthened, trust is built,
and people learn how to functionally work together towards a common goal; and

- effective public participation where the local community forms part of the decision-making process is more likely to accept or support government decisions that members of the local community helped make.

Although public participation has clear advantages and benefits as mentioned above, public participation as a phenomenon does not exclude challenges that are associated with the process. Factors and challenges that influence public participation will be highlighted in the next section.

2.3.4 Factors and challenges influencing public participation

Kosecik and Sagnasos (2004:360) along with many other academics suggest that there are a number of factors and challenges which influence public participation. These factors and challenges include the following:

- Attitudinal factors to public participation: According to Kosecik and Sagnasos (2004:360), the importance of human attitudes toward local government is vital in order to ensure effective public participation in local government activities. Suzanne, Gregy and Van Ryzin (2007:306) add that a positive attitude toward local government influences public participation in local government affairs. Suzanne, Gregy and Van Ryzin (2007:306) suggest that as local governments become increasingly significant and important in the local community’s everyday lives, investigating and analysing public attitude toward local government becomes vital for the success of future local government projects and programs. Aldasher (2003:79) is of the opinion that public participation is a social behaviour, while Rishi (2003:345) adds that “human attitude” as a factor is a central element in human behaviour and argues that attitude is imperative for bringing about social change of behaviour. According to Rishi (2003:345), people’s social actions are directed by their attitudes. Rishi further adds that if people’s attitude toward an event such as public participation is positive, it is more likely that people’s behaviour would be shaped in a more meaningful way. Thus, Rishi (2003:345) suggests that if citizens have a positive attitude towards local government, it is more likely that the local community would support the local government programmes and projects as well as participating more in local government initiatives. Moreover, according to Ledingham and Bruning (2000:94), the local community will tend to participate in local government activities when people perceive that the local government is providing some form of benefits for local people or acting in the best interest of the local community.
• Trust factors: According to Putnam (1995:65), it is of utmost importance that public institutions teach members that serve the public as well as the local community to trust and practise solidarity as well as cooperation. Putnam (1995:66) argues that the human characteristic known as trust will encourage people to willingly accept and fulfil some or all of the decisions made by government. According to Putman (1995:70), an individual's involvement in political processes such as public participation largely depends on the motivation to get involved and trusting that his/her action will be profitable and beneficial to the local community. Fordham et al. (2009:8) suggest that the element of trust is vital to public participation and acknowledges the need either to build trust towards local governance or to overcome its absence in order to influence and encourage public participation on a large scale. Dasgupta (2000:49) is also of the opinion that “trust is central to all government transactions”.

• Education factors: According to Putnam (1995:78) and Edwards (2005:12), the calls for increased public participation by government and local community's is generally influenced by a better educated local community. According to Edwards (2005:12) a more demanding local community, expresses a declining level of trust in the politicians and the political institutions. Edwards (2005:12) adds that distrust is usually expressed in demands for more public engagement of the local community with meaningful exchanges with government beyond the traditional democratic processes of three or four year elections cycles. According to John (2009:36), the education level of the local community has a significant link to the level of public participation experienced in communities. Thus, ensuring effective and efficient public participation is challenging depending on the educational dynamics of various communities. Ahmad et al (2005:9) add that education often enhances local community awareness of governance projects and programmes as well as how to engage the governance system. Joshi and Houtzager (2012:145) suggest that the more a community and its citizenry became educated, the more people engaged in public participation duties like budget formulation. Similarly, Joshi and Houtzager (2012:150) argue that education has a high positive correlation with the public's engagement in local governance. Mwenda (2010:8) adds that community literacy and levels of education affect the public's ability to express interests in governance and the lack of sufficient education particularly in marginalized communities, hampers the flow of information throughout a community, thus resulting in low levels of public participation.

The next section will focus on public participation within a local government context which is central to the theme of this study.
2.4 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

According to Draai and Taylor (2009:5), the purpose of local government is administrative as well as representative in nature. Its administrative purpose is to ensure that local communities are supplied with goods and services. As far as its representative purpose is concerned, it is expected that it involves the local community in determining specific local public needs and how these local needs should be addressed. Thus, in order to achieve the fundamental purpose of local government, attention needs to be brought to the relationship between the local sphere of government and its structures (i.e. municipalities) and public participation.

According to Mafunisa (2004:65), local government is known as the third level of government which was deliberately created to bring government to the grass-roots population and give local community’s a sense of involvement and ownership of political processes and decision-making that controls the local community’s daily lives. Friedman (2004:7) adds that local democracy in essence supports a political system in which eligible community members have the opportunity to participate actively not only in determining the individuals who governs the affairs of the local community, but also in shaping the policy, programmes and projects that government produces. Williams (2007:16) contributes by stating that the manifestation of a government is usually determined in free and fair elections supervised and managed by an independent electoral body. Friedman (2004:8) suggests that democracy emphasizes the need for local community members’ participation in the affairs of government which is vital to the democratic process.

Draai and Taylor (2009:12) indicate that local government democracy in the local government sphere should entail the allocation and distribution of public goods according to the preferences and needs of the people. Van der Waldt (2010:4) further adds that for “grassroots democracy to materialise, the public needs to be given some role in this process and this role is usually defined in democratic structures, political culture and participatory processes” such as community policing forums (CPFs) which are more specific to this study.

2.4.1 The significance of local government

According to Naudé (2001:24), the existence of local government is crucial to the democratic process in intensifying mass participation in the decision-making process of government. Mawood (1983:66) adds that it can be argued that no political system is considered to be complete and democratic if it does not have a system of local government. Friedman (2004:46) and Ball (1995:78) suggest that the system of local government embodies the following core elements:

- Serves as a training ground for mass political education: According to Friedman (2004:46), the system of local government serves as an opportunity
for local communities to learn from and engage with public officials, thus public participation can serve as a training ground for mass political education and mobilisation. Ball (1995:78) adds that local town meetings that are utilised to discuss public affairs can be an opportunity to bring public policy, projects and programmes within the people’s reach. This teaches local community members the various processes of government. Ball (1995:79) suggests that a principal objective of local government is that it should strengthen political understanding among members of the local community. The local community can learn to recognize processes of government and avoid electing the incompetent or corrupt representative. Ball (1995:80) is of the view that the mere existence of local government will not automatically lead to the development of a political educated local community where members are political aware and conscious. Therefore, Friedman (2004:46) clarifies that intensive political mobilisation and public participation must be introduced by government institutions to initiate active and meaningful political involvement, this will enable local community members to see the usefulness of local government and the vital role community members play in the process of decision making. Thus, this specific study aims to focus on recommendations for an effective public participation strategy.

• Training ground for political leadership: According to Ball (1995:78) local government is essential as it provides local community members a platform for training in political leadership, especially for community members who intend to venture into the arena of local, provincial and national politics. Friedman (2004:52) adds that if members of parliament were required by law to serve three years on a local body, parliamentarians would gain experience so necessary to success. Ball (1995:78) argues that there is some merit in this way of thinking, but it cannot be logically argued that parliamentarians with some experience in local government politics are better national parliamentarians than those without it, although Friedman (2004:53) suggests that there is no doubt that participation in local government politics provides an opportunity for members to gain experience in the mechanics and process of politics such as the process of budgeting and policy making.

• Facilitates government accountability: Local government can be viewed generally as a defence mechanism against absolute power by national or provincial government as it is a means whereby an unhealthy concentration of power at the centre is prevented (Ball, 1995:85). Friedman (2004:52) adds that local government, discourages the centralization of power and, in this regard Ball (1995:86) is of the view that there is some truth in the proposition that local democracy provides for greater accountability. Ball (1995:86) clarifies that the processes involved in local government make accountability more meaningful because of the elective elements linking politicians and local community members. The political activities involved in local government just
to mention a few include local elections, municipal policy debates, political pressure from community members, publicity and general public debate, all these helps close the gap between the local community members and the administration who also are responsible for providing opportunities for public participation, this of course increase accountability and transparency.

The above-mentioned elements form a crucial part of the need for the existence of local government. It becomes clear that the purpose of local government is furthermore strengthened when these elements are institutionalised in the praxis of municipalities.

2.4.2 Characteristics of local government

The conceptualisation of local government as well as the various elements of local government pinpointed earlier makes it clear that there are certain characteristics on which the systems of local government are based. According to Atkinson (2002:45) and Manor (2000:56), some of local governments most important characteristics are as follows:

- **Geographical area of jurisdiction:** A local government municipality has a particular area of jurisdiction (Atkinson, 2002:45). This area can be termed as a city, a town or a village. The territorial and governance limits of a municipality are determined by the Constitution (1996) as well as various regulatory frameworks of national government which are subject to changes from time to time through legislation (Atkinson, 2002:45).

- **Local authority:** The administration of a particular local municipality is governed by an authority or body of persons (i.e. council) who are elected by the people residing in the municipality’s particular geographical area (Atkinson, 2002:45). The authority which involves the elected public representatives of the people is responsible for the public management of local affairs in that specific geographical area (Atkinson, 2002:45).

- **Service delivery:** Service delivery is considered to be one of local government’s primary objectives which involves providing specific services to the local community at their door-steps (Manor, 2000:56). The provision of these services ensures the healthy living of local community members. These services are specifically meant for those inhabitants who are living in restricted rural areas for which the local government municipality is responsible. Service delivery ensures that local community members’ physical, economic, social and cultural well-being is ensured and maintained (Manor, 2000:56).
Finance: In order for the local municipality to perform its functions effectively, it is necessary that it is provided with adequate finances to carry out effective and efficient services to the local community (Atkinson, 2002:56). The services provided to community members are largely financed by revenue raised locally. Local community members are required to pay taxes and other service charges imposed by the particular local authority (Atkinson, 2002:56). Therefore, local community members are encouraged to participate in ensuring that rates and taxes are payed in order for the local municipality to carry out everyday services.

Participation: The success or failure of developmental programmes or project plans at a local level depends upon the active public participation of local community members for whom these plans are made (Atkinson, 2002:56). It is the responsibility of local government to provide community members an opportunity to participate in the administration of the municipality (Atkinson, 2002:56).

Accountability: Municipalities which are created to provide service delivery at grass root levels are accountable to the local community members for any actions taken on behalf of them by political representatives (i.e. councillors) (Manor, 2000:56). The residents of a local area keep a watch on local authorities to ensure effective performance of municipal functions. If a local body becomes inefficient and is not in a position to provide satisfactory services to the people, it faces severe criticism from local residents which have an opportunity to engage local officials through public participation mechanics (Manor, 2000:56).

The above-mentioned significance of local government as well as characteristics of local government suggests that there are various forms of public participation at a local government level. According to Bekker (1996:56), “any claim to the existence of democracy where public participation is not present, cannot be deemed a true democracy”. Mawood (1983: 66) adds that it can be argued that “no political system is considered to be complete and democratic if it does not have a system of local government”. Therefore, it is important to understand the interface between local government and public participation which is a central theme in this specific study.

2.5 STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PUBLIC PARTICIPATION WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND SAPS

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 contains the most important “rules” of South Africa’s democratic political system. It protects the rights of the
people inside the Republic, and it explains South Africans obligations and rights, it
defines government institutions powers, and how they may use their powers in order
to benefit criticizes. This does not exclude public participation which is vital to
government success in carrying out its roles and responsibilities. Public participation
has become permanently entrenched in South African legislation as part as
Government’s quest to serve the people of South Africa effectively.

As mentioned earlier, this chapter aims to highlight the most important legislation in
South Africa that has created a framework environment for the involvement of local
community members in the affairs of the municipality, more specifically CPFs which
are the focus of this study. Legislation (i.e. statutory framework) and other regulatory
prescripts governing public participation with particular reference to SAPS will be
analysed below.

2.5.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996)

In terms of chapter 1, section 2 and 3 of the Constitution, it is the highest law of the
land and everyone will be bound by it. Furthermore, any laws that go against the
Constitution will be amended or set aside. Section 3 of the Constitution states that all
South Africans are equal and have a right and privilege of being a citizen of the
country. Everyone also has duties, obligations and responsibilities of being a citizen
of South Africa. In this respect, the Constitution provides for public participation in
order to encourage citizen duties, obligations and responsibilities through various
sections and subsections. Provisions of the Constitution that enable public
participation are particularly found in Section 151(3)(4), which recognises local
government as a significant sphere of government, which is found at grassroots
levels, closest to the local community. Section 152(1) states that the objectives of
local government are as follows:

- to ensure service delivery to the local communities is done in an effective,
efficient and sustainable manner; as well as
- to encourage public participation of the local community, community
organisations and interest groups in matters of the local government.

Furthermore, regarding public participation, Section 160(4) of the Constitution states
that no municipal by-law may be passed by a municipal council, unless the proposal
thereof has been published for public comment and engagement. This in essence is
public participation, which is encouraged as a democratic value for good
governance.

In terms of Section 160(7), which upholds the values of public participation states
that municipalities are required to conduct municipal and public affairs in an open
and transparent manner and that municipal sittings may only be closed when
information is deemed to be of a sensitive nature, thus municipal officials should conduct municipal sittings in a reasonable manner. Therefore, Section 160(7) suggests that municipalities should ultimately include local community members in the activities carried out by municipal officials.

As far as community safety and CPFs are concerned, Chapter 11, Section 206 of the Constitution stipulates that the SAPS needs to mobilise local community members in order to ensure that the fight against crime is successful. Section 206 suggests that it is obligatory and therefore binding according to legislation that the SAPS involve the local community in police activities that are carried out within the local community. This implies a community policing approach which gives rise to the formation of CPFs. A community policing approach gives effect to ensuring that public participation takes place within the local community regarding the safety of community members.

2.5.2 The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995

The South African Police Service plays a vital role in maintaining law and order as well as ensuring community members’ safety. In order to combat crime effectively and effectively, SAPS is required to engage local community members regarding issues related to crime within society. Therefore, according to the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, Section 15(b), SAPS will have to:

- uphold, defend and protect the fundamental rights of every South African as stated in chapter 2 of the Constitution; as well as
- ensure effective and efficient co-operation between the SAPS and the local communities in the combating of crime.

Section 15(b) stipulates that SAPS and local communities should cooperate. This emphasizes public participation as a priority in the fight against crime within local communities. Furthermore, in terms of Section 18(1) of the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, the SAPS is obligated to work alongside community members through the establishment of CPFs. Section 18(1) outlines the fundamental objectives of CPFs as follows:

- establishing and maintaining a working partnership between the local community and the SAPS;
- promoting effective communication channels between the police and the local community;
- promoting shared co-operation between the SAPS and the local community in fulfilling community members’ policing needs as well as ensuring safety;
- through the use of CPFs, SAPS aims to improve policing on a national, provincial, and local level;
• engaging local community members on issues regarding crime within the community will help SAPS in improving transparency and accountability of the SAPS to the community; and
• to introduce joint problem identification and problem solving by the SAPS and local community.

The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 makes it fundamentally clear that partnership and cooperation between the SAPS and local community members is vital in the fight against crime as well as provides objectives and procedural guidelines to ensuring the success of CPFs. Section 23(1)(a) deals more specifically with procedural elements of CPFs and suggests that members of the CPF need to be elected as representative members who also engage and cooperate with local community members. This emphasizes the importance of public participation regarding the overall success of the SAPS and CPFs in combating crime within local communities.

2.5.3 Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998

The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 ensures that municipal structures are put into place in order to provide for social and economic development on a grass root level. This includes the establishment of various public participation structures and mechanisms in order to foster and maintain a healthy local democracy. In terms of Chapter 3, Section 19 of the Municipal Structures Act which the objectives of a municipality regarding public participation can be summarized as follows:

• on an annual basis, the needs of the community must be brought to the attention of the municipal council;
• the municipality is obliged to consider and prioritize the needs of the community;
• the municipality’s formal processes for ensuring public participation and involving the community in decision-making processes;
• the municipality must establish mechanisms and functions to ensure that the needs of the community are met;
• the municipality’s must evaluate its overall performance in achieving its objectives in meeting the needs of the community; and
• the municipality must first engage the local community before drafting the municipal budget.

It becomes clear that the Act prioritizes public participation in ensuring that municipalities have a legislative obligation on reviewing and ensuring that public participation is indeed a function carried out by municipal councils moreover,
Chapter 4 of the Act, suggests that public participation in public affairs is of utmost importance as public involvement is a legislative requirement relating to the daily operations of various municipal structures. It goes on to emphasize community participation and consultation as vital elements of local democracy. Section 81 of the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 goes further to highlight the Act’s prioritisation of public participation and stipulates that the participation of traditional leaders should be involved in the processes of local government. In essence, this specific Act places a legislative obligation for municipalities to promote community participation on a grassroots level.

2.5.4 The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provides for fundamental objectives relating to active public engagement in municipal affairs, more specifically in the planning and organising of service delivery and performance management of municipal officials that all require input from the local community.

In this regard, Section 32 of the Act states that community structures should allow community members to contribute to the planning of service delivery and performance management. The Act places great emphasis on municipal council providing systems, mechanisms and processes for public participation of local community members in the running of municipal affairs. Moreover, Chapter 4, Section 16(1) of the Act provides more specifically for public participation stating that municipalities have an obligation to the local community to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements a system of participatory governance on a local level. In order to achieve a municipal culture that favours community participation a municipality needs to implement the following in accordance with the Act:

- implement and review a municipal integrated development planning (IDP);
- establish, implement and review municipal performance management system to fall in line with municipalities public participation objectives and;
- prepare municipal budget that favours public participation

In order to achieve a municipal culture that favours community participation a municipality needs to implement the above-mentioned in order to achieve full public participation in accordance with the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000.

Furthermore, Chapter 17, Section 17(1) highlights the various channels community members can utilize for community participation purposes. In terms of the Act participation by citizens in the affairs of the municipality must take place through:

- formal political party structures who can communicate with local authorities,
• mechanisms, processes and procedures already established by the municipality in terms of the Act for public participation; and
• local councillors can bring local community issues to the attention of the municipality.

In terms of Section 18(2) provision has also been made for communication with local community members who are communities not able to deal with local authorities such as community members who cannot write or speak, therefore marginalized groups within municipalities are also taken into consideration, thus ensuring that every community members is involved in public participation processes. It becomes clear that the Act prioritizes public participation ensuring that no community member is excluded from participation.

2.5.5 The Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003

In order to ensure public participation is a priority for municipalities across South Africa and is indeed effective in terms of implementing public participation processes, municipal finances need to provide for public participation. It is true that without finances to support public engagement, public participation would simply remain an ideal principle of democracy. Therefore, the Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 is specifically designed to govern local government finances, more specifically of municipalities to ensure that transparency and accountability are maintained as well as stating key responsibilities of the municipality, such as the municipality’s obligation to maintain a committed relationship towards aligned the municipal budget and municipalities integrated development plan in accordance with Section 21 of the Act. According to Section 21 of the Act in order to ensure sustainable development throughout the local community the municipal budget should complement the municipalities integrated development plan which should be reviewed on an annual basis.

In terms of the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, a municipality should first engage with local community members before the drafting of a budget is finalized and eventually accepted by the municipal council, and it is important that public participation is carried out at this stage before drafting a budget so that the needs and desires of the local community are taken into account. Therefore, the Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 in terms of Section 21 as well as the Municipal Structures Act of 117 of 1998 Chapter 3, Section 19 in terms of budgeting work jointly in encouraging the local community members to participate in the drafting of the municipal budget as well as encouraging participation in drafting of municipalities’ integrated development plans, thus municipalities have the ultimate responsibility of aligning municipal budgets with municipal integrated development plan, which both processes have involved public participation.
2.5.6 White Paper on Local Government (1998)

The White Paper on local Government 1998 is considered to be a regulatory framework which often draws its inspiration from statutory frameworks, although regulatory frameworks provide more details, guidelines, principles and strategies in order to operationalise government institutions objectives.

This White Paper on Local Government can be considered to be a smaller version of the Constitution where focus is placed on the governance of local government as services rendered by local government affect all South Africans at the grass-root level. Therefore, local government is the sphere of government that interacts closest with community members and is ultimately tasked with delivering vital services that are essential to community members as well as responsible for community participation that is effective and efficient. The White Paper on Local Government identifies the following aspects as key to the success of local government:

- The White Paper identifies the concept of “developmental local government”. According to Van der Waldt (2015:18), a developmental state can be broadly defined as a “state that has economic development as the top priority of government policy” and therefore ultimately forms part and parcel of government policies and institutions which promote economic development. Van der Waldt (2015:18) adds that the state must have the capacity to control its territory as well as have the capacity to forge an enabling environment for government to design and deliver policy objectives. Therefore, government introduces statutory and regulatory prescripts such as The White Paper on Local Government that stipulates that a developmental local government can be defined as a “local government that is committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find meaningful ways to meet community members social, economic and material needs” (White Paper on Local Government of 1998:17). This suggests that government prioritises public engagements and consultation on a local level. Subban and Theron (2011:98) are of the view that local development and participation are indeed intertwined concepts.

- The White Paper identified municipal councils as a central role-player in promoting local democracy. This means that municipal councils which are public representatives are vital to local democracy as well as ensuring that local programmes and projects involve community members throughout the public participation process. Therefore, municipal councils have a legal obligation in terms of various Acts of parliament mentioned earlier, that provides for fundamental objectives relating to active public engagement in municipal affairs, more specifically in the planning and organizing of service delivery.
The White paper identifies the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) as vital to the success of local government. As mentioned earlier, the IDP encourages the local community members to participate in the drafting of the municipal budget as well as encouraging participation in drafting of municipalities IDP. Thereafter, the municipalities have the ultimate responsibility of aligning municipal budgets with municipal IDP, which both processes have involved public participation.

2.5.7 White Paper on Safety and Security (1998)

In the new democratic South Africa, the South African Police Service through a period of transition called for a demand for accountable, effective and efficient service-oriented policing. Therefore, the White Paper on Safety and Security shortly after the dawn of democracy called for the police service to focus on crime prevention and policing in the new democracy as well as introducing strategic areas for intervention with local community members in the fight against crime. The White Paper identified key areas for engaging community members, and they are as follows:

- Crime prevention: Crime prevention interventions in the White Paper entail a data-driven learning process aimed at improving analysis of the causes of crime within local communities. This enables, the SAPS to gain information on specific types of crime; existing law enforcement and preventive responses to specific crime types within a specific area. Retrieving this type of information needs public engagements. Furthermore, the development of sound policies and strategies to reduce crimes and continuous public participation will help the fight against crime and ultimately prevent crime. A crime prevention approach aims to take pro-active measures in enhance public participation where citizens and other stakeholders are encouraged to participate in the activities aimed at preventing crime.

- Effective law enforcement through CPFs: The SAPS, in setting joint priorities and objectives in conjunction with CPFs have played a valuable role in ensuring greater co-operation with the SAPS at local level. CPFs co-operate with SAPS by jointly setting crime prevention priorities and agreeing upon strategies to ensure their implementation as well as identifying flashpoints, crime patterns and community anti-crime priorities. Communicating essential crime prevention information to the SAPS is vital to the success of effective law enforcement, therefore, it is essential that CPFs and the SAPS work jointly in mobilising and organising community engagements where public participation can lead to crime prevention within local communities.
2.5.8 National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), 1996

Crime as a phenomenon hampers South Africans from all walks of life by preventing them from taking part in the development and growth of South Africa economy due to the fear of crime. Therefore, government regards the prevention of crime as a national priority that applies to all organs of state including departments concerned with security and justice as well as all other national departments which are able to make a contribution to a reduction in crime levels. The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) recognises that crime in South Africa is indeed a social phenomenon that requires intervention, the NCPS recognises crime is a problem requiring not only a detailed explanation but also remedial action.

The NCPS has identified key objectives that are required in order to combat crime through the use of public participation, they are as follows:

- The establishment of a comprehensive policy framework which will enable government to address crime in a co-ordinated and focused manner which draws on the resources of all government agencies including the citizens;
- the promotion of a shared understanding and common vision of how South Africa as a nation will tackle crime; and
- the maximisation of public participation in mobilising and sustaining crime prevention initiatives (Department of Safety and Security, 1996).

It becomes evident from the NCPS objectives regarding public participation mentioned above, that public involvement in the combating of crime is a government priority. The NCPS is clearly an approach developed by government that calls for the development of wider responsibility and where citizen’s involvement in crime prevention is key. There is a clear shift towards a proactive approach of crime prevention where most government resources are committed to crime prevention which sole purpose is preventing crime through the use of public involvement.

2.5.9 White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997)

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS), places an emphasis on the transformation of service delivery which is key to effective and efficient services delivered to all the people of South Africa. The WPTPS suggests that improving service delivery is the ultimate goal of the public service transformation programme. The ultimate purpose of the WPTPS is to provide a regulatory policy framework as well as an operational implementation strategy for the transformation of public service delivery. This White Paper is primarily concerned with how public services are delivered to the South African population and more specifically about improving the dynamics of efficiency and effectiveness of the overall services rendered.
The WPTPS has therefore, introduced an approach to service delivery that is for the people of South Africa, as the approach concerns, procedures, attitudes and behaviour within the public service. This brought about the introduction of the *Batho Pele* principles which emphasize “putting people first”. The *Batho Pele* principles are as follows:

- **Consultation**: Citizens with this principle suggest that South Africans should be consulted about the level and quality of the public services they receive and, wherever possible, should be given a choice about the services that are offered.
- **Service standards**: Citizens with this principle should be told what level and quality of public service they will receive from government.
- **Access**: All citizens with this principle should have equal access to the public services as stated in statutory and regulatory prescriptions.
- **Courtesy**: Citizens with this principle should be treated with courtesy and consideration by public servants, thus emphasizing “people first”.
- **Information**: Citizens with this principle should be given adequate information about the public services they are receiving.
- **Openness and transparency**: Citizens with this principle should be made aware of the dynamics of national and provincial departments, as well as how they are run, how much they cost and who is leading the various departments.
- **Redress**: This principle requires that if the set standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, the principle also states that full explanations and an effective remedy for problems should be found. Citizens should receive a sympathetic, positive response from government departments.
- **Value for money**: The public services with this principle should be providing services to the public in the most economically and efficient, value for money manner.

It is evident from the above *Batho Pele* principles that government does indeed prioritize the people whom they serve on every level of government. Therefore, it is clear that public participation is vital to the success of government and the services which are rendered.

### 2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided legislative, theoretical and conceptual knowledge of public participation, with specific reference to the local government context in which it occurs. Furthermore, definitions and problems with regards to public participation were explored and analysed. The chapter has highlighted various mechanisms and
methods on how public participation can be enhanced as well as enhancing the chances of the SAPS to carry out its constitutional mandate.

The chapter has further revealed the significance of public participation and its vital role in the overall effectiveness of democracy and good governance. Public participation advantages and challenges were brought to light and more specifically public participation on a local level was explored and linked to CPFs which are the focus of this study.

This chapter has also dealt with various statutory prescripts as binding obligations on government and SAPS to prioritize public participation and more specifically CPFs. From the highest law of the land the Constitution (1996), it becomes clear that public participation is indeed a legislative obligation for every government institution to implement.

In the next chapter, community policing will be analysed as well as a number of findings and conclusions through the use of international and national best practices, which are all aimed at introducing recommendations aimed at developing a public participation strategy with regards to CPFs.
CHAPTER 3
CHANGING POLICING PARADIGMS: INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL PRACTICES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of chapter two was to explore the various phenomena that surround public participation such as its applications, statutory prescripts, and dimensions, with specific reference to local government. Furthermore, definitions and problems with regards to public participation were uncovered. The main purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical and conceptual overview of the dynamic nature of community policing paradigms, including the application of these paradigms based on an analyses of international and national best practices. This theoretical and conceptual overview of policing paradigms will serve as a holistic perspective to analyse the nature of community policing, and the role of CPFs within the SAPS philosophy. Moreover, this analysis will place CPFs within a public participation framework, where the ultimate purpose is to bring about recommendations towards a public participation strategy in promoting public participation in CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

In terms of Sections 205 and 206 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 emphasis is placed on the SAPS prioritising the fight against crime through a community policing paradigm that will foster crime prevention initiatives as well as ensuring the safety and security of local communities. As such, Section 206 of the Constitution (1996) more specifically places an obligation on the SAPS to operationalise a community policing approach aimed at establishing fruitful local community relationships with the SAPS where community members have a sense of ownership of initiatives aimed at improving their safety and security.

3.2 COMMUNITY POLICING: A THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In chapter two of this study various conceptual and theoretical clarifications highlighted public participation from different perspectives. However, it is necessary to also explore the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of community policing as it is a central theme to the study and also to explore the interface between public participation and community policing.

According to Trojanowicz and Buequeroux (1990:5), community policing can be defined as a new philosophy of policing, which places emphasis on community and police partnerships that embrace creative ways in order to solve community problems related to crime. For Hupe and Hill (2007:294) community policing means
that law enforcement agencies develop community partnerships that agree on common aims and objectives that will address crime-related issues within a community. Furthermore, Oliver (1998:32) states that community policing can be defined in terms of three common elements namely, police-community partnerships, a problem-solving approach, and organisational decentralisation. Also Bayley (1994:12) and Bratton (1996:781) add that community policing can be defined in terms of key elements including partnership, consultation, adaptation, mobilisation, problem-solving, and crime prevention. These elements will receive further attention later in this chapter.

Recent years saw a gradual shift in the philosophy of policing. This shift represents a new paradigm in policing, from conventional policing practices towards a community-based approach. In this regard Oliver (1998:51) states that community policing as new paradigm is an approach that focuses on fostering a sense of “community” in policing styles. Oliver (1998:51) concurs and further adds that community policing mainly focuses on the following three aspects, namely:

- the redistribution of traditional police resources to community policing approaches;
- the interaction and involvement of police and community members in the combating of crime and the fear of crime through proactive programmes; and
- a concerted effort to proactively tackle the causes of crime rather than merely reacting or responding to crime.

It becomes evident that the key focus of community policing is on community-police partnerships, joint problem-solving, and police transformation (Oliver and Bartgis, 1998:51). The purpose of these three key elements is to foster positive and active interaction between the police and community, resulting in effective crime prevention. These three key elements are briefly highlighted below:

- Community partnerships: According to Oliver and Bartgis (1998:51), partnerships between law enforcement agencies, community members and other interest groups generally serve to develop practical solutions to crime-related problems and ultimately increases trust in the police. Oliver and Bartgis (1998:51) continue to add that community policing can rarely solve public safety issues on their own. Therefore, community policing encourages interactive partnerships with various stakeholders. According to Mastrowski, Worden and Snipes (1995:540), communities should play an active role in prioritising and addressing public safety problems. They therefore suggest that a community and police partnership should be more than simple consultation, but rather a joint endeavour to collectively decide on the best course of action as far as crime prevention is concerned. Mastrowski, Worden and Snipes (1995:540) add that a partnership relates not only to decision-
making, but also to the implementation and evaluation of decisions made. It is vital to the success of such a partnership that mutual communication channels between the police and the community are established and maintained. Such communication channels should also enable community feedback regarding crime conditions and the effectiveness of policing interventions.

- Problem-solving: According to Oliver (1998:51), problem-solving in a community policing context refers to joint “proactive and systematic examination of identifying community-related problems to ultimately develop and evaluate effective responses”. Oliver (1998:51) suggests that community policing emphasizes proactive problem-solving in a systematic and routine fashion that deals with the causes of crime and not the after effects of crime. This, according to Friedmann (2000:6), makes community policing significant. Therefore, rather than responding to crime only after it occurs, community policing encourages community members and the police to actively engage and develop solutions to the conditions that typically lead to criminal activities.

- Organisational transformation: According to Oliver (1998:51), organisational transformation is vital to the success of community policing. Organisational transformation refers to the adjustment and alignment of police management praxis, organisational structures and culture, human resources, policing infrastructure and assets, as well as information systems to support a partnership with communities in crime-fighting solutions. Oliver and Bartgis (1998:51) add that organisational transformation should also be aimed at the realignment of the police philosophy and culture towards community policing as well as the restructuring of police departments around community participation. Therefore, community policing requires a paradigm shift by transforming policing culture and practices entirely.

It is evident that community policing aims to strengthen partnerships between law enforcement agencies and community members as well as any other stakeholders that could contribute to developing practical solutions to community-based crime problems.

According to Friedmann (2000:6), the criminalisation or decriminalisation of an act carried out by citizens reflects what societies at large will or will not tolerate. Friedmann (2000:6) adds that the criminalisation of individuals' behaviour and acts within society specifies who the victim of a crime is as well as who the perpetrator of a crime is. Friedmann (2000:6) is of the view that combating crime before the actual offence takes place is where the significance of community policing lies. In this regard, Friedmann (2000:6) suggests that a “Social Structural Theory” of community policing should be applied since it represents an approach that requires citizens to take responsibility of controlling crime within their local communities by reporting crime-related incidences or any suspicious behaviour to the police. This approach to
crime prevention does not only engage police in a traditional manner (reactive, post facto) but also pro-actively co-operate with and participating in policing decisions. Lombardo and Lough (2007:122) add that Social Structural Theory suggests that certain community police programmes, policing projects, and community meetings can be mechanisms for encouraging citizen and police co-operation where crime is found to be a serious issue. Community meetings, programmes and projects can enable citizens to contribute to maintaining social control (i.e. "social structure") within their communities.

According to Lombardo and Lough (2007:122), two additional theoretical approaches that underpin community policing are the “Broken Windows Theory” and the “Community Implant Theory”. Lombardo and Lough (2007:122) point out the “Broken Windows Theory”, originally introduced in 1982 by James Wilson and George Kelling, is based on the idea that “if a window in a building is broken and left unrepairsed, all the rest of the windows will soon be broken as well”. This suggests that a single window forms part of a bigger frame of windows. Therefore, if one is left unrepairsed the rest of the windows will soon be broken. With this analogy, James Wilson and George Kelling place emphasis on the fact that when a single crime-related incident is not addressed, soon it will have a knock-on effect resulting in an entire community becoming vulnerable to criminality. Lombardo and Lough (2007:122) add that a lack of community involvement in crime related issues and failure to co-operate with the police can ultimately lead to a community being vulnerable to crime, thus making it important that communities take ownership of their safety and security. Lombardo and Lough (2007:123) maintain that the application of Broken Windows Theory can be a driving force in community policing programmes, simply because of the belief that unattended unacceptable human behaviour may lead to the breakdown of community controls, thus leading to crime.

According to Lombardo and Lough (2007:122), “Community Implant Theory” is based on the assumption that the cause of high levels of crime within communities are the lack of informal social controls (i.e. CPFs). Community Implant Theory suggests that community members should actively participate in programmes that ensure collective (i.e. “implanted”) responses in combating crime. According to Lombardo and Lough (2007:122), it is of utmost importance that informal social control mechanisms are implanted in a community where collective citizen action can address crime-related issues. In this regard, Mastrowski, Worden and Snipes (1995:22) argue that Community Implant Theory places a premium on “community building”. Mastrowski, Worden and Snipes (1995:22) state that community building can be regarded as a process by which police strengthens the capacity of community members to resist crime by building positive relationships with them. Lyons (1999:45) supports this notion and adds that innovative police strategies that help strengthen community capacity in the fight against crime such as educational and occupational opportunities, can mobilise the informal mechanisms of social
control (i.e. Social Structure Theory) within communities to facilitate a safer environment for all residences.

According to Bayley (2006:298), another theory that is applicable to the success of community policing is “Democratic Theory”. This Theory is premised on the fundamental principles of participatory democracy and suggests that government is always accountable to the people they serve. Therefore, government institutions that exercise authority (i.e. police) on behalf of the community are ultimately accountable to the community for the exercise of that authority. The Democratic Theory of community policing furthermore involves the empowerment of community members and civil society organisations to work with the police, thus installing a sense of ownership over safety and security initiative. Bayley (2006:298) adds that Democratic Theory also highlights the legitimacy of a democratic government largely depends on the compliance of citizens regarding laws, policies and norms. To this Ramaswamy (2004:407) contributes by stating that Democratic Theory also has a strong correlation with the ideas of deliberative democracy. Ramaswamy (2004:407) argues that a deliberative democracy is a system that deliberates with citizens to such an extent that the decisions reached are done through open and transparent discussions with citizens where government is tasked with making final decisions that reflects the citizens’ needs and demands. Therefore, a deliberative democracy’s decisions are taken as a consensus where it values all points of view and finally reaches a decision. Heywood (2004:74) adds that similar to deliberative democracy a developmental model of democracy is concerned with the development of human individual and the community at large. A developmental democracy emphasizes that citizens are free only when they participate directly in the shaping of their communities (Heywood 2004:74). Thus, the Democratic Theory overall suggests that community policing should be based on the idea that the more members of a community are involved in the democratic process regarding their safety and security, the more the likelihood of the realisation and maintenance of peaceful and orderly life. This Theory reinforces the idea that policing will be more effective and efficient if it has the support of, and input from, the local community.

The theories analysed above make it clear that community policing has the capacity to solve the problems of criminal behaviour within communities by handling the problem at the inception stages, thus before the crime is actually committed or before further crime continues to manifest within communities. Moreover, the various theories suggest that through the use of appropriate community participation, cooperation and effective community programmes that involve the community at various stages of decision making, planning and implementation of the programmes for the protection of the community can lead to rooting out crime within communities.
3.2.1 Dimensions and elements of community policing

According to Cordner (2010:432), in order to assess community policing in full, it is helpful to identify four major dimensions thereof as well as the most common elements associated with each dimension. The four dimensions identified are the philosophical, strategic, tactical and the organisational dimensions. Each dimension is briefly highlighted below.

3.2.1.1 Philosophical dimensions

According to Cordner (2010:432), community policing is a new philosophy of policing, considered as a paradigm shift away from a professional ideology of policing and not just a particular programme. Likewise, Oliver (1998:51) adds that community policing is a policing approach that sees a shift towards a new paradigm that focuses on fostering a sense of community in policing styles, within a particular geographical area. The philosophical dimension of community policing includes ideas and beliefs that underlie community policing. According to Cordner (2010:432), three of the most important elements of the philosophical dimension are citizen input, broad function, and personal service. Citizen input of community policing suggests that policing needs a firm commitment to citizen participation and input into police policies and priorities as well as police decision making. The broad functioning of community policing recognizes that policing is indeed a broad function carried out by police departments. Therefore, the job of police officers on the ground requires working with citizens to enhance community safety (Cordner, 2010:433). Policing involves multiple functions that includes resolving conflicts, helping victims, preventing accidents and solving community problems, all these functions requires police involvement that works alongside community members to combat crime. Cordner (2010:434) continues to state that community policing emphasizes personal service to the public, there is a great emphasis placed on personal service due to complaints that the public service including police officers treat citizens as numbers and not real people. Therefore, personal service is required from police officers that include engaging with citizens in a friendly, open, and personal manner.

3.2.1.2 Strategic dimensions

According to Cordner (2010:434), the strategic dimension of community policing includes operational concepts that will convert community policing philosophy ideas, values and beliefs into police programmes and practical action taken by the police. The strategic dimension ensures that police policies, priorities, and resource allocation are aligned with the community policing philosophy. Oliver (1998:51) adds that the alignment of police management, structures, personnel, police assets and information systems to support a community in the fight against crime is vital to producing effective solutions that will combat crime. According to Cordner (2010:434), the three important strategic elements of community policing are re-
oriented operations, prevention emphasis, and geographic focus. Re-oriented operations of community policing place an emphasis on face-to-face interactions with local communities. The objective of re-oriented community policing is to find ways of performing traditional functions such as handling emergency calls more efficiently, in order to save time and resources that can then be devoted to more community-oriented activities that bring about effective and more interactive practices of police engaging with community members. According to Cordner (2010:434), “the prevention emphasis of community policing tries to implement the prevention of crime before crime occurs”. Oliver (1998:51) in support of this statement adds that community policing emphasizes proactive problem-solving in a systematic and routine fashion that deals with the causes of crime and not the after effectives of crime. Therefore, with a community policing philosophy, police departments’ strategy should devote resources to crime prevention that equips police officers and community members in preventing crime before it occurs.

Cordner (2010:434) states that the geographic focus of community policing should be a police strategy that places a focus on a particular geographic area that helps establish a stronger partnership between the police and community members that can increase mutual recognition, trust, transparency and accountability. Therefore, in nature community policing implies an emphasis on community that is geographic to a specific location more so than on times or functions of policing.

3.2.1.3 Tactical dimensions

According to Cordner (2010:435), the tactical dimensions of community policing are concerned with creating and establishing programmes, projects, tactics, and positive behaviour for effective and efficient community policing. Therefore, the tactical dimension is responsible for converting philosophy’s and strategies of community policing into positive tactical action. Three of the most important tactical elements of community policing, according to Cordner (2010:435), are positive interaction, partnerships, and problem solving. The positive interaction of community policing requires interactions that will benefit both the community and the police, therefore interaction that builds trust, confidence, respect for one another and support for joint crime prevention is strengthened from both sides when members of the community and police are committed to positive interactions.

Partnerships in community policing suggest that active community and police partnerships that work together in identifying and solving problems is vital to the success of community policing, moreover it is a mistake for the police to try to assume the entire role of controlling and preventing crime (Cordner, 2010:435). Oliver and Bartgis (1998:51) add that community policing can rarely solve public safety issues on their own, therefore it is important that community policing encourages interactive partnerships with various stakeholders within communities, therefore partnerships in the fight against crime will lead to the ultimate success of
crime prevention. According to Cordner (2010:435), the problem-solving element of community policing suggests that establishing a problem-solving community policing approach instead of an incident oriented approach, where crime is only dealt with after it has already occurred will enable the community and the police to deal with crime related issues before they occur. Furthermore, the police would highlight the underlying conditions that give rise to crime when conditions of crime are identified, analysed and suitable solutions are implemented that result in controlling and preventing future incidents. Oliver (1998:51) and Friedmann (2000:6) add that community policing emphasizes active problem-solving that is carried out in a routine fashion that deals with the causes of crime and not the after-effects of crime.

3.2.1.4 Organisational dimensions

According to Cordner (2010:435), organisational dimensions of community policing are concerned with the police organisational capacity to implement policing policy and a community policing approach within a community. Oliver (1998:51) adds by suggesting that the alignment of police management, structures, personnel, police assets and information systems to support a community in the fight against crime is vital to producing effective solutions that will combat crime. Therefore, in order to support a community policing approach, police departments need to transform and change police systems that will accommodate a community policing approach. The following elements of the organisational dimension are crucial to the successful implementation of community policing approaches:

- According to Cordner (2010:435), the structure of community policing looks at various ways of restructuring and transforming the police in order to facilitate and support the implementation of the philosophical, strategic, and tactical elements of community policing. It is vital that the police restructure traditional forms of policing with structures that support a community style of policing, for example the decentralization of responsibilities of the police shared with the local community will encourage a community policing style.

- Cordner (2010:435) states that the management of community policing by police departments is often association with styles of management, personality types and supervision that oversee police departments, where an emphasis should instead be placed on formal rules, procedure and disciplinary measure that encourages police officers to adopt a community policing attitude of carrying out duties and functions. Oliver and Bartgis (1998:51) add community policing that focuses on ensuring that police departments are organised and managed in such a manner that community participation and community service is at the centre of the fight against crime is vital to overall success of a community style of policing.
• Cordner (2010:435) argues that the information element of the organisational dimension concerns the managing of community information and the effective and efficient gaining of community information that is required in order for the police to gain knowledge that will lead to the prevention of crime. Moreover, a community style of policing places an emphasis on specific geographical areas that require citizen participation. The geographic focus of community policing increases the need for detailed information based on community analysis, identification of causes of crime and problem-solving that can lead to sustainable solutions.

The above-mentioned dimensions and elements of community policing contribute to the understanding of community policing from various perspectives that are vital components to the success of a community style of policing. The dimensions and elements of community policing add to the nature of the conceptual framework thereof.

3.2.2 The community policing and public participation interface

After analysing both community policing and public participation clear links can be made between the two phenomena which are central themes to this specific study. To reiterate what was mentioned earlier, Cordner (2010:432) reports that community policing is a new philosophy of policing, considered as a paradigm shift away from a professional ideology of policing and not just a particular programme. Furthermore, regarding community policing Oliver (1998:51) adds that community policing is a policing approach that sees a shift towards a paradigm that focuses on fostering a sense of community in policing styles, within a particular geographical area. Therefore, Cordner (1999:139) insists that community policing emphasizes the importance of enhanced community and police partnerships. Cordner (1999:139) suggests that the police have the responsibility of engaging the community in dealing with crime and community related issues that includes empowering the community to work jointly in the prevention of crime. On the other hand, public participation that was explored in chapter two of this study highlights that public participation can be regarded as the process by which government consults with society, interested parties, affected individuals, organisations, and other government entities before making a decision (Girma, 2012:123). Moreover, public participation is also known to be a two-way communication process between government and citizens as well as a collaborative problem-solving mechanism with the purpose of achieving representative and more acceptable decisions. It becomes evident after exploring both community policing and public participation that clear links such as prioritizing participation, partnerships, open communication, joint problem-solving and the identification of community related issues as well as community inputs are vital to the success of community policing and achieving public participation.
As analysed above, the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of community policing were explored as it is a central theme to the study as well as an explicit interface between public participation and community policing being brought to light. Furthermore, in order to describe community policing in full, four major dimensions of community policing were highlighted with each dimension analysed. The next section will focus on main advantages of a community policing paradigm.

3.3 MAIN ADVANTAGES OF A COMMUNITY POLICING PARADIGM

An extensive literature review revealed that community policing is indeed a style of policing that regards a community’s safety and security responsibilities to be a shared and joint venture between the community and the local police. In this regard Masese and Mwenzwa (2012:22) view community policing as a joint effort to enhance security within a community and as a shared responsibility of the police and the community in ensuring a safe and secure environment. Masese and Mwenzwa (2012:23) further suggest that community policing as a style of policing is known to encourage proactive partnerships with relevant stakeholders within local communities. The reason for this is that community policing recognises that the police rarely has the capacity to solve crime alone. Various partnerships and stakeholders can thus be used to strengthen policing activities and to achieve crime prevention targets. Community policing have therefore brought a range of advantages to the fore. Some of the most significant advantages or benefits are briefly highlighted below.

- **Crime prevention**: According to Skolnick and Bayley (1988:23), crime prevention benefits associated with community policing is highlighted by various scholars. Skogan (2006:27) suggests that the community’s capacity to prevent crime can be regarded as a long-term advantage that could be strengthened by encouraging communities to get involved in community safety endeavours. Cordner (1999:54) is of the view that the emphasis placed on crime prevention within community policing is more proactive than traditional policing models. The fact that community policing can be regarded as a partnership between the police and community members places the pro-active prevention of crime and security of individual property in the hands of both the community and police.

- **Partnership**: According to Cordner (1999:139), community policing emphasizes the importance of enhanced community and police partnerships. Therefore, the police have the responsibility of engaging the community in dealing with crime and community related issues that include empowering the community to work jointly with the police. Young and Tinsley (1998:45) add that the police should not take sole responsibility for crime prevention within a community, but rather act as a catalyst for community partnerships to combat crime. Segrave and Ratcliffe (2004:67) suggest that increasing the community
capacity to identify potential criminal activities enables them to mobilize and empower themselves to respond to it. An empowered community is a stronger and safer community who wants to participate in the fight against crime (Mastrowski, 2006:44).

- **Problem resolution**: According to Young and Tinsley (1998:43), a major theme highlighted in community policing literature is the resolution of crime-related problems. Community policing serves as an interactive process that involves the police and community in identifying crime-related issues and jointly developing appropriate solutions. Skolnick and Bayley (1988:34) suggest that problem resolution techniques should be uniquely developed and applied to further strengthen this advantage. Palmiotto (2000:67) emphasises in this respects the development of the necessary capacity in communities to meaningfully contribute to problem resolution endeavours.

- **Trust**: According to Segrave and Ratcliffe (2004:45), policing that works in conjunction with the community in the fight against crime enables the police to develop positive community relationship that sets the foundations for mutual trust. Palmiotto (2000:32) adds that community policing as a style of policing provides the police with the opportunity to meet the community’s needs as well as to increase the accountability and transparency of the police through community members’ participation in combating crime. According to Skogan and Steiner (2004:76), increasing police accountability and transparency of police activities and functions can have a positive impact on police and community relationships. Skogan and Steiner (2004:76) add that an increase in community trust in the police can drive down any community members’ fear of crime.

Myhill (2006:34) identifies the following benefits of community policing that will add to the number of advantages of community policing that have been mentioned earlier:

- police and community relationships and community perceptions of police are improved;
- public accountability through community participation is strengthened;
- community and police shared goals and vision are improved;
- the communities capacity to deal with crime-related issues is strengthened;
- the community is empowered to respond to community concerns;
- community attitudes towards interacting, dealing with, and solving problems with the police are improved;
- police officers’ attitudes and behaviours are more community friendly;
- police officers increase interaction with the community and have confidence in the community to combat crime;
- police and community develop positive relationships; and
community policing can result in increased job satisfaction for police officers.

While there are clear advantages and benefits of community policing as mentioned above there are also factors and challenges that hamper community policing and therefore requires further analysis.

3.4 INFLUENCING FACTORS AND CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH COMMUNITY POLICING

According to Virta (2006:23), community policing is a policing style that realizes that the fight against crime cannot be won by police agencies alone and therefore needs the community to assist in identifying and preventing crime. Clairmont (1991:471) adds that “policing from a community policing perspective requires communal involvement” both from community members that include their individual capacities to assist in the fight against crime as well as law enforcement working jointly with communities to combat crime. Moreover, the community’s involvement in combating crime can result in identifying community-related issues, address the public’s fear of crime as well as increasing the community’s trust in the police just to name a few advantages (Smartt, 2006:43). It becomes evident that community policing presents opportunities for various advantages as mentioned earlier, however community policing does not go without challenges, therefore, an overview of the factors and challenges of community policing will be provided below:

- **Corruption within law enforcement:** According to Nyaura and Ngugi (2014:76), challenges facing law enforcement in enhancing community policing proves to be poor working conditions, lack of recognition for duties carried out, inadequate working facilities as well as poor wages and salaries are among the major challenges facing law enforcement from preforming in an effective and efficient manner. Law enforcement who operates in unfavourable conditions which makes carrying out daily operations and functions challenging. Moreover, law enforcement officials who are faced with these challenges may resort to corruption in order to sustain their family and friends. This in turn affects the central theme and focus of community policing which is to prevent crime (Nyaura and Ngugi, 2014:76).

- **Mistrust:** Nyaura (2014:45) suggests that there is a level of mistrust between various community policing stakeholders such as private security companies and the local police, due to a lack of information sharing between the two stakeholders. This in turn affects community members’ trust in the police. This may lead to a situation where the community may favour private security companies over the police due to better response times when in need and overall crime prevention effectiveness. Nyaura (2014:45) adds that police carrying out their various duties within communities that are known for
violence, alcohol misuse and drugs abuse has been a challenge to restore a level of trust among community members and the police due to perceptions that specific areas within a community are favoured by the police more and this results in mistrust.

- **Training and development of the police on community policing:** According to Sadd and Grinc (1996:23), effective and efficient community policing requires the training of both the police, community members and various stakeholders in community safety and security to ensure joint problem solving and solutions are implemented to ultimately prevent crime. Sadd and Grinc (1996:23) add that training requires the development of a community policing attitude, skills, tactics, knowledge and community strategies that will equip the community and police to combat crime. The failure in the training and development of the police, community and community stakeholders who are equally responsible for safety and security can be the shortfall of a community policing approach and ultimately lead to the downfall and failure of sustaining community policing as a style of policing within communities, therefore training and development are serious challenges (OCOPS, 2007).

- **Lack of transparency within the police:** According to Nyaura and Ngugi (2014:76), high levels of transparency and openness within the police that reflect a willingness from the police to engage and share police knowledge on crime within a community can increase the level of trust between community members and the police as well as improve police and community relations. Therefore, embracing transparency within the police service should be a priority to ensure that community policing is as effective and efficient as possible. Nyaura and Ngugi (2014:76) add that a major obstacle in ensuring transparency and openness within a community can be a lack of trust in the sharing of information as mentioned earlier between the police and private security who are both stakeholders in the safety and security of a community. Nyaura (2014:86) is of the view that the major cause of a lack of trust is misinformation and misunderstanding of the functions and duties of what the police or private security companies do or can do with respect to community policing.

In addition to the factors and challenges regarding community policing mentioned above. Myhill (2006:34) identifies further barriers to community policing which include the following:

- The police officers who decide to work independently from the community in identifying and solving problems due to their perception that a community policing approach is too time-consuming to combat crime.
• A lack of performance evaluations on police officials conduct in carrying out their respective functions and duties regarding community policing approaches can lead to community policing approaches being neglected.
• Community members’ lack of participation and police officials’ lack of encouraging community input regarding crime related issues may result in community members’ complete withdrawal from taking part in police-community endeavours.

The advantages and various challenges that are associated with community policing add to understanding the phenomenon of community policing as well as highlights various aspects that are central to the success of a community style of policing. The next section will focus on international and national best practices of community policing.

3.5 INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL BEST PRACTICES OF COMMUNITY POLICING

Community policing is a phenomenon not unique to South Africa but rather a community style of policing that police services around the world utilize to ensure citizens safety and security. This section of the study will analyse community policing in various countries around the world namely the United States, England, Wales and South Africa, therefore international and national best practices will be explored and analysed which aim to introduce solutions into developing recommendations for a public participation strategy with regards to CPFs.

3.5.1 Community policing in the United States

Eck and Rosenbaum (1994:45) suggest that “community policing has become a new style of policing”, which was fundamentally influenced by principles and elements of community policing that can be found in the United States community style of policing programme called the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy. The Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy is a dynamic and carefully planned community policing programme that was implemented in the United States, which has had a considerable amount of influence on the development of community policing strategies around the world.

According to Quinton and Morris (2008:89), the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy was implemented in 1993, and soon became a programme that was well researched internationally and nationally within the United States to help determine the ultimate effectiveness of community policing within communities. Karn (2013:34) adds that the focus of the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy was indeed a community orientated initiative, where concerns about crime within Chicago needed to be addressed, therefore in order to reduce local concerns about crime the local police were tasked with working together with community members and community
stakeholders to address crime related issues identified by community members. Karn (2013:34) further argues that the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy was implemented in five police districts in Chicago, all with various racially diverse populations that helped identify and highlight different experiences of crime within Chicago. Furthermore, according to Karn (2013:34), the main elements that inhabited the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy included the following:

- The focus of integrating crime control and prevention within the functions and tasks of the local police as well as equipping law enforcement and the community to respond to crime with proactive problem-solving;

- Community members, community stakeholders and the local police engaging in identifying community issues and jointly problem-solving;

- Involvement of the community at all levels to identify local issues and problems and help set priorities and necessary steps to be taken to prevent crime;

- All police officers and law enforcement responsible for the local community safety and security should receive training in problem-solving, inter-personal communication, partnership working and leadership skills that will help maximize a community style of policing;

- Community data must be captured in order to analyse and map crime hotspots and track community issues related to crime which can all be shared with local residents; and

- Open communication channels ensuring continuous communication with the local community through community meetings, focus groups and telephonic check-ins, to secure feedback and monitor suggestions that can improve community policing within the geographical area, moreover information and police functions and duties can also be elevated.

It becomes evident after analysing elements which inhabit the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy that the local community and its concerns as well as challenges related to crime are clear priority areas. The Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy which was implemented in 1993 in five police districts in Chicago against the elements of a community style of policing mentioned earlier, realizes that police tasks and functions cannot be complete without the help of the local community, therefore local concerns about crime can only be reduced by the police and local residents working in partnership.
According to the Chicago Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (2004), the evaluation and findings of the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy which included findings on divorce populations within Chicago suggests that there was a significant reduction in crime within the five police districts in Chicago, more specifically a reduction in crime was most found in African American communities. The Chicago Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (2004), adds that changes in crime trends is a result of an improvement in community conditions and changes in police effectiveness and relationship with the community in the fight against crime. Therefore, the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy community style of policing proves to have some sort of impact on the local community. However, the Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (2004) found that crime reduction and other crime related issues were experienced differently by the Latino community within Chicago. The Latino community evaluation of the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy suggested “that little or no improvement in community conditions or disorder, with particular concerns about public drinking and deteriorating conditions around schools”.

Furthermore, overall the Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (2004) suggests that the programme instilled a great deal of confidence and a level of trust in the Chicago police which contributed to improving the community members and police partnership in the fight against crime. Moreover, community and police meetings show an increase in participation as well as 60 per cent of adults within the five districts being aware of the meetings. According to Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (2004) the members of the community overall are of the opinion that the police were dealing with community related issues raised by residents to the best of their abilities, and the local police worked well with residents to solve crime related problems identified by the community, however the community’s elevation of police performance in terms of victim support once a crime has occurred was reported as poor.

After analysing the evaluation of Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (2004) as well as the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy that was implemented in 1993 it becomes clear that the model of a community style of policing that was implemented in the form of a programme recognised that the police alone could not solve Chicago’s crime problems and therefore partnerships which involved community stakeholders and members of the community inputs that required members to identify and solve community crime problems can lead to successful takeaways from the programme.

3.5.2 Community policing in the United Kingdom (England and Wales)

Principles and elements of community policing can be found in the United Kingdom’s version of community policing also known as neighbourhood policing of which the founding idea and inspiration can be traced back to the rise of community policing in
the United States such as the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (Fielding, 2009:89). According to Tilley (2008:67) at the beginning of the 1980s the United Kingdom saw the introduction of it very own community style of policing programme called the National Reassurance Policing Programme. In this programme the focus was placed on reducing crime and the fear of crime as well as improving the public’s trust in the police by involving local communities in the affairs and decision-making processes of the police.

According to Tilley (2008:46), the introduction of the National Reassurance Policing Programme in the United Kingdom was largely due to a perceived gap in community and police relations. A gap in community and police relations is a wide metaphorical gap referring to the lack of police presence, where it was found that car patrols in England and Wales were replaced by foot patrols and police stations were no longer available to the public 24 hours a day. Thus, it is of utmost importance that the police responded to low levels of confidence in the police, which will eventually bring about a transformation in the very nature community and police relations. This transformation entails the involvement of the community in safety and security endeavours (Tilley, 2008:47).

According to Savage (2007:203), the shortcomings experienced by the local community and the police regarding community relations, brought about a realization that policing needs to have a fundamental shift from “police-oriented to community-oriented”, with the need for policing to shift towards a service ethos that places an emphasis on community member’s inputs to help protect and service local communities.

According to Innes (2007:132), the introduction of the National Reassurance Policing Programme was implemented not only to reduce crime but to strengthen community and police relations as well as restore confidence and trust within the local police. According to Innes (2007:132) the police service in England and Wales recognised that there was a significant gap known as the reassurance gap, between the decrease in crime rates and the public’s perception remained that crime was still rising. Jansson (2006:79) adds that the government of the day was also concerned about low levels of public confidence in the police service with results that reflect the fear of crime being still relatively high in England and Wales and therefore the police developed what became known as the National Reassurance Policing Programme.

In the year 2003 the National Reassurance Policing Programme was implemented in eight police departments in England and Wales and the concept of reassurance policing was enforced and brought to life. According to FitzGerald et al. (2002:67), before the rollout of the National Reassurance Policing Programme was carried out, various concerns were raised that the National Reassurance Policing Programme would focus less on reducing crime experienced within communities and more on improving public perceptions of the police. However, the main purpose and
objectives of the National Reassurance Policing Programme were reiterated, viz. that the police would focus on reducing crime and disorder that would include perceptions of crime and disorder as well as increase public confidence and trust as well as narrow the reassurance gap.

According to Tuffin et al. (2006:78), the National Reassurance Policing Programme is responsible for the following:

- Introducing problem-solving techniques that will work alongside the local community in the identification of local issues regarding crime and working with the community to determine suitable solutions; and

- The National Reassurance Policing Programme should place a focus on reducing the fear of crime and improve public confidence and trust in the police through engaging communities to identify local concerns and mutual priorities as well as creating an environment that encourages visible policing that is welcomed by the local community.

According to Quinton and Tuffin (2007:149) the National Reassurance Policing Programme evaluations and findings suggest that by effectively combining foot patrol policing, community engagement and problem-solving initiatives in combating crime can be effective in not only reducing crime but also retrieve vital information to help in solving community related issues and simultaneously increasing community confidence and trust in the police due to visible policing and community members being part of the decision-making process. Tuffin et al. (2006:78) add that the National Reassurance Policing Programme, which was implemented in sixteen wards demarcated political areas in England and Wales and situated in these wards, are eight police departments’ sites that carried out the National Reassurance Policing Programme between the years 2003 and 2005. According to Tuffin et al. (2006:78) the evaluation and findings of the National Reassurance Policing Programme found the following:

- a significant increase in all sixteen wards regarding public awareness of police foot patrols and an increase in effective community engagement that have improved public confidence and trust;

- a significant reduction in two out of six police sites saw reductions in total crime committed within the local community between the years 2003 and 2005; and

- a fifteen per cent increase in the local community who felt the police were doing an excellent or good job compared to a three percent increase in police
sites that had not implemented the National Reassurance Policing Programme.

The National Reassurance Policing Programme showed some significant results, and therefore paved the way for the implementation of the Neighbourhood Policing Programme. Quinton and Tuffin (2007:32) add that elements of the National Reassurance Policing Programme were carried over to the United Kingdom's Neighbourhood Policing Programme which was viewed as an improved National Reassurance Policing Programme that saw in particular the importance of visibility, problem solving and community engagement. Furthermore, evolution and findings of the Neighbourhood Policing Programme will be explored to help highlight the effectiveness and best practices of community policing that would add value to this specific study.

Bullock and Leeney (2013:199) are of the view that the Neighbourhood Policing Programme was aimed at putting local communities in the forefront of decision making and give communities a say in the provision of local services they receive from the police. Therefore, the government of the day was committed to implementing neighbourhood policing across the United Kingdom that would see the implementation of the Neighbourhood Policing Programme that would be tasked with reducing crime, improving the quality of life of citizens and to increase confidence and trust in the police similar to the objectives of National Reassurance Policing Programme. Bullock and Leeney (2013:199) add that there was a need to increase public participation in the affairs of the police, therefore new initiatives were brought in that saw the introduction of the Neighbourhood Policing Programme in 2005 that implemented Neighbourhood Policing Teams that were situated in every political ward. The teams included a dedicated sergeant (police captain) together with a number of police constables (police officers) and Police Community Support Officers that comprised community members. The Neighbourhood Policing Teams used a range of techniques to increase public participation through the use of public meetings, foot patrols or door-knocking in order to increase community engagement (Bullock and Leeney, 2013:199).

The Neighbourhood Policing Programme was a national programme planned to be operational over the space of three years with the intention that every neighbourhood in England and Wales would have a neighbourhood policing team by the year 2008. According to Quinton and Morris (2008:57), the implementation of the Neighbourhood Policing Programme proved to be challenging, specifically when a programme is rolled out on a large scale compared to isolated geographical areas. Quinton and Morris (2008:57) add that the decrease of effective problem-solving and ultimately the decrease in community participation by the local police and community members in attending community meetings were found to be particularly difficult to manage across England and Wales within the first year of the implementation of the Neighbourhood Policing Programme, as some geographical locations may display
an overwhelming increase in public participation and others would display a
decrease in public participation or have no interest in community police relations.
However, according to Mason (2009:34) some effectiveness and efficacy of the
Neighbourhood Policing Programme proved to be significant in the second and third
year of the implementation of the programme where neighbourhood policing teams
were beginning to have a positive impact on key outcomes such as an increase in
public participation, public confidence and trust in the local police as well as a
reduction in crime within England and Wales.

After analysing community policing in the United Sates and the United Kingdom, it
becomes evident that a community style of policing can have an impact on
community confidence and trust in the police service. According to Gill et al.
(2014:56), “effective community policing, good neighbourhood policing can enhance
trust and legitimacy and increase citizen satisfaction in the police services” and
therefore decreasing residents’ fear of crime. Sunshine and Tyler (2003:513) add
that it is of utmost importance that the local community have confidence in the police
as public confidence is vital to effective, efficient and fair policing as citizens who
trust the authority of the police are more likely to obey the laws set out by
government. It becomes clear that the communities’ inputs regarding problem-
solving and identifying solutions to address community issues related to crime are
vital to the success of crime prevention and crime investigation that all depend on
public confidence and trust that leads to jointly combating crime.

3.5.3 National perspectives on community policing

After the analysis of the statutory and regulatory frameworks governing policing in
general and community policing in particular in chapter two of this study, it became
clear that the South African Government aims to ensure police accountability and
transparency as well as unlock the effectiveness of the role of the community in the
fight against crime in South Africa. Legislation in South Africa regarding community
policing mentioned in chapter two of this study such as the South African Police
Service Act 68 of 1995 which makes it fundamentally clear that partnership and
cooperation between the SAPS and local community members is vital in the fight
against crime as well as provides objectives and guidelines to ensuring the success
of CPFs. The main objective of statutory and regulatory legislation in South Africa
that addresses community policing is to bring the police closer to the community
where problem solving and identifying solutions to community issues can be a joint
initiative.

Malatji (2016:40) in his study “An evaluation of the effectiveness of Community
Policing Forums in Makhwibidung village under Greater Tzaneen Municipality in
Limpopo”, aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of CPFs in reducing crime in the
Makhwibidung village. The Makhwibidung village is located in ward 27 within the
Tzaneen Local Municipality in Limpopo which consists of one police station and a
CPF which was established within the area in accordance with legislation. By analysing the findings of his study, national best practices can be identified and further analysed which can help develop recommendations for a public participation strategy with regards to CPFs. Malatji (2016:40) utilised a questionnaire to probe forty respondents consisting of namely the SAPS, the CPF committee and local residents within Makhwibidung village regarding the functioning of the CPFs in the area. Malatji’s (2016:40) investigation revealed the following challenges regarding the functioning of CPFs:

- the lack of adequate resources was identified as the single most significant factor inhibiting the effective functioning of CPFs and acts as a serious threat to the success of CPFs in the area; and

- local residents indicated that the relationship with the local police was poor and that there was a general distrust in the abilities of the police to address crime-related issues in the community.

It becomes clear the national, provincial and local government support of CPFs and the reinforcement of a community style of policing is of utmost importance in order to operationalise a successful CPF within a specific geographical area. However, despite challenges the police are obligated to ensure that community policing and CPFs are established within local municipalities in accordance with legislation such as the Constitution (1996).

Malatji (2016:40) adds that the effectiveness of CPFs in reducing criminal behaviour largely depends on public participation and community members’ assistance in crime prevention, therefore, evaluating the success factors of CPF’s in reducing crime can generate findings on the overall involvement and commitment of the local community in community policing efforts. According to Malatji (2016:40), the following findings are responses from the SAPS, CPF members and community members on success factors of the CPF in Makhwibidung:

- Community members participate in community policing initiatives such as foot patrols to safeguard the area in which they live. This view was supported by 75 per cent of the participants whereas only 25 per cent felt that community members did not take part in community or neighbourhood initiatives.

- In Makhwibidung village community members do attend CPF meetings to discuss action plans with local police in order to deal with crime in the area, a reflection of 85 per cent of participants felt that community members do attend CPF meetings whereas 15 per cent felt that community members did not attend meetings.
• Community members experienced a sense of ownership of community policing and support the SAPS in the enforcement of the law, and this was supported by 82.5 per cent of participants.

• The local police consulted the community members when important decisions affecting them were taken, and this statement was supported with an overwhelming majority of participants of 85 per cent whereas 15 per cent did not feel part of the decision-making process.

• The local police supported and encouraged the local community within Makhwibidung village to exchange information with them, this statement was supported by 82.5 per cent of participants whereas only 17.5 per cent did not feel that the police encouraged and supported the sharing of information.

• The community members are of the opinion that the CPF in the area helps in reducing crime in their village, and this was supported by 80 per cent of participants whereas only 20 per cent of the participants were of the opinion that the CPF do not help in reducing crime.

The significant positive outcomes and challenges explored and analysed above suggest that community policing can have a real and positive impact on citizens when implemented effectively. South African legislation places an obligation on the police to ensure that CPFs are operationalised although it is clear from the Makhwibidung village evaluation and findings that a community style of policing is indeed a community police effort to produce effective crime prevention results.

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a theoretical and conceptual overview of community policing and an analysis of international and national best practices of community policing, that helped narrow any gap of knowledge between public participation and community policing, which found that both concepts experience similar aims, purposes and objectives around the world and nationally. Moreover, international and national best practices were explored, and suggested what could help provide possible recommendations towards a public participation strategy in promoting public participation in CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local municipality. Recommendations towards a public participation strategy in promoting public participation in CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local municipality will be explored further in chapter five of this study. Furthermore, this chapter brought to light community policing theories, concepts, advantages and challenges. This chapter explored briefly traditional and conventional theories (i.e. Broken Window Theory) of policing and then brought to light a shift towards a new paradigm of policing experienced internationally and nationally. A community orientated policing approach as well as various dimensions
and elements thereof was explored highlighting community policing aims, which is to strengthen partnerships between law enforcement agencies and community members as well as any other stakeholders that could help contribute to developing practical solutions to community-based crime problems. In the next chapter community policing and public participation functions and systems in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality will be identified. This chapter is specifically placed within a municipal context and will be used to prove what CPFs’ roles and functions are in accordance with legislation. Furthermore, an empirical investigation will highlight empirical evidence regarding the current statues of CPFs experienced by participants associated with public participation and CPFs in Stellenbosch.
CHAPTER 4

COMMUNITY POLICING AND PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN THE STELLENBOSCH LOCAL MUNICIPALITY: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a theoretical and conceptual overview of community policing as well as an analysis of international and national best practices pertaining to community policing. These best practices could inform and guide possible recommendations towards a public participation strategy in promoting public participation in CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. The chapter further explored traditional and conventional theories of policing and brought to light a shift towards a new paradigm of policing internationally and nationally.

In this chapter, identifying and outlining the community policing and public participation functions and systems currently utilised in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality made up the central focus. With this focus in mind, the chapter will first outline the nature of the case study, namely the CPFs of Stellenbosch Local Municipality, and secondly report on the empirical findings of a survey that was undertaken to pinpoint potential gaps between theory, legislation and current participation practices in the case. A further aim of this chapter is to briefly outline the principles of strategy for community policing. The findings of the empirical investigation were used to validate the content of a proposed participation strategy in order to address current challenges experienced by participants associated with public participation and CPFs in Stellenbosch. The contours of this participation strategy will be presented in the next and final chapter of this study.

4.2 CASE STUDY: THE CPFs OF STELLENBOSCH MUNICIPALITY

According to Schurink and Auriacombe (2010:438), a case study can be regarded as a design that analyses a phenomenon within its natural context, through the use of several sources of information captured in research endeavours. Therefore, a case study can provide an all-inclusive understanding of how participants interact in various situations, thus helping to creating a level of understanding of a specific phenomenon in question. According to Sturman (1997:62) and George and Bennett (2005:45), a case study is an overall description of a phenomenon and the analysis thereof. This involves capturing events as well as descriptions of such events within the phenomenon.

A case study design was used for this specific study as it is important that participants from the SAPS, the CPF chairpersons and CPF members need to be understood in their natural setting in order to make recommendations contributing
towards developing a public participation strategy for the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. The case study design facilitated the capturing of CPFs current realities and also helped to develop empirical insights through gathering and analysing participants’ responses in the empirical research phase of this study.

The single case study of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality comprises two police stations located in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville (Department of Police, 2013:20). The study population consists of police station management, CPF chairpersons, and CPF members. A total sample size of 14 participants from the mentioned population groups was utilised. The empirical research and findings of the participant’s responses in this specific study can help identify current challenges experienced by CPFs in Stellenbosch as well as identify potential recommendations suggested by participants that will help in the development of a public participation strategy for the two police stations in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

As far as statutory and regulatory frameworks are concerned, CPFs’ formation is outlined in Chapter 11, Section 206 of the Constitution. This Section stipulates that the SAPS needs to mobilise local community members in order to ensure that the fight against crime is enhanced. This gave rise to Section 206 that suggests it is SAPS's obligation in terms of the legislation to involve the community in police activities through the use of CPFs. Furthermore, in terms of Section 18(1) of the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, the SAPS is obligated to work alongside community members through the establishment of CPFs. The Act stipulates that partnership and co-operation between the SAPS and local community members is vital in the fight against crime. Moreover, Section 23(1)(a) deals more specifically with the functioning of CPFs and suggests that members of the CPF need to be elected as representatives. The two police stations utilised in this specific study have two functioning CPFs located in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville. The empirical investigation into CPFs in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville revealed that both comply with these legislative guidelines and have representatives that are elected by members of the local community at an annual general meeting (AGM). CPF representatives are elected into positions of chairperson, deputy chairperson, assistant secretary, treasury and additional members. A total of nine CPF members where sampled for this particular study.

Members elected to the CPFs are tasked in accordance with Section 18(1) with establishing and maintaining a working partnership between the local community and the SAPS as well as ensure co-operation between the SAPS and the local community in fulfilling community members policing needs. In the spirit of co-operation and partnership, the elected CPF members in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality conduct regular meetings with the SAPS. The purpose of these meetings is mainly to share crime-related information and implement measures to prevent crime in Stellenbosch.
4.3 APPROACHES TO STRATEGY FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

According to Bracker (1980:219), the term strategy originated from the Greek strategos and was used to describe military action. Stead and Stead (2008:62) add that strategos translates to “a military general in command of troops or a plan to destroy enemies through effective use of available resources”. The term used by the Greeks suggests that in order for objectives to be achieved, plans of action need to be carried out with the use of available resources as well as considering enemies to the planned objectives (Schnaars, 1991:23).

According to Rumelt et al. (1994:9), strategy can be defined as the direction an organisation chooses to take in order to achieve a desired objective. Miller and Dess (1996:87) is of the opinion that a strategy is a set of plans made by individuals or an organisation in an effort to help achieve specific objectives. Porter (1996:61) adds that strategy means performing different planned activities to those performed by rivals to achieve an objective. Moreover, Wright et al. (1997:5) argue that strategy can be viewed as a set of plans initiated by top management, organisations, or individuals to achieve desired results consistent with the objectives.

From the above-mentioned definitions, it is evident that strategy requires a planned approach to attain specified objectives. Therefore, different approaches to formulating and implementing strategy will be briefly analysed below that would help in developing a public participation strategy for the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

4.3.1 Strategy process approach

According to Jennings (1986:17), the process approach to developing a strategy is an approach that can be formulated through several activities which lead to the final decision on the best strategy that would meet desired objectives. Rouleau and Sequin (1995:101) add that the strategy process approach is concerned with all the related activities leading to the identification of the strategy as well as choosing the right strategy to meet objectives. Ketchen et al. (1996:231) point out that the process approach involves specific steps that need to be considered before choosing a strategy that aims to meet desired objectives, these steps includes identifying issues, selecting a detailed strategy to counter issues and implementing the strategy. The strategy process approach can be best understood in its aim to formulate and implement a strategy based on information gained from analysing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and perceived issues facing the organisation (Rouleau and Sequin, 1995:101).
4.3.2 Strategy prescriptive approach

According to Mintzberg (1989:171), the prescriptive approach emphasizes a detailed and well planned strategy which is applied with logical thought processes. In the prescriptive approach, the process of formulating and implementing strategy is defined well in advance and has specific components identified before implementation occurs. Mintzberg (1989:171) suggests that the prescriptive approach proposes a universal method to develop and implement organisational strategies for all types of organisations that would help meet objectives. According to Ginter et al. (1985:581), eight components for developing a strategy in accordance with the prescriptive approach includes the following:

- establishing the mission of an organisation;
- setting clear objectives for the organisation;
- conducting an environmental analysis on possible threats;
- identifying the organisation’s internal strengths and weaknesses to counter threats;
- formulating a number of alternative strategies;
- choosing a strategy that would best counter threats;
- implementing the strategy; and
- evaluating and controlling the strategy.

The above-mentioned components are a universal approach to developing a strategy regarding the prescriptive approach. According to Mintzberg (1989:171), critics of the prescriptive approach are of the view that each organisation is unique and experiences different issues and therefore cannot have prescribed components to developing a strategy.

4.3.3 Strategic thinking approach

Hashim (2008:67) is of the view that formulating and implementing a strategy in hostile environments is concerned with perceiving and identifying strengths and weaknesses as well as envisioning opportunities and threats. Hashim (2008:67) points out that it is important that a strategy has the ability to create the future, which requires decision-makers to have imagination and intuition. The strategic thinking approach’s main aim is to achieve a better understanding of an organisations problems and priorities. This is because the approach allows organizations to not only react to threats directly but rather create the opportunity to generate ideas on the best method to approach an issue (Masifern et al., 1998:15).

Hashim (2008:67) suggests that the thinking approach to developing a strategy does not necessarily guarantee organisational success regarding predetermined
objectives, but the process allows an organisation to be creative and proactive in formulation and implementing a strategy.

Furthermore, Hashim (2008:68) argues that the strategic thinking approach allows people to respond to critical issues by making use of generated scenarios that could affect their organisations desired objectives. In the strategic thinking process, foresight is developed through generating and constructing various scenarios. Scenarios represent detailed descriptions of some likely future prospect related to organisational issues. Scenario-building exercises can help develop more creative ideas that can counter perceived threats and generate possible solutions.

According to Masifern et al. (1998:16), key elements of the strategic thinking approach include the following:

- understanding the organisation’s present situation and desired future;
- understanding the organisations different internal and external components;
- obtaining insight into the threats, opportunities, needs, wants and success factors;
- developing foresight through the construction of scenarios describing likely future prospects in terms of key variables and strategic issues, this allows for more creative ideas and innovative solutions;
- mapping the future direction of the organisation through considering present and future success, this will help the organisation to focus on important strategic issues; and
- maintaining focus on selected strategy and critically observing the strategy being pursued based on the previous assumptions highlighted in scenarios and make adjustments if necessary.

The above-mentioned strategies confirm that important steps for any organisation to take in combating challenges are identifying current organisational issues, establishing an organisational mission or vision, formulate a strategy or plan of action, implement a strategy and critically observe and evaluate the strategy. Public participation in CPFs is considered to be a challenge in this particular study. Therefore, in order for effective public participation to take place a public participation strategy needs to be developed. The use of the processes highlighted by the various strategies with specific reference to providing recommendations towards developing a public participation strategy for CPFs in Stellenbosch will be outlined in the final chapter of this study.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Grinnell (1993:4), the word “research” means to examine or analyse a phenomenon closely and carefully where it can be tested, tried or probed, research
can be described as a systematic study that investigates a specific field of interest and is undertaken in order to establish knowledge, facts or principles of a specific phenomenon. Burns (1997:2) adds that research is a systematic investigation to find answers to a specific problem. Flick (2009:10) points out that research is a systematic, controlled empirical investigation that can produce a hypothesis about various presumed relationships, facts or principles about a relevant phenomenon concerned in a specific study. From a social research perspective, Bulmer (1977:5) and Bryman (2008:230) assert research as being primarily committed to establishing systematic, reliable and valid knowledge about the social world in which the phenomenon exists.

According to Richie and Lewis (2003:233), methodology refers to the way in which data is obtaining, organised, studied and analysed. In support of this definition, Mouton and Marais (1996:16) are of the view that methodology depends on the nature of the research in question and therefore researchers need to plan the way empirical evidence will be obtained. Mouton (1996:35) describes methodology as the methods employed by a researcher on plans of conducting research. Burns and Grove (2007:488) expand by stating that methodology includes the research design, sample, limitations, and the data collection strategy just to name a few. Henning et al. (2004:36) point out that methodology can be described as a coherent group of means or methods that complement one to produce empirical data and findings that serve the main researcher purpose. In fact, the word methodology means that the researcher utilises specific techniques that serve as tools used to retrieve, sort and analyse information that can help come to some conclusion, thereafter methodology can be used to convince others that the research in question is veiled and relevant.

Robson (2010:29) defines research methodology as the means used by a researcher to operationalise methods that can be applied or followed to attain scientific knowledge that is related to the phenomenon under investigation. Schwardt (2007:193) points out that research methodology is a theory of how a study should proceed in retrieving information. Therefore, it involves an analysis of the relevant assumptions, principles and procedures that might have an impact on a study.

From these definitions, it is evident that research can be regarded as a process for retrieving, analysing and interpreting scientific information to answer research questions and achieve research objectives. As mentioned earlier, according to Mouton and Marais (1996:16), methodology is largely dependent on the nature of the research in question, and therefore this particular study utilises a qualitative research approach as outlined in chapter one. This particular study understands the nature of the research in question, the fact that the study is person-centred requires a holistic human perspective to achieve the research objectives and therefore a qualitative research approach was chosen to produce an original experience of CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality that is unique and insightful.
4.4.1 Research approach and design

As stated in chapter one of this study, a qualitative research approach will be used to examine the knowledge, understanding and perceptions of the SAPS, CPF chairpersons and CPF members within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality regarding challenges associated with promoting public participation through CPFs. According to Burns and Grove (2007:356), qualitative research refers to processes carried out by the researcher that is method orientated and is used to understand, analyse, describe and develop a theory on a phenomenon. Morse and Field (1996:1996) add that qualitative research can be regarded as a systematic approach to research that is used to describe participant’s life experiences and give them meaning. Mauthner (2002:4) points out that qualitative research is mostly concerned with words and experiences rather than measurements and statistical data, instead qualitative research is person-orientated where human experiences can be used to come to some scientific conclusion in an ethical manner. According to Holliday (2007:4), qualitative research can be characterised as dynamic in nature, where formal structured data capturing instruments are traded for a systematic analysis of verbal or written organised data that can be used to identify the significance of human experiences in various social settings.

According to Burns and Grove (2003:374), a qualitative research approach can have the following advantages:

- it can be used to help understand human emotions that are experienced within a specific phenomenon;
- it can help in understanding a phenomenon that is emotional by nature better than quantitative research, as human emotions are difficult to quantify into a numerical number and therefore a qualitative research approach can be more effective in investigating a phenomenon that can produce results that are more in touch with human emotions; and
- it is flexible and unique which can be carried throughout the research process.

In qualitative research, there are various research designs that can be utilised to ensure that the research questions and study objectives are achieved. The research design that has been chosen as mentioned earlier in chapter one of this study will be a single case study of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2009:195), a research design is better known as the researchers plan he or she will execute in order to retrieving data, therefore a research design provides a framework for the collection of data. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:166) add that a research design is in fact a research plan for selecting a targeted population, research locations, and data collection instruments.
such as interviews that will aid the study to answer the research questions. For Durkheim (2004:29), a research design is a strategic plan of action that serves the purpose of answering the research questions and ultimately implementing the research approach that will produce the desired scientific knowledge.

As mentioned earlier, a case study research design was utilised in this study. According to Gulsecen and Kubat, (2006:96), case study research allows for the exploration, analysis and overall understanding of complex issues in their natural settings, particularly when an in-depth investigation of the research problem is required. Grassel and Schirmer (2006:56) and Johnson (2006:98) point out that a case study research design in particular is used widely throughout social science studies, can be used as a research tool to understand social problems such as community based problems in-depth. Johnson (2006:99) states that a case study as a research design can go beyond the quantitative research approach that can provide numerical value, but instead a case study can understand and analyse the behavioural conditions of participants through their own perspectives. For Yin (1994:23) a case study enables the researcher to analyse information closely within a particular context. Yin (1994:166) defines the case study research design “as an empirical investigation that studies a phenomenon within its natural setting; when a phenomenon and its literature are not clear in evidence; and in which several sources are used throughout the research process.”

Schurink and Auriacombe (2010:435) and Yin (1994:23) suggest that a case study is a design that facilitates the analysis of a phenomenon within its context, by means of a variety of data sources. Therefore, a case study provides a comprehensive understanding of how participants interact in a specific situation, thus creating meaning and or understanding. This makes the case study design appropriate for this study as it is important that participants need to be comprehensively understood to make deductions, recommendations and conclusions to contribute towards developing a public participation strategy. To provide a comprehensive understanding of CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality as a case study, in this study three data sources (units of analyses) were analysed within Stellenbosch as a single case study, namely the SAPS, CPF chairperson and CPF members.

4.4.2 Target population and sampling

A population in terms of research can be defined as a study that includes all persons who have particular qualities or knowledge that are specified to be the focus in the study (Brynard and Hanekom, 2006:50). In addition, Burns and Grove (2003:43) are of the view that a population in a study is often chosen due to characteristics and elements that meet some planned criteria for a specific population to be included in a study. Moreover, David and Sutton (2004:40) point out that it is unfeasible and challenging to study a whole population therefore, the researcher needs to choose a
A sample in a targeted population that will provide knowledgeable information that is vital to the success of any study.

The study population consisted of police station management, CPF chairpersons and CPF members that have been sampled for this study, due to their valuable knowledge and understanding of CPFs in the Stellenbosch area.

As pointed out earlier by David and Sutton (2004:40), it is impractical to conduct a study on a whole population and therefore a researcher can opt to sample a targeted population, as is the case in this particular study. According to Polit and Hungler (2004:290), a sample can be defined as a subset of a population that has been chosen from the targeted population, and this sampled population is often well defined and chosen due to their ability and knowledge on the specific research questions. Burn and Grove (2003:230), in support of the latter state that a sample is known to be chosen from the study population that is commonly referred to as the target population or accessible population.

This study aims to utilise a purposive sampling design as stated in chapter one for the sampling of police station management, CPF chairpersons and CPF members. Burger and Silima (2006:660) argue that a purposive sampling design is a configuration that enables the researcher of a specific study to apply his/her own judgment in choosing the sample that best suits the study. The researcher chose the participants because of a need for insight and valuable knowledge and experience concerning CPFs in Stellenbosch. A total sample size of 14 participants from the mentioned targeted population groups was utilised.

4.4.3 Data-collection instruments

According to Burns and Grove (2003:371), data collection can be described as the systematic gathering of relevant information to a particular study, there are different types of methods available to the researcher during the data collection stage of any research such as interviews, focus group discussions, surveys and questionnaires. Talbot (1995:472) adds that data collection ultimately starts when the researcher decides to embark on gathering information from a particular targeted population that was predetermined to be of interest and value to the study. The study intends to utilise two data-collection instruments for the purpose of this study, namely documents through a literature review as well as semi-structured interviews that will be conducted with the selected samples as mentioned in chapter one.

4.4.3.1 Documents as sources of data

According to Mouton (1996:118), a literature review can be described as a “map” that defines and describes a specific phenomenon rigorously to its destination. Fouché and Delport (2002:127) point out that a literature review is in fact aimed at
clarifying and ultimately tasked with understanding the nature and meaning of a problem that has been identified by a specific study. Hart (2001:22) in support of the latter suggests that a literature review is an objective, thorough summary that is analysed and described using the relevant available research on a phenomenon.

In this study, a literature review has been conducted on several international and local sources regarding CPFs. The legislative framework enabling and promoting CPFs, in South African, such as the Constitution, 1996, has been thoroughly discussed and analysed in previous chapters. Furthermore, journal articles, dissertations and government publications have also been used as additional sources to this study. According to Carnwell and Daly (2001:67), a good literature review gathers information about a particular phenomenon from many sources to come to some conclusion.

This study has highlighted various legislative frameworks on community policing and CPFs specifically. The study highlighted the concepts of community policing, with specific focus on the CPFs and the important role public participation plays in CPFs in chapter two. Secondly, the statutory and regulatory guidelines for the functioning of CPFs were discussed in chapter three and thirdly the use of an international and national benchmark has been highlighted which aims to introduce solutions for bettering public participation with regards to CPFs.

### 4.4.3.2 Interviews

According to Dörnyei (2007:129), in a qualitative study it is most likely that the researcher would employ a data-collection instrument such as interviews, questionnaires or surveys simply due to the nature of qualitative research that aims to understand a particular phenomenon in its natural setting. Kvale (1996:2000) is of the view that in some cases, interviews in a qualitative study compared to questionnaires can obtain information from the participants that may lead to a greater understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. In this regard, Flick (2009:22) points out that interviews can be used in retrieving relevant information on a particular subject of interest and in fact can be an appropriate method of retrieving data, especially when a direct ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answer would not be sufficient for a specific research purpose and instead in-depth information from a participant’s real life experiences, feelings and opinions are best suited. Cohen et al. (2007: 29) add that interviewing can be a valuable method for exploring the human mind and the researcher has the opportunity to draw deductions on people’s meanings that are related to a particular phenomenon in question.

The significance of interviews is that they help in gaining insight into participant’s real life descriptions of a phenomenon, where the research can interpret and ask questions of clarity regarding the meanings of the descriptions provided (Kvale, 1996:172). Therefore, it can be said that the researcher is having a conversation with
participants, where the aim is to gain in-depth knowledge, information and meanings related to a phenomenon. As mentioned earlier in chapter one of this study, semi-structured interviews will be utilised for data-collection purposes.

According to Greeff (2002:80), a semi-structured interview can be defined as an interview process that is flexible by nature and allows the researcher to gain information that can get to the crux of the matter in question, as the researcher has the opportunity to expand and gain clarity on the interviewee’s relevant responses. In addition, Berg (2007:30) suggests that when a researcher undertakes a semi-structured interview as a data-collection instrument, it is important that all the questions asked to participants are related to answering the research questions of the particular study. This study used the research questions highlighted in chapter one of this study as a checklist to ensure that all relevant areas of the questions put to participants in the interview phases of this study are covered. Berg (2007:33) points out that the advantage of checking that research questions are relevant to the interview questions, helps keep the interview on track to achieving the research objectives.

De Vos et al. (2011:348) elaborate on the many advantages a semi-structured interview process possesses, such as the researcher in a semi-structured interview is granted the opportunity to encourage participants to explain opinions, thoughts or meanings that are not clear, the researcher is also ensured that all questions can be covered as the researcher is in full control of the interview. Although De Vos et al. (2011:351) mention that despite the many advantages of semi-structured interviews, it does not go without disadvantages, where the researcher may experience that semi-structured interviews are time-consuming and participants’ commitment to the interview process may be challenging.

4.4.3.2.1 Preparation for interviews

Dörnyei (2007:133) is of the view that an effective interview process consists of an environment where information has the ability to flow naturally and freely as well as proved insight into the phenomenon in question. In addition, Dörnyei (2007:140) points out that it is the researcher’s responsibility to create a conducive environment where the interviewees can feel more at ease with the sharing of information and ensuring confidentiality. Cohen et al. (2007:21) add that interviews can bring to light participant’s private lives and personal opinions on specific topics that may be sensitive and therefore it is important that interviews are approached with a high level of sensitivity and a good standard of ethical consideration.

As mentioned earlier in chapter one of this study, ethical considerations were a priority. Therefore, the following steps were maintained throughout the data-collection phase of this study (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:497):
Informed consent of participants: The informed consent of participants was obtained during the data-capturing process where details of the study objectives were provided along with the assurance that confidentiality with regards to information provided by the participants was practiced. Participants were asked to sign an informed consent letter indicating their willingness to participate in the study;

Possible harm to participants: In this study, participants were not exposed to harmful equipment or destructive circumstances;

Covering letter: A covering letter explained the purpose, methodology and nature of the study. It also stated that confidentiality will be maintained and that no other parties will be given access to any individual data;

Interviewing location: Interviews took place in an environment in which participants felt comfortable. These included police station offices, a quiet room, or at the homes of the participants; and

Participants’ appointments: Appointment along with an appropriate time were scheduled with each participant in order to ensure time is set aside with no disruptions.

4.5 EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

This section of the study reports on findings of the research conducted on CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. The main objective of this section is to provide a holistic human perspective through the use of a qualitative research approach to produce an original experience of CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality in identifying and explain the challenges faced by the SAPS and the CPFs in promoting public participation.

4.5.1 Interviews with police station management

The first four questions were aimed at obtaining the biographical details of participants. The biographical profiles of participants are important to make certain deductions based on their responses and also to ensure that they have adequate experience in the field of community policing. As far as the biographical information on police station management who have participated in this study is concerned, it was found that their average years of service for SAPS in any capacity is 20,6 years. The average years of service in a managerial capacity for SAPS is 6.6 years and the average number of years’ police station managers have been a resident of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality is 27,6 years, often when asked this question police managers are quoted as saying “I’ve been staying here all my life”. Furthermore, it was found more specifically that the average number of years’ police station managers have with CPF activities in Stellenbosch is 9 years. These responses suggest that police station managers who have participated in this study have ample amounts of experience in CPFs and community policing. Therefore, their knowledge
and insight regarding issues related to CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality are valuable to inform this study. Figure 4.1 below is a graphic representation of the biographical information obtained from the police station managers in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

**Figure 4.1  Biographical profile of police station managers in Stellenbosch**

The next questions put to police station managers dealt with CPF challenges as experienced by the SAPS within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality regarding public participation. The findings of these questions are detailed below.

**Q5: What are the main challenges facing police station managers in facilitating and ensuring public participation with regard to CPFs?**

According to police station management, adequate public participation is a challenge generally due to a lack of information distributed to the public on the affairs of the CPF or simply a lack of information regarding its existence. There is a perceived communication gap between the work of the CPF and its existence to the local community. Furthermore, a challenge brought to light by the police station managers is the fact that CPFs tend to be politicized and this affects the SAPS’ ability to encourage adequate public participation as people often opt not to get involved in politics, when in fact CPFs are meant to encourage public participation and prevent crime. Moreover, people already involved in CPF activities are typically individuals that have been directly affected by crime. It was therefore argued that a relatively large section of the population in Stellenbosch does not fully understand the roles and functions of a CPF and the potential public participation can have on preventing crime. According to police station managers, the politicizing of CPFs and challenges regarding the sharing of information to the public is largely due to a lack of police initiative and resources to educate the community and police officials on CPF roles and functions. A further challenge highlighted is that individuals who want to get involved in CPF activities are often threatened by community members involved in gang-related activities as CPF members are perceived to be “police informants”.

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The above-mentioned challenges can help encourage recommendations towards a public participation strategy that can counter these challenges and bring about positive changes. Figure 4.2 below is a graphic representation of the five police station managers’ responses in the form of a bar graph, highlighting the main challenges in facilitating and ensuring public participation with regards to CPFs.

Figure 4.2  Main challenges facing police station managers in Stellenbosch

Q6: In your opinion, what are the main challenges that the CPF currently faces in fulfilling its responsibilities?

Police station management participants highlighted three main factors hampering CPFs from fulfilling its responsibilities. Firstly, it was pointed out that CPFs in the Stellenbosch area do not enjoy support from either the provincial Department of Community Safety on a local level nor do they get financial support from SAPS on a national level. Due to a lack of funds, these CPFs are restricted on the number of activities they can carry out on a yearly basis. A second challenge brought to light by police station managers is a lack of training CPF members on their roles, responsibilities and relationship with SAPS. There is a perception that CPF members often take on SAPS officials roles and responsibilities and therefore are in breach of an ordinary members CPF functions. The overlapping of CPF roles and responsibilities by members can lead to a dysfunctional relationship between the SAPS and the CPF, thus hampering CPFs from fulfilling its responsibilities. The third challenge is concerned with “geographical biases”. This occurs due to a general perception that the majority of the CPF members in Stellenbosch are made up of individuals who live in formal housing in urban Stellenbosch. According to police station managers, CPFs in Stellenbosch are tasked with representing all of Stellenbosch’s community issues related to crime. Due to CPF member’s biases towards their particular geographical area of living, rural parts of Stellenbosch
concerns are not brought to the SAPS attention. Therefore, CPFs generally fall short of fulfilling their responsibilities and may cause a level of mistrust among community members as some areas are perceived to be favoured by the SAPS. Figure 4.3 below illustrates the five police station managers’ responses that have highlighted challenges CPFs currently face in fulfilling its responsibilities.

**Figure 4.3 Main challenges currently faced by CPFs in fulfilling their responsibilities**

Q7: In your opinion, does public participation engagements have a positive or negative impact on the work of the police? Please explain.

The purpose of this question put to police station management was to identify public participation endeavours already in place as well as aspect that might positively or negatively impact the work of the police within the Stellenbosch area. Through identifying these aspects recommendations can be proposed on existing endeavours in the coming chapter.

All five (100%) police station managers agreed that although public participation engagements are not a frequent event, public participation engagements that do take place have a positive impact on the work of the police. This positive impact is largely due to information that is shared with the SAPS that can lead to drug busts or confiscating illegal firearms. On a negative note, one police station manager suggested that members of the community or CPF members who attend public participation engagements may feel restricted on the information they choose to share with the SAPS due to threats or intimidation from community members involved in gang-related activities. Threats and intimidation have a negative effect on the SAPS in trying to develop and foster public participation. Therefore, it is important that
proposed recommendations in the coming chapter deals with enhancing positive aspects of public participation and countering negative aspects that hamper public participation in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

Q8: What advantages has public participation in CPFs brought for the police in crime prevention? Please make use of examples to illustrate your response.

The aim of this question was to identify advantages and positive examples of public participation in place. This question can help identify positive crime prevention initiatives and make similar connections to advantages of public participation covered in the literature of this study such as international best practices. Furthermore, identifying advantages of public participation in crime prevention can help in recommendations for a public participation strategy in enhancing or further fostering existing positive aspects of public participation and crime prevention in Stellenbosch.

According to all five police station management participants, two main advantages of public participations in CPFs were brought to light. Participants pointed out that communication channels have opened from the community directly to the police, this has resulted in an increase in crime-related information being shared with the SAPS, “which often leads to a safer environment for all living in Stellenbosch” as suggested by one police station manager. Due to the sharing of crime-related information directly to the SAPS, police officials can either respond to crime more quickly or prevent crime before it occurs. Therefore, “community members inform SAPS about strange or suspicious activities and this often results in arrests regarding illegal position of firearms or illegal position of drugs”. Moreover, a second advantage highlighted by participants was a perception that the SAPS and local community relations have drastically improved due to public participation engagements as negative perceptions of the SAPS have decreased. According to one police station manager, the reason for an improved community-police relationship is that CPF members understand challenges faced by the SAPS and help convey positive success stories of the SAPS to the community which are not always published in the media. The advantages highlighted by participants above coincide with advantages of public participation mentioned in chapter two and advantages of community policing in chapter three of this study. Recommendations towards a public participation strategy should further foster these advantages.

Q9: In your opinion, does the SAPS in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality practice South African legislation governing public participation in CPFs? Elaborate why or why not.

This particular question was aimed at getting insight into whether the SAPS in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality used South African legislation as a blueprint in guiding CPF activities regarding public participation. This question could also help in
gaining an understanding of the extent of CPF operations that take place in Stellenbosch, so that recommendations towards a public participation strategy can reflect the current state of CPFs and how CPFs can develop and improve its public participation.

All the police station managers across the two police stations that formed part of this case study argued that South African legislation was indeed practised and implemented in the activities regarding public participation in CPFs. Participants suggested that the mere fact that CPFs exist throughout both police stations in Stellenbosch and that regular meetings take place every month proves that South African legislation is being used as a guiding mechanism. Statutory and regulatory frameworks governing public participation in CPFs were discussed and analysed in chapter two of this study. Recommendations towards a public participation strategy will be discussed and analysed in the final chapter of this study. If recommendations are followed as vigorously as South African legislation is followed by police station management, recommendations could have a positive impact on developing and improving public participation in Stellenbosch.

**Q10: Is there a public participation strategy that is currently in place for CPFs?**

This question was asked to police station managers in order to confirm this study’s problem statement as set out in chapter one. As stipulated in chapter one the main problem is based on the lack of a SAPS public participation strategy.

The majority (90%) of the police station managers agreed that there was no public participation strategy currently in place that would help encourage local community members to get involved in CPF activities. However, one police station manager suggested that although public participation regarding CPFs was perceived as being low, there is a public participation strategy in place regarding the general door-to-door campaigns in asking community members to get involved in CPF activities. Figure 5.2 below provides a graphic representation in the form of a pie chart of participants’ responses regarding whether a public participation strategy exists in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.
Q10.1: If ‘Yes’, in what way should the strategy be improved or adjusted to further foster participation in crime prevention endeavours?

This question served as a follow up with regards to the previous question. The purpose of this question was to identify possible recommendations that could be included in a public participation strategy that would further foster public participation in crime prevention endeavours. One police station manager suggested that there should be a greater effort in door-to-door campaigns as well as the use of social media in attracting community members to participate in public participation and CPF activities. Based on police station managers’ experience in public participation and CPFs, valuable insight can be gained on how a public participation strategy can be improved or adjusted. Therefore, police station managers’ insight could help in formulating possible recommendations towards a public participation strategy.

Q10.2: If ‘No’, What should be included in such a strategy?

This question is a follow up on question ten above. The main aim of this question like the previous question was to identify possible public participation recommendations. The majority (90%) of the participants identified three factors that need to be considered or included in a public participation strategy for Stellenbosch. Firstly, the section of the population in Stellenbosch that comes from a poor social background needs to be engaged on crime-related issues on a regular basis through holding community meetings where members are helped with transport ensuring that they participate. Community meetings are important so that members are granted the
opportunity to share information and concerns with the SAPS. Secondly, as mentioned earlier, the majority of police station managers agreed that SAPS needs to adopt modern forms of communication and make use of various social media spaces and technology that will inform community members about public participation engagements. Thirdly, it was highlighted that although the SAPS and CPFs generally experience a lack of resources it is important that the CPFs are visible to the local community and are encouraged to get involved through hosting frequent information tables across Stellenbosch. Figure 4.5 below highlights the three main factors according to participants that should be included in a public participation strategy.

**Figure 4.5  Main factors identified by police station managers to be added in a public participation strategy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Number of police station managers responded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular community meetings</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopt modern forms of communication</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visible campaigning</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.2  Analysis of police station management responses

The purpose for interpreting and analysing the overall responses of all the police station managers is to gain a broad understanding of all the main challenges highlighted by participants. After analysing participants’ responses, there are distinct challenges identified that are currently hampering public participation with regards to CPFs. These challenges include the following:

- there is a perceived communication gap between the work of the CPF and its existence to the local community;
- CPFs tend to be politicized and this affects SAPS ability to encourage adequate public participation mostly due to lack of understanding CPF responsibilities;
- lack of police initiative and resources to educate the community and police official on CPF roles and functions; and
- geographical biases causing mistrust between community members.
The above-mentioned challenges coincide with factors and challenges associated with public participation and community policing highlighted in chapter two and three of this study which suggest that a lack of training and development, mistrust, and police-community attitude towards community policing are challenges. Sadd and Grinc (1996:23) pointed out in chapter three of this study that training and development requires a community policing attitude, skills, tactics, knowledge and community strategies that will equip the community and police to combat crime effectively in local communities, a lack of training and developing could lead to the failure of a community style of policing. Furthermore, Nyaura (2014:45) adds with regards to mistrust in communities, that police carrying out their various duties within specific sectors of a community can be a challenge due to perceptions that specific areas within a community are favoured by the police more and this results in mistrust. The findings of the literature support the empirical evidence produced in this specific study.

On a more positive note police station managers all agreed that public participation engagements that do take place, do indeed have a positive impact on the work of the police. This positive impact is largely due to information that is shared with the SAPS that lead to drug busts or confiscating illegal firearms within the Stellenbosch area.

The majority (90%) of the police station managers agreed that there was no public participation strategy in place for CPFs within the Stellenbosch area. However, one police station manager who suggested there was a public participation strategy in place for CPFs mentioned that there should be a greater effort in door-to-door campaigns as well as the use of social media in attracting community members to participate in public participation and CPF activities. Moreover, two follow-up question were put to participants to identify possible recommendations that could be added in a public participation strategy that would further foster public participation in crime prevention endeavours. Peak and Glensor (1996:7) recommended in chapter one of this study that a well organised strategy for public participation within a local community would help the SAPS ensure that the new democratic community-based policing philosophy becomes a reality in adherence with the Constitution, 1996.

Police station managements in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality suggest that although there are several challenges regarding public participation in CPFs there are also positive aspects which include the following:

- Communication channels have opened from the community directly to the police, this has resulted in an increase in crime related information being shared with the SAPS; and
- SAPS and local community relations have drastically improved due to public participation engagements as negative perceptions of SAPS have decreased.
The above-mentioned advantages of public participation in CPFs find some comparison with advantages of public participation mentioned in chapter two of this study regarding community conflict resolutions. According to Petts (2001:207), as mentioned in chapter two, public participation can alleviate social conflicts, public participation provides conflict resolutions by inviting different stakeholders and interest groups to assess the impacts of various projects and programs on local communities.

The next section of this study will deal with the empirical research and findings of the CPF chairpersons and CPF members who participated in the interview process.

4.5.3 Interviews with CPF chairpersons and CPF members

Interviews with CPF chairpersons and CPF members (CPF participants) brought to light perceived challenges per participant that CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality currently face. The first two questions put to participants were concerned with obtaining the biographical profile of CPF chairpersons and CPF members concerning the number of years participants have been living in Stellenbosch as well as the number of years’ participants have served on the respective CPFs. Participants biographical details are provided in the graphic representation below. CPF chairperson and CPF member's empirical findings have been jointly unpacked in this section.

Figure 4.6 Biographic profile of CPF Participants

The biographical representation above suggests that CPF chairpersons and CPF members sampled for this particular study have adequate experience on CPF activities as well as knowledge regarding public participation in CPFs within Stellenbosch. The biographical representation above shows that participants' average number of years of being a resident of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality is 24.7 years. Moreover, participants' average number of years of service regarding CPF activities is 4 years.
Q3: How and why did you become involved with the CPF?

This question was put to participants to uncover whether CPFs experience democratic principles as highlighted in chapter two of this study. Participants emphasized that the main reason for getting involved in the CPF was their concern regarding crime in the Stellenbosch area. Participants also suggested that through being involved in CPF activities the local community of Stellenbosch is a safer community. Furthermore, some participants have personally experienced crime and therefore got involved in the CPF to participate in building a safer community. The above-mentioned reasons of participants getting involved in CPF activities are positive aspects of a healthy democracy. According to Meyer and Breyer (2007:112) as mentioned in chapter two, any growing democracy allows its citizenry freedom of expression and opinion as well as an opportunity to gain access to power and authority such as the SAPS.

Q4: What are the main challenges in the CPF regarding adequate public participation?

This question put to participants aims to uncover perceived challenges regarding adequate public participation currently being faced by CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. According to participants there are three main challenges that negatively affect adequate public participation. Participants suggested that a lack of SAPS commitment to public participation in CPFs is a challenge and causes mistrust between the SAPS and the CPF. Due to a lack of commitment from SAPS, public meetings regarding crime often do not take place on a regular basis. Secondly, participants also highlighted that a lack of resources in funding public participation endeavours is a significant challenge in ensuring adequate public participation in CPF activities. There is a perception among participants that CPF activities and its existence is not brought to the local communities’ attention. Finally, participants are of the view that CPFs in Stellenbosch lack adequate public participation due to threats from community members involved in gang-related activities. This according to participants results in local community members choosing not to take part in CPF meetings or activities.

Some of the above-mentioned challenges concur with the perceptions of police station managers’ regarding adequate public participation in CPFs. Chapter two and three of this study also brought to light similar challenges of public participation and therefore prove the findings of the literature.

Q5: What are the main advantages and contributions of the CPF to the police?

The purpose of this question put to participants was to uncover possible existing advantages of the CPF in the work of the police as well as highlight similarities with the advantages of public participation and international best practices mentioned in
the literatures of this study. Identifying possible existing advantages or contributions of the CPF to the work of the police in Stellenbosch can help provide recommendations on a public participation strategy that will enhance current advantages in preventing crime. Participants believe the CPFs biggest advantage and contribution to the work of the police is the sharing of crime related information with the SAPS that often leads to crime prevention or arrests of criminals in Stellenbosch, thus making the community of Stellenbosch safer. Moreover, participants felt that building a relationship with the police helps close a communication gap between the local community and the police. Therefore, creating a CPF and SAPS partnership in the sharing of information helps the police to be better informed on crime and can react or prevent crime quicker. Participants also suggested that due to the CPF being directly involved with the SAPS activities and monitoring SAPS failures and successes, leads to the CPF ensuring transparency and accountability in the work of the police.

As mentioned in chapter three of this study regarding the main advantages of a community policing paradigm as well as the analysis of national and international best practices, participants’ responses did find some comparisons in the literature concerning the positive aspects of public participation in preventing crime.

Q6: In your opinion, do the CPFs public participation engagements have a negative effect on the work carried out by the police?

The purpose of this question was to identify any perceptions that would suggest that the CPF public participation has a negative effect on the work of the police. This would allow comparisons to be drawn between factors and challenges influencing public participation as well as influencing factors and challenges associated with community policing highlighted in chapter two and three of this study. However, participants are of the opinion that CPFs public participation engagements have no negative effect on the work of the police. Participants suggested that the CPF in fact helped the SAPS in preventing crime by sharing information and holding SAPS accountable.

Q7: Is there a public participation strategy for your specific CPF?

This question was put to participants to confirm the problem statement as set out in chapter one as well as confirm some similarities’ in responses given by police station managers in the previous section, when asked the same question regarding the existence of a public participation strategy in Stellenbosch.

The majority (77.8%) of participants are of the view that there is no public participation strategy currently in place for encouraging public participation in CPFs. However, one CPF chairperson and one CPF member believes that there is a strategy for public participation in place that embarks on CPF visibility campaigns.
and community awareness campaigns that are all aimed at crime prevention, encouraging participation and fostering a positive relationship with the SAPS and the local community. Figure 4.7 below illustrates in the form of a pie chart, CPF participates from both sampled police stations in Stellenbosch responses regarding whether a strategy is currently in place to encourage public participation in CPFs. The illustration below finds some similarities in responses given by police station managers in the previous section.

Figure 4.7  CPF participants’ responses to a public participation strategy

Q7.1: If ‘Yes’, in what way should the strategy be improved or adjusted to further foster participation in crime prevention endeavours?

This question is a follow-up regarding question seven above. This particular question was aimed at gaining insight into what public participation recommendations or initiatives can be identified by CPF chairpersons or CPF members that would improve and further foster public participation in preventing crime. As mentioned earlier, one CPF chairperson and one CPF members suggested that there was a public participation strategy in place for their specific CPF located at the Stellenbosch police station. Furthermore, both participants suggested that although public participation was challenging it was vital for any public participation strategy to ensure that information regarding crime in Stellenbosch as well as information regarding public meetings be distributed to the local community and therefore social media needs to be considered as a valuable tool in informing the local community and encouraging participation. Moreover, participants suggested that in order to foster public participation in Stellenbosch more public meetings with the SAPS need to take place on a regular basis. There are similarities in police station management and CPF participant’s responses as social media is highlighted by both as a valuable tool to be used in fostering public participation.

Q7.2: If ‘No’, what should be included in such a strategy?

This question like the previous question is a follow-up concerned with the responses
given by participants in question seven. The purpose of this question was to uncover possible recommendations or initiatives identified by CPF chairpersons or CPF members that would help foster public participation in crime prevention endeavours within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. Participants who suggested that there was no public participation strategy at the Stellenbosch and Cloetesville police station highlighted three main recommendations that should be added into a public participation strategy. Firstly, participations suggested that there should be a sharing of positive police success stories in various media spaces that would encourage the local community to take part in public participation initiatives and help the police in preventing crime. There is a perception among participants that the local community chooses not to get involved in police related matters due to many negative connotations associated with the police. Secondly, participants believe there should be more police public meetings that engage the local community on crime related issues on a regular basis. According to participates, regular public meetings will show the local community that the SAPS is serious about fighting crime and can help encourage public participation in solving crime related issues. Finally, the last recommendation to be added into a public participation strategy as suggested by participants was a greater use of social media. There is a perception among participants that the SAPS and the CPFs in Stellenbosch have failed to adapt to modern forms of communication. Therefore, social media should be used to further encourage public participation and sharing valuable information to the local community. There are similarities in CPF participants and police station management responses regarding this particular question, as both public meetings and social media was highlighted as factors that need to be included into a public participation strategy.

4.5.4 Analysis of CPF chairpersons and CPF members’ responses

The purpose of this section is to interpret the overall responses of CPF chairpersons and CPF members captured during the interview process regarding public participation in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality as well as draw some comparisons to the findings highlighted in the literature mentioned in previous chapters.

Participants’ biographical profile from the Stellenbosch and Cloetesville police station suggested that CPF chairpersons and CPF members have adequate experience regarding public participation in CPFs and therefore could provide valuable insight into various challenges experienced by CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. Participants average number of years of being a resident of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality is 24,7 years. Moreover, participants’ average number of years of service regarding CPF activities is four years. CPF chairpersons and CPF members chose to get involved in CPF activities for reasons such as personal concern regarding crime in the Stellenbosch area and participants who have personally experienced crime get involved in CPF activities to build a safer community.
According to CPF participants, there are three main challenges currently faced by CPFs in Stellenbosch regarding ensuring adequate public participation. The three challenges are as follows:

- lack of SAPS commitment to public participation in CPFs causes mistrust;
- lack of resources in funding public participation endeavours; and
- threats from community members involved in gang related activities.

After analysing the above-mentioned challenges it is evident that there are some similarities in the responses of CPF participants and police station managers as both highlighted that a lack of resources and mistrust is a challenge in ensuring adequate public participation. Furthermore, challenges experienced by CPF participants find some comparisons in the literature of this study, more specifically chapter two highlights factors and challenges influencing public participation. Fordham et al. (2009:8) emphasize the importance of trust and overcoming mistrust and suggest that the element of trust is vital to public participation as well as acknowledges the need either to build trust with local community members or to overcome its absence in order to influence and encourage public participation. The findings of the literature analysed in the previous chapters emphasize the importance of trust and overcoming mistrust. This particular study also highlights mistrust as a challenge to promoting public participation. Therefore, recommendations towards a public participation strategy in the final chapter of this study will help in countering mistrust.

CPF participants on a more positive note brought to light numerous advantages and contributions of the CPF to the police. The main advantages highlighted by participants include:

- the sharing of crime-related information with the SAPS that often leads the crime prevention or arrests of criminals in Stellenbosch;
- creating a CPF and SAPS partnership that closes a perceived communication gap between the community and the SAPS, thus helps the SAPS to either prevent crime or react more quickly to crime-related activities; and
- CPF helps ensure transparency and accountability in the work of the police.

The above-mentioned advantages and contributions of the CPFs to the police coincide with the literature review of this study. Chapter two of this study highlighted the various types of public participation, which emphasizes the importance of partnership. According to Edwards (2005:12), it is through community partnerships that local challenges and good governance can be addressed through citizens being a part of the decision-making process. In addition, chapter two mentions advantages of public participation where Petts (2001:207) argues that the public participation process helps to ensure that government officials are accountable for any actions and ultimately responsive to public interests. Moreover, when asked whether CPF
public participation engagements have a negative effect on the work of the police, participants all argued that public participation engagement in fact had a positive effect on the work of the police. The responses provided by CPF participants confirm the responses given by police station managers.

It is compelling to uncover that the majority (77.8%) of CPF chairpersons and CPF members are of the opinion that there is no public participation strategy for both the Stellenbosch and Cloetesville police stations. The responses given by CPF participants proved that seven participants believed that there was no public participation strategy whereas only two participants believed that there was a public participation strategy. Chapter one of this study highlights in the problem statement that the two police stations in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality are experiencing challenges concerned with adequate public participation as well as CPFs have no public participation strategy in place.

Two follow-up questions were put to participants that was aimed at gaining insight on what public participation recommendations or initiatives could be identified by CPF participants that would improve and further foster public participation in preventing crime. The main recommendations identified by participants that can be added into a public participation strategy include:

- sharing positive police success stories in various media spaces that would encourage the local community to take part in public participation initiatives;
- participants believe there should be more police public meetings that engage the local community on crime related issues on a regular basis; and
- social media should be used to further encourage public participation and be used to share valuable information to the local community.

The above-mentioned recommendations identified by CPF participants can be considered when developing a public participation strategy for the two police stations in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. This section brings an end to the empirical research and findings of police station management and CPF participants in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

4.6 CONCLUSION

The empirical research and finding in this chapter highlighted various challenges experienced by participants in the Stellenbosch area as well as brought to light similarities and comparisons that can be found in the literature regarding democracy, statutory and regulatory requirements, public participation challenges and several advantages associated with public participation to name a view. The case study of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality revealed a number of challenges currently faced by the SAPS and the CPFs in promoting public participation in Stellenbosch; these
challenges highlighted by participants can be taken into consideration when recommendations into developing a public participation strategy are provided in the next chapter.

The questions put to participants in the empirical research phases of this study were all aimed at meeting this particular study’s research questions and objectives. Literature in chapter one, two and three were also considered in the design of the final interview questions put to participants. A total of fourteen participants took party in the study, five police station managers and two CPF chairperson as well as seven CPF members from the respective police stations and CPFs located in Stellenbosch and Cloetesville.

From the empirical investigation conducted one can infer that public participation in CPFs within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality experience several challenges regarding promoting public participation. This particular study argues that challenges experienced by CPFs are largely due to a lack of a public participation strategy that would help in fostering public participation. The next chapter of this study will be dedicated to bringing to light recommendations that would help in the development of such a strategy as well as highlighting research questions and objectives that have been achieved throughout the study.
CHAPTER 5

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS: TOWARDS A PUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY FOR CPFs

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The South African statutory and regulatory frameworks governing public participation analysed in chapter two of this study shows that Government has certain constitutional and legal obligations to ensure that citizens participate in public affairs. Public participation grants citizens the opportunity to play an active role in the decision-making process of government.

According to Adams (2004:43) as well as Seltzer and Mahmoudi (2013:3), public participation can be any process conducted that directly engages the public or local community in decision-making and gives full consideration to community members input in making various decisions that affect public affairs. Therefore, public participation is not a single event but rather a series of actions taken by several stakeholders to meet a common desired outcome over a period of time that has the potential to benefit all stakeholders involved. Public participation grants stakeholders the opportunity to voice concerns and aspirations that can influence the decisions made by government officials.

As revealed in the previous chapters, the SAPS through legislative prescripts, are obligated to ensure public participation opportunities are granted to influence SAPS decision-making and this is done through citizens actively taking part in CPFs. The empirical findings of this study have highlighted various challenges associated with CPFs but more specifically it was found that CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality experience a lack of a public participation strategy. This chapter sets out to summarise the study’s findings and to make recommendations towards a public participation strategy.

5.2 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1: This chapter provided an orientation and problem statement for the study, bringing to light the focus of the study on public participation and promoting recommendations towards developing a public participation strategy for the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. A brief background on the contents of the study was provided, as well as the study’s importance and how the main research problem will be operationalised, were further emphasised. Moreover, research objectives, purpose and central theoretical statements have been presented as well as the
research methodology of the study was highlighted. Lastly, the study’s chapter layout was formulated and presented.

Chapter 2: This chapter provided legislative, theoretical and conceptual knowledge of public participation, with specific reference to the local government context in which it occurs. Furthermore, definitions and problems with regards to public participation were explored. The chapter followed with various approaches on how public participation can be enhanced as well as how SAPS should carry out its constitutional mandate. Lastly, a summary of public participation principles, approaches and models was provided. This chapter established the theoretical underpinnings required to gauge public participation strategies of CPFs. As such, it served as the first leg of data and source triangulation.

Chapter 3: The chapter analysed the nature, scope and dimensions of community policing. International and national best practices were highlighted aimed at introducing solutions into developing a public participation strategy with regards to CPFs. This chapter aided the analysis of public participation based on the identification of international best practice.

Chapter 4: This chapter identified and outlined community policing and public participation functions and systems in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. This chapter was specifically placed within a municipal context and was aimed at determining whether CPFs’ roles and functions are in accordance with legislation and international best practice. A gap analysis was made possible by means of an empirical investigation into the functioning of CPFs in the case. The data analysis process revealed that there are significant gaps between the statutory prescripts and international best practices in comparison with existing CPF practices and functions. The data further revealed that a public participation strategy for CPFs in Stellenbosch, and elsewhere, is required.

Chapter 5: This chapter serves the purpose to summarise the entire study and to make recommendations towards developing a public participation strategy for CPFs in Stellenbosch.

5.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

Research questions for this particular study, as conceptualised in the orientation and problem statement in chapter one, were used to ensure that the study remains focused and guided at all times. Research questions were used in constructing the interview schedule and was taken into consideration throughout the interview process. The research questions as highlighted in chapter one were as follows:

- What do community policing and public participation entail and what are their principles, approaches and theories?
• What existing legislation governs the SAPS to ensure that adequate public participation takes place with specific reference to the CPFs?
• Which international best practices exist in promoting public participation in CPFs?
• What challenges are the SAPS and the CPFs currently facing in ensuring adequate public participation in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality?
• What recommendations can be made towards the development of a comprehensive public participation strategy to ensure adequate public participation by the SAPS and local communities in CPFs?

The research objectives in compliance with the research questions ensured that the study remained on track to deliver sound research that complements the problem statement and central theoretical statements set out in chapter one. The objectives of this study were as follows:

• provide a theoretical framework for community policing and public participation describing their principles, approaches and theories;
• analyse existing legislation governing the SAPS in ensuring adequate public participation in CPFs;
• analyse international best practice in using public participation strategies to enhance public participation in CPFs;
• identify and explain the challenges faced by the SAPS and the CPFs in promoting public participation; and
• propose recommendations towards developing a comprehensive public participation strategy for CPFs.

5.3.1 Achievement of research objectives

In order to measure whether this particular study has been successful in realising its research objectives and answering its research questions, it is vital that the achievements of the research be analysed. The research objectives highlighted in chapter one of this study were operationalised in the following manner:

Research objective 1: To provide a theoretical framework for community policing and public participation describing their principles, approaches and theories.

In chapter one of this study, public participation, community policing, local government, strategy, good governance, democracy and the Stellenbosch Local Municipality were highlighted as key focus topics of this research. Furthermore, in chapters two and three a theoretical and conceptual approach to public participation and community policing was discussed and analysed. Moreover, different types of public participation, public participation methods and mechanisms, factors and challenges regarding public participation, dimensions and elements of community
policing as well as the community policing and public participation interface were all put into perspective. The discussion and analysis of the above led to the achievement of the first research objective.

**Research objective 2:** Analyse existing legislation governing the SAPS in ensuring adequate public participation in CPFs.

This specific research objective was dealt with in chapter two of this study. Statutory and regulatory frameworks governing public participation within particular reference to local government, the CPFs and the SAPS were explored.

**Research objective 3:** Analyse international best practice in using public participation strategies to enhance public participation in CPFs.

In chapter three of this study, international and national best practices of community policing were analysed. Community policing in the United States, community policing in the United Kingdom and national perspectives on community policing were brought to light. Through analysing various strategies implemented globally and locally to enhance public participation in CPFs, the third research objective was realised.

**Research objective 4:** Identify and explain the challenges faced by the SAPS and the CPFs in promoting public participation.

An empirical investigation of the SAPS and the CPFs regarding public participation in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality was the focus of chapter four. Research objective four was achieved through the study reporting on various findings of the research conducted on the CPFs and the SAPS within Stellenbosch. The empirical findings captured in chapter four provided a holistic perspective on CPF members and SAPS officials’ perceived challenges regarding promoting public participation. The empirical findings suggested that CPFs in Stellenbosch are experiencing significant challenges as far as community engagement is concerned. It is suggested that these challenges can be addressed by means of a comprehensive public participation strategy.

**Research objective 5:** Propose recommendations towards developing a comprehensive public participation strategy for CPFs.

This particular research objective is achieved in this chapter. In light of the empirical findings captured in chapter four of this study, chapter five sets out to propose recommendations towards developing a public participation strategy for the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.
The above-mentioned research objectives have been achieved through producing valuable insight into public participation in Stellenbosch unpacked in the empirical investigation in chapter four. Moreover, a literature review brought to light legislation governing the CPFs and the SAPS, international and national best practices as well as a theoretical and conceptual overview of community policing and public participation were explored. The research objectives of this study have allowed for the capturing of new layers of reality, and developing new, testable and empirically valid theoretical and practical insights through information gathered and captured.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS TOWARDS A PUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY

The empirical investigation conducted in chapter four of this study was aimed at highlighting various challenges experienced by the SAPS and the CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality concerning public participation, in which a lack of a public participation strategy was identified as a core challenge. This section aims to bring to light recommendations discussed and analysed in the findings of the empirical investigation to be incorporated in a CPF public participation strategy.

Recommendation 1: The development of a public participation strategy

After conducting an empirical investigation in chapter four of this study, it was made evident that CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality experience a lack of a public participation strategy. Therefore, the first recommendation proposes a number of steps in relation to approaches to strategy formulation and implementation discussed in chapter four that can be followed in developing a strategy for Stellenbosch.

In chapter four of this study several definitions and approaches to strategy were analysed. Rumelt et al. (1994:9) and Miller and Dess (1996:87) defined strategy as the direction an organisation chooses to take in order to achieve a desired objective. Therefore, strategy can be said to be a set of plans made by an organisation in an effort to help achieve specific objectives and desired outcomes. After analysing approaches to strategy formulation and implementation a number of steps was identified in developing a successful strategy such as the following:

- identifying current organisational issues and a desired future;
- establishing an organisational vision and mission;
- formulating a strategy;
- implementing a strategy; and
- critically observing and evaluating the strategy.
With the application of these steps, CPFs in the Stellenbosch Local Municipality can design its unique, tailor-made public participation strategy that would counter the lack of a public participation strategy currently experienced. The first step that should be taken in this regard is for CPFs to analyse the environment in which they operate as well as to identify issues that need to be addressed in order to achieve a desired outcome. According to Ginter et al. (1985:581), it is vital that any organisation conducts an environmental analysis on possible threats. Masifern et al. (1998:15) suggest that the main aim of identifying organisational issues is to achieve a better understanding of an organisation’s problems and priorities. This is because through identifying key issues, organisations do not only react to threats directly but rather create the opportunity to generate ideas on the best method to approach an issue that would complement the organisations ideal future.

After identifying current organisational issues and the desired future of CPFs in Stellenbosch, the CPFs needs to establish an organisational vision and mission. According to Ginter et al. (1985:581), it is important for any organisation to establish a vision and mission that will provide direction and purpose. By establishing a vision and mission, CPF members can establish clear objectives, strategic goals, and performance targets in realising its mandate and obligations. The vision and mission statements should emphasise the statutory obligations of CPFs and focus members’ attention to their role and functions. The vision and mission statements should further represent shared responsibility, co-ownership, partnership, and transparency as core principles for community engagement. In adhering to these principles, CPFs will promote and foster public participation within the Stellenbosch Local Municipality.

The third step that is recommended is for the CPFs to formulate a strategy for community engagement. According to Jennings (1986:18), formulating a strategy can be done by weighing up pros and cons related to a desired outcome that will eventually lead to the final decision on the best strategy that would meet desired objectives. The CPFs aim in strategy formulation should be based on information gained from analysing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and perceived issues facing it (Rouleau and Sequin, 1995:101). By gaining the above information CPFs should identify a suitable strategy that would best suit each outcome identified. Formulating a strategy should help CPFs identify and address participation challenges emanating from this research such as:

- mistrust among community members;
- general unawareness of the role and functions of CPFs;
- lack of resources; and
- limited public interest in crime prevention.

The final step is to approve and implement the formulated strategies. It is important that all the sub-strategies identified to address the above-mentioned challenges,
should be incorporated in a comprehensive strategic plan for the CPF. The process of strategy implementation is done by utilising the selected strategy in such a manner that objectives to be achieved are prioritised. According to Masifern et al. (1998:16), it is of utmost importance that through the duration of the implementation phase of a strategy that focus is maintained on the selected strategy as well as critically observing the strategy in order to make the necessary adjustments if circumstances change.

It is further recommended that the public participation strategy of the CPFs should constantly be monitored and assessed to determine whether it achieves the desired results. Strategies formulated to address each participation challenge should thus receive the necessary attention by SAPS, including resource allocation, performance targets and time frames for implementation.

**Recommendation 2: Challenges that require attention by the SAPS and the CPFs**

After conducting interviews during the empirical investigation, several challenges were brought to light by the SAPS and CPF participants. These challenges require attention in order for the SAPS and the CPFs to have meaningful engagements in future regarding preventing crime in general and promoting public participation in particular. The following recommendations are proposed:

- **Training CPF members and SAPS officials**: The empirical findings highlighted police station managers’ perceptions which suggested that CPFs tend to be politicized. This affects SAPS’ ability to encourage adequate public participation. Moreover, police station managers pointed out that the politicizing of CPFs is largely due to a lack of training and educating the community and police officials on CPF roles and functions. The lack of training CPF members on their roles, responsibilities and relationship with SAPS often leads to operational over-reach where CPF members take on SAPS officials’ roles and responsibilities. Therefore, CPF members and SAPS officials should be trained on a regular basis to ensure meaningful public participation takes place in Stellenbosch. By adopting a public participation strategy that includes the formal training of CPF and SAPS roles and responsibilities can help counter any mistrust among CPF members as well as ensure all stakeholders are well informed on their specific responsibilities and can therefore avoid any operational over-reach.

- **Lack of resources**: During the empirical investigation in chapter four of this study it was pointed out that CPFs in the Stellenbosch do not enjoy support from either the provincial Department of Community Safety on a local level nor do they get financial support from SAPS on a national level. Furthermore, CPF participants also highlighted that a lack of resources in funding public
participation endeavours is a significant challenge in ensuring adequate public participation in CPF activities. Therefore, it should be a priority for the SAPS and the CPFs in Stellenbosch to bring this to the necessary authorities attention in order to lobby for reform that would ensure positive changes are brought about that would priorities public participation in CPFs as well as express public participation in CPFs value in preventing crime as highlighted in this study.

Recommendation 3: Recommendations by participants to further foster public participation

The empirical findings in chapter four of this study brought to light a number of recommendations suggested by participants regarding developing a public participation strategy that would further foster public participation in CPFs. The following recommendations were proposed by participants:

- **Modern communication**: Police station managers agreed that SAPS needs to adopt modern forms of communication and make use of various social media spaces and technology that will inform community members about public participation engagements. Participants in this study suggested that it is important for any public participation strategy to ensure that information regarding crime in Stellenbosch as well as information regarding public meetings are distributed to the local community. Social media should be considered as a valuable tool in informing the local community and encouraging participation. Moreover, participants in this study are of the opinion that through sharing positive police success stories in various media spaces would encourage the local community to take part in public participation initiatives and help the police in preventing crime. Therefore, it is important that a public participation strategy for CPFs in Stellenbosch should consider modern forms of communication as well as utilise social media in engaging the local community to further foster public participation.

- **Community meetings**: Participants in the empirical investigation pointed out that community members needed to be engaged in crime-related issues on a regular basis through holding community meetings where members were also helped with transport to ensure that they participate in public participation endeavours. Therefore, in order to foster public participation in Stellenbosch more public meetings with the SAPS need to take place on a regular basis to prove that the SAPS is committed to crime prevention.

- **Visible campaigning**: It was further suggested in chapter four of this study that although the SAPS and the CPFs generally experience a lack of resources it is important that the CPFs are visible to the local community and are
encouraged to get involved through hosting frequent information tables or door-to-door campaigns in Stellenbosch. According to participants the above mentioned recommendations should be included into a public participation strategy for Stellenbosch.

**Recommendation 4: Recommendations towards further research in CPFs**

The recommendations and challenges regarding the SAPS and the CPFs highlighted in this particular study are significant to the Stellenbosch Local Municipality and therefore circumstances related to public participation may differ depending on the geographical area. It is recommended that further research should be conducted on municipalities around South African that would help in establishing similarities and variations in challenges experienced by CPFs. Such research should also highlight proposed recommendations in countering challenges hampering public participation. Further research in public participation taking place in CPFs across South Africa would help identify a universal public participation strategy that can be implemented in fostering and promoting public participation in CPFs.

**5.5 CONCLUSION**

In order for democracy to flourish in society, the general population needs to take an interest in the business of government. This also holds true for full participation in CPF activities. Promoting public participation in CPFs was the focus of this study. It emphasised the importance of a healthy democracy where community members take part in issues that impact their daily lives. Public participation is a key method for incorporating the public’s ideas, values and interests into decisions, resulting in a more responsive and democratic government. To foster such participation, the community should be educated regarding their roles and responsibilities as citizens of the country in general and regarding the role and functions of CPFs in particular. Engaging local communities about issues of crime will grant them the opportunity to influence policing decisions. It will also assist the SAPS to realise its constitutional mandate and legal obligations.
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