

**Role of Community Policing Forums (CPF's) in effective
crime prevention in the Merafong Local Municipality
Area: A critical analysis**

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Declaration

I, Khompane Edward Salomane, declare that this research dissertation submitted for the Master's in Development and Management is my own work. I further declare that all sources used have been acknowledged by means of complete references and that I have not submitted the same work at any other university in the past.

.....
SALOMANE K E

Signed at Randfontein

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ABSTRACT

This research is concerned with the role of a Community Policing Forum (CPF) in fighting crime in communities. The National Crime and Prevention Strategy (NCPS) indicates that, in order to fight crime effectively, communities and the SAPS should work collaboratively and in partnership with each other. Apart from the aim of fighting crime, as stated in the NCPS, the South African Police Act 68 of 1995 mandates each police station to establish a CPF. The current research uses both qualitative and quantitative research methods to establish whether CPFs attached to police stations operate in accordance with the South African Police Act 68 of 1995.

The literature review provides the necessary background to the socio-economic dynamics of South African policing. It does that by outlining the development of the current policing approach and by exploring specifically the notion of community policing; and also by contextualising the statutory and regulatory guidelines for the functioning of a CPF. The empirical research revealed that communities in the selected area of study (the Merafong Local Municipality) are operating according to the South African Police Act 68 of 1995 towards the aim of fighting crime effectively.

On the basis of both the literature review and the empirical findings, recommendations that could improve the prevention of crime by means of a CPF are made.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie navorsing is begaan met die rol van die Gemeenskapspolisiëringsforum (GPF) in die bevegting van misdaad in gemeenskappe. Volgens die Nasionale Misdaadvoorkomingstrategie (NMVS) kan misdaad slegs doeltreffend beveg word indien gemeenskappe en die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens saamwerk as vennote. Verder, bó en behalwe die bevegting van misdaad, verleen die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiewetgewing 68 van 1995 toestemming aan elke polisiestasie om 'n GPF te stig. Die huidige navorsing maak gebruik van kwalitatiewe sowel as kwantitatiewe navorsingsmetodes om vas te stel of die GPFs, verbonde aan polisiestasies, wel funksioneer in lyn met die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiewet 68 van 1995.

Die literatuuoroorsig verskaf die nodige agtergrond tot die sosio-ekonomiese dinamiek waarbinne Suid-Afrikaanse polisiëring funksioneer. Dit word gedoen deur 'n ondersoek te loods na die ontwikkeling van die huidige polisiëringsbenadering en in besonder, gemeenskapspolisiëring, en verder deur die statutêre/wetlike en regulatoriese riglyne ten opsigte van die funksionering van 'n GPF in perspektief te stel. Dié proefondervindelike navorsing het daarop gedui dat gemeenskappe in die gekose gebied (die Merafong Plaaslike Munisipaliteit), wel volgens die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiewet 68 van 1995 funksioneer om misdaad effektief te beveg.

Aan die hand van beide die literatuuoroorsig en die proefondervindelike bevindings, is aanbevelings gemaak wat die voorkoming van misdaad in gemeenskappe deur middel van GPFs sal verbeter.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE

AN OVERVIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING AND THE PROBLEM OF CRIME

| | | |
|-------|-------------------------------------|----|
| 1.1 | Orientation | 1 |
| 1.2 | Problem statement | 4 |
| 1.3 | Research questions | 5 |
| 1.4 | Research objectives | 5 |
| 1.5 | Central theoretical statement | 6 |
| 1.6 | Method of investigation | 6 |
| 1.6.1 | Literature review | 7 |
| 1.6.2 | Data bases | 7 |
| 1.6.3 | Empirical investigation | 8 |
| 1.7 | Chapter headings | 8 |
| 1.8 | Conclusion | 10 |

CHAPTER TWO

THE SAPS POLICING CONTEXT: SOCIO-ECONOMIC DYNAMICS

| | | |
|-------|--|----|
| 2.1 | Introduction | 11 |
| 2.2 | Development of community policing around the world | 11 |
| 2.3 | Development of community policing in South Africa | 14 |
| 2.4 | Development of the community policing approach | 16 |
| 2.5 | Defining community policing | 18 |
| 2.5.1 | Existing definitions | 19 |
| 2.6 | Elements of community policing | 20 |
| 2.6.1 | Partnership | 20 |
| 2.6.2 | Consultation | 22 |
| 2.6.3 | Personalised patrols | 25 |

| | | |
|-------|---|----|
| 2.6.4 | Decentralisation | 27 |
| 2.6.5 | Problem-solving | 27 |
| 2.6.6 | Proactive conduct | 28 |
| 2.6.7 | Accountability | 29 |
| 2.7 | From community and police to community-police partnership | 31 |
| 2.8 | Conclusion | 33 |

CHAPTER THREE

STATUTORY AND REGULATORY GUIDELINES FOR THE FUNCTIONING OF A CPF

| | | |
|---------|--|----|
| 3.1 | Introduction | 34 |
| 3.2 | Relevant legislation and policies since 1994 | 34 |
| 3.3 | Specific legislation and policy guidelines on community policing | 36 |
| 3.3.1 | The White Paper on Safety and Security | 36 |
| 3.3.1.1 | Law enforcement | 36 |
| 3.3.1.2 | Crime prevention | 36 |
| 3.3.1.3 | Institutional reform | 37 |
| 3.3.2 | The White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service (Batho-Pele) | 38 |
| 3.3.3 | The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 | 43 |
| 3.3.4 | The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 | 46 |
| 3.3.5 | The National Crime Prevention Strategy | 47 |
| 3.3.6 | The Justice Vision 2000 – Justice for All Policy | 48 |
| 3.4 | Running a Community Police Forum (CPF) | 49 |
| 3.4.1 | Coordinating function of a CPF | 51 |
| 3.5 | Conclusion | 51 |

CHAPTER FOUR

PLACE AND ROLE OF CPFs IN MERAUFONG LOCAL MUNICIPALITY (MLM) AREA: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

| | | |
|---------|--|----|
| 4.1 | Introduction..... | 52 |
| 4.2 | Research method defined | 52 |
| 4.2.1 | Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaire | 53 |
| 4.2.1.1 | Advantages of questionnaire | 54 |
| 4.2.1.2 | Disadvantages of questionnaire | 54 |
| 4.3 | Questionnaire construction of this study | 55 |
| 4.4 | The rationale for choosing the qualitative method | 57 |
| 4.5 | Characteristics of research instrument | 58 |
| 4.5.1 | Validity | 58 |
| 4.5.2 | Reliability | 59 |
| 4.6 | Sampling and selection | 59 |
| 4.7 | Data collection instrument | 60 |
| 4.7.1 | Interviews | 60 |
| 4.7.2 | Interview questions | 62 |
| 4.8 | Data analysis | 62 |
| 4.9 | Findings on the role of CPFs in crime prevention in MLM | 63 |
| 4.9.1 | Feedback from interviews | 63 |
| 4.9.1.1 | Feedback from interviews with Chairpersons of the CPF | 63 |
| 4.9.2 | Feedback from interviews with members of Executive of the CPF | 67 |
| 4.9.3 | Feedback from interviews with Non-Executive members of the CPF | 70 |
| 4.10 | Feedback from community questionnaire | 73 |
| 4.10.1 | Section A: Profile of respondents | 73 |
| 4.10.2 | Interpretation of the respondents' profile | 77 |
| 4.10.3 | Section B (Questions B1 – B10) The role of CPFs in effective crime prevention in the Merafong Local Municipality Area | 79 |
| 4.11 | Analysis of responses | 89 |

| | |
|--|----|
| 4.11.1 Data collected from Chairpersons of the CPF | 89 |
| 4.11.2 Data collected from members of Executive of the CPF | 89 |
| 4.11.3 Data collected from Non-Executive members of the CPF..... | 89 |
| 4.12 Overall percentage frequency according to questions | 90 |
| 4.13 Conclusion | 90 |

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

| | |
|--|----|
| 5.1 Introduction | 92 |
| 5.2 Summary of chapters | 92 |
| 5.3 Realisation of the objectives of the study | 93 |
| 5.4 Conclusions | 94 |
| 5.5 Recommendations | 96 |
| 6. List of Sources | 99 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| ANNEXURE A: MERA FONG LOCAL MUNICIPALITY AREA | 106 |
| ANNEXURE B: LETTER ASKING FOR INTERVIEW | 107 |
| ANNEXURE C: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS | 108 |
| ANNEXURE D: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMMUNITY | 110 |

CHAPTER ONE

AN OVERVIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING AND THE PROBLEM OF CRIME

1.1 ORIENTATION

In the late 1970s, security worldwide shifted from police business to being 'everybody's business'. Urban unrests in many cities of the world led public authorities to challenge the way that social order is created at local level (Johnston, 2001:959-976). Subsequent reforms of policing structures have favoured the emergence of public participation and private initiatives in the production of security (what is called "community policing"), giving birth to complex networks dealing with the production of security at the local level.

After the collapse of the apartheid regime and the shift towards a democratic government, South Africa faced growing crime levels. Subsequently, national policies on security and safety have focused on community control on a discredited South African Police Service (SAPS), on the structuring of the SAPS, and on setting up public-private partnerships (Tait, 2003:9). The enhancement of community participation, post 1994, was all the more powerful because it was in line with worldwide principles of good governance. Such participation of communities resulted in what is called community policing.

According to Adams (1994:894), community policing refers to "... a shift from a military-inspired approach to fighting crime, to one that relies on forming partnerships with constituents." The primary objective of the South African Police Service (SAPS) is to fight crime (Morrison and Prinsloo, 2001:50-51). According to Stipak (1994:1150), "community policing is a management strategy that promotes joint responsibility of citizens and the SAPS for community safety, through working partnerships and interpersonal contact." Van Rooyen (1994:20) regards community policing as a "... philosophy and strategy which is based on a

partnership between community and the SAPS to find creative solutions for contemporary community problems, crime and other related matters.” To Mastrofski, Worden and Snipes (1995:540) community policing means, “... making the police more co-operative with those who are not police.” According to the South African Police policy, “community policing is a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies and emphasises the establishment of police-community partnerships and a problem-solving approach responsive to the needs of the community” (Reyneke, 1996:12).

The SAPS and the community should become more accessible to each other in order to bridge the gap that exists between them in the context of traditional policing, as conventionally practiced in South Africa. Such a partnership should be based on mutual trust and respect. However, as partnerships are never easy to sustain, recognition must be given to the need for change to take place, both in attitudes and procedures of the professional service within the community. Community policing will deliver a new set of policing services and a new approach to crime prevention techniques and control (Morrison and Prinsloo, 2001:51).

Community policing is enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995, “provides for the establishment of CPFs in respect of police stations”. The main aim of the community policing forums is to promote the accountability of the SAPS to local communities, to encourage cooperation with the SAPS, and to monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the SAPS (Pelser, Schnetler and Louw 2002).

The above principles were legislated in the 1995 South African Police Service Act. Under this Act, CPFs should:

- Establish and maintain a partnership between the community and the SAPS within which they are located;

- Promote communication between the SAPS and the community;
- Promote cooperation between the SAPS and the community towards fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing;
- Improve the rendering of policing service services to the community at national, provincial and local government spheres;
- Improve the transparency of SAPS, and its accountability to the community; and
- Promote joined problem-identification and problem solving by SAPS and the community (RSA, 1995:18 (1) (a)-(f)).

The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) emphasises partnerships for dealing with crime in South Africa. It states that, “to effectively reduce crime, it is necessary to transform and reorganise government and facilitate real community participation (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). In 1997, the Department of Safety and Security published a policy on community policing, entitled “The Community Policing Policy and Framework Guidelines”. These guidelines define community policing as a collaborative, partnership-based approach to local-level crime solving. It stresses that the CPFs should be involved in improving service delivery and facilitating partnerships for problem solving (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

According to the *Batho Pele* document published by the then Department of Public Service and Administration (2003), the core functions of CPFs are:

- Accountability – the creation of a culture for addressing the concerns of the community;
- Service orientation – the provision of a policing service responsive to community needs and accountable for addressing them;
- Problem-solving – joint identification of the causes of crime, and the development of innovative measures to address them;

- Partnership – the facilitation of a cooperative, consultative process of problem solving; and
- Empowerment – the creation of joint responsibility for addressing crime.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Crime is a serious problem in South Africa. It affects the quality of life of every South African. Preventing crime has been a priority for Government since 1996 when the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was launched (Department of Safety and Security, 2000:3). This strategy shows that preventing crime - rather than relying on the criminal justice process to arrest and convict offenders – is critical to make communities safer. The NCPS is based on the idea that the SAPS alone cannot reduce crime. Without the involvement of the community and of Government departments other than the Department of Safety and Security, it will be difficult to reduce crime. As a result, the National Departments of Justice, Correctional Services and Social Welfare also have primary responsibilities for the NCPS, together with the provincial secretariats of the Departments of Safety and Security, Justice, Correctional Services and Social Welfare. The NCPS has laid the foundation for a community crime prevention strategy, namely the CPFs. This strategy is a framework for crime prevention activities that will make communities safer to live and thrive in.

According to the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 (Department of Safety and Security, 1995:18), each police station must have a CPF. The Merafong Local Municipality (MLM) area of jurisdiction is located in the Gauteng Province. It is part of the West Rand District Municipality with its municipal Head Office situated in Randfontein. It is home to a number of gold mining operations (see Annexure A for a locality map of the area.)

In view of the above contextualisation, the main problem that this study addresses therefore is: “What is the place and role of the CPFs in effective crime prevention in the Merafong Local Municipality’s (MLM) area?”

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In view of the problem statement that derives from the contextual background, the following research questions were formulated:

- What are the existing legislative requirements for effective, efficient and economical crime prevention by CPFs?
- What does effective community policing by means of CPFs entail?
- Do the members of CPFs understand their roles in effective crime prevention or diminution in their respective communities?
- Do CPFs in the selected MLM responsibility area function effectively, efficiently and economically?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the study were to establish the following:

- To determine what the existing legislative requirements are for effective, efficient and economic crime prevention by CPFs.
- To determine what effective community policing means in the context of South African Police Service Act Section 18 Chapter 7 Act 68 of 1995.
- To establish whether the members of selected CPFs have adequate knowledge of their roles and functions as stipulated in SAPS Act 68 Chapter 7 Section 18 of 1995.

- To establish whether CPFs in the selected MLM's responsibility area function effectively, efficiently and economically.

1.5 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENT

The South African Police Act 68 of 1995 is a law which applies to all organisational units of the SAPS organogram. A CPF, as one of the organs in a geographically dispersed SAPS station, must operate within the frameworks of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995. The Act provides clear guidelines on *who* and *what* should constitute the CPFs (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:18-19). According to the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), it is based on the idea that the SAPS alone cannot reduce crime. Without the involvement of the respective communities and the government departments other than the Department of Safety and Security, it will be difficult to reduce crime.

The NCPS has laid a foundation for crime prevention. The challenge now is to make the National Crime Prevention Strategy work in communities across the country. Local government has been identified in the policies of the Department of Safety and Security and the Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs as the partner best able to carry out crime prevention programmes (Department of Safety and Security, 2000:11). It is therefore critical that a holistic approach should be developed in order for the intended results to be achieved. This means that the extent to which the CPFs and SAPS engage in their various tasks will be reflected in the achievement of the intended results in the MLM area.

1.6 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

To realise the aims of this study, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used. The qualitative research method allowed the researcher to observe the respondents' understanding of their role and responsibilities and to

establish how they use their knowledge towards effective crime prevention (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:62-65), for example, in the MLM area. The Qualitative research method, on the other hand, allows the researcher to assign numbers to observations by counting and measuring the current state of affairs regarding the CPF's activities in fighting crime in respective communities. Data was collected through an interview and a structured questionnaire. The methodology used will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

1.6.1 Literature review

A literature study was conducted that involved an analysis of primary data such as legislation, namely the South African Police Service (SAPS) Act 68 of 1995, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996, the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (*Batho Pele*) and the National Crime Prevention Strategy (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). Journals, dissertations, relevant theses, books as well as Government publications were also used as sources of this study. The theoretical framework thus created was then used as a background for the empirical side of this research.

1.6.2 Data bases

The following data bases were consulted to ascertain whether adequate study material needed for this study was available:

- South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995.
- Catalogues of books: Ferdinand Postma Library.
- Catalogues of theses and dissertations of South African Universities.
- South African Police Service workshop documents.
- EBSCOhost Academic Search Elite.

1.6.3 Empirical investigation

In the research study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with chairpersons of the respective four CPFs, four members of the Executive of the CPFs and four Non-Executive members of the CPFs and 125 questionnaires were administered on community members where police stations are situated. Owing to the limited scope of this study, interviews were conducted with twelve participants who are at the forefront in the activities of the four CPFs in the MLM's area of jurisdiction. Interviews were conducted with Chairpersons of CPFs, the members of the Executive of the CPFs and Non-Executive members of the CPFs.

A questionnaire was randomly administered on twenty five community members residing in the jurisdiction of the MLM police stations. Because there are five geographically dispersed police stations in the MLM area, this implies that a total of hundred and twenty five (125) participants were involved. Both interviews and questionnaires were aimed at unpacking the role of CPFs in effective crime prevention. Processing of data obtained during the interviews and the questionnaires took place for each aspect of the data.

1.7 CHAPTER HEADINGS

CHAPTER 1 AN OVERVIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING AND THE PROBLEM OF CRIME

This chapter introduces the study by providing the necessary background and outlining the problem statement. It also sets out the objectives of the study as well as the research methodology used.

CHAPTER 2 THE SAPS POLICING CONTEXT: SOCIO-ECONOMIC DYNAMICS

This chapter examines the previous policing context. It outlines community policing in a broad sense and discusses policing as it happened prior to 1994 in South Africa. It concludes by discussing the current community policing approach in detail.

CHAPTER 3 STATUTORY AND REGULATORY GUIDELINES FOR THE FUNCTIONING OF A CPF

This chapter presents a discussion of statutory and legislative guidelines that affect the establishment and implementation of a CPF. It outlines the notions of policing and highlights the changes that took place after 1994. These changes evolve around the emerging roles of various stakeholders in the community that need to be in place with a view to achieve a successful CPF.

CHAPTER 4 PLACE AND ROLE OF CPFS IN MERAUFONG LOCAL MUNICIPALITY (MLM) AREA: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

This chapter outlines the methods of the design, the empirical research and the presentation of data. An analysis of data was also undertaken. Interviews form the basis of the discussion in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the findings of the research. It further draws conclusions from the research and makes recommendations for good practice with reference to the activities of the CPFs in the MLM area.

1.8 CONCLUSION

The first chapter refers to the introduction of the study, research objectives and research methods. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in gathering data and analysing data. The next chapter discusses the SAPS policing context in relation to socio-economic dynamics.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SAPS POLICING CONTEXT: SOCIO-ECONOMIC DYNAMICS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As countries of the developing world struggle to manage the shift from authoritarian policing towards democratic policing, they have searched for possible models to adopt. A number of countries have turned to community policing as a way to strengthen the accountability of the police to citizens (Davis Henderson and Merrick, 2003). Community policing was developed in Western democracies under different conditions than those which exist in the developing world. Nonetheless, in view of the rise of democratic institutions around the world, governments and civil society have looked at ways to transform police agencies to becoming organisations that are accountable to citizens in the societies in which they operate (Neild, 2001:21-43).

This chapter presents an overview of the SAPS policing context. The motivation for this is to contextualise the development of the community policing strategy. Legislative changes that occurred after 1994 will also be discussed and emphasis will be placed on the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, as well as community policing forums and their responsibilities.

2.2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING AROUND THE WORLD

According to Forman (2004:4-6), community policing grew out of a variety of sources, but of central importance was the growing consensus in the 1970s and 1980s that police-community relationships in many cities had become untenable. Many departments and individual officers had long subscribed to the “warrior model” of the detached, aloof crime-fighter who daily battles the hostile enemy – the public.

Indeed, it was something of a matter of faith in many city policing forces that citizens were inalterably opposed to the police, and therefore would never cooperate, regardless of what the police did. In a study by Westley (1970) it was found that seventy-three percent of police officers believed that the public was “against the police” or “hates the police”. Thirteen percent believed that “some are for us, some against us”. In short, in most large cities, police officials believed that the public saw them as “brutal, annoying and inconsiderate”. The same research showed that community policing gained quite a measure of support when police officials confronted new technological findings demonstrating the inadequacy of many traditional police tactics (Groves, 1968). Groves’ research particularly suggested that police officers spent relatively little time fighting violent crime, and instead spent the bulk of their shifts passively patrolling and providing other services. Finally, the research showed that most crimes are not solved by investigation, but rather because offenders are arrested immediately on the scene or the police are given specific identifying information such as names, addresses, or license plate numbers.

With crime and fear on the rise, and community relations at a low, research questioning the efficiency of current approaches – some within policing circles – began to conclude that the warrior strategy was failing. However, replacing the warrior strategy required a paradigm shift that was not easy. It meant questioning the entrenched belief that the public – especially minority residents of inner cities – was implacably hostile to the policing enterprise. This realisation required police in the USA, for example, to recognise that, although inner city residents were more critical than were other Americans, substantial majorities nonetheless held generally favourable views of police (Walker, 2000). Even more profoundly, it meant understanding that even those who were critical did not want less policing – they generally wanted more, and better protection.

The recognition of this reservoir of community support for policing was connected to a broader understanding that even high-crime communities are made up principally of law-abiders. Community policing was built on the import of these findings, and its challenge was to replace the warrior model with one premised on the notion that the police and community could become co-producers of public safety, rather than hostile antagonists (Miller, 1999). Based on this idea, there was a desire to improve the relationship between the public and the police. In the 1970s a large and significant shift towards community policing was born. The redefinition of the public represented the external change in the environment for the police. Faced with a crisis in community relations with the public in general – and the poor and minorities in particular – police administrators sought innovative ways to improve their relations with this newly defined “public” (Ren, Cao, Lovrich and Gaffney, 2005: 55-56).

Since community policing entailed a shift in terms of the prioritisation of police work, it also demanded alternative measures of police performance. Traditionally, measures of police effectiveness were associated with crime fighting – for example rapid response and arrest rate. In the mid-1960s, crime in large cities began to increase sharply and the public fear of crime concurrently increased substantially. Police departments, which had built their reputations solely on the basis of crime-control and crime-fighting expertise, were challenged to defend their effectiveness in the face of rising crime rates and concomitant increased fear (Thurman, Zhao and Giacomazzi, 2001). Traditional strategies which focused on motorised patrol and on special groups of disadvantaged individuals (such as slums and minorities) failed to reduce high crime rates. At the same time, this reactive style of policing isolated the police from residents. The majority of citizens never interacted with police in non-criminal or non-emergency situations, and the police service became distanced from the reach of the general public (Ren *et al.*, 2005: 55-56).

This was a serious problem in democratic societies where governments had to be accountable for the delivery of public service. While changes in the external environment forced the police in many democratic countries to improve relations with local communities, internal organisational changes in police departments contributed to the importance of long-standing connections between the police and members of the communities that they served. Starting in the 1980s, some police departments in democratic countries addressed their relations with minorities and the youth in communities by creating youth-orientated educational and recreational programmes, while others installed block and neighbourhood watch programmes to maintain social order and reduce the general fear of crime. In the meantime, volunteer participation programmes were gaining popularity in some communities, and partnerships between police and local residents were formed based on mutual trust (again, in democratic countries). These new programmes also challenged the police administration to rethink traditional techniques used to evaluating officers' effectiveness. Community policing thus called for different measures to evaluate the frontline officers in order to reflect the diverse responsibilities of an ever-broadening police role (Oettmeier and Wycoff, 1999: 57-77).

2.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN SOUTH AFRICA

During the period from 1970 to 1990, the police force in South Africa was primarily focused on curbing the political resistance that was spreading across the country (Singh, 2005:43). The result of this state of affairs was that essential policing activities such as crime prevention were neglected. Secondly, prior 1994, South Africans were legally required to live in designated areas determined by their race. The apartheid state ensured the privileges of the White minority by various practices which also included assuring their safety as best as possible. The consequence of this was that the geographic spread of police stations, resources and services was in favour of the designated White areas (Singh, 2005:4).

After 1994, the state-enforced geographical residential boundaries were removed from the statutes and many Black people moved to the better developed, better-opportunity urban areas of the country (Singh, 2005). Housing was at a premium and no contingency plans had been made by the newly elected Government to accommodate the tremendous influx of people. The result was an emergence of “informal settlements” with groups of Black people unilaterally appropriating and settling on tracts of open land where they built basic homes. For various reasons – both legitimate and disruptive – the country was faced with high levels of crime being reported in the public and the private media. When the true extent of crime began to be exposed, it became clear that the SAPS did not have sufficient resources to deal with the problem.

As the perception of the inability of the SAPS to contain crime in the country began to grow, the real threat to personal safety became more relevant. Members of the public were seeking alternative resources to satisfy their need for protection. According to Minnaar (2004:8), community fears and growing demands for personal safety have resulted in what is called a “siege mentality” where people are willing to submit themselves to a comprehensive range of security measures and procedures, live under constant security surveillance and control, and often giving up individual freedoms such as open access, free movement and privacy.

The “environmental design” of many poorer Black rural and semi-rural settlements and also the emerging urban informal settlements implied that these areas have few street lights, and not many proper roads or maintained pathways. This has resulted in a situation where the SAPS loath to patrol such areas. Consequently, there was little organised or effective policing in such neighbourhoods (Singh, 2005:46).

2.4 DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMMUNITY POLICING APPROACH

On 14 September 1991, the Nationalist Government signed the National Peace Accord (NPA) between the African National Congress (ANC) and *Inkatha*. The Accord sought to establish protection as the principal objective of the SAPS, and accountability and partnership as the touchstones of the institution's relationship with society (Pelser, 1999:1-15). Local dispute resolution and police-community liaison committees sprang up following the signing of the NPA.

Community policing was first institutionalised under the terms of the "Interim" Constitution of 1993 (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 200 of 1993). The Act made provision for the establishment of a CPF in every police station. As set out in section 22 (1) of the "Interim" Constitution, the functions of CPFs were to promote the local accountability of the SAPS, advise on local policing priorities, monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the service, and evaluate the provision of visible policing. The political priority of the institutionalisation of community policing through the CPFs was to democratise and legitimise state policing by enhancing oversight and accountability, particularly at local level (Pelser, 1999: 1-15).

Shortly after a Government of National Unity dominated by the ANC took office following the elections of April 1994, the then Minister of Safety and Security, Sydney Mufamadi, published a draft policy document in which he called for communities, "to be empowered to engage meaningfully with local police about their problems and priorities" in accordance with the terms of the "Interim" Constitution (Department of Safety and Security, 1994:12). Local police commanders were enjoined to implement community policing and to, "interact with, and accommodate informal policing systems where they add to the general problem-solving capacity of the community" (Department of Safety and Security, 1994:14). The following year, 1995, saw the detailed legislation on CPFs as found in section 221 of the 1993 Constitution of South Africa. Preventing crime

by encouraging civil society institutions and other Government departments to work in partnership with the SAPS was further bolstered in 1996 with the publication of the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). Concerned with getting to the structural roots of crime (Dixon and Johns, 2004), the NCPS gave further impetus to popular involvement in the informal criminal justice system.

The Department of Safety and Security published a manual on community policing for the SAPS in 1997, defining it in terms of a “collaborative, partnership-based approach to local problem-solving” (Pelser *et al.*, 2002:24). By this time, it was clear that the state and the SAPS held the controlling interest in community policing. As the 1997 guideline puts it, community policing is “smart policing” because (amongst other things) it, “mobilises the community against crime” and, “activates the community as a source of assistance and information” (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:2-10). In this case, the capabilities of civil society are construed as a source to be exploited by the true “owners” of policing, the SAPS. With all these policies and legislations, police officers are impressed with democratic principles established to foster more functional relations with the communities in which they work. They are also impressed with internal democratisation of the service which gives increased personal freedom to public officers themselves.

According to Marks (1997:59), one police officer indicated the role that community should play in community policing:

The responsibilities of communities in community policing are to supply the police with information. They should also identify problems that exist in a specific community and help with solving them (Interview with Constable at the C.R. Swart police station, June 1996).

Another indicated that:

The community needs to provide accurate information to the police. They should not take law into their own hands (Interview with a Constable in Umlazi Public Order Policing, June 1996).

2.5 DEFINING COMMUNITY POLICING

What exactly is community policing? This definitional issue arises because the term has come to refer to a wide range of police tactics. It can mean “order maintenance” strategies in which the police aggressively prosecute offences such as panhandling, vagrancy or prostitution. In the press, for example, community policing can mean police officers playing with children in a housing project and smiling at babies. At its core, however, community policing is not a set of tactics, but instead is an organisational strategy for running a department (Forman, 2004:7). This strategy has two essential elements. Firstly, it requires that citizens, at the neighbourhood level, meet regularly with SAPS officials to jointly identify neighbourhood problems and assist to set SAPS priorities. This consultation serves four functions:

- It allows neighbourhood residents to express their concerns and needs with reference to safety and security;
- It allows a forum to educate citizens about neighbourhood crime issues;
- It gives citizens an opportunity to state complaints about the police service rendered; and
- It gives the SAPS the opportunity to report back on actions they have taken and successes (or not) they have had (Forman, 2004:7).

The second critical element is that citizens, again at the local level, assume responsibility for helping to address safety and security problems that they have identified (Forman, 2004: 7).

The distinctiveness of the above definition on community policing becomes clear when contrasted with David Cole's (in Forman, 2004:8) account of community policing:

[Community policing], already under way in many departments across the country, tries to make police an integral part of the neighbourhood they serve through more decentralised police stations, more foot patrols, and regular meetings with citizens in the respective communities. Where such programmes develop effective channels for communication between the police and the community about their respective needs, the programmes can play an important role in restoring community trust and overcoming the adversarial relationships too many police departments have with disadvantaged communities.

According to the above statement, no one "channel of communication" is regarded as primary. What is said at "regular meetings" is not necessarily more significant than what is said when police officers talk to citizens while on foot patrol or informally at decentralised police stations. On the contrary, these informal contacts matter, but formal, deliberative meetings between police and community are the heart of the matter (Forman, 2004: 8).

2.5.1 Existing definitions of community policing

- (i) Community policing, in terms of the Trojanowicz paradigm, is regarded as, "a philosophy of full service personalising policing, where the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralised place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems" (Trojanowicz, Keppler, Gaines and Bucqueroux, 1998:7).
- (ii) Van Rooyen (1994:19) offers the following definition:

Community policing is a philosophy and strategy which is based on a partnership between the community and the police to find creative solutions for contemporary community problems.

- (iii) Stevens and Yach (1995:6) regard community policing as:

... a policing style that provides for the involvement of local residents in policing matters. It sees mutual trust and respect as a prerequisite for the police/community partnerships and therefore requires that communities be policed by and with their consent.

- (iv) The Upper Midwest Community Policing Institute (2001:1) defines community policing as:

An organisational-wide philosophy and management approach that promotes community, Government and police partnerships; pro-active problem-solving; and community engagement to address the causes of crime, fear of crime and other community issues.

- (v) For the purpose of this study, community policing is defined as follows:

Community policing is an organisational-wide philosophy that promotes community-police partnerships (Van Rooyen, 1994:19-20) based on equal responsibility, that aims to remove the underlying causes of crime by means of community consultation, both structured and at patrol level (Stevens and Yach, 1995:6), personalised and decentralised patrols (Ziembo-Vogel & Woods, 1996:4), accountability to the public (Pelser, 1999: 11) and with an overarching focus on pro-active problem-solving and public maintenance (Kelling and Coles, 1996:164).

2.6 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNITY POLICING

The following elements are important principles on which community policing should be based:

2.6.1 Partnership

The realisation has dawned on most that in South Africa, the SAPS is not able to deal effectively with the symptoms of crime and the eradication of the causes of

crime on its own, without the active assistance of local communities. It has also been realised that crime can only be addressed effectively if the respective communities accept shared responsibility for their own safety and security (Van Rooyen, 1994:19). The extent to which the SAPS will be empowered to deal effectively with crime is determined by the measure of community involvement in the criminal justice system (Tilley, 2004: 129).

Stevens and Yach (1995:35) maintain that it is imperative for any police system to have the support of the community if they are to succeed in addressing crime effectively. For the police to obtain this critical support, their service delivery will have to be rooted in the community, and they have to be accountable to the community. Community policing accordingly refers to an interactive partnership between the police and the community in which relevant problems are identified and solved. It requires, too, that the community becomes an active partner in determining specific policing requirements. The ultimate objective of community policing is thus to secure a co-operation contract of policing by means of the establishment of a partnership between the police and all the respective communities (Van Rooyen, 1994:21-25) through which crime, service delivery and relations between police and community can be assessed and solutions be identified and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:2).

According to Trojanowicz *et al.* (1998:1), a community policing partnership is in essence a partnership of trust through which the average resident is afforded the opportunity to deliver inputs in policing matters, in exchange for the residents' participation in bringing down crime levels. Police and community will, in terms of this philosophy, have to co-operate closely in the search for new solutions to crime and other community problems that may have been conducive to crime (Van Rooyen, 1994: 20). The community and police thus have a shared responsibility but are independent (Zwane, 1994:2). Partnerships can promote a sense of community strength and enhanced cohesion, which can enable the community to react to immediate crime prevention requirements, to lay a

foundation for future actions, to harness community resources, and to maintain the social and economic well-being of a community (Trojanowicz, 1994).

Partnerships are likely to include diverse groups. It is therefore important that common ground be identified, and that a shared vision in terms of community and police expectations for community safety should be developed and accepted. Specific strengths and weaknesses of the community and the SAPS (in terms of what they can contribute) need to be recognised and utilised effectively. One should further ensure that the partnership provides for participation by average residents and not only community leaders. The very nature of community policing requires that input from grass-roots levels should also be taken into consideration in community safety matters (Trojanowicz *et al.*, 1998:6-7).

This means that partners should be equal; one partner should not be more dominant, influential, committed or accountable than the other. An equal partnership model should therefore be adopted in terms of which all parties are regarded as equally responsible for community safety. Judging from the above-mentioned imperatives, it is clear that a healthy police-community partnership forms the basis of community policing and will provide efficient communication channels that will contribute to effective consultation.

2.6.2 Consultation

The purpose of consultation is to obtain the best possible information on which the policing can be based. Good consultation practice also aims to improve community-police relationships and to reach agreements on solutions to local problems. As entrenched in the Constitution, CPFs represent the formal structure for community consultation on safety and security matters. It provides a much-needed vehicle for such consultation which should impact in a positive manner on the quality of policing (Stevens and Yach, 1995:36-53). Such consultative

forums, furthermore, provide a framework in which community-police partnerships can be facilitated in problem identification and solving that can be jointly embarked upon (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

According to Stevens and Yach (1995:52), the following goals can be achieved through the establishment of formal consultative structures:

- Improving the articulation of community input;
- Solving of problems;
- Agreeing on the underlying causes of crime and identifying adequate solutions;
- Educating the community on policing and safety matters;
- Facilitating conflict resolution within the partnership;
- Encouraging communities to pursue local crime prevention initiatives actively, on their own; and
- Police orientation in terms of community priorities and needs.

Other goals identified by the Department of Safety and Security (1997:57) are the following:

- Strengthening the community-police partnership; and
- Ensuring adequate provision for accountability and transparency.

In view of the importance of maintaining a healthy relationship between the SAPS and South African society, the Community Policing Framework and Guidelines of the SAPS suggest that consultative forums must develop Police Service Contracts which should provide for the following:

- Ensuring quality in the delivery of policing services;
- Identifying local needs and priorities; and

- Evaluating services rendered by police (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:78).

Consultative forums should secure the confident participation of the local community, and its members should be representative of the relevant community. The forum should not be established on a political basis and should include broad representation from the entire community. This will ensure that input from grass-roots levels is reflected in policing programmes. There should, furthermore, be attempts to include those community representatives with an active interest in community safety. Consultation in the context of community policing should not be seen as merely informing the public or establishing a community-police dialogue. It should rather be seen as a term that is, “aimed at pro-active programmes and integrates police-community relations with practical police work” (Van Rooyen, 1994:38-39).

Van Rooyen (1994:38) identifies the following elements of consultation:

- Representativeness
Consultation will not be possible if the entire community is not adequately represented in the forum.
- Openness
Open communication should be practiced as this will promote mutual trust and respect.
- Accountability
The community-police partnership implies a shared responsibility for the community’s safety. Accountability to this, partnership can be demanded within structures of a formal consultative forum.
- Honesty
Honesty is an absolute requirement for successful consultation.
- Mutual participation
Consultation is an interactive process that requires input from both parties.

- Exchange of information

Consultation requires that the best information be gathered to allow for sound public decision-making.

The community participation process allows for community members to share and discuss their specific problems; to identify, and prioritise their needs; to come up with potential solutions, and also to evaluate its implementation.

2.6.3 Personalised patrols

Community policing is people-driven and therefore requires enhanced interpersonal contact and also entails that residents are regarded as customers and not complainants. To achieve such personalised policing and to improve public service delivery, it is important for the police station to be resourced with patrol vehicles (Ziembo-Vogel and Woods, 1996:6).

(i) Foot patrols

In an experiment conducted by Professor Kelling (in Wilson and Kelling, 1982:29-38) regarding the Network Foot Patrol, it was found that:

Officers involved themselves in the lives of local communities to the extent that they were well-known to the people who lived and worked there. This close contact with the community enabled them to identify local problems and to be supplied with relevant information on a regular basis. Co-operating with the residents in this manner even enabled them to, on behalf of the residents, institute formal “rules of the streets” that were widely accepted. These rules relate to general acts of disorder such as drinking in public areas, aggressive begging and soliciting for prostitution (Wilson and Kelling, 1982:16 – 19).

Police foot patrol in the United States of America and other parts of the world is extremely popular with residents and it has resulted in a dramatic reduction of fear among the community members (Wilson and Kelling, 1982:19). The authors concluded that, as a result of this reduction of fear, police foot patrols have indeed made the relevant areas safer.

This notion is supported by Ziembo-Vogel and Woods (1996:9) who maintains that foot patrols have managed to enhance communities' perception of safety in many parts of the world. Both Ziembo-Vogel and Woods (1996: 3) and Wilson and Kelling (1982:29-38) propound that, when a geographical area is perceived to be safer, it will most likely have a healthy impact on the social fibre of the relevant community as residents might feel more free to engage in social activities within their communities. It is evident from the above that personalised patrols constitute an important part of community consultation and that it should, in fact, be viewed to be as important as structural consultation.

(ii) *Permanent assignment*

Another important consideration in terms of personalising policing efforts is to assign a patrol officer to a specific area on a permanent basis. This will enable the officer to communicate, on a daily basis, with residents and other people who visit the area fairly often. The community police officer's face-to-face interaction with local residents on such a daily basis will enable him/her to identify priorities at the local level (Trojanowicz *et al.*, 1998:2).

According to Van Rooyen (1994:25), the objectives of community policing can be achieved by the consistent involvement of the same police officer in the same area to allow for a trusting relationship to be established between the officer and the community. This will create an environment in which community support can be harnessed towards the identification of the underlying causes of crime.

Policing areas should be determined in accordance with community boundaries, and police officers should be assigned to such geographically determined areas on a permanent basis (Kelling and Coles, 1996:160). To achieve effective personalised patrolling, patrols should be planned in such a way that they enable police officers to work closely with residents and community groupings in order to identify and address community problems that may be causes of crime.

2.6.4 Decentralisation

As safety and security problems occur at a local level, the area's responsible Police Station Commissioner must decide on which policing action should be taken, and this needs to be delegated to local levels with a view to ensure that the police are responsive to community needs (Kelling and Coles, 1996:160). Decentralisation implies that at least some patrol officers should be freed from rigid time schedules and that they are assigned a wider range of responsibilities, which include the identification of causes of crime and disorder and working with other agencies in dealing with such problems (Wilson and Kelling, 1982:7). This approach requires a shift away from a practice where decisions are taken by senior management who are not in day-to-day contact with community concerns at grass roots level, and the concomitant empowering of local police to make decisions locally (Stevens and Yach, 1995:39).

2.6.5 Problem-solving

Problem-solving through partnerships is key to the success of community policing. In this partnership, the community accepts the shared responsibility for the prevention of crime in view of the fact that the community is aware that the police do not have the means to reduce crime effectively on its own (Ziembo-Vogel and Woods, 1996:8).

Stevens and Yach (1995:10) urge that it is imperative for the police to obtain the trust and support of local residents if they wish to be successful in the fight against crime in the area. This, together with the proper capacitating of the community to play an active part in maintaining law and order, will effectively lay the foundation for police to adopt a “problem-solving approach” to crime (Stevens and Yach, 1995:10). Such an approach requires that the underlying causes of crime are reflected upon, as the occurrence of specific crimes can usually be linked to other problems within the community. It therefore follows that solving such problems within a community will most likely have a positive result in terms of the reduction of crime (Stevens and Yach, 1995:10-11).

In pursuit of a problem-solving technique in policing, the SARA model was developed (Oliver, 2000: 367-388):

- Scanning - identify the problem that causes crime;
- Analysis - study the problem and identify potential solutions;
- Response - implement an appropriate response specifically designed for the problem; and
- Assessment - assess the action and results.

2.6.6 Proactive conduct

Traditional policing methods are “incidents orientated”. A member of the public calls to report an incident and the police then respond appropriately, depending on the nature of the crime. However, if police respond to incidents only, then the root causes of crime will not be addressed and criminal incidents will continue (Wilson and Kelling, 1982:2).

On the other hand, a proactive approach requires that police action is initiated before a crime is committed. It is aimed at reducing the risk among residents of becoming the victims of crime. Community policing aims to achieve this by

gaining a better understanding of the underlying problems that cause crime, through strengthened community-police relations. The proactive conduct of community policing thus means that the underlying causes of problems that lead to crime are addressed, and not only the symptoms (Van Rooyen, 1994:56).

2.6.7 Accountability

Accountability is a widely used term but is often used out of context. It is simply a security measure: of being held responsible for one's actions. These actions must relate to a task or project at hand, and there must be mutual agreement on the deliverables. It is therefore a means of ensuring that a project is completed successfully within its deadline, budget and all the "agreed" variables. However, holding someone accountable for his or her actions would best be done on the basis of clear instructions being given in advance.

This does not imply that being accountable for something means that one always have to achieve success in all attempts; instead, it is about delivering one's best, given the available resources (Department of Safety and Security, 1997). Being able to admit failure or defeat and being proactive about it (regularly reporting obstacles, whatever their size or nature) can show true accountability and leadership, both in the workplace as well as on the home front. If best attempts have failed, one should be able to give an account of this – having (documented) evidence of obstacles one has faced whilst trying to complete a task would help others to accept a less successful outcome.

By definition, accountability is a fundamental principle of a democratic society – and also means that the police should be able to account for their actions (RSA, 1996). Accountability includes both *what* the police do and *how* they perform. At the level of the police station, accountability involves the performance of law enforcement with respect to controlling crime and disorder and providing services to the public (National Institute of Justice, 1999). Individual-level accountability

involves the conduct of police officers with respect to lawful, respectful and equal treatment of citizens.

Accountability means that the institution must account for (give an explanation for, or a reckoning of) the manner in which it has performed every specific function for which it has been made responsible. Accountability requires institutions and functionaries to account for (explain) the positive as well as negative results obtained from the performance of the functions entrusted to them. However, an institution or a functionary can be called to account for the results obtained from the performance of specific functions only after having been made responsible for the performance of the functions (Cloete, 1996:18-19).

According to Schwella *et al.* (in Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat and Cheminais, 1998:114), accountability in its broadest sense is an obligation to expose, to explain and to justify actions. Public accountability demands that the actions of public institutions should be publicised with a view to encourage public debate and criticism. Accountability is answerability (Du Toit *et al.*, 1998:114). Furthermore, accountability means to answer and be responsible to an external authority; by implication, making the police answerable and responsible to the community (Department of Safety and Security, 1997:66).

It is clear from the above discussion that firstly, responsibility to perform a function must be assigned or delegated to an institution or functionary; secondly, that an institution or a functionary must be answerable for the execution of the entrusted functions; and thirdly, that positive and negative results as well as actions taken or omitted should be exposed and explained.

The above discussion elucidated the kind of partnership that needs to exist between the police and the community, which is further elaborated below.

2.7 FROM COMMUNITY AND POLICE TO COMMUNITY-POLICE PARTNERSHIP

The partnership approach to policing emphasises that the relationships between the police and the public should be consultative, and need to extend into the process of planning. Furthermore, the community and its leaders must be involved in determining the policing needs of the area, the style of police work that would be effective and appropriate, as well as desirable or undesirable forms of police intervention (Newman, 1989). Hence, partnership policing may be defined as the police taking, “a proactive leadership role in bringing disparate community groups such as the public, elected officials, Government and other agencies together to focus on crime and community disorder problems”. Ultimately, the new role of the police is that of an “accountable professional practitioner” and a community leader who wants to harness community resources to tackle the problems leading to crime and disorder. Police professionalism is hereby recast into a new mould.

Partnership involves the heart of what is meant by community safety. While this idea may have the ring of an advertising jingle, it highlights the principle that no single agency alone can succeed in reducing crime. This sentiment is echoed by John Smith, who expressed the view that, “any comprehensive strategy to reduce crime must not only include the contribution of the police and the criminal justice system, but also the whole range of environmental, social, economic and educational factors which affect the likelihood of crime” (in Avery, 1981:3). In this regard, it is the aim of the NCPS to establish partnerships between government institutions, and to a lesser extent private enterprises, in addressing crime. The basis for such partnerships must be the recognition by all participating role-players that they have something to gain by working together. Like partners in a business context recognise their joint responsibilities, each participating agency must be able to make a contribution towards combating crime.

However, it must be recognised that there is no single model of a partnership that applies to all contexts. Examples of partnerships will naturally vary in their objectives, resources and results. The principle of finding local solutions to address local issues remains important.

Each partnership should tailor the following six elements to adhere to its local environment:

- Structure;
- Leadership;
- Information;
- Identity;
- Durability; and
- Resources (Department of Safety and Security, 1997)

The partnership approach should emphasise the following principles in the creation of a successful partnership:

- There should be an equitable distribution of power. A powerful agency should not impose its views, priorities and objectives upon others with less power.
- Trust is a vital component for partnerships to flourish. An effective partnership, as in all human relationships, is built upon mutual trust, honesty and sharing of information and views.
- The fundamental factor in the successful application of the partnership approach is the involvement of local government at local level. As a provider of a range of services that has a direct impact upon the causes of crime – such as education, housing and recreation – the local authority has a major role to play (Jones, 1984).

The above discussion sheds light on the development of the recent policing approach. It puts community policing in the forefront as one of the many strategies to fight crime. Above all, it must be remembered that crime is the product of many different factors. All institutions and enterprises that can influence these factors must participate with a view to make communities safer. Because institutions have different perspectives and skills, their crime prevention activities need to be formalised and coordinated. Partnerships are the key to making such many organisations strategies work.

2.8 CONCLUSION

All organizations that can influence the crime factors must take part in projects to make a community safe. Because these organizations all have different perspectives and skills, their crime prevention activities need to be formalized and coordinated. Partnerships are the key to making such multiagency approaches work. The next chapter discusses statutory and regulatory guidelines for the functioning of a CPF.

CHAPTER 3

STATUTORY AND REGULATORY GUIDELINES FOR THE FUNCTIONING OF A CPF

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The advent of democracy in April 1994 ushered in what is, without doubt, the most optimistic era in the history of South Africa. This new democracy brought about the potential for unprecedented progress for the country, and with it came the promise that its people would be able to live their lives in prosperous peace. It is because of these reasons that the Government's policy agenda on safety and security was shaped by two objectives during the post-1994 period: firstly, to rehabilitate the police to ensure that they become protectors of communities; and secondly, to mobilise communities to participate in the provision of safety and security (RSA, 1998).

This chapter presents an overview of statutory and regulatory guidelines for the functioning of a CPF. The motivation for this is to offer a contextualisation of the development of the community policing approach. Various legislative and policy guidelines will be discussed, indicating how such legislation and policy guidelines influence the functioning of CPF in fulfilling their roles and responsibilities.

3.2 RELEVANT LEGISLATION AND POLICIES SINCE 1994

The following legislation and policies that had a bearing on, and assisted towards establishing guidelines for the development of a CPF, can be identified:

- The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998). It places the establishment of a CPF in every police station in context.

- The South African Police Service (SAPS) Act 68 of 1995. It provides for a relationship between the SAPS and communities. The Act also sets out rules for community police forums, area community police boards and provincial community police boards.
- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996. It guarantees the human rights of all inhabitants of South Africa.
- The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995). It obligates all Government departments and their employees to provide good service to all South Africans.
- The National Crime Prevention Strategy (1996). It indicates that the SAPS and the courts cannot prevent all the crime on their own, and sets out that communities must also participate in crime prevention plans.
- The Justice Vision 2000 – Justice for All policy document is a policy goal from the Department of Justice. It outlines the goal of the Department in building a positive relationship with communities in the administration of justice.

The work of CPFs should take place within the parameters of these legislative and policy guidelines.

3.3 SPECIFIC LEGISLATION AND POLICY GUIDELINES ON COMMUNITY POLICING

The following legislation on CPFs is applicable.

3.3.1 The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998)

The 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security attempted to intensify Government's policy approach to crime in South Africa. It focuses on three key areas:

- Law enforcement;
- Crime prevention; and
- Institutional reform to meet public service delivery.

3.3.1.1 *LAW ENFORCEMENT*

The focus areas identified in the White Paper (1998) are aimed at ensuring effective law enforcement and service-orientated policing, specifically to:

- Improve the investigative capacity of the SAPS;
- Implement targeted visible policing; and
- Improve services to victims of crime.

3.3.1.2 *CRIME PREVENTION*

The White Paper provided a wide new definition of crime prevention as, "all activities which reduce or prevent the occurrence of specific crimes first, by altering the environment in which they occur; secondly by changing the conditions which are sought to cause them; and thirdly by providing a strong deterrent in the form of an effective criminal justice system".

In the area of crime prevention, the White Paper introduced new approaches such as "developmental" crime prevention aimed at young people and families; "situational crime prevention" and "community crime prevention", to be targeted at specific geographical areas. The White Paper advocates targeted, multi-agency crime prevention strategies focusing on offenders and victims and the

environment in which they live, as well as the root causes of particular crime types.

3.3.1.3 *INSTITUTIONAL REFORM*

At national level, the policy interventions outlined in the White Paper (1998) sought to clarify issues of accountability and operational independence by:

- Strengthening the position of the Secretary for Safety and Security to become the accounting officer of the Department for Safety and Security; and
- Clarifying the roles of the various components of the Department in an attempt to reduce tensions between the civilian secretariats and the SAPS.

At provincial level, the White Paper created an active role for provincial administrations in crime prevention. In particular, the White Paper advocated that provinces should:

- Initiate and co-ordinate social crime prevention programmes;
- Mobilise resources for social crime prevention;
- Co-ordinate a range of provincial functions and role-players to achieve crime prevention;
- Evaluate and support local governments in crime prevention programmes; and
- Establish public and private partnerships to support crime prevention.

At local level, the White Paper advocated a much greater role for local government in the delivery of crime prevention initiatives. It endorsed the establishment of local or municipal police services, which would enforce road traffic laws and by-laws and perform visible policing. Finally, to balance the greater role given to local government, the White Paper (1998) also outlined some new roles for a CPF, namely to:

- Co-operate with local government to jointly set crime prevention priorities;
- Assist in the development of targeted crime prevention programmes;
- Identify flashpoints, crime patterns and community anti-crime activities;
- Mobilise and organise community-based campaigns and activities; and
- Facilitate regular attendance by local councillors at CPF meetings.

The key conceptual guidance provided in the White Paper was that policing (law enforcement) and crime prevention should be integrated and “inter-locking”. This notion aimed to address the historical rift between the endeavours of the NCPS and those of the SAPS. Also, the White Paper extended further than the original NCPS when it defined the role of national, provincial and local government in respect of crime prevention, and placed significant emphasis on a new partnership role for municipalities in crime reduction.

3.3.2 The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995)

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service sets out a number of priorities, amongst which the improvement of public service delivery is outlined as the key to transformation. This is because the Public Service will be judged, above all, on whether it can meet the basic needs of all South African citizens. This White Paper sets down eight principles for the transformation of public service delivery:

- Consultation

Consultation simply implies that the SAPS should interact with, listen to, and learn from the people they serve. The police should make sure that they stay in touch with the communities they serve, by finding out what services they need, how they would like their services to be delivered and what they are dissatisfied

about. The only way the police can find answers to these issues for certain is by asking communities. This can be done through surveys, questionnaires, meetings, suggestion boxes, *imbizos* (public meetings) and by continuously talking to the communities they serve. Consultation is meaningless unless it is fed back to the management so that they can change the system, or take the steps needed to improve the service given to the customers (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Service standards

The SAPS have to set service standards that describe exactly what they deliver, and to what quality or standard. Service standards should clearly state how long a process will take and exactly what people can expect from them. For example, if one applies for an identity document book from the Department of Home Affairs, with all the necessary documents, it should only take about six weeks to receive such an identity book. If this standard is not kept, the Department owes the customer an explanation – and probably an apology. Communities should be informed about the level and quality of the services they receive. If possible, they should be given an opportunity to choose the service that they receive. The standard that the police set are the tools that communities can use in order to measure the police's performance, and therefore standards need to be realistic and depend on available resources. The police should also be able to measure these standards so that everyone can see if they are being met (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Access

According to the Constitution, all citizens have the right to equal access to the services to which they are entitled. This also applies to disabled people, illiterate people and rural people who may have difficulty accessing government services. Public servants have a special role to play in ensuring that those who need extra

assistance get such assistance. Furthermore, public managers should ensure that all services are accessible to disabled people and that people who, for example, use wheelchairs and walking aids, can obtain easy access into public buildings. Special arrangements should also be made to assist people with hearing or visual disabilities.

Many issues come to mind when referring to the notion of access. It entails making it easy for communities to benefit from the services that the SAPS provide. Easy access can be facilitated by, *inter alia*, having wheelchair ramps, parking bays for disabled persons and taking services out to communities. In this instance, police personnel attitude may determine how approachable the police can be (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Information

All citizens should be given full information about the services that they have a right to. If police personnel do not have information, the public should try to find out and help the person. When referring a member of the community somewhere else, he or she needs to be very clear about what will be found there, what he or she needs to take with him or her, and which person they need to see. The better informed people are, the easier it will be for the public service to do its job effectively, and the fewer people will be in queues. SAPS personnel are encouraged to spend extra time with people who need more explanation or special assistance due to insufficient understanding or inability to access services themselves.

Giving information may take place in a number of ways, for example by means of newspapers, radio, posters and leaflets. It is important to remember that different communities have different needs and they do not all speak the same language (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Openness and transparency

The SAPS as part of the South African Public Service and Administration should be transparent. The SAPS is there to serve all the people equally, and communities have a right to the services that it offers. Many people, especially the poor, do not yet have access to necessities like protection orders, free basic public services or social grants, simply because they do not have the required information to access these. In addition, all people have a right to know how decisions are made, how an executive institution of Government (that is, a municipality) works, who is in charge, and what its plans and budgets entail.

The police should be open about their day-to-day activities, how much budget police stations receive, and how money is spent. This information should be made available freely to communities. Annual reports, strategic plans and service commitment charters must be open to public. Also, the police should tell communities where to complain and how to do it (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Redress

When people do not receive what they are entitled to from the SAPS, they have a right to redress. This means that whoever is in charge at a police station should immediately apologise to the community and also tell them what solution they are offering to their problem. If the public servant has none, they should speak to his/her manager or supervisor and make sure that the problem is attended to. The success and image of the public service are built on its ability to deliver what people expect from it. When complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic and a positive response.

Redress will make it easy for people to tell the police service if they are unhappy with the service they receive. The SAPS should train its staff to deal with complaints in a friendly and helpful manner. An apology, full explanation and

effective, speedy remedy should be offered when the promised standards of service have not been delivered. When complaints are made, the police must listen to the community with a sympathetic ear, and they should offer positive responses to complaints (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Value for money

It is very important that the SAPS should not waste the scarce resources of Government, and that they should deliver a service that is as cost-effective and efficient as possible. It is their duty to inform Management of any wastage of resources and to look for ways to save money and time, without compromising the quality of the service delivered to people (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

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The CPF and SAPS jointly need to make the best use of available resources with a view to avoid not only wastage of time, money, and other resources, but also in order to eliminate fraud and corruption and finding new ways of improving services at little or no cost (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

- Courtesy

The SAPS as public servants have to remember that they are employed to help communities and to give them access to the services that are their rights. The SAPS are employed to serve people efficiently, effectively and economically. This means that, in their contact with the communities, they should always be courteous and helpful (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003).

3.3.3 The South African Police Service (SAPS) Act 68 of 1995

According to the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, a SAPS station commissioner must, subject to the instructions of the Provincial Commissioner, take all reasonable steps to establish a community police forum which is broadly representative of the community in the station's area under his or her jurisdiction. In order to establish a community police forum, a station commissioner must do the following:

- (a) Identify community-based organisations, institutions and interest groups in the station area under his or her jurisdiction;
 - (b) Determine a suitable date, time and venue for a meeting of all interested persons to establish a community police forum;
 - (c) Take reasonable steps to make the date, time and venue of the meeting known to organisations, institutions and groups, referred to in subparagraph (a), as well as to the general public in the station area;
 - (d) Explain to those attending the said meeting what the objects of a community police are;
 - (e) Invite nominations for a reasonable number of persons to serve on a steering committee, together with the station commissioner, to establish a community police forum; and
 - (f) Determine a date, time and venue for an inaugural meeting.
- The station commissioner must render all reasonable assistance to the steering committee to:

- (a) Draft a constitution for the community police forum which is to be established;
 - (b) Take reasonable steps to make the date, time and venue of the meeting known to the organisations, institutions and groups, referred to in sub-regulation (1)(a) of the SAPS Act, as well as to the general public in the station area; and
 - (c) Arrange the inaugural meeting.
- At the inaugural meeting, the steering committee must present the draft constitution to those present and:
 - (a) If the majority of those present at the meeting adopt the constitution in its draft or an amended form, the meeting must proceed to have a chairperson and an executive committee elected in accordance with the procedure provided for in the constitution to manage the affairs of the community police forum; or
 - (b) If the majority of those present at the meeting rejects the draft constitution, the meeting must, by majority vote,
 - (i) elect a new steering committee to draft a constitution for the community police forum and give such directions to the new steering committee concerning the contents of the constitution as the meeting may deem fit; and
 - (ii) determine a date, time and venue for the next meeting to consider the new draft constitution.

- The station commissioner must render all reasonable assistance to the new steering committee to:
 - (a) Draft a constitution for the community police forum which is to be established;
 - (b) Take reasonable steps to make the date, time and venue of the meeting known to the organisations, institutions and groups, referred to in sub-regulation (1)(a) of the SAPS Act, as well as to the general public in the station area; and
 - (c) Arrange the next meeting.

- At the next meeting, the new steering committee must present the draft constitution to those present at the meeting and the steering committee must:
 - (a) By majority vote, adopt the constitution in its draft form or bring about the necessary amendments to the draft constitution and adopt it in its amended form; and
 - (b) Elect a chairperson and an executive committee to manage the affairs of the community police forum, in accordance with the procedure provided for in the constitution thus adopted.

3.3.4 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The Constitution is the supreme law of the country. It guarantees every inhabitant of South Africa various rights. Some of these rights are:

- Freedom and security of the person.
 - (1) Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right:
 - (a) Not to be deprived of freedom arbitrarily or without cause;
 - (b) Not to be detained without trial;
 - (c) To be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources;
 - (d) Not to be tortured in any way; and
 - (e) Not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way.

Regarding the police, The Constitution indicates that:

- (1) The national police service must be structured to function in the national, provincial and, where appropriate, local spheres of government.
- (2) National legislation must establish the powers and functions of the police service and must enable the police to discharge its responsibilities effectively, taking into account the requirements of the provinces.
- (3) Each province is entitled:

- (a) To monitor police conduct;
- (b) To oversee the effectiveness and efficiency of the police service, including receiving reports on the police service;
- (c) To promote good relations between the police and the community; and
- (d) To assess the effectiveness of visible policing.

In brief, the Constitution indicates that the task of the police service is to prevent, combat and investigate crime; to maintain public order, to protect and secure the people of the country and their property; and to uphold and enforce the law (RSA, 1996 section 205). Each province must monitor the police service and promote good relations between the police and the community (RSA, 1996 section 206).

3.3.5 The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS)

In 1996, the South African Government adopted the NCPS strategy. This strategy provides a framework for a multi-dimensional approach to crime prevention. Amongst other things, the NCPS provides a means by which the SAPS, other Government departments, the private sector and non-governmental organisations could integrate their approaches to problems of crime control and crime prevention. The NCPS is based on the key assumption that integrated programmes involving a range of Government departments and other role-players would improve inter-departmental co-ordination. The strategy proposes a range of structures with a view to enable improved inter-departmental planning: a national committee of directors-general, of ministers, and other senior departmental officials.

Similar structures were proposed at provincial levels. As indicated in the NCPS, its aims are:

- To establish a policy that is comprehensive. This will make it possible for Government to address crime in a manner which is focused and co-ordinated;
- A shared understanding and a common vision must be promoted of how crime can be tackled by the nation;
- The setting of national programmes. These will focus on different Government departments to ensure that quality service is delivered;
- To encourage civil society to exercise maximum participation and sustaining of crime-prevention initiatives; and
- Need for the creation of a dedicated and integrated crime-prevention capacity.

3.3.6 The Justice Vision 2000 – Justice For All policy document

The Justice Vision 2000 document is a policy document for the Department of Justice. Its purpose is to begin to develop a policy framework under which the Department will operate, and therefore also to start the process of transformation of justice. It is with this in mind that its theme “Justice for All” was developed after broad consultation with various stakeholders. It is a system of vision which guarantees equal access to justice to all regardless of race, culture, gender, economic status or any other quality as its main ideal. Furthermore, it aspires towards the transformation of the administration of justice in order to create a cheaper, simple, more effective, efficient and generally fairer system. This policy aims to be representative and responsive to the needs of the entire South African community.

The following are values guiding the mission of the administration of justice in South Africa:

- The administration of law, openly and accountably;
- The guarantee of equality in and before the law for all persons without discrimination;
- To provide redress for just and legal cause of victims;
- The administration of the law humanely, impartially, just and fairly;
- The equal treatment of staff; and
- The adoption of policies addressing the social, economic and cultural disparities rooted in the experiences of the past (Department of Justice, 2000).

3.4 RUNNING A COMMUNITY POLICE FORUM

A CPF is an institution. Like any other institution, a forum needs a certain amount of work. The success of a forum depends on the people who organise its activities. These people are the Executive Committee of the CPF. The Executive Committee is responsible for the day-to-day running of the CPF. They promote community policing in the area and ensure that the forum implements community policing projects. The Executive Committee should have the following office-bearers:

- Chairperson;
- Deputy Chairperson;
- Secretary;
- Treasurer; and
- Station Commander.

The Station Commander is an *ex-officio* member of the CPF Executive Committee because he/she is the head of the police station. He/she is responsible for the property and equipment of the station. In the running of the CPF, the Executive Committee has the powers and duties to:

- Set up CPF sub-forums for specific parts of the police station area;
- Appoint CPF sub-committees to deal with specific issues;
- Ask members of the CPF to serve in sub-committees of the CPF;
- Control the members of CPF and the administration of the CPF;
- Investigate and decide on complaints about CPF activities; and
- Initiate disciplinary proceedings, should the need arise.

Meetings are an important part of the life of a forum. The CPF Executive Committee and other forum members must know how to conduct meetings successfully. According to the Department of Safety and Security (1997), a CPF Executive Committee must:

- Promote community policing in the police station area;
- Co-ordinate community policing in the police station area; and
- Ensure that the forum implements community policing projects.

It is the responsibility of the CPF Executive Committee to understand the aim of community policing as well as those policies and laws governing community policing, and to share this understanding with CPF sub-forums, ward committees, and other institutions not affiliated to the forum as well as individual members of the community.

The CPF Executive Committee should also help the police to recruit suitable individuals, institutions and community organisations to participate in the community police structures and activities. A CPF's Executive Committee participates in approved SAPS management meetings to advise, monitor, solve problems and ensure transparency and accountability of the police to the community (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

3.4.1 Coordinating function of the CPF

Community policing requires that the delivery of policing services be tailored to the needs of the community as well as to crime and other policing-related problems experienced by the community (such as a poor standard of service or poor police-community relations). In other words, all policing activities should be focused at addressing specific problems or needs. The CPF Executive Committee has a responsibility to work closely with the station management team and other SAPS members to:

- Ensure that the Station Plan is based on priorities identified by the community;
- Develop a Community Safety Plan which will ensure that the activities of the forum address the priorities identified in the station plan; and
- Promote team work, and convene meetings of the CPF as well as Annual General Meetings.

3.5 CONCLUSION

A police forum is a legislated structure that establishes a formal partnership between the community and the police. In order to address this notion, various pieces of legislation that mandate a forum to fight crime have been discussed in the course of this chapter. The next chapter will provide a discussion of findings on the place and the role of CPFs in the MLM area.

CHAPTER 4

PLACE AND ROLE OF CPFs IN THE MERAUFONG LOCAL MUNICIPALITY (MLM) AREA: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, legislation relating to the functionality and the need for establishing CPFs were discussed at length. It was indicated that various pieces of legislation obligate the Station Commander in a local police station to establish a CPF. This chapter sets out to discuss findings regarding the place and role of CPFs in the MLM area.

4.2 RESEARCH METHOD DEFINED

This research project examined the role of CPFs in effective crime prevention. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were chosen as relevant and suitable for this study. Qualitative research methods are interpretative in character in that the inquiry attempts to account for what researchers have found (by asking themselves questions, for example, what is the role of CPFs in crime prevention) and thereafter to collect the responses from members of the CPF (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 72).

Qualitative research concentrates on verbal responses and approaches are not limited to formality; the scope is less defined, less structured and data appears in words (Creswell, 2003; 42). Strauss and Corbin (1998: 91) argue that qualitative research is a foundation aimed at covering various methods and approaches to the inquiry of behaviour. It includes exploring the life-world of people interviewed, studying their backgrounds and examining the information gathered in this regard, with the purpose of establishing the meaning of facts being provided. In view of the above discussion, the qualitative research method may be explained

as guidelines which produce descriptive information as gained from people's own verbal words and identified behaviour rather than figures.

In the context of this research, the views obtained through the use of semi-structured interviews were those of the chairpersons of the CPFs and their members with regard the role of CPFs in effective crime prevention.

On the other hand, the qualitative research method, which forms another basis of this study, is concerned with analytic research. Its purpose is to arrive at a universal statement. In this form of research, the researcher assigns numbers to responses. This method could include techniques such as questionnaires (Brynard and Hanekom, 1997:29). A questionnaire is designed as a tool to collect valid and reliable information with a view to test the hypothesis. Questionnaires are used by researchers in order to convert data gathered during the empirical study into reliable information. Questionnaires may be used to obtain the following information (Huysamen, 1994:128):

- Biographical particulars;
- Behaviour;
- Opinions, beliefs and convictions; and
- Attitudes.

In this study the opinions, beliefs and convictions of the respondents were tested to determine their knowledge of the part played by CPFs in crime prevention.

4.2.1 Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire

As a mechanism for obtaining information and opinion, questionnaires have a number of advantages and disadvantages when compared with other evaluation tools. The strengths and weaknesses of questionnaires are summarised below.

4.2.1.1 *ADVANTAGES OF A QUESTIONNAIRE*

The following are advantages of the use of a questionnaire in the collection of data in a research venture (Chardwick, 1994:137):

- A questionnaire is one of the instruments which a researcher utilises to collect data quickly and is relatively inexpensive, provided that the respondents are able to interpret the content of the questionnaire correctly.
- It provides reliable results of data, normally without any bias because respondents are usually not known to the researcher.
- It is an economical instrument to utilise. This includes the economy of time and a high proportion of respondents can be reached by the researcher at one point in time.
- Administration of questionnaires is relatively easy, as it is construed in terms of the number of respondents involved at a certain time and gaining their response to a certain well prepared questions.

4.2.1.2 *DISADVANTAGES OF A QUESTIONNAIRE*

The following disadvantages of a questionnaire can, *inter alia*, be identified (Chardwick, 1994:137):

- The respondents often fail to return the completed questionnaires or do not complete them in entirety. An important reason for this is that they are suspicious of the reasons for undertaking the research and see it as a threat in some way or another.
- Lengthy questionnaires discourage respondents due to the time and effort involved in completing them.

- Inaccurate completion of questionnaires creates problems. Some respondents may not supply accurate answers as they may misinterpret the questions or lack the verbal skills to express themselves adequately.
- Respondents who are reluctant to divulge information may ignore certain questions or falsify answers.
- A further limitation when using questionnaires is the problem of getting respondents to think and respond honestly, rather than to supply responses which are viewed as pleasing to the researcher.
- Questionnaires are rigid and provide little flexibility to the researcher, and comments made by respondents cannot be further explored or probed. Open-ended questionnaires and interviews may, however, address this disadvantage to an extent.

4.3 QUESTIONNAIRE CONSTRUCTION FOR THIS STUDY

Special attention was paid to the construction of the questionnaire used in this study with a view to secure valid information. The questionnaire was structured with the purpose of determining whether community members understand the role of CPFs with regard to crime prevention in communities. An assurance of the confidentiality of the information was provided to the respondents; thus more sincere and truthful responses could hopefully be obtained. The preparation of the questionnaire took theoretical guidelines, such as the following, into account (Chardwick, 1994:173):

- Long complex sentences were avoided so that questions were explicit and clear to respondents;
- Leading questions were minimised; and

- The wording of questions was clearly presented with attention to directness and simplicity.

The questions in the questionnaire were multi-choice questions where the respondents had to select, from four alternative responses, the one which best applied to them.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections (see Appendix D). Section A (biographical information) ranging from questions 1 – 5 covered the profiles of respondents. Respondents were asked to indicate their gender, age, marital status, employment status and level of education. Section B focused on the role of CPFs in the fight against crime in communities. This section focused on activities of the CPF.

The questions were constructed according to a four-point Likert scale. A four-point scale was used in order to rule out neutral answers, which are sometimes an easy way out for respondents not to respond positively or negatively to a specific question. Questions were compiled to test the following:

- The hypothesis;
- The role of the Police Station Commander;
- Role of communities of interest; and
- The context in which the CPF operates.

The respondents had to indicate their choices in the following way:

Strongly agree (SA)

Agree (A)

Disagree (D)

Strongly Disagree (SD)

The questionnaire was administered to 25 members of the MLM community. A pre-test was conducted to ascertain whether the questionnaire was clearly understood by respondents and to determine if it was administratively viable. The response from the participants was positive; the respondents indicated that they did not experience difficulty completing the questionnaire and found that the questions were clear. The questionnaire was therefore administered without any alterations.

4.4 THE RATIONALE FOR CHOOSING THE QUALITATIVE METHOD

The qualitative research method was considered with the purpose of revealing the role of CPFs in effective crime prevention. Due to evidence that various CPFs have undergone training, this would not necessarily imply that their understanding of their role would be similar. The qualitative method of research is considered as appropriate for this study because it becomes possible to measure the reactions of many people to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating direct comparisons between people and eventually CPFs (Radebe, 1995:50).

Strauss and Corbin (1998:30) indicate the following important concepts that should be applied by the qualitative researcher:

- Qualitative research is designed to discover what can be learned about a phenomenon of interest;
- Qualitative research allows for various interpretations;
- It involves the respondents' observation in a detailed interview and conversational analysis; and
- The focus is based on the respondents' ideas and experiences.

Above all, qualitative methods enable the researcher to study selected matters in depth and detail.

4.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

An important attribute of a research instrument is the existence of reliability and validity, the latter being the most essential characteristic (Thomas, 1998:133). According to Mouton (1996:78), research is a scientific method of enquiry, and thus information should be carefully assessed by means of reliability and validity focusing on trustworthiness (which invites explanation of phenomena), reliability and validity. Validity involves what is intended to be evaluated and for whom it is relevant, whereas reliability includes consistency with the instrument appraising whatever should be measured (Thomas, 1998:138).

4.5.1 Validity

Strauss and Corbin (1998:76) state that validity is used to guarantee that information includes everything it should, and that it does not include anything that should not be included. Validity is a way of discovering a truthful and precise picture of what is claimed to be described, and is dependent on the purpose for which measurement takes place. The results of the interview can therefore be valid in one situation and not valid in another.

Validity is the degree to which a survey instrument evaluates what it purports to measure (Creswell, 2003:121). For instance, the study of the role of CPFs is valid if the researcher formulates and asks questions that are relevant to the CPFs' role in crime prevention. To obtain validity, Fink (1995:50) claims that the researcher has to employ standards which may have a meaningful link with research questions and with data analysis in order to direct him/her in creating valid argument, finding and reports. This emphasis is considered with the idea that validity is a single, unitary concept that requires evidence for the specific use that is cited.

4.5.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement, and to the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument or occasions of data collecting. In other words, the same results are obtained each time the researcher uses various techniques for assessing the collected data (Charles, 1995:103).

There might be errors in a set of collected data; therefore reliability is used with the aim of achieving a more precise reflection of the truth. Clear and relevant questions were formulated for the interview with the executive members of the CPFs with the purpose of attaining reliable data that is free from measurement mistakes (Mouton, 1996:97), which led to the process of sampling and selection of respondents.

4.6 SAMPLING AND SELECTION

According to Cormack (2000:51), sampling entails using a small group of participants from a defined population. Sampling in scientific research is where a number of individuals as stakeholders are used to establish a concise conclusion about a large number of people.

Qualitative research is mainly focused on the description of the site and the sample. In this instance, questions regarding where, how and to whom a particular phenomenon prevails, may be asked. Frey (1998:16) further emphasises the importance of a selection strategy which should be used in order to achieve the sub-set of the population from whom data is collected by means of interviewing, observation and documentation. It is therefore important to conceptualise sampling as an aspect of research. This research study has chosen a specific population which comprised the chairpersons of CPFs, members of a CPF executive and non-executive members of a CPF of the MLM

area. The researcher used this sample of the population with the aim to receive information from participants who were richly informed with matters of CPFs.

4.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

Data forms an important part of any research because it does not only give a description of what data could be collected and how it should be collected, but also constitutes the basic information from which conclusions are drawn (Fink, 2002). Furthermore, it constitutes an essential component of research because it not only supplies an explanation of what data is collected, but also the way it is received. The instrument that was used to collect data in this research was the interview. Interviews were conducted specifically to establish views of the roles of CPFs in the MLM area.

4.7.1 Interviews

The interview was selected as an instrument used to collect data. Through the interview the interviewee has the chance to discuss, answer and pose questions related to a phenomenon (Rubin and Rubin, 1995:36). This method is characterised by open-response questions which enable the researcher to determine how respondents interpret events in their lives. This type of interview provides a researcher with a uniform method of recording information, and therefore enhances the validity of the interview as a measuring instrument.

The following are advantages of interviews:

- Through personal contact, interviewees get the impression that they are valued and they therefore tend to provide sincere responses;
- The interview setting allows the interviewer to clarify questions that respondents may find confusing;
- Respondents may broaden their answers or be limited to the central topic in ways that may prove useful to the researcher; and

- Interviews provide an in-depth understanding of respondent's motives, their patterns of reasoning and emotional reactions to an extent that is not possible with questionnaires (Thomas, 1998:135).

According to Rubin and Rubin (1995:56), an interview permits the interviewer to establish an understanding of what the interviewee means by responses he or she gives to questions asked. Interviews have been used extensively across all disciplines of social sciences and in scientific research as a key technique of data collection.

In this research, four chairpersons of the executive of the CPFs, four members of the executive CPFs and four non-executive members of the CPFs were requested to be interviewed. They were informed of the possible importance of this research in adding value to the existing information on the activities of CPFs in effective crime prevention.

A semi-structured interview was used, during which the researcher listened intently, made notes where necessary, and sought clarify or requested more information from interviewees. The procedure followed was as follows:

- The interviewer introduced himself and explained the need for the interview and reasons for selecting the interviewees;
- Secondly, ten questions were asked and answers were recorded. The interviewer recorded answers accurately;
- Thirdly, the interviewer sought clarity from the interviewee by means of asking questions that aimed at obtaining more information; and
- Finally, the interviewer thanked participants and entered details like time, and place of interview.

4.7.2 Interview questions

The following ten questions were used to engage chairpersons of the executive of CPFs, members of the executive and non-executive members of the CPFs in the attempt to obtain information on the role of CPFs in crime prevention:

- QUESTION 1:** What role did the Station Commander play in the establishment of the Interim Implementation Committee?
- QUESTION 2:** What role did the Station Commander play in the empowerment of the Implementation Committee in executing their responsibilities?
- QUESTION 3:** What role did the Station Commander play in lobbying “Communities of Interest”?
- QUESTION 4:** Does the CPF in your area have a constitution?
- QUESTION 5:** Elaborate on the role played by members of the CPF in any plans developed and in soliciting input from the broader community.
- QUESTION 6:** How often does a CPF hold meetings?
- QUESTION 7:** What channels of communication exist between the community and the CPF?
- QUESTION 8:** What role is played by functionaries (political functionaries, for example municipal councillors, church leaders and business groups) in the CPF?
- QUESTION 9:** How are criminal elements prevented from hijacking the CPF?
- QUESTION 10:** Who provides logistics and accommodation for the CPF meetings?

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is a way of gathering and explaining the content of text. The content includes meanings, thoughts, words, themes and messages that can be

communicated (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993:293). Data analysis is therefore a way of choosing, classifying, viewing and discarding information. In this research, the mass of collected data was analysed and interpreted with the purpose of bringing order and structure to the information. In the following sections, the data collected is analysed and interpretations are made.

4.9 FINDINGS ON THE ROLE OF CPFs IN EFFECTIVE CRIME PREVENTION IN THE MERAFONG LOCAL MUNICIPALITY (MLM) AREA

After the initial organising of data, information obtained is tabulated. Data has to be displayed as an element of analysis.

A set of ten questions was prepared for the four Chairpersons of CPFs, four executive members of CPFs and four non-executive members of the CPFs. Their responses are as follows:

4.9.1 Feedback from interviews with chairpersons of CPFs

4.9.1.1 QUESTION 1: WHAT ROLE DID THE POLICE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CPF?

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|----------------------|--|
| Chairpersons of CPFs | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The CPFs in the MLM area have been in existence for many years now. During change of office, the role of Station Commander is that of making communities aware that a new office would have to be elected. 2. The Station Commander informed communities by flyers and posters placed at key strategic areas like taxi ranks and street poles. 3. Messages about the election of the new CPF were communicated to communities through posters, flyers and in church services. 4. Communities were informed by way of posters about the establishment of CPF. |
|----------------------|--|

4.9.1.2 QUESTION 2: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN THE EMPOWERMENT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION COMMITTEE IN EXECUTING THEIR RESPONSIBILITY?

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Members of the CPF were trained. 2. CPF members were taken through a series of training workshops. 3. Once the new CPF is established, members are taken through a series of workshops where they are being capacitated to understand their roles. 4. CPF members were given training to be able to perform their duties. |
|------------------------|---|

4.9.1.3 QUESTION 3: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN LOBBYING "COMMUNITIES OF INTEREST"?

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Business groups and church leaders were informed about the new CPF that was to be established. 2. "Communities of Interest" were informed about the meeting where a new CPF was to be established. 3. "Communities of interest" were also invited through their structures like churches and business forums. 4. Councillors and business groups were notified about the meeting. |
|------------------------|---|

4.9.1.4 QUESTION 4: DOES THE CPF IN YOUR AREA HAVE A CONSTITUTION?

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, our CPF has a constitution. 2. Yes, the CPF has a constitution. 3. CPFs in the area have a constitution. 4. The CPF in our area operates according to a constitution that guides its activities. |
|------------------------|---|

4.9.1.5 QUESTION 5: ELABORATE ON THE ROLE PLAYED BY MEMBERS OF THE CPF IN ANY PLANS DEVELOPED AND IN SOLICITING INPUT FROM THE BROADER COMMUNITY.

| | |
|---------------------|---|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In each community there are sub-forums. These sub-forums provide information to leaders of sub-forums. 2. Leaders of sub-forums get inputs from the broader community. 3. Leaders in the area get information from members of the community. 4. The leaders of the sub-forum come to meetings with inputs from communities. |
|---------------------|---|

4.9.1.6 QUESTION 6: HOW OFTEN DOES A CPF HOLD MEETINGS?

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Once a month. 2. Meetings are held once a month. 3. The CPF holds meetings once a month. 4. Meetings are held once in a month. |
|---------------------|--|

4.9.1.7 QUESTION 7: WHAT CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION EXIST BETWEEN THE COMMUNITY AND THE CPF?

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Community meetings serve as common mode of communication in communities. 2. Community meetings are used as channels of communication in communities. 3. In Khutsong, every gathering of a community is used to inform communities about CPF issues. 4. The chairperson uses every opportunity available to communicate any valuable information to the community. Whenever councillors are having meetings, the chairperson is then given a slot to communicate an aspect of community safety. |
|---------------------|--|

4.9.1.8 QUESTION 8: WHAT ROLE IS PLAYED BY FUNCTIONARIES (POLITICAL FUNCTIONARIES, FOR EXAMPLE, MUNICIPAL COUNCILLORS, CHURCH LEADERS AND BUSINESS GROUPS) IN THE CPF?

| | |
|---------------------|---|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Church leaders and other functionaries play a minimal part in the activities of the CPF. 2. Church leaders and councillors do not attend meetings of the CPF. 3. Other functionaries do not attend meetings of the CPF. 4. Councillors and other functionaries do not attend activities of the CPF. |
|---------------------|---|

4.9.1.9 QUESTION 9: HOW ARE CRIMINAL ELEMENTS PREVENTED FROM HIJACKING THE CPF?

| | |
|---------------------|---|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Every member of the community is eligible for admission in the CPF. 2. Any member of the community is eligible for participation in the CPF provided they attend three meetings. 3. All members of the community are allowed to serve in the CPF. 4. The constitution is the only tool that regulates the behaviour of CPF members. |
|---------------------|---|

4.9.1.10 QUESTION 10: WHO PROVIDES LOGISTICS AND ACCOMMODATION FOR THE CPF MEETINGS?

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| Chairpersons of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Station Commander provides logistics and accommodation for meetings. 2. Meetings of the CPF are mostly held at the police station. 3. Every meeting is held at the police station. 4. Meetings and other logistical issues are provided by the police station. |
|---------------------|--|

Feedback from Chairpersons shows that they have followed the all stipulations of policy guidelines in dealing with various matters of the CPF ranging from the role played by the Station Commander in making preparations for the election of a new CPF to providing logistical

arrangements for the activities of the CPF. Their response to questions which is in agreement with the National Crime Prevention Strategy and SAPS Act 68 of 1995 shows that with their leadership, the CPFs could succeed in the fight against crime.

4.9.2 Feedback from interviews with members of the executive of CPFs

4.9.2.1 QUESTION 1: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CPF?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Stationer Commander makes preparations for the election of a new CPF. 2. The Stationer Commander informed communities about general meetings through notices, flyers and posters at key areas where communities meet. 3. The role of the Station Commander was informing communities about the meeting. 4. The Station Commander organised the venue of the meeting. |
|-----------------------------------|--|

4.9.2.2 QUESTION 2: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN THE EMPOWERMENT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION COMMITTEE IN EXECUTING THEIR RESPONSIBILITY?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Members of the CPF were inducted on how to run activities of the CPF. 2. Members of the CPF were trained. 3. CPF members were trained. 4. They (CPF) attended training workshops. |
|-----------------------------------|---|

4.9.2.3 QUESTION 3: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN LOBBYING "COMMUNITIES OF INTEREST"?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Various stakeholders were invited to the meeting. 2. The Station Commander invited taxi associations, church leaders, councillors and business associations. 3. All stakeholders were informed about the meeting. 4. The Station Commander invited everybody to the meeting, including taxi associations, councillors and church leaders. |
|-----------------------------------|---|

4.9.2.4 QUESTION 4: DOES THE CPF IN YOUR AREA HAVE A CONSTITUTION?

| | |
|---|--|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, the CPF has a constitution. 2. Yes. 3. The CPF has a constitution. 4. Our CPF has a constitution. |
|---|--|

4.9.2.5 QUESTION 5: ELABORATE ON THE ROLE PLAYED BY MEMBERS OF THE CPF IN ANY PLANS DEVELOPED AND IN SOLICITING INPUT FROM THE BROADER COMMUNITY.

| | |
|---|---|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Members of the CPF are given mandates from communities. 2. The community informs their leaders about the problems they encounter. 3. The community give input to their leaders. 4. Problems (input) are given to community leader to take them to the CPF meetings. |
|---|---|

4.9.2.6 QUESTION 6: HOW OFTEN DOES A CPF HOLD MEETINGS?

| | |
|---|--|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. CPF holds meetings once in a month. 2. Once a month. 3. CPF meetings are held once a month. 4. Once a month. |
|---|--|

4.9.2.7 QUESTION 7: WHAT CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION EXIST BETWEEN THE COMMUNITY AND THE CPF?

| | |
|---|---|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Community meetings are used to communicate with communities. 2. Every gathering by communities is used to communicate issues. 3. Flyers, posters and loudspeakers are used to communicate with communities. 4. Any community gathering. |
|---|---|

4.9.2.8 QUESTION 8: WHAT ROLE IS PLAYED BY FUNCTIONARIES (POLITICAL FUNCTIONARIES, FOR EXAMPLE, MUNICIPAL COUNCILLORS, CHURCH LEADERS AND BUSINESS GROUPS) IN THE CPF?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Some church leaders attend activities of the CPF. 2. Councillors and business groups rarely attend meetings. 3. They (functionaries) do not attend activities of the CPF. 4. Church leaders, business groups, taxi organisations and councillors do not attend meetings. |
|-----------------------------------|--|

4.9.2.9 QUESTION 9: HOW ARE CRIMINAL ELEMENTS PREVENTED FROM HIJACKING THE CPF?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Other Members of Executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. All community members have the right to take part in activities of the CPF. 2. Everybody is allowed to take part in the CPF activities. 3. They (criminal elements) are not prevented to take part in the CPF as long as they abide by the constitution. 4. Nobody is barred from joining in the activities of the CPF. |
|-----------------------------------|---|

4.9.2.10 QUESTION 10: WHO PROVIDES LOGISTICS AND ACCOMMODATION FOR THE CPF MEETINGS?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Other Members of executive of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Station Commander provides logistics and accommodation. 2. The police station provides the venue and other logistical arrangements. 3. The Station Commander. 4. Meetings are held at the police station. |
|-----------------------------------|---|

The feedback indicates that most if not all members of the Executive of the CPF are knowledgeable about the issues, activities of the CPF and the various stakeholders that took part in the establishment of the CPF. This could probably be that the members of the Executive are leading the CPF. The extent to which the CPF could be successful depends entirely on the leadership of members of the Executive.

4.9.3 Feedback from interviews with non-executive members of CPF

4.9.3.1 *QUESTION 1: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CPF?*

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Station Commander organised the venue of the meeting. 2. The Stationer Commander makes preparations for the election of a new CPF. 3. The role of the Station Commander was informing communities about the meeting. 4. The Station Commander informed communities about general meeting through notices, flyers and posters at key areas. |
|------------------------------|--|

4.9.3.2 *QUESTION 2: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN THE EMPOWERMENT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION COMMITTEE IN EXECUTING THEIR RESPONSIBILITY?*

| | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. They (CPF) attended training workshops. 2. CPF members were trained. 3. Members of the CPF were trained. 4. Members of the CPF were inducted on how to run activities of the CPF. |
|------------------------------|---|

4.9.3.3 *QUESTION 3: WHAT ROLE DID THE STATION COMMANDER PLAY IN LOBBYING "COMMUNITIES OF INTEREST"?*

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Station Commander invited the "Communities of Interest" to the meeting. 2. Church leaders, taxi associations and businessmen were invited to attend the meeting of the election of the CPF. 3. The Station Commander invited all stakeholders including also taxi associations, churches and business groups. 4. Everybody was invited to the meeting. |
|------------------------------|--|

4.9.3.4 QUESTION 4: DOES THE CPF IN YOUR AREA HAVE A CONSTITUTION?

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Our CPF has a constitution. 2. Yes. 3. The CPF has a constitution. 4. Yes, the CPF has a constitution. |
|------------------------------|--|

4.9.3.5 QUESTION 5: ELABORATE ON THE ROLE PLAYED BY MEMBERS OF THE CPF IN ANY PLANS DEVELOPED AND IN SOLICITING INPUT FROM THE BROADER COMMUNITY.

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Community members gave inputs to the CPF leader in the area to present to the CPF meetings. 2. Street leader representing the community presents input of his/her street members. 3. Street leader presents input (problems) of street members. 4. Street representatives present input from street members at the CPF meetings. |
|------------------------------|--|

4.9.3.6 QUESTION 6: HOW OFTEN DOES A CPF HOLD MEETINGS?

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Ordinary members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Once a month. 2. CPF meetings are held once a month. 3. Once a month. 4. CPF holds meetings once in a month. |
|-------------------------|--|

4.9.3.7 QUESTION 7: WHAT CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION EXIST BETWEEN THE COMMUNITY AND THE CPF?

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Communities are informed about the meetings through posters, flyers and public address system. 2. Any community gathering and councillors meetings are used to inform the community. 3. Public address system and posters are used. 4. Community gatherings such as a soccer match are used to convey messages to communities. |
|------------------------------|--|

4.9.3.8 QUESTION 8: WHAT ROLE IS PLAYED BY FUNCTIONARIES (POLITICAL FUNCTIONARIES, FOR EXAMPLE, MUNICIPAL COUNCILLORS, CHURCH LEADERS AND BUSINESS GROUPS) IN THE CPF?

| | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Political functionaries do not specifically attend meetings of the CPF. 2. They (political functionaries) do not attend CPF activities. 3. Councillors seldom attend meetings of the CPF. 4. Some Church Leaders attend meetings. |
|------------------------------|---|

4.9.3.9 QUESTION 9: HOW ARE CRIMINAL ELEMENTS PREVENTED FROM HIJACKING THE CPF?

| | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. All members of the community have the right to serve in the CPF activities. 2. The constitution allows everybody to take part in the activities of the CPF. 3. There is no prevention of criminal elements in serving in the CPF. So long as they attend meetings, they cannot be prevented membership of CPF. 4. All members of the community are allowed to be part of the CPF. |
|------------------------------|---|

4.9.3.10 QUESTION 10: WHO PROVIDES LOGISTICS AND ACCOMMODATION FOR THE CPF MEETINGS?

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Non-Executive members of CPF | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Station Commander is the one who provides all logistical issues and accommodation. 2. The Station Commander provides accommodation. 3. Accommodation is not needed at street level as members only meet in their nearby neighbourhood. 4. In bigger meetings where the various sub-forums meet, accommodation and other logistical issues are provided by the Station Commander, but during street meetings, no accommodation is required. |
|------------------------------|--|

The feedback from members of the community presents a mixed picture of how they were involved in the activities of the CPF. They appear to be ill-informed about other issues such as how often are meetings of the CPF held. Misinformation could be as result of many factors ranging from non-attendance of meetings to lack of knowledge when meeting will be held. It becomes critical that community members should be participative in all matters that affect them. This

implies that the members of the CPF Executive must put all possible measures in place to encourage community participation.

4.10 FEEDBACK FROM COMMUNITY QUESTIONNAIRE

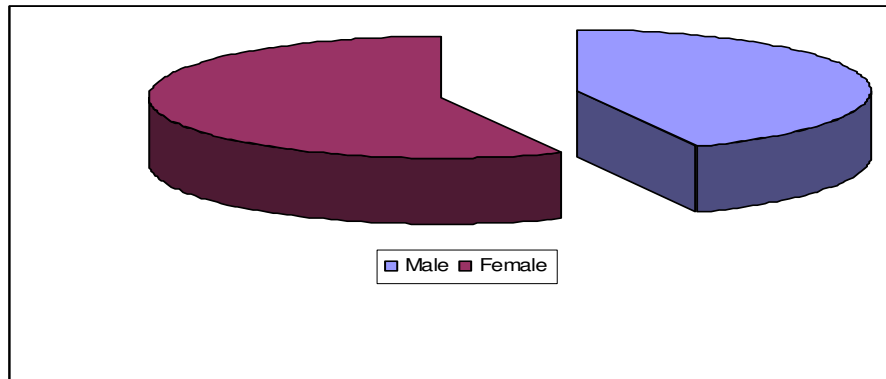
The questionnaire was divided into two sections which were to determine the general profile of respondents in terms of gender, age, marital status and level of education. The second section of the questionnaire was about statements which respondents were to mark their choices whether they strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree with the statements. Both the two sections are discussed below.

4.10.1 *Section A: Profile of respondents*

Section A of the questionnaire focuses on the respondents' profiles as these related to age, gender, marital status, employment status and the level of education. Information of this type gives the researcher a picture of the profile of nature of the community that participated in CPF issues in the MLM area. The responses to Section A of the questionnaire are summarised in the tables below.

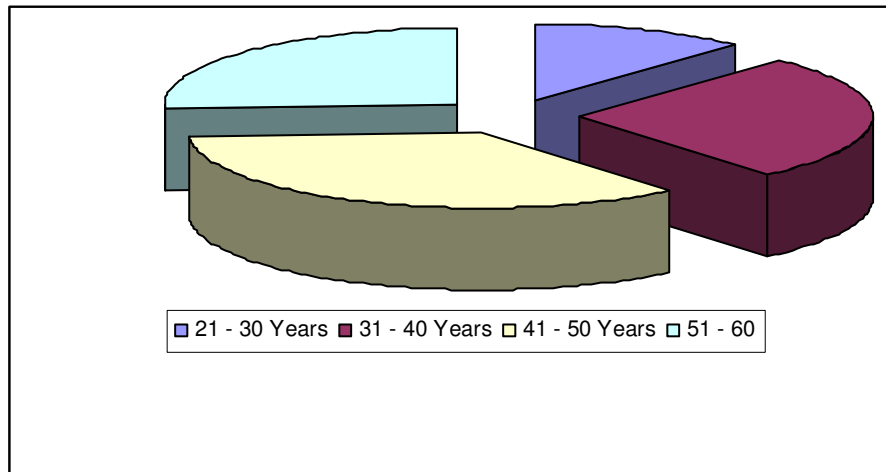
A1. Gender of respondents

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Male | 54 | 43.2 | 54 | 43.2 |
| Female | 71 | 56.8 | 125 | 100 |



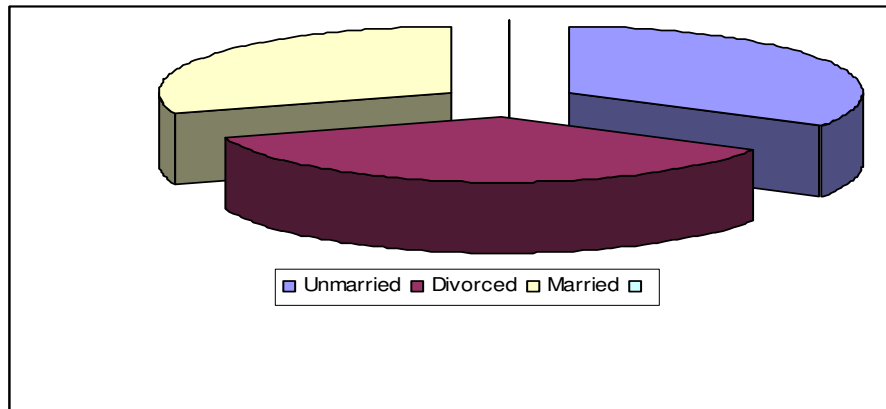
A2. Age of respondents

| Age | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|-------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 21 – 30 | 13 | 10.4 | 13 | 10.4 |
| 31 – 40 | 29 | 23.2 | 42 | 33.6 |
| 41 – 50 | 38 | 30.4 | 80 | 64 |
| 51 – 60 | 28 | 22.4 | 108 | 86.4 |
| 60 or older | 17 | 13.6 | 125 | 100 |

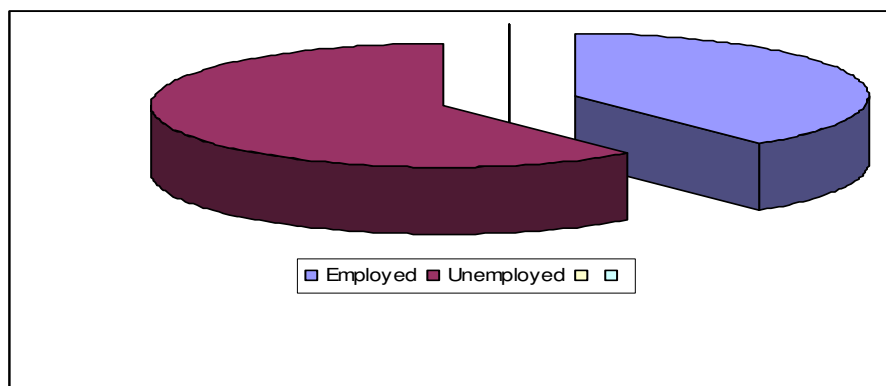


A3. Marital status of respondents

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|-----------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Unmarried | 42 | 33.6 | 42 | 33.6 |
| Divorced | 45 | 36 | 87 | 69.6 |
| Married | 38 | 30.4 | 125 | 100 |

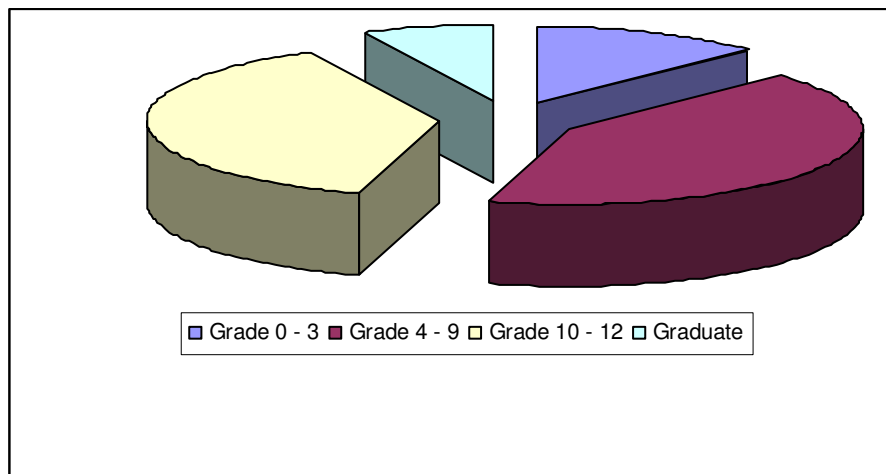
**A4. Employment status of respondents**

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Employed | 49 | 39.2 | 49 | 39.2 |
| Unemployed | 76 | 60.8 | 125 | 100 |



A5. Level of education of respondents

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|-----------------|------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| Grade 0 - 3 | 16 | 12.8 | 16 | 12.8 |
| Grade 4 – 9 | 52 | 41.6 | 68 | 54.4 |
| Grade 10 - 12 | 48 | 38.4 | 116 | 92.8 |
| Graduate | 9 | 7.2 | 125 | 100 |



4.10.2 Interpretation of the respondents' profiles

Question A1: The statistics show that there were 54 (43.20%) males and 71 (56.8%) females acting as respondents in the study. As the research was mostly conducted in black communities, the high number of females can be attributed to the fact that most black women are housewives. Since the questionnaire was administered during the day, the females represented the most available gender group. There could, however, be other reasons for this difference in numbers, but this study did not address the issue, as it was not the main focus of the research.

Question A2: The results show that most community members, namely 38 (30.4%) who participated in issues of CPFs are between the ages of 41 – 50; 29

(23.2%) are between the ages of 31 – 40; 28 (22.4%) are between the ages of 51 – 60; 17 (13.6%) are 60 years of age or older and 13 (10.4%) are between the ages of 21 – 30. This statistics show that the majority of community members are older than 41 years. This state of affairs could be attributed to them being in the prime of their lives and that they are therefore more concerned with issues of community safety. This number is close to the age group of 31 – 40 and 51 – 60 – also adults who probably view matters of community and community safety as key.

Question A3: The statistics show that 45 (36%) of the respondents are divorced, 42 (33.6%) are unmarried while 38 (30.4%) are married. There could be various reasons for this particular finding, but this study did not address the issue, as it was outside of the main focus of the research.

Question A4: The employment status statistics show that the highest number of 76 (60.8%) of participants fell within the category of being unemployed, as opposed to 49 (39.2%) which are employed. This shows that about 60.8% of community members are unemployed.

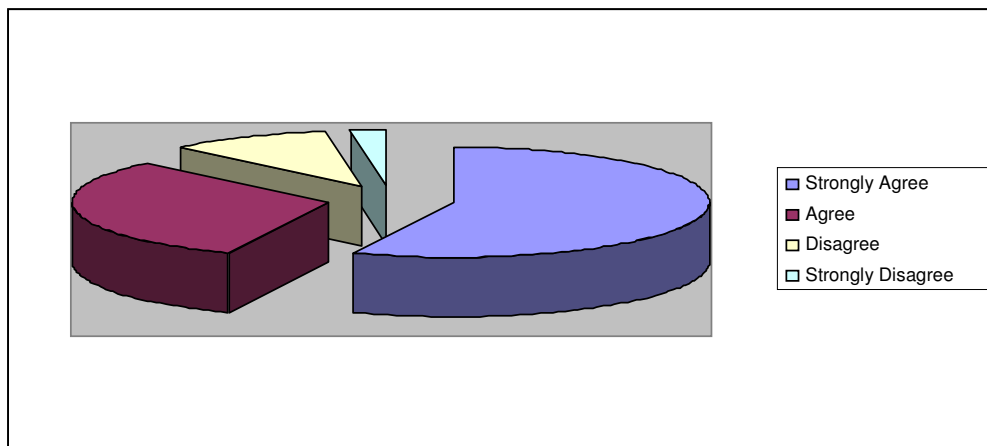
Question A5: The analysis of data with respect to the level of education of respondents revealed that 16 (12.8%) of respondents have attained Grade 0 – 3 level of education, 52 (41.6% have attained Grade 4 – 9, 48 (38.4%) have attained Grade 10 – 12 and 9 (7.2%) are graduates. The cumulative frequency of 116 and the cumulative percentage of 92.8 of Grades 0 – 12 revealed that the community is fairly educated with a typically intermediate and senior phase level of education. Their levels of education put them at a favourable position to understand the proceedings related to activities of the CPF.

4.10.3 Section B (Questions B1 – B10) The role of CPFs in effective crime prevention in the Merafong Local Municipality (MLM) Area

Question B1: The role played by the Station Commander in the establishment of the Interim Implementation Committee

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 70 | 56.25 | 70 | 56.25 |
| Agree | 39 | 31.25 | 109 | 87.5 |
| Disagree | 13 | 10.42 | 122 | 97.65 |
| Strongly Disagree | 3 | 2.08 | 125 | 100.00 |

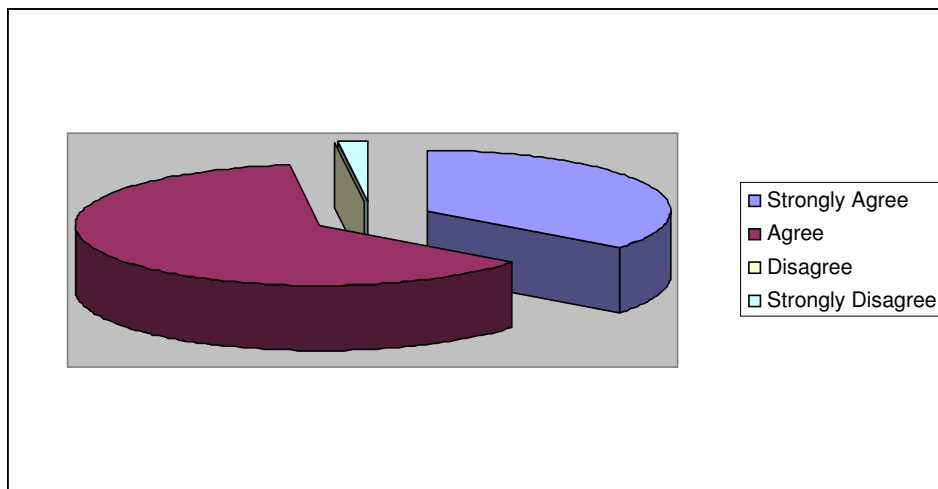
Results of Question B1: The results indicate that 109 (87%) of respondents agreed and strongly agreed that the Station Commander played a key role in the establishment of the interim Implementation Committee of the CPF. Only 16 (12.5%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. This situation indicates that community members are mostly in agreement with the establishment of the CPF and that its establishment is legitimate.



Question B2: Members of the Interim Implementation Committee were trained to perform their responsibilities

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 44 | 35.4 | 44 | 35.4 |
| Agree | 78 | 62.5 | 122 | 97.9 |
| Disagree | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Strongly Disagree | 3 | 2.0 | 125 | 100 |

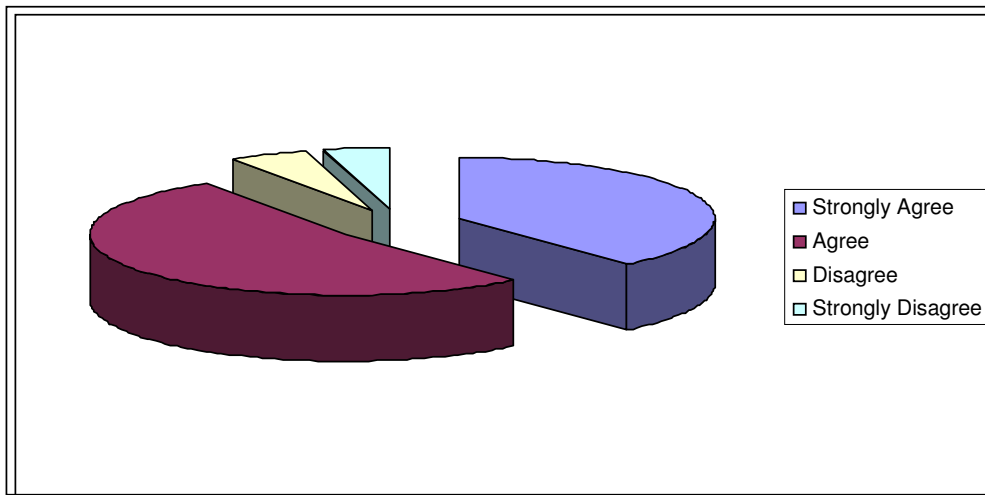
Results of Question B2: The majority of respondents, namely 122 (98%) agreed that members of the Interim Implementation Committee were trained to perform their duties, and only an insignificant percentage of 2% strongly disagreed with this. The response to this question was positive and is an indication that the Interim Implementation Committee is fully capacitated to perform the functions of the CPF to their best ability.



Question B3: Communities of interest (for example taxi associations, church groups and business groups) were invited to be part of the establishment of the CPF

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 49 | 38.5 | 49 | 38.5 |
| Agree | 65 | 52.3 | 114 | 90.8 |
| Disagree | 6 | 5.1 | 120 | 95.9 |
| Strongly Disagree | 5 | 4.1 | 125 | 100 |

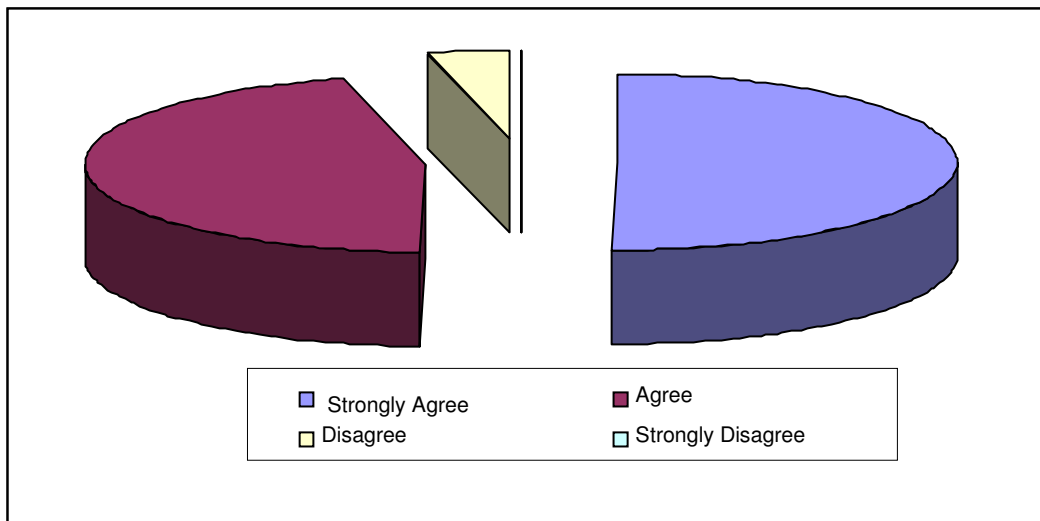
Results of Question B3: The statistics indicate that 114 (91.2%) of the respondents were in agreement with the fact that communities of interest were invited to be part the establishment of CPF. Only 11 (8.8%) indicated that they did not agree. The high number of positive responses could be attributed to the fact that these communities of interest are equally affected by crime in their communities.



Question B4: The CPF in your area has a constitution

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 63 | 50.4 | 63 | 50.4 |
| Agree | 57 | 45.6 | 120 | 96.0 |
| Disagree | 5 | 4.0 | 125 | 100 |
| Strongly Disagree | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

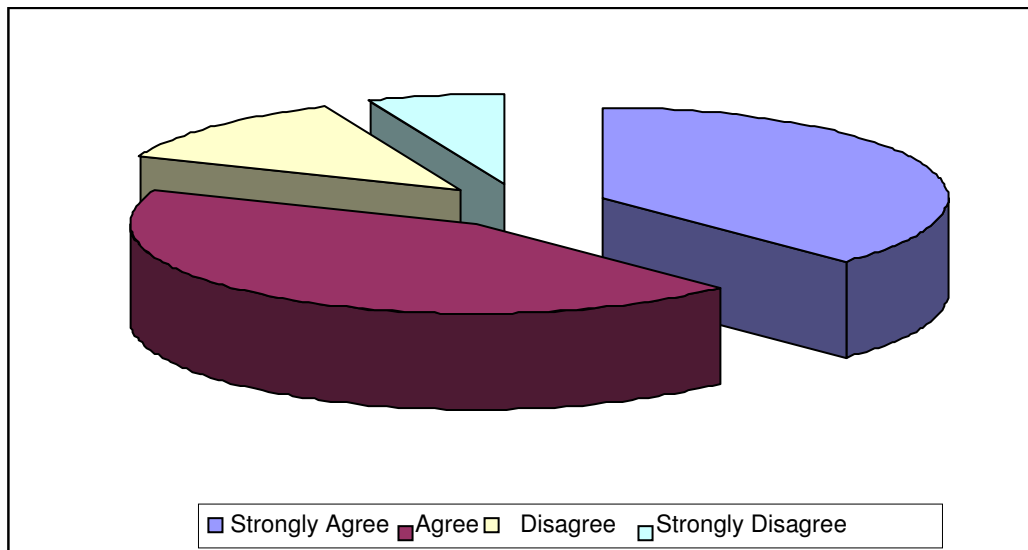
Results of Question B4: The statistics show that 120 (96%) were in agreement with the fact that CPFs in their communities were run according to a constitution. Only 5 (4%) of respondents did not agree. This means that the constitution lays down certain rules of procedure and in that way the conduct of members is regulated.



Question B5: The members of the CPF get mandates from communities regarding crime activities

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 46 | 37.5 | 46 | 37.5 |
| Agree | 55 | 43.7 | 101 | 81.2 |
| Disagree | 16 | 12.5 | 117 | 93.7 |
| Strongly Disagree | 8 | 6.3 | 125 | 100 |

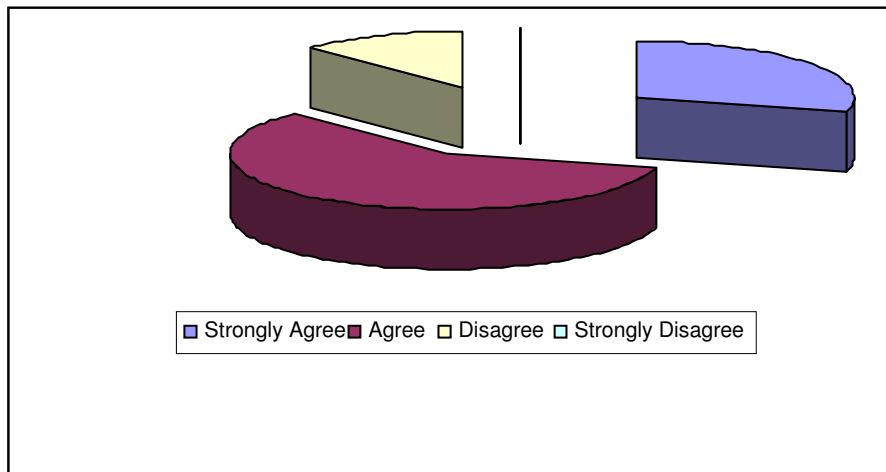
Results of Question B5: The statistics indicate that the cumulative percentage of respondents who agreed that CPFs get mandates from communities, is 81.2%. This implies that members of the CPF practice what is called “problem-orientated policing”. With this type of policing, the CPF performs an in-depth analysis of the nature, causes and symptoms of a particular problem. Also, with this type of policing, community members play a key role in helping the CPF to conduct extensive analyses of the problem.



Question B6: The CPF holds meetings regularly

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 36 | 29.2 | 36 | 29.2 |
| Agree | 73 | 58.3 | 109 | 87.5 |
| Disagree | 16 | 12.5 | 125 | 100 |
| Strongly Disagree | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

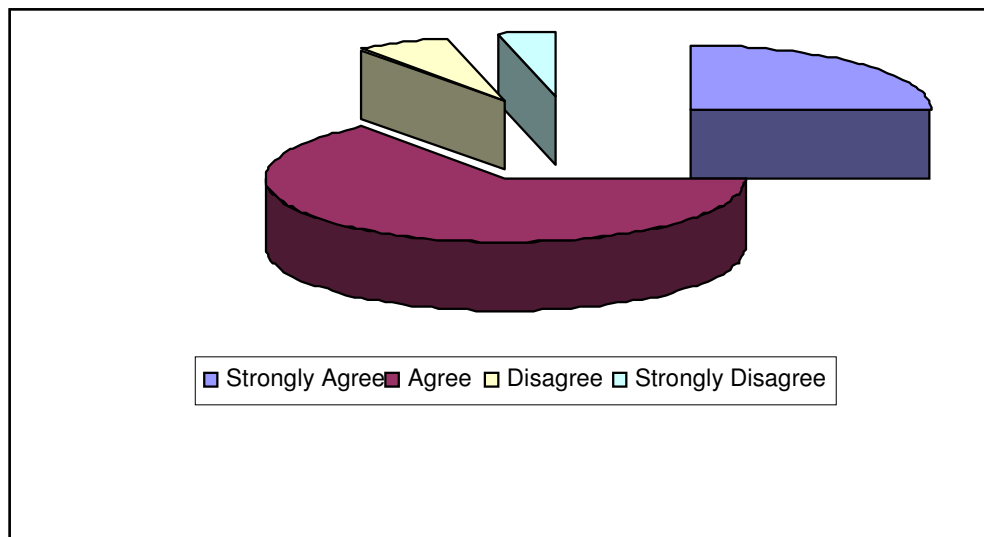
Results of Question B6: Respondents (87.5%) indicated that the CPF has meetings regularly while 16 (12.5%) disagreed. The high number of respondents who agreed that the CPFs hold meeting regularly indicates that developments in activities of the CPF are communicated to the communities. It is in these meetings where vital information is shared with communities, soliciting inputs and also ensuring that communities own strategies to prevent crime.



Question B7: The CPF uses various ways to communicate with members of the community

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 31 | 25.0 | 31 | 25.0 |
| Agree | 81 | 64.6 | 112 | 89.6 |
| Disagree | 8 | 6.4 | 120 | 96 |
| Strongly Disagree | 5 | 4.0 | 125 | 100 |

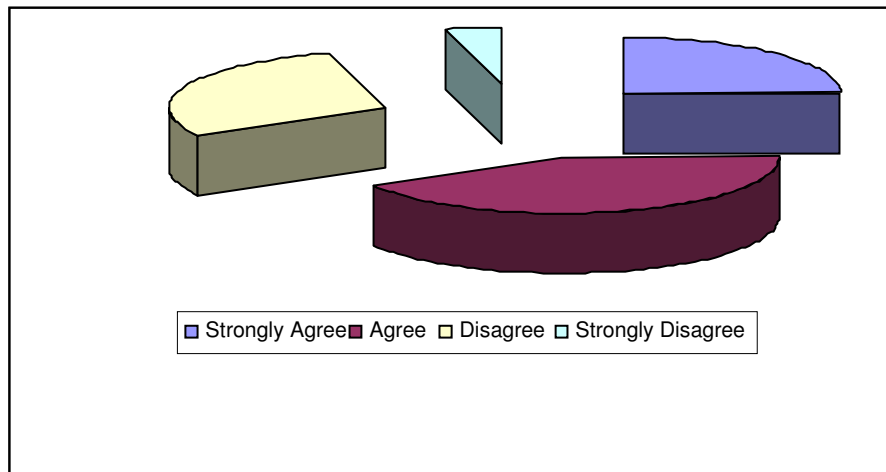
Results of Question B7: The purpose of this question was to determine whether the CPFs communicate with members of the communities to give feedback on matters of community safety. 112 (89%) of the respondents indicated that the CPFs use various means of communication methods to inform their respective communities. Communication is very important to the well-being of every institution. The high number of positive responses indicates that communities are taken on board on every aspect of the CPF.



Question B8: Political functionaries (municipal councillors, church leaders and business groups) take part in the CPF activities

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 31 | 24.8 | 31 | 24.8 |
| Agree | 37 | 41.7 | 68 | 66.5 |
| Disagree | 52 | 29.2 | 120 | 95.7 |
| Strongly Disagree | 5 | 4.1 | 125 | 100 |

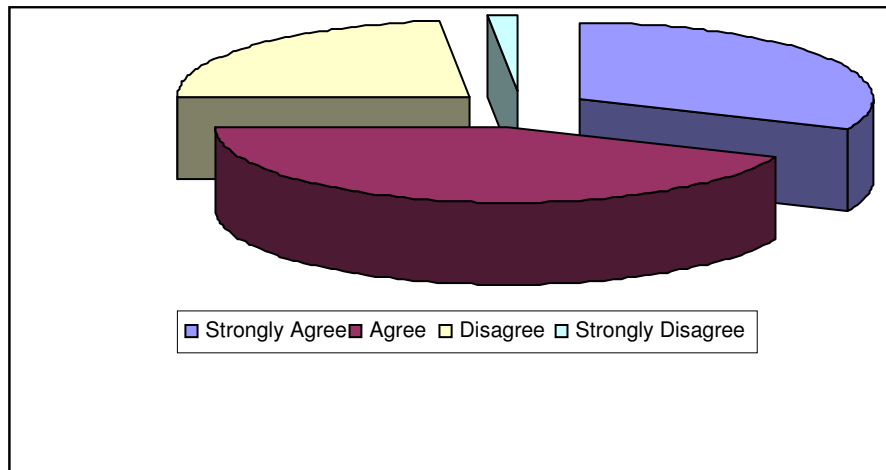
Results of Question B8: Statistics regarding this question show that political functionaries take part in the activities of the CPF. The cumulative frequency shows that 68 (54.4%) agreed that municipal councillors, church leaders and business groups take part in the CPF activities. Their participation in the activities is likely to be based on their concern about crime in relation to their business activities. Only 57 (45.6%) of the respondents disagreed with this statement.



Question B9: The constitution of the CPF prevents criminal elements from taking part in the activities of the CPF

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 40 | 31.7 | 40 | 31.7 |
| Agree | 53 | 42.9 | 93 | 74.6 |
| Disagree | 30 | 23.8 | 123 | 98.4 |
| Strongly Disagree | 2 | 1.6 | 125 | 100 |

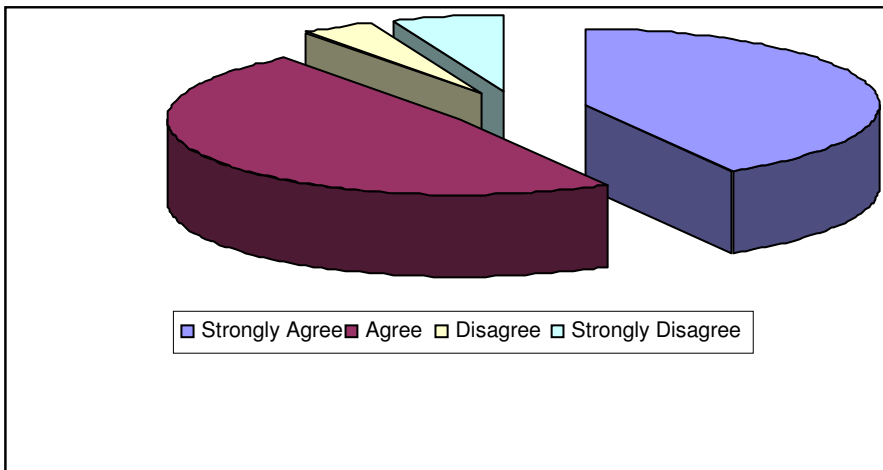
Results of Question B9: The question tested whether the CPF constitution prevents criminal elements from taking part in the activities of the CPF. The question would further establish whether there are mechanisms or clause(s) in the constitution that regulated criminal elements from taking over the CPF and thus defeating the intension of the CPF. The results indicate that 93 (74.6%) were of the opinion that the constitutions of the CPFs prevent people with criminal records from participating in CPF activities and meetings.



Question B10: A police station provides logistical arrangements for the CPF meetings and its activities

| Response | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Strongly Agree | 52 | 41.7 | 52 | 41.7 |
| Agree | 60 | 47.9 | 112 | 89.6 |
| Disagree | 5 | 4.2 | 117 | 93.8 |
| Strongly Disagree | 8 | 6.2 | 125 | 100 |

Results of Question B10: The results indicate that 112 (89.6%) of the respondents were of the opinion that a police station provides logistical arrangements for CPF meeting and activities. 11 (10.4%) of the respondents were of the opinion that the police station did not provide the logistical arrangements for the CPF meeting and activities. The positive response of many respondents indicates that these respondents have been part of CPF meetings and activities, and they have seen the role that was taken by the police station in making sure that meetings and/or activities become a success.



4.11 Analysis of responses

In this section, collected data from interviews is analysed with the view of arriving at a scientific conclusion regarding the role of CPFs in fighting crime.

4.11.1 Data collected from chairpersons of the CPFs

Data collected from chairpersons shows that they are quite knowledgeable about their work. They are able to articulate in detail how the CPF works. Regarding the establishment of the CPF they were able to explain the role that the Station Commander played. They were also able to explain how they engage in their activities, such as implementing community-based policing. Such understanding can be attributed to the fact that the executive determines the work of the CPF.

4.11.2 Data collected from members of the executives of the CPFs

Members of the executive committee attended the same meetings as the chairpersons. They were also better informed than the members of the executive of the CPF. They were able to clearly articulate the successes of the CPF and how, as members of the executive, they were able to implement community-based policing. These are key roles of the CPF. The fact that members of the executive are conversant with activities of the CPF can be attributed to the fact that, most of the time, they are accountable to their constituency.

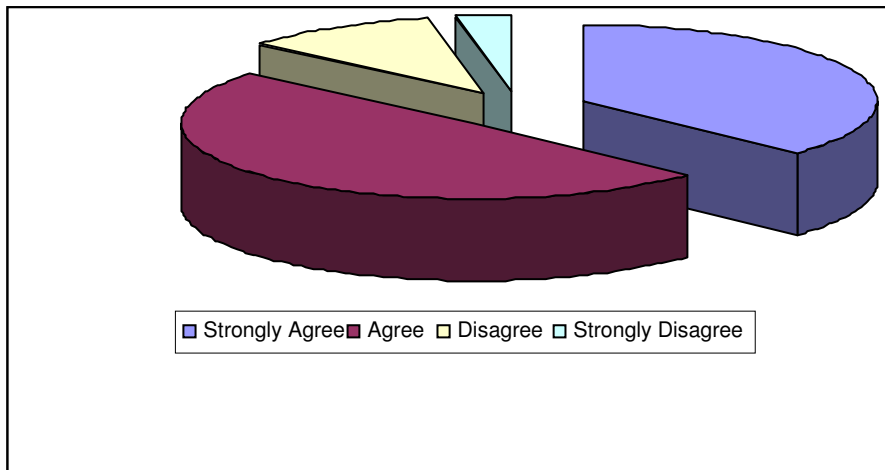
4.11.3 Data collected from non-executive members of the CPFs

Ordinary members of the CPF found it difficult at times to relate exactly how the Station Commissioner was involved in the establishment of the CPF. Some could not answer with confidence when asked whether their CPF has a constitution. This could be attributed to the fact that such members have not at any point seen the constitution, or that they did not attend the meeting where the constitution

was drafted. When asked about how they implement community-based policing, ordinary members were not able to explain all the steps that are followed in implementing community-based policing in detail. However, they were able to explain clearly how they communicate and solicit inputs (problems) to their community leader.

4.12 OVERALL PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY ACCORDING TO QUESTIONS

| | Q1 | Q2 | Q3 | Q4 | Q5 | Q6 | Q7 | Q8 | Q9 | Q10 | TOTAL | AVE - % |
|----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|---------|
| SA | 56.2 | 35.4 | 38.5 | 50.4 | 37.5 | 29.2 | 25 | 24.8 | 31.7 | 41.7 | 370.4 | 37 |
| A | 31.2 | 62.5 | 52.3 | 45.6 | 43.7 | 58.3 | 64.6 | 41.7 | 42.9 | 47.9 | 490.7 | 49.2 |
| D | 10.4 | 0 | 5.1 | 4 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 6.4 | 29.2 | 23.8 | 4.2 | 108.1 | 10.8 |
| SD | 2.1 | 2 | 4.1 | 0 | 6.3 | 0 | 4 | 4.1 | 1.6 | 6.2 | 30.4 | 3 |



4.13 CONCLUSION

The questionnaire and interview provided important information on the role of CPFs in fighting crime in MLM area. Findings from the research reveal that, subsequent to the official launch of the CPFs, all members serving in the MLM CPFs were taken through a series of workshops. The aims of these workshops were to explain the *why* and *how* of community policing in general and of police-community consultation in particular. As the executive committee is at the heart

of CPFs, various office-bearers of the executive were also taken through training in order to understand and internalise their roles and responsibilities. Based on these empowerment programmes of both the CPF members and the executive committees, it is clear that MLM CPFs have adequate knowledge of their roles and functions with a view to contribute to effective crime prevention efforts. However, the statistics in itself cannot be regarded as the alpha and the omega to address the problem of fighting crime. It must be regarded as guidelines that can be utilised to deal with crime prevention.

The following chapter will present conclusions and recommendations to the study.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present conclusions and offer recommendations on the issues that will have a positive influence in the activities of CPFs in the MLM area. A reflection on these findings is given and specific recommendations on how to improve the effort of crime prevention by means of a CPF will be presented. The recommendations will focus on the essential aspects of community policing which were deduced from the empirical study.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter one offered a brief outline of the statement of the problem. This chapter also set out the objectives of the study which guided the research. The central theoretical statement was formulated and the methodology of research was explained.

Chapter two discussed previous policing contexts. It outlined policing in a broad sense with emphasis on policing in South Africa. The chapter concluded by providing an in-depth discussion of the community policing approach.

Chapter three presented an overview of statutory and legislative guidelines that affect the establishment and running of a CPF. Here policing was outlined, and the changes that took place in this regard were indicated. These changes evolved around the emerging roles that various stakeholders in the community need to play with a view to achieving a successful CPF.

Chapter four outlined the methods of the research design and presented the empirical research with a discussion of the findings. An analysis of data was also offered. The results obtained from interviews formed the basis of the discussion in this chapter.

Chapter five presents conclusions from the research and offers recommendations of good practices regarding the activities of CPFs.

5.3 REALISATION OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The first objective of this study was to provide a theoretical exposition of legislative requirements for effective crime prevention by CPFs. To meet this objective, a theoretical exposition of community policing was provided in chapter two of the mini-dissertation.

The second objective was to determine what effective community policing means in the context of the SAPS Section 18, Chapter 7, Act 68 of 1995. Here it was established that all members of the SAPS are responsible for the implementation of community policing. The Station Commissioner in MLM is responsible for the establishment of Community Policing Forums in the area.

Thirdly, the study aimed to establish whether the CPFs have adequate knowledge of their roles and functions as stipulated in Chapter 7, Section 18 of SAPS Act. CPFs are a means to facilitate the partnership between the SAPS and the communities, and to engage in joint problem identification and consultative problem-solving. Chapter three highlighted the roles and functions of members of CPFs with a view to secure effective crime prevention strategies as stipulated in the SAPS Act.

The last objective was to establish whether CPFs in the selected MLM area function effectively, efficiently and economically. The study particularly aimed to

establish whether the MLM's CPFs can be regarded as a model that shows a good partnership between the community and the police in the fight against crime.

5.4 CONCLUSIONS

From the results of the study, it can be concluded that the Police Station Commander of MLM is fully aware of all legislation and procedures in establishing a CPF. As it is mandated by law that the Station Commander must set up a platform for the establishment of a CPF, the following procedures were adhered to:

- Although it has been many years now since CPFs in the MLM area have first been set up and running, public meetings have been called to inform community members about the purpose of CPFs. In these meetings, the names of few community members were suggested in order to help in the establishment of a forum.
- The CPF had been officially launched. During the launch, mandated representatives attended the meeting where the inaugural meeting adopted a constitution of the CPF and an executive committee was elected.

The second objective was to determine what effective community policing in MLM area means in the context of Section 18, Chapter 7 of the SAPS Act.

The MLM's CPFs have a written constitution. The constitution sets out the rules and regulations for managing the CPF. It also protects the CPF and its members.

In the four CPFs in the MLM area, executive committees are responsible for the day-to-day running of the CPFs. They promote community policing. The executive committees are responsible for all tasks referred to them by the CPFs. The executive committees identify community representatives and other experts to serve in specific working groups. These members are selected on the basis of their ability to contribute to the solution of a specific problem. A police representative is included in the working group when police input is required and when police are able to participate. Working groups are responsible for investigating particular problems and for developing possible solutions. These solutions are forwarded to the executive committee for approval, maintenance and monitoring.

The results of the research show that the MLM practices effective community policing as stipulated in Section 18, Chapter 7 of the SAPS Act.

- The third objective was to establish whether the members of CPFs in the MLM area have adequate knowledge of their roles and functions as stipulated in Chapter 7, Section 18 of the SAPS Act.

Subsequent to the training of CPF members, they operate according to the constitution. They are able to call meetings to give feedback regarding activities of the CPF. They are able to solicit inputs from communities on matters relating to community safety.

- The fourth objective was to establish whether CPFs in the selected MLM area function effectively, efficiently and economically.

As CPFs are attached to a police station, the Station Commander provides logistical arrangements for the CPF activities. The resources that are made available to the CPF are used in an effective, efficient and economic manner by

holding meetings at the SAPS police station, instead of hiring a venue for the meeting.

From the research results, it can be concluded that MLM's CPFs are truly beacons of hope in fighting crime in their respective areas. Despite years of unrest in the area, they have tried their best to contain crime from going out of hand. Most legal procedures were followed in full and this shows that the community is on a rightful course to win the battle against crime.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions, the following recommendations which focus on five focus areas of the activities of the CPF can be made. The following recommendations are made:

Recommendation 1: Community needs

As communities have the power to monitor, evaluate and advise the SAPS and to enquire into policing matters, an operational plan should be drawn up for every individual CPF and its responsibility area.

Recommendation 2: Complaints against police

In terms of legislation, the CPF has the power to enquire into policing matters in the locality concerned. This implies that CPF members should serve in a local complaints centre where members of a community can lodge complaints against the SAPS.

Recommendation 3: Evaluation

Communities should monitor the progress that the SAPS are making with regard to the implementation of a specific operational plan. It is necessary for a CPF to decide on aspects of policing that need to be focused on, as well as standard and performance evaluation criteria. They should also develop performance instruments and measure efficiency and effectiveness.

Recommendation 4: Transparency

Promotion of accountability of the Service to local communities also demands greater police transparency. More direct channels of communication need to be established between the community and the management of the police stations, inviting community members to join police patrols and organising open days at the police stations.

Recommendation 5: Resources

As financial, logistical and human resources are required to implement plans, a CPF should investigate and evaluate the availability of community resources and formulate ways and means to activate and mobilise such resources.

Recommendation 6: Involvement of criminal elements

Involvement of criminal elements in a CPF will affect the credibility of the CPF and, furthermore, it can jeopardise policing. Members of the executive committee of a CPF should be screened before their appointment.

Recommendation 7: Communication

There should be proper and frequent communication between CPFs and the broader community. They should provide for a communication plan as part of its operational plan, and the members of a CPF should be bound by a Code of Conduct to report back to their constituencies. CPFs should explore all possible means of communication to keep their respective communities informed on safety and security issues.

Recommendation 8: Problem-orientated policing

In implementing problem-orientated policing, an evaluation panel should be established. The panel will then evaluate the identified problem by finding out whether, and how, it affects the community. The problem-solving team should be thoroughly trained in problem-solving techniques.

In summary, the objectives of this study were achieved in terms of determining the role of CPFs in fighting crime. For the MLM area to fight crime, it needs CPFs which are efficient and effective.

Therefore all the conclusions and recommendations presented in this mini-dissertation are made in view of what is contained in the study. It is hoped that the arguments presented are not seen as the only solutions to the safety and security-related problems in municipalities, but as the starting point for further research in order to address these shortcomings in communities.

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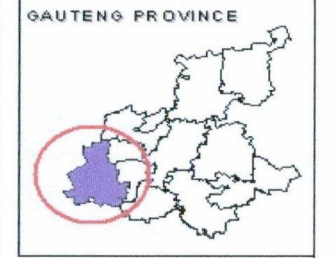
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Annexure A

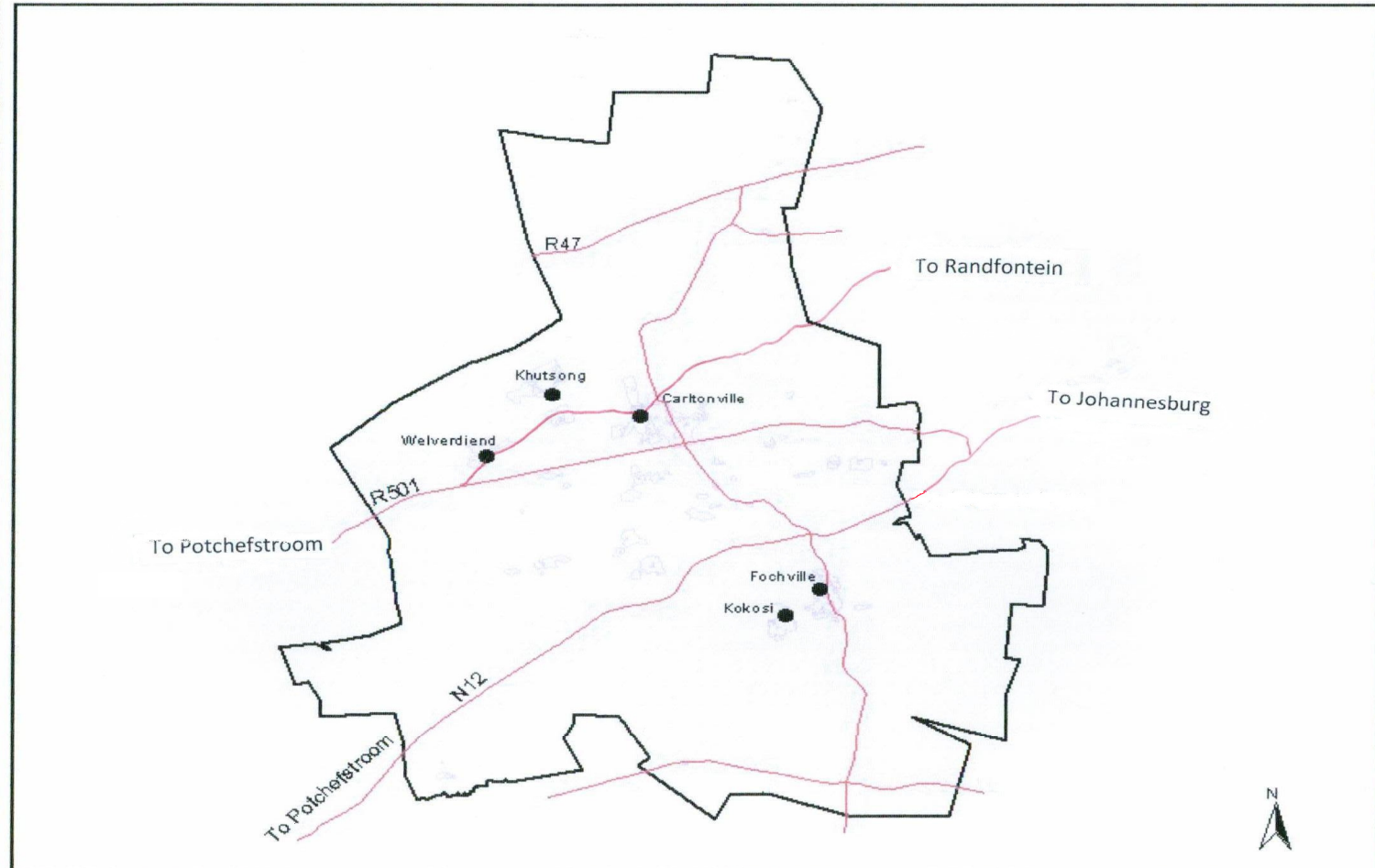
MERAFONG MUNICIPALITY AREA

- MERAFONG MUNICIPALITY AREA**
-  Mainroads
 -  Merafong Built-up Area
 -  Merafong Municipality
 -  Police Stations



DIRECTORATE: NATIONAL SPATIAL INFORMATION FRAMEWORK

Contact Details:
 Tel: 012 312 9415
 Fax: 012 921 8028
 Physical Address:
 164 Jacob Maree St
 Pretoria



ANNEXURE B

**11 Mzolo Street
Mohlakeng,
RANDFONTEIN
1759**

To whom it may concern

My name is Khompane Edward Salomane, a graduate student in the Master's Programme of Public Management and Administration Programme (MPG) at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus.

I am conducting a study on the following topic: "To establish whether Community Policing Forums understand their roles and responsibilities and implement policies for effective and efficient crime prevention in communities".

I would like to ask you sincerely for an interview regarding the above-mentioned topic. Your honest and sincere response to the interview will assist in assessing and establishing the role and functions of Community Policing Forums to ensure effective crime prevention in communities.

Your participation is highly appreciated.

Yours truly,

Salomane K E

ANNEXURE C

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS DESIGNED FOR:

- 1. CHAIRPERSONS OF CPFs;**
- 2. MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE OF THE CPF; AND**
- 3. NON-EXECUTIVE MEMBERS OF THE CPF.**

INSTRUCTIONS TO PARTICIPANT/RESPONDENT

- You are kindly requested to answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible.
- Keep your answers as brief as possible.
- This interview questions form part of research to determine the role of a CPF in crime prevention in communities.
- Your name is not required, but your contribution could be of great significance to crime prevention in communities.
- Strict confidentiality and professional handling of your contribution are absolutely guaranteed.

QUESTION 1: What role did the Station Commander play in the establishment of the CPF Interim Implementation Committee?

QUESTION 2: What role did the Station Commander play in the empowerment of the Implementation Committee in executing their responsibilities?

QUESTION 3: What role did the Station Commander play in the lobbying “Communities of Interest”?

- QUESTION 4:** Does the CPF in your area have a constitution?
- QUESTION 5:** Elaborate on the role played by members of the CPF in any plans developed by CPF and in soliciting input from the broader community.
- QUESTION 6:** How often does a CPF hold meetings?
- QUESTION 7:** What channels of communication exist between the community and the CPF?
- QUESTION 8:** What role is played by functionaries (political functionaries, for example, municipal councillors, church leaders and business groups) in the CPF?
- QUESTION 9:** How are criminal elements prevented from hijacking the CPF?
- QUESTION 10:** Who provides logistics and accommodation for the CPF meetings?

ANNEXURE D

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMMUNITY MEMBERS

INSTRUCTIONS TO PARTICIPANT/RESPONDENT

- You are kindly requested to answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible.
- Keep your answers as brief as possible.
- This interview questions form part of research to determine the role of a CPF in crime prevention in communities.
- Your name is not required, but your contribution could be of great significance to crime prevention in communities.
- Strict confidentiality and professional handling of your contribution is absolutely guaranteed.
- Please select **ONLY ONE** answer per question. Make a **cross (X)** to indicate your answer.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

| | | |
|--|---------------|--|
| 1. Please indicate your gender | Male | |
| | Female | |
| 2. Please indicate your age | 21 - 30 | |
| | 31 - 40 | |
| | 41 - 50 | |
| | 51 – 60 | |
| | 60 + | |
| 3. Please indicate your marital status | Unmarried | |
| | Divorced | |
| | Married | |
| 4. Please indicate employment status | Employed | |
| | Unemployed | |
| 5. Please indicate your level of education | Grade 0 - 3 | |
| | Grade 4 – 9 | |
| | Grade 10 - 12 | |
| | Graduate | |

SECTION B**PLEASE NOTE:**

- Statements are provided from questions B1 – B10 with a 1 - 4 Likert scale. Please mark (X) next to the appropriate number by referring to the scale below.

| | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

1. The Station Commander played a key role in the establishment of the Interim Implementation Committee.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|

2. Members of the Interim Implementation Committee were trained to perform their responsibilities.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|

3. Communities of interest (for example taxi associations, church groups and business groups) were invited to be part of the establishment of the CPF.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|

4. The CPF in your area has a constitution.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|

5. The members of the CPF get mandates from communities regarding crime activities.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|

6. The CPF holds meetings regularly.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|

7. The CPF uses various ways to communicate with members of the community.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
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- 8. Political functionaries (municipal councillors, church leaders and business groups) take part in the CPF activities.

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- 9. The constitution of the CPF prevents criminal elements from taking part in the activities of the CPF.

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- 10. A police station provides logistical arrangements for the CPF meetings and its activities.

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION