

EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE POTCHEFSTROOM AREA

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REMARKS

The reader is reminded of the following:

- The references as well as the editorial style as prescribed by the *Publication Manual* (4th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA) were followed in this mini-dissertation. This practice is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the PU for CHE to use APA style in all scientific documents as from January 1999.
- The mini-dissertation is submitted in the form of a research article. The editorial style specified by the *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology* (which agrees largely with the APA style) is used, but the APA guidelines were followed in constructing tables.

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ABSTRACT

SUBJECT: EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE
POTCHEFSTROOM AREA

KEY TERMS: Community policing, community, police, expectations, satisfaction, attitudes, surveys, job satisfaction, burnout, work engagement, image.

One of the most dominant features of South Africa's transformation over the past years has been and continues to be crime and violence. The effects of violence on a large proportion of the population as well as on the police service are significant and continue to have implications for the quality of life of South Africans. In recent years, community policing has been presented as a tool to enable police officers to control crime and to improve police-citizen relations. To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions of the community, for negative attitudes towards the police result in ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder and inefficient police functioning. Moreover, it is important for the police to know how satisfied or dissatisfied their clients are with their service delivery. Several studies suggest that how police feel about their job and their department can greatly affect their relations with the community and the quality of law enforcement service they provide. Some obstacles that may influence the above-mentioned aspects are the perceptions of the community, job stress, job satisfaction, burnout, and work engagement. The objective of this research was to determine the community's expectations and satisfaction with the SAPS in the Potchefstroom area, to compare the expectations of police members with those of the community and to determine the relationships among the job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement of police members.

A cross-sectional design was used to achieve the research objectives. The study population consisted of police members ($N = 79$) and community members ($N = 505$) in the Potchefstroom area. The measuring instruments included the Public Attitude Survey, the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Police Stress Inventory, the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Cronbach alpha coefficients, inter-item correlation coefficients and factor analysis were used to determine the

OPSOMMING

ONDERWERP: VERWAGTINGE VAN, EN TEVREDENHEID MET DIE SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS IN DIE POTCHEFSTROOM AREA

KERN TERME: Gemeenskapspolisiëring, gemeenskap, polisie, verwagtinge, tevredenheid, houdings, opnames, werkstevredenheid, uitbranding, begeestering.

Een van die dominantste eienskappe van Suid-Afrika se transformasie gedurende die afgelope paar jaar was en bly steeds misdaad en geweld. Die effek van geweld op 'n groot deel van die bevolking asook die polisie diens is geweldig en hou steeds implikasies in vir die kwaliteit van lewe van Suid-Afrikane. Die afgelope paar jaar was gemeenskapspolisiëring aangebied as gereedskap om polisiebeamptes in staat te stel om misdaad te beheer en om polisie-gemeenskapsverhoudinge te verbeter. Om te help met die suksesvolle implementering van gemeenskapspolisiëring is dit noodsaaklik om die opinies van die gemeenskap vas te stel, omdat negatiewe houdings teenoor die polisie neerslag vind in kwade gevoelens, gebrek aan respek, wanorde en oneffektiewe polisie funksionering. Verder is dit belangrik vir die polisie om te weet hoe tevrede of ontevrede hul kliënte met hul dienslewering is. Uit die resultate van verskeie studies wil dit voorkom of die gevoelens wat polisie lede het jeens hulle werk en departement 'n groot invloed uitoefen op hulle verhouding met die gemeenskap en die kwaliteit van die wetstoepassingsdiens wat hulle lewer. Verskeie hindernisse wat die bogenoemde aspekte mag beïnvloed, sluit in die persepsies van die gemeenskap, werkstres, werkstevredenheid, uitbranding en begeestering. Die doelstelling van die navorsing was om die gemeenskap se verwagtinge en tevredenheid met die SAPD in die Potchefstroom area te bepaal, om die verwagtinge van polisie lede met die van die gemeenskap te vergelyk en om die verhoudings tussen werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeestering van polisie lede te bepaal.

'n Dwarssnit-ontwerp is gebruik om die navorsingsdoelstellings te bereik. Die studiepopulasie het bestaan uit lede van die polisie ($N = 79$) en lede van die gemeenskap ($N = 505$) in die Potchefstroom-area. Die meetinstrumente sluit die Publieke Houdingsvraelys, die

internal consistency. T-tests and analysis of variance were used to determine differences between the sub-groups in the sample. Effect sizes were computed to indicate the practical significance of the results.

The results of the study show that although the community and police's expectations correlate, some of the community's expectations are unrealistically high. Both the total group of community members and the police reported an average level of satisfaction with the service provided by the SAPS. The following significant relationships exist among the obstacles that influence the quality of service delivery of the SAPS. Satisfaction can be associated with work engagement, stressors, and burnout and stressors can be associated with burnout and work engagement. Burnout and work engagement can be considered as the antithesis of each other, and it may cause a slight relationship between these two concepts.

Recommendations for future research have been made.

Minnesota Werkstevredenheidsvraelys, die Polisiestres-indikator, die Maslach Uitbrandingsvraelys en die Utrecht Werksbegeesteringskaal in. Cronbach alfa-koëffisiënte, inter-item korrelasie-koëffisiënte en faktoranalise is gebruik om die interne konsekwentheid te bepaal. T-toetse en variansieanalise is gebruik om verskille tussen die subgroepe in die steekproef te bepaal. Effekgroottes is bereken om die praktiese betekenisvolheid van die resultate aan te toon.

Die resultate van die studie dui aan dat alhoewel die gemeenskap en die polisie se verwagtinge korreleer, party van die gemeenskap se verwagtinge onrealisties hoog is. Beide die totale groep gemeenskapslede en die polisie het 'n gemiddelde vlak van tevredenheid met die diens wat deur die SAPD gelewer word gerapporteer. Die volgende betekenisvolle verhoudings bestaan tussen die hindernisse wat 'n invloed kan hê op die kwaliteit van dienslewering deur die SAPD. Werkstevredenheid kan in verband gebring word met begeestering, stressors en uitbranding, en stressors kan in verband gebring word met uitbranding en begeestering. Uitbranding en begeestering kan gesien word as die teenoorgestelde van mekaar en dit mag veroorsaak dat 'n effense verhouding tussen hierdie twee konsepte bestaan.

Aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is aan die hand gedoen.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This mini-dissertation focuses on the expectations of and the satisfaction with the South African Police Service in the Potchefstroom area in the North West Province.

This chapter contains the problem statement, research objectives and research methodology employed. In addition, the chapter division of the mini-dissertation is presented.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

An effective and efficient police service is very important in creating the circumstances necessary for economic development in South Africa. The most significant feature of South Africa's transition from a racially-divided apartheid government to democracy has been the peaceful nature of the transformation in the form of negotiation as opposed to revolution. However, one of the dominant features of the transformation over the past years has been, and continues to be, crime and violence. Crime is the product of the political transition and is associated with the effects of apartheid and political violence, the breakdown of the criminal justice system and more recently, the growth in organised crime. The social and psychological effects of violence on a large proportion of the population, as well as the police force are significant and continue to have implications for the quality of life of South Africans (Louw, 1997).

To prevent crime, it is necessary to understand the forces behind crime at the neighbourhood level. A growing body of research provides support for social disorganisation theory as derived from the work of Shaw and McKay (1942). According to this revived model, criminal activity is encouraged when a neighbourhood is socially disorganised, meaning that it is unable to exercise effective informal social control over its residents and achieve common goals, such as reducing the threat of crime (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993). Because of population turnover and heterogeneity, residents are unlikely to develop primary relationships with each other and unlikely to work jointly to solve neighbourhood problems. Therefore, socially disorganised neighbourhoods are unable to create and sustain local institutions.

If communities suffer from social disorganisation, efforts can be made to strengthen social networks and encourage residents' attachment to the area. Local residents can take many different actions to help prevent crime and disorder (Radelet, 1986). Getting residents to work together to achieve common neighbourhood goals is one way to stimulate social interaction and build social relationships. The involvement of local community residents in neighbourhood anticrime actions may strengthen informal social controls at the neighbourhood level and may well then contribute to the overall goal of creating self-regulating communities. The community policing officer may seek community input and participation in defining local problems, work with the community to develop proposed solutions to these problems and identify and mobilise the necessary resources inside and outside the community to respond effectively to these problems. Today, the community-policing officer must therefore take these ideas to the next level to engage the community in experimental ways to solve neighbourhood problems.

In recent years, community policing has been presented as a tool to enable police officers to control crime and to improve police-citizen relations (Yates & Pillai, 1996). Reisig and Giacomazzi (1998) state that the community policing movement represents a philosophical shift in the operational mission of policing. According to the Department of Safety and Security (1997), community policing can be defined as a philosophy of or an approach to policing that recognises the interdependence and shared responsibility of the police and the community in ensuring a safe and secure environment for all the people of the country.

Perhaps the biggest mistake in the history of modern policing was to give the police full responsibility and accountability for public safety. In the 'new' framework, however, safety is viewed as a commodity produced by the joint efforts of the police and the community, working together in ways that were not envisioned or encouraged in the past. This perspective is radically different from the one implied by the conventional crime-fighting model. In contrast to the widely accepted view that citizens are supplemental to the police ("eyes and ears" at best), the assumption here is that the police are supplemental to the community in fighting neighbourhood problems, i.e. crime. This is not to suggest that the police are irrelevant or unimportant. On the contrary, as our tax money for fighting crime at the street level have been invested almost exclusively in the police, it is incumbent upon the police to take a leading role and serve as a catalyst for community change. The challenge for police today and into the 21st century is to find creative ways to help communities help

themselves.

Every definition of community policing shares the idea that the police and the community must work together to define and develop solutions to their problems. To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions of the recipients of police services, namely the public. The study of public opinion of the police is important for at least three reasons (Cao, Stack & Sun, 1998). In the first place, it is important because the public is the consumer of police services and it thus vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Murty, Komanduri, Julian & Smith, 1990). Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder, and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence (Hero & Durand, 1985).

The public expects the police to be effective in the services they provide; to offer services in a manner that is equitable and fair to the community, and to make an effort to see that equitable and effective services are provided at a minimal cost to society (i.e. efficiency) (Radelet, 1986). On the other hand, community policing aims to establish an active and equal partnership between the police and the public through which crime and community safety issues can jointly be determined and solutions designed and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997). If the police are to serve the public effectively and acceptably, a constructive working relationship must exist between law enforcement officials and citizens (Worrall, 1999). Furthermore, it has been assumed for some time now that effective community policing is dependent on positive attitudes toward the police (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998). Community policing programme successes are also likely to be determined by the level of interest and willingness on the part of police officers to identify with the basic principles of community policing (Yates & Pillai, 1996).

Regarding the effectiveness of the police, one is inclined to ask "effective at doing what?" The results of studies examined by Beck, Boni and Packer (1999) indicated that the community values the crime control role of the police as the highest priority of the police under the traditional model. Other key functions included in this model is providing emergency services, administering justice by means of arrest and offering a wide range of

non-emergency services. The traditional methods used to fight crime include preclusion (through preventative patrolling and arrest), incapacitation and rehabilitation. Studies have questioned the effectiveness of these general strategies for controlling or preventing crime (Radelet, 1986). Furthermore, research on the police in particular has failed to support the hypothesis that random patrols, rapid response and follow-up investigational practices at the core of enforcement-oriented policing would produce more arrests and less crime. The results of traditional police practices have led many police executives and academics to call for a new approach to policing (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998).

Fundamental transformation is needed to ensure that the SAPS develops into a community-oriented policing service which adopts a consultative approach to meeting the safety and security needs of the community it serves (Department of Safety and Security, 1997). This transformation is more specifically based on a response to the factors listed below:

- A growing demand for more responsive and client-oriented policing;
- An increase in the socio-economic stimuli of crime, together with the changing socio-political environment;
- Rising levels of crime, especially violent crime;
- Mistrust, antagonism and even open hostility from some sections of the community towards the police.
- The existence of unrealistic expectations on the part of the community about the effectiveness of traditional police responses;
- Growing evidence of the shortcomings of the traditional policing approach in providing a long-term answer to crime and problems of disorder;
- The growing realisation that in the absence of community support, neither more money, more personnel, better technology, nor more authority will enable the police to shoulder the monumental burden of crime (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

It is argued that, like all complex agencies involved in service delivery, it is important for the police to know how satisfied or dissatisfied their clients are. Moreover, it is important to discover the factors that affect citizen satisfaction and whether they are subject to manipulation within the parameters established by law and available organisational resources. It is in this context that public satisfaction with the police has emerged as a significant issue.

Like all such evaluative concepts, the term satisfaction proves to be ambiguous upon closer examination. This ambiguity has several dimensions (Lee, 1991; Maxfield, 1988; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Southgate & Ekblom, 1984). Firstly, when respondents are asked about their degree of satisfaction with policing services, it is not necessarily clear that the questions are as meaningful to them as they are to those who sponsored the survey. Secondly, the range of responses provided to respondents does not necessarily reflect the range or the content of opinions among the public at large. In other words, it is not obvious that those who score highest on a relevant scale are expressing satisfaction in an absolute sense or simply expressing more satisfaction than is implied by the alternative response categories. Similarly, do low scores mean that people are dissatisfied or simply less satisfied than those who rate the police most highly?

Thirdly, the gap between survey reports and incidents about which reports are provided may be substantial. In a fundamental way, expressions of public satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the police do not tell us how well things are working, but how well they are perceived to be working. Survey responses may reflect pre-existing tendencies to be satisfied or dissatisfied rather than the quality of the service that is delivered. In the context of specific encounters, dissatisfaction with what the attending officer did or failed to do does not necessarily imply inappropriate action. Fourthly, satisfaction and other attitudes toward the police are complex and multifaceted rather than one-dimensional phenomena. Different audiences may understand the various components of satisfaction, namely police demeanor, respect, effectiveness, professionalism, and the use of police power differently. Moreover, these attitudes do not exist in isolation but are bound up with perceptions of other aspects of the urban or political environment.

Finally, the relationship between satisfaction and expectations is rarely made explicit. Evaluative concepts like satisfaction with overall quality of service and judgments about courtesy, effort, or professionalism imply the existence of some standards against which the judgment is made. These standards may be conceptualised as expectations that clients have about police performance generally or in specific situations. In the case of response time, for instance, Brandl and Horvath (1991) have noted the important role played by expectations in the determination of satisfaction. Yet while surveys tell us how people feel about the things that police do, they less often tell us what people expect the police to do or how they expect them to do it. The relationship between expectations and satisfaction is not necessarily a

simple one. Members of the public who have very high expectations of the police are likely to become frustrated when the police fail to meet these expectations (Carter, 1985). Such expectations may be rooted in what people believe they have a right to expect from the police (Erez, 1984). It is reasonable to argue that expectations regarding policing are contextualised by group experiences and therefore reflect ethnic or class variations in the ways in which policing roles are understood. With respect to ethnic differences specifically, Erez (1984) suggests that treatment by the police can be viewed as symbolic of the respect to which groups believe they are entitled in a multicultural society. Thus, minorities that are attempting to become part of the cultural mainstream may be very aware of, and very sensitive to, police responses that seem to signal a lack of respect. Undoubtedly, public expectations about how the police are expected to perform are shaped by mass media images.

The movement from traditional to community-based models of policing has suggested a need to develop alternative methods for the evaluation of police performance. Measures such as response time, arrest or clearance rates is increasingly seen as inconsistent with the new policing philosophies, because such measures fail to speak to the role of the public as the consumer of policing services (Couper, 1983). Judgments regarding public satisfaction are usually based on the findings of surveys of general populations or of more specialised samples such as crime victims or those who have had some other type of recent contact with the police. Respondents are typically asked in direct fashion how satisfied they are with their local police, how good a job they think the police are doing or how effective they perceive the police to be. Respondents who have had a recent encounter with the police might be asked if they were satisfied with the outcome; whether the officers with whom they had contact were "polite" or "courteous"; or if they behaved in a "professional" manner.

While surveys are not the only source of information about citizen satisfaction, they are generally thought to be preferable to many of the alternatives. Negative newspaper coverage, formal or informal complaints, the public forum, and the rhetoric of special interest groups provide a skewed and potentially misleading impression of the type and intensity of public feelings. In contrast, it can be argued that despite their well-known limitations, surveys have an inherently democratic character in that opinions are solicited widely and weighted equally. In this way, surveys correct for the fact that many members of the public do not attend community consultations in order to express their views and that others do so selectively (Patterson & Grant, 1988).

However, the comfort of long-established and traditional roles of police institutions, the perceptions of the public, job stress, job satisfaction, burnout and work engagement may be obstacles to the successful implementation of community policing (Radelet, 1986; Rothmann, 2002). Several studies on police working environments suggest that how police feel about their job and their department can greatly affect their relations with the public and the quality of law enforcement service they provide (Greene, 1989; Yates & Pillai, 1992, 1993). Therefore, it is necessary to take a closer look at the obstacles that can influence the service delivery of the SAPS.

According to Rothmann and van Rensburg (2002), law enforcement is one of the most stressful occupations worldwide. In addition to experiencing job-related stressors such as dealing with unlawful, often dangerous actions of citizens, there are factors such as abusive treatment in the workplace and a general lack of social support. Not surprisingly, increased rates of illness, post-traumatic stress, burnout and decreased levels of job satisfaction and job performance, as compared to norms for the general population, are found in research with police members (Anshel, 2000; Nel, 1994; Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000; Rothmann & Strijdom, 2002).

South African society is saturated with media exposure to violence and people are increasingly aware of the effect this can have on them. This awareness has helped change the public's perception that the police are immune to pressure and stress (Nel & Burgers, 1998). Police are present in most situations that can be described as critical incident stressors: the serious injury or death of a child or a colleague; suicide of a colleague; incidents in which odours, sounds and sights trigger uneasy feelings, such as decomposing bodies, shooting incidents and bomb blast scenes; environmental dangers; and national disasters (Dietrich & Hatting, 1993).

Some other factors that may cause distress for police members at work include authoritarian structures, lack of participation in decision-making, poor interpersonal relationships with supervisors, lack of administrative support, unfair discipline, unfair promotion and the nature of police work (Rothmann & Strijdom, in press). Shift work, the dangers involved in police work and low salaries also seem to be related to stress. Several studies have shown that frustration and stress among police officers is associated with the negative image the public holds about the police and law enforcement. Yates and Pillai (1996) suggest that frustration

and stress independently influence police officers' attitudes towards community policing.

According to Rothmann and Agathagelou (2000), job satisfaction is a reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired. Employees compare the extent of the outcomes that they receive to the extent of the outcomes they feel they should receive. When the extent of the outcome received proves to be less than expected, a negative attitude results, which leads to job dissatisfaction. When the outcome meets the worker's expectations or even exceeds it, the result is a positive attitude, which is a sign of job satisfaction. Empirical data indicates that job satisfaction has an effect on work attendance and general behavioural syndromes indicating a positive organisational orientation. Job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job environment such as supervision, salary, co-workers and task variety, as well as job-related stressors mentioned above (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998; Kirkcaldy, Cooper & Furnham, 1999). The outcomes of job dissatisfaction (as well as its antithesis) should also be considered. Fosam and Grimsley (1998) state that the concept of satisfaction often influences various constructs such as commitment, loyalty, service quality and value that police officers may have towards their jobs and the community. Clearly, a police force is a service-intensive organisation with a significant proportion of its employees working in direct contact with its customers, the public. Any organisational commitment to quality improvement implies, therefore, that possible key influences on the level of employee satisfaction should be investigated (Fosam & Grimsley, 1998).

Schaufeli (2002) states that job demands are those physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of one's job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (i.e. cognitive or emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Job demands are not necessarily stressful, but they may turn into job stressors when the appropriate resources are lacking so that meeting those demands requires too much effort and is associated with distress. When the individual does not have the necessary coping mechanisms to deal with the distress, burnout may occur. Burnout consists of three dimensions, namely exhaustion, cynicism and lessened professional efficacy. Some warning signs of burnout are: exhaustion or chronic fatigue; mental distance; decreased work performance and self-doubts; distress symptoms; and signals from co-workers and from private life (Schaufeli, 2002).

In a more positive light, it is also compulsory to look at the work engagement levels of police officers, seeing that work engagement can be regarded as the opposite of burnout. Work engagement consists of three dimensions, namely vigour ("I am bursting with energy in my work,"), dedication ("I find my work full of meaning and purpose,") and absorption ("I am immersed in my work") (Schaufeli, 2002). According to a study conducted by The Gallup Organisation, Harter (2001) reported that an engaged work group does not only have a significantly higher sense of loyalty, but in addition, there are other hidden benefits, such as that people are more ethical, more productive, more diligent and more caring when they are engaged. It is evident that engaged police officers are necessary to contribute to a healthy workforce and effective service delivery.

Little quantitative research has been published on public expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service. Furthermore, little attention has been paid in the academic literature to the issue of the relationship between the police and the public from the viewpoints of the police clientele and the police themselves. There is also little research to help in determining the public's understanding of current police priorities, and almost no research examining how police officers perceive their role and what they believe their role should be. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), dissatisfaction of the public in the United Kingdom sprang from a misunderstanding within the police about what the public wanted from the service. To address this problem, interest was directed to the so-called 'caring' side of policing and the effectiveness of forces was measured in terms of personal contacts with police officers. Police services started to concentrate research on 'customers', often defined as those members of the public who had had recent interaction with the police. Performance indicators reflected levels of customer satisfaction with various aspects of police activity, such as frequency of patrols, speed of response and how well an incident was dealt with. The move towards assessing the quality of service encouraged the use of survey research.

Therefore it seems that a need exists to determine the community's expectations of and satisfaction with the SAPS. Information about the expectations and satisfaction of the community will enable management to implement plans to ensure the effective implementation of community policing. Furthermore, scientific information is also needed about how police members perceive their own jobs and service to the community. This information could be used to improve the effectiveness of the SAPS.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 General objective

The general objective of the research was to determine the community's expectations and satisfaction with the SAPS in the Potchefstroom area, to compare the expectations of police members with those of the community and to determine the relationships between the job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement of police members.

1.2.2 Specific objectives

- to determine what the community in the Potchefstroom area expects from the SAPS, to assess their satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans, English and Tswana speaking members;
- to determine the congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions;
- to determine police personnel in the Potchefstroom area's perceptions of the community's satisfaction with the service they provided;
- to determine the relationship between police personnel in the Potchefstroom area's job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement and to determine the implications of these for service rendering;
- to make recommendations on how community policing in the Potchefstroom area, as well as the effectiveness of the SAPS could be improved.

1.3 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method consists of a literature review followed by a cross-sectional study.

1.3.1 Literature review

The literature review focuses on the expectations of and the satisfaction with the SAPS and the discrepancies between the community's expectations and satisfaction, and those of the SAPS.

1.3.2 Research design

A qualitative design was used to reach the general and specific research objectives. A cross-sectional survey design was applied (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). Demographic information collected was used to describe the population at that time. An advantage of using this type of design is that it can be used to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), this design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational research.

1.3.3 Sample

The study population consists of police members ($N = 79$) in various police stations in the Potchefstroom area as well as community members ($N = 505$) served by these police stations. A formula proposed by Kerlinger and Lee (2000) was used to determine the sample size. Police and community members were randomly selected to complete the questionnaires.

1.3.4 Measuring instruments

The following measuring instruments are included in this research:

The *Public Attitude Survey* (PAS) contains 38 items and is used to measure community and police perceptions of the role of police officers. The public version is divided into two sections. In the first section, Present Priority, respondents are asked to indicate what priority they think police currently give to each of the 38 activities on a five-point scale (1 = very low priority to 5 = very high priority). In the second section, Preferred Priority, respondents are asked to indicate what priority they think police should give to each of the activities, using the same scale as the first section. The police version is similarly divided into the same two dimensions to those in the public version. The 38 activities were divided into seven functions, namely advice, investigation, station duties, crime prevention, assistance, family issues and security (Beck et al., 1999).

The *Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire* (MSQ) is used to determine how police members feel toward their job, with what aspects they are satisfied, and with what they are not (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist in Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000). The shortened

version of the MSQ was used. According to Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr (1981) the questionnaire is reliable and valid in measuring total job satisfaction. Test-retest reliability for a period of one week was reported as 0.89 and 0.70 for a year. By means of factor analysis, the 20 items were grouped into two dimensions, namely extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. Rothmann (2002) reported an alpha coefficient of 0.84 for extrinsic job satisfaction and 0.76 for intrinsic job satisfaction.

The *Police Stress Inventory* (PSI) is used to measure both the severity (Part A) and the frequency (Part B) of stressors that police officers experience in their jobs (Pienaar, 2002). Part A and Part B consists of the same 44 items, which participants rated on a nine-point scale, ranging from a low, to a high amount and frequency of stress. The frequency part of the questionnaire asked "How many times or the number of days the stressful event occurred during the past six months". Most of the scores are relatively normally distributed, with low skewness and kurtosis. Therefore, the measuring instrument can be regarded as valid and reliable (Pienaar, 2002).

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey* (MBI-GS) (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997) is used to measure respondents' relationships with their work on a continuum from engagement to burnout. The MBI-GS consists of 16 items divided into three sub-scales: Exhaustion (Ex) (five items, e.g. "I feel emotionally drained by performing my work"), Cynicism (Cy) (five items, e.g. "I doubt the significance of my work") and Professional Efficacy (PE) (six items, e.g. "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job"). Together the sub-scales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha coefficients) reported by Maslach et al. (1996) varied from 0.73 to 0.89 for the three sub-scales. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0.65 (Exhaustion), 0.60 (Cynicism) and 0.67 (Professional Efficacy) (Maslach et al., 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from "0" (never) to "6" (daily).

The *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES) (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach & Jackson, 1996) is used to measure the levels of engagement. Although engagement is conceptually seen as the positive antithesis of burnout, it is operationalised in its own right. Work engagement is a concept that includes three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Engaged workers are characterised by high levels of vigor and dedication, and they are engrossed in their jobs. It is a (empirical) question whether engagement and burnout are endpoints of the same

continuum or that they are two distinct but related concepts. The UWES is scored on a seven-point frequency rating scale, varying from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always”). The alpha coefficients for the three sub-scales varied between 0.68 and 0.91.

1.3.5 Statistical analysis

The data analysis was carried out with the help of the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach alpha coefficients, inter-item correlation coefficients and factor analysis are used to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis are used to analyse the data.

T-tests and analysis of variance were used to determine differences between the sub-groups in the sample. A cut-off point of 0.50 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of differences between means. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationship between the variables. In the case where the distribution of scores was skew, Spearman correlation coefficients were computed. Effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) were computed to indicate the practical significance of the results.

1.4 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

Chapters are presented as follows in this mini-dissertation.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Research article

Chapter 3: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter highlighted the motivation for this research and the proposed objectives. It further explained the methods used in the research.

In Chapter 2, the research article is presented.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE

EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE POTCHEFSTROOM AREA*

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this research was to determine the expectations of, and the satisfaction with the South African Police Services, while giving attention to police members' job satisfaction, job stress, burnout and work engagement. A cross-sectional design was used. The study population consisted of police personnel ($N = 79$) and community members ($N = 505$) in the Potchefstroom area. The Public Attitude Survey, the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Police Stress Indicator, the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale were administered. The results showed that although the community and police's expectations were related, some of the community's expectations are high. Community members reported an average level of satisfaction with the service provided by the SAPS. Significant relationships were found between job satisfaction and engagement, stressors, and burnout; and between stressors and burnout and stressors and work engagement.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie navorsing was om die verwagtinge van en tevredenheid met die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens te bepaal terwyl aandag geskenk is aan werkstevredenheid, werkstres, uitbranding en begeestering. 'n Dwarssnit-ontwerp is gebruik. Die studiepopulasie het bestaan uit polisiepersoneel ($N = 79$) en lede van die gemeenskap ($N = 505$) in die Potchefstroom area. Die Publieke Houdingsvraelys, die Minnesota Werkstevredenheidsvraelys, die Polisiestres-indikator, die Maslach Uitbrandingsvraelys en die Utrecht Werksbegeesteringskaal is afgeneem. Die resultate het aangetoon dat alhoewel die gemeenskap en die polisie se verwagtinge ooreenkom, die verwagtinge van die gemeenskap hoog is. Lede van die

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gemeenskap het 'n gemiddelde vlak van tevredenheid met die diens wat deur die SAPD gelewer word, gerapporteer. Betekenisvolle verbande is tussen werkstevredenheid en werksbegeestering, stressors, en uitbranding, en tussen stressors en uitbranding en stressors en werksbegeestering gevind.

An effective and efficient police service is important in creating the circumstances necessary for economic development in South Africa. The most significant feature of South Africa's transition from a racially-divided apartheid government to democracy has been the peaceful nature of the transformation in the form of negotiation as opposed to revolution. However, one of the dominant features of the transformation over the past years has been and continues to be crime and violence. Crime is the product of the political transition and is associated with the effects of apartheid and political violence, the breakdown of the criminal justice system and more recently, the growth in organised crime. The social and psychological effects of violence on a large proportion of the population, as well as the police force are significant, and continue to have implications for the quality of life of South Africans (Louw, 1997).

The results of traditional police practices have led many police executives and academics to call for a new approach to policing (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998). In recent years, community policing has been presented as a tool to enable police officers to control crime and to improve police-citizen relations (Yates & Pillai, 1996). According to the Department of Safety and Security (1997), community policing can be defined as a philosophy of or an approach to policing which recognises the interdependence and shared responsibility of the police and the community in ensuring a safe and secure environment for all the people of the country.

At the heart of this new model of policing is the empirically-supported idea that the police cannot successfully fight crime alone, and must rely on resources in the community to address neighbourhood problems effectively. Perhaps the biggest mistake in the history of modern policing was to give the police full responsibility and accountability for public safety. In the 'new' framework however, safety is a commodity that is produced by the joint efforts of the police and the community. The challenge for police today and into the 21st century is to find creative ways to help communities help themselves.

To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to

determine the expectations of the recipients of police services, namely the public. The study of the public opinion of the police is important for at least three reasons (Cao, Stack & Sun, 1998). In the first place, this is because the public is the consumer of police services and it is vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Murty, Komanduri, Julian & Smith, 1990). Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder, and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence (Hero & Durand, 1985).

It is argued that, like all complex agencies involved in service delivery, it is important for the police to know how satisfied or dissatisfied their clients are. Contented customers do appear to breed contented employees – at least in the police force (Fosam & Grimsley, 1998). Moreover, it is important to discover the factors that affect community satisfaction and whether they are subject to manipulation within the parameters established by law and available organisational resources. It is in this context that public satisfaction with the police has emerged as a significant issue.

Like all such evaluative concepts, the term satisfaction proves to be ambiguous upon close examination. This ambiguity has several dimensions (Lee, 1991; Maxfield, 1988; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Southgate & Ekblom, 1984). Firstly, it is not always evident precisely what type of evaluation respondents are being asked to make. Secondly, the range of responses provided to respondents does not necessarily reflect the range or the content of opinions among the public at large. Thirdly, the gap between survey reports and reports that are provided about incidents may be substantial. Survey responses may reflect pre-existing tendencies to be satisfied or dissatisfied rather than the quality of the service that is delivered. Fourthly, satisfaction and other attitudes toward the police are complex and multifaceted rather than one-dimensional phenomena. For example, different audiences may understand the various components of satisfaction, namely police demeanor, respect, effectiveness, professionalism, and the use of police power differently. Finally, the relationship between satisfaction and expectations is rarely made explicit.

Little quantitative research has been published on the public's expectations of and satisfaction

with the SAPS. Furthermore, little attention has been paid in academic literature to the issue of the relationship between the police and the public from the viewpoints of the police clientele and the police themselves. There is also little research available on the determination of the public's understanding of current police priorities, and almost no research examining how police officers perceive their role and what they believe their role should be. According to Yates and Pillai (1996), previous research on community policing has several drawbacks. Firstly, only a limited number of studies have focussed on police officers. Secondly, researchers have largely studied citizen perceptions of community policing rather than assessed attitudes of police officers on this subject. Thirdly, research on community policing tends to ignore the service role component of community policing. Fourthly, community-policing studies have been criticised for their absence of statistical rigour. Lastly, research on community policing lacks an adequate theoretical framework.

Therefore, it seems that a need exists to determine the community's expectations of and satisfaction with the SAPS. Information about the expectations and satisfaction of the community will enable management to implement plans to ensure the effective implementation of community policing. Furthermore, scientific information is also needed about how police members perceive their own jobs and service to the community. This information could be used to improve the effectiveness of the SAPS.

The comfort of long-established and traditional roles of police institutions, the perceptions of the public, job stress, job satisfaction, burnout, and work engagement may be obstacles to the successful implementation of community policing (Radelet, 1986; Rothmann, 2002). Several studies on police working environments suggest that how police feel about their job and their department can greatly affect their relations with the public and the quality of law enforcement service they provide (Greene, 1989; Yates & Pillai, 1992, 1993). Yates and Pillai (1996) found that frustration and stress independently influence police officers' attitudes towards community policing. Job stress, and specifically job demands may cause burnout, which will affect the service delivery of police officers, while job resources may contribute to work engagement (Schaufeli, 2002). High levels of burnout and low levels of engagement may contribute to job dissatisfaction. Furthermore, Fosam and Grimsley (1998) point out that the employees' job satisfaction often influences their commitment, loyalty, service quality and value that police officers may have towards their jobs and the community.

The objective of the research was to determine the community's expectations and satisfaction with the SAPS in the Potchefstroom area, to compare the expectations of police members with those of the community and to determine the relationships between the job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement of police members.

The community's expectations of and satisfaction with the SAPS

Since community policing in a democracy is actually a social function delegated to the state by society and the realisation of the goal of community policing is influenced, among other things, by a pluralistic, external environment (*role milieu*), it stands to reason that there should be a reasonable correlation between the expectations of the society and the role fulfilment by the police.

In the interest of efficient community policing, notice must of necessity be taken of the expectations that society imposes on policing (Prinsloo & du Preez, 1994). It is therefore necessary to determine the opinions of the recipients of police services, namely the community. The study of the community's opinion of the police is important for at least three reasons (Cao, Stack & Sun, 1998). This is so firstly because the public is the consumer of police services, it is vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Murty et al., 1990). Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder, and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence (Hero & Durand, 1985).

The public expects the police to be effective in the services they provide; to offer services in a manner that is equitable and fair (Radelet, 1986). One is inclined to ask "effective at doing what?" The results of studies examined by Beck, Boni and Packer (1999) indicated that the public values the investigation of crime as the highest priority of the police. Other key factors such as crime prevention, consultation with the public, successful implementation of community policing and goal attainment are regarded as criteria for effective policing (Kitshoff, 1996; Mayet, 1976). If the police are to serve the public effectively and acceptably, a constructive working relationship must exist between law enforcement officials and citizens

(Worrall, 1999).

Judgements regarding public satisfaction are usually based on the findings of surveys of general populations or of more specialised samples such as crime victims or those who have had some or other type of recent contact with the police. Despite the fact that surveys have well-known limitations, it has an inherently democratic character in that opinions are solicited widely and weighted equally. In this way, surveys correct for the fact that many members of the public do not attend community consultations in order to express their views and that others do so selectively (Patterson & Grant, 1988).

The relationship between expectations and satisfaction is not necessarily a simple one. Members of the public who have very high expectations of the police are likely to become frustrated when the police fail to meet these expectations (Carter, 1985). Such expectations may be rooted in what people believe they have as a right to expect from the police (Erez, 1984).

According to Yates and Pillai (1996), frustration among police officers is associated with the negative image the public holds of the police and the law enforcement system. Furthermore, the general public hostility toward police and the lack of public appreciation of police work can also be influential on police frustration levels. Yates and Pillai (1996) suggest that frustration independently influence police officers' attitudes towards community policing. It is therefore clear that this forms a vicious circle.

The SAPS and community policing

Community policing programme successes are also likely to be determined by the level of interest and willingness on the part of police officers to identify with the basic principles of community policing (Yates & Pillai, 1996). Several studies on police working environments suggest that how police feel about their job and their department can greatly affect their relations with the public and the quality of law enforcement service they provide (Greene, 1989; Yates & Pillai, 1992, 1993).

However, obstacles to the successful implementation of community policing, such as the comfort of long established and traditional roles of police institutions, job satisfaction, job

stress, burnout, work engagement, and the perceptions and expectations of the public may be present (Radelet, 1986; Rothmann, 2002). For instance, increasing job stress may decrease a police officer's level of job satisfaction that may lead to low engagement and even burnout. This can contribute to negative perceptions of the police regarding themselves, and negative perceptions from the community. These aspects may also determine both parties' expectations of and level of satisfaction with community policing, seeing that it has a direct influence on the service delivery of police officers.

According to Rothmann and van Rensburg (2002), law enforcement is one of the most stressful occupations worldwide. Police are often victims, not only of violence but other kinds of disasters (Nel & Burgers, 1998). Police are present in most situations which can be described as critical incident stressors: the serious injury or death of a child or a colleague; suicide of a colleague; incidents in which odours, sounds and sights trigger uneasy feelings, such as decomposing bodies, shooting incidents and bomb blast scenes; environmental dangers; and national disasters (Dietrich & Hatting, 1993).

In addition to experiencing job-related stressors such as dealing with unlawful, often dangerous actions of citizens, there are factors such as abusive treatment in the workplace, organisational inefficiency and a general lack of social and managerial support (Koortzen, 1996). Not surprisingly, increased rates of illness, post-traumatic stress, decreased levels of job satisfaction and job performance, and burnout, as compared to norms for the general population, are found in research with police members (Anshel, 2000; Nel, 1994; Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000; Rothmann & Strijdom, 2002).

According to Rothmann and Agathagelou (2000), job satisfaction is a reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired. When the extent of the outcome received proves to be less than expected, a negative attitude results, which leads to job dissatisfaction and vice versa, which is a sign of job satisfaction. Empirical data indicates that job satisfaction has an effect on work attendance and general behavioural syndromes indicating a positive organisational orientation. Job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job environment such as supervision, salary, co-workers and task variety, as well as job-related stressors mentioned above (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998; Kirkcaldy, Cooper & Furnham, 1999). The outcomes of job dissatisfaction (as well as its antithesis) should also be considered. Fosam

and Grimsley (1998) states that the concept of satisfaction often influences various constructs such as commitment, loyalty, service quality and value that police officers may have towards their jobs and the community.

Schaufeli (2002) states that job demands are those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of one's job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (i.e. cognitive or emotional) effort. Job demands such as crime prevention and helping victims of crime are not necessarily stressful, but they may turn into job stressors when the appropriate resources (for instance: enough vehicles and social support) are lacking so that meeting those demands requires too much effort and is associated with distress. When police officers do not have the necessary coping mechanisms and support to deal with the distress, burnout may occur. Burnout consists of three dimensions, namely exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. Some warning signs of burnout are: exhaustion or chronic fatigue; mental distance; decreased work performance and self-doubts; distress symptoms; and signals from co-workers and from private life (Schaufeli, 2002).

In a more positive light, it is also essential to look at the work engagement levels of police officers, seeing that work engagement can be regarded as the opposite of burnout. Work engagement consists of three dimensions, namely vigour ("I am bursting with energy in my work,"), dedication ("I find my work full of meaning and purpose,") and absorption ("I am immersed in my work")(Schaufeli, 2002). According to a study conducted by The Gallup Organisation, Harter (2001) reported that an engaged workgroup does not only have a significantly higher sense of loyalty, but in addition, there are other hidden benefits, such as that people are more ethical, more productive, more diligent and more caring when they are engaged. It is evident that engaged police officers are necessary to contribute to a healthy workforce and effective service delivery.

The mental health of police officers is the responsibility of all: individual officers themselves, their commanding officers, the helping professions, the organisation at large, the community and politicians. Police officers need the support and assistance of their communities, and need clarity on their roles, the new rules governing their behaviour, and their futures (Nel & Burgers, 1998).

METHOD

Research design

A qualitative survey design was used to attain the research objective. A cross-sectional design was specifically used by means of which a sample is drawn from a population at a particular point in time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). This design can be used to assess inter-relationships among variables within a population.

Sample

The study population included police members ($N = 79$) and members of the community ($N = 505$) in Potchefstroom in the North West Province.

The following formula proposed by Kerlinger and Lee (2000) was used to determine the sample size for this study:

$$n' = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n}{N}}$$

and

$$n = z^2 \times \frac{SD^2}{d^2}$$

where n' = estimated sample size; n = the estimated sample size using the formula; N = the size of the population; z = standard score corresponding to the specified probability of risk; SD = the standard deviation of the population, and d = the specified deviation.

The police study population mainly included inspectors ($n = 42$), captains ($n = 14$), sergeants ($n = 5$) constables ($n = 5$), and superintendents ($n = 4$) with a mean age of 35. A total of 58 (73.42%) police participants were males while 21 (26.58%) were females. Out of the community, 257 (50.89%) members were male and 248 (49.11%) were female, aged between 15 and 95. Various language groups were identified, namely Tswana (police $n = 12$,

community $n = 156$); Afrikaans (police $n = 54$, community $n = 183$); English (police $n = 2$, community $n = 71$); and other (police $n = 11$, community $n = 80$).

Measuring instruments

The following measuring instruments were included in the questionnaire:

- The *Public Attitude Survey* (PAS). As was done by Beck et al. (1999), parallel forms of the Public Attitude Survey were developed to measure both the public and the police's perceptions and expectations of police events. For the purpose of this study, 38 police activities were selected to cover the major police functions of crime prevention, peacekeeping and service provision. The activities were adapted during consultation with senior and operational police officers and include questions like "Advise people on personal safety", "Respond to emergencies", "Deal with sexual violence and crime against women and children." The 38 activities were divided into seven dimensions, namely advice, investigation, station duties, crime prevention, assistance, family issues and security.

The survey was then divided into two sections. In the first section, namely, "At present", respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale (1 = very low to 5 = very high) what priority they thought police currently gave to each of the 38 activities. In the second section, namely, "Preferred" respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale (1 = very low to 5 = very high) what priority they thought police should give to each of the 38 activities. The aim of this survey was to determine what respondents (public and police) believed police priorities to be at present; what respondents (public and police) thought police priorities should be; and what the level of consensus was between perceptions of the police and the public (Beck et al. 1999, p. 2).

- The *Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire* (MSQ) indicates how satisfied or dissatisfied respondents are towards their job, by asking respondents to rate themselves on 20 questions by using a five-point scale (1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied). The survey included questions like: "Being able to keep busy all the time"; "The chance to be 'somebody' in the community"; "The way my supervisor handles his/her workers";

“The praise I get for doing a good job.” A simple factor analysis was conducted to identify the number of factors. Two interrelated factors were extracted by using the Oblique method with a promax rotation. These factors were labelled Extrinsic Job Satisfaction (11 items; $\alpha = 0.84$) and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction (8 items; $\alpha = 0.76$) (Rothmann, 2002).

- The *Police Stress Inventory* (PSI) was developed to measure the job stress of participants. The PSI focuses on common work events that often result in psychological strain. Pienaar (2002) subjected the PSI to a factor analysis on a sample of 2500 police members and extracted three factors, namely Job Demands (17 items), Lack of Job Resources (14 items) and Police Stressors (8 items). The alpha coefficients were 0.92 (Job Demands), 0.92 (Lack of Job Resources) and 0.89 (Police Stressors), which indicate highly acceptable internal consistency of the three factors. The questionnaire is divided in two parts with Part A, consisting of 39 stressful job-related events, focusing mainly on the amount of stress. Respondents were asked to rate themselves on a nine-point scale (1 = low to 9 = high). Part B consists of the same 39 stressful job related events as was used in part A, but this time the participants were asked to evaluate the frequency of the stressful event in the last six months on a nine-point scale.
- The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey* (MBI-GS) (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997) was used to measure burnout. The MBI-GS has three sub-scales: Exhaustion (Ex) (five items; e.g. “I feel used up at the end of the workday”), Cynicism (Cy) (five items, e.g. “I have become less enthusiastic about my work”) and Professional Efficacy (PE) (six items, e.g. “In my opinion, I am good at my job”). Together the sub-scales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha coefficients) reported by Maslach et al. (1996) varied from 0.87 to 0.89 for Exhaustion, 0.73 to 0.84 for Cynicism and 0.76 to 0.84 for Professional Efficacy. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0.65 (Exhaustion), 0.60 (Cynicism) and 0.67 (Professional Efficacy) (Maslach et al., 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from “0: (never) to “6” (daily). High scores on Ex and Cy, and low scores on PE are indicative of burnout. Storm (2002) confirmed the 3-factor structure of the MBI-GS in a sample of 2396 SAPS members, but recommended that item 13 should be dropped from the questionnaire. They confirmed the structural equivalence of the

MBI-GS for different race groups in the SAPS. The following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: Exhaustion: 0.88; Cynicism: 0.79; Professional Efficacy: 0.78 (Storm, 2002).

- The *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 1996) was used to measure the levels of engagement of the participants. The UWES includes three dimensions, namely, vigour, dedication and absorption (conceptually seen as the opposite of burnout) and is scored on a seven-point frequency rating scale. It ranges from '0' = never to '6' every day and include questions like "I am bursting with energy every day in my work"; "Time flies when I am at work" and "My job inspires me". The alpha coefficients for the three sub-scales varied between 0.68 and 0.91. The alpha coefficient could be improved by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scales' internal consistency. Storm (2002) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the UWES in a sample of 2396 members of the SAPS: Vigour: 0.78; Dedication: 0.89; Absorption: 0.78.

Procedure

The study, which formed part of a larger project on attitudes towards community policing in the North West Province, was initiated during October 2000 after discussions with the Strategic Management Services of the SAPS in Pretoria. During 2001, the project was planned and funding for the project was obtained from the National Research Foundation. During January 2002 the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education and the University of North West (UNW) implemented the project. The project proposal was presented to the Provincial Commissioner of the SAPS in the North West Province as well as the Area Commissioner in the Potchefstroom area to get the support and collaboration of the SAPS. Literature searches were done and interviews as well as focus groups (including police experts) were conducted to develop the measuring instruments.

The English questionnaires were developed and translated into Afrikaans and Tswana by language experts. A process of back-translation was followed to ensure that the meanings of the words in the different languages were the same. Next, they were presented to members of the police and the community to check for face validity and final changes were made to them. The measuring battery of the police was only compiled in English. A total of 12 field workers

(who were able to speak Afrikaans, English and/or Tswana) were used to administer the questionnaires. The researchers, assisted by language experts, trained the field workers prior to the start of fieldwork.

Randomly-selected police stations were informed a month prior to the date of the fieldwork. Fieldwork took place during July 2002. Randomly selected members of the SAPS on duty that day were included in the study, while community members were randomly selected at taxi ranks, in town and via door-to-door sampling in different areas of the town and neighbourhoods. The data were captured on a computer programme and checked for mistakes. Finally the data set was prepared for statistical analysis.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out with the help of the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach alpha coefficients, inter-item correlation coefficients and confirmatory factor analysis were used to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data.

T-tests and one-way analysis of the variance (ANOVA) were used to determine differences between the sub-groups in the sample. The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of differences (d) when t-tests were used (Steyn, 1999):

$$d = \frac{Mean_A - Mean_B}{SD_{MAX}}$$

where

$Mean_A$ = Mean of the first group

$Mean_B$ = Mean of the second group

SD_{MAX} = Highest standard deviation of the two groups

The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of means of more than two groups (Steyn, 1999):

$$d = \frac{Mean_A - Mean_B}{\text{Root MSE}}$$

where

$Mean_A$ = Mean of the first group

$Mean_B$ = Mean of the second group

Root MSE = Root Mean Square Error

A cut-off point of 0.50 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of differences between means. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between the variables. In the case where the distribution of scores was skew, Spearman correlation coefficients were computed. Effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) were computed to assess the practical significance of findings. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

Canonical correlation was used to determine the relationships between the dimensions of burnout, job satisfaction, sense of coherence and stress. The goal of canonical correlation is to analyse the relationship between two sets of variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Canonical correlation is considered a descriptive technique rather than a hypothesis-testing procedure.

RESULTS

Table 1 indicates the frequencies and percentages of the community's responses to how they rated the attributes of and satisfaction with the police officers with which they had contact.

Table 1

Frequencies (and Percentages) of How the Community Rated Police Officers

Items	Very low	Low	Average	High	Very high
Attributes					
Level of competence	24 (11%)	42 (20%)	77 (37%)	39 (19%)	14 (07%)
Helpfulness	28 (13%)	45 (21%)	68 (32%)	37 (17%)	25 (12%)
Interest in situation	32 (15%)	49 (23%)	65 (30%)	34 (16%)	16 (08%)
Courtesy and respectfulness	18 (8%)	47 (22%)	63 (29%)	52 (24%)	20 (09%)
Overall attitude	26 (12%)	39 (18%)	80 (37%)	43 (20%)	11 (06%)
Neatness of appearance	16 (7%)	29 (14%)	68 (32%)	66 (31%)	20 (09%)
Fairness	24 (11%)	33 (16%)	70 (33%)	50 (24%)	19 (09%)
Level of trust	33 (15%)	42 (20%)	65 (30%)	32 (15%)	22 (10%)
Satisfaction					
Satisfaction with service provided	43 (20%)	50 (24%)	66 (31%)	39 (18%)	13 (06%)
Satisfaction with responding officer	40 (19%)	37 (18%)	70 (34%)	49 (24%)	10 (05%)

Table 1 shows that the three attributes the community found least satisfying; with regard to the police officers they had contact with, were their interest in the situation, their level of trust and the level of competence the police officers revealed. The three attributes the community were satisfied to very satisfied with were the officers' neatness of appearance, their courtesy and respectfulness and the fairness with which they handled situations. The community rated the police officers' helpfulness and their overall attitude as average. Almost 44% of community members are not satisfied with the service of the SAPS, while 37% is not satisfied with the responding officer. A few options were included in the questionnaire given to the community, to state the reason for any dissatisfaction with the way in which the police officer responded. The three most popular reasons were slow response time, officers seemed not to care and no arrest was made.

The community's confidence in the SAPS was determined in a separate section in the questionnaire. It is evident from the statistical analysis that the majority of the respondents (87%) reported that if a crime were committed against them, they would go to the police first, therefore stating their confidence in the SAPS. The response to the question: "Where do you get most of your information about the police?" showed that the three biggest sources of information are the television, radio and newspapers.

Table 2 shows frequencies and percentages of the overall satisfaction with the SAPS,

neighbourhood concerns and confidence in the SAPS as rated by the community.

Table 2

Frequencies of Overall Satisfaction and Neighbourhood Concerns as Rated by the Community

Item	Frequency	Percentage
The overall satisfaction with the service of the SAPS		
Very poor	66	13%
Poor	116	24%
Average	215	44%
Good	69	14%
Very good	21	4%
Neighbourhood concerns		
How often police officers are seen in neighbourhood		
Generally not seen	151	30%
1-3 Times per week	151	30%
4-10 Times per week	78	16%
More than 10 times per week	119	24%
Safety and security of neighbourhood		
Very unsafe	62	12%
Unsafe	106	21%
Fairly safe	234	47%
Safe	86	17%
Very safe	11	2%
Neighbourhood is more safe, about as safe or less safe than other neighbourhoods		
Less safe	141	39%
About as safe	258	53%
More safe	91	19%

Table 2 indicates that 44% of the respondents rated their overall satisfaction with the SAPS as average and 24% felt that the overall service of the SAPS was poor. Regarding neighbourhood concerns, 30% of the respondents felt that the police are generally not seen, or seen 1-3 times per week in their neighbourhoods. Where 47% of the respondent reported that their neighbourhood was fairly safe, 53% reported that their neighbourhood was about as safe as other neighbourhoods.

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics, inter-item correlation coefficients and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the PAS that was completed by the community.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics, Inter-item Correlation Coefficients and Alpha Coefficients of the Public Attitude Survey Dimensions for the Community (n = 324)

Measuring instrument	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item r	α
PAS (At present):						
Give advice	13.46	4.98	0.53	-0.26	0.53	0.87
Investigation	30.89	9.06	0.06	-0.26	0.46	0.90
Station duties	17.47	5.12	-0.20	-0.26	0.37	0.78
Crime prevention	9.39	3.89	0.44	-0.61	0.38	0.71
Assistance	7.15	2.84	0.40	-0.36	0.55	0.78
Family issues	14.56	4.40	-0.08	-0.38	0.39	0.76
Security	9.39	3.00	-0.18	-0.43	0.31	0.59
PAS (Preferred):						
Give advice	27.60	3.47	-2.44	8.92	0.62	0.90
Investigation	51.54	5.26	-5.53	10.79	0.51	0.91
Station duties	27.13	6.67	-1.58	3.42	0.41	0.81
Crime prevention	18.26	2.55	-1.78	3.86	0.53	0.81
Assistance	13.46	2.25	-1.65	2.54	0.62	0.83
Family issues	22.97	2.89	-1.88	5.33	0.36	0.74
Security	13.26	2.25	-1.30	1.22	0.40	0.68

Table 3 shows that the Cronbach alpha coefficients for most of the scales were acceptable ($\alpha \geq 0.70$, Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Some of the inter-item correlations were somewhat higher than the guideline of 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995), namely Giving advice (at present) and Assistance (at present); and for preferred priorities, Giving advice, Investigating, Crime prevention and Assistance. All the scores on the PAS for the present priorities are relatively normally distributed, with low skewness and kurtosis. On the other hand, all the preferred priorities have relatively high skewness and kurtosis.

It is evident from Table 3 that Investigation and Station duties are the two highest priorities at present and that Investigation and Giving advice are the two highest priorities preferred by the community.

The differences between the present and preferred priorities of the community, based on language are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Differences between the Priorities of the Community based on their Language

	English (n = 94)	Afrikaans (n = 61)	Tswana (n = 169)	p	Root MSE
Item: At Present					
Give advice	13.77	12.70	13.56	0.40	4.98
Investigation	32.78 ^a	29.12 ^a	30.48	0.03	8.99
Station duties	18.38 ^a	16.38 ^a	17.36	0.05	5.09
Crime prevention	10.29 ^a	8.79 ^a	9.12	0.03	3.86
Assistance	7.54	6.79	7.07	0.23	2.84
Family issues	15.35	13.72	14.41	0.06	4.38
Security	9.56	9.16	9.37	0.72	3.01
Item: Preferred					
Give advice	26.32 ^a	27.85	28.21 ^b	0.01	3.38
Investigation	50.18 ^a	51.72	52.22 ^a	0.01	5.20
Station duties	24.50 ^a	27.72 ^c	28.38 ^c	0.01	3.26
Crime prevention	17.21 ^a	18.39	18.80 ^b	0.01	2.46
Assistance	12.34 ^a	13.98 ^b	13.90 ^b	0.01	2.14
Family issues	21.85 ^a	22.92	23.60 ^b	0.01	2.80
Security	11.87 ^a	13.72 ^c	13.88 ^c	0.01	2.07

a Practically significant difference from language (in row) where b (medium effect, $d \geq 0.5$) or c (large effect, $d \geq 0.8$) are indicated

Table 4 indicates that with the use of the ANOVA procedure there are no meaningful differences among the present priorities of English, Afrikaans and Tswana community members. Regarding the preferred priorities, there is a practically significant difference with a medium effect between English and Tswana community members on giving advice, crime prevention, assistance and family issues; and between English and Afrikaans community members on assistance. Station duties and security (preferred priorities) cause a practically significant difference with a large effect between English and Afrikaans, and between English and Tswana community members.

Table 5 shows the frequencies and percentages of how police officers rated their contact with the community.

Table 5

Frequencies and (Percentages) of Police Officers' Contact with the Community (n = 79)

Item	Very low	Low	Average	High	Very high
Trust in community to co-operate with the SAPS	3 (4%)	22 (28%)	37 (47%)	12 (15%)	4 (5%)
Extent to which the SAPS satisfies the needs of the community	4 (5%)	3 (4%)	47 (60%)	9 (11%)	15 (19%)
Overall performance of the SAPS in serving community	0 (0%)	15 (19%)	40 (51%)	19 (24%)	4 (5%)
Reliability of media in reporting crime	6 (8%)	2 (17%)	30 (39%)	21 (27%)	3 (4%)

It is evident from Table 5 that only 5% of the responding police officers have trust in the community to co-operate with them, while 60% felt that the extent to which the SAPS satisfies the needs of the community was average. The police officers rated their performance in serving the community as average, as well as the reliability of the media in reporting crime.

Means and standard deviations (in brackets) for priorities assigned to police activities and the dimensions for the PAS as indicated by the community and police members are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Priority Ratings for the Community and the Police Members

Item	Present			Preferred		
	Police	Community	d	Police	Community	d
Advise businesses	3.26 (1.16)	2.06 (1.14)	1.03**	4.60 (0.74)	4.49 (0.78)	0.14
Advise people	3.04 (1.19)	2.23 (1.22)	0.66*	4.64 (0.74)	4.62 (0.71)	0.03
Organise community meetings	3.06 (1.25)	2.02 (1.16)	0.83**	4.43 (0.69)	4.56 (0.79)	-0.16
Advise schools	3.02 (1.22)	2.64 (1.35)	0.28	4.55 (0.77)	4.72 (0.60)	-0.22
Help victims of crime	2.79 (1.17)	2.43 (1.19)	0.30	4.53 (0.72)	4.59 (0.78)	-0.08
Advise people on home security	2.75 (1.25)	2.07 (1.17)	0.54*	4.64 (0.56)	4.62 (0.72)	0.03
Take statements	3.34 (1.07)	2.89 (1.27)	0.35	4.72 (0.53)	4.64 (0.69)	0.12
Collect information on crimes	3.34 (0.94)	2.65 (1.22)	0.57*	4.68 (0.58)	4.67 (0.66)	0.02
Collect evidence	3.41 (1.03)	2.70 (1.23)	0.58*	4.70 (0.57)	4.65 (0.66)	0.08
Close off and protect crime scenes	3.28 (1.08)	2.67 (1.25)	0.49	4.68 (0.58)	4.65 (0.67)	0.04
Interview suspects and victims	3.68 (0.96)	2.96 (1.20)	0.60*	4.68 (0.51)	4.69 (0.60)	-0.02
Arrest offenders	3.43 (1.05)	3.20 (1.38)	0.17	4.75 (0.48)	4.82 (0.52)	-0.13
Respond to emergencies	3.74 (0.96)	2.41 (1.32)	1.01**	4.79 (0.45)	4.79 (0.58)	0.00

Table 6

Priority Ratings for the Community and the Police Members (continued)

Item	Present			Preferred		
	Police	Community	<i>d</i>	Police	Community	<i>d</i>
Investigate crime	3.40 (1.04)	2.84 (1.17)	0.48	4.70 (0.70)	4.70 (0.61)	0.00
Prepare cases for court	3.30 (0.99)	2.90 (1.17)	0.34	4.70 (0.54)	4.65 (0.67)	0.07
Handle lost and found property	3.45 (0.89)	2.60 (1.26)	0.67*	4.51 (0.64)	4.59 (0.73)	-0.11
Find stolen property	3.07 (1.00)	2.46 (1.25)	0.49	4.57 (0.57)	4.64 (0.71)	-0.10
Transport prisoners	3.75 (0.94)	3.45 (1.22)	0.25	4.34 (1.07)	4.53 (0.84)	-0.18
Check offenders out on bail	2.85 (1.06)	3.09 (1.31)	-0.18	4.11 (1.05)	4.13 (1.28)	-0.02
Give formal warnings to offenders	2.96 (1.14)	2.96 (1.23)	0.00	4.19 (0.88)	4.55 (0.77)	-0.41
Patrol in cars, bicycles, etc.	3.13 (0.98)	2.69 (1.44)	0.31	4.55 (0.77)	4.69 (0.68)	-0.18
Deal with public disturbances	2.85 (1.04)	2.55 (1.28)	0.23	3.92 (1.12)	4.48 (0.83)	-0.50*
Patrol on foot	2.19 (1.09)	1.79 (1.14)	0.35	4.07 (1.09)	4.53 (0.87)	-0.42
Search persons, vehicles of places	2.87(1.04)	2.42 (1.28)	0.35	4.36 (0.79)	4.49 (0.85)	-0.15
Issue and check gun licences	3.09 (1.24)	2.49 (1.33)	0.45	4.19 (1.00)	4.55 (0.83)	-0.36
Control vice	2.19 (0.94)	2.09 (1.18)	0.08	3.98 (1.08)	4.48 (0.95)	-0.46
Control liquor licences	2.75 (1.14)	2.51 (1.33)	0.18	4.09 (1.04)	4.51 (0.92)	-0.40
Issue restraining orders	2.62 (0.96)	2.70 (1.26)	-0.06	4.04 (0.92)	4.46 (0.84)	-0.46
Inform relatives about family deaths	3.34 (0.92)	3.38 (1.32)	-0.03	4.21 (0.82)	4.55 (0.80)	-0.41
Deal with family violence	3.45 (0.93)	2.84 (1.26)	0.48	4.36 (0.79)	4.58 (0.72)	-0.28
Attend to traffic accidents	3.74 (0.98)	3.49 (1.30)	0.19	4.15 (1.01)	4.64 (0.71)	-0.49
Deal with missing person cases	2.96 (1.00)	2.74 (1.24)	0.18	4.24 (0.96)	4.64 (0.70)	-0.42
Work in the community centre	3.17 (1.25)	2.61 (1.31)	0.43	4.41 (0.99)	4.64 (0.73)	-0.23
Protect important people	3.17 (1.27)	3.47 (1.45)	-0.21	4.09 (1.04)	4.27 (1.11)	-0.16
Control crowds at public events	3.11 (1.15)	2.84 (1.38)	0.20	4.13 (1.02)	4.56 (0.81)	-0.42
Take care of prisoners in custody	3.66 (0.92)	3.08 (1.19)	0.49	4.38 (0.86)	4.43 (0.92)	-0.05
Deal with sexual crimes	3.49 (1.03)	2.89 (1.32)	0.45	4.64 (0.62)	4.73 (0.62)	-0.15
Give information re. Investigation	3.06 (1.12)	2.47 (1.25)	0.47	4.45 (0.69)	4.68 (0.62)	-0.33
Give advice	17.92 (5.63)	13.46 (4.98)	0.79*	27.40 (3.49)	27.60 (3.47)	-0.06
Investigate	37.60 (7.58)	30.89 (9.06)	0.74*	50.83 (4.71)	51.54 (5.26)	-0.13
Station duties	19.38 (4.10)	17.47 (5.12)	0.37	26.30 (3.51)	27.13 (3.67)	-0.16
Crime prevention	11.28 (3.25)	9.39 (3.89)	0.49	17.17 (2.93)	18.26 (2.55)	-0.37
Assistance	7.79 (2.45)	7.15 (2.84)	0.23	12.00 (2.75)	13.46 (2.25)	-0.53*
Family issues	15.87 (3.25)	14.56 (4.40)	0.30	21.49 (2.85)	22.97 (2.89)	-0.51*
Security	9.94 (2.25)	9.39 (3.00)	0.18	12.60 (2.18)	13.26 (2.25)	-0.29

* Practically significant item (medium effect): $d \geq 0.50$

** Practically significant item (large effect): $d \geq 0.80$

Table 6 shows that in addition to ranking the level of priority in each of these data sets it is possible to make comparisons between: police and the community; present and preferred data, and thereby to determine possible differences in expectations.

According to Table 6, both the community and police ranked the items Transport prisoners and Attend to traffic accidents as the top two activities for the present data set. Both the police and the community ranked the items Arrest offenders and Respond to emergencies as the top two activities for the preferred data set. Patrol on foot received the lowest priority at present by the community and the police, but they differed on the preferred data set. The item Check offenders out on bail was rated as the lowest priority by the community for the preferred data set and Deal with public disturbances was rated as the lowest priority by the police. With regard to the dimensions at present, Investigation was rated as the highest priority for both the community and the police, and both parties chose Assistance to be the lowest priority at present. Investigation also seems to be the highest preferred priority for the community and the police, while the community rated Security as the lowest priority preferred and the police differed by choosing Assistance.

It is evident from Table 6 that only one item (Deal with public disturbances) and two dimensions (Assistance and Family issues) are practically significant in the preferred data set and all three are seen as quite low priorities.

Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics, inter-item correlation coefficients and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the MSQ, JSS, MBI, UWES and the dimensions of the PAS that was completed by police members.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Coefficients and Inter-item Correlation Coefficients of the Measuring Instruments for Police Members (n = 79)

Measuring instrument	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item r	α
MSQ						
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	28.59	7.78	-0.05	-0.24	0.34	0.84
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	32.99	6.14	-0.47	0.27	0.27	0.76
Total Job Satisfaction	61.56	11.89	-0.17	-0.11	0.24	0.86
PSI						
Job demands	87.05	21.70	-0.70	0.61	0.29	0.87
Lack resources	80.80	23.23	-0.56	0.03	0.43	0.91
Police stressors	44.25	14.11	-0.17	-0.80	0.39	0.84
MBI-GS						
Exhaustion	14.02	7.94	0.04	-0.58	0.62	0.89
Cynicism	10.29	6.35	0.24	-0.38	0.50	0.78
Professional efficacy	25.25	7.62	-0.82	0.86	0.43	0.82
UWES						
Vigor	24.48	7.42	-0.55	-0.08	0.43	0.81
Dedication	20.97	7.16	-0.63	-0.36	0.53	0.85
Absorption	23.79	7.74	-0.35	-0.74	0.41	0.81
PAS (At present):						
Give advice	17.92	5.63	-0.13	-0.55	0.53	0.87
Investigate	37.60	7.58	0.32	-0.50	0.46	0.90
Station duties	19.38	4.10	0.32	-0.10	0.37	0.78
Crime prevention	11.28	3.25	0.14	0.19	0.38	0.71
Assistance	7.79	2.45	0.27	-0.31	0.55	0.78
Family issues	15.87	3.25	-0.40	1.08	0.39	0.76
Security	9.94	2.52	-0.31	0.03	0.31	0.59
PAS (Preferred):						
Give advice	27.40	3.49	-2.81	11.16	0.62	0.90
Investigate	50.83	4.71	-1.12	0.65	0.51	0.91
Station duties	26.30	3.51	-0.74	-0.10	0.41	0.81
Crime prevention	17.17	2.93	-1.53	4.27	0.53	0.81
Assistance	12.00	2.75	-0.87	0.51	0.62	0.83
Family issues	21.49	2.85	-0.46	-0.32	0.36	0.74
Security	12.60	2.18	-0.70	0.04	0.40	0.68

Table 7 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for most of the scales (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Although the mean internal consistencies of most of the scales are acceptable ($0.15 \leq r \leq 0.50$, Clark & Watson, 1995), there are a few exceptions. The internal consistencies of Exhaustion (MBI scale) and Dedication (UWE scale) are

somewhat high.

It is evident from Table 7 that most of the scores on the measuring instruments are relatively normally distributed with low skewness and kurtosis. The exceptions are Giving advice, Investigate and Crime prevention (as preferred priorities on the PAS), which show relatively high skewness and kurtosis.

The product-moment correlation coefficients between the MSQ, JSS, MBI and the UWES are reported in Table 8. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed as there were no skewed distribution scores.

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients between the MSQ, PSI, MBI-GS and the UWES

	Intr.	Tot Sat	Job Dem	Lack R	Pol Str	Exh.	Cyn.	Prof Eff	Vig.	Ded.
Extrinsic	0.45 ⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Job Demands	-0.20	-0.37 ⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lack Resources	0.01	-0.30 ⁺	0.73 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Police Stressors	-0.01	-0.25 ⁺	0.58 ⁺⁺	0.54 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-
Exhaustion	-0.22 ⁺	-0.34 ⁺	0.41 ⁺	0.24 ⁺	0.37 ⁺	-	-	-	-	-
Cynicism	-0.31 ⁺	-0.13	0.21	0.13	0.29 ⁺	0.59 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-
Professional Efficacy	0.20	-0.12	0.09	0.21	0.28 ⁺	0.10	0.12	-	-	-
Vigor	0.33 ⁺	0.31 ⁺	-0.24 ⁺	-0.20	-0.28 ⁺	-0.45 ⁺⁺	-0.49 ⁺⁺	0.12	-	-
Dedication	0.27 ⁺	0.25 ⁺	-0.19	-0.13	-0.30 ⁺⁺	-0.42 ⁺⁺	-0.63 ⁺⁺	0.09	0.85 ⁺⁺	-
Absorption	0.20	0.26 ⁺	-0.04	-0.04	-0.14	-0.31 ⁺⁺	-0.43 ⁺⁺	-0.05	0.72 ⁺⁺	0.81 ⁺⁺

* Statistically significant correlation: $p \leq 0.05$

+ Practically significant correlation (medium effect): $r \geq 0.30$

++ Practically significant correlation (large effect): $r \geq 0.50$

Table 8 shows statistically significant correlation coefficients between job satisfaction (MSQ) and job stressors as well as work engagement. In correlating job satisfaction and police stressors it can be stated that practically significant correlations exist between extrinsic job

satisfaction, and job demands and lack of resources, as well as between total satisfaction and job demands. There are quite a few factors that correlate between job satisfaction and burnout and job satisfaction and work engagement. The most practically significant correlations are between burnout and work engagement where exhaustion and cynicism correlate with vigour, dedication and absorption.

Canonical correlations were performed between a set of job satisfaction and burnout, stressors and work engagement as well as stressors and burnout using SAS CANCORR. Shown in Tables 9, 10 and 11 are correlations between the variables and canonical variates, standardised canonical variate coefficients, within-set variance accounted for by the canonical variates (percent of variance), redundancies and canonical correlations. The results of the canonical analysis of job satisfaction and burnout are shown in Table 9. The relationships between stressors and work engagement are shown in Table 10, while the results of stressors and burnout are shown in Table 11.

Table 9

Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Satisfaction and Burnout

	First Canonical Variate		Second Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient	Correlation	Coefficient
Burnout set				
Exhaustion	0.15	0.61	-0.99	-0.92
Cynicism	-0.44	-0.89	-0.67	-0.14
Professional Efficacy	0.69	0.74	0.00	0.11
Percent of variance	0.23		0.47	Total = 0.70
Redundancy	0.05		0.05	
Job satisfaction set				
Extrinsic	-0.39	-0.92	0.92	0.70
Intrinsic	0.61	1.06	0.79	0.44
Percent of variance	0.26		0.74	Total = 1.00
Redundancy	0.06		0.08	
Canonical correlation	0.46		0.34	

Table 9 indicates that the first canonical correlation was 0.46 (21.16% overlapping variance); the second was 0.34 (11.56% overlapping variance). With both canonical correlations included $F(6, 146) = 4.88$, $p < 0.0001$. These two pairs of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total

percentages of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related, while the second pair was somewhat lower related (Steyn, 1999).

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30, the variables in the burnout set that correlated with the first canonical variate were Cynicism and Professional Efficacy. Among the job satisfaction variables, Extrinsic Job Satisfaction and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that low cynicism (-0.44) and professional efficacy (0.69) are associated with intrinsic job satisfaction (0.61) and low extrinsic job satisfaction (-0.39). The variables in the burnout set that correlated with the second canonical variate were Exhaustion and Cynicism. Among the job satisfaction variables, Intrinsic Job Satisfaction and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction correlated with the second canonical variate. The second pair of canonical variates indicates that low levels of exhaustion (-0.99) and cynicism (-0.67) are associated with extrinsic job satisfaction (0.92) and intrinsic job satisfaction (0.79).

Table 10 indicates the results of the canonical analysis between stressors and burnout.

Table 10

Results of the Canonical Analysis: Stressors and Burnout

	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
Stressor set		
Job Demands	0.83	0.55
Lack of Resources	0.61	-0.17
Police Stressors	0.92	0.70
Percent of Variance	0.63	
Redundancy	0.14	
Burnout set		
Exhaustion	0.93	0.84
Cynicism	0.63	0.08
Professional Efficacy	0.45	0.36
Percent of Variance	0.49	
Redundancy	0.11	
Canonical Correlation	0.47	

According to Table 10, the first canonical correlation was 0.47 (23% overlapping variance).

The other two canonical correlations were 0.29 and 0.09. With all three canonical correlations included $F(9, 175.38) = 3.04, p < 0.0021$. Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant ($p < 0.0021$). The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30, the variables in the stressor set that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Job Demands, Lack of Resources and Police Stressors. Among the burnout variables, Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that job demands (0.83), lack of resources (0.61) and police stressors (0.92) are associated with exhaustion (0.93), cynicism (0.63) and professional efficacy (0.45).

The results of the canonical analysis regarding job stress and work engagement are reported in Table 11.

Table 11

Results of the Canonical Analysis: Stressors and Work Engagement

	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
Stressor set		
Job Demands	0.82	0.58
Lack of Resources	0.57	-0.24
Police Stressors	0.92	0.72
Percent of Variance	0.61	
Redundancy	0.09	
Work Engagement set		
Vigor	-0.78	-0.50
Dedication	-0.78	-1.17
Absorption	-0.31	1.00
Percent of Variance	0.44	
Redundancy	0.07	
Canonical correlation	0.38	

Table 11 shows that the first canonical correlation was 0.38 (14% overlapping variance). The other two canonical correlations were 0.19 and 0.07. With all three canonical correlations

included $F(9, 175.38) = 1.63, p < 0.01$. Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant ($p < 0.11$). The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total percentages of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30, the variables in the stressor set that correlated with the first canonical variate were Job Demands, Lack of Resources and Police Stressors. Among the work engagement variables, Vigour, Dedication and Absorption correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that job demands (0.82), lack of resources (0.57) and police stressors (0.92) are associated with low vigour (-0.78), low dedication (-0.78) and low absorption (-0.31).

DISCUSSION

Policing is and remains one of the most important mechanisms of social control. Although a meaningful balance will have to be found in a new South Africa, the fact remains that no state can exist without an instrument for maintaining order. Mullik (1969, p. 39) states, for example: "So there can be no state without police power and a state can last only as long as it can continue to exercise its police power efficiently."

The questionnaires for this research study were designed to enable the collection of data about what the community expects from the SAPS versus their satisfaction with the SAPS, and to determine what the SAPS believe the community expects of them and the degree to which they perceive their services as satisfactory. The discrepancies between the above-mentioned issues were determined as well as the factors that influence the way police officers feel about their jobs, for these factors also have a significant impact on the SAPS' service delivery.

To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions of the recipients of police services, namely the community (Cao, Stack & Sun, 1998). The individual activities or priorities of the SAPS as expected by the community and the SAPS were divided into seven dimensions, namely give advice; investigation; station duties; crime prevention; assistance; family issues; and security.

Analysis of both individual and dimensional priorities indicated that the community sees and wants the investigation of crime to be the highest priority for the police. On the other hand, they rank assistance, security and crime prevention as the three lowest priorities at present and as preferred. A study conducted by Beck et al. (1999) in Australia supported this number one priority, namely investigation, but their lowest priority was station duties, that is the priority rated the second highest by the community at present, and the third highest as preferred for this study.

A comparison of the ordering of priorities indicates that the community expects police to rearrange these so that giving advice is regarded as of higher importance than station duties. Furthermore, it is quite strange for station duties (more specifically, arresting offenders and responding to emergencies) to be such an important priority, at present and preferred. One can speculate that the community rates crime prevention, security and assistance as low priorities because police officers do not have the time to get to those priorities, as they are occupied with station duties and investigations all the time. Overall, the public expects the police to place a higher priority than at present on all of the activities of police officers (Beck et al., 1999). According to the findings of the high negative skewness of giving advice, investigating crime, and crime prevention as preferred priorities of the community; another speculation can be that the community's expectations (of the priorities they rated as most important) of the police are unrealistically high.

According to Murty et al. (1990), positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively. In contrast, negative attitudes towards the police result in inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Seeing that the community's expectations of the police are too high, and the police also expect their preferred priorities to be higher than it is at present, one can stipulate that both the community and police members themselves might form negative attitudes towards the SAPS. These negative attitudes can surely have an influence on the effectiveness of the service delivered by the SAPS.

The literature shows that the community is divided over satisfaction with the police by such independent and contextual variables as geographic location, race, gender, age, social class, respect for the law, encounters with police members and criminal versus non-criminal background (Worrall, 1999). The results mentioned above indicate that there are differences between community members based on their language as they rated the priorities of the

SAPS. Although no meaningful differences occurred between the present priorities of English, Afrikaans and Tswana community members, the preferred priorities showed a practically significant difference between English and Tswana community members on giving advice, crime prevention, assistance and family issues; and between English and Afrikaans community members on assistance. Station duties and security (preferred priorities) caused a practically significant difference with a large effect between English and Afrikaans, and between English and Tswana community members. It seems that the discrepancy lies between the English and Tswana community members in most of the preferred priorities and be caused by a variety of factors. Survey research in the United States of America (Weitzer & Tuch, 1999) has shown that language (race) is one of the strongest predictors of attitudes towards the police. It was found that Blacks are more inclined than Whites to express unfavourable views about policing. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), it is important to point out that any group of people (the community in this sense) is not homogeneous. Levels of, and influences on satisfaction with the SAPS will vary across different language and cultural groups and this is clearly true for the community in the Potchefstroom area.

An average of 212 out of 505 community members who participated in this research had contact with the SAPS in the last 12 months. The majority of these community members ($n = 212$) reported that they were dissatisfied with the service provided by the SAPS, and with the responding police officer. Although only 19% of the total group of participants ($n = 505$) rated their overall satisfaction with the service of the SAPS as good; 44% as average; and 37% as poor, 87% still have confidence in the SAPS. This leads to another discrepancy between the unrealistically high expectations of the community with the SAPS as opposed to their dissatisfaction with the service provided by the SAPS.

Consistent with the results of Beck et al. (1999), the police agree with the community that the investigation of crime is their most important role (at present and preferred), and that a higher priority is assigned at present to giving advice by the police compared to the community, while station duties kept the same priority at present. The police also rank investigation, giving of advice and station duties (similar to the community) as the three highest preferred priorities expected of them. It should be noted that there is a high degree of consensus in the ordering of priorities, which indicates that police officers' perceptions of the expectations of the community, is quite accurate.

However, considerable disagreement exists between the police and community with regard to the absolute level of priority at the role or function and activity level. Unlike the community, the police believe that a lower priority could be given to some of their activities and roles (i.e. assistance and security) at the same time as increasing the priority of others (i.e. crime prevention) (Beck et al., 1999).

Positive images of and confidence in the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Hero & Durand, 1985; Murty et al., 1990). The police also have to know what their perception of the community's satisfaction with their service is, and whether they can trust the community to co-operate with them. The police members who participated in this study indicated that 60% of them could be considered to satisfy the needs of the community on an average level. Since they rated their overall performance and their trust in the community as average, it is not surprising to find that it reflects the total group of community members' level of satisfaction. Fosam and Grimsley (1998) are of the opinion that especially in the police force contented customers appear to breed contented employees. Taking into consideration the negative attitudes that exist towards the SAPS, and combining it with the average level of satisfaction on behalf of both parties (community and police members), it can be expected that the SAPS will maintain an average level of service delivery.

Greene (1989), and Yates and Pillai (1992, 1993) suggest that how police officers feel about their jobs can greatly affect their relations with the community and the quality of law enforcement service they provide. This gave the researcher reason to investigate the obstacles that influence the quality of service delivery of the SAPS. Factors that can influence the SAPS' service delivery include job satisfaction, police stress, burnout and work engagement. The relationships among these factors have been studied to establish the way in which these factors influence the service of the SAPS.

Harter (2001) states that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement, which supports the following results. According to the correlation coefficients, vigor correlates positively with extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. For example, an increase in vigor may cause total job satisfaction, and satisfied police officers show more vigor towards their jobs. Furthermore, it is evident that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and stressors. The correlation coefficients show that there is a negative correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction on the one hand and job demands and lack of

resources on the other hand. Another factor that correlates with job satisfaction is burnout. There is a negative correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction and exhaustion, and intrinsic job satisfaction and cynicism. The canonical analysis supports this relationship between job satisfaction and burnout with two pairs of variates correlated with job satisfaction. It indicates that low cynicism and professional efficacy are associated with intrinsic job satisfaction and low extrinsic job satisfaction, while low exhaustion and low cynicism are associated with extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction.

According to Nel and Burgers (1998), prolonged stress leads to burnout. This statement is supported by the fact that both job demands and police stressors have a practically significant positive correlation with exhaustion. In other words, a police officer's level of exhaustion will increase when an increase in job demands or police stressors occurs. The canonical analysis is supportive of this relationship in the sense that job demands, lack of resources, and police stressors are associated with exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy (burnout).

The correlation coefficients between stressors and work engagement indicated that a negative, practically significant correlation exists between police stressors and dedication. The canonical analysis of stressors and work engagement showed that job demands, lack of resources and police stressors are associated with low vigour, low dedication and low absorption.

According to the above-mentioned discussion, the following significant relationships exist between the obstacles that influence the quality of service delivery of the SAPS. Job satisfaction can be associated with work engagement, stressors, and burnout; and stressors can be associated with burnout and work engagement. Bearing in mind that burnout and work engagement can be considered as the antithesis of each other, it may be the reason for the vague relationship that exists between these two concepts. All the above-mentioned obstacles and their relationships as indicated, will have an influence on the quality of service delivery by the SAPS.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Research should be extended towards the other provinces in South Africa, seeing that the

North West is not the only Province that has shortcomings regarding the expectations of and satisfaction with community policing. This study concentrated on the relationships between job satisfaction, stressors that police officers experience, burnout and work engagement. Further research should be done, more specifically, on the degree to which police officers are experiencing job dissatisfaction, stress, suffering from burnout, and their level of work engagement. Overall, more quantitative research should be published on community policing within an adequate theoretical framework.

The SAPS should dramatically increase their resources and even expand their workforce, to enable police officers to spend less time on station duties and more time on fighting crime. Once the incidence of crime and violence decreases, it will have a positive influence on political stumbling blocks, social disorganisation and it will enrich the quality of life of South Africans.

According to Resig and Giacomazzi (1998), community policing is seen as a new approach to policing and although community policing forums (CPF's) have been established in a lot of areas, the majority of community members does not have knowledge about it or are not interested in being part of CPFs, for they believe it is politically orientated. The community policing officers should clearly illustrate the orientation and goals of community policing to the sector leaders of the different neighbourhoods. At the moment, there is approximately one community policing officer per station that has to keep in regular contact with the sector leaders of several neighbourhoods. Seeing that it cannot be expected of one community policing officer to inform and interact with the representatives of several neighbourhoods and take responsibility for all their problems, more community policing officers should be appointed. Only then will community policing be successful.

Moore and Stephens (1991) argue that trying to fight crime without first developing relationships with the community are fruitless. Despite the fact that the investigation of crime is clearly important to the community, the community expect the police to provide a range of other services. Therefore, the police need to balance their commitment to the community across the complete set of functions and activities they undertake. To support this commitment, some police organisations may need to modify their structure and reward systems to encourage operational officers to be more involved in the non-crime related activities that the public see as high priority (e.g. family issues). This would result in better

police ties with the community, a better understanding within the community of the police role, and more realistic expectations on both sides of the outcomes of community policing.

As part of CPF activities, frequent contact sessions between the sector representatives and community policing officers should be established, where police roles are discussed, as well as the priorities assigned to them. The results of this study, i.e. the high expectations of, and the average satisfaction with the SAPS, can be used as motivation for increasing these contact sessions. By clarifying police activities and their priorities, the SAPS will have a clearer understanding of what is expected of them and depending on their quality of service delivery, it should result in higher levels of satisfaction on behalf of the community and the police members. The ambiguity of the term satisfaction will be lessened when it is dealt with in a more directive way instead of using questionnaires. Increasing the frequency and quality of contact sessions might increase public appreciation of police work that will reduce police members' frustration levels and their negative attitudes towards community policing.

Re-evaluating the following factors and altering it where possible should increase police members' intrinsic, extrinsic, and total job satisfaction: adequate fairness and responsibility, stimulation through variety, recognition, working conditions, supervisory competencies, performance evaluation, salaries, and other motivational factors. When the problematic factors are altered, it will decrease the amount and intensity of stress experienced by police members and will eventually decrease the incidence of burnout, while increasing work engagement.

Some limitations of this research can be that the sample used for the study represented members of the community and police officers in the Potchefstroom area only and as such has resulted in the limited use of the results of the research, as the results generated cannot be generalised to the total population. The sample for police members was too small and the sample for community members was also relatively small. When comparing the samples of the community with those of the SAPS, it is evident that the ratio does not reflect the ratio of the real population.

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CHAPTER 3

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 3 contains conclusions reached that are based on the findings of the literature review and results of the cross-sectional design study. In addition, limitations of this research are discussed. Furthermore, recommendations are made for both the SAPS and the community who participated in the study. Finally, recommendations are made in terms of related, future research.

3.1 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions, which have been reached in terms of the findings for both the literature review and the cross-sectional design study, in relation to the specific objectives set in Chapter 1, are presented in the sections that follow.

To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions of the recipients of police services, namely the community (Cao, Stack & Sun, 1998). The individual activities or priorities of the SAPS as expected by the community and the SAPS were divided into seven dimensions, namely: give advice; investigation; station duties; crime prevention; assistance; family issues; and security. Analysis of both individual and dimensional priorities indicated that the community sees and wants the investigation of crime to be the highest priority for the police. On the other hand, they rank assistance, security and crime prevention as the three lowest priorities at present and as preferred. A study conducted by Beck et al. (1999) in Australia supported this number one priority, namely investigation, but their lowest priority was station duties, that is the priority rated the second highest by the community at present, and the third highest as preferred, for this study.

A comparison of the ordering of priorities indicates that the community expects the police to rearrange these so that giving advice are placed of higher importance than station duties. Furthermore, it is quite strange for station duties (more specifically, arresting offenders and responding to emergencies) to be such an important priority, at present and preferred. One

can speculate that the community rates crime prevention, security and assistance as low priorities, because police officers do not have the time to get to those priorities, for they are occupied with station duties and investigations all the time. Overall, the public expects the police to place a higher priority than at present on all of the activities of police officers (Beck et al., 1999). According to the findings of the high negative skewness of giving advice, investigating crime, and crime prevention as preferred priorities of the community; another speculation can be that the community's expectations (of the priorities they rated as most important) of the police are unrealistically high.

According to Murty et al. (1990), positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively. In contrast, negative attitudes towards the police result in inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Seeing that the community's expectations of the police is too high, one can stipulate that negative attitudes towards the SAPS might be formed by the community that might have an influence on the attitudes that police members have towards the SAPS. These negative attitudes can surely have an influence on the effectiveness of the service delivered by the SAPS.

An average of 212 out of 505 community members who participated in this research had contact with the SAPS in the last 12 months. The majority of these community members ($n = 212$) reported that they were dissatisfied with the service provided by the SAPS, and with the responding police officer. Although only 19% of the total group of participants ($n = 505$) rated their overall satisfaction with the service of the SAPS as good; 44% as average; and 37% as poor, 87% still have confidence in the SAPS. This led to another discrepancy between the unrealistically high expectations of the community with the SAPS as opposed to their dissatisfaction with the service provided by the SAPS.

The literature shows that the community is divided over satisfaction with the police by such independent and contextual variables as geographic location, race, gender, age, social class, respect for the law, encounters with police members and criminal versus non-criminal background (Worrall, 1999). The results mentioned above indicate that there are differences between community members based on their language as they rated the priorities of the SAPS. Although no meaningful differences between the present priorities of English, Afrikaans and Tswana community members occurred, the preferred priorities showed a practically significant difference between English and Tswana community members on

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Consistent with the results of Beck et al. (1999), the police agree with the community that the investigation of crime is their most important role (at present and preferred), and that a higher priority is assigned at present to giving advice by the police compared to the community, while station duties kept the same priority at present. The police also rank investigation, give advice and station duties, similar to the community, as the three highest preferred priorities expected of them. It should be noted that there is a high degree of consensus in the ordering of priorities, which indicates that police officers' perceptions of the expectations of the community, is quite accurate.

However, considerable disagreement exists between the police and community with regard to the absolute level of priority at the role or function and activity level. Unlike the community, the police believe that a lower priority could be given to some of their activities and roles (i.e. assistance and security) at the same time as increasing the priority of others (i.e. crime prevention) (Beck et al., 1999).

Positive images of and confidence in the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Hero & Durand, 1985; Murty et al., 1990). The police also have to know what their perception of the community's satisfaction with their service is, and whether they can trust the community to co-operate with them. The police members who participated in this study indicated that 60% of them satisfies the needs of the community on an average level.

Since they rated their overall performance and their trust in the community as average, it is not surprising that the total group of community members' response reflects the same level of satisfaction. Fosam and Grimsley (1998) are of the opinion that especially in the police force contented customers appear to breed contented employees. Taking into consideration the negative attitudes that exist towards the SAPS, and combining these with the average level of satisfaction on behalf of both parties (community and police members), it can be expected that the SAPS will maintain an average level of service delivery.

Greene (1989) and Yates and Pillai (1992, 1993) suggest that how police officers feel about their jobs can greatly affect their relations with the community and the quality of law enforcement service they provide. This gave the researcher reason to investigate the obstacles that influence the quality of service delivery of the SAPS. Factors that can influence the SAPS' service delivery are job satisfaction, police stress, burnout and work engagement. The relationships between these factors have been studied to establish the way in which these factors influence the service of the SAPS.

Harter (2001) states that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement, which supports the following results. According to the correlation coefficients, vigour correlates positively with extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. For example, an increase in vigour may cause total job satisfaction and satisfied police officers show more vigour towards their jobs. Furthermore, it is evident that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and stressors and job satisfaction and burnout. The correlation coefficients show that there is a practically significant, negative correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction on the one hand and job demands and lack of resources on the other hand. Another factor that correlates with job satisfaction is burnout. There is a negative, practically significant correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction and exhaustion and intrinsic job satisfaction and cynicism. The canonical analysis supports this relationship between job satisfaction and burnout with two pairs of variates correlated with job satisfaction. It indicates that low cynicism and professional efficacy are associated with intrinsic job satisfaction and low extrinsic job satisfaction while low exhaustion and low cynicism are associated with extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction.

According to Nel and Burgers (1998), prolonged stress leads to burnout. This statement is supported by the fact that both job demands and police stressors have a practical significant,

positive correlation with exhaustion. In other words, a police officer's level of exhaustion will increase when an increase in job demands or police stressors occur. The canonical analysis is supportive of this relationship in the sense that job demands, lack of resources, and police stressors are associated with exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy (burnout).

The correlation coefficients between stressors and work engagement indicated that a negative, practically significant correlation exists between police stressors and dedication. The canonical analysis of stressors and work engagement showed that job demands, lack of resources, and police stressors are associated with low vigor, low dedication and low absorption.

According to the above-mentioned discussion, the following significant relationships exist between the obstacles that influence the quality of service delivery of the SAPS. Satisfaction can be associated with work engagement, stressors, and burnout; and stressors can be associated with burnout and work engagement. Bearing in mind that burnout and work engagement can be considered as the antithesis of each other, it may be the reason for the slight relationship that exists between these two concepts. All the above-mentioned obstacles and their relationships as indicated, will have an influence on the quality of service delivery of the SAPS.

3.2 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

The following limitations of this research should be taken into account:

- The sample used for the study represented members of the community and police officers in the Potchefstroom area and as such has resulted in the limited use of the results of the research, as the results generated cannot be generalised to the total population.
- The sample for police members was too small and the sample for community members was relatively small. When comparing the samples of the community with those of the SAPS, it is evident that the ratio does not reflect the ratio of the real population.

3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations pertaining to the SAPS as well as recommendations for related, future research are discussed below.

3.3.1 *Recommendations for the SAPS*

The following recommendations, based on the findings, should be considered and implemented:

- The SAPS should dramatically increase their resources and even expand their workforce, to enable police officers to spend less time on station duties and more time on fighting crime. Once the occurrence of crime and violence decreases, it will have a positive influence on political stumbling blocks, social disorganisation, and it will enrich the quality of life of South Africans.
- According to Reisig and Giacomazzi (1998), community policing is seen as a new approach to policing and although community policing forums (CPFs) have been established in a lot of areas, the majority of community members does not have knowledge about it or are not interested in being part of CPFs, for they believe it is politically orientated. The community policing officers should clearly illustrate the orientation and goals of community policing to the sector leaders of the different neighbourhoods. At the moment, there is approximately one community policing officer per station that has to keep in regular contact with the sector leaders of several neighbourhoods. Seeing that it cannot be expected of one community policing officer to inform and interact with the representatives of several neighbourhoods and take responsibility for all their problems, more community policing officers should be appointed. Only then will community policing be successful.
- Despite the fact that the investigation of crime is clearly important to the community, the community expect the police to provide a range of other services. Therefore, the police need to balance their commitment to the community across the complete set of functions and activities they undertake. To support this commitment, some police organisations

may need to modify their structure and reward systems to encourage operational officers to be more involved in the non-crime related activities that the public see as high priority (e.g. family issues). This would result in better police ties with the community, a better understanding within the community of the police role, and more realistic expectations on both sides of the outcomes of community policing.

- As part of CPF activities, frequent contact sessions between the sector representatives and community policing officers should be established, where police roles are discussed, as well as the priorities assigned to them. The results of this study, i.e. the high expectations of, and the average satisfaction with the SAPS, can be used as motivation for increasing these contact sessions. By clarifying police activities and their priorities, the SAPS will have a clearer understanding of what is expected of them and depending on their quality of service delivery accordingly, it should result in higher levels of satisfaction on behalf of the community and the police members. The ambiguity of the term satisfaction will be lessened when it is dealt with in a more directive way instead of using questionnaires. Increasing the frequency and quality of contact sessions, might increase public appreciation of police work that will reduce police members' frustration levels and their negative attitudes towards community policing.
- Re-evaluating the following factors and altering them where possible should increase police members' intrinsic, extrinsic, and total job satisfaction: adequate fairness and responsibility, stimulation through variety, recognition, working conditions, supervisory competencies, performance evaluation, salaries, and other motivational factors. When the problematic factors are altered, it will decrease the amount and intensity of stress experienced by police members and will eventually decrease the occurrence of burnout, whilst increasing work engagement.

3.3.2 Recommendations for future research

The following recommendations for further research have been made on the basis of the research findings:

- Future research should be extended beyond the boundaries of the North West Province towards other provinces in South Africa.
- This study concentrated on the relationships between job satisfaction, stressors that police officers experience, burnout, and work engagement. Further research should be done, more specifically, on the degree to which police officers are experiencing job dissatisfaction, stress, suffering from burnout, and their level of work engagement.
- Overall, more quantitative research should be published on community policing within an adequate theoretical framework.

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