

A Public Participation Strategy for Community Policing Forums: The case of Tlokwe Local Municipality

Mr TJ Morebodi
20930410

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree *Magister Artium* in Public Management and
Governance at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West
University

Supervisor: Prof Gerrit van der Waldt

April 2015

ABSTRACT

In any democratic dispensation public participation is a wide spread concern and highly topical to guide a discourse on openness, transparency, and inclusiveness in government. The importance and contribution of public participation to a healthy and developing democracy should not be underestimated. There are various forms of public participation that are known in the literature. They range from general consultation, submission of comments to public institutions, to direct negotiations and interaction.

In the South African Police Service, the notion and principles of public participation are embedded in a modern community policing approach. This approach was adopted by the South African Government post-1994. The concept Community Policing is generally about making policing more community-centred through the active engagement of community members in the affairs of the police. Community policing is multidimensional in addressing social problems such as crime and poverty. It also involves community empowerment to guide the community in addressing their own challenges.

To give operational impetus to a community policing approach, Community Policing Forums (CPF's) have been established as a mechanism to foster public participation in general and active community engagement in policing matters in particular. The roles of CPF's are entrenched in national legislation and a comprehensive regulatory framework further guide the functioning of these structures.

The functioning of these CPF's is, however, not without challenges. By following a qualitative case study design, this study investigated the particular challenges associated with public participation in the CPF's of the Tlokwe Local Municipality (TLM). The study has been conducted in the three police stations of TLM, namely Potchefstroom, Ikageng and Buffelshoek. The aim of this study was to present the need for the development of a comprehensive strategy to enhance public participation in CPF's in TLM. Such a strategy is suggested as main solution to address the variety of challenges identified.

Key words: Public participation, community policing, Tlokwe Local Municipality, local government, good governance, strategy, democracy.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to convey my deepest gratitude and a sense of appreciation to the following people who contributed enormously to my studies.

God, the Almighty for blessing me with life, good health, guidance and wisdom. John 1:1 says “In the beginning God was the word and the word was with God. All things were created by him”. That’s why my mom named me “John”.

My supervisor and mentor, Professor Gerrit van der Waldt, whose excellent advices, guidance, motivation, patience and extra-ordinary support was an inspiration to me. With you by my side, the sky is the limit. God bless you.

My late parents; grand-mother *Emily*, grand-father *Tokonyane* and mother *Neo Maria Morebodi*. Everything I do I, I do it for you. That’s my gratitude for good upbringing.

My family: wife, *Masechaba Annah*, son’s *Tokonyane, TJ* and daughter *Tlhokomelo Emily Morebodi* (the T’s band). Your sacrifices and undivided support did not go unnoticed. Remember what the Late Dr Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela once said in his inauguration speech as the first democratically elected President of South Africa, “I have walked a long walk to freedom. But I discovered that after climbing a great hill, one only finds that there are many more hills to climb. I have taken a moment here to rest, to steal a view of the glorious vistas that surround me, to look back on the distance I have come. But I can rest only for a moment, for with freedom come responsibilities, and I dare not linger, for my long walk is not yet ended”. Take these words as an inspiration for continuous teaching and learning.

Last but not least, all my colleagues, friends, study participants and everyone who played a role, big or small in enabling me to complete my studies. God bless you all and I will never forget your contributions.

DECLARATION

- I know that plagiarism is wrong. Plagiarism is to attempt to pass off the work of another as your own. I am fully aware of the implications this has on the outcome of my research proposal as outlined in the Information Portfolio Booklet 2014 of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus).
- I have ensured that each quote and contribution to this research proposal, drawn from the work of other people, has been correctly referenced in the body as well as in the reference list that appears at the end.
- I declare that this research proposal is my own work and is based on work conducted by me and that it has not been submitted elsewhere for the purpose of obtaining a degree.

Signature : T J Morebodi

Date : 15 April 2015

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	II
DECLARATION.....	III
LIST OF TABLES	X
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 ORIENTATION.....	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	3
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	5
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	5
1.5 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS.....	6
1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	7
1.6.1 Literature review.....	7
1.6.2 Empirical investigation.....	8
1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION	11
1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	12
1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT	12
1.10 CONCLUSION.....	13
CHAPTER 2: PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: A THEORETICAL EXPOSITION	
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	14
2.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.....	15
2.3 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: METATHEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS	17

2.3.1	Participation: theoretical and conceptual clarification	17
2.3.2	Democracy	20
2.4	SYSTEMS THEORY AS A MACRO THEORETICAL MODEL OR FRAMEWORK FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.....	28
2.4.1	Exposition of applicable theories within the systems theory frame	29
2.5	LINKING LOCAL DEMOCRACY AND PUBLIC PARTICIPATION	32
2.6	COMMUNICATION AS INSTRUMENT FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.....	35
2.7	MODES OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.....	38
2.8	PUBLIC PARTICIPATION CATEGORIES, FORMS AND MECHANISMS	41
2.9	POTENTIAL ADVANTAGES AND CHALLENGES OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.....	45
2.10	FACTORS INFLUENCING EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION	49
2.11	TOWARDS STRATEGIES FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.....	54
2.11.1	Defining strategy.....	54
2.12	THE STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS.....	58
2.12.1	Clarity on institutional mandate	59
2.12.2	Environmental analysis.....	60
2.12.3	Formulation of a vision and mission statement.....	62
2.12.4	Strategy formulation	62
2.12.5	Strategy implementation.....	63
2.12.6	Strategy evaluation and control	63

2.13	CONCLUSION	64
CHAPTER 3: A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS		
3.1	INTRODUCTION	65
3.2	COMMUNITY POLICING: CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXUAL CLARIFICATION	66
3.2.1	Conceptualising community policing.....	67
3.2.2	Theorising on community policing	71
3.2.3	Principles of community policing	73
3.2.4	What community policing is not	76
3.2.5	Challenges associated with community policing.....	78
3.2.6	Benefits of community policing	80
3.3	PUBLIC PARTICIPATION FOR THE EFFECTIVE FUNCTIONING OF COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS.....	81
3.3.1	Establishment of community policing forums (CPFs)	83
3.4	TOWARDS A STRATEGY FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS.....	84
3.5	CONCLUSION	87
CHAPTER 4: STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS		
4.1	INTRODUCTION	89
4.2	STATUTORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS.....	90
4.2.1	The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996	90

4.2.2	The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995	92
4.2.3	Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998.....	94
4.2.4	The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000	95
4.2.5	The Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003.....	97
4.3	THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PARTICIPATION....	98
4.3.1	National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), 1996	98
4.3.2	Interim regulations for community policing forums and boards (1997) ..	100
4.3.3	White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997).....	101
4.3.4	White Paper on Safety and Security (1998)	102
4.3.5	White Paper on Local Government (1998)	103
4.3.6	Regulatory guidelines on Ward Committees (2005)	105
4.3.7	Guide Pack on Integrated Development Planning (IDP).....	106
4.3.8	National Instruction on Sector Policing.....	108
4.3.9	National Development Plan (NDP): Vision 2030	109
4.4	CONCLUSION	111
CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL RESEARCH AND FINDINGS ON THE PUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY FOR COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS IN TLOKWE LOCAL MUNICIPALITY		
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	112
5.2	FOCUS OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION.....	112
5.3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	113
5.3.1	Qualitative research design	114
5.3.2	Case study design and units of analysis.....	115

5.3.3	Target population and sampling	116
5.3.4	Data collection	117
5.3.5	Measurement	121
5.4	DATA ANALYSIS	122
5.5	RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS	123
5.5.1	Section A: Interview with station commanders	123
5.5.2	Section B: Interview with CPF members	129
5.5.3	Section C: Interview with Community Police Officials (CPO's) and junior police officials	137
5.5.4	Section D: Interview responses of ordinary community members	145
5.6	CONCLUSION	150
 CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		
6.1	INTRODUCTION	152
6.2	SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS.....	152
6.3	ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	155
6.3.1	The research questions	155
6.3.2	Research objectives	155
6.3.3	Central theoretical statements.....	157
6.4	RECOMMENDATIONS: PRINCIPLES AND ELEMENTS FOR INCLUSION IN A CPF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY	159
6.5	FINAL CONCLUSION	163
 BIBLIOGRAPHY		164

ANNEXURE A: RESEARCH PARTICIPATION CONSENT FORM..... **182**

ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR STATION COMMANDERSI **183**

ANNEXURE C: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR MEMBERS OF CPF **187**

ANNEXURE D: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR CPO AND POLICE OFFICIALS..... **190**

ANNEXURE E: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR ORDINARY CITIZENS..... **18394**

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: External forces.....	61
---------------------------------	----

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: The strategic management process 59

Figure 5.1: Biographical profile of TLM Station commanders 124

Figure 5.2: Biographical profile of CPF members in TLM..... 130

Figure 5.3: Educational qualifications of CPF members 130

Figure 5.4: Gender disparity of CPF members 131

Figure 5.5: Biographical profile of CPO’s and junior police official of TLM 137

Figure 5.6: Police ranks of CPO’s and junior police officials 138

Figure 5.7: Existence of public participation strategy 141

Figure 5.8: Empowerment of CPF members 143

Figure 5.9: Biographical profile of ordinary community members of TLM..... 146

Figure 5.10: Gender disparity of ordinary citizens 146

Figure 5.11: Community members being aware of the CPF existence..... 147

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORIENTATION

It was proposed in view of the contextualisation below, that an in-depth study be done on the design of a Public Participation Strategy (PPS) for Community Policing Forums (CPF's) in effective crime prevention. The study utilised a single case design and Tlokwe Local Municipality (TLM) served as a case study. The Tlokwe Local Municipality area of jurisdiction is situated in the Doctor Kenneth Kaunda (Dr KK) District Municipality of the North-West Province. The purpose of the study therefore was to determine an appropriate strategy for adequate public participation for the CPF's within the South African Police Service (SAPS).

In terms of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), SAPS is a key role-player in the maintenance of safety and security in the country. In this respect SAPS requires adequate public input, through consultation and participation mechanisms, to operationalise its constitutional mandate.

Since democratisation in 1994, the Public Service in South Africa experienced dramatic systemic change and transformation. As such, changes in the roles, responsibilities, and operations of public service institutions were inevitable. SAPS was no exception in this regard. In response to the democratic changes, SAPS transformed itself from a transformational policing paradigm towards a community policing approach (Fox, Van Wyk & Fourie, 1998:169-170). It is important to note that prior to 1994, SAPS was characterised by a lack of credibility, transparency and accountability (SAPS, 2013:21). During that era, it was perceived that SAPS used excessive force and abuses of human rights commonly took place. The ushering of the new democratic dispensation in the SAPS required a fundamental shift in the nature of policing work. In transforming itself, SAPS adopted a new approach which was aimed at fostering positive community-police relations based on mutual trust (SAPS, 2013:22). This new approach is referred to as "community policing" (SAPS Policy Framework for Community Policing, 1997:2). This approach involves the community as a key stakeholder in crime prevention.

Jagwanth (1994:164) insists that the term "community policing" is not susceptible to easy definition. Despite this sentiment, the concept

evolved and according to Trojanowics and Bucqueraux (1994:2) community policing can be regarded as a philosophy and organisational strategy that promote a new partnership between people and the police. In support of this vantage point, Mastrafski et al. (1995:540) add that community policing can be regarded as "... making the police more co-operative with those who are not in the police". Reyneke (1996:12) further adds that community policing as a philosophy guides the management style and operational strategies of SAPS, which emphasises the establishment of community-police partnerships and problem-solving approaches responsive to the needs of the community. All definitions mentioned above share two important elements, namely: partnership and participation. These two elements are innate in nature, for a partnership to be formed there is a need to participate. These definitions further imply that community policing is primarily aimed at promoting partnerships, co-operation and involvement through public participation. Community policing is therefore based on the premise that the police and community must work in a co-ordinated and co-operative fashion to identify, prioritise, and solve contemporary problems related with crime, fear of crime, and physical order.

Section 201 of the interim, 1993 Constitution of South Africa, stipulates that community policing should be regarded as a "policing style" to be adopted by SAPS to attain the safety and security requirements of the inhabitants of South Africa. In adherence to this Constitutional principle, SAPS has structured and institutionalised consultation between the community and itself through the establishment of community policing forums (CPFs). In terms of Section 7, Chapter 19(1)(2) of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, provision has been made for the establishment of community policing forums within local police stations. The SAPS Act further prescribes some of the objects of the Community Policing Forums as:

- Establishing and maintaining a partnership between the community and SAPS; and
- Promoting co-operation between the SAPS and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing (RSA, 1995:18 (1) (a and c)).

The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997, makes provision for "Batho-Pele" (people first) principles. In line with these principles the functions of a CPF in relation to adequate public participation include:

- *partnership*: CPFs should facilitate a co-operative and consultative processes;

- *problem-solving*: CPFs and SAPS have the responsibility of joint identification and analysis of the causes of crime and conflict, and of developing innovative measures to address them; and
- *empowerment*: CPFs should create ownership and a culture of responsibility for crime prevention and develop adequate capacity to address crime (Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997).

Based on the functions of the CPFs as outlined above, it is clear that community policing as an approach recognises the interdependence and shared responsibility of police and the public to make South Africa a safer and more secure place to live in. This approach requires vibrant and active participation by the community.

Priscoli (2004:206) regards public participation as “a means to adapt and to make democracy work better ... (it) is also helping to reinvent our civic cultures”. In other words, for democracy to prevail, the public needs to participate in the affairs of the government institutions, such as the CPF. Hassink (2011:547) emphasises the need for active involvement of the key stakeholders in CPFs within each municipal district to make it successful. This author (Hassink) goes further to explain that public participation is primarily concerned with the general public who needs to be continuously informed, engaged and formally consulted about matters of concern to them. Mishra (2011:1) suggests that in order to ensure adequate public participation, equity becomes a foremost precept. By equity Mishra means that all members of community should have a say in the identification and addressing of their concerns and problems. As such, all citizens, regardless of their race, class, religion, region, personal characteristics or group affiliation need to have equal access to the CPF. In this way, the abiding principle of democracy of inclusiveness and involvement will be attained, leading to adequate public participation.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Crime prevention is one of the priority focus areas of the current government of South Africa. According to the National Commissioner of SAPS, Phiyega (2013), the Government’s vision on community policing, as captured in the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP 2030), and crime prevention strategies place an obligation on SAPS to focus on, *inter alia*, working in partnership with the community.

A challenge that has emerged since the establishment of CPFs is that public participation is characterised by a lack of commitment and willingness on the part of the public to participate in its operations. This situation has caused the key stakeholder, the local community, to drift away. As a result, public participation in CPFs has declined significantly leading to “selective companionship” (Mishra, 2011:2). Bekink (2006:286-287) confirms this trend and proposes that in order to improve public participation, organisations such as CPFs need to develop some crucial capacities and strategies to facilitate and foster participation. These capacities require the institution to:

- become more strategic in their orientation, in other words they should be open and flexible to the new and unforeseen demands;
- maximise integrated capacity, both inside and outside the institution; and
- become much more community-oriented.

In compliance with the SAPS Act (68/1995), all three police stations in TLM have established CPFs. The challenges experienced by the respective CPFs can be summarised as follows:

- All three CPFs have a challenge regarding adequate public participation. Potchefstroom and Buffelshoek CPFs comprise of a white population only, whilst the CPF in Ikageng comprises of a “Black” population only. This is despite the fact that all three places comprises of different racial groups. As a result public participation in the CPF has become selective.
- There is also a lack of youth representatives in the CPF. In terms of Statistics South Africa 2011, the youth are the majority in the society and its participation in public structures is vital.

Based on the above-mentioned challenge it is argued that the police stations within TLM in the North-West province need to design a comprehensive participation strategy to encourage the entire community to actively partake in CPF activities. Peak and Glensor (1996:7) argue that without adequate public participation in the CPFs, the abiding principle of inclusiveness and involvement is unlikely to be achieved in the future. In this way sustainability of CPFs could be severely compromised in the future. Peak and Glensor (1996:7) further assert that a strategy for public participation in community

policing would operationalise the community-based philosophy of SAPS. A public participation strategy that is developed for CPFs, as such, will need to recognise that policing is not something done to people but rather something that is done with people (Department of Police, 2013:23).

In view of the above background, the main problem which has been addressed by this study is based on the following question: What should be included in a comprehensive public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM, by considering the current realities and concerns associated with crime prevention imperatives?

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Against the above contextual orientation and problem statement, the research questions are formulated as follows:

- What do the concepts community policing and public participation entail and what are their guiding theories, principles, models and approaches?
- What are the existing statutory and regulatory requirements for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation, with specific reference to the CPFs?
- What are the perceived challenges facing CPFs in facilitating adequate public participation in TLM?
- What are the principles of participation strategy development and what should the CPF include in a strategy to enhance adequate public participation?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study have been to establish the following:

- Provide a theoretical exposition of the concepts community policing and public participation and their guiding theories, principles, models and approaches.
- Describe the existing statutory and regulatory framework requirements for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation in the CPFs.
- Establish the nature and extent of a strategy for public participation for CPFs in the TLM.

- Suggest recommendations that may propose solutions to TLM police stations by developing a strategy to enhance public participation for CPFs.

1.5 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS

According to Mayhall, Barker and Hunter, (1995:302) “community building is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary problems related to crime, the fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighbourhood decay”. Community policing as a philosophy is predicted on the belief that effective crime prevention requires the SAPS to develop a relationship with the law-abiding citizens in the community, thus allowing all members of the community to have a voice on how policing could be done successfully.

Chapter 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) emphasises equality. The public participation process of the CPF must be transparent to ensure that all the people in South Africa are afforded an equal opportunity to take part in the elaboration and the functioning of the CPF.

Fox, Van Wyk and Fourie (1998:102) regard a strategy for public participation in the changing socio-political environment as indispensable within SAPS. A community policing approach emphasises the need for community involvement and participation. Without the involvement of the community, the SAPS will find it difficult to achieve its constitutional mandate.

The effective mobilisation and empowerment of the public to participate in the CPF will decrease selective companionship and increase a better and adequate public participation. In this way, co-operation between the SAPS and community will ultimately lead to the creation of effective ways to solve the community problems and create a safe and a secure South Africa (Sulaiman, Sulaiman, Othman and D’Silva, 2013: 536).

Active Community Policing Forums will strengthen the aim of the SAPS of dealing with crime and providing a mutual relationship. The mutual relationship will transform to a working relationship, leading to the SAPS being able to achieve their Constitutional obligation or mandate of crime prevention through the assistance of Community Policing Forums. Through active participation by the public, the public can reap the rewards of a safe environment for the whole community.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Auriacombe and Mouton (2007:435) describe research methodology as the “how” dimension of research. This dimension represents the manner in which the researcher gathers, analyses and presents evidence. Through a qualitative research design the study has utilised a literature review and empirical investigation for purposes of operationalising the research objectives. A qualitative design has been chosen to examine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding participation in CPFs. As concurred by Fenley (2005:2) and Webb and Auriacombe (2006:59), the descriptive nature of qualitative research enables a researcher to acquire a cleaner understanding of the interpretation of events and behaviour within the context in which they occur.

1.6.1 Literature review

According to Tlhoalele, Nethozhe and Lutabingwa (2007:56) a literature review can be described as a basis that provides the context for the research problem and the existing knowledge on the subject. Mouton (2005:93) also explains that literature review expands on the results conducted by other researchers, including the identification of other sources of data or previous research findings.

In this study, a literature review will be conducted on a number of international and local sources regarding community policing, with particular reference to public participation. The legislative framework enabling Community Policing Forums in the SAPS, such as SAPS Act 68 of 1995, the Constitutions (1993 and 1996), the White Paper on Transforming of the Public Service (1997), National Crime Prevention Strategy (1996), SAPS, National Instruction 3/2013 on Sector Policing and the Green Paper on Policing (2013) have been consulted to provide a better understanding and impact of the Community Policing Forums in effective crime prevention within the SAPS in Tlokwe Local Municipality. Journals, dissertations, relevant theses and government publications have also been used as other sources of study.

The advantages of a literature review on the study are that it provides the researcher with a broad understanding and knowledge about the past and current developments. A literature review also provides the researcher with different ideas on how to deal with the current problem on hand (Villian & Vogt, 2001:187-188). The disadvantage of a literature review on the other hand is the vast amount of information that is dealt with,

perhaps not all directly related to the study, resulting in the researcher having to discern which data is relevant to the study (Majam & Theron, 2006: 608).

In this study, the literature review has described, summarised and synthesised various legislative frameworks that have an impact on effective crime prevention through Community Policing Forums. The first step of the study has been dissemination of the concept of community policing, with specific focus on the Community Policing Forums and the importance of public participation. Then, the statutory and regulatory guidelines for the functioning of Community Policing Forums have been discussed. Lastly, the strategy for public participation for Community Policing Forums in the SAPS within Tlokwe Local Municipality has been put into perspective. The theoretical framework created has been used as a background for the empirical investigation of the research.

Additional information on the subject has also been acquired from:

- Internet publications
- Academic books
- Journals
- E-mails
- Media statements
- North-West University on-line library.

1.6.2 Empirical investigation

An empirical study can be described as a way of gaining knowledge about certain concepts, by means of a direct interaction with the focus group. In other words, an empirical investigation comprises of a structure depicting how the knowledge will be gained, as well as tools to compile the knowledge. In this way the knowledge obtained can provide answers when the evidence collected is analysed (De Vos, *et al.*, 2011: 268-296).

The research method that has been employed, has pertained to a single case study that has been conducted in the Tlokwe Local Municipality. Leedy and Ormond (2001:149) and Schurink and Auriacombe (2010:437) argue that a case study is an approach that

facilitates the analysis of a phenomenon within its context, by means of a variety of data sources. A case study provides a comprehensive understanding of how participants interact in a specific situation, thus creating meaning and or understanding.

1.6.2.1 Sampling

According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:55) “population refers to a group in the universe which possesses specific characteristics. The universe refers to all subjects who possess the attributes in which the researcher is interested. Green and Browne (2005:45) and Burger and Silima (2006:657) explain that it is costly and impractical to study an entire population and therefore the researcher needs to sample.

As stated previously, the study has been conducted in the Tlokwe Local Municipality. The Tlokwe Local Municipality comprises of the three police stations, namely Ikageng, Potchefstroom and Buffelshoek. The study population consists of police station management, community policing forums executive committees, sector crime forums, community police officials, low ranking police officials and ordinary community members.

In order to achieve the objective of the study, a purposive sampling design has been utilised. According to Burger and Silima (2006: 663), a purposive sampling design allows the researcher to apply his or her own judgement in selecting the sample. In a qualitative research approach, the case study recognises the heterogeneous nature of the population. The choice of purposive sampling has been ideal for this study, based on the previous mentioned aspect of heterogonous nature. According to Burger and Silima (2006:663) the researcher needs to possess a thorough knowledge of the population before a sample can be drawn, in order to overcome the obstacle regarding the utilisation of purposive sampling. This obstacle has been overcome by the researcher as the researcher is a member of SAPS and as such possesses the required adequate knowledge of the population. A total sample size of 55 participants from the mentioned variations in the population has been utilised. The focus on selected variations has served to capture the diversity of the population under investigation, thereby saving costs and personnel, as only the most relevant people have been included in the sample.

1.6.2.2 Instrumentation

Schutte (2006:158) explains that multiple data-collections can be utilised in a single study. The study, therefore, has intended to use semi-structured interviews.

Semi-structured interviews are frequently utilised in qualitative research. The importance of this technique is that it is a versatile method and the researcher is able to give more clarity on the questions asked in the questionnaire (Van der Waldt, 2004:62). In other words, the researcher is in a position to ask the participants open-ended questions in order to learn their beliefs, views and opinions. According to Maree (2012:89) the general aim of the interview is to acquire rich and descriptive information that will enable the researcher to understand the social reality of the participants and saturate data. A semi-structured interview, as such, is neither fully fixed nor free. In other words, it can be viewed as a flexible method.

1.6.2.3 Data analysis

According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:60), once data collection has been completed, an in-depth analysis of the data should be made by means of data filtering, mind-mapping and integration of views of different authors. The process of data analysis is referred to as a "...form of analysis of data that was gathered using qualitative techniques, regardless of the paradigm used to govern the research" (Babbie & Mouton, 2005:491). The importance of data analysis is to aid the researcher in formulating a personal explanation of the phenomenon under study, which can only be determined when the viewpoints of different authors have been analysed and subsequently integrated (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006:60). The integration of a variety of author's viewpoint contributes to a fairly objective analysis of the findings researched.

1.6.2.4 Limitations and parameters of the study

Mouton, Auriacombe and Lutabingwa (2006:579) explain limitations as factors that have restrictions to the research. The nature of the available data and the data required could have posed some limitations for the study since most of the community policing forum's literature is not readily and easily accessible within the SAPS. The limitation eluded could have impacted on the study in a sense that the qualitative research design heavily relies upon the availability of the data required (Schurink, 2010:249).

A sampling strategy to be employed might have also placed limitations, as most of the community policing forum members are volunteers and not readily available. According to Schurink and Auriacombe (2010:441) a purposive sampling involves purposively electing individuals who are expected to provide the required information that may keep the findings of the study from being transferred or generalised to other populations. The purposive sampling selected in this study has not reflected clear assurances that the characteristics of the sample would offer adequate representatives of the same characteristics of the population under investigation. In this regard, the data that has been collected from the sample might have impacted on the reliability and validity elements of the research investigation.

Literacy of some of the community members, including the community policing forum members could have posed limitations. The researcher as an employee of the SAPS may be biased in the design of a study. Since the researcher is based at Potchefstroom police station, which is an accounting station within TLM, suspicion might have arisen with regards to the bona fide intentions of the study. In order to deal with suspicions, prior approval has been sought from the National office.

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Since this qualitative research study has been conducted in the socio-political setting, human beings have been involved. Social research involves the study of human beings and as such the study has been conducted on the day to day activities of everyday life. The research strategy and methods have been explained to the participants. The importance of explaining the research strategy and methods of the study to respondents, in order to ensure that assumptions about the research are understood, cannot be over emphasised (Schurink, 2010:432). Paten (2004:25) stipulates that the respondents have a right to have data collected about or from them kept confidential. In considering the elements of ethical consideration, the following issues have been high on the agenda (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:57):

- Informed consent: During the sampling, respondents have been informed regarding their voluntary participation and detailed clarity of the project has been provided, anonymity and confidentiality regarding the respondent's responses have been maintained throughout the research.

- Potential harm to respondents: In this study, respondents have not been exposed to harmful situations or situation where they could have been compromised.
- Permission from those in authority (SAPS) has been requested through a letter, as required by the SAPS National Instruction 1/2006. Requirements as contemplated in Chapter 3 of the National Instruction 1/2006 have been complied with.

Throughout the research process, important decisions taken during the research process have been adequately documented. The NWU Ethical Clearance procedures have furthermore been followed.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study has intended to contribute to the improved understanding of the role for strategy for public participation in the effective functioning of the CPFs, highlighting the shortcomings experienced with reference to the case study. These shortcomings have provided the basis for specific recommendations pertaining to the development of a public participation strategy for CPFs, in respect of TLM specifically, but also broadly pertaining to CPFs in general.

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The research report will follow the framework as described below.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The chapter provides an overview of the study. It clarifies the locus and focus of the study, highlights the problem statement, explains the research methodology, as well as summarises research questions and objectives.

Chapter 2: Public participation: A theoretical exposition

The chapter provides a theoretical overview of public participation concepts. Guiding theories, principles, models and approaches of the concept are provided. The chapter also establishes theoretical underpinnings for the development for a strategy for public participation.

Chapter 3: Community policing and CPFs in South Africa

The chapter analyses the role of SAPS, its philosophy of community engagement, and explores the establishment of CPFs. The chapter also assesses the statutory and regulatory framework in relation to Community Policing Forums in SAPS.

Chapter 4: Public participation in CPFs: The case of Tlokwe Local Municipality

The chapter explores Tlokwe CPFs as case study and as such provides empirical evidence regarding the status and challenges associated with public participation. Empirical findings pertaining to public participation in relations to the CPFs are provided.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and Recommendations: A comprehensive public participation strategy for CPFs in Tlokwe Local Municipality

The chapter presents the summary, recommendations and conclusion. Solutions on the strategy, which might improve public participation for CPF, are presented. The solutions address the problem statement.

1.10 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter provided orientation and problem statement to the study. In other words, it gave a brief background of what the study is all about, study's importance and how the main problem is going to be addressed. Moreover, research questions, objectives and central theoretical statements were presented. Lastly, the study's chapter layout was formulated and presented.

In the next chapter, a theoretical overview of public participation concepts, guiding principles, theories, models and approaches will be provided. Furthermore, the theoretical underpinnings for the development for a strategy for public participation will be established.

CHAPTER 2

PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: A THEORETICAL EXPOSITION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A public participatory approach to public affairs seems to have been revitalised in recent decades in response to the scientific, policy, societal and political trends in public governance. As such, public participation in governance tends to become an important aspect in democratic societies. Bekker (1996:29), in support to this aspect, asserts that it is manifestly true that public participation in governance tends to become an important aspect in democratic societies.

The ushering of the new political order in South Africa during 1994 also seems to have brought some expectations of ordinary people in governance. In this regard, Masango (2002:52) indicates that the introduction of democratic dispensation has drawn the idea of public participation in public affairs into the spotlight. The subsequent adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (hereafter the Constitution) appears to have created new ways through which elected public representatives are expected to relate with the general public. Section 1 (c) of the Constitution stipulates that one of South African founding value is “to have universal adult suffrage ... and a multi-party system of democratic government, to ensure accountability, responsiveness and openness”.

Local government as a third sphere of government has been introduced by the Constitution to give effect to the constitutional provisions relating to local democracy in municipalities. Local government consists of a system of geographical units, called municipalities. A municipal system refers to defined boundaries, a legal identity, an institutional structure, powers and duties laid down in general, special statutes and a degree of financial and other autonomy. South Africa consists of nine provinces. North-West province as one of the provinces currently has 23 local, and 4 district municipalities. Tlokwe Municipality, as locus of this study, is categorised as a local municipality (SALGA, 2011:1).

In terms of Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, municipalities are required to have effective community participation structures and mechanisms in place. Central to this democratic process in local government is the need to regulate public participation on matters of local governance (Matshe, 2009:1). This is mainly due to the indisputable reality that local government is characterised by a plethora of interests, pressure groups, and political diversity. In this regard Carrim (2001:26) asserts that a defining feature of the new system of local government is the space it has offered to ordinary people to become actively involved in governance. This defining feature means that local policy-makers, administrators, and local communities need to find ways to co-operate in the local public affairs.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical and conceptual framework of public participation, with specific reference to the local government context in which it occurs. Consequently, the significance of public participation, theories and forms of it has firstly been explored. Then categories and mechanisms facilitating public participation have been analysed as well as the benefits and disadvantages associated with it. Lastly, strategies for public participation have been put into perspective.

2.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Many democratic countries, such as South Africa, have come to realise that their greatest asset is their people capital. It is through their active and effective participation that stability and prosperity in society could be fostered. According to Shehu, Dallan and Gjuta (2013:675) public participation is a wide-spread concern for both developed and developing economies around the globe. There seems to be general consensus that participation is crucial for a healthy and vibrant democracy. There is also agreement that participation is an essential part of good governance by fostering transparent, responsive and accountable government.

According to Van Rooyen (2003:1) the democratic system of governance in South Africa has brought about new emphasis on transparency in government activities, greater public accountability, and the notion of respect of human rights. This approach is a complete reversal from the more paternalistic approach under the apartheid regime, where government information and consultation were limited. Public participation as such has been seen as part of enhancing the constitutional democracy in South Africa (Matshe, 2009:11). This statement by Matshe re-affirms assertion of Camay and

Gordon (2004:219) eluded by former South African State president Thabo Mbeki's statement stating:

“The empowerment of the people to participate in the process of good governance, expressed in the concepts of a people centred society and people driven process of transformation, indicates the centrality of the concept of popular and participatory democracy to the democratic movement's understanding of the functioning of a democratic state. It shows that the commitment of this movement to the proclamation in the Freedom Charter that stipulates, ‘The people shall govern’. It is the process of the people becoming their own governors”.

This statement by former President of South Africa explains the importance of democracy and the participation of the citizens in local affairs. Public participation therefore should be seen as part of not only bringing about community involvement, but also by democratising such involvement.

Camay and Gordon (2004:250-251) contribute to the discussion about the significance of public participation in fostering local democracy as follows:

- The community on grassroots level can provide information about trends, conditions or problems to politicians and decision-makers;
- The interests (especially those of the disadvantaged), which are not represented directly by politicians or are under-represented, can be voiced;
- It gives legitimacy to political and policy decisions;
- It strengthens interpersonal relationships, fasten self-confidence and reduces feelings of powerlessness and alienation among community members; and
- Public participation empowers the community and helps them to feel that they can have a positive effect and influence on concrete conditions within their respective communities.

Smith and Vawda (2003:30), in turn, emphasise the significance of participation by focusing on the systematic and sustainable processes that should be put in place by local government to involve people in matters affecting them. Therefore, any analysis of the significance of public participation for nation-building, stability and prosperity should be guided by theoretical underpinnings (Mosana, 2005:27). The next section lays a theoretical foundation for an in-depth analysis of public participation within a municipal context.

2.3 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: METATHEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Concepts can be regarded as the building blocks for the design of theoretical frameworks. As such, comprehensive definitions of key concepts become essential for understanding the theoretical framework. In this regard Van der Waldt (2010:1) alludes that disciplines such as Public Administration and Management are defined and maintained by their theoretical foundations and for a discipline to remain relevant, it should be supported by theories. Van der Waldt (2010:2) further indicates that the concept “theory” originated from the Greek word “*theorie*,” which means “contemplation” or “speculation”. This author then describes theory as a systematic and formalised expression of all previous observation, which is predictive, logical and testable (Van der Waldt, 2010:2).

Severin and Tankard (2001:11) in turn describe theory as the ultimate goal of science. It consists of general statements that summarise people’s understanding of the way the world works. In support of Severin and Tankard, Van der Waldt (2010:2), quoting Fox and Meyer (1995:128), further indicates that a theory can be regarded as an explanation of reality in order to be able to make a prediction. Based on these definitions, one can deduce that theories often assist the scientists to explain something that is difficult to understand by formulating statements or propositions that will have some explanatory contributions. As such, a theory has the advantage of being grounded in observations (Severin & Tankard, 2001:23).

2.3.1 Participation: theoretical and conceptual clarification

According to Roberts (2003:9) the concept of public participation has a long lineage. Roberts explains that Social Science scientists generally believe the first written record of direct public participation came from the Greek city-states and one of its earliest expressions was in the Ecclesia of Athens (Matshe, 2009:14). The Ecclesia of Athens comprised of an assembly open to all free male citizens aged 18 and above. The purpose of the assembly was to debate, seek consensus and make democratic decisions for the community. The assembly’s policy-making power was overseen by a council of approximately 500 elected members. These elected members screened the agendas and ruled on the constitutionality of the measures proposed. This assembly of men were regarded as the “rulers”. This measure implied that ordinary men of the city were participating in the governing and the ruling of the Athens city.

Public participation comprises of two words, namely “public” and “participation”. Camay and Gordon (2004:10) define “public” as those individuals who live within a polity and are governed by the constitution and the laws of that polity. Within that polity, those individuals have certain obligations to fulfil in order to make that polity a liveable place, *inter alia*, participating in the effective running of the polity. Birch (1993:80) contributes by explaining participation as an activity of taking part with others in some social process, game, sport or joint endeavour. In the same vein, Bekker (1996:41) defines participation as an activity undertaken by one or more individuals, previously excluded from the decision-making process, in conjunction with one or more other individuals who were previously the sole protagonist/s in that process. Stating it differently, participation consists of more than one individual from different background to achieve a common purpose.

In the context of local government, Birch (1993:80), on the most fundamental level, defines public participation as participating in the process of government. Bekker’s (1996:40) definition adds that participation is “a process wherein common amateurs of a community exercise power over decisions related to the general affairs of the community”. Tshabalala (2007:10) also contributes to the conceptual clarification by defining public participation as a means of local authorities of obtaining information about local conditions, needs, desires and attitudes. This definition implies that public participation could be viewed from the level of consultation or even decision making in all phases of municipal programmes and projects in a community.

As operational definition for purposes of this study, public participation is regarded as an open, accountable process through which individuals and groups within communities can exchange views and influence decision-making. It is a democratic process by engaging people to play an active part in the development and co-operation of services which will affect their lives.

Questions relating to “who, what, where, why and how” public participation occurs are closely linked to the approach to democracy within which such questions are asked. In the next sections these questions are operationalised by placing public participation in a local government frame.

2.3.1.1 Local government

Van der Waldt (2008:5) argues that the concept “government” has two distinct meanings. He defines government as the democratically elected legislative body and the administrative and regulatory institution it directs. He further argues that in parliamentary system, such as the one South Africa has, the government is also the ruling unit which may consist of members of the majority party or of a coalition of members from several parties.

According to Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997:2), local government is defined as “a political subdivision of a nation or (in federal system) state which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs, including the power to impose taxes or to exact labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of such entity is elected or otherwise locally selected”. This definition suggests that local government is the sphere of government which is closer to the community, being a representative institution with general and specific powers within a geographically defined area. Moroe (2010:21) contributes by defining local government as a decentralised representative institution with a general and specific power devolved to it by a higher authority. In other words, local government can be regarded as a sphere of government and it devolves its powers from provincial and national spheres of government.

2.3.1.2 Local governance

Van der Waldt (2008:5) suggests that the term “governance” is utilised extensively in English but it is more often than not, not precisely defined. He further indicates that the concept “governance” can be defined in terms of relationships and thus includes more than public administration and the institutions, methods, and instruments of governing. Governance encompasses the set of relationships between government and citizens, acting both as individuals and as part of or through institutions. In this regard, Van der Waldt (2008:5) defines governance as the sum of many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs. Stating it otherwise, governance can be described as a continuing process through which diverse interests may be accommodated and co-operative action may be taken. Furthermore, governance includes formal institution and regime empowered to enforce compliance and consists of (Van der Waldt, 2008:5):

- The form of political regime;
- The process by which authority is exercised and the management of a country's economic and social resource of development; and
- The capacity of government to design, formulate and implement policies and discharge functions.

In a local government context local governance generally refers to the shift in emphasis from “government” (power to govern) to “governance” (the act of governing), which is linked to the global acknowledgement that organs of civil society need to be empowered to share the responsibility of governance (Ishmail, Bayat & Meyer, 1997:3). In other words, the government institutions need to involve its communities in the decision-making of its policies. Furthermore, governing institutions need to forge relationships and partnerships with their communities to achieve predetermined institutional objectives.

2.3.2 Democracy

According to Van Hanen (1990:6), it has been customary to classify forms of government into monarchies, oligarchies and democracies since the time of Herodotus. It is alleged that Herodotus was the person who identified democracy with equality, the principle of majority rule, and political responsibility (Vanhanen, 1990:6). The classical thought of Aristotle reflects that democracy can be regarded as the form and system of government which are generally based on majority rule. This form of government is in direct contrast of authoritarian regimes, which implies a rule by one or a minority clique or class. In other words, democracy is a rule by many, based on power sharing.

Democracy, like other social science concepts, tends to mean different things to different people. Bekker (1996:12) stipulates that originally democracy referred to the right of the citizens of the former Greek city to participate directly in the act of government. The word “democracy” thus originates from the Greek concept “*demokratia*”, which comprises of two concepts, namely: ‘*demos*’, which refers to “people” and “*kratein*”, which refers to the “ruling power”. Hyland (1995:37) argues that democracy implied a rule by all the people in the city of Athens. It is important to note that, “all” citizens in those ancient times actually meant “minority”, because the women, children, aliens and slaves were excluded from participating in the public affairs (Cloete,

1993:4). Only men over the age of 18 years were allowed to participate. This implied that not every citizen who was capable of participating in the running of the city was allowed to participate. As a result of this situation, a bulk of the citizens was marginalised and public participation was therefore selective (Vanhanen, 1990:7-11).

Cloete (1993:4) and Motale (2012:14) describe a democracy as the rule of, by and for the people. Bekker (1996:12) and Young (2000:67), in support of Motale's argument, describe democracy as the power exercised by the people as a whole. The authors further state that democracy is an opposite of a government exercised by a small group. Stating it differently, democracy is regarded as a process where all the citizens have an opportunity, and even a duty, to take part in decision making of public affairs. The purpose of democracy is thus to serve the interest of every person in the society, irrespective of the person's class or social standing. In other words, no person should be marginalised from an opportunity to participate. Lipset (1960:45), quoted by Vanhanen (1990:9), in turn defines democracy as "a political system which supplies regular constitutional opportunities for changing the governing officials and a social mechanism which permits the largest possible part of the population to influence major decisions by choosing among contenders for political office". Periodic elections need to be held where rulers can be elected or chosen and not be self-imposed (Bolaji, 2007:1408-1409).

Van Hanen (1990:10) offers an operational definition for purposes of this study by defining democracy as "a set of institutions and rules that allow competition and participation for all citizens as equals. Such a political arrangement is characterised by free, fair and recurring elections; multiple organisations of interests; different and alternative sources of information; and elections to fill most relevant offices". This study argues that a democratic dispensation provides a framework for safeguarding the interest of the excluded and marginalised, in their competition for political office, participation in public affairs, and the guarantee of civil liberties.

Roberts and Edwards (1991:82), as cited by Bekker (1996:15-16), propose that the following elements should be part and parcel of any democracy:

- procedural and substantive principles;
- political office-bearers that act in the best interest of all people;

- political office-bearers that are accountable to and removable by the people, either directly or through their representatives;
- a government that operates through the principle of rule of law;
- equal opportunities to practise democracy availed to all citizens;
- disputes during policy disagreement should be settled by the principle of majority decision;
- it should not include the tyranny by the majority, and minority groups in the society should also be in position to protect their interests; and
- freedom of speech and assembly must be maintained.

Ronney (1971:76-82) makes a significant contribution to the conceptual clarification of a democracy by explaining it as a form of government organised in accordance with four principles, namely popular sovereignty, political equality, popular consultation, and majority rule. These four principles are indispensable to the study of public participation and need some brief elaboration since it highlights the relationship between public participation and democracy:

- *Popular sovereignty*. This principle is the heart of democracy. Its intention is the power to make popular and basic government decision and it should be in the hands of the public and not controlled by any particular person or group. "Public" in this context refers to all members of the particular community who comply with specific basic criteria. Such criteria include, *inter alia*, loyalty, capability, willingness and other generally agreed-upon standards. This does not necessarily mean that all qualifying people will be in a position to make all government decisions personally. Therefore, the public may delegate its decision-making power to whomever it wishes, such as the legislators, representatives of community policing forums and school governing bodies. In essence, this principle applies whenever and wherever the people have vested powers to make decisions regarding what decision-making powers are to be delegated, to whom and for how long. Popular sovereignty further explains how accountability is being enforced.

- *Political equality.* The principle of political equality requires that all members of the community should possess equal opportunity to participate in political processes. This does not necessarily mean every person will participate to the same degree as others. It only means that opportunities should exist or be provided to facilitate equal participation and access by all members of the community.
- *Popular consultation.* The popular consultation principle demands that the people should decide which public policies would best serve the advancement of the common community welfare. This demand fulfils two essential requirements for democracy, namely:
 - (1) The democratic system makes some provision to institutional machinery that can inform the public official and other bodies involved in decision-making about the decisions and policies that the public wants to see being adopted and enforced.
 - (2) After the ascertainment of what the public's wishes and demands are, the decision-makers can bring them to fruition, irrespective of whether or not the wisdom of the demands is questioned.
- *Majority rule.* This principle emphasise that not every decision or policy will be welcomed by everyone in the society. Therefore, democracy dictates that if decision or policy is welcomed by majority members, then such decision or policy can be implemented. The opposite is also true. For example, not everyone voted for the ruling party during the 2014 general election. However, based on this principle, the party that garnered the majority votes became the ruling party. The ratio to determine majority in democratic states is generally fifty plus one percent, meaning more than half of the people who participated in decision-making need to be in favour of such policy or decision before it can enjoy the status of a majority rule.

From the conceptual clarification of democracy in this section, it is evident that the nature of public participation (i.e. who, what, how, and when questions) is ultimately depended on the type of democracy that prevails in a country. The types of democracy thus warrant further deliberation.

2.3.2.1 Types of democracy

Birch (1993:47) explains that, although democracy means the “rule of the people”, there is a need to clarify how the word “rule” in practical terms is operationalised. Cloete (1993:6) in this regard proposes that if democracy is used to refer to a specific system of government, then it could be advisable to qualify it one or more words indicating a specific approach. There are different types of democracies and these democracies will be briefly elaborated below (Cloete, 1993:6-10):

- *Direct democracy*: This type of democracy requires that all the enfranchised citizens need to be part in making decisions, the passing of laws and the approval of estimates of income and expenditure. This approach of government allows citizens themselves to decide about matters which affect them. In other words, decisions are taken after the matter concerned has been debated by all concerned -and the citizens are able to gain knowledge of public affairs- and the decision can be accepted. With regards to local government, direct democracy might be a valuable option.
- *Representative democracy*: According to Cloete (1993:7), representative democracy is applied in many states to obtain majority rule. This approach requires the state or government to divide the country into geographical constituencies and to allow for one or more representatives to be elected by the voter for each constituency. A system of proportional representation could also be applied for the election of representatives. This type of democracy is much more applicable in South African provincial and national elections. Here elected or chosen representatives serve as members of sovereign legislature speaking and voting on public issues on behalf of the citizens.
- *Participatory democracy*: This type of democracy is otherwise regarded to as direct democracy (Cloete, 1993:7). Nevertheless, participatory democracy differs from direct democracy in a sense that all citizens will not take part in the final decision making process, although they will be allowed to submit their views directly or by correspondence to the decision makers who could be elected representatives. According to Hilmer (2010:45) the neologism “participatory democracy” refers to a specific theory of democracy that seems to have originated with Arnold S Kaufman’s call for a “participatory politics”. Hilmer points out that Kaufman argued that the

benefit of participatory politics is “the contribution it can make to the development of human power of thought, feeling and action”. This argument led to Pateman proclaiming that “the nation of a participatory society requires that the scope of the term ‘political’ should be extended to cover spheres outside the nation’s government” (Hilmer, 2010:45). Hilmer (2010:43) further states that participatory democratic theory envisions the maximum participation of citizens in their self-governance, especially in the sectors of society beyond those that are traditionally to be understood to be political (for instance, the household and workplace)”. Chandler and Plano (1982:10) on the other hand argue that the concept of participatory democracy in essence involves the deliberate, systematic mobilisation of constituent groups around issues and problems of common concern. It also includes the organisation of forums for the expression of alternative views on the issues of public affairs and the implementation of decision-making procedure based on majority rule (Bekker, 1996:14). In this study, it has been argued that participatory democracy takes place in a society which fosters a sense of political efficacy. The manner in which the communities participate in public affairs describes the extent to which democracy is exercised in that particular country or area. The more the public participates in public affairs, the more democracy prevails in that area. The opposite is also true.

- Mafunisa and Xaba (2008:453) continue by signifying that participatory democracy is known as the provision of services, based on the existence of a legislative framework that facilitates consultation, involvement and mobilisation of civil society in the formal processes of policy-making and implementation. This means that the underlying principle of democracy in decision-making and implementation should be done through public empowerment and inclusiveness. This study, in this regard, has therefore argued that at local government, there is an evidence of participatory democracy as the public participate through their elected representatives. In other words, there is a political decentralisation at local sphere of government which promotes the theory of participatory democracy. Bauer (2006:32), citing Heywood suggests the merits of participatory democracy as follows:
 - heightening the control that citizens can exercise in their own destinies;
 - creating a better and informed and more politically-sophisticated citizenry;

- enabling the public to express their own views and interests; and
- ensuring that the rule is legitimate in the sense that the people are more likely to accept the decisions that they have made for themselves.

During the early nineties, Wessels (1993:14) conducted a study in South Africa to test the true democracy through the eyes of different political parties. The study revealed that, despite their different political agenda, they all agreed that true democracy was greatly associated with accountability and public participation. In other words, democracy was viewed by many as a form of rule in which people exercised political power either by acting on policy-making authority (direct democracy) or through the choice of those making policy on their behalf (indirect democracy) (Bekker, 1996:15).

- *Social democracy*: Social democracy is usually propagated by social democratic parties which stand for higher direct taxation on the grounds of social justices, the nationalisation of private industries and planning of the economy in a capitalist state. Despite this, proponents of social democracy are not necessarily opponents of private property.
- *Consociation democracy*: This type of democracy requires executive power sharing of the representatives of significant political groups and autonomy to them to the extent that federalism could apply. Cloete (1993:8) explains that to give effect to consociation democracy, it could be necessary to apply proportional representation to give representation to minority segments. He (Cloete) further suggests that consociation democracy could be found suitable for a plural society characterised by divergent regions and population. Belgium, Switzerland, Israel, Canada and South Africa are some of the countries where this type of democracy can be found.
- *Liberal democracy*: Liberal democracy, like any other democratic model, lies on the assumption that all people should politically be accepted to be equal. However, they might differ in their personal capacities and ability to provide for them. Liberals dispute all public activities that provide special privileges for individuals and minority groups. Liberal democracy as such requires that the majority rule should prevail. This, however, implies majority is merely a matter of numbers. Cloete (1993:8) therefore argues that liberal democracy will succeed in those countries where people have developed to such an extent that most of them are able to serve as informed

and rational voters. Such a stage of development could be attained only after a lengthy period of progress, which involves social and economic advancement of the whole population.

- *People's democracy*: This type of democracy is also known as populists or populism and it is based on the assumption that all people are equal and must be treated as such. Proponents of this approach believe that there should be no inequalities and that all men must be treated alike, regardless of their capacities to contribute to the general welfare. People's democracy is somehow sympathetic to the poor, who tends to be majority in most of the countries (Cloete, 1993:9). The proponents of this model tend to justify it through mass movement that gives an impression of democracy. Cloete (1993:9) further cautions that a mass movement could result in a so-called "mob rule" and this can become an instrument of tyranny. Furthermore, proponents of people's democracy tend to assume that the leaders voted into power will govern effectively and to the satisfaction of all. However, as Cloete cautioned, this tends not to always be the case.
- *Pluralist democracy*: According to Pluralists democrats, no state has a homogeneous population and that society consists of numerous interest groups that compete with each other for power and resources. The State will thus be constituted with institutions and practices which will arbitrate between rival demands to keep them in balance. Power, on one hand, would be dispersed by the creation of levels of legislatures and institutions empowered to undertake policy-making, whereby a plurality of checks and balances are created to prevent factions from coming into power and misusing power to give preference to and promote factional interests. In essence, pluralistic democracy provides for the truth that no political party or office-bearer has a monopoly of truth or wisdom (Newton, 1969:201).

It is evident from the discussion above that strong and vibrant public participation is essential for the maintenance of a democracy. It is clear that the successes and failures of any type of democracy are determined by the ability and preparedness of the people to interact constructively with their rulers. In this regard, Cloete (1993:11) argues that if people fail to object to autocratic activities and indulge in worship of charismatic voter-catchers, they will deserve the mal-enactments, misgovernment and the maladministration to which they will be subjected.

In the next section focus shifts to a macro theoretical framework to contextualise local democracy theories.

2.4 SYSTEMS THEORY AS A MACRO THEORETICAL MODEL OR FRAMEWORK FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Severin and Tankard (2001:34) define a theoretical model as a simplified representation of the real world. The authors further suggest that a model can be regarded as an “isomorphic construction of reality or anticipated reality”. In other words, models are often developed as a way to provide scientific or social scientific explanation of phenomena as, by itself, models are not an explanatory device, but they play an important and directly suggestive role in the formulation of theory. Bill and Hardgrove (1973:28), as quoted by Severin and Tankard (2001:34), argue that models are disguised as a theory more than any other concept.

Within this context of model building, lays the systems theory. The systems theory is selected for purposes of this study as a macro participation model because, in terms of the systems approach, the unit of analysis is not a construct, an event in isolation but rather a relationship between people and environment (Van der Waldt, 2010:6). Van der Waldt (2010:6) maintains that with regards to the systems theory, the assumption is that the fostering of local democracy is dependent on and maintained by meanings (socio-political information), shared by people who belong to the system.

Moreover, the general systems theory focuses on the transactional nature of interactions that goes beyond the mere interaction between the participants and environment. In this regard, transaction implies mutual causality among the parts of the system, that is, interdependency (Windahl, Signitzer & Olson, 2010:111). Windahl, Signitzer and Olson (2010:110) then argue that the “nuts and bolts” of the systems theory is interdependence. The systems theory interlocks relationships between the parts of a system and the whole system. This implies that a change in one part of the system leads to changes in other parts too (Goldhaber, 1986:54).

Below an exposition of selected theories within the systems theory is provided. The systems theory has thus served as an overarching macro theoretical framework and specific applied theories have been placed on the meso and micro levels within the systems theory (cf. Van der Waldt, 2010:6).

2.4.1 Exposition of applicable theories within the systems theory frame

The systems model provides a framework to position or place selected theories in order to explain the interaction between an organisation (i.e. Tlokwe Local Municipality) and stakeholders (i.e. communities) by means of a medium (i.e. Community Policing Forums). For this purpose, specific theories associated with the organisational theory and the communication theory has been explored, as they have a direct bearing on public participation.

- **Organisational (i.e. municipal) context.** In explaining the organisational context, the contingency theory seems appropriate to foster local democracy.
 - (1) The contingency theory can be described as any of the number of management theories. The core of this theory is that influences from internal and external environments of organisations, to a large extent, influence decision making (Van der Waldt, 2010:8). From a local democracy perspective, this means the process of democracy can be influenced by many internal and external constraints from the municipality and its sub-systems. Van der Waldt (2010:8) therefore proposes that organisations need to be aware of those internal and external factors. Being aware of this, facilitators of democratic processes will be able to decide what would be the most effective way of communicating in certain situations. Within the roots of contingency theory lies a principle called “equifinality”. This principle implies that in an open system, the same final state can be arrived at from different initial conditions and by different paths. In other words, “there are many ways to reach a given objective; there is no single method that will be best under all conditions” (Windahl, Signitzer & Olson, 2010:111).
- **Information exchange.** Information exchange is closely related with the general communication theory. Information flows from a sender (i.e. municipality) through a medium to a receiver (i.e. community). Communication is generally regarded to be successful if the receiver provides feedback on the message. Specific communication theories concerned with sending, receiving, medium and feedback dimensions include the social exchange theory, dependency theory, expectancy value theory and social penetration theory.

- (i) *Social exchange theory*: Within the social exchange theory, the major force in interpersonal relationships is the satisfaction of both people's self-interest. Van der Waldt (2010:8), citing Michener (2004:67), indicates that the social exchange theory posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. In other words, should the citizen perceive the cost of relationship as beneficial, then the citizen will likely choose to stay and support the relationship - thus choosing to participate in democratic processes. The opposite is also true.
- (ii) *Dependency theory*: This theory is fundamentally based on the assumption that citizens depend on the media for social context. This theory suggests an integral relationship among audiences, media and larger social systems. Stating it differently, this theory implies that the citizens depend on the media for information to meet certain needs and achieve certain goals (Littlejohn, 1999:353, as quoted by Van der Waldt, 2010:9). The less alternatives individuals have for gratifying needs, the more dependent they will become on a particular single medium.
- (iii) *Expectancy value theory*: This theory suggests that people normally orient themselves to the world according to their beliefs and evaluations. The proponents of this theory argue that behaviour is a function of expectancies one has and the value of the goal towards which a person is working. Applied to the context of local democracy, this would imply that the combination of beliefs and evaluations developed about a communication strategy. The context or a medium of communication could either be positive or negative. Should the medium prove to be positive, it is likely that the sender (i.e. municipality) would continue using the media choice. The opposite is also true.
- (iv) *Social penetration theory*: Griffin (1997:145), as cited by Van der Waldt (2010:10), explains that the social penetration theory maintains that interpersonal relationships evolve in some gradual and predictable fashion. Within the context of local democracy, this would mean that a municipality cannot effectively collaborate with the citizens towards some common objective, unless they "know" and "accept" each other. This means building and

maintaining relationships or partnerships are necessities to foster local democracy.

- **Community's information absorption and exchange.** With regards to the interpretation and distribution of information within communities, the knowledge gap and spiral of silence theories have been put into perspective.
 - (i) *Knowledge gap theory:* According to Yang & Grabe (2014:311) theorists of this model argue that the increase of information in society is not evenly acquired by every member. This implies that people with a lower socio-economic status tend to have lesser ability to acquire information. The opposite also tends to be true. As a result of this situation, a knowledge gap tends to increase the knowledge disparities between people of lower and higher socio-economic status. Within a local democracy context, this would mean when citizens are presented with the same information, it is possible that the socio-economic status would impact on the information absorption. This aspect, therefore, needs careful handling, especially in South Africa, where the legacy of apartheid has left many social disparities.
 - (ii) *Spiral of silence theory:* Glynn, Hayes and Shanahan (1997:456, as quoted by Van der Waladt, 2010:13) allude that individuals who fear being socially isolated are likely to conform to what they perceive to be a majority view. The "spiral of silence" therefore refers to how citizens tend to become less vocal when they feel that their views are held by the majority. The opposite perspective is also relevant. The spiral of silence theory explains why there tend to be a shift in public opinion about a particular matter, which was earlier either supported or rejected by citizens. In other words, this theory tends to be utilised to search for answers in explaining certain political behaviour.
- **Context of information exchange (i.e. local democracy).** As explained earlier, the systems theory as a macro-theory is utilised to contextualise information exchange in a particular socio-political setting. According to Windahl, Signitzer and Olson (2010:109), the basic idea of the general systems theory were developed by Van Bentalonffy (1969) and explain that the whole equals more than the sum of its parts. This is also referred to as the "synergistic effect". The three authors then proceed to explain that the system theory deals with "wholes made up of interdependent parts,

the relationships between parts and the relationship between the wholes and their environment. The system theory in this regard involves the ability to observe events and to determine the factors operating in the system; the ability to define factors so others can identify the same dimensions and the ability to perceive the relationships among the different dimensions (Van der Waldt, 2010:6).

Van der Waldt (2010:13), quoting Fauconnier (1987:100), goes further by describing a system as “any cohesive collection of items that are dynamically related”. Putting it differently, a system is referred to as an organised whole which maintains relations with its environment. In the system, input compromises of energy and/or information. Van der Waldt (2010:13) then argues that when a system interacts with its environment, it can be regarded as an open system.

In line with the opinion of Windahl, Signitzer and Olson (2010:111), it is assumed that the fostering of local democracy and communication are dependent on and maintained by meanings (socio-political information), shared by people who belong to the system (cf. Van der Waldt, 2010:6). In summary, within the systems theory context, stakeholders need to be aware of internal and external factors that may affect the environment. By obtaining a holistic perspective, relevant role-players will be in position to decide what are the most effective way of communicating information in certain situations. In other words, role-players will be able to tailor information of an organisation to particular people (Windahl, Signitzer & Olson, 2010:111).

In the preceding sections the concepts (local) democracy and public participation have been clarified. For purposes of this study, it is necessary to underscore the interrelationship between these two concepts. In the next section attention has been paid to illustrate the causal relationship between local democracy and public participation.

2.5 LINKING LOCAL DEMOCRACY AND PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

As stated earlier, the fundamental role of local government is to satisfy the needs and expectations of the community it serves. To achieve this objective, consideration has to be drawn to the causal relationship between public participation and democracy in general and in local democracy in particular.

Van der Waldt (2010:4), quoting Manin (1997:45), explains that it seems as though local government in South Africa generally lacks sufficient capacities, efforts to promote good local governance and needs to include the participation of local civil society. He further explains that for good governance to be sustainable, it requires partnerships between government and civil society. In other words, public officials and political representatives rely upon citizens' input to stay informed about public concerns as well as to gain insight into citizen preferences. In order to stay abreast, there must be a reciprocal a flow of information from the electorate to the decision maker in order to facilitate public participation effectively. Van der Waldt (2010:4) concludes by arguing that when citizens and interest groups are well-organised, they can have a powerful influence on the outcome of decisions.

Putu (2006:12) indicates that participation in local government matters is a complex process. There is no simple "blue print" that stipulates exactly how public participation should occur, except being a consultative process. Young (2000:67), in this regard, suggests that democracy provides the framework where human rights, individual freedom and equality can prosper. As such, true democracy requires municipalities to be open about what they do and ready to account for their actions. In other words, democracy is a process where government affairs can be put up for public scrutiny. Furthermore, democracy in the local government sphere should entail the allocation and distribution of public goods according to the preferences and needs of the people. For this "grassroots" democracy to materialise, the public needs to be given some role in this process. This role is usually defined in democratic structures, political culture and participatory processes (Van der Waldt, 2010:4).

The efficiency and effectiveness of local democracy could be influenced by a number of seemingly endless variables. According to Van der Waldt (2010:5) these variables include:

- General knowledge of citizens regarding government affairs;
- General knowledge regarding existing policies and by-laws;
- General knowledge regarding the normative and formative systems of government;
- The attitude of public officials regarding citizen participation;

- The degree of organisation of participation (mechanisms, policies, and procedures);
- The degree to which decision-making is governed by strict regulations; and
- The hierarchy of decisions.

In the extension of the above-mentioned aspects, Cahn and Camper (1968:58) explain that there are two rationales for public participation, namely:

- Firstly, the mere knowledge that one can participate promotes dignity and self-sufficiency within the individual; and
- Secondly, public participation provides a source of special insight, information, knowledge and experience, which contributes to the feasibility of many community solutions.

Craythorne (1997:13) contends that local government operates in multidimensional environment, as it does not exist only as a legal entity but also exists in and for communities. This simply means that local government operates in a number of dimensions and exists as a living and dynamic organism. Based on this aspect, Craythorne (1990:75-76) proposes that democracy in local government entails the following salient elements:

- a basis of elected representation;
- the caring and working for the prosperity and development of all citizens;
- a universal right of appeal against administrative and governmental or political decisions and actions;
- a universal right to submit requests, complaints and suggestions to governing and administrative bodies;
- the acceptance that the welfare of the general public ought to enjoy precedence over the interests of any special group;
- an awareness and acceptance of the fact the right to appeal, complaint, and suggestions are possible where injustice and undue prejudice have occurred;

- acknowledgement of the right to criticise presupposes that any criticism will be well-informed and objective.

The above-mentioned elements suggest that there is some form of public participation at local government. Democracy as such brought some new prominence to transparency in local government activities, greater public accountability and the concept of respect for human rights. According to Bekker (1996:56) any claim to the designation of “democracy” where public participation is non-existent and not positively encouraged, cannot be a true democracy. Therefore, an important dimension of public participation is its contribution to and advancement of the democratic process. Public participation, as such, as a process can occur in different forms and methods. For this process to occur and be effective there must be communication between participants.

2.6 COMMUNICATION AS INSTRUMENT FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

The theoretical framework highlighted above (section 2.4) as well as the link between local democracy and public participation both pre-suppose a communication process. Democracy in general and participation in particular imply an interaction process in society. Central to this interaction is the communication process.

The roots of communication as concept can be traced to the *Latin* verb “communicare”, which means to share, and this sharing of information is necessary between people and organs of the state that partner or participate (Miladzi, Mulinge & Mukamaambo, 2002:37). Since public participation involves interaction and partnership, this interaction needs partners to communicate with one another in order to understand each other and reach a common goal (Mersham & Skinner, 2002:2-3).

Van der Waldt (2010:4-6) argues that one of the most important aspects of democratic process is communication. Also Milazi, Mulinge and Mukamaambo (2002:37) state that the promotion of democracy requires all those involved in politics to learn to accommodate diverse ideas and ideological orientations. The three authors further suggest that decision-makers should be able to explain their ideas in a clean and simple language so that the public can grasp them and thus afford an opportunity to make a meaningful participation in the affairs of the government. In simple terms this means that citizens should be empowered in order to participate freely in public affairs.

By empowering people, they will possess knowledge of what government wants them to do. This empowerment becomes one of the pillars of the democratic process (Miladzi, Mulinge & Mukamaambo, 2002:38). It must be emphasised that communication is but one element of participation. This implies communication is the enabling instrument through which citizens participate. Through communication, the poor and marginalised will be in position to access information from local government, enabling them to participate in public affairs. In this way, citizens will be in better positions to understand their rights and responsibilities leading towards enhanced public participation.

In their further elaboration, Milazi, Mulinge and Mukamaambo (2002:38) emphasise that governmental or public organisations cannot operate successfully if its activities are veiled in ignorance, misunderstanding and mystery. For example, if the public do not understand and appreciate the purpose of the government policies, they often vandalise the projects of the government. This aspect is much more prevalent in South Africa during service delivery protests. One of the responsibilities of local government is to provide for the welfare of its communities. Municipalities within the local sphere of government therefore has a moral obligation and constitutional mandate to communicate with its citizens on how it will deliver services, build structures and support development processes.

Moroe (2010:33) alludes that public participation cannot simply be a string of once-off events. Van der Waldt (2010:4), citing Fletcher (1999:125) and Savingny (2002:6), maintains that, to promote and maintain interrelationship on local government, a comprehensive communication strategy is a requirement for local government. In other words, communication strategies need to be developed by municipalities which require measures that include the utilisation of various mechanisms and structures to facilitate the flow of information between citizens and local government structures. Such a communication strategy should foster a continuous process of interaction and not simply be a once-off event for municipalities. As elements of a communication strategy, Moroe (2010:33) goes further by proposing the following methods in which people can communicate and participate for various purposes:

- *Consultation*: This can occur through community meetings, ward committees, questionnaires, meetings with sectors and community leaders, door-to-door campaigns, suggestion boxes and public hearings;

- *Feedback and information sharing*: This method can be executed through advertisements, posters, community notice boards, news-letters and bulletins; and
- *Involvement of people*: This process can be facilitated through meetings with affected communities or relevant sector groups like religion, welfare, cultural and business.

A further contribution as far as municipal communication strategies are concerned, are made by Lasswell (1948) and Mersham and Skinner (2002:7) who indicate that the utilisation of a comprehensive communication model is crucial to obtain a holistic perspective. Such a communication model should comprise the following elements:

- Who will communicate;
- What will be communicated;
- Through which channel will the message be communicated;
- To whom is message directed; and
- What effect is desired.

In public participation, communicators should picture themselves as both the cause and effect, stimulus and response, sender and receiver (Windahl, Signitzer & Olson, 2010:111-112). Municipalities should consider the elements highlighted above for inclusion in a comprehensive communication strategy. Moroe (2010:33) further contributes in this regard by stating that all municipalities should ensure that their communication strategies are properly resourced and supported. In other words, there should be proper planning that includes all events, meetings and media responsible for implementation and monitoring. By means of a communication strategy municipalities will be able to clear up or communicate any policy ambiguity and reconfirm existing policies (Mills, *et al.*, 2002:7-15).

In the next section the focus is shifted to the particular modes of public participation. This insight is important to further investigate the elements municipalities should consider in designing comprehensive communication strategies to foster local democracy in general and public participation in particular.

2.7 MODES OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Stevens and Yacht (1995:12) assert that public participation implies a total process of involvement from generating ideas, to planning, implementation and evaluation. In other words, public involvement is a requirement throughout the whole public policy and governance process. By being actively involved, the public will have a sense of responsibility, ownership, commitment, awareness, accountability and the creation of a high self-esteem (Putu, 2006:5). As such, the community members are able to shape their own world and destinies. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 stipulates that the country's democracy is both representative and participatory. This implies that the public has the right to participate and at the same time has an obligation to participate in public affairs.

The right to participate means public participation needs to be encouraged by those in power (Bekker, 1996:56). Bekker further argues that those in power should not only encourage public participation in words, but they should also go further by making facilities and instruments of participation accessible to every individual citizen. Stating it differently, this means for democratic government to exist, the public must be able to be actively involved in government affairs.

Public participation can occur in different modes and forms. The public can choose to participate either via their elected representatives (meaning direct participation) or participatory democracy (meaning indirect participation). Direct and indirect participation refer to the forms in which public participation can occur. According to Mathur (1986:19) and Roberts (2003:17) there are at least six different modes of participation:

- *Citizen as a subject in an authority system:* Roberts (2003:17) propels this as the oldest model and it involves only the educated and the people with money in the community ("elites"). The participation of "grass roots" communities is marginalised. It is the assumption of this mode is that the "divine" is the administrator, whose duty is to carry out the ruler's binding. The public's duty in the divine is to obey both the ruler and his administrator. In light of this, the administrator is permitted by authority to exercise power over ordinary citizens within its area of jurisdiction. Citizens thus only enjoy privileges granted to them by the "ruler" and the "administrator".

- *Citizen as voter in representative system:* In this mode ordinary citizens are the beneficiaries asked to legitimise or ratify the projects identified by the government (Mathur, 1986:19). Therefore, this mode calls for an expanded role of the citizens and it is centred on the electoral process, which enables the citizens to vote for the candidates who will represent them in the government. Included in this mode are party involvement and political contribution as well as other formal constitutional obligations, such as serving the juries. Roberts (2003:17) explains this mode as a complete contrast to the authoritarian system, as the administrator is directly accountable to the elected representatives and not the ruler. The administrator's role in this mode becomes the implementer of the legislative will as expressed through laws and mandates.
- *Citizen as a client in an administrative state:* Mathur (1986:19) proclaims the administrative state mode is where ordinary citizens are consulted about government matters, but they do not actually participate in the planning and management thereof. This mode rests on the assumption that administrators are professionals and that makes them experts in rational and value-free decisions. This mode in turn argues that the elected chief executive represents the interests of all people and therefore energises and co-ordinates all parts, including political and bureaucratic system. Roberts (2003:17) asserts that citizens as clients need to respect and defer to the expertise and neutral competence of professional bureaucrats. These bureaucrats in turn are responsible to politicians for policy implementation, decision-making and ensuring equal and equitable processes and outcomes. This mode rests on the assumption that ordinary citizens do not possess the specialised skills, knowledge or ability to be directly involved in the decision-making process of the government. The public's role is seen as the provider of required input and support to the administrators so that the programmes and activities can be properly designed, implemented and evaluated. The critique to this mode is that the administrators have the power to decide what's valuable and invaluable from the public's input (Roberts, 2003:17). Therefore, this mode needs proper handling to restrict abuse of the system by the administrators.
- *Citizens as interest-group advocates in a pluralist system:* Mathur (1986:19) suggests that ordinary citizens need representation in the highest policy-making body of the agency. The pluralist system model rests on the assumption that

democracy is best achieved through collective action. This mode somehow has the elements of the “localist” theory, as indicated in Planact (1992:24), who proposes that citizens are able to promote their diverse interest more effectively in groups than individually (Roberts, 2003:17). As such, this mode emphasises that in groups, citizens are also able to respond more effectively to diverse community needs and interests. Through this mode, the government is expected to ensure that competing ideas have multiple access points and means of participation in the political process. This means this mode is oriented towards maximum decentralisation of powers and functions. Mathur (1986:19) in addition explains that the citizens:

- (i) are expected to be knowledgeable about their interests;
 - (ii) need to support the creation and maintenance of interest groups in an effort to protect diverse interests;
 - (iii) need to elect public officials who will represent their interests; and
 - (iv) rely on the courts to adjudicate disputes among competing interest.
- *Citizen as a volunteer and co-producer in civil society.* Mathur (1986:19) stipulates that this mode is based on the assumption that the people need to be consulted from the beginning and actively participate in the planning and management of the projects until its completion. This model in other words focuses on civil society and assumes civil society “can constitute a site for democratisation ... it can be a place where people choose to live their public lives and solve their joint problem (Mathur, 1986:19). In this mode, public participation creates two roles for the citizens, namely (Roberts, 2003:18):
 - (i) a volunteer in non-paying activities to support improvements in neighbourhoods and civic life in general; and
 - (ii) citizens as co-producers where they, together with the administrator, cooperate with each other through community structures and other means to redesign and deliver government services. The mutual goal of this co-producing is to improve the quality and quantity of service outputs.

2.8 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION CATEGORIES, FORMS AND MECHANISMS

Moroe (2010:21) infers that public participation is a multi-faceted activity with different actors and varying degrees of community involvement. This implies in its widest sense that community involvement in municipal affairs constitute some form or category of public participation. Moroe (2010:21) identifies the following categories of public participation:

- More traditional forms (e.g. public meetings, consultations, documents, co-option to committees and questions and answers sessions);
- Customer-oriented categories (e.g. service satisfaction survey, and complaints or suggestions boxes) most often used in relation to service delivery;
- Innovative methods, which involves interactive websites, citizens panels, focus groups and referendums, that tend to represent the new techniques; and
- Innovative approach categories which encourages citizens to deliberate over issues, for instance, citizens' juries, community plans/needs analysis, visioning exercise and issue forums.

It is evident from the discussion above that participation categories can reflect the extent to which genuine participation is taking place in communities.

According to Khan & Hampat (2006:46) public participation should always be qualified by reference to the form of participation. In the same vein, Mathur (1986:18) argues that public participation takes different forms based on a number of factors, including the intentions of the public policy-maker, the make-up of the community targeted for participation, key interests at stake, level of influence that is created and the desired direction of the whole process. This implies that the forms of public participation would constitute a contested area even before the actual process commences. Birch (1993:81) and Pieterse (2002:7) suggest the following as main forms of public participation:

- voting in local and national elections;
- voting in referendums;

- canvassing or otherwise campaigning in elections;
- active membership of a political party;
- active membership of a pressure group;
- taking part in a political demonstration, industrial strikes with political objectives, rent strikes in public housing and similar activities aimed at changing public policy;
- various forms of civil disobedience, such as refusing to pay taxes or obey a conscription order;
- membership of government advisory committee;
- membership of consumer's council for publicly owned industries;
- client involvement in the implementation of social policies; and
- various forms of community action, such as those concerned with housing or environmental issues in the locality.

These forms of public participation enhance democracy and serve as an advancement and strengthening of its system by discouraging complacency on the part of the public with regards to citizen involvement.

Municipalities appear to be recognising the benefits of involving the people in public affairs. Administrators increasingly seem to try to involve people in local decisions in order to develop and improve service delivery. As a result, all three spheres of government have been busy, generating mechanisms to facilitate public participation. According to Birch (2002:67) and Smith (2003:40-41) these mechanisms include:

- *Publications*: This refers to publicised printed material such as promotional materials, strategy documents and information brochures about services. These published materials normally describe the process, define the problem, issue or situation. They sometimes suggests options or request direct feedback from leaders on their views.
- *Toll-free phone lines*: Presidential hotline is an example of a toll-free phone line and Smith (2003:40) proposes that these lines provide an impersonal opportunity from

the public to participate by providing feedback, ideas or even identify the issues with the administrators. Important matters include confidentiality and privacy.

- *Interviews*: Smith (2003:41) suggests that through interviews, individual discussions with the public or representatives of interest groups may occur, allowing the participants to have a wider range of information. Putting it otherwise, interview necessitates communication between different stakeholders and through communication many problems can be solved, resulting in everlasting solutions attained.
- *Citizen's juries*: a citizen jury could be described as a group of citizens brought together to consider a particular issue set by the local authorities. Expert witnesses give citizen's jury evidence and in turn the jury can cross question those expert witnesses. After the jury has digested all the evidence, a report is drawn up setting out the views of it including different opinions. Birch (2002:67) points out that the jury's views are intended to inform councillors regarding decision-making. Smith (2003:41) also explains that juries are groups which are selected to represent a cross-section of interests and sometimes they may be asked to prioritise, review, make recommendations, develop alternatives, evaluate or even assist councillors in decision-making.
- *Visioning exercises or open houses*: According to Birch (2002:67) the purpose of a visioning exercise is to establish a vision statement with the community regarding the future they intend to have or create. This vision ultimately informs the broad strategy of a municipality. In the case of "open houses" Smith (2003:40) indicates that information is usually communicated about a project or proposal through a series of displays. During this time, staff members are usually present to answer questions and provide clarification. An example of this mechanism is a university open day for prospective students.
- *Issue forums*: Smith (2003:41) asserts that during issue forums, a group of eight to ten people are structured to represent a cross-section of the stakeholders affected by an issue with a moderator, leading them by exploring participants' feelings, values, interests and concerns. Issue forums are on-going bodies that hold regular meetings with a focus on specific issues (for example, drugs or safety and security). Birch (2002:67) explains that issue forums operate on a membership or open basis and most often they are empowered to make recommendations to relevant committees or share in public decision-making.

- *Shared interest forums or target briefing*: Smith (2003:41) proposes that the shared interest forums are designed to reach specific targeted audiences who may benefit from private and individually tailored presentations. Targeted briefings audiences may include, government ministers, public officials, media or even a specific interest group such as a trade union. Characteristics of a shared interest forum are similar to issue forums. However, shared interest forums concentrate on the needs of a particular citizen group. Like issue forums, they operate on membership or open basis.
- *Committees (i.e. ward committees or community policing forum)*: Carrim (2001:26) indicates that through various committees, citizens are able to provide feedback or obtain information from the municipality on the quality and level of services offered to them. This form of mechanism represents the most radical form of public participation in a sense that citizens are given control over the monitoring and management of local services and resources. These initiatives normally operate through an executive committee which was elected by the wider group of users.
- *Public hearings*: A public hearing is described as a forum at which stakeholders are able to make formal statements about the issue at hand (Smith, 2003:41). Usually in public hearings, oral statements are accompanied by written briefs. Birch (2002:67) suggests public hearings are traditional methods which seek public views on a particular issue or facilitate debate on broad options for a specific service, policy or neighbourhood. He (Birch) further suggests that public hearings may be initiated by a particular department or sometimes in response to community concerns. Public hearings are therefore not necessarily on-goings forums but once-off events.
- *Public meetings*: Williams (2005:10) asserts that the most exciting and exemplary mechanism of public participation is the community outreach program. Through this program, political leaders convene a meeting in each area simply to listen to the people, record comments, criticism, praise, concern and opinions of residents and develop responses. An example of this mechanism is the establishment of the South African Police Service Community Outreach Program in Bloemfontein in October 2012. The objective of the program is to encourage the community to participate actively in the affairs of the Police and at the same time, empowering community to take responsibility regarding their safety and security. In essence this program facilitates public participation and a sense of inclusiveness by the community in public affairs.

2.9 POTENTIAL ADVANTAGES AND CHALLENGES OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

2.9.1 Participation

Bekker (1996:75) asserts that despite continued opposition to public participation, there have always been those who have actively committed themselves to establishing increased participation on the basis of it being a democratic right of citizens. Bekker highlights some of the advantages of public participation as follows (Bekker, 1996, 75-77):

- *Reduction of psychological suffering and apathy:* Bekker argues that involvement in public participation activities reduces psychological suffering and overcomes the apathy of ordinary citizens, and should be the fundamental reasons for urging public participation. In addition to this argument, Bekker (1996: 70) further states that participation increases the citizen's sense of efficacy in that they tend to believe that they have ability and competence to influence government in its planning and decision-making;
- *Positive application of citizens' powers:* Public participation can serve as a means of converting dependency into independence. It could change the poor from being passive consumers of services into producers of those services;
- *Willingness to sustain deprivation:* Public participation, by fostering a feeling of involvement in and ownership of planning, may make citizens willing to accept the eventuality of the government not being able to render certain needed services. In cases where resources are limited, through effective communication, communities could understand the situation of prioritisation leading them to likelihood of reconciling themselves to scarcity and deprivation;
- *Converting opponents:* Spiegel (1968:31) suggests that "public participation is the process that can meaningfully tie programmes to people". This implies that public participation may influence the public's behaviour positively by providing a technique whereby opponents may be co-opted into positively contributing to programmes which traditionally have been replete with conflict. It is important to note that, whilst this co-option has great potential for abuse by government authorities and public groups, it may also be a boom for all parties involved.

- *Information dissemination:* Public participation effectiveness requires effective and efficient distribution of accurate information, whether it is government-sponsored or citizen initiated. Information dissemination has the potential to ensure optimal goal achievement and relationship building;
- *Restraining the abuse of authority:* Public participation may constitute an effective check on the exercise of the discretion of public managers, when the public has access to information concerning government activities. This check will ensure that public managers are restrained with regards to abuse of authority; and
- *The alienable right of citizens:* Public participation needs to be pursued and encouraged on the basis that it is the inalienable democratic right of all citizens in the country.

In addition to Bekker's advantages, Bridges (1974:27) also adds the following:

- the individual learns to understand and appreciate the individual needs and interests of all community groups;
- the individual can bring about desired change by expressing one's desire either individually or through community groups;
- the individual learns how to make the desired changes;
- the individual begins to understand group dynamics as it applies to mixed groups; and
- the individual learns how to resolve conflicting interests for the general welfare of the group.

Despite clear advantages of public participation, it has inherent challenges. Amongst the challenges experienced by it is that more often than most, goals which participants hope to achieve, are clearly defined. Some of the most significant challenges include the following:

- *Inward intend:* Brynard (1989:37) states that when a government institution employs or sponsors public participation activities, it does so in an effort to achieve its own

end. This simply means any participation that threatens to thwart government ideas and transfer authority to citizens is actively discouraged.

- *Low citizen's participation levels:* Reidel (1972:215), as cited by Bekker (1996:72), proclaims that "unwillingness to participate is many times more common than the required desired to do so". In principle, where there is a low citizen's participation level, people need to be motivated and resourced to participate in public affairs.
- *Threat to professional image of public administration:* Bekker (1996:71), quoting Stivers (in Wansley, 1990:25), contends that the professional image of public management is "deeply at odds with public participation". Meaning it seems that many public officials are in contrast with public participation as they believe it serves as a nuisance factor. Therefore, based on this aspect, public participation experiences are challenged with established and inflexible institutional arrangements and work procedures designed for efficiency, rather than responsiveness to public preferences.
- *Potential for conflict:* Clapper (1993:104) states that public participation is a potential for conflict. Conflict may be between citizens' groups and between citizens' and public officials. Potential for conflict is exacerbated by the fact that public participation goals are largely undefined, resulting in citizen's groups, individual citizens and public officials often having different perspectives of what public participation should achieve, resulting in acute conflict.
- *Lack of government responses:* Green (1982:23) proclaims that there is "very little evidence suggesting government actually responds to public participation contacts". Green further contests that the majority of public participation contacts, whatever form they take, seems to be generally ignored by officials. This situation indirectly contributes to low levels of public participation as the active citizens become demoralised and become inactive in public structures that facilitate participation.
- *Representativeness:* Hanekom (1987:44) points out that different parties involved in public participation are not always equally competent, articulate and well organised. Consequently, only active elites always become a feature of public participation programmes, leading to structures becoming unrepresentative. Bekker (1996:72) also indicates that the absence of incentives to entice citizens to participate, the

majority of citizens prefer to play no direct role. In this instance, Bekker challenges other scientists and scholars to conduct a comprehensive research to provide clear answers on how to address the problem of representatives in public structures. Hence one of the objectives of this study is to explore this concern.

- *Time, costs and benefits:* Public participation may be costly to public members in terms of time, costs and other aspects. Based on these aspects, many citizens, especially the poor and the marginalised, may opt not to participate in order to save costs. On the basis of this cost-benefit dilemma, indicators are that some of the public officials reject public participation outright on the assumption that most citizens are concerned with immediate gratification of selfish private interests and that they are not qualified for any type of public involvement in public management;
- *Attitude of public managers:* Bekker (1996:73) states that the attitudes of public managers may account for the fear or reluctance that the public generally reveals in approaching public managers through public participation contacts.
- *Lack of information:* General potential public participants are not provided with the correct or enough information to participate intelligently and optimally. Meaningful public participation requires the government to be transparent in its dealings by providing the public adequate and quality information regarding government issues, problems and strategies. The public needs to be empowered in terms of information, because a poorly informed public cannot sustain high levels of genuine public participation, nor will it be interested in examining public administration activities closely.
- *Participation mechanisms:* It is the contestation of Hanekom (1987:44) that public participation mechanisms are afforded to the public through statutory research institutions, statutory structures such as community policing forums and referendums. However, there is critique that statutory provisions for public participation could result in selective participation, as presumably elites are more informed about and interested in participation issues than the general public (Bekker, 1996:74).
- *Citizen's competence:* Although public participation encourages all public members to participate, it is unfortunately true that not all citizens are competent to participate

in public affairs. Therefore, public empowerment needs to be enhanced to ensure greater public participation and representativeness.

In light of the above-mentioned challenges, the successes of public participation might be doubted. However, these challenges should not in any way be allowed to eclipse the advantages that active public participation holds for both the community members and governing authorities. It is evident from the advantages that public participation as a process seeks to ensure that public members have the opportunity to be notified to express their opinions, and ideally to influence decisions regarding projects, programs, policies and regulations that could affect them (Filbey, 2002:2). As a result, municipalities need to develop participation strategies to be able to deal with the challenges associated with public participation.

2.10 FACTORS INFLUENCING EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION

Trojanowics and BucQueroux (1994:9), through critical social theory interpretation, attempt to explain factors which influence effective participation. These two authors explain that there are three main prepositions which address participation and non-participation, namely:

- *Enlightenment*: People need to be enlightened and educated about the circumstances before they are lobbied to participate. This simply means by not educating the public, the public is unlikely to participate, due to lack of knowledge.
- *Empowerment*: People need to be empowered in order to improve their conditions and sustain development. By empowerment, it is meant that people need to be educated about the value of participation and how participation influences democracy. Empowering the citizens might indirectly lead to sustainable partnership between the communities and its local authorities.
- *Emancipation*: Emancipation could be regarded as people achieving the liberation through the reflection and social action. In other words, emancipation can influence non-participation or participation because of the perception of the citizens (Trojanowics & BucQueroux, 1994:9-10).

The three prepositions can be regarded as the preposition for the people and by the people, which in turn make them to be part and parcel of a democratic government. This

is because these prepositions regard the local authority as a social resource, which is supposed to solve the problems of the people. Bekker (1996:57) on the other hand, citing Key (1961:182-184), explains that one characteristic of all democracies is the fact that a certain portion of the people is more active in political affairs than most.

Milbrath and Goels (1977:35) explain the following factors as reasons that might influence participation and non-participation:

- *Public participation as a function of stimuli:* Milbrath and Goels (1977:35) proclaim that before any participative action can occur, the potential participant must receive a stimulus from the environment. Furthermore, they indicate that research findings revealed that there was a close association which existed between the amount of stimuli the citizens received from the environment and the potential participant participative behaviour in general. This simply means the less relevant the stimuli or input a person receives, the less the depth of his or her participative behaviour. Nevertheless, this does not necessarily mean that the less the exposure to political stimuli the potential participant receives, this will automatically lead to non-participation. The two authors further argue that, with regards to the exposure to political stimuli in the environment, together with the degree of stimulation present in the environment, the following prepositions could be made (Milbrath & Goels, 1977:37-39):

- (i) middle-class people tend to be exposed to more political stimuli than the working-class people;
- (ii) men tend to be more exposed to and receptive of political stimuli than women, due to their peculiar environments;
- (iii) persons with higher levels of education tend to be exposed to higher levels of political stimuli than those of lower education, who tend to shut themselves off from these political stimuli;
- (iv) political stimuli tend to disseminate more naturally and freely among persons of the same sociocultural levels;
- (v) family experience tend to have a great impact upon a person's exposure to political stimuli;

- (vi) the level of political stimuli tend to differ from country to country;
- (vii) middle-aged individuals tend to experience more exposure to political stimuli than the younger persons; and
- (viii) persons interested in politics tend to expose themselves more to political stimuli than the persons not interested in politics.

These aspects above seem to indicate that a public participatory activity in the political environment is directly related to and affected by the stimuli a person tend to seek and receive from the environment.

- *Public participation as a function of personal factors:* Personal attitudes, beliefs, knowledge and personality traits, *inter alia*, bear an influence on public participation. Milbrath and Goels (1977:43) assert that personal attributes which have an influence on public participation need to be inferred from the behaviour in response to a stimulus, as they cannot be measured directly. Based on these personal attributes, Milbrath and Goels (1977:43-85) suggest the following inferences can be drawn, *inter alia*:

- (i) Persons who experience a lower interest in and concern for and about political matters are less likely to be activists and passive participants than those more interested;
- (ii) Political party affiliation and intense support for a party are inclined to yield a high interest in politics and participation;
- (iii) A sense of civic duty, and a feeling of obligation to participate in politics tend to yield active political participation;
- (iv) Persons who perceive themselves to be competent are more likely to participate politically than persons who lack such feelings;
- (v) A sense of competence is strengthened by the political information to which a person is exposed;
- (vi) Marginalised people tend to be less inclined to participate in a political system; and

(vii) Religious affiliation also tends to influence public participation;

- *Public participation as a function of social position:* Bekker (1996:63), citing Alford and Scoble (1968:1204), indicates that social status along with organisational activity, is the most important characteristic associated with political involvement. Stating it differently, this implies that the impact of life position or demographic variables such as age, sex, education, *inter alia*, have an influence on public participation. Bekker (1996:63) on one hand describes “social position” along central-peripheral dimension as variables which incorporate, *inter alia*, socio-economic status, length of residence in a given area, race, extent of group involvement and activity as well as integration into the community. On the other hand, he describes position along the same central-peripheral dimension as a variable including psychological perception of being close to the center of things as opposed to being out the periphery. Milbrath and Goels (1977:88) therefore argue that the closer the individuals are to the center of society, the higher their educational attainments. They further indicate that the position of centrality, which the gladiators occupy in the society, fosters the development of personality traits, beliefs and attitudes that will enhance and facilitate their participation in politics. On that note, Milbrath and Goels (1977:89-95) propose the following prepositions relating to social positions, *inter alia*:
 - The further a person is to the center of society, the more likely he or she is to lack interest in public participation. The opposite is also true;
 - Income tends to have some greater impact on public participation than either the occupation or education;
 - Level of education tends to be the most powerful factor in stimulating fuller participation;
 - Occupation status and professionalism also tend to enhance participative behaviour; and
 - In homogenous societies, socio-economic status, economic activity and language, *inter alia* tend to enhance higher incidence of public participation.

Milbrath and Goels (1977:119) caution that, with regards to race and ethnicity, it is not primarily physiological and racial characteristics that determine the participation differences between races, but rather “the relative social position of social groupings”. This simply means that race and ethnicity might not necessarily have an impact on public participation but rather on the social position of the race or ethnic groups.

- *Public participation as a function of environmental variables:* The three factors discussed above relate to the “internal” aspects of a potential participant. Environmental variable on the other hand, relates to the “external” aspects which might influence potential participants. Milbrath and Goels (1977:124) indicate that environmental variables, such as the biological and physical aspects of the surrounding world, the cultural milieu, the socio-structural character of the community and the political setting, have an influence on public participation. Bekker (1996:65) proclaims that the industrialisation and economic development that the world experiences nowadays tend to bring “participation explosion”. This means that increased modernisation tends to bring a concomitant increase in the belief that ordinary citizens, who have traditionally been outside the political arena, tend now to become politically relevant and have to be accommodated and allowed to participate in the political system. Milbrath and Goels (1977:136-142) state that the following environmental aspects influence participation:

- (i) The party system which indicates that the less competitive the political parties in any particular constituency, the less the environment will be flooded with political stimuli;
- (ii) Characteristics of election tend to influence participation; and
- (iii) Regional differences, especially with regards to the position of location from the central periphery, tend also influence participation.

Although factors that influence participation have been considered, it is worthwhile to mention that none of them can exert an independent influence upon public participation. These factors are to a large extent interrelated and they should be seen and interpreted as such, taking into account the changing circumstances (Bekker, 1996:67). Therefore, any organisation that needs to enhance public participation needs to develop or update its strategy.

2.11 TOWARDS STRATEGIES FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Pettinger (2009:9) argues that organisations do not exist in isolation, nor do they exist without human dynamics. Therefore, organisations need to make progress, stay vibrant and do things better and differently. Stating it differently, organisations need to develop or update a strategy in order to improve their day to day activities to cater for the challenges that they might face. It is the assertion of Pettinger (2009:9) that successful organisations develop strategies by which they make progress and advances in pursuit of goals and objectives. Strategy is about laying the foundations for action (Pettinger, 2009:9).

The above-mentioned aspect regarding strategy clearly demonstrates that for effective public participation to occur, it is vital that a credible strategy needs to be in place nor be developed. When developing a strategy, an organisation needs to draw on all aspects of environment within which the municipality operates, as suggested by the system theory. Schutte (2003:11) and Van der Waldt and Knipe (1998:4) imply that a public organisation needs a suitable plan in order to achieve what the organisation aims for, irrespective of the change. In developing the strategy, they allude to the fact that any organisation should be able to identify the following four aspects:

- the mission or overall aim of the organisation;
- the transformation technology used by the organisation;
- the strategic and operational planning to achieve the aims; and
- strategic control.

According to Van der Waldt and Knipe (1998:4) organisational strategy is a process in which the organisation makes use of certain policies, procedures and resources in order to achieve the main objective of the organisation. In order to understand the concept strategy better, it is necessary to clarify nor define the concept, explain principles related to the strategy as well as different kinds of strategies.

2.11.1 Defining strategy

Hunger and Wheelen (2014:17) describe a strategy as a comprehensive plan stating how the organisation will achieve its missions and objectives. Mills *et al.*, (2002: 08), on

the other hand, describe a strategy as the determination of the basic long-term goals and the objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals. In turn, Austin and Pinkelton (2006:4), quoting Nicklos (2000), define a strategy as “the bridge between policy or high order goals on one hand and tactics or concrete actions on the other hand”. All these definitions point to one direction regarding strategy and that is, strategy is about putting thoughts and planning into tangible action. Bekker (1996:89-91) adds to the discussion by describing strategy as:

- a mechanism by means of which management gives direction;
- a link to normative ideals and practical incentive to realise the objective; and
- a practical management tool which constitutes a reflection of organisational operating environment.

Pettinger (2009:10) defines strategy as about having goals, aims and objectives and then creating the patterns of activities and behaviour that the organisation needs in order to aspire to and eventually meet these aims and objectives. In other words, strategy is about having the processes in place that make organisational life easy and productive to achieve its goals. Although strategy might seem like a pretty simple concept, having a good and credible strategy is actually a complex matter. For a strategy to be effective, it needs to comply with certain characteristics. These characteristics are (Pettinger, 2009:10-14):

- A strategy needs to be effective. By effective it is meant a strategy should -
 - (i) make or deliver products or services that people need and is meant for its purpose.
 - (ii) look to make progress, to change, to advance and develop, in order to do things better than before;
 - (iii) ensure that the resources are available so that organisation can do what it want and need to do;
 - (iv) achieve results by engaging organisational staff commitment and their expertise; and

- (v) afford everyone and everything to conduct their activities at the right time.
- Strategy needs to clarify every detail of purpose, priorities, conduct, behaviour and performance. Clarity in this regard means:
 - (i) sorting out where the organisational priorities truly lie;
 - (ii) figuring out how the organisation is going to conduct itself as it pursues its goals;
 - (iii) determining how the organisation is going to conduct itself as it pursues its goals; and
 - (iv) figuring out the ways of interacting with others in the organisation.
- Strategy needs to find purpose and direction. Since a strategy is a statement of organisational intent, finding the purpose and direction means -
 - (i) the staff needs and wants to know what the organisation is all about;
 - (ii) stakeholders need and want to know that the organisation they associate with has or intend to have a good reputation; and
 - (iii) customers or communities need and want to know that organisational products and services are of high quality including the value that they seek for and that there is value for money.

By addressing the above-mentioned issues and following strategy characteristics, organisations will be in a position to develop and maintain good credible strategies. However, before a strategy could be developed, decisions need to be taken regarding what kind of strategy would be best suited for the organisation under the circumstances. The reason being, organisations and environments differ, likewise strategies will also differ.

Pettinger (2009:17-20) suggests the following different kinds of strategies that can be pursued by organisations in realising their objectives:

- *Grand strategy*: This strategy defines the core or the hub of all organisational activities. Grand strategy is based on cost advantage, brand advantage or

something else that is of value to the community and which the organisation intends to serve. When selecting grand strategy, the organisation must provide value and benefits for which the community is prepared to be associated with and, if need it be, prepared to pay for the charges the organisation seeks;

- *Sub-strategy*: In this type of strategy, the organisation supports and reinforces everything that the organisation sets out to do. In other words, sub-strategies are needed for all the organisational activities. The importance of sub-strategy is that it can be integrated as fully as possible with the grand strategy. Examples of sub-strategies include, marketing, human resource, risk and financial strategies;
- *Incremental strategy*: With incremental strategy, the organisation takes small steps forward. If the organisation makes a mistake, it can withdraw early and adjust without too much loss. However, if the organisation succeeds in a particular effort, it can take more of these steps very quickly and the community as well as the organisation could see steady progress; and
- *Radical strategies*: Radical strategies are those strategies which set out to change the whole world- or at least an organisational position. Radical strategies are the complete opposite of incremental strategies, as they create excitement. Moreover, people are normally persuaded by this type of strategy. Here the organisation is doing something that it has never done before. With these radical changes, the organisation transforms ultimately, creating a new look. There is a saying in competitive markets of ‘the higher the risk, the higher the rewards’.

The above-mentioned strategies are much more applicable to the public sector. In putting itself in par with the private sector, public organisations can also adopt the following kinds of strategies, which are in fact businesses orientated (Hunger & Wheelen, 2014:17-18):

- *Corporate strategy*: This strategy describes a company’s overall direction in terms of its general attitude towards growth and the management of its various businesses and product lines. This simply means that corporate strategy is composed of directional strategy, portfolio analysis and parenting strategy;

- *Business strategy*: The strategy usually occurs at the business unit or product level. Furthermore, it is composed of co-operative and competitive strategy.
- *Functional strategy*: The strategy approach lies in a functional area, such as research and development, to achieve corporate and business unit objectives and strategies by maximising resources productively. Moreover, a functional strategy is concerned with developing and nurturing a distinctive competence to provide a company or business unit with a competitive edge.

It is clear that when a strategy is developed or maintained, the organisation needs to set its priorities right. By doing that, the organisation will be in a better position to develop or maintain a strategy.

2.12 THE STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

From the discussion above, it is evident that any organisation that fails to plan, plans to fail. Therefore, every organisation needs to plan for the future and prepare itself for any unforeseen circumstances. The survival of any organisation depends on how well it is able to strategise.

The generic strategic management process, as illustrated in figure 2.1 below, sets out the particular phase's organisations in both the public and private sector should follow to facilitate the effective development of a particular strategy. Such a strategy should ensure that organisations adjust to a changing environment and are well prepared for potential future demands.

i.	Obtain institutional mandate
ii.	Environmental analysis (internal and external)
iii.	Vision and mission statement
iv.	Strategy formulation
v.	Strategy implementation
vi.	Strategy evaluation and control

Figure: 01 *The strategic management process*

Source: Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:16), Austin and Pinkelton (2006:48), Pettinger (2009:34), Hunger and Wheelen (2014:67)

Each of the generic phases highlighted above is briefly discussed below.

2.12.1 Clarity on institutional mandate

There is general scholarly agreement that the first step in strategy development is the obtainment of an institutional mandate. According to Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:16), Pettinger (2009:22) and Hunger and Wheelen (2014:18) public institutions are increasingly subjected to political instability, policy adjustments and administrative regulations. Therefore, before any institution can develop a strategy, it should obtain clarity on what it is authorised to do. Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:16) further explain that the purpose of obtaining an institutional mandate is to inform key decision-makers of what is intended, to highlight the benefits and to obtain approval. Furthermore, such an institutional mandate should be obtained within the scope of broader socio-political transformation.

Depending on the purpose of the institution, mandates can either be formal or informal. Whatever the mandate is, it is vital for strategy planners to also include key stakeholders outside the institution. This could ensure that the eventual strategy is as inclusive and credible as possible (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2004:37-38).

2.12.2 Environmental analysis

After the public institution has obtained clarity on its mandate, it can proceed to the second phase of the strategic management process, which is to conduct an environmental analysis. Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:17) argue that the heart of the strategic management process is identifying and solving strategic issues. This implies that public institutions need to identify issues that may positively or negatively impact on its functioning.

Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1994:25) point out that an environmental analysis implies the process whereby a diagnosis or assessment is made of the institution's environments, both internally and externally, to determine the factors that may drive or impact on the institution's internal processes. Internal environmental analysis involves an assessment of the institution's internal environment in terms of its capacities and capabilities (Van der Waldt & Knipe, 2002:18). In this respect, Ehlers and Lazenby (2004:64) recommend that public institutions should utilise a technique known as SWOT. SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. A SWOT analysis facilitates a thorough investigation into the status of an institution's competencies and capacities, including financial, human and physical resources.

With regards to external environmental analysis, Kroon (1995:143-145) asserts that it should consider all the conditions and forces that may affect an institution's strategic option as well as defines its future status. These forces need to be taken into account when developing a strategy (Van der Waldt, 2002:14-15). Table 2.1 below reflects the typical external forces.

Table: 02 External forces

Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• a democratic society• emphasis on human rights• new labour legislation• transparency and equity• quality service delivery
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• the need to be “competitive” in order to generate work opportunities and national wealth
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• housing• health care• education• crime prevention
Technological	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• new delivery opportunities• opportunity to increase management and administrative efficiency• the demand for technological competence
Demographics	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• increased population• the needs of the disadvantaged• gender issues• representative

Source: Van der Waldt (2002:14)

The importance of environmental analysis in the strategic management process is that, when an institution is able to match what it can do with what it might do, this would allow the institution to pursue its vision and mission statements and to select, implement and evaluate strategies.

2.12.3 Formulation of a vision and mission statement

According to Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:20), in the public sector, an institution’s mission determines the social and political reasons for its existence. Ehlers and Lazenby (2004:48) argue that a vision is a “dream” that focuses on a desirable future

and is often referred to as being an enduring promise. A mission statement in turn provides guidance as to the more operational aspects an institution will pursue in order to realise the vision. Ehlers and Lazenby (2004:49) suggest that the main purposes of the vision and mission statements include:

- Providing a way for managers to integrate a wide variety of goals, dreams, challenges and ideas into one theme;
- Providing for strategic focus and direction;
- Forming the foundation for long-term objectives and strategic decisions; and
- Serving as a powerful motivational tool.

Taking these purposes into account, and upon completion of the vision and mission statements, public institutions should proceed with the formulation of a strategy.

2.12.4 Strategy formulation

The particular strategy that the institution wishes to pursue, should guide the institution to move from its current situation towards a desired state. Such a strategy should specify the “what”, “when” and “how” dimensions of organisational activities over a period of three to five years. This implies that these goals become the focus point of strategy development (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2004:120). Van der Waldt and Knipe, citing Fox *et al.* (1991:227), suggest the following analytical framework for strategy formulation. This framework involves three stages of formulation, namely:

- An input stage, which uses information to develop realistic alternatives;
- A stage in which practical and realistic alternative strategies are developed; and
- A decision-making stage in which the relative acceptability of alternatives is quantified and on objective basis for strategic decision is provided.

During the formulation stage it is important to focus on a specific product or service. A strategy that is not adequately specific will be unable to solve identified strategic issues. The formulated strategy should also keep short, medium and longer term objectives in

mind. The strategy should be clearly understandable, measurable and realistic to act as a mechanism enabling the organisation to achieve what it wants to achieve.

2.12.5 Strategy implementation

After formulating a strategy, it needs to be implemented. Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:23) state that strategy implementation is about the effective, efficient and economical utilisation of resources to operationalise the objectives specified. Ehlers and Lazenby (2004:176-177) also confirm that strategy implementation is a process that turns strategic plans into a series of action steps or operational plans.

2.12.6 Strategy evaluation and control

Strategy evaluation and control is the last phase in strategic management process. This phase provides feedback on strategic formulation and implementation as it evaluates results against predetermined objectives. In other words, it ensures that the institution is achieving what it set out to accomplish. In this regard, Ehlers and Lazenby (2004:232) explain this phase as the process which concentrates on evaluating the chosen strategy in order to verify whether the results produced by the strategy are those intended. In this regard Hunger and Wheelen (1993:297) view strategic evaluation and control process as a five-step feedback model, namely:

- Determine what to measure;
- Establish standards of performance;
- Measure actual performance;
- Compare actual performance with the standard; and
- Take corrective action.

By nature, public sector institutions are and should be under the control of the citizens. Therefore, when strategy evaluation and control do take place, it must take public interest into consideration. This is an important aspect in a democracy to facilitate public responsibility and accountability. During this process, strategies should be able to withstand the test of public scrutiny and legislative requirements. Should the results produced by the implemented strategy not be the ones that are intended, corrective action should be taken. It is for these reasons that strategic evaluation and control should be conducted continuously from the strategy formulation phase and not at the

end of strategy implementation only. This will ensure that unwarranted mistakes are identified earlier and rectified timeously.

2.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a theoretical background to the study. Public participation theories, their significance, benefits, disadvantages, forms and mechanisms were dealt with. The chapter also explored the issues related to the development of a public participation strategy.

The chapter further revealed that public participation and local democracy are closely related to each other. Both are inseparable in the attainment of good local governance. Local democracy, for example, requires the local authorities to take into account inputs from the community to stay informed about their concerns, as well as to gain insight into citizens' preferences. This in essence reflects public participation and as such local authorities need to recognise the benefit of engaging citizens in order to improve service delivery and decision-making. This in return will help the citizens to reconnect with their local authorities and increase a sense of local identity and ownership. If public participation is embraced by the state, the state can satisfy the democratic and educational objectives it wishes to achieve and at the same time enhance democratic and responsive governance.

It is evident from the discussion that the road to the design of a comprehensive public participation strategy is rather complex. Issues of public participation are often neglected by politicians and public officials and as a result they decide in isolation what is suitable and not suitable for the community. The inclusion of compulsory public participation in terms of the South African Constitution (1996) brought about a fundamental shift - from an inward institutional focus towards an outward community focus for especially the local sphere of government.

In the next chapter, the second research objective is operationalised by providing a theoretical overview of the second major construct of this study, namely community policing forums.

CHAPTER 3

A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter a theoretical exposition of public participation was made. The objective of this chapter is to provide a theoretical overview of community policing forums as second major construct for purposes of this study. This overview is necessary to place community policing forums within a public participation frame for the purpose of designing a participation strategy as focus of this study.

Many democratic governments around the world are facing numerous challenges in their developmental processes. One of these challenges is to transform their police forces or services from being authoritarian towards a more community-based approach. In other words, various governments and police forces are examining their activities to see how they can reinvent themselves to accommodate public participation (Peak & Glensor, 1996:45). South Africa as a developmental state is no exception in this regard. Since democratisation in 1994, the South African Police Service fundamental transformation processes to transform itself into a community-oriented policing service. A community-oriented service generally adopts a more consultative approach to meet the safety and security needs of the communities it serves. In this way it gains more legitimacy and becomes more acceptable to and accessible by the community (RSA, 1997:2).

In terms of Section 205 of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, one of the objects of the South African Police Service (SAPS) is to prevent crime in order to ensure the safety and security of the inhabitants of the country. As such, Section 206 of the Constitution proclaims that the SAPS has adopted community policing as a model to realise this constitutional mandate. A community policing approach is aimed at establishing and promoting good relations between the police and the community. At the heart of community policing thus lies the fundamental idea that the SAPS will not successfully achieve a safe and secure environment without the involvement of the community (NCPS: 1996). This implies that the SAPS needs to engage the community in policing matters and the community needs to participate in the SAPS structures and functions. In this way, a partnership relationship, joint ownership, and co-operation

between the SAPS and community will be enhanced. If this ideal-type situation can be achieved, the SAPS will be able to adhere to its Constitutional obligations and mandate. At the same time, the community will be able to benefit from a safe and free environment to live and work in. In other words, this becomes a reciprocal mutual beneficial situation.

Given this context, this chapter outlines the foundational framework within which public participation occurs within community policing forums. This framework is specifically placed within a municipal context. Community policing principles, the South African policing context, as well as international best practices are analysed.

3.2 COMMUNITY POLICING: CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXUAL CLARIFICATION

Globally, the ideal situation of partnership between the police and the community wilted over time due to the absence of adequate public participation. As a result, “selective companionship” became the order of the day (Mishra, 2011:11). Often public participation became part of the challenge rather than one of the solutions to effective policing in societies. An effective strategy for public participation in community policing has now become a necessity to sustain this community structures aimed at giving the public the opportunity to influence policing activities and priorities.

It is unsurprising that the conditions for policing in developed countries differ with those in more developed countries. Public participation strategies thus need to be adjusted according to the issues such as the availability of resources and policing infrastructure, cultural and demographical dimensions, as well as socio-economic conditions. Despite these differences, there is ample evidence that increasingly both developed and developing countries are turning to community policing as a way to strengthen policing functions and accountability to citizens (Salomane, 2010:5). In addition, Sholnick and Bayle (1985), as cited by Yero (2012:52), identify the following global trends regarding community policing:

- a shift from traditional approaches to policing towards a community-based policing approach;
- community policing shifts the police from being primarily reactive towards being more proactive in their actions; and

- through community policing, accountability by the police towards the community improves.

To study this new community-based approach to policing, Stipak (1994:894), Ebdon and Franklin (2006:488), and Yero *et al.*, (2012:52) propose that there is a need for more rigorous theorising and empirical research to model the causal relationship between policing and the community. The authors further suggest that especially public participation as an integral part for effective functioning community policing should be investigated. Both these suggestions are congruent with the purpose of this study to investigate the role of community policing in municipalities in general and to design a comprehensive public participation strategy for community policing forums in particular.

To avoid any terminological confusion, the sections below provide working or operational definitions for key concepts associated with community policing forums. It also contextualises and theorises community policing by focusing on the South African local government scene.

3.2.1 Conceptualising community policing

The concept community policing comprises of two words, namely 'community' and 'policing'. As such, there is a need to define these two concepts respectively to get a better understanding.

According to Sulaiman *et al.* (2012:968) many scholars have described the concept community as a group of people who do not only live in a region with fixed boundaries, but also unite in similarities in the way of life, beliefs and practices. The definition simply implies that communities can be regarded as people having a similar way in which they live life, and execute their beliefs and practices. To this definition Cloete (1993:29-30) adds that a community has a common identity, has self-awareness and shares certain interests. Nchona (1994:2) further add the geographical dimension of community, by stating that a community stays in a specific area or location and utilises common institutional machinery, such as a municipality. For purposes of this study a community can be regarded as a group of people who stays in a specific (municipal) area and shares commonalities in terms of beliefs, practices, identity, and interests.

A literature review on 'policing' reveals various definitions and approaches to the concept. Waddington (1993:1) asserts that the word 'police' is French in origin where it

means the 'good order' and 'administration of civil society'. Mishra (2011:2) explains policing simply as the role performed by law enforcement agencies. Ncholo *et al.* (1994:9) add that policing is the function performed by institutions tasked with the protection of citizens and enforcing a particular type of legality. This definition implies that policing might not necessarily be an exclusive activity of the police service or force, but may include other institutions which are empowered to protect people and property.

Bryett and Harrison (1993:19) add a further dimension to the concept by stating that policing entails a wide spectrum of functions and duties, with a significant proportion involved 'in a murky area of order maintenance where guidelines are minimal and discretion considerable'. This implies that policing is associated with police work where there is a perceived need to control societal disorder and meet societal realities. In this regard Ncholo *et al.* (1994:1) caution that policing as activity (i.e. verb) should not be confused with the police as noun. They (Ncholo *et al.*) describe policing as an activity characterised by protecting individuals so as to maintain a safe and secure environment in the community. In other words, policing is aimed at maintaining law and order in the community. Safety in this regard refers to all those aspects which relate to the visible protection of the person, whilst security refers to the peace of mind experienced by people. Policing in this regard could be regarded as the activities which are normally associated with police work (cf. Potgieter, 2002:55-56). The police as noun refers to the institution or organisational unit responsible for policing.

Based on the definitions provided above, the question may arise as to whether the policing function is restricted only to the law enforcement agency (i.e. police service) and its personnel. This question leads to a better understanding and description of the concept 'community policing'. In this conceptualisation the policing function is extended beyond the institution of policing, namely the police service. Morrison (2011:144) in this regard reflects that victims of crime (i.e. community members) need to give certain information to the police in order to investigate the case and to arrest the perpetrator. Thus, community members indirectly play a significant role in law enforcement leading to what is regarded as community policing.

Adams (1994:894) regards community policing as "... a shift from a military inspired approach to fight crime, to one that relies on forming partnerships with constituents". Stipak (1994:894) suggests that "community policing is a management strategy that

promotes joint responsibility of citizen's and the police for community safety, through working partnerships and interpersonal contact". Yero *et al.* (2012:52) describes community policing as growing shift towards "community-based crime prevention" all over the world through the use of citizen education, neighbourhood watches and similar techniques as opposed to relying only traditional instruments such as police patrols to prevent crime. In essence this becomes a major shift from the police being reactive towards a being proactive approach through community involvement.

Van Rooyen (1994:20) and Peak and Glensor (1996:72) add a unique dimension to community policing by describing it as a "philosophy". Peak and Glensor (1996:72), for example, state that community policing is a philosophy and not a specific tactic. This philosophy is proactive and decentralised in nature and it is designed to reduce crime, disorder and fear of crime by involving the same officer in the same community on a long-term basis. In other words, the police become the public and the public becomes the police, as both will be co-responsible policing. This philosophy is primarily based on a partnership relationship between the community and the police to find creative solutions for contemporary community problems, crime and other related matters. The above-mentioned definitions point to partnership and co-operation, both integral parts of public participation.

Trojanowicz and BucQueroux (1994:3) suggest a concise, but comprehensive definition of community policing, which is used as operational definition for purposes of this study. They regard community policing as "a philosophy of full service personalised policing, where the same officers patrol and work in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralised place, working in proactive partnerships with citizens to identify and solve problems". Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1994:3-4) further point out that their definition comprises of the so-called *nine P's* of community policing, namely:

- *Philosophy*: community policing philosophy rests on the belief that contemporary challenges require the police to provide full-service policing, both proactively and reactively. This should be done through the direct involvement of the community as partners in the process of identifying, prioritising and solving problems, including crime, fear of crime, illicit drugs, social and physical disorder as well as neighbourhood decay;

- *Personalised*: by providing the community with community policing officers (CPO's), community policing is intended to personalise the service;
- *Policing*: community policing should maintain a strong law enforcement focus. In other words, traditional policing efforts of reacting to crime still continue, but focus is shifting towards proactive problem-solving;
- *Patrols*: community policing requires the CPO to conduct patrols in the same area continuously, preferably in foot-beat, horses, bicycle or any other mode of transport, which can connect the CPO with its community on a personal level;
- *Permanent*: CPO needs to be assigned on a permanent basis to its community in order to develop partnership. CPO should not be rotated in and out of its community beats but should only work in his or her own demarcated area of responsibility;
- *Place*: community policing requires the police to decentralise its functions. This simply means that all places need to be demarcated in such a way that the CPO has personal contact and relationship with their community. Moreover, decentralisation of decision making will allow the CPO the autonomy and freedom to act. In this way the CPO is empowered to participate in community-based problem-solving;
- *Proactive*: community policing needs to be proactive in their actions, rather than being reactive. This implies that the police need to prevent problems before they occur or escalate;
- *Partnership*: community policing encourages a new partnership between the community and the police, which rests on mutual respect, civility and support; and
- *Problem-solving*: community policing redefines the mission and focus of police towards solving problems. In this way, success or failure of the police will depend on the qualitative results (i.e. crime related problems solved) rather than quantitative results (how many results). Nevertheless, both quantitative and qualitative methods are necessary and a healthy balance between the two needs to be maintained.

Based on the above contextual exposition, one can deduce that the concept policing, is not restricted to law enforcement functions performed by the police. Instead members of the community, individually and collectively, need to act as law enforcers by actively

participating in mechanisms that facilitate public participation such as in community policing forums. It should further be noted that the conceptual clarification revealed the significant emphasis on the need and importance for active public participation and co-operation. In the case of the South African Police Service (SAPS) this would imply that it needs to transform itself by forming partnerships with all role-players and stakeholders to fight crime. This, of course, further implies that SAPS needs to accommodate and facilitate active public participation in policing matters. Community policing is a significant instrument to promote mutual responsibility between the citizens and SAPS regarding safety and security issues.

3.2.2 Theorising on community policing

In the previous chapter theories regarding public participation were provided. It is, however, imperative to explore theories relating to community policing in order to bridge the theoretical gap between public participation and community policing as major constructs of this study.

Friedman (1992:11-26) and Yero *et al.* (2012:51-55) make a significant contribution by setting broad parameters for theoretical approaches to community policing and as such pave the way for an academic discourse. Normative Sponsorship Theory, originally developed by Tiedke *et al.* (1975), is proposed as one of the theories offered to explain the philosophical bases of community policing. According to Friedman (1992) and Yero (2012), this theory posits that a significant number of people have goodwill and that co-operation becomes a necessary factor towards building a harmonious community. The theory in other words, postulates that a community programme will be supported only if it is within the limits of established norms and standards accepted by the majority of members. Within the context of community policing, this theory posits that the police will be able to deal with crime more effectively if it has got the support of the community. It also implies that citizen involvement is crucial in the maintenance of safety and security. Trojanowicz and BucQueroux (1994:36) concur that the Normative Sponsorship Theory provides an effective theoretical base for the analysis of community policing. According to these authors this theory proposes that:

- for a community to begin any new effort, the effort itself must reflect the community's basic norms and standards; and

- for a community to come together to start this new effort, the majority must agree that the project is worth doing and that it is consistent with their attitudes, values, norms and goals.

A further theory that contributes to an analysis of community policing is the Broken Window Theory. This theory is especially advanced by Wilson and Kellings (1998) and is based on the assumption that if a window is left unrepaired, soon the rest of the windows will be broken. The sign of the broken and unrepaired window sends an indication that nobody cares so another window can be broken and nothing will happen (Yero, 2012:52). This proposition is relevant in public participation because partnerships are not easy to maintain due to different ideologies. However, if these ideologies are not controlled, the objects of public participation will be difficult to be attained. The opposite is also true. Braton *et al.*, as quoted by Yero (2012:52), state that the moment deliberate discourteous behaviour, such as drunkenness, begging, vandalism, disorderly behaviour, graffiti and littering, is not being controlled, a climate is created in which more serious crime will be committed. This may further lead to a situation where the community lives in fear, and is not willing or able to exercise their democratic rights. As a result, public participation endeavours might be hampered.

Trojanowicz and BucQueroux (1994:9), Wong (2008) and Yero *et al.* (2012:52-53) make a further contribution by proposing that the Social Resource Theory should be utilised to study community policing. This theory attempts to address three main propositions, namely:

- *Enlightenment*: people must be educated about the circumstances before they are lobbied to change. In other words, the public needs to be educated about the role and function of community policing;
- *Empowerment*: people need to be empowered in order to improve their conditions. This implies that the public needs to understand and value the community-police relationship; and
- *Emancipation*: this proposition implies that people can achieve the liberation through reflection and social action. In other words, this proposition sensitises the public regarding the importance of partnerships.

The Social Resource Theory attempts to re-conceive the idea of crime and policing from the angle of the public instead of the police. Yero *et al.* (2012:53) assert that, from the public's viewpoint, crime is a personal problem due to scarcity of resources and police inefficiency. Social resource theorists argue that the police is a social resource which should solve public problems. In this regard, social theorists imply that the ultimate purpose of community policing lays in the assumption that the police need to ensure better, responsive, responsible, efficient and effective police services. Wong (2008) describes this theory as "the theory of the people, for the people and by the people". This in essence makes it to become a theory of democratic governance, empowerment and a theory of self-help.

A radical viewpoint comes from the school of thought called the Theory of Indifference (Mishra, 2011:17). According to this theory, community policing is nothing else but a "publicity gimmick". Theorists ascribing to this theory assert that the police are already overburdened with their traditional work and trying to stretch them by interacting with the community is nothing else but a "sheer waste of time and resources". Furthermore, the police are funded by tax-payers' (community) money to protect and serve them. Therefore, it is the sole responsibility of the police to deal with policing matters. Any laxity or lawlessness in society is the true reflection of the incapability of the police. In essence, these theorists believe that strict adherence to the written legal book by the police is the solution to all societal problems.

The above-mentioned theories display how community policing could be interpreted and analysed from different perspectives and approaches. The theoretical models also assist in bridging the theoretical vantage points of community policing and public participation. In the next section the principles of community policing are highlighted to further frame the concept within the locus and focus of this study.

3.2.3 Principles of community policing

According to the Bureau of Justice Assistance of the United States Department of Justice (1994), community policing embodies two major components, namely, community partnership and problem-solving. Partnership implies the involvement of all community groups and relevant stakeholders in the participation process. Problem-solving involves the diagnosis and applicable antidote towards community ills. Both components should be supported by fundamental principles associated with community

policing. Trojanowicz and BucQueroux (1994:4-6), Stevens and Yach (1995:6-8) and Potgieter (2002:56) all concur with this assertion and contribute by identifying ten principles associated with community policing. These principles are:

- *Philosophy and Organisational strategy*: This principle notes that community policing is a philosophy (a way of thinking) and organisational strategy (a way to carry out the philosophy), that allows the police and the community to work closely together in developing new ways to solve, *inter alia*, fear of crime and improve the overall quality of life in the community. The philosophy rests on the belief that people deserve input into the police process, in exchange for their participation. The principle also states that the police and community need to explore creative ways to address community concerns beyond a narrow focus on individual crime incidents.
- *Commitment towards community empowerment*: A community policing strategy requirement is that everyone in the police should investigate ways to translate the philosophy of power sharing into practise. In other words, there must be a shift from a reactive approach towards a proactive policing approach in order to find new ways that can encompass challenging and enlightening people to find creative ways in the process of policing themselves. This situation would imply that community policing officials are given greater autonomy with regards to local crime prevention decision-making. The community also needs to exercise their rights and responsibilities by identifying, prioritising and solving problems as full-fledged partners with the police. This principle is also aimed at enhancing trust between the police and citizens.
- *Decentralisation and personalised policing*: Community policing requires the police to create and develop a new breed of officers who will act as a direct link between the police and the community. This would mean that the police provide the community with its own officials, thus an effort towards decentralised policing.
- *Immediate and long-term proactive problem-solving*: The police need to provide comprehensive policing services and find a balance between reactive responses to crime incidents and proactive strategies to deal with crime before it occurs or escalates. New and creative ways through which community problems can be solved proactively need to be explored. As such, this principle stresses the aspect of public involvement.

- *Ethics, legality, responsibility and trust:* The formation of community-police relations serves as a “contract” between the police and the community it serves. This contract is based on the premise of mutual trust and respect. At the same time, community policing challenges the people to accept their fair share of responsibilities for the overall quality of life in the society. Stating it differently, community policing requires the community to handle more of their minor concerns themselves in order to free the police to execute other police responsibilities. In this way, mutual accountability and respect are enhanced. The principle further implies that the police need to provide help where and when it is needed most.
- *Expanding the police mandate:* This principle expands the police mandate by including proactive approaches to the more traditional reactive approaches. The police mandate should be expanded to accommodate other government institution mandates, such as those of departments responsible for social welfare. For instance, cases of child neglect tend to be reported to the police although it is primarily the responsibility of a department tasked with social issues. By exploring this principle well, the police will be in position to make great impact on involving vulnerable groups in policing aspects.
- *Helping those with special needs:* This principle stresses that the police and community need to explore new ways to protect and enhance the lives of those who are most vulnerable such as juveniles, the elderly, the minorities, the poor, the disabled and the homeless. In South Africa, the promulgation of the Older Persons Act 13 of 2006, and the National Instruction 1/2014 (i.e. Protection of elderly people), are examples on how the current government and the SAPS apply this principle.
- *Grassroots creativity and support:* Community policing rests on the belief that nothing surpasses what the dedicated human beings, talking and working together can achieve. The community policing approach invests trust in the CPO’s by relying on their combined judgement, wisdom and experience to find creative new approaches to contemporary community concerns.
- *Internal change:* Community policing is a long-term strategy. In other words, the success of it can only be seen after a significant period of time. As a result, police officers need to adapt and execute the approach wholeheartedly. Meaning there is a need to change internal practise to accommodate this problem-solving approach.

- *Building for the future*: By providing a decentralised and personalised service to the community, community policing recognises that the public must be encouraged to think of the police as a resource that the communities can use in helping to solve contemporary community concerns. In other words, community policing cannot be viewed as a tactic to be applied and then be abandoned at a later stage. The community policing approach provides the flexibility to meet community needs and priorities as they change over time, thus building for the future.

The above-mentioned principles contribute to the conceptual clarification of community policing and accentuate the normative foundations thereof. Any participation strategy should accommodate and incorporate these principles.

3.2.4 What community policing is not

According to Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1994:6-8), Peak and Glensor (1996:69-79) and Fox, Van Wyk and Fourie (1998:194-205) the following are an overview of what does not constitute community policing. Community policing is not:

- a tactic, technique or programme which can be tried and withdrawn at a later stage if it does not work. Instead, community policing is a new way of delivering police service to the community;
- a “public relations effort”: Improved public relations with the community through the decentralisation and personalised service means the CPO are directly accountable to their community - unlike the public relations officer who is directly accountable to the organisation (cf. Moolman, 2003:29);
- an anti-technology: utilisation of new technology can greatly benefit the community policing by mobilising the community to participate;
- “soft” on crime: community policing does not encourage lawlessness, but rather involvement of the community on the short term through reactive measures and on the long term through proactive measures. In essence community policing emphasises that the police need to deal with the root causes of crime and not necessarily the symptoms. In this way, community poling considers, *inter alia*, arrests as an important tool in solving community concerns, but not necessarily the primary yardstick of police success or failure (Yero *et al.*, 2012:52);

- flamboyant: Incidents of police brutality, such as the much publicised Marikana massacre in 2012, and the flamboyant style of police are discouraged in the community policing approach. Police and community are viewed by each other as partners and respect each other equally (Nnadozie, 2014:294; Sebola, 2014:308);
- paternalistic: the role of police shifts from being a “sole player” to a “team-partner” in an effort to make community environment a better place and safer place to live and work in (Rohe, 2001:67);
- an independent entity within the police department: the CPO, community and other police officers need to be part of the overall strategy and a form of partnership in order to achieve common goal. This simply means that the community policing forum is not an independent entity within the police. There is no “they” and “us” in the community policing approach but rather “we” (Morrison, 2001:57);
- a top-down approach: the decentralising and personalising police service, the approach is intended to shift more power, authority and responsibility to the line level. This is done by requesting that everyone in their respective components find ways to express the philosophy in their work (Van Rooyen, 1994:20);
- another name for social work: formally and informally helping the communities to solve their problems has always been part of the police’s discretion. A community policing effort is just merely formalising and promoting a discretionary aspect, whilst at the same time maintaining a strong law enforcement component (Mishra, 2011:9-10);
- elitist: the goal of community policing is to ensure that the police are part of the community and this approach needs the support and direct participation of all members’ of the community. This implies that an average community member will also play an equal role to the highly placed community member (Morrison, 2001:51-53);
- designed to favour the rich and the powerful: the approach is not designed to favour certain exclusive people, but rather to extend the same courtesy, respect, responsive and caring police service to everyone, despite their social classes (Sebola, 2014:303);

- “safe” approach: the challenge to status quo and encouragement of risk taking indirectly eliminate an element of community policing being safe. Community policing implicitly includes allowance for failure and embarrassing mistakes, as it operates in a messy world;
- a quick-fix or panacea: the creation of a community-based problem solving approach can yield immediate success. Community policing is not intended to be a quick-fix or a panacea. Community policing invests in a long-term strategy designed to solve problems and improve the overall quality of life over time. In other words, community policing is intended to build for the future (Nnadozie *et al*, 2014:293);
- not just another name for police initiative: community policing is not just another name for police such as crime prevention, police-community relations and/or problem oriented policing. Crime prevention for example, mainly constitutes of officers whose duties include disseminate information on prevention of crime. Community poling on the other hand requires much more than that, as it requires the police personnel to engage in community-based problem solving that includes a strong focus on crime prevention but at the same time addresses a host of other problems, which can otherwise contribute to perpetuating an environment conducive to crime. Friedman (1992:23-24) asserts that co-operative relationships should therefore be forged between police and the citizens in an endeavour to enhance public participation.

As the foregoing attests, community policing has a precise meaning and having a police problem-solving focus.

Community policing, like any other governance function, is not immune to challenges. Below are some of the most significant challenges experienced by community policing. This perspective is necessary to ensure that a public participation strategy will incorporate appropriate mechanisms and approaches to effectively deal with some of these challenges.

3.2.5 Challenges associated with community policing

As indicated above, community policing can be regarded as an operational philosophy based on the preposition that the police and citizens should work together to deal and solve criminal activities in their respective municipalities. According to Sebola

(2014:303) this proposition is not without significant challenges. Within a South African context, Stevens and Yach (1995:18), Fox, Van Wyk and Fourie (1998:199) and Yero *et al.* (2012:53) provide the following overview of some of the most significant challenges experienced in community policing:

- *Recognition of the diversity within the communities.* South Africa comprises of many different communities who all have divergent perspectives, values, experiences, needs and demands. Sometimes these divergent perspectives compete against each other for police attention in a given geographical area. The result might be the resolution of a particular problem for one section of the community, but could lead to another problem for another section of the community. The police should therefore recognise the diversity of its community and strike a balance in an effort to make it inclusive. Majority views should not always override the views of the minority, as other community members will drift away, leading to public participation being a selective companionship.
- *Lack of community understanding of what community policing is all about.* Communities need to be empowered about their local police and understand what community policing is all about. Unless the community has a clear understanding of community policing and what role they are expected to play, public participation will remain challenged. Members of the community will not be able to come forward and their needs cannot be identified and addressed.
- *Working with other agencies:* Usually each agency will have its own priorities and goals. Some of the agencies may engage in community partnerships without taking responsibility for their results (or lack thereof). For example, some agencies might be good with identifying the community's problems through participation initiatives, but then avoid the responsibility of following through with appropriate solutions. Another challenge might be that different agencies pursue different approaches and may be out of touch with a particular community's conditions and needs.
- *Reorientation of police culture:* Change is a process and persuading police officers to adapt to the new realities of community policing for the more proactive nature of policing might be met with resistance. Police management needs to alter the existing culture with the necessary sensitivity. As such, management will need to "lead from the front and walk the talk". Unless a community policing approach is considered as

a way for working and doing police work which permeates the entire institution, it will remain vulnerable to non-compliance.

- *Co-operation and partnership*: Effective partnership management involves a reciprocal relationship and interdependence. The challenge lies internally and externally: internally in integrating the community policing philosophy into the workings of SAPS as an organisation and externally on how to ensure communities are prepared for their role in police-community partnerships. Furthermore, partnership needs to be based on equality. However, the police tend to dominate the process or even rush the process of public participation. This may cause the public to become discouraged and to withdraw from the process.
- *Gender bias*: Participation in community policing tends to be gender biased as men usually tend to be more involved than their female counterparts. As a result, younger people and women tend to be neglected in community policing endeavours.

As stated, these challenges should be addressed in any attempt to foster trust between the community and the police and to facilitate participation by means of appropriate strategies.

In the SAPS public participation is facilitated by means of the establishment of community policing forums. Below the establishment of community policing forums as a vehicle to facilitate public participation is analysed.

3.2.6 Benefits of community policing

Based on the challenges highlighted above, it is evident that achieving peace and maintaining law and order in any society remains a herculean task. Community policing, as stated above, intends to bring the police and the citizens together in order to prevent crime and solve neighbourhood concerns. It also emphasises the significance of public participation by providing the people of a given community control over the quality of life in their community. In this regard, Nnadozie *et al.* (2014:298) argue that in community policing, the police become the community and the community becomes the police. This implies shared and mutual responsibility.

Despite the challenges experienced by community policing, there are, according to Sulaimam *et al.* (2013:537) and Nnadozie *et al* (2014:298), certain benefits associated with it, namely:

- Community policing offers the CPO's self-satisfaction for solving community problems. In other words, it engenders an opportunity to be creative and innovative;
- Community policing enables the police and the citizens to make a "real difference" in their areas. This implies that mobilisation and empowerment of the communities to identify and respond to concerns tend to increase a positive community attitude towards the police and reduce fear of crime. Furthermore, improved police-community relations tend to offer police legitimacy and increase work satisfaction amongst the police;
- Community policing has a principle of shared benefits in a sense that it decreases potential police-citizen conflict, whilst at the same time increasing better flow of information between them;
- Community policing offers the community a voice on how they will be policed. In other words, community policing enhances partnership as the community is required to monitor and evaluate the service they receive from the police;
- Community policing tends to provide permanent resolutions to recurring problems, e.g. the CPO's should "treat the illness" and not the symptoms;
- Community policing provides a stronger, safer and friendlier community in which to live; and
- A security conscious neighbourhood is central, as the safety of the community is in both the hands of the police and public. As a result, community policing engenders effective policing at a reduced cost.

3.3 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION FOR THE EFFECTIVE FUNCTIONING OF COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS

Before the notion of community policing became commonplace, the public had been participating in traditional police work (Mishra, 2011:114). Traditional policing activities include the receiving of complaint; the registration of cases and the investigation

thereof; apprehension of culprits and putting culprits' case for prosecution. Stating it otherwise, traditional policing has been reactive in nature and it has always indirectly involved the members of the community. However, with traditional policing the community is generally oblivious of their critical role in policing endeavours and as a result their participation is largely passive, minimal or totally absent. Mishra (2011:114) asserts that the community became "coercive participants rather than a willing partner".

In contrast with traditional policing, community policing calls for a "conscious" partnership and collaboration with the community (Potgieter, 2002:56). Through the community policing approach, the community needs to be aware of their valuable role in co-operation and partnership with the police (Rohe, 2001:78). This partnership relationship is reciprocal in nature: the police will not be successful in their crime prevention endeavours without community assistance, nor can the community imagine safety and security without collaborating with the police. Both parties thus have to work in collaboration, understanding each other's needs, synergise their effort, and complement each other's strengths and weaknesses. The partnership furthermore needs to be based on trust, honesty and insight into the societal problems. In this regard Mishra (2011:114) emphasises that "there is a hidden potential of the masses to assist in policing duties to ensure that law and order is maintained, even in an intense crime environment. Every child, adult, or aged person must be prepared to act as a policeman wherever he/she is and whatever he/she is doing". Yero (2012:53-54) furthermore reflects that community participation is essential for police efficiency.

Stevens and Yach (1995:12) note that public participation does not necessarily mean physical involvement in policing activities and actions, but rather means a partnership by generating ideas to police planning, implementation and evaluation. By being involved, the community enhances their sense of responsibility, ownership, commitment, and awareness. This generally leads to higher commitments which in turn usually instil a sense of pride and freedom. In this way, the community is empowered to shape their own world.

As stated earlier, to reap the numerous benefits associated with community participation in policing, requires a mechanism. This mechanism comes in the form of community policing forums (CPFs). One of the core functions of CPFs is to obtain information about local conditions, needs, desires and attitudes. This information is

important for police to ascertain what the community expect from them to align their priorities with the community's needs, in order to provide good and quality service (Stevens & Yach, 1995:12). The process of listening to the community by the police generally shows that the police have given due regards to the community's concerns and that the police are willing to accommodate their suggestions in a public forum. Stevens and Yach (1995:12), in this regard, caution however that working together in a multi-agency partnership to achieve a common goal does not mean usurping the roles and responsibilities of the other. Clarification of the roles will ensure that each partner does not overstep on the jurisdiction of another partner.

3.3.1 Establishment of community policing forums (CPFs)

According to Morrison (2001:51) a CPF can be regarded as a group of people from the police and different sectors, including interest groups in the community that meets to discuss problems emanating from their communities. In other words, CPF members are representatives of the community who have been either democratically elected or appointed.

As indicated earlier, both the South African Constitution, 1996 and Section 7 of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995 place emphasis on the need for the community to co-operate with the police. In this regard, legislation provides for the establishment of community policing forums (CPFs) at all police stations in all municipal areas throughout the country. The development of the CPF through legislation lends official recognition to the fact that the success of the community policing rests on active participation by community members. Community members are urged to be directly involved and co-responsible for their own safety. This aspect points to participatory democracy as explored in Chapter 2. Thornhill (2008:71), in this regard, suggests that one of the requirements that the new system of local government has to meet is to promote democracy and community involvement at this sphere of government. Therefore legislation should make provision for public participation in this regard. In terms of the SAPS Act, each police station must have a CPF in order to facilitate public participation. Chapter 19(1)(2) of the SAPS Act describes the following objectives of CPFs:

- promote co-operation between the SAPS and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing;

- improve transparency in the SAPS and its accountability to the community; and
- joint problem identification and problem-solving by both the SAPS and the community.

Morrison (2001:51) indicates that CPFs can promote accountability of the police service in local communities by monitoring the effectiveness of the police service and evaluating the provisions thereof. Ncholo *et al.* (1994:1) argue that accountability is central to the concept democracy. In the great democratisation debate, accountability takes place alongside concepts such as transparency, empowerment, popular participation, consultation and sensitivity to human rights. All these notions are elements of local democracy and they play an important role in public participation and good governance. It must however be emphasised that although CPFs do not have executive powers, they can advise, serve and evaluate as monitoring mechanisms (Morrison, 2001:51).

Public participation requires an increased level of community commitment, co-operation and information (Stevens & Yach, 1995:36). In this regard, Van der Waldt (2004:117) argues that public participation provides the communities with a source of special insight, information and knowledge which add to the soundness of Government policies, thus ensuring that the public have access to the “tools” of democracy. This simply means the community needs to be committed and empowered in order to participate in the safety issues. As eluded earlier, CPF legislation necessitates public participation to be effected with the community representatives. Henceforth CPFs are utilised as vehicles to facilitate public participation with the police.

The challenge has been getting community involved and being committed to public participation or maintaining sustained participation. As such, this study argues that there is a need for a strategy to be developed for public participation for community policing forum in order to remedy the situation.

3.4 TOWARDS A STRATEGY FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS

Public participation does not occur automatically and as a result it is very important to indicate that for effective public participation to occur, a credible strategy becomes a necessity. Developing a strategy will draw on aspects of the environment within which the CPF is active. In the previous chapter, much has been said about the concept

strategy, the types of strategy and how a strategy can be developed. In this section, the focus is on how the CPF should incorporate the principles of strategic management in designing a participation strategy.

Strategy is all about choice. Strategy is important to any organisation as it relates about taking important decision-making issues about the future of the organisation. According to Goldman and Niewenhuisen (2006:21), strategy is important as it assist the organisation to think about information patterns and the creation of mental models to make it possible for people to understand the world they live in. The way the organisation can think strategically can be described as the organisation being creative, innovative; imaginative; responsive and conservative; rigid or no thinking at all. This thinking is necessary when deciding on the type of strategy to adopted. In other words, strategic thinking is associated with the organisation such as the CPF being aware of changing patterns and responsiveness to the opportunities that are created. Baker (2007:17), in support of this assertion, describes a strategy as the outcome of some form of planning in- “an organised process for anticipating and acting in the future in order to carry out the organisation’s mission”. Stating it otherwise, this implies that for a strategy to be developed, intensive planning needs to be done.

Trojanowicz and BuQqueroux (1994:25), Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002: 15-26) and Goldman and Niewenhuisen (2006:29-37) explain that when formulating strategy, the organisation needs to first examine the internal and external environmental factors, thereafter, decide on the best possible alternative for achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation. The two authors continue by suggesting that when a strategy is developed, the following key elements should be incorporated:

- *Audit*: A diagnosis or assessment (i.e. audit) of the current health of the organisation should be made. This would ensure that the strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis of the organisation are made. This will assist to determine the type of strategy necessary.
- *Needs assessment*: Organisational needs need to be identified by stakeholders, both internally and externally to the organisation.
- *Vision*: Vision should describe the “ideal” future state of the organisation.

- *Values:* Organisation's belief and basis for action need to be determined.
- *Mission:* Mission describes the organisation's purpose and spells out how the organisation's vision will be attained.
- *General goals:* After determining the direction which the organisation intends to pursue, broad performance targets essential for achieving the organisation's mission need to be determined.
- *Strategic alternatives:* This element implies that the optional courses for reaching the respective general goals. This element goes hand in hand with incremental strategy which determines that programmes need continuous assessment. Should it be determined that a particular programme does not bring desired objective, it can be changed towards another better alternative.
- *Operating alternatives:* Optional courses for reaching the respective general goals should be described.
- *Operating objectives:* Specific and concrete targets (operations and procedures) selected to execute the selected strategies for each goal should be described explicitly.
- *Implementation:* After determining the strategy, it needs to be put into action. A strategy without implementation is as good as a paper written on it.
- *Monitor:* Strategy needs continuous evaluation to measure against planned performance and actual results.

Taking these elements into consideration, this implies that the CPF, as representatives of the community, first needs to consult its constituency at a local level about their intended strategy (Stevens & Yach, 1995:1). In other words, before any plan can be drafted, the public needs to be consulted in order to attain legitimacy and a buy-in. This process becomes part of the systems theory through information exchange. This means, there is going to be reciprocal exchange of information. Ultimately, the public is able to participate and at the same time being empowered. These two connotations are important for sustaining public participation.

During consultations, community needs should be taken into account. These community needs should be incorporated to organisational objectives for the purpose of designing a participative strategy. The challenge could however be how to adapt a strategy that ensures that everyone's needs are met with care and concern. Adapting a strategy that empowers the community to be active participants and effective community based problem solvers, as proposed by the social exchange theory, could be a solution. It is important to allude that strategy in its application is necessary as it increases organisational control over its destiny; shapes the course of events and provides goals; allow for long lead times (Mills *et al.*, 2002: 7-20).

Circumstances and situations change and therefore it is imperative that the public participation strategy develops needs to be implemented, evaluated and monitored to ensure its relevance. The review and analysis of the strategy adopted will ensure that the organisation continuously adapts to ever changing circumstance.

3.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided the basic framework within which public participation occurs in community policing forums within municipal context. Moreover, a theoretical overview and principles of community policing have been provided.

Community policing as concept appears to represent a new proactive and collaborative mode of policing which encourages openness and flexibility. According to Dantzker (1997:198) community policing is both a philosophy and organisational strategy that allows the police and community citizens to work closely together in new ways to solve the problems of crimes, fear of crime, physical and social disorder and neighbourhood decay. Being a "philosophy", the successful implementation of community policing demands the acknowledgement of the three primary tenets, namely:

- Citizen involvement;
- Police participation; and
- Reduction of fear of crime and criminal activity.

Community policing emphasises that the police and the community should be more accessible to each other. In other words, the police and the public should strive to

bridge a gap that traditional policing might have created, by forming partnership. This partnership should be based on the principles of local democracy, public participation and mutual trust.

Community policing forums are the vehicle to facilitate police-public partnerships. Partnerships are not easy to maintain and therefore a credible participation strategy needs to be developed. Adopted strategy needs continuous evaluation to accommodate ever changing circumstances to remain relevant.

In the next chapter, statutory and regulatory frameworks regulating community policing in general and public participation in particular, are highlighted. This provides a third set of data in triangulation to guide the researcher towards the design of a participation strategy for community policing forums.

CHAPTER 4

STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Before 1994, South Africa was not characterised by a culture of active public participation across society in public affairs. This was mainly as a result of a system of separate development and secretes practised by the apartheid regime. The police as one of the organ of the state was no exception in this regard.

The advent of democracy brought a paradigm shift. This new paradigm of governance is mainly built on the principles of openness, transparency, public accountability and a shift on how the police in particular should deal with community mobilisation in the fight against crime. Cawthra (1992:161) submits that democrats broadly agree that one of the main aims of public participation in government activities is to restore public confidence tarnished by previous regimes so that genuine partnership between the public and governing authorities can emerge, in which consensus rather than coercion is the norm. This is no simple task as traditionally, police practices in particular have been secretive in nature. The police, through public participation processes, are required to consult and provide information to the community.

The primary purpose of this study is to design a public participation strategy for community policing forums with specific reference to Tlokwe Local Municipality. In designing such public participation strategy, method (i.e. literature review and interviews) and data triangulation are utilised. Data triangulation refers to the combination of data drawn from different sources, and at different times. This implies that different perspectives are taken on aspects of the study by answering the research questions. In answering the research questions and operationalising the research objectives, data emanates from three sources, namely:

- a literature survey to obtain theoretical criteria for analysis;
- statutory and regulatory guidelines, which comprise policy criteria for public participation process; and

- responses from the participants, which provide operational criteria for the design of a participation strategy. This data is also important in providing the status, challenges and possible solutions to the research problem.

After obtaining data from these sources, information will be analysed in order to design a public participation strategy. In this chapter, the second leg of data triangulation, namely the statutory and regulatory framework governing participation in community policing forums, will be put into perspective.

4.2 STATUTORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS

In most democratic societies, public participation has become a permanent feature to the extent that it has been enacted in statutes and regulatory documents. At the core of the work of democratic governance, the South African system of democratic governance puts public participation at the top. It is no surprising that to this end, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (herewith named Constitution, 1996) and other legislation passed since the dawn of democracy in 1994, make public participation a legal requirement.

As stated earlier, this chapter highlights the most important legislation that has created an enabling environment for the involvement of citizens in the affairs of the municipality in general and CPF in particular. In the first section, statutory frameworks governing public participation in CPFs are provided and regulatory frameworks follow.

4.2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

In terms of the founding provisions of the Constitution (1996), chapter 1, section 2 proclaims that this Constitution enjoys legal supremacy in the country. This implies that the Constitution is the highest law and all other legislation must abide by it. From the wording of section 2, the statutes, regulatory frameworks, the conduct of the executive as well as the conduct of the legislative bodies must comply with the Constitution. In other words, all provisions of the Constitution (1996) nullify any conduct or law in contradiction to it.

The preamble to the Constitution provides for public participation in that it commits to heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social

justice and fundamental human rights. The preamble goes further by stipulating that the Constitution lays its foundation for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people where every citizen is equally protected by law.

In an endeavour to understand how this 'will of the people' is generated in local government sphere, some of the provisions in the Constitution that enable public participation are put forward. Section 151(3)(4), for example, recognises local government as a distinct sphere of government, which is closest to the citizens. In terms of section 152(1) the objects of local government are to:

- provide democratic and accountable government for local communities;
- ensure the provisions of services to communities in a sustainable manner; and
- encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in matters of local government.

These objectives are in line with the principles of democracy, such as political equality as explained in chapter 2. Moreover, the 'will of the people' coincide with the definition of democracy, which states that democracy means the "rule of the people, by the people and for the people" (Birch, 1993:47). Section 160(4) of the Constitution further asserts that no by-law may be passed by a municipal council, unless the proposed by-law has been published for public comment. In this way public participation is enhanced as this stipulation gives rise to another democratic principle of popular consultation.

In terms of section 160(7), municipalities are also obliged to conduct their business in an open manner and that their sittings may be closed only when it is reasonable to do so, having regard to the nature of decisions being made. In this sense, municipalities should therefore include communities in their activities. By involving the communities, the public will be empowered to participate in policy-making, giving rise to a partnership relationship. This partnership is vital to municipalities, as the Constitution requires municipalities to maintain sound intergovernmental relations and co-operative governance.

As far as community safety is concerned, it is interesting to note that security services have been legislated in chapter 11 of the Constitution. In other democratic countries, this is not the case. Section 206 prescribes that the police need to mobilise the

community in the fight against crime. This implies that it is obligatory to involve the community in police activities. A community policing approach gives effect to public participation and ensure that police-community relations are maintained.

According to Fransman (2005:7), the kind of constitutional democracy, which exists in South Africa, is both representative and participatory. In the context of the CPFs, a representative democracy involves the election of representatives by the citizens to act as their representatives in the activities of the police. These representatives then represent the community in the CPF. Participatory democracy in turn refers to the on-going process of debate, dialogue and communication between the police and the citizens. This process is intended to give the community a voice on how to be policed and corrects or even balances the negative effects of representative democracy.

Van Rooyen (2003:130) cautions that community involvement and representation on relevant structures facilitating public participation should be balanced in order to manage processes effectively. In compliance with the Constitution, legislation governing municipalities should create this balance so that the constitutional requirement for municipalities to promote the active involvement of the citizens, is realised.

4.2.2 The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995

The South African Police Service (SAPS) Act 68 of 1995 derives its mandate from the Constitution, chapter 11 and in particular section 205. The preamble of the SAPS Act, section 15(b) submits that SAPS will:

- uphold and safeguard the fundamental rights of every person as guaranteed in chapter 2 of the Constitution; and
- ensure co-operation between the Service and the communities it serves in the combating of crime.

These submissions emphasise the need to facilitate public participation as co-operation will only be attained if the environment is conducive for the public to participate. In terms of section 18(1), the SAPS need to liaise with the community through CPFs. Section 18(1) goes further by stating the objectives of CPFs as:

- establishing and maintaining a partnership between the community and the police;

- promoting communication between the police and the community;
- promoting co-operation between the police and the community in fulfilling the needs of the citizens regarding policing;
- improving the rendering of police services to the community at National, Provincial, Regional and Local levels;
- improving transparency in the police service and accountability of the police to the community; and
- promoting joint problem identification and problem solving by the police and citizens.

These objectives contribute to the discussions of public participation and community policing by providing key principles of good governance and fostering local democracy. These principles are:

- Partnership;
- Consultation;
- Co-operation;
- Equal access;
- Transparency; and
- Accountability.

The importance of these principles in public participation is crucial as they legitimise political and policy decisions. Sections 19, 20 and 21 provide for the establishment of CPFs on local, regional, provincial and national levels. At the core of the establishment of CPF structure is consultation. The community needs to be consulted beforehand and thereafter representatives can be elected. Section 23 in particular deals with procedural matters of the CPF. Subsection (1)(a) submits that members of the CPF need to be elected and whenever it deems necessary, representative members can also co-opt other community members. It could be argued that these stipulations give rise to participatory democracy. Participatory democracy emphasises the fact that not all

citizens will take part in the final decision-making process. However, the citizens will be allowed to submit their views directly or by correspondence to elected representatives.

4.2.3 Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998

The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (MSA) 117 of 1998 provides for effective municipal structures to be established. The MSA follows the Constitution (1996) closely in emphasising participatory local democracy and local development in South Africa. This aspect is noticeable in the preamble of the MSA, which stipulates that municipalities need to fulfil their constitutional obligation to promote social and economic development, encourage a safe and a healthy environment by making with the communities in creating environments and human settlements in which the South African people can lead uplifted and dignified lives.

Section 19, Chapter 3 of the MSA deals with the objectives of a municipality and this section further dictates that a municipal council must annually review:

- the needs of the community;
- its priorities to meet these needs;
- its processes for involving the community;
- its organisational and delivery mechanisms for meeting the needs of the community;
and
- its overall performance in achieving the objectives referred to.

In facilitating public participation, the MSA compels the municipal council to develop mechanisms to consult the community and community organisations in performing its functions and exercising its power. The establishment of ward committees for certain types of municipalities is a mechanism facilitating this process of public participation. The objectives of ward committees are provided in Section 72(3) of the Act. This mechanism's main purpose is to enhance participatory democracy in local government.

In terms of chapter 4 of the Act, participation by the citizens in the affairs of the municipality has been identified as an important pillar in the establishment and operations of different municipal structures. Chapter 4 emphasises community

consultation as part of engendering and enhancing participatory democracy in municipalities. In other words, it is a legislative obligation for municipalities to promote community interest and community participation.

Section 74(a) of the MSA defines the functions and powers vested in ward committees. This section submits that ward committees may make recommendations on any matter affecting the ward to:

- the ward councillor, and
- the municipal council, the executive committee, the relevant may or the relevant metropolitan sub-council through the ward councillor.

Moreover, section 74 (b) of the MSA submits that ward committees have such duties and powers as the metro or local council may delegate to it in terms of section 32 of the Act. In other words, mechanisms or structures facilitating public participation, such as ward committees, may be delegated certain functions that are inherently council responsibilities. Matshe (2009:45), in this regard, argues that the primary challenge regarding public participation mechanisms and structures seems to be that municipal councils are generally unable to develop a system of appropriate delegation of functions and responsibilities to ward committees.

Section 81 of the Act further provides for the participation of traditional leaders. This section commands that local authorities observe a system of customary participation through traditional leadership. It is evident that the MSA places a significant premium on public participation as it provides for principles and mechanisms to facilitate the participation of every person including from previously marginalised groups. In essence, this Act promotes local democracy in a sense that power is exercised by all the people and not the elites only.

4.2.4 The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000

Another piece of legislation governing public participation in local government is the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, which provides for the establishment of systems for the effective execution of operational activities in a municipality.

The preamble of the Systems Act provides the objectives relating to municipal mechanisms and processes. One of the fundamental objectives of the Act is the active engagement of the citizens in municipal affairs, particularly in planning, service delivery and performance management. This objective relates to section 32 of the MSA in a sense that community structures through delegated powers, can be involved in planning, service delivery and performance management. It should be noted that while the MSA emphasises consultation, the Systems Act emphasises the role of the municipal council by providing systems and processes for participation of citizens in the running of municipal affairs. In addition, chapter 4 of the Systems Act makes specific provision for public participation. Section 16(1) of the Systems Act stipulates the obligation on municipalities to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance. This provision is aimed at the municipal council, encouraging and creating conditions feasible for citizens to participate. To achieve this, the Systems Act stipulates that municipalities need to, *inter alia*:

- prepare, implement and review municipal integrated development planning (IDP);
- establish , implement and review municipal performance management system;
- prepare municipal budget; and
- strategise divisions relating to the provision of municipal services.

The above-mentioned aspects are aimed at building the capacity for citizens to engage effectively with their local council on an informed basis. This would give rise to the communication theory as dealt with in chapter 2. Sections 18, 19, 20 and 21 of the Systems Act continue to emphasise the importance of information in sustaining partnership and participation.

Chapter 17 provides for the mechanisms, processes and procedures for community participation. In terms of section 17(1), participation by citizens in the affairs of the municipality must take place through:

- political structures for participation in terms of the Act;

- mechanisms, processes and procedures for participation in municipal governance established in terms of the Act;
- by appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures established by the municipality; and
- councillors.

In terms of section 18(2) provision has also been made for communication with community members who are unable to write or speak. In other words, no one needs to be discriminated against or excluded from participation. A principle of inclusiveness as contemplated in local democracy prevails. Section 22(1)(b) furthermore indicates that the Minister responsible for local government may issue regulations and/or guidelines relating to public participation in the affairs of the municipal council.

4.2.5 The Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003

Finance is the lifeblood of any organisation. Without adequate financial resources an organisation is unable to adhere to its mandate and operationalise its objectives. Likewise, if the organisation does not have proper financial management systems and processes in place, that organisation is unlikely to succeed.

The Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 (MFMA) provides for the financial management framework for local government. Section 2 of the MFMA submits the object of the Act as to secure sound and sustainable management of the fiscal and financial affairs of the municipality and its entities by establishing norms and standards to ensure transparency, accountability and appropriate lines of responsibility in the fiscal and financial affairs of municipality and municipal entities. As stated earlier, the principles of transparency and accountability are associated with local democracy and good governance.

Section 21 of the MFMA stipulates that there is a close relationship between municipal budget and the integrated development plan (IDP) of a municipality. The Act contends that the municipal budget should be fully aligned with the IDP. The IDP should be reviewed annually, given the budgetary resources and spending commitments.

In terms of the Municipal Structures Act a municipality should first consult its community before compiling its budget. This is done to ensure the needs of the community are taken into account in the drafting of the budget. The MFMA therefore urges citizens to participate in the drafting of the IDP as it gives effect to the municipal budget. This implies that by participating in the IDP processes, citizens participate indirectly in the drafting, implementation and monitoring of municipal financial resources. This indirect participation gives effect to participatory democracy. In participatory democracy, although all the citizens are allowed to air their views to governing authorities concerning a particular matter, they might not be part of the final decision-making process. The citizens can thus influence the process and outcome of the final decision. In addition, section 23 of the MFMA states that when a municipal annual budget is tabled, the municipal council should have considered submission made by citizens. In this way, participation could be enhanced.

CPFs as community-police representative should also influence municipal budget by submitting programmes that assist in crime prevention through the IDP process. These programmes will then need to be budgeted and catered for in the municipal budget. As a result section 21 of the MFMA will be catered for.

This concludes a brief exposition of the statutory framework. In the following section, the focus is turned to the regulatory framework governing participation in local affairs, including crime prevention.

4.3 THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PARTICIPATION

Regulatory frameworks are designed by organs of state and are aimed at giving guidance to the functioning of public institutions like SAPS in general and CPFs in particular. These regulatory frameworks are usually derived from the statutory framework and they provide more strategic and operational guidelines. In other words, they give specific direction or instruction on what needs to be done by a public institution to achieve its statutory obligations. Some of the most significant regulatory documents are highlighted in chronological order below.

4.3.1 National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), 1996

Generally, high levels of crime pose a serious threat to emerging democracies globally. Normally, crime results in the deprivation of the rights and dignity of the citizens. As

such, it (crime) poses also a threat to peaceful resolution of differences and rightful participation of all democratic processes. In South Africa, to deal with the rising level of crime after 1994, a National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) 1996 was adopted by the SAPS. This strategy came as a result of an extensive process of research and analysis, which had been drawn from the international experience.

In terms of the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) 1996, its objectives are:

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

From the objectives above, it is clear that the NCPS places public participation at the core of crime prevention. The strategy offers a paradigm shift from what has been known as “crime control”, which is reactive in nature, towards a proactive “crime prevention”, which is aimed at preventing crime from happening at all.

The NCPS comprises four pillars. These pillars are briefly highlighted below:

- Pillar 1 is also known as the criminal justice process. This pillar is aimed at increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of the criminal justice as a deterrent to crime and as a source of relief and support to victims;
- Pillar 2 is referred to as crime prevention through environmental design. This pillar is aimed at local government to focus on designing residential and business areas in such a way that the opportunities to commit crime are reduced, whilst at the same time increases the detection and identification of criminal activities.
- Pillar 3 is much more relevant to community policing and public participation as it is aimed at improving the public understanding of the Criminal Justice Programme. The pillar enables fuller public participation and enhances crime awareness to under-pin the development of strong community values and social pressure against

criminality. The pillar also involves the programmes which utilise public education and information sharing to facilitate meaningful public participation in the prevention of crime; and lastly

- Pillar 4 is known as the transnational crime dimension. This pillar is aimed at mobilising and co-ordinating border policing resources amongst different nations in Southern Africa.

Based on these pillars above, one can assume that there is a connection between the NCPS, public participation and community policing. The NCPS pillars emphasise co-operation, partnership, problem-solving and accountability. These principles are also applicable to public participation and community policing as discussed in chapter 2 and 3 of this study. In other words, one can safely deduce that a fight against crime can only be won when all stakeholders, including the citizens, join hands with the SAPS to work together towards this common purpose.

4.3.2 Interim regulations for community policing forums and boards (1997)

The interim regulations for community policing forums and boards were promulgated by the then Department of Safety and Security in April 1997. These regulations have remained temporary and have only been slightly revamped in 2001. The interim regulations are aimed at giving the SAPS specific guidelines for implementing and monitoring the process of public participation. The interim regulations have also given an indication on how the different levels of CPF should be established. It provides for the establishment of CPFs on local, provincial and national level. The interim regulations as such provide the general principles relating to the functioning of the CPFs and boards. It is interesting to note that one of the objectives of the interim regulations is similar to the one of community policing, namely to establish an active partnership between the SAPS and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can jointly be analysed and appropriate measures designed and implemented to sustain partnership.

Although it is almost more than a decade later, these interim regulations for community policing forums and boards have remained stagnant. Based on the literature survey it is suggested that the SAPS re-analyse and revamp them so as to make them permanent

regulations. Despite this shortcoming, these interim regulations remain relevant in community policing and public participation.

4.3.3 White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997)

The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997) was issued in the early years of South Africa's democracy and its primary aim was to establish a policy framework to introduce and implement key priorities to improve public services.

The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (WTPSD) calls for the fostering of processes of participatory democracy. Matshe (2009) asserts this aspect by stating that the process of transformation of public services requires that there should be mechanisms for public participation in order to create a better and alternative system to meet the demands of the public service.

In developing public participation mechanisms, the then Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) prepared a policy document known as *Batho-Pele*. This policy document articulates that the public sector needs to be governed by these principles. *Batho-Pele* is a South Sotho word meaning "putting people first". Within the context of public participation, the *Batho-Pele* principles are outlined as follows:

- *Consultation*. With this principle, the citizens should be consulted about the level and quality of the public service they receive and where possible, should be given a choice about the services that they are offered. This implies that the SAPS needs to stay in touch with its citizens.
- *Service standards*. This principle implies that the citizens should be informed about the level and quality of services they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect.
- *Access*. The principle emphasise that each and every member of the community should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled to.
- *Courtesy*. This principle encourages citizens to reject insensitive treatment as they need to be treated with courtesy and consideration.
- *Information*. Citizens need to be given full and accurate information about the public service that they are entitled to receive.

- *Openness and transparency.* This principle asserts that public sector needs to operate as an open book and the citizens should be told how all the state departments are run, how much they cost and who is in charge of the function.
- *Redress.* Through this principle, community complaints should spark a positive action from the public institution. If the promised standard of the service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, a full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy. This principle further emphasises that when complaints are received, they should be dealt with sympathetically.
- *Value for money.* Public service should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give the public the best possible value for money.

From the *Batho-Pele* principles, it is evident that the public sector will find it difficult to escape the process of public participation. Therefore, it is imperative that public participation should be endorsed as part and parcel of a free and democratic public service. The municipalities, in particular, should take effort to harmonise the environment so that public participation can prosper. On the other hand, the citizens should also be mobilised to assist in building a public participant service culture.

4.3.4 White Paper on Safety and Security (1998)

The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998) came into being as a result of the South African Government intensifying its policy approach to deal decisively with crime in the country. The White Paper comprises of three focus areas, namely:

- *Law enforcement.* This focus area is aimed at ensuring effective law enforcement and service-orientated policing by implementing, *inter alia*, targeted visible policing;
- *Crime prevention.* This focus area focuses on a pro-active approach by conducting all activities, which reduces or prevents crime. The main focus of this area is to enhance public participation. The citizens and other stakeholders are encouraged to participate in the activities aimed at preventing crime; and
- *Institutional reform.* The focus area is aimed at establishing public and private partnership to support crime prevention. This is done through community mobilisation.

From these key focus areas, it becomes evident that the conceptual guidance behind the White Paper on policing is that “all” activities (meaning law enforcement, crime prevention and institutional reform) should be integrated and inter-locked. In other words, policing in South Africa should be guided by the needs of the community and a sustainable environment should be provided by the police to facilitate public participation.

4.3.5 White Paper on Local Government (1998)

The White Paper on Local Government (1998) came into effect mainly as a result of policy debates, interactive consultation and research, which took place on the envisioned local government. As a result, the White Paper did not only lay a policy foundation on local government systems, but also created pragmatic directives through which new insights could be envisioned (Tshishonga & Mafema, 2008:363).

The White Paper introduced the concept of “developmental local government”. According to Fransman (2005:7), developmental local government refers to a “local government committed to working together with the citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs in order to improve the quality of life”. In other words, developmental local government is aimed at working together by allowing citizens to participate in public affairs in order to improve their own lives.

In terms of the White Paper municipal councils have been identified as a central role-player in promoting local democracy. This implies that the municipal council should facilitate the involvement of citizens in the design and delivery of municipal programmes and projects.

Apart from a developmental and participation focus, the White Paper introduced a notion of Integrated Development Planning (IDP). As stated earlier, the IDP is regarded as a strategic framework aimed at helping municipalities to fulfil their developmental mandates and engage with the stakeholder groups and local communities. The whole process of local government democratisation and transformation through the White Paper on Local Government (1998) has also recognised the significance of public participation in municipalities.

Enhancing the process of public participation further, the White Paper on Local Government (1998) suggests a need for a “smaller representatives forums”, which could be constituted as committees of a metropolitan council to ensure meaningful participation and interaction with elected representatives. In this way, the White Paper laid foundations for public participation in municipalities through ward committees and crime sector forums.

Van Rooyen (2003:132-133) and Bauer (2006:31-32) argue that the White Paper proposes community participation in local government by defining four levels through which citizens and community groups may participate. These levels are:

- Firstly, citizens should have the opportunity to participate in a democratic process to elect representatives to represent them in local government affairs;
- Secondly, citizens should have a platform to express their views before, during and after the policy development process to ensure that policies reflect community preferences;
- Thirdly, consumers and end-users should receive value for money, affordable services and courteous and responsible services. This level also relates to the principles of *Batho-Pele*, and
- Lastly, community members may participate in the local government affairs as organised partners involved in mobilisation of resources for development through business, non-governmental organisations and community-based organisations.

To achieve the above-mentioned ideals of community participation, it seems the White Paper on Local Government has also served as a basis for various legislation governing local governments. Van Rooyen (2003:133), however, contends that participation should not be regarded as an event, but a continuous and structured process that should focus on certain specific processes with particular outcomes in mind. In other words, public participation requires continuous and honest engagement. It should also not be conducted for the sake of being done. It should reflect the true ideals of participatory democracy.

4.3.6 Regulatory guidelines on Ward Committees (2005)

Through the provisions of section 2 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act highlighted above, the minister of the then Department of Provincial and Local Government published the regulatory guidelines for the establishment and operation of municipal ward committees. In advancing public participation, the preamble of the Regulatory guidelines on Ward Committees (2005) stipulates that being mindful of the legislative responsibility of ward committees in enhancing public participation in the local government:

- The local government recognises a need for ward committees to have guidelines on how to enhance public participation; and
- Designing the ward committees engenders and maintains the spirit of public participation in the community.

In terms of section 2 of the Regulatory guidelines the purpose of the regulations is to provide uniform and simplified guidelines on ward committees, ward councillors and municipalities in general in the establishment and operation of ward committees. Section 4(1) of the guidelines reaffirms participatory democracy in local government and describes ward committees as:

- an advisory body;
- a representative structure;
- an independent mechanism; and
- an impartial body, which perform its functions without fear, favour or prejudice.

Section 5 of the Regulatory guidelines further stipulates the functions and powers of ward committees. In terms of this section, ward committees do not have executive powers, but they can make recommendations on any matter affecting their ward to the ward councillor or municipal council through the ward councillor. One of the functions of ward committees in terms of these regulations is to create formal unbiased communication channels as well as co-operative partnerships between the community and the council. The Regulatory guidelines also provide some functions which could be

delegated to ward committees by the municipal council, but caution that no executive power could be delegated to ward committees by the municipal council.

Section 7 of the guidelines deals with the composition of the ward committees as well as the establishment of community safety forums within the ward committee itself. The community safety forum's main focus area is crime prevention and all activities aim at dealing with safety and security issues. It also provides for guidelines on operational matters (e.g. code of conduct) and other administrative procedures.

4.3.7 Guide Pack on Integrated Development Planning (IDP)

As stated earlier, local government has been identified as a key role-player in the country's developmental process. The reason for this is that it is a distinct sphere of government, which is closest to the community (RSA, 1996). The IDP process is meant to address this developmental process by arriving at decisions on issues such as municipal budgets, land management, promotion of local economic development (LED) and institutional transformation in a consultative, systematic and strategic manner. In support of this aspect, Mashinini (2008:96) alludes that the necessity for the local government planning emanates from the fact it has the potential to promote advocacy, participatory planning as well as mobilisation and utilisation of local resources.

The Guide Pack on Integrated Development Planning (IDP) was developed with the intention of providing guidance to the process, including enablement of different stakeholders to know and understand their roles and thereby increasing participation. The Guide Pack consists of six sets of guidelines, namely:

- Guide 1 is a general guideline overview which provides an introduction into IDP and a short summary of what the guide pack entails;
- Guide 2 provides guidance on the purpose, contents, process and institutional aspects of the IDP. This guide also provides interpretation in terms of the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000;
- Guide 3 provides guidelines on how to plan the planning process. It also puts a strong emphasis on the clarification of the roles and responsibilities, an organisational arrangements and alignment of planning process on various levels;

- Guide 4 is referred to as a toolbox and provides a variety of options for planning tools or techniques for crucial planning activities with hints on the applicability of the tools;
- Guide 5 is the sectorial and dimensional assistance on how to relate other (non-IDP specific) general policy guidelines or sector policies to the IDP process; and lastly
- Guide 6, which provides guidelines on the management of the implementation process.

Based on these guidelines, Matshe (2009:49-50), quoting DPLG (2001:6), submits that the Guide Pack on Integrated Development Planning (IDP) identifies the following advantages for communities' engagement in the IDP process:

- it gives the community an opportunity to inform the council what their development needs are;
- it guides the determination of the municipality's development direction;
- it provides mechanism through which the communities can communicate with their councillors and the governing body; and
- it provides a mechanism through which they can measure the performance of the councillors and the municipality as a whole.

In this regard the guide pack on IDP provides the CPF with the guidelines on how to submit crime prevention programmes through IDP processes. This implies that the CPF will be acquainted with mechanisms which it can communicate with the municipal council and governing body. Furthermore these IDP guidelines empower the CPF to understand the determination of the municipal direction and participate in the municipal public participation processes.

In summary it can be concluded that the Guide Pack provides certain policy principles on public participation and also refers to the emphasis placed on public participation by the White Paper on Local Government (1998). Therefore, the guide pack submits that the primary objective of public participation is nothing else but the promotion of local democracy.

4.3.8 National Instruction on Sector Policing

The National Instruction on Sector Policing was issued in 2009 in order to supplement community policing. It needs to be emphasised that sector policing was not intended to replace the community policing approach, but rather to supplement it.

After an intensive assessment of the first version, the amended National Instruction on Sector Policing (3 of 2013) came into being. From the assessment, it was suggested that sector policing should be used as a policing approach to encourage community mobilisation, interaction and building a culture of mutual co-operation and trust. Furthermore, it should not be regarded as the only operational and policing approach. Since the situations at police stations differ, it was also suggested that police stations should be in liberty to decide on the most suitable policing approach depending on the community they serve. In other words, the SAPS as a public sector organisation is obliged to consult the local community before they decide on the most suitable policing approach. Consultation in this regard implies that the citizens need to participate in the process to give this process legitimacy. Like community policing, consultation is the first step towards any process.

The National Instruction defines sector policing as a policing approach to support the implementation of the philosophy of community and partnership policing by dividing a policing precinct into smaller manageable areas to improve community interaction. Chapter 3 of the Instruction deals with the aims and objectives of sector policing. These aims and objectives include the following;

- Prevention of crime;
- Establishment of informer networks;
- Bringing the police service closer to the local community;
- Working in co-operation with the local community;
- Improving interaction between the community and the police service;
- Enabling the police to understand local problems by identifying and addressing the underlying cause;

- Rendering the quality service with the support of the local community; and
- Improving trust and confidence in the police.

From the aims and objectives above, it is evident that public participation is in the fore front of service delivery. The National Instruction on Sector policing (3 of 2013) is aimed at ensuring adequate interaction with the citizens in order to ensure participative crime prevention initiatives in demarcated areas.

As stated earlier, sector policing is not intended to replace community policing. Chapter 10(2) of the National Instruction on Sector policing (3 of 2013) stipulates that community policing may be used to facilitate the establishment and effective functioning of sector policing. This emphasises the interrelationship of the two policing approaches.

4.3.9 National Development Plan (NDP): Vision 2030

The National Development Plan (NDP): Vision 2030 is a plan developed by the South African Government with a vision for the next coming two decades. The purpose of the NDP is to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality in South Africa by the year 2030. This will be done by uniting South Africans, unleashing their energies, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capability of the state and leaders working together to solve complex problems (RSA, 2012:1). In other words, the South African Government intends to retain public participation whilst at the same time directing the country towards a new path.

Although the NDP does not yet have the status of a fully-fledged regulatory framework, it provides a guideline on what South Africa intends to be by the year 2030. In the foreword of the NDP, the former Minister in the Presidency, Mr Trevor Manuel, termed the plan *Masupatsela*. This is a South-Sotho word and can be described as the country charting a new course with a new story to tell. The study in this regard argues that, although twenty years of democracy in South Africa has had a good story to tell with regards to public participation, *Masupatsela* might be what South Africa needs to sustain participation.

Chapter 12 of the NDP focuses on participation with regards to policing matters. The enabling milestone of this chapter is that it wants to ensure that by 2030, all people living in South Africa feel safe and secure and have no fear of crime. This will be done

through community mobilisation (RSA, 2012:350). The NDP proposes the following five key priorities to achieve pre-determined objectives:

- Strengthening the criminal justice. A strong criminal justice requires co-operation between all departments in the justice, crime prevention and security cluster;
- Making the police service professional. This will be done by, *inter alia*, linking the police code of conduct and a code of professionalism to promotion and disciplinary regulation. Currently, this is not the case with the SAPS. Furthermore, the plan also proposes that the citizens should be involved in recruitment of competent and skilled professionals through a two track system;
- Demilitarisation of the police service. Currently the police are a para-military organisation and the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 suggests the police to be demilitarised to turn it into a civilian professional service;
- Building safety using an integrated approach. This means mobilising a wide range of state and non-state citizen involvement and co-responsibility; and
- Building community participation in community safety. This priority implies that civil society organisation and civic participation are critical elements of a safe and secure society. The Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) provides for local government to promote a safe and healthy municipal environment. Therefore, local municipalities need to play an important role in this priority by facilitating provision of community safety centres.

From the contextual discussion above, one can deduce that the NDP is about transformation and community involvement. As a result, it requires every South African to contribute towards the plan. This implies the citizens are required to participate in Government activities and at the same time take charge of their own safety. The success of the NDP will be judged by its ability to change the relationship amongst people, within families, between people and the government institutions, and lastly, within Government itself (RSA, 2012:2).

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has dealt with the statutory and regulatory frameworks governing participation in the CPF. Statutory frameworks set the parameters within which society in general and SAPS and CPF in particular must act. Regulatory frameworks on the other hand provide guidance in the functioning of the institutions and CPF in particular and they are normally derived from the statutory frameworks. In comparison, regulatory frameworks provide more strategic and operational guidelines than statutory frameworks.

From the highest legislation (i.e. Constitution, 1996), it is evident that public participation is a legislative obligation for every government institution. Currently, it is safe to assume that it seems that the current legislation has created an enabling environment for the promotion of the participation of communities in municipal affairs. The ideals of participatory democracy tend to appear more often than most in both the statutory and regulatory frameworks.

The National Development Plan's *Masupatsela* in particular provides the vision for South African Government. Through this plan, it seems public participation have become a permanent feature of a democratic South Africa. As such, it is vital that the citizens give effect to this vision as well as the proponents of the Freedom Charter, which states that "South Africa belongs to all who live in it".

Despite the enabling environment provided by the government to facilitate participation, the challenge has been how to achieve meaningful participation, with specific reference to participation in CPFs. There is hence a need to develop a strategy to ensure meaningful participation.

This chapter has provided the second data "leg" of triangulation and an important dimension for the design of a participation strategy for CPFs. The following chapter explores the challenges experienced by CPF members and other stakeholders by means of an empirical investigation. This investigation provides the third and final leg of data triangulation and is aimed at establishing further parameters for the design of the participation strategy.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH AND FINDINGS ON THE PUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY FOR COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS IN TLOKWE LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the statutory and regulatory frameworks governing public participation in the CPFs were presented. The chapter explored the legislative avenues Government pursued to regulate the participation and involvement of citizens in the affairs of municipalities. The chapter further revealed that the participation of citizens in municipal governance activities has become a prerequisite for effective developmental and operational local government. The statutory and regulatory framework therefore place citizens central as an important defining feature of municipalities in the new democratic dispensation in South Africa.

Despite public participation being legislated in South Africa, this process has not been without challenges. These challenges pose a threat to democratic processes and general transparency in governance and as such need to be addressed to revitalise and sustain a culture of openness, involvement and participation.

In this chapter, focus is placed on the empirical investigation into public participation in Community Policing Forums (CPF) in Tlokwe Local Municipality (TLM). The chapter further presents the findings on the design and content of a public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM.

5.2 FOCUS OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

The focus of this empirical investigation is aimed at addressing the main research problem as highlighted in chapter 1. The investigation thus has the purpose to operationalise the primary and secondary objectives emanating from the research problem.

According to Chaka (2013:107), empirical research can be described as research based on investigation and observation. In other words, empirical research is mainly concerned with what is knowable and potentially measurable. This implies that researchers must be able to perceive, classify and measure what they have studied and

reject speculative or obstructive reasoning. As such, empirical research is a valuable means for testing central theoretical statements or hypotheses.

The terms “empirical” and “empiricism” are derived from a Greek word which means “information given by experience, involvement, observation or experiment” (investigation) (Dictionary online, 2014). As pointed out by Chaka (2013:107) the central notion is that scientific evidence or information must be empirically validated.

In this study, empirical research goes beyond the simple obtaining of data for the development of a public participation strategy for CPFs of the TLM in that it also combines extensive research with a detailed analysis of the phenomenon. In return this data is then interpreted and specific recommendations are made.

5.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Hussey and Hussey (1997:1) point out that research is a broad concept and that there is limited consensus on its conceptual demarcation. For Van As and Van Schalkwyk (2001:7) research is a formal, systematic and intensive data collection and its scientific analysis, with a view to discovery, problem-solving and knowledge development. Welman and Kruger (1999:2) add to this that research can be regarded as a process which involves the application of various methods and techniques in order to create scientifically obtained knowledge by using objective methods and procedures. This implies that research is about answering unanswered questions. It is also aimed at problem-solving or creating knowledge which does not currently exist. It is, therefore, not just information gathering but also the discovery and creation of knowledge which lie at the heart of research. In this regard, Leedy and Ormond (2001:4-8) assert research as “a systematic quest for undiscovered knowledge. Good research is systematic in that it is planned, organised and has a specific goal”.

Adams & Schvaneveldt (1986:16) define research methodology as the application of scientific procedures, aimed at acquiring answers to a wide variety of research questions. In support of this definition Nealer (2009:2) and Brynard and Hanekom (2006:35) add that research methodology can be regarded as a means to deal with “what scientific knowledge is” and secondly, with methods to apply or follow” to attain scientific knowledge. In fact, the word “methodology” refers to “how to get from point A to point B”. This implies how to get from the starting position to the point where scientific

knowledge is achieved. In simple terms, the study of methodology means nothing more than to understand that methods are used to achieve the goal of scientific knowledge about something.

Thomas and Smith (2003:57) point out that appropriateness of research methodology is pivotal for any study to be successfully undertaken. For the mere fact that this research study is concerned with a public participation strategy for CPFs, qualitative rather than quantitative research was chosen due to its relevance and suitability of this study as outlined in chapter 1.

5.3.1 Qualitative research design

According to Chadwick, Bahr and Albrecht (1984:206) qualitative research refers to those research strategies such as participation in the activity being investigated, field work and how this allows the researcher to obtain first-hand information or knowledge about the phenomenon under investigation. These authors further argue that qualitative research allows the researcher “to get close” to data, thereby developing so-called “thick” analytical and conceptual explanations and facilitating the identification of categorical components from the data itself, rather than from preconceived, rigidly structured and highly quantified techniques. This argument is supported by Leedy and Ormond (2001:147-148), Zaaiman (2009:37) and Motale (2012:102), who add that qualitative research firstly focuses on phenomena that occurs in natural settings, that is, in the “real world” and secondly focuses on studying those phenomena in all its complexity. This implies that a qualitative researcher rarely tries to simplify what they observe. Instead, they are interested in understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds and what meaning they attribute to their experiences. Furthermore, the qualitative researcher recognises that the issue they are studying has many dimensions and layers, so they try to portray the issue in its multi-faceted format (Leedy & Ormond, 2001:147-148).

According to Leedy (1993:140) qualitative research should comprise the following characteristics:

- Words should be considered as the elements of data;
- It should be primarily an inductive approach to data analysis and result in theory development as an outcome of data analysis; and

- It should be an alternative to the experimental method.

In qualitative research it should be noted that there are various research designs which can be utilised to operationalise study objectives. These research designs include ethnography, phenomenology, case study, grounded theory and action research. As stated in the research heading and chapter 1, a case study design has been chosen for purposes of this study.

5.3.2 Case study design and units of analysis

According to Maree (2013:81) a research design can be defined as a procedure or guideline for conducting research under certain conditions. A design, as such, is a plan of how one intends to accomplish a particular task, and in research this plan provides a structure that informs the researcher which theories, methods and instruments the study will be based on. It is therefore a plan or structure of selecting participants, research sites and data collection procedures to answer the research questions. In essence, research design is aimed at providing credible results. Credibility in this regard refers to the extent to which the results approximate reality and are judged to be trustworthy.

As stated earlier a case study is a design chosen for this study. According to De Vos *et al.* (2011:320) and Maree (2013:83) case studies are understood to be a decision regarding what is to be studied and not a methodological decision, although it guides us on how an enquiry is to be conducted from any theoretical approach. As such Creswell (2007:73) and Maree (2013:83) define a case study as “an in-depth exploration from multiple perspective of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, and programme or system in real life context. It is research based, inclusive of different methods and is evidence led”. In other words, case studies are aimed at understanding the case in depth in its natural settings, acknowledging its complexity and context.

De Vos *et al.* (2011:321) explain that there are three types of case studies, namely:

- The descriptive case study, which is also called intrinsic case study that strives to describe, analyse and interpret a particular phenomenon;
- The explanatory case study, which is also called the instrumental case study. This case study is both theory building and testing. The explanatory case study can be

particularly useful for producing theory and new knowledge, which may inform policy development; and lastly

- The collective case study is an instrumental case study extended to a number of cases. These cases are chosen so that comparisons can be made between cases and concepts and in this way theories can also be extended and validated.

Even though a case study usually investigates one case from which multidimensional data are collected and analysed, it does not, however claim representativeness. Therefore, the researcher needs to be careful not to over-generalise the findings (Maree, 2013:83-84).

Cases may comprise single or multiple units of analysis for investigation purposes. A unit of analysis refers to a process, activity, event, programme, individual or multiple individuals. It may also refer to a period. The explanation and description of the units of analysis generally take place through detailed in-depth collection methods involving multiple sources of information that are rich in context, such as interviews, documents, observations and archival records (Auriacombe & Mouton, 2007:445; Maree, 2013:83-84).

In this study four units of analysis within Tlokwe Local Municipality (TLM), as single case study, were identified. These units are:

- Police Station Commanders;
- Community Policing Officers and ordinary police officials;
- Community Policing Forum (CPF) members; and
- Ordinary citizens interacting with the CPF.

5.3.3 Target population and sampling

The term “population” is used to set boundaries on the study units and refers to individuals in the universe who possess specific characteristics (De Vos *et al.*, 2011:223). In addition, Maree (2013:69) asserts that target population generally consists of all the people that the researcher is interested in studying. As stated in the preceding chapters, the study has been conducted in police stations around Tlokwe

Local Municipality. The target population include station commanders of the respective police stations, CPF executive members, ordinary police officials and community members in general.

Since it is usually not possible for researchers to include all members of the population of interest in their studies, the researcher opt to sample (Burger & Silima, 2006:657). According to De Vos *et al.* (2011:223-224) a sample comprises of elements or a subset of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study, or it can be viewed as a subject of measurements drawn from a population. This simply means a sample group is normally much smaller than the total number of people in the total population, but is usually intended to be representative of the original group (Maree, 2013:69). In other words, sampling enables the researcher to select a few from the population to get understanding of the whole population.

Babbie (2010:193) argues that it is important to select a sample on the basis of knowledge of a population, its elements and purpose of the study. The sample of this study was purposively selected in consideration of its appropriateness for the fulfilment of the objectives of the study. Purposive sampling utilised is based entirely on the judgement of the researcher in that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristics, representative or typical attributes of the population that serve the purpose of the study best (De Vos *et al.*, 2011:232). Being a Police Officer, the researcher of this study possesses thorough knowledge of the case, target population and the units of analysis.

A total sample of 55 participants from the above-mentioned variations of the population was selected. As a data collection method, semi-structured interviews were conducted with these participants.

5.3.4 Data collection

There are different types of research methods which the researcher can utilise to collect data, such as interviews, observation and surveys. As stated in chapter 1, Schutte (2006:158) points out that multiple data-collection methods can be utilised in a single case study. The gathering of data was therefore accomplished by means of personal semi-structured interviews and document analysis. Merriam (1998:70) asserts that data can be defined as “bits and pieces of information found in the environment”.

5.3.4.1 Interview as data-collection method

Brynard and Hanekom (2006:39), De Vos *et al.* (2011:342), and Maree (2013:89) argue that interviews are the most frequent and predominant mode of data or information collection in qualitative research. Through the interview the researcher asks participants questions to learn about their ideas, beliefs, views and opinions. This implies that interviews are generally aimed at acquiring rich and descriptive information that will enable the researcher to understand the social reality of the participants (Maree, 2011:342). In this regard, De Vos *et al.* (2011:232) are of the opinion that interviews are instruments for social relationship-building, designed to exchange information between the participants and the researcher.

According to Maree (2013: 89-90) and Flick (2011:112-118) there are several types of interviews, each with their own benefits and disadvantages, namely:

- **Structured interview.** This method is fixed in structure and uses pre-established questions that are asked in a pre-determined order. This method is commonly used with a large sample group to ensure uniformity and consistency.
- **Semi-structured interviews.** This type of interview is neither fully fixed nor fully free and is commonly viewed as being flexible. With this method, a researcher generally begins with a defined questioning plan, but utilises a more conversational style of interview. In other words, the participants are given almost full liberty to discuss reactions, opinions and behaviour on a particular issue. Maree (2013:89), however, cautions against being side tracked by aspects that are not related to the study.
- **Unstructured interview.** This type of interview is at the other end of the spectrum in terms of its lack of structure. The researcher uses a conversational style to acquire information, attributes and beliefs around certain themes, without using predetermined questions. In other words, this method is a direct opposite of structured interview. De Vos *et al.*, (2011:347-348) contends that unstructured interviews are conducted without utilising any of the researcher's prior information, experiences or opinions of a particular area.

This research employed semi-structured interviews where face to face interviews were conducted with selected participants. The interviewer listened attentively and made some notes from the interviewees' responses. Van der Waldt (2004:62) argues that

semi-structured interviews are versatile methods of data collection and limit vague responses. However, like any other data collection method, semi-structured interviews have their own benefits and limitations, which the researcher took note of during the gathering of data.

5.3.4.1.1 Advantages of semi-structured interviews

Brynard and Hanekom (2006:46) and De Vos *et al.* (2011:352-361) contend that semi-structured interviews have the following specific advantages:

- Interviewers are able to explain matters that are not clear to the participants;
- An interview schedule can be prepared beforehand. This schedule may guide the researcher with a set of pre-determined questions;
- They are relatively easy to administer;
- Data unrelated to the study can be discarded at an earlier stage;
- Semi-structured interviews do not require participants to be able to read and write;
- They offer the opportunity to access non-verbal cues that can offer thick description;
- Time taken to conduct the interviews might enable a good rapport to develop between the interviewer and interviewee;
- They allow the interviewer to identify the participants; and
- They guarantee that all questions will be covered because they are controlled by the interviewer.

5.3.4.1.2 Disadvantages of semi-structured interviews

Limitations of semi-structured interviews include, *inter alia*:

- they are relative time consuming and can be expensive to administer;
- due to the personal nature of the interview, many participants tend to fear to commit themselves by telling the truth (i.e. offers less anonymity);

- they require interviewers to have good listening skills and interview techniques; and
- the interviewer is bounded by confinements of the content of the interview schedule.

5.3.4.1.3 Development of an interview schedule

The interview schedule guideline for this study was developed with the sole purpose of determining the perceived challenges facing the CPFs in facilitating adequate public participation in TLM. Based on these challenges, the researcher intends to develop or refine a public participation strategy for CPFs. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of the information provided to the researcher. This was done to encourage the participants to be more sincere and truthful in their responses.

The interview schedule followed the theoretical guidelines obtained in chapters two, three and four of the study. The following aspects were avoided, as cautioned by Maree (2013:89):

- Long and complex questions which could be unclear to the participants;
- Leading statements, so as to allow the participants to do most of the talking; and
- Double-barrelled questions in order to avoid confusing participants.

The above-mentioned aspects ensured that the researcher complied with the scientific conventions and ethical standards as required by the North-West University. The content of the interview schedule was divided into four main sections, namely:

- *Section A:* This section focused on station commanders of the three respective police stations as the head of the management within TLM. The section comprised of 13 questions of which three were biological ones.
- *Section B:* This section comprised of 14 questions and the target group was members of the current CPF structures.
- *Section C:* focuses on ordinary police officials who were not actually part of the management as well as those police whose primary duties involved community policing. 14 questions were formulated for this section
- *Section D:* targeted ordinary members of the community and 11 questions were formulated.

These four respective schedules are attached as annexures at the end of the study.

As stated earlier, questions posed relate to perceived challenges experienced by the CPFs in facilitating adequate public participation within TLM and what the CPF should include in a strategy to enhance adequate public participation. All questions were structured based on the theoretical discussion presented in the first three chapters of this study. The data which was collected was utilised to test the following central theoretical statements:

- Adequate public participation necessitate equality and as such CPF must be transparent to ensure that the people are afforded equal opportunity to participate (Please note that theoretical literature relating to this aspect were discussed in chapters 2 and 3);
- Without involvement of the community, the SAPS will find it difficult to achieve its constitutional mandate (Please note that theoretical literature relating to this aspect were discussed in chapters 2 and 3);
- Co-operation between SAPS and community ultimately leads to the creation of effective ways to solve the community problems and create a safe and secure environment (Please note that the theoretical underpinnings relating to this aspect were discussed in chapters 2 and 3).

5.3.5 Measurement

Brynard and Hanekom (2006:47) assert that it is important that research questions, research objectives and central theoretical statements should be tested during the research. To achieve this, measuring instruments should be applied to test or measure the validity and reliability of the methods of data collection.

According to Hussey and Hussey (1997:78) and Brynard and Hanekom (2006:47-48) validity refers to the potential of a design as an instrument to achieve or measure what it is supposed to achieve or measure. In other words, validity is concerned with the “what” of data collection procedures and measures.

Reliability on the other hand is primarily concerned with dependability, consistency, accuracy and predictability. In this regard, Hussey and Hussey (1997:78) and Brynard and Hanekom (2006:48) define reliability as the same instrument being able to obtain

the same results in the same conditions, if the same research were to be repeated by other researcher.

As explained in chapter 1, the study utilised both method and data triangulation to improve the study's validity and reliability. One advantage of triangulation is that different sources are utilised to complement each other in an effort to obtain corroboration of results.

5.4 DATA ANALYSIS

During the process of data collection, the researcher is engaged in what can be referred to as a preliminary analysis of data. It is during this phase of the research study that the researcher discards data which is not relevant to the research project and retains only the relevant data (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006:60).

In addition, Mouton (2012:108) asserts that following the data collection phase, is the analysis and interpretation phase of the information collected, with a view of drawing a conclusion. The process of data collection and data analysis can also be conducted simultaneously (Van As & Van Wyk, 2001:60). This implies that data needs to be analysed by the researcher with reference to the results of interviews, and then be processed and evaluated. In other words, the researcher analyses the available data in order to determine what it "says" using a synthesis analysis. According to Van As and Van Wyk (2001:61) synthesis combines isolated pieces of information that are yet theoretically unconnected. This has been done through induction, which is a form of reasoning that entails a definite move in the data from the specific to the more general.

In summary Cloete (2007:513), citing Babbie and Mouton (2005:49), broadly refers to this qualitative data analysis as "... all forms of analysis of data that was gathered using qualitative techniques, regardless of paradigm used to govern the research". In other words, qualitative data analysis normally consists of narrative descriptions, explanations and or prediction of process and behaviour patterns, related to a specific issue under consideration. The importance of data analysis is therefore to interpret and integrate the viewpoints of different authors to create a "new" body of knowledge.

In this study, data analysis was done by "hand". In other words, data analysis was done manually without the aid of any computerised qualitative analysis programme. The

Tesch's eight-step process as developed by Terch's was helpful in this regard (Tersch, 1990:142-145).

The results from the analysis are descriptive and graphically presented in the form of tables and graphs. Although there are many forms and graphs available to the researcher to present data to the reader, this study presented the majority of information in the form of pie-chart. According to Chaka (2013:117) a pie chart is used to chart only one variable at a time in the form of percentage of the whole. The chart is then divided into slices representing a total of 100%. The overall results for each section were then summarised and presented in the form of a bar chart. A bar chart contains solid vertical bars separated by space and summarises more than one variable at one time (Chaka, 2013:118).

5.5 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This section details the results obtained from the data analysis explained in the sections with the main objectives of the study being to present the findings systematically and clearly (cf. Thomas & Smith, 2003:18)

5.5.1 Section A: Interview with station commanders

As stated earlier, the interview compromised of two stanzas of questions. The first stanza consists of three questions relating to the biographical profile of participants. As far as the biographical profile of station commanders are concerned, their average length of service in the SAPS is 25,63 years. The average length of service in their position as station commander is 3, 5 years. These statistics reflect that the participants have more than adequate experience in the field of community policing and issues of community participation in the affairs of policing, to make a meaningful contribution to this study. The station commanders are furthermore on average residing in Tlokwe Municipality for 27 years. They thus have ample knowledge about community policing and the functioning of CPFs in the area. Figure 5.1 below reflects the profile of station commanders as the first group of respondents.

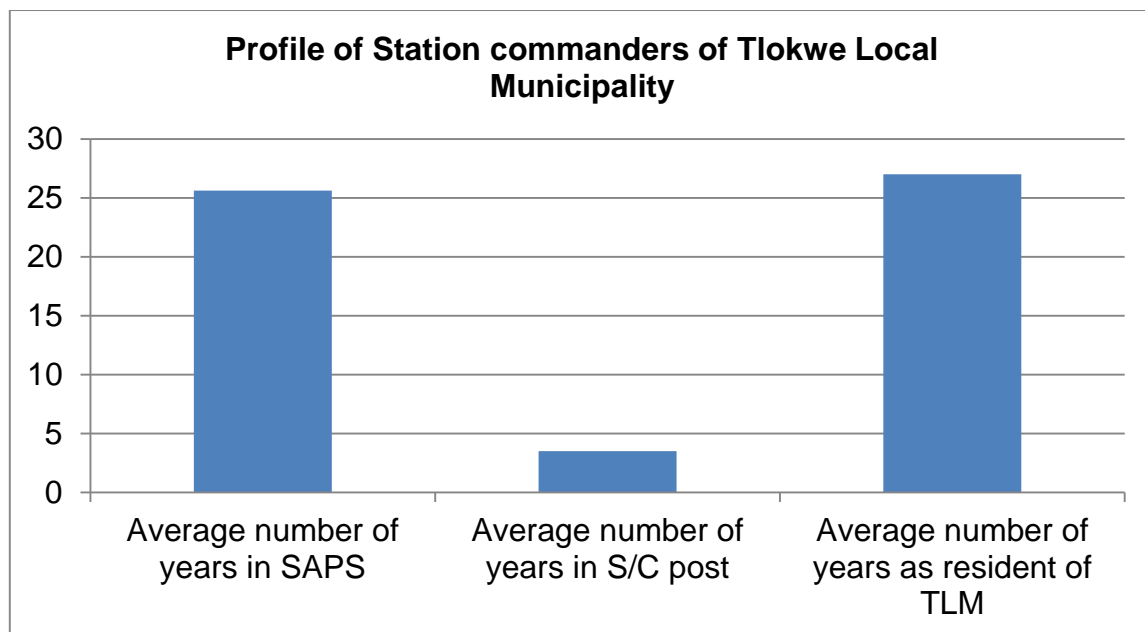


Figure 5.2 *Biographical profile of TLM Station commanders*

The latter questions deal with the perceived challenges in facilitating public participation as experienced by station commanders.

Question 4: What are the main challenges facing station commanders in facilitating public participation with regard to CPFs?

According to the participants, especially the social background of community members affects public participation in a significant way. Poor people generally do not appreciate the importance of public participation, since their argument is that they need to use their limited resources in order to participate in government affairs.

A further challenge highlighted by station commanders is that there is a general lack of understanding of what community policing entails. Community members still have a negative perception about the Police Service. Furthermore, a lack of incentives for participation makes people less interested in the CPF. People tend to participate for personal or political aspirational reasons. Poor police work also contributes to the lack of interest in public participation. A perception still exist that regarding a stigma whereby when people partner with police they are classified as “spies” and are victimised by community members. Based on the above mentioned context, it is suggested that any participation strategy formulated should address this perception and also accommodate the other challenges highlighted above.

Question 5: In your opinion, is there a culture and ethos of openness and transparency in the SAPS to facilitate community participation in crime prevention imperatives?

There are three different responses in this regard. The first station commander alluded that there was indeed a culture and ethos of openness and transparency in the SAPS to facilitate community participation in crime prevention imperatives. In contrast, the second station commander responded by saying that there was some degree of openness, whilst the third commander gave a negative response. According to one station commander, there is not a culture of openness and much still need to be done to foster a culture for participation. On a more positive note, the participants indicated that the community regularly attended station's crime combating forum meetings, where crime prevention imperatives are discussed. On a more negative note, participants are of the opinion that the SAPS should adjust its ethos to become a more community-friendly and less-secretive organisation. Based on the above mentioned responses, it can be deduced that there is a challenge in a culture and ethos of openness in the SAPS and any strategy developed need to address this challenge.

Question 6: Are there any public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police? Please explain your response.

This question was aimed at determining whether there were existing public participation initiatives undertaken by CPF members, individuals, the municipality, political groupings or community-based organisations that might negatively affect crime prevention programmes. If there were indeed such initiatives in place, a public participation strategy of CPFs should work with organisations and institutions utilising these initiatives to further advance its crime prevention aims.

Two thirds of the participants responded by indicating that only very limited initiatives were undertaken. Some of the negative effects associated with these initiatives included the fact that some CPF members overstepped their mandate and wanted to influence police members to further personal interests. Some CPF members also created a negative perception of the police amongst the community. These aspects negatively influence police efforts to foster participation. A strategy for public participation should address these negative perceptions of the Police Service.

Question 7: What are the main benefits that public participation initiatives in the CPF have brought for the police? Please substantiate and elaborate.

As was established in chapters two and three of this study, public participation might have significant benefits for policing efforts. The purpose of this question to the station commanders was to compare their responses with the theoretical principles associated with participation.

According to the participants there were indications that co-operation between the police and the public gradually improved. The culture of mistrust and the perceived gap between the police and the citizens of the country that had been created by the legacy of apartheid was incrementally being bridged. Some CPFs are able to convey valuable information to the police, leading to a good working relationship between the two parties. In this way the citizens tend to be the “ears and eyes” of the police. This aspect correlates with the role of CPFs, as explored in chapter three of the study. A participation strategy should further encourage this positive trend.

Question 8: Does the police station employ *Batho-Pele* principles to foster public participation? Why do you say so?

This question acted as cross-reference for question 5 above. The principles of *Batho-Pele* could significantly contribute to a more open culture and an ethos of co-operation amongst police members. This aspect was fully investigated in chapter four of this study.

All the participants agreed that the three police stations that had formed part of the case study adequately employed the principles of *Batho-Pele* to foster public participation and they believed it was a good initiative by the Government of South Africa to foster co-operation and participation. Increasingly communities are consulted about the level (quality and quantity) of service they expect. By inviting the CPF members to community meetings and to Sector Crime Combating Forums (SCCF), the police stations try to ensure its activities are accessible to everyone and that there are positive signs of improved transparency.

Question 9: Is there a detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs?

This question served to confirm the problem statement of this research, namely that a specific strategy for public participation in CPFs was not in place.

All of the participants indicated that there was no detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs. However, the participants did indicate that each police station relied on statutory and regulatory frameworks guiding public participation for the CPFs.

Two follow-up questions were asked to verify whether the community was aware of any participation strategy and to uncover potential challenges associated with the implementation of such a strategy. Due to the total absence of such a strategy the participants were unable to provide any input.

Question 10: Do the police officials under your command know, understand and embrace the concept of public participation?

This question was asked to further explore the issues of ethos, culture and the level of openness in the Police Service. The participants indicated that although subordinates generally understood and embrace the concept of public participation. However, there are few members that tend to be not fully supportive of the concept as they believed it is just a “public stunt” and “waste of resources”.

Question 11: How are CPF members empowered or disempowered to ensure meaningful participation?

The last question was aimed at uncovering elements that might negatively impact on public participation. Participants indicated that CPF members were adequately being empowered through workshops and through regular meeting attendance. In those workshops and meetings information was exchanged, leading to empowerment. However, the general lack of trust and police secretiveness tended to have a negative effect on CPF members. Poor police work also tended to disempower CPF members, as the communities tended to classify them as being alike with “useless police”. A public participation strategy should further enhance CPF member empowerment and address the issue of trust.

5.5.1.1 Overall analysis of Section A: Interpretation of station commander's responses

The aim of this section was to provide an overall picture by emphasising central tendencies regarding the responses obtained in Section A. From the responses obtained from the station commanders it is evident that they face numerous challenges in facilitating public participation with regards to CPFs. Some of the most significant challenges include:

- Lack of community understanding of what community policing is about;
- Re-orientation of police culture, ethos and level of openness;
- Citizens having a negative perception about the police; and
- Junior police members not fully committed to the community policing concept.

These challenges confirm the findings of the literature review in chapter three, namely:

- Lack of community understanding of what community policing is about;
- Re-orientation of police culture, ethos and level of openness;
- Citizens having a negative perception about the police; and
- Co-operation and partnership.

Station commanders also were in agreement that there were no public participation initiatives having negative effects in the work of the police. Moreover, station commanders believed that although the principles of *Batho-Pele* were employed to foster public participation, more could still be done.

Station commanders agreed that there was no detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs. As a result, no data could be obtained regarding strategy implementation challenges. Pettinger (2009:9), in chapter two of this study, argued that organisations such as SAPS, needed to have a strategy if it intended to improve their day to day activities and at the same time cater for the challenges that their organisations might face. Pettinger further argued that strategy was about laying the foundations for action. This study, therefore argued that the perceived challenges

faced by station commanders with regards to public participation could be attributed to the lack of a detailed, comprehensive and documented strategy.

In conclusion, the TLM station commanders also hold a view that public participation is a good government initiative and bears some benefits, namely:

- community policing offers the police and the citizens opportunity to make a “real difference” in their respective communities; and
- it creates a platform where citizens can voice their opinions regarding how they want to be policed.

With regards to the empowerment of CPF members to ensure meaningful participation, station commanders believe that regular meetings and workshops play a positive role in this regard. The general lack of quality of police work, however, disempowers CPF members as it creates animosity and mistrust between the community members and the police.

This concludes the data analysis of the first group of participants. In the next section the findings obtained from CPF members are provided and analysed.

5.5.2 Section B: Interview with CPF members

The interview with CPF members consisted of fourteen questions. The first four questions dealt with biographical details and the remaining questions determined the perceived challenges for facilitating public participation from the TLM CPF members' point of view.

From the responses obtained by means of the first four questions it was evident that the participants possessed enough knowledge to make a meaningful contribution.

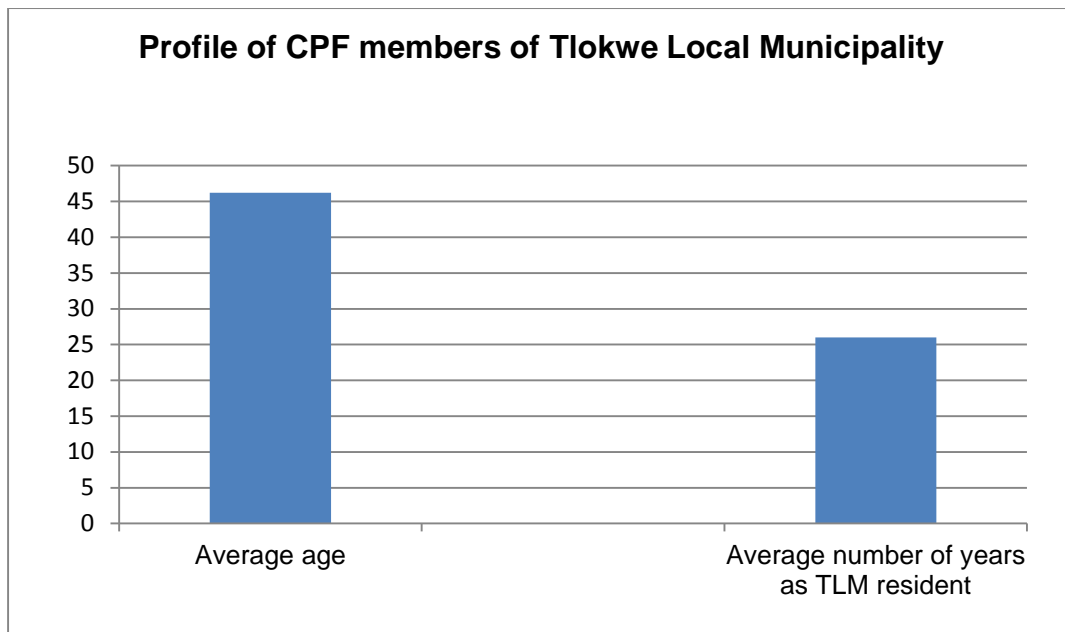


Figure 5.3 *Biographical profile of CPF members in TLM*

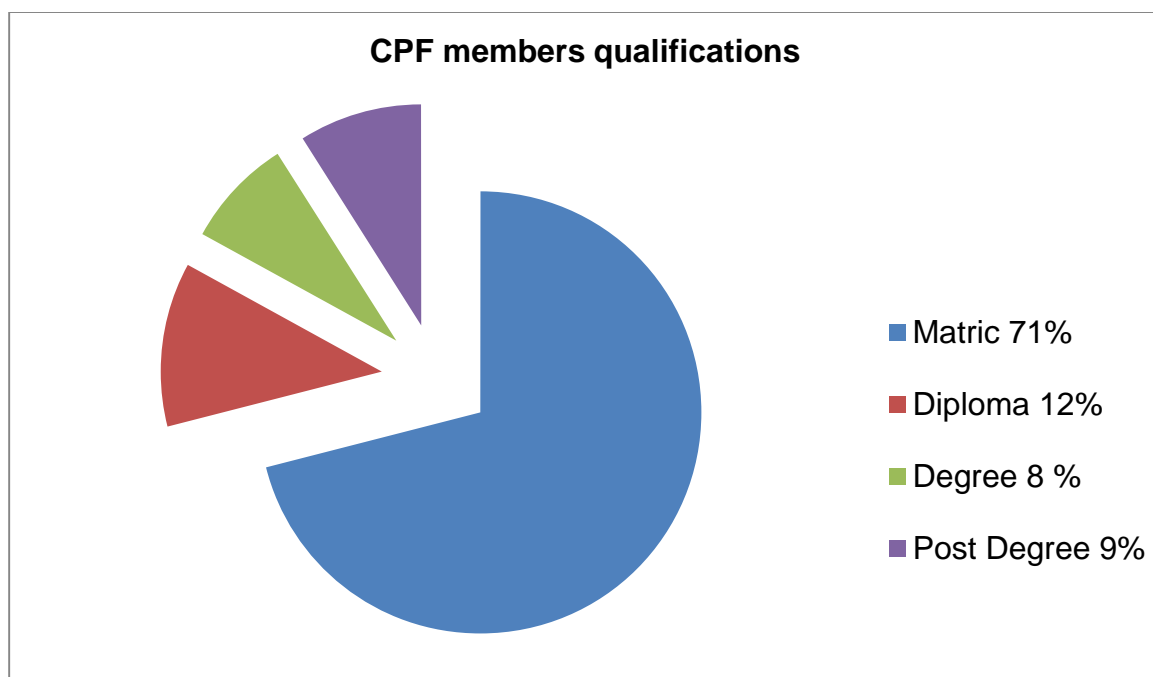


Figure 5.4 *Educational qualifications of CPF members*

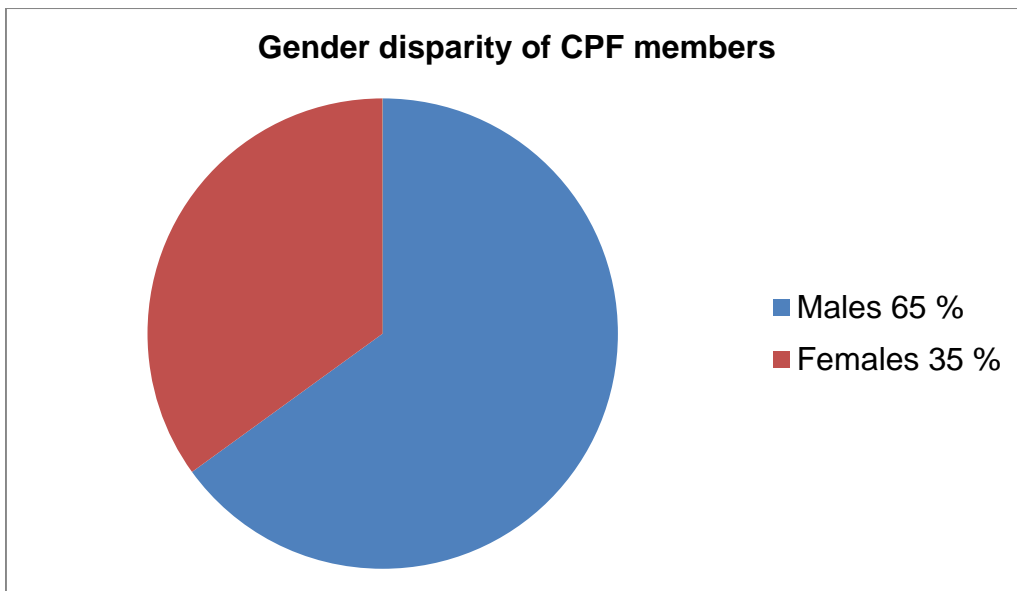


Figure 5.5 *Gender disparity of CPF members*

As far as the biographical profile of CPF members were concerned, their average length of staying in TLM was 26 years. Participants' age ranged between twenty years and seventy years with an average of forty six comma twenty years. The level of education was a school leaving certificate. As such, these participants possessed adequate knowledge about CPF and functioning of itself in their areas of jurisdiction.

Question 5: How long have you been a member of the CPF?

From the responses obtained from the participants it was established that the duration of being members of the CPF ranged from two to seven years with the mean of four years. It is evident that meaningful input could be obtained from these participants since they had gained adequate experience as CPF members.

Question 6: How and why did you become involved in the CPF?

This question was asked to explore the issue of participatory democracy. Some participants indicated that they were recruited by the police due to their potential to assist the police. Other participants were voted in the forum by members of the public. In other instances, personal aspects whereby participants had been victims of crime prompted the participants to become involved in CPF matters. Lastly, participants indicated that they had interest in safety and security matters. These aspects related to

why the public became involved in the public participation process, as indicated in chapter two of the study.

Question 7: In your opinion, what are the main challenges facing the forum in facilitating public participation?

As indicated in chapter two and three of the study, public participation and CPF as an organisation tended to experience challenges. This question was thus posed to explore the main challenges facing the CPF in facilitating public participation.

Participants indicated that poor service delivery by the police was the most significant challenge. This resulted in the citizens becoming dissolute and reluctant to participate. This further leads to a lack of trust in the police. Cultural differences and lack of resources for the CPF members also added to this challenge.

As far as cultural differences were concerned, participants explained that urban white population tended to participate more than other races. Lack of crime in certain areas also posed a challenge, as public members on those areas lacked motivation to participate. These aspects explained factors that influenced participation, as discussed in chapter two of the study. Chapter two of the study explained that aspects such as enlightenment, empowerment and emancipation did affect public participation. This study, therefore argues that these factors influenced participation the same way that cultural differences do.

Question 8: In your opinion, what are the main contributions and successes of the CPF?

As was established in chapter three of this study, one of the principles of community policing was immediate and long term problem solving. This question is therefore aimed at exploring this principle by determining the success and contributions of the CPF.

Participants indicated that CPF member's main contribution was assisting the police with the information which tended to lead to the arrest of criminals. Participants further indicated that, they (CPF) monitored the action of the police which in turn made the police accountable and instilled the general public's interest in the work of the police. Participants also pointed out that contributions included, inter alia, constant interaction with the police. Participants further pointed out that CPF members contributed to a safe,

friendly and secure environment by being involved in crime prevention initiatives. These contributions are in line with the benefits of community policing, as indicated in chapter three.

Question 9: Are there any public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police?

This question was posed in an effort to determine the negative aspects associated with public participation, as discussed in chapter two and three of this study. According to participants, they were of opinion that there had actually been no public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police. In fact, they argued that they were doing a good job by assisting the police in their work. There was a correlation of responses between the participants of this group and the previous participants (i.e. station commanders).

Question 10: Is there a detailed and documented public participation strategy for your CPF? If so, does the community know about it? If not, why not?

This question was aimed at establishing whether there was contradicting opinions between the CPF members and the first group of participants, namely the station commanders, whether a public participation strategy existed.

All participants confirmed that there was no detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. However, each CPF utilised its own initiative to foster public participation, with the guidance of statutory and regulatory frameworks as provided by the police. The participants also held a view that the public were aware of their own public participation initiatives. The public was made aware through awareness campaigns and community meetings which they hold. This aspect should be included in a public participation strategy.

Further questions pertaining to public participation strategies were asked, but due to the absence of such documentation, participants could not make any input.

Question 11: How is communication (written and verbal) distributed and facilitated in the CPF?

This question was asked to determine the public participation categories, forms and mechanisms as indicated in chapter two of the study. According to participants, mechanisms utilised to communication in CPF included meetings, mass media (electronic and print media) and pamphlets distribution. In developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM, a communication strategy detailing mechanisms to facilitate communication needs to be included. These mechanisms should include, *inter alia*, publications, citizens juries, interviews and issue forums.

Question 12: In your opinion, is there a conducive and feasible environment to foster and further facilitate public participation? Why do you say so?

This question was aimed at determining the level of compliance by SAPS in relation to statutory and regulatory frameworks governing participation in CPF as indicated in chapter four.

Participants indicated that there was a conducive environment to foster and further facilitate public participation. The reason for this mainly was that police management tended to be supportive of CPF activities. Although there were still elements of secretiveness on the part of the police, participants felt that they were able to access some of the information from the police. This implies that there is a level of compliance by the SAPS with regards to statutory and regulatory frameworks governing public participation in CPF. This aspect needs to be taken into account when developing a strategy for public participation for CPF.

5.5.2.1 Overall interpretation of the CPF members' responses

The aim of this section is to provide an overall picture by emphasising central tendencies regarding the responses obtained in section B.

In terms of the biographical details, participants were evenly balanced between the three respective police stations within TLM. Both males and females participated in the study and participants were somehow literate people. As such, adequate inputs could be obtained for the achievement of study objectives.

The average period of participants participating in CPF matters is four years. Participants became involved in CPF for a variety of reasons, most notable:

- Recruited by the police;
- Elected by the community to participate on their behalf;
- Personal interest in the safety and security aspects; and
- People being victims of crime.

The above-mentioned factors explain the reasons for participation and non-participation, as discussed in chapter two.

According to participants, the main challenges facing the CPF in facilitating public participation included, inter alia:

- Poor service deliver by the police;
- Lack of trust for and from the police;
- Inadequate resources; and
- Cultural, social and economic conditions.

There was a contrast between the station commanders and CPF members' responses regarding challenges in facilitating public participation in CPF. Station commanders indicated that there was a general lack of interest from the citizens whilst the CPF members felt that poor service delivery by the police and inadequate resources contributed to the challenges facilitating public participation in CPF. In developing the strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM, the above-mentioned aspects need to be reconciled and an organisational audit be conducted, as explained in chapter two.

Participants further held the view that their contribution and success were huge with regards to crime prevention. Participants alluded to the fact that the information that had been given to police was to some extent successful, as suspects had been arrested and crime prevented in the process.

With regards to public participation initiatives that had a negative influence on the work of the police, participants felt that there were no public participation initiatives having negative influence in the work of the police. This response corresponds with the response by the station commanders.

In line with the problem statement and other participants, CPF members asserted that there was no detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. However, each CPF in its respective police station, utilised its own initiative to foster public participation in line with the statutory and regulatory frameworks. Since there was no strategy, no data could be obtained in relation to implementation challenges or improvements. Again this response collates earlier response by the station commanders.

It is interesting to note that participants believed that co-operation between the police and citizens were below average due to police ineffectiveness. However, the co-operation between the police and CPF and co-operation between the CPF members and citizens was high. This high co-operation between the CPF members and the police is due to constant interaction and information sharing. On the other hand, poor service delivery by the police to ordinary citizens seems to contribute to low level of co-operation between police and the citizens. This situation seems to assert that there is unequal access to police activities by different community members, depending on the level of interaction. Principles of "*Batho-Pele*", as discussed in chapter 4, seem not be evenly practised. Therefore these aspects need to be taken into cognisance when developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM.

Chapter four of the study demonstrated statutory and regulatory frameworks, which facilitated a feasible environment to foster public participation. In line with these legislative prescripts, participants felt that there were enough feasible environments to foster and further public participation. This concludes the data analysis of the second group of participants, namely, CPF members. In the next section, the findings from the CPO and junior police officials are presented.

5.5.3 Section C: Interview with Community Police Officials (CPO's) and junior police officials

Like with all other participants, this interview was divided into two stanzas. The first stanza determined the biographical details and the second stanza questions tested the study objectives.

As far as the biographical profile of CPO's and junior police officials was concerned, the average of a participant being a member of SAPS was 20,5 years. The average stay of a participant in TLM was 19,6 years. Different categories of police officials participated in the study, with the ranks of Captain, Warrant Officers, Sergeants and Constables. As such, these participants possessed ample knowledge about community policing and CPF matters in their respective categories.

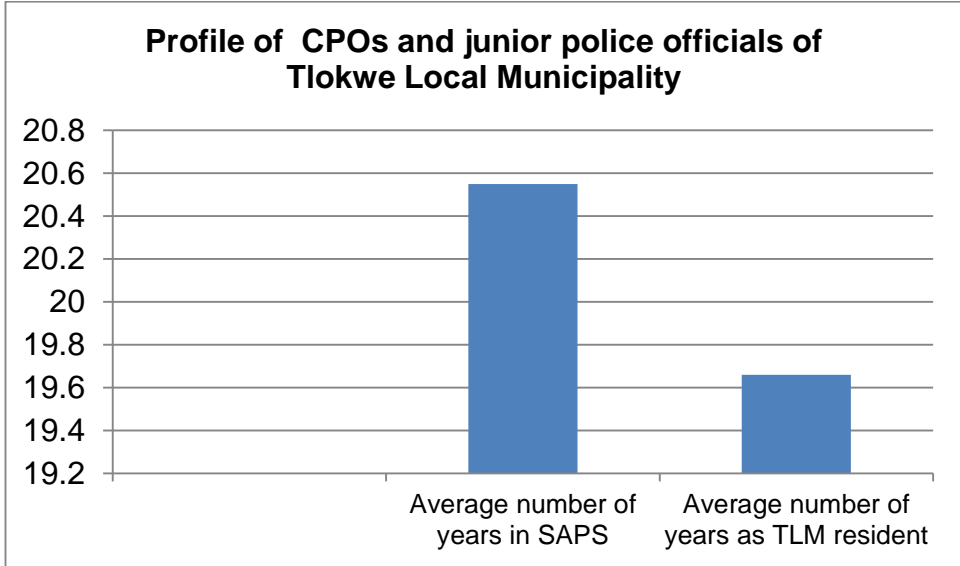


Figure 5.6 Biographical profile of CPO's and junior police official of TLM

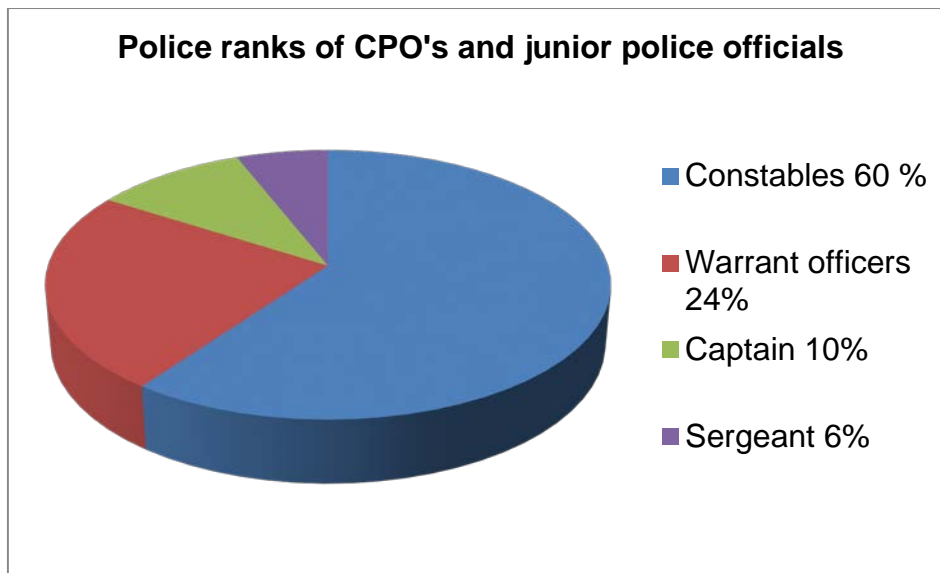


Figure 5.7 *Police ranks of CPO's and junior police officials*

Question 4: What is your opinion about community involvement in police work?

The question was aimed at establishing the importance of community policing, as highlighted in chapter three of this study. All of the participants responded by saying community policing was a good thing to have in South Africa. They alluded that police and the citizens needed to work and value each other. Furthermore, participants indicated that involvement in police work also allowed the citizens to have a say in safety and security issues. In other words, citizens are afforded an opportunity to participate in public affairs. This aspect relates to direct and indirect democracy as discussed in chapter two. In developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM this aspect needs to be further explored.

Question 5: As a police official, how do you see the police and the community benefiting in a mutual relationship?

As established in chapter three of this study, community policing has got a mutual benefit for both the police and the citizens. The purpose of this question was to determine this mutual relationship and compare the responses with the theoretical principles associated with community policing. Furthermore, the question was aimed at establishing any contradiction between question three and this one.

The participants pointed out that there was a mutual relationship as citizens and police work together. The police obtained information about criminal activities from the citizens whilst the citizens were afforded a voice in policing matters. This mutual relationship tends to increase community trust, which is vital for the police in the execution of their duties. Furthermore, participants indicated that as more citizens became involved, community mobilisation increased. In turn, police resources capability increases as the community members as force multipliers. Moreover, participants were of the opinion that police projects tended to receive community buy-in as they were involved in the formulation processes thereof. In line with the Batho-Pele principles, involvement of citizens also lead to openness and the citizens were empowered through information exchange. Finally, participants indicated that community-police relations could be strengthened through partnership. In developing a public participation strategy for CPF in TLM these aspects need to be taken into account.

Question 6: In your view who should participate in the CPF and why do think so?

Democracy in chapter two has been described as the rule of, by and for the people. This question was therefore aimed at establishing the purpose of democracy which was about the exercise of power by citizens.

All participants agreed that every member of the community as well as police should participate. Participants stated that people could participate directly themselves or indirectly via elected representatives. The reason for such assertion is that the more people participate, the more CPF is likely to be accepted by the whole community. Furthermore, participants felt that different people brought different cultures, ideologies and ideas to the debate, which in turn could enhance the quality of decisions. However, participants cautioned that representatives should be able to influence their respective constituencies positively. These responses correlate with the principles of democracy and need to be taken into account when developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM.

Question 7: Are there any public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police?

This question was aimed at establishing any contradiction between this group and the previous two group participants. Furthermore, the question was posed to establish any

public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police as discussed in chapter three.

In contrast to station commanders and CPF members, the majority of this group indicated that there were certain public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police, *inter alia*, the public representatives leaking confidential information, and public representatives projecting and influencing the public negatively towards the police. One interesting response by a participant was that the public tended to overload the police (i.e. work load), just because they had confidence in a particular police official. In developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM, these opposing views need to be reconciled. As such, training and development need to be included in the development of strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM.

Question 8: What are the main challenges with regard to facilitating public participation in CPF?

This question, in support of the previous question, was aimed at establishing the contradictions between this group participant and the previous ones. Moreover, the question was also posed to determine the challenges with regards to facilitating public participation in the CPF.

The majority of participants were of the opinion that citizens generally lacked interest in public participation processes. The main reason for this state of affairs was that some citizens do not fully trust the police. Participants further pointed out that the lack of trust negatively influenced co-operation of citizens. Some participants added that this lack of co-operation could be contributed to the general lack of financial and physical resources for CPFs. As such, participants suggested that there had to be a stipend for CPF members. It is important to note that aspects of resources were not raised as challenges by the two previous two group participants. However, these aspects of financial and physical resources need to be taken into account when developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM.

Participants also pointed out that there was generally a lack of effective communication mechanisms to aid participation. This was mainly a result of police not responding timeously to community queries and needs. According to participants, the other challenge facing public participation in CPF was low literacy levels as citizens generally

lacked knowledge about what community policing entails. This response correlates with the comments made by station commanders. However, it contradicts the response of the second group participants, namely CPF members who indicated that they were well conversant with the community policing concept.

Participants also indicated that citizens tended to be afraid to participate in CPF for fear of victimisation from other members of the community. In developing a strategy for public participation for CPF for TLM, the citizens need to be empowered and be informed about the benefits of community policing as discussed in chapter two.

Question 9: Is there a detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPF? If so, does the community know about it? If not, why not?

In line with the two previous participants, almost all the participants in this group pointed out that there was no detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs and as such the community was unaware of such strategy. This response concurs with the response of CPF members and station commanders in this regard. However, there were few participants who thought a public participation strategy existed although they did not know what such strategy entailed.

This question was posed to determine if any contradictions existed between this group and the previous two groups of participants. Moreover, the question was aimed at confirming the problem statement of this research, namely that a detailed public participation strategy for CPF in TLM did not exist. The responses of this group fully correlate with the responses obtained from the other two groups.

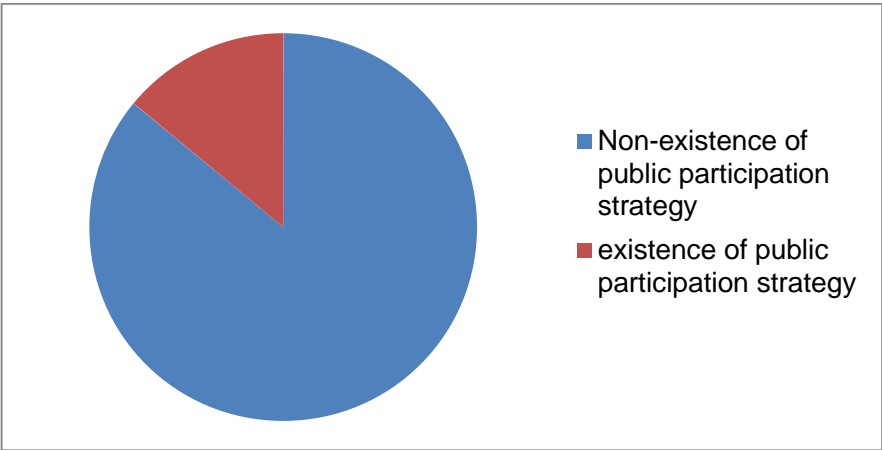


Figure 5.8 *Existence of public participation strategy*

Two follow-up questions were asked pertaining to public participation strategy for CPF in TLM. Due to absence of such strategy and documentation relating to it, participants could not make any further input.

Question 10: What is your opinion about the concept of community policing?

This question was aimed at exploring the level of understanding of the concept of community policing as discussed in chapter three of this study. All the participants agreed that community policing was a noble aspiration since it involved a close working relationship between the police and the community. Furthermore, participants indicated that community policing ensured that citizens were consulted about the manner in which policing was affected. Participants also pointed out that this approach facilitated effective communication between the police and the community. These responses concur with station commanders' response that there is general awareness of the community policing approach, although not all stakeholders are always fully committed to it. In developing the strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM, aspects of communication mechanisms, training and development of police officials need to be taken into account.

Question 11: How is general communication and information dissemination facilitated between the police and the community to foster public participation in the CPF?

This question was posed to explore the communication mechanisms as discussed in chapter two of this study. According to participants information dissemination is mainly done through awareness campaigns, meetings, distribution of pamphlets and workshops. Participants indicated that these mechanisms generally aided communication, but that the fact that the majority of communication was done through English as medium, had a detrimental effect on especially illiterate people. As a result of this some segments of the community were excluded. This aspect was supported by the station commanders as well as the theoretical exposition on factors affecting participation as discussed in chapter two. Aspects of the medium of communication and information dissemination mechanisms need to be absorbed in the design of a strategy for public participation.

Question 12: How are members of the community empowered to facilitate meaningful participation?

This question was posed to determine how citizens were empowered in CPF within TLM. As indicated in chapter two of this study, empowerment and emancipation played a significant role in citizens' participation patterns. It is interesting to note that half the participants indicated that community members were empowered through public participation mechanism whilst the other half believed that community members were not actually empowered. Those who responded affirmative alluded to the fact that meetings, workshops and information exchange were some of the ways in which community members were empowered to meaningfully participate. This response concurs with the station commanders' responses as well as those of CPF members.

A public participation strategy should enhance citizens' empowerment. Mechanisms for public participation such as open houses, public action, *inter alia*, as explained in chapter two of this study need to be incorporated in the communication strategy of a public participation strategy.

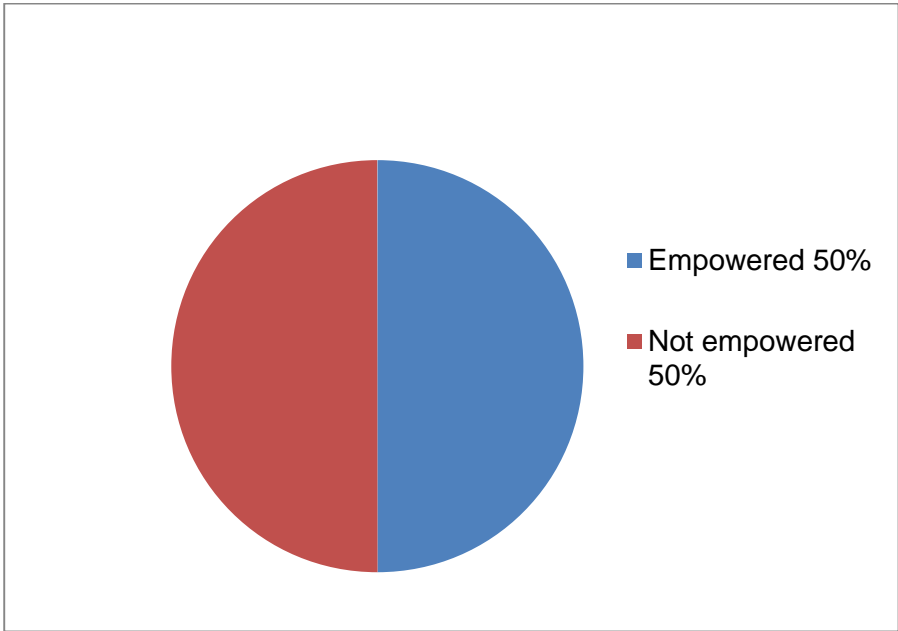


Figure 5.9 Empowerment of CPF members

5.5.3.1 *General interpretation of the CPO's and junior police official's response*

The purpose of this section has been to determine the perceived challenges relating to public participation strategy for CPFs In TLM from the ordinary functional members point of view. The assessment of this target group's attributes is based on their actual involvement in community policing and how they engage with the citizens in facilitating public participation.

From the responses, most of the participants eluded to the fact that community policing was a positive initiative and that mutual relationships had benefits and limitations. However, they agreed that the benefits outweighed the limitations. Amongst the benefits identified was that citizens had a safer and more secure environment whilst the police benefited in terms of force-multiplier effects emanating from community trust and input.

From the responses obtained it is evident that these participants have an adequate level of understanding of what community policing entails. Participants further pointed out that everyone in the society should be allowed to participate, either directly or indirectly. This aspect relates to the tenants of democracy as discussed in chapter 2.

In contrast to the responses of station commanders, these participants indicated that there were certain public participation initiatives which had negative implications and effects on the work of the police. Amongst the negative effects mentioned was that some citizens tended to misuse the platform afforded to them. They (citizens) could access sensitive information which might be a security risk to the police. This should be balanced against the democratic principles of openness and transparency as contained in the *Batho-Pele* White Paper.

Participants identified the following challenges associated with public participation in CPFs:

- There was a lack of community trust towards the police;
- There was a laxity on the part of the public to participate. Those who tended to participate had malicious intent as they did so because they wanted to satisfy either personal or political aspiration;

- There was a lack of both financial and physical resources for the CPF;
- CPF members needed to be remunerated to enhance participation; and
- The citizens lacked knowledge about that community policing entails.

The above-mentioned challenges are in line with the factors that might influence participation, as discussed in chapter two by Milbrath and Goels (1977:35). Despite these challenges, this group indicated that community policing was a good initiative. This aspect relates to the benefits of public participation as discussed in chapter two as well as benefits of community policing as discussed in chapter three of this study. These challenges need to be catered for in developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM.

In the responses, half of the participants pointed out that there was a lack of community empowerment whilst the other half indicated the opposite. This duality in responses might be attributed to inappropriate or ineffective communication mechanism as discussed in chapter two of this study. Participants in this regard indicated that workshops, meetings and the mass media were some of the communication mechanisms utilised to foster public participation. One participant argued that public participation in public institution such as CPF needed to be seen as a “well-oiled machine” where all the relevant parts complemented each other. This implies that all the relevant stakeholders in CPF need to work and complement each other for a common purpose. This response is congruent with the systems theory as discussed in chapter two. The systems theory explains the synergistic effect where the whole is more than the sum of its parts. In developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM, these aspects need to be taken into account.

5.5.4 Section D: Interview responses of ordinary community members

This section comprises of ten questions; four determined the biographical details of participants whilst the other six established the perceived challenges associated with public participation from ordinary community members’ point of view. The purpose of interviewing this group of participants was to determine whether there were any contradictions between this and the other three groups.

As far as the biographical profile of the citizens was concerned, their average term being a resident of TLM was 19, 85 years. Both males and females participated in the study with the age average of 46 years. Participants of this group possessed matric and post-matric qualifications. As such, this group participant posed adequate knowledge to contribute to the study.

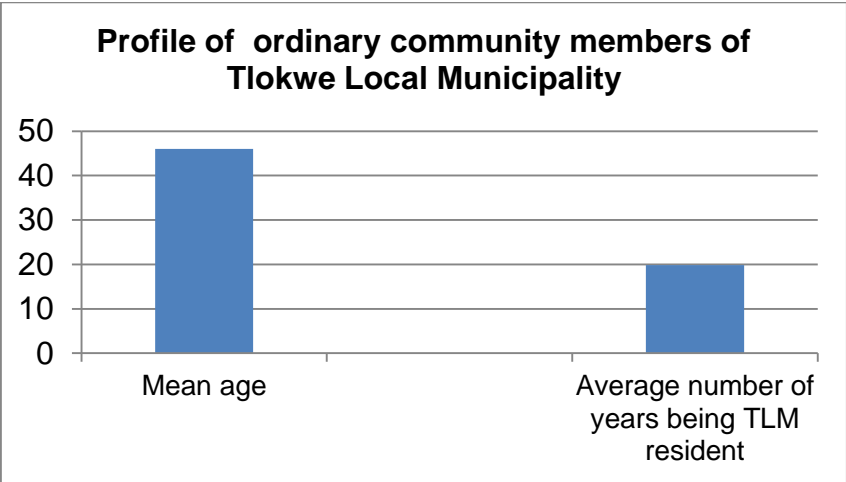


Figure 5.10 *Biographical profile of ordinary community members of TLM*

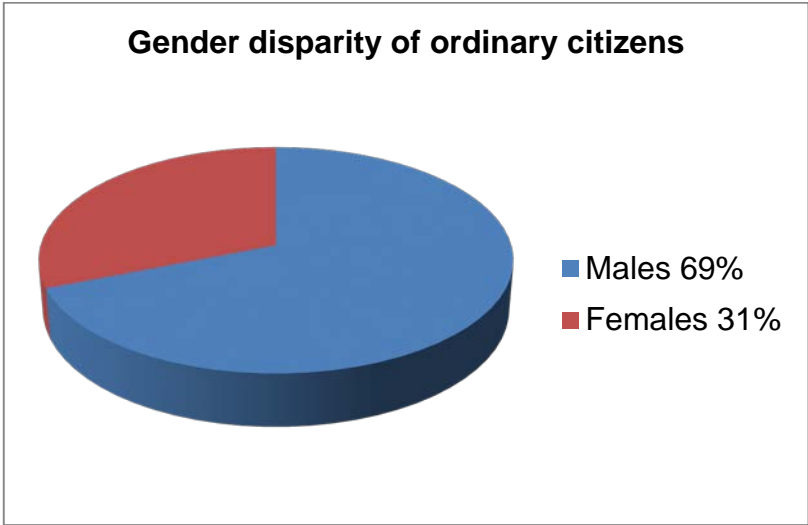


Figure 5.11 *Gender disparity of ordinary citizens*

Question 5: Are you aware of the existence of community policing forums? If yes, what are their main purposes?

As was established in chapter two of this study, a democratic dispensation requires that all citizens of a country need to partake in the activities of government. The purpose of

this question was to determine the level of application of this democratic principle and whether there were any contradictions between this group and the previous groups of participants.

The majority of the participants (86%) alluded that they were aware of the existence of the CPF with the main purpose of CPF being to help the police to deal with crime. However, approximately fourteen percent of the participants asserted that they were unaware of the existence of the CPF in TLM.

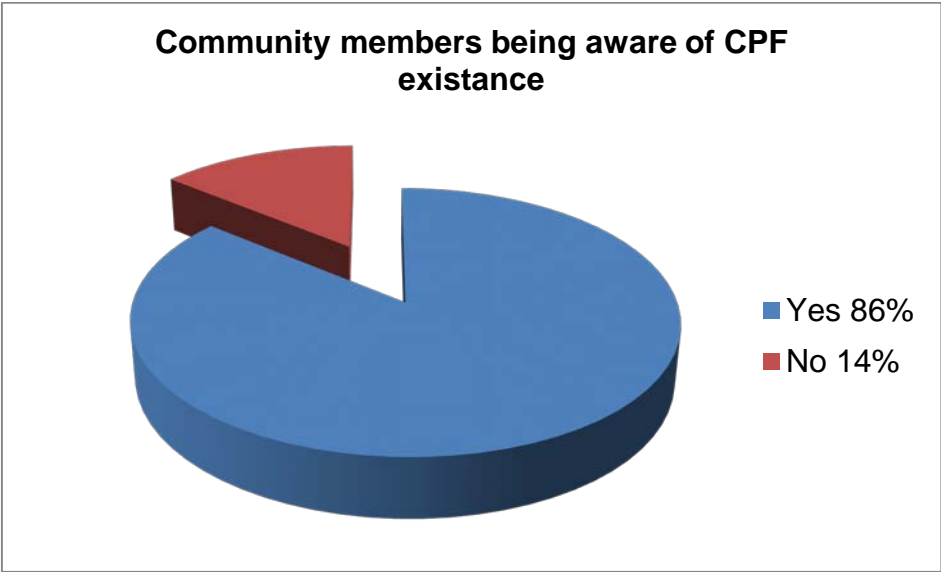


Figure 5.12 Community members being aware of the CPF existence

This response raised serious concerns and further emphasised the need for a comprehensive communication and participation strategy.

Question 6: If you are familiar with a CPF, how do you interact with the members thereof?

This question was aimed at establishing the communication model and forms of participation employed by the TLM CPF as discussed in chapter two of this study. The question further intended to explore any contradiction between this group participant and the previous one. According to those participants who were familiar with CPFs, they interacted with CPF members mainly through general meetings. This response supports the views held by the other groups of participants.

Question 7: In your view who should participate in the CPF? Why do you think so?

This question was aimed at establishing the principle of inclusiveness as discussed in chapter two. Furthermore, the question was aimed at exploring any contradiction that might exist between this group participant and the previous one.

Like all other participants, this group indicated that everyone should be entitled to participate in the CPFs. They also indicated that citizens and police could themselves participate directly or through their elected representatives. This response implies that there is an adequate correlation with the inclusiveness principle of democracy.

Question 8: What are the main challenges with regard to facilitating public participation in police affairs in general and CPFs in particular?

As indicated in chapter two and three of this study, public participation and community policing tended to experience some challenges. This question was therefore aimed at identifying and exploring these challenges.

Participants generally indicated there was a “mixture” of challenges associated with public participation, *inter alia*:

- Unemployment (i.e. lack of economic means hamper a person’s level of participation);
- Lack of community empowerment;
- Poor service delivery by the police towards the public;
- Victimization of members associated with the CPF by other members of the community;
- People participating in CPF structures for personal gain and interests; and
- The majority of community members were not interested in government activities.

These challenges are in line with the challenges associated with public participation as discussed in chapter two, including challenges associated with community policing in

chapter three of this study. In developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM, these challenges need to be catered for.

Question 9: Are you aware of a public participation strategy for CPF? Are you familiar with any mechanisms used for public participation in the CPF?

This question was aimed at validating the problem statement, namely: public participation strategy for CPF at TLM was not in existence.

All the participants stated that they were unaware of a public participation strategy for CPFs. Although they were unaware of a public participation strategy, they were aware of mechanisms that had been utilised to facilitate public participation such as meetings and awareness campaigns. This response implies that there is no contradiction between this group and the other groups. Furthermore, the response validates the problem statement of this study.

Question 10: How can community participation in crime prevention in general and in police affairs in particular be further promoted?

As was established in chapter three of this study, co-operation is one of the principles of community policing. This question was aimed at establishing the measures to sustain co-operation in the TLM CPF. According to participants, there was a need for adequate co-operation between the police and community. Community participation in crime prevention in general can be promoted through adequate communication between all parties involved and can empower the community with crime prevention hints and adequate consultation in order to enhance community development. Aspects of communication and co-operation need to be taken into consideration in developing a strategy for public participation for CPF in TLM.

5.5.4.1 Overall interpretation of ordinary community members' responses

The participants of the study indicated that they had been staying in TLM for an average period of almost twenty years. Both males and females participants participated in the study with the average of forty six years. Participants stated that they were academically literate with post matric qualifications. The participants as such posed adequate knowledge to contribute to the study.

Although the majority of participants was aware of the existence of the CPF structure, a significant portion was not aware of the role and activities of the CPF. This is a serious concern. Issues regarding adequate communication and awareness need to be explored when developing a strategy for CPF in TLM in an endeavour to enhance the profile of CPF structures. Currently, meetings are normally held to foster public participation and enhance interaction. The participants also agreed with participants from the other groups that every community member should participate in CPF matters. This sentiment is in line with the democratic principle of inclusiveness, openness and transparency. With regards to community participation in crime prevention in general, participants indicated that the “together we can do more” approach needed to be explored. The aspect of co-operation needs to be explored in the development of a public participation strategy for CPF in TLM.

Participants pointed out that there were certain challenges associated with public participation process in the CPF. Amongst the most significant challenges was the lack of community empowerment. Identified challenges by this group were congruent with those identified in the literature review in chapters two and three of this study. This in essence implies that, when developing a strategy for CPF in TLM, these challenges need to be taken note of and catered for.

Participants also indicated that they were unaware of a detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. Since most participants of this study stated that they were unaware of a public participation strategy, one can deduce that such a strategy did not exist. Therefore, the problem statement as stated in chapter one of this study, is validated. As a result of this situation, there is a need for development of a public participation strategy for CPF within TLM.

This concludes the empirical research and the findings on the public participation strategy for CPF in the TLM.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The empirical investigation conducted verified the level of congruence and discrepancies between the theoretical orientation (i.e. democratic principles, public participation, statutory requirements, and the mandate of CPFs) on the one hand and the status of CPFs in TLM on the other. The study did indeed reveal significant

disparities between theoretical and statutory best practice and actual practice in the case study.

Semi-structured interviews were employed as a tool for data collection and the interviews were conducted with four different target groups. An interview guide was prepared beforehand as a guide to the researcher. The questions for the interview were based on literature review as explored in chapters two, three and four of this study. The relevant research question and objective of the study were taken into consideration in the design of the interview schedule. The response rate achieved for the interviews was 87%.

From the empirical research and findings, it can be deduced that there is a lack of public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. As a result of this situation, this study therefore argues that the perceived challenges associated with public participation for CPF in TLM could be attributed to a lack of detailed and documented public participation strategy. The development of such a strategy is the focus of the last chapter of this study.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In any democratic dispensation a discourse on public participation is highly topical. Its importance and contribution to a healthy and developing democracy like South Africa is significant. As such, participation of the citizens in the affairs of municipalities according to what the law requires is not a one-time event. The legislative prescripts, as indicated in chapter four, require this process to be on-going, well-planned, well-timed and complemented by sufficient resources. Moreover, it seems public participation becomes successful and or more effective when key role-players in the democratic process clearly understand their own position and interest. At the same time respective role-players should also be willing to listen and to foster tolerance and understanding. In other words, public participation can be regarded as a process where each role-player shares ideas, facts, experiences, knowledge, hopes, preferences, fears, values and opinions for the benefit of the organisation they serve.

As stated earlier, public participation processes in the SAPS are facilitated by means of CPFs. CPFs form an important component in the SAPS to foster public participation and to engage the community on police matters. Numerous studies, such as Singh (2005: 43-50) and Moolman (2003:28), highlight the typical challenges faced by CPFs in this regard. The CPFs in TLM are no exception. As was established in the empirical investigation, the lack of a credible public participation strategy in the structures within TLM remains a challenge.

Following the empirical investigation and findings in the previous chapter, this chapter provides the summary and conclusions of the study. Thereafter, the researcher proposes a number of recommendations aimed at designing a public participation strategy for CPFs within TLM.

6.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1: This chapter introduced the topic of the study by providing an overview of the study. It classified the locus and focus of the study, highlighting the problem

statement, explaining the research methodology, summarising research questions and objectives. The main purpose of the study was to highlight the perceived challenges in relation to a strategy for public participation for CPFs in TLM.

In this chapter, the author argued that TLM police stations needed to design a public participation strategy in an endeavour to foster and enhance public participation. The chapter further argued that police stations within TLM were unlikely to have sustainable public participation processes in the future without a credible public participation strategy.

Chapter 2: This chapter presented the literature review of public participation concepts. In addressing the research question, the literature review provided guiding theories, principles, models and approaches of the concept. As such, the chapter established theoretical underpinnings for the development for a strategy for public participation for CPFs within TLM.

The chapter also revealed that public participation and local democracy were closely related. As such, both concepts became inseparable in the attainment of good governance. From the discussion in the chapter, it became further evident that the road to designing a public participation strategy is rather complex. Therefore, the CPFs within TLM need to draw on all aspects of the environment within which they operate when developing an appropriate strategy for public participation.

Chapter 3: The research objective of this chapter was to provide a theoretical exposition of community policing as a concept and to provide guiding theories, principles, models and approaches. Community policing (i.e. independent variable) as a second leg of data triangulation provided the basic framework within which public participation occur within municipal context. Furthermore, a theoretical overview and principles of community policing were presented.

Community policing as a concept appears to represent a new proactive and collaborative mode of policing, which encourages openness and flexibility. This concept allows the police and the citizens to work closely together in new ways to solve the problems of crime, fear of crime, physical, social disorder and neighbourhood decay. In other words, community policing is aimed at police and citizens being more accessible to each other.

SAPS have established CPFs as a vehicle to facilitate desired public participation. Relationships are by its nature difficult to maintain. Therefore, it is unsurprising that the CPFs have experienced some challenges. Despite challenges experienced by CPFs, they remain an important vehicle in achieving public participation and a credible public participation strategy could be of assistance to cater these highlighted challenges.

Chapter 4: The objective of the chapter was to describe the existing statutory and regulatory framework for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation in CPFs. This chapter emphasised the statutory and regulatory prescripts and guidelines governing public participation. Prior to 1994 in South Africa, it seems that there was not an adequate culture of actively involving the community in police affairs. The advent of democracy in 1994 brought a paradigm shift. This shift emphasised transparency in public affairs, greater public accountability and a shift in how local municipalities were compelled to include the citizens in their decision-making process.

Although the South African Government has passed laws to facilitate public participation in local municipalities, the key challenge facing them is how to ensure sustained public participation. Hence this study argued that a public participation strategy could address this challenge. The importance of legislative frameworks in this regard is that they emphasise public participation in CPFs as this process ensures democratic, transparent and accountable practices within police stations.

Chapter 5: This chapter dealt with the research design and methodology as adopted by the study. A discussion on reasons why a particular research methodology and data collection techniques employed in the study was presented. Furthermore the chapter provided a discussion on the selection of the sample population and details regarding the analysis and interpretation of the findings from the empirical investigation. The study conducted empirical investigation by means of interviews as a data collection method. The data presented by the participants was analysed with a view of drawing conclusions and determine the objective of the study chapter. The objective of chapter 5 was thus to establish the perceived challenges associated with the absence of a well written and documented strategy for public participation for CPFs in the TLM.

This chapter further dealt with the empirical research component of the study which was conducted amongst the targeted population group. Empirical findings addressed the study objective by revealing that there was no public participation strategy for CPFs in

TLM. Furthermore the findings revealed challenges associated with public participation in TLM could be attributed to grassroots level as explained by junior police officials and ordinary community members.

Chapter 6: In this chapter, the summary and conclusions of the study are put into perspective. Furthermore, the chapter addresses the research objective by suggesting recommendations that may propose solutions to TLM police stations by developing a strategy to enhance public participation for CPFs.

6.3 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The value of the study for the researcher and TLM residents (both the citizens and the police) can be measured in accordance with whether or not the research questions have been answered, whether or not the objectives of the study have been realised, and whether the central theoretical statements have been proved to be relevant or not.

6.3.1 The research questions

The research questions, which directed the study as promulgated in chapter 1, are as follows:

- What does the concepts community policing and public participation entail and what are their guiding theories, principles, models and approaches?
- What are the existing statutory and regulatory requirements for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation with specific reference to the CPFs?
- What are the perceived challenges facing the CPF in facilitating adequate public participation in TLM?
- What should the CPF include in a strategy to enhance adequate public participation?

These research questions were taken into cognisance throughout the study and they enabled the researcher to stay focused on the study.

6.3.2 Research objectives

The research objectives of the study served as the guidelines that the researcher needed to follow in line with the research questions, in order to present a strong

framework towards the central theoretical statements. As stated in chapter 1, the research objectives (RO) of this study were to:

- Provide a theoretical exposition of the concepts community policing and public participation and their guiding theories, principles, models and approaches.
- Describe the existing statutory and regulatory framework requirements for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation in the CPFs.
- Establish the nature and extent of a strategy for public participation for CPFs in the TLM.
- Suggest recommendations that may propose solutions to TLM police stations on improving or develop a strategy to enhance public participation for CPFs.

The above mentioned researched objectives (RO) have been achieved by this study in the following way:

RO 1: Provide a theoretical exposition of the concepts community policing and public participation and their guiding theories, principles, models and approaches.

This research objective was addressed in chapter two and three of the study. Firstly, in chapter two, a theoretical description of what public participation was all about and its guiding principles were provided. Thereafter, the significance of public participation and its meta-theoretical foundations, such as participative democracy, were put into perspective. Ultimately, communication as an instrument for public participation, modes of public participation and factors influencing public participation were discussed.

In chapter three, a theoretical overview of what community policing was and not all about was discussed. Thereafter, the guiding principles of community policing, challenges and benefits of community policing were highlighted. This discussion led the study towards research objective two.

RO 2: Describe the existing statutory and regulatory framework requirements for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation in the CPFs.

Chapter four of this study dealt with the description of the existing statutory and regulatory framework requirements for SAPS to facilitate adequate public participation in the CPFs.

RO 3: Establish the nature and extent of a strategy for public participation for CPFs in the TLM.

In chapter five, an empirical investigation was conducted to establish the nature and extent of a strategy for public participation for CPFs in TLM. From the empirical investigation, it was established that the strategy for public participation for CPFs in TLM was not in place. The results of empirical investigation led the study to research objective four, which concluded the study and made recommendations that might propose solutions to TLM police stations on developing a strategy to enhance public participation in CPFs.

RO 4: Suggest recommendations that may propose solutions to TLM police stations on improving or develop a strategy to enhance public participation for CPFs.

This research objective is dealt with in this chapter. After determining that a public participation strategy is non-existent within CPFs in TLM, this chapter concludes the study and suggests recommendations that are intended to propose solutions on how to develop a public participation strategy. Through these recommendations, the study addresses the main problem and purpose of this study by developing a strategy for public participation for CPFs in TLM, as highlighted in chapter one of this research study.

In summary, from the research objectives discussion above, it can be concluded that this research study has achieved its objective and discovered new knowledge in the process.

6.3.3 Central theoretical statements

At the beginning of the study, the researcher formulated central theoretical statements. These statements served as foundational arguments for both the theoretical approach and practical phenomenon under investigation.

The following central theoretical statements were formulated:

- According to Mayhall, Barker and Hunter,(1995:302) “community building is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary problems related to crime, the fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighbourhood decay”. Community policing as a philosophy is predicted on the belief that effective crime prevention requires the SAPS to develop a relationship with the law-abiding citizens in the community, thus allowing all members of the community to have a voice on how policing could be done successfully.
- Chapter nine of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) emphasises equality. The public participation process of the CPF must be transparent to ensure that all the people are afforded equal opportunity to take part in the elaboration and the functioning of the CPF.
- A strategy for public participation in the changing socio-political environment is indispensable within SAPS. A community policing approach emphasises the need for community involvement and participation. Without the involvement of the community, the SAPS will find it difficult to achieve its constitutional mandate.
- The effective mobilisation and empowerment of the public to participate in the CPF will decrease selective companionship and increase a better and adequate public participation. In this way, co-operation between the SAPS and community will ultimately lead to the creation of effective ways to solve the community problems and create a safe and a secure South Africa (Sulaiman *et al*, 2013: 536).
- Active Community Policing Forums will strengthen the aim of the SAPS of dealing with crime and provide a mutual relationship. The mutual relationship will transform to a working relationship, leading to the SAPS being able to achieve their Constitutional obligation or mandate of crime prevention through the assistance of Community Policing Forums. Through active participation by the public, the public can reap the rewards of a safe environment for the whole community.

The above-mentioned central theoretical statements are in line with the title of the study together with the research questions and objectives. It has thus been determined that the results of the study are in line with the central theoretical statements formulated in

chapter 1. This implies that the central theoretical statements have been proved to be appropriate and relevant.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS: PRINCIPLES AND ELEMENTS FOR INCLUSION IN A CPF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY

This section focuses on the discussion of the findings from the interviews which were based on the theoretical discussion presented in chapters two and three, as well as the legislative and regulatory frameworks presented in chapter four. The empirical research was thus aimed at developing a public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. In achievement of this aim, the following recommendations, emanating from the findings, can be made:

- **Recommendation 1: Development of a public participation strategy**

From the empirical investigation it became evident that CPFs within TLM do not have a public participation strategy. The first recommendation is aimed at proposing the steps that it should follow in developing such a strategy.

In relation to other strategy definitions explained in chapter two, Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:4) explain that a strategy is a suitable plan or method for achieving the aims of the institution, such as CPF irrespective of the changes that they might face. In other words, a strategy is a process whereby certain policies, strategies and resources are used to achieve the main objectives of the institution irrespective of the circumstances. Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:4) further indicated that a matter has strategic implications if it:

- Poses a current or future threat or opportunity.;
- Develops from an external or internal trend;
- Can potentially influence the institution growth, survival and service; and
- Can influence the direction in which the matter is moving.

It is against this background that CPFs within TLM should design its strategy for public participation.

The first step is for CPFs to obtain clarity on their institutional mandate. Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:42) point out that the purpose of obtaining an institutional mandate is to inform key decision-makers of what is intended, to highlight the benefits, and to obtain approval. An institutional mandate can either be formal or informal, as discussed in chapter four. One of the mandates of the CPF, for example, is to co-operate with the police, as explained in chapter three. By obtaining clarity on its institutional mandate, CPF should have knowledge on what it is authorised to do and what not. This will ensure that CPF members do not overstep their mandate and they will be knowledgeable about their role. Furthermore, as CPF members become enlightened, they might be resourceful on projecting a good police image, thus erasing the negative perception of the police by citizens and empowering citizens about the benefits of community policing.

A further benefit of a clear institutional mandate may be that police officials will be made aware of relevant legislation, sections, provisions and contracts determining their co-operation with ordinary citizens. The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 and NDP's Vision 2030 can be of great assistance in this regard. This situation in turn could ensure that police officials are trained to understand what community policing entails and what its particular benefits are. Ultimately service delivery can improve leading to a better police image (Bryson, 1995:42).

After obtaining clarity on its mandate, the CPF needs to conduct environmental scanning processes. Environmental scanning refers to a process where a comprehensive assessment or audit is made on the current status of the CPF in general and regarding its position on public participation in particular. CPFs within TLM need to identify their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and solve strategic issues pertaining to public participation.

When conducting environmental scanning, both internal and external environmental analyses should be conducted. Internal environmental analysis should involve an assessment of internal processes and practices, such as its structures, management style, resources, strengths and weaknesses. With regards to external environmental scanning, the political, technological, economic, social and legal environments need to be analysed continually to identify potential threats and opportunities. This assessment phase will ensure that SAPS and CPF understand the needs, aspirations and general

profile of the community. By understanding the community, SAPS and CPF may have a better understanding of the reasons why people participate or not participate in CPF activities.

The fourth step in strategy development is the design of a vision and mission statement. A vision statement sets the overall strategic direction and “desired end state”, whilst the mission statement determines the social and political reason for the CPF existence. The mission statement also explains how the respective CPFs in TLM will achieve their vision statement. It is important for the CPFs to take their unique contexts into consideration. Since circumstances differ in the three police stations, a “one size fits all approach” becomes inappropriate. The mission statement should reflect how the CPFs intend to foster and sustain public participation and what their core responsibilities are. Input regarding the particular formulation of the vision and mission statements should be obtained from the community and other stakeholders to facilitate commitment and buy-in in the process (Ehlerz & Lezanby, 2004:120).

The formulation or design of the strategic plan should follow the vision and mission statements. In the formulation phase, the ‘who’, ‘what’, ‘where’, ‘when’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions may serve as guideline. Answers to these questions will give clarity on what should be included in the public participation strategy. This process of strategy formulation could assist the CPF to draw plans that will address challenges, such as the general lack of interest of citizens to participate, as well as the issue of inadequate resources.

Once the strategy for public participation has been formulated, it needs to be implemented. Strategy implementation is a process whereby strategic plans are turned into a series of actions or operational plans to ensure that the strategy is executed in such a way that its stated objectives are achieved. A critical element in strategy implementation is continuous monitoring, control and evaluation thereof. The purpose of strategy monitoring, control and evaluation is to verify whether the objectives and intended outcomes are realised. The participation strategy of the CPFs should thus make provision for regular inspections, reporting arrangements, and other controls to check whether the strategy is successfully implemented. If these interventions indicate that the strategy does not yield the desired results, the strategy should be amended or abandoned.

- **Recommendation 2: Specific operational considerations**

Emanating from the empirical investigations, the following recommendations are further advanced:

Training and Development: From the station commanders and other police official response, it was revealed that not all members were fully supportive of community policing. As such, police officials need to be re-trained in community policing to make them understand that community policing is a philosophy and an operational policy of the SAPS. Therefore, they should be made aware that the concept community policing requires each police official to be CPO, as indicated in the principles of community policing highlighted in chapter 3. Moreover, community policing should be emphasised on the new recruits so that they can be developed into CPO from the beginning.

CPF members should also be inducted and continuously trained to ensure meaningful participation. Continuous training will empower more citizens and ultimately community empowerment will prevail. Meetings alone cannot achieve this purpose, as cited by the CPF members and station commanders in empirical findings. Formal training strategies will enhance citizen knowledge, skills and attitude. In return, this will mean citizens are adequately empowered to ensure meaningful participation.

Leadership focus: Station commanders need to be made aware that they are the ones who the ship. In other words they need to walk the talk. Therefore, it is recommended that they should ensure that leadership is provided, by ensuring that subordinates are guided and influenced positively to accept community policing as a philosophy and a policing strategy for SAPS.

Physical and financial resources for CPF members: The findings in chapter 5 revealed that members of the police and citizens believed lack of financial remuneration and physical resources for CPF members affected public participation. As such it is recommended that CPF members should be offered some remuneration or stipend. Moreover, CPF as a structure should be resourced so that police and community members do not feel that CPF is a burden.

- **Recommendation 3: Recommendations for further study**

As the findings of this research are based on a public participation strategy for CPFs within three police stations in the TLM, there is a need to conduct more empirical investigations on public participation strategy for CPFs in other municipalities. This suggestion is based on the fact that the circumstances in other local, district and metropolitan municipalities may differ. The challenges associated with public participation may thus be unique and dependent on the police areas (called clusters), relationship between the community and the police, demographical and crime-related matters, and the availability of resources. If the comparisons from these areas can be done, it can become clearer to practitioners to determine the best route which can be followed by all police stations within South Africa to enhance public participation within CPFs.

6.5 FINAL CONCLUSION

Van der Waldt and Knipe (2002:37) assert that participation has long been recognised as a method of breaking down resistance to change and promoting support. The two authors further assert that if people or groups become involved in change, they tend to make it part of themselves, rather than regarding it as something that is forced upon them. The promotion of public participation is an important element for participatory democracy. As determined by this study, it can be concluded that there is a lack of public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. Therefore there was a need to develop a public participation strategy for CPFs to sustain accountability.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the objectives of the study have been achieved, as the study outlined practical steps to be followed when developing a public participation strategy for CPFs in TLM. Therefore, in developing a strategy for public participation for CPFs in TLM, SAPS decision-makers will know that their decision to develop a public participation strategy is based on empirical evidence rather than a “gut-feeling”.

Henry Ford once said, “Coming together is a beginning; keeping together is a progress and working together is a success”. In this regard, it can be stated that the SAPS and citizens working together through CPF, can be successful in creating a crime free environment in South Africa.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ABABIO, E.P. 2010. Enhancing community participation in developmental local government for improved service delivery. *Journal of Public Administration*, 39(2):279-289.
- ABDUL, H.S., OTHMAN, J., HANINA, H.H., BAHAMAN, A.S. & D'SILVA, J.L. 2012. Community development and its influence on community policing. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 9(7):968-973.
- ABOUASSI, K., NABATCHI, T. & ANTOUN, R. 2013. Citizen participation in public administration: Views from Lebanon. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 36(14):1029-1043.
- ADAMS, C.F. 1994. Fighting crime by building moral communities. *Christian century year*, 111(27):894-896.
- ADAMS, G.R. & SCHVONEVELDT, J.D. 1986. Understanding research methods. New York, NY: Longman.
- AGGER, A. 2012. Towards tailor-made participation: How to involve different types of citizens in participatory governance. *TPR: Town Planning Review*, 83(1):29-45.
- AKINBOADE, O.A., MOKWENA, M.P. & KINFACK, E.C. 2013. Understanding citizens' participation in service delivery protests in South Africa's Sedibeng district municipality. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 40(5):458-478.
- ALFORD, R.R. & SCOBLE, H.M. 1968. Sources of local political involvement. *American Political Science Review*, 62(4):1192-1206.
- ANDERSON, J. & POOLE, M. 1999. Assignment and thesis writing. Cape Town: Juta.
- AURIACOMBE, C.J. 2007. Unobtrusive research methodological critical issues. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42(6):458-471.
- AURIACOMBE, C.J. & MOUTON, J. 2007. Qualitative field research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42(6):435-488.

- AURIACOMBE, C.J. 2010. Survey research: Critical consideration for questionnaire construction. *Journal for Public Administration*, 45(3):473-488.
- AUSTIN, E.W. & PINKLETON, B.E. 2006. Strategic public relations management: Planning and managing effective communication programs. 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- AVERY, J. 1981. Police: Force or Service. Sydney: Butterworth.
- BABBIE, E. 2010. The practise of social research. 12th ed. Belmont: Wadsworth.
- BABBIE, E. & MOUTON, J. 2001. The practice of social research. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- BAKER, D. 2007. Strategic change management in public organisations. Oxford: Chados.
- BAKER, M.J. 1990. The marketing book. Oxford: Heinemann.
- BAUER, C. 2006. Principles of South African local government laws. Durban: LexisNexis.
- BEKINK, B. 2006. Principles of African Local Government law. Durban: LexisNexis Butterworth.
- BEKKER, P. 1996. Citizen participation in local government. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- BEZUIDENHOUT, C. 2008. The nature of police and community interaction alongside the dawn of intelligence led policing. *Acta criminological: CRIMSA Conference Special Edition* 3:48-67.
- BIRCH, A.H. 1993. The concepts and theories of modern democracy. New York: Routledge.
- BIRCH, D. 2002. Public participation in local government: A survey of local authorities. Office of the deputy prime minister: London. *s.n.*
- BOLAJI, K.A. 2007. Towards' greater participation of Nigerian women in democratic governance and development: Challenges and prospects. *Gender and behaviour*, 5(2):1406-1419.

- BRIDGES, W.R. 1974. Helping people to develop their communities. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press.
- BROWN, S. & GOLDOWITZ, M. 2010. The public participation act: A comprehensive model approach to end strategic lawsuits against public participation in the USA. *Review of European Community & International Environmental Law*, 19(1):3-13.
- BRYETT, K. & HARRISON, A. 1993. Policing in the community. An introduction to policing. Butterworth: Butterworth.
- BRYNARD, D.J. 1989. Citizen participation in the administrative and functional aspects of public affairs. *Administratio Publica*,1(1):43-57.
- BRYNARD, P.A. & HANEKOM, S.X. 1997. Introduction to research in public administration. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- BRYNARD, P.A. & HANEKOM, S.X. 2006. Introduction to research in management-related fields. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- BRYSON, J.M. 1995. Strategic planning for public and non-profit organisation. San-Fransisco: Josey-Bass.
- BUREAU OF JUSTICE ASSISTANCE, UNITED STATES. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. 1994. Understanding community policing: A framework for action. Washington: Community Policing Consortium.
- BURGER, A. & SILIMA, T. 2006. Sampling and sampling design. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):656-668.
- CAHN, E.S. & CAMPER, J. 1968. Citizen participation in urban development. Washington, DC: N & L Institute for Applied Behavioural Science.
- CAMAY, P. & GORDON, A.J. 2004. Evolving democratic governance in South Africa. Johannesburg: CORE.
- CARRIM, Y. 2001. Bridging the gap between the ideas and practice: Challenges of the new Local government system. *Umrabulo*, 10(1):26-31.

- CAWTHRA, G. 1992. South African Police: From police state to democratic policing. London: Insight.
- CHADWICK, B.A., BAHR, H.M. & ALBECHT, S.L. 1984. Social science research methods. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- CHAKA, M.M. 2013. An evaluation of the effectiveness of the audit committee in Westonaria local municipality. Potchefstroom: North-west University (Dissertation-MPA).
- CHAMPION, D.J. & RUSH, G.E. 1997. Policing in the community. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- CHANDLER, R.C. & PLANO, J.C. 1982. The public administration dictionary. New York, NY: John Wiley.
- CLAPPER, V.A. 1993. Role and influence of citizen participation in public administration in public administration with specific reference to the Eastern Local government. Pretoria: Unisa (Unpublished dissertation M-Admin).
- CLOETE, F. 2007. Data analysis in qualitative public administration and management research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42(6):512-527.
- CLOETE, F. 2006. Fundamentals of evaluation research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):682-693.
- CLOETE, J.J.N. 1993. Democracy: Prospects for South Africa. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- CRAYTHORNE, D.L. 1990. Municipal administration: A handbook. Kenwyn: Juta.
- CRAYTHORNE, D.L. 1997. Municipal administration: A handbook. 4th ed. Kenwyn: Juta.
- DANTZKER, M.L. 1997. Contemporary policing: Personnel, issues and trends. Butterworth: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- DE VOS, A.S., STRYDOM, H., FOUCHE, C.B. & DELPORT, C.S.L. 2002. Research at grassroots: For social science and human professions. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

DE VOS, A.S., STRYDOM, H. & FOUICHE, C.B. & DELPORT, C.S.L. 2011. Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions. 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

DENHARDT, J.V. & DENHARDT, J.V. 2009. Public Administration. 6th ed. New York: Thomson & Wadsworth.

DICTIONARY ON LINE. 2014. Ask a question. Online: <http://answers.ask.com/reference/Dictionaries/What>. Date of access: 08 October 2014.

DU TOIT, D., KNIPE, A., VAN NIEKERK, D., VAN DER WALDT, G. & DOYLE, M. 2002. Service excellence in governance. Sandown: Heinemann.

EBDON, C. & FRANKLIN, A. 2006. Citizen participation in budgeting theory. *Public Administration Review*, 6(6):437-447.

EHLERS, T. & LAZENBY, K. 2004. Strategic management: Southern African concepts and cases. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

FENLEY, A. 2005. Introduction to basic research. Online: <http://www.intraonline.org/> Date of access: 07 April 2012.

FLETCHER, M. 1999. Managing communication in local government. London: Kogan Page.

FLICK, U. 2011. Introducing research methodology. London: SAGE.

FOX, W., VAN WYK, B. & FOURIE, M. 1998. Police management in South Africa. Kenwyn: Juta.

FRANSMAN, M. 2005. Participatory democracy and service delivery in the context of local government: Address by the MEC-local government and housing to the public participation conference. Cape Town (unpublished).

FRIEDMAN, R. 1992. Community policing: Comparative perspective and prospects. New York, NY: St. Martins Press.

GOLDHABER, G.M. 1986. Information strategies: New pathways to management productivity. Norwood, NJ: Albex.

- GAILBRATH, J. 1997. Organisational design. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- GLYNN, J.C., HAYES, F.A. & SHANAHAN, J. 1997. Perceived support for ones opinions sand willingness to speak out: A meta-analysis of survey studies on the 'spiral of silence'. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 61(3):452-463.
- GOLDMAN, G. & NIEUWENHUIZEN, J. 2006. Strategy: Sustaining competitive advantage in a globalised context. Cape Town: Juta.
- GREEN, G. 1982. Municipal administration in receptivity to citizens and elected officials contacts. *Public Administration Review*, 33(1):20-45.
- GREEN, J. & BROWNE, J. 2005. Principle of social research. Online: <http://www.books.google.co.za/> Date of access: 10 April 2012.
- GRIFFIN, E.M. 1997. Muted group theory of *cheris-kramarae*: A first look at communication theory. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- HANEKOM, S.X. 1987. Public policy: Framework and instruments for action. Johannesburg: MacMillan.
- HARDWICK, B.A., BAHR, H.M. & ALBERCHT, S.L. 1984. Social science research methods. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- HASSINK, R. 2011. Implementing the public participation principle into water management in the Czech Republic. *Regional studies*, 45(4):547-557.
- HILMER, J.D. 2010(a). A case study research. London: SAGE.
- HILMER, J.D. 2010(b). The state of participatory democratic theory. *New political science*, 32(1):43-63.
- HUNGER, D.J. & WHEELLEN, T.L. 1993. Strategic management. New York, NY: Addison-Wesley.
- HUNGER, D.J. & WHEELLEN, T.L. 2014. Essentials of strategic management. Essex: Pearson.
- HUSSEY, J. & HUSSEY, R. 1997. Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and post graduate students. New York, NY: Palgrave.

- HYLAND, J.L. 1995. Democratic theory: The philosophical foundations. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- ISMAIL, N., BAYAT, S. & MEYER, I. 1997. Local Government management. Half-way house: International Thomson.
- JAGWANATH, S. 1994. Defining community policing in South Africa. *South African Criminology Journal*, 7(SAS):164-176.
- KHAN, Z. & HAUPAT, G. 2006. Community participation- a necessary element of community development projects. *Acta Structilia*, 13(2):39-61.
- KROON, J. 1995. General management. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.
- KWEIT, M.G. & KWEIT, R.W. 1981. Implementing citizen participation in a bureaucratic society. A contingency approach. New York, NY: Praeger.
- LATEGAN, O.K.L. 2008. An introduction to postgraduate supervision. Stellenbosch: African Sun Media.
- LEEDY, P.D. 1993. Practical research planning and design. Belmont: Wadsworth.
- LEEDY, P.D. & ORMOND, J.E. 2001. Practical research, planning and design. 7th ed. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- LITTLEJOHN, S.W. 1999. Theories of human communication. 6th ed. Aluquerque: Wadsworth.
- MAFUNISA, M.J. & XABA, B. 2008. Public participation and integrated development planning: The case of Limpopo province. *Journal for Public Administration*, 43(3):542-560.
- MAJAM, T. & THERON, F. 2006. The purpose and relevance of a scientific literature review: A holistic approach to research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):603-615.
- MANIN, B. 1997. The principles of representative government. Melbourne: Cambridge University Press.

- MAREE, J.G. 2012. Complete your thesis or dissertation successfully: Practical guidelines. Cape Town: Juta.
- MAROGA, M. 2003. Two sides of the same coin? Sector policing and community policing forums. *SA crime quarterly*, (6):13-16.
- MASANGO, R. 2002. Public participation. A critical ingredient of good governance. *Politeia*, 21(2):52-65.
- MASHININI, V. 2008. Community participation and local government planning in Lesotho: A critical analysis. *Africa-Insight*, 38(1):95-104.
- MASTRAFSKI, S.D., WORDEN, R.E. & SNIPES, J.B. 1995. Law enforcement in a time of community policing. *Journal for Criminology*, 33(4):539-563.
- MATHUR, H.M. 1986. Administering development in the third world: Constraints and choices. New Delhi: SAGE.
- MATSHE, E.M.S. 2009. The promotion of public participation in local government. The case of Ditsobotla municipality. Vaal: North-West University (Vaal campus). (Mini-dissertation MOD).
- MAYHALL, P., BARKER, T. & HUNTER, R.D. 1995. Police community relations and the administration of justice. 4th ed. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- MERRIAM, S.B. 1988. Case study research in education: A qualitative approach. San-Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- MERSHAM, G.M. & SKINNER, C. 2002. New insight into business and organisational communication. Sandown: Heinemann.
- MIDGELY, J. 1986. Community participation: History, concepts & controversies in community participation and social development and the state. London: Methuer.
- MILADZI, D., MULINGE, M. & MUKAMAAMBO, K. 2002. Democracy, human rights and regional co-operation in Southern Africa. Pretoria: Institute of South Africa in collaboration with SAUSSC.

- MILBRATH, L.W. & GOELS, M.L. 1977. Political participation. How and why do people get involved in politics. 2nd ed. New York, NY: University Press of America.
- MILLS, J., PLATTS, K., NEELS, A., RICHARDS, H. & BOURNE, M. 2002. Strategy and performance. Creating a winning business formula. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- MISHRA, V. 2011. Community policing: Misnomer or fact? Thousand Oaks: SAGE.
- MOOLMAN, C.J. 2003. What is community oriented policing. *Acta criminologica*, 16(3):28-34.
- MORABITO, M.S. 2010. Understanding community policing as an innovation: Patterns of adoption. *Crime delinquency*, 5(6):564-587.
- MOROE, M.E. 2010. Ward committees as a mechanism for public participation on local government sphere: A case of Johannesburg City, Region F. Vaal: North-West University (Mini-dissertation MPMAG).
- MORRISON, C. 2001. Community policing in Vaal-rand (Gauteng). *Acta criminologica*, 14(1):48-56.
- MORRISON, C. 2011. Views of police officials concerning community policing forums in Vaal-rand area. *Acta criminologica*, 24(2):144-153.
- MOSANA, L. 2005. Participation in the integrated development planning: The case of buffalo city municipality. Port Elizabeth: Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. (Dissertation: M-Phil).
- MOTALE, I.J. 2012. Public participation strategy for budgeting in local government: The case of Tlokwe local municipality. Potchefstroom: North-West University (Mini-dissertation MPMAG).
- MOUTON, J. 1996. Research methodology: Base concepts in the methodology of social science. Pretoria: HSRC.
- MOUTON, J. 2001. How to succeed in your masters' and doctoral studies. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

MOUTON, J. 2005. How to succeed in your masters' & doctoral studies: A South African guide and resource book. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

MOUTON, J. 2012. How to succeed in your masters' and doctoral studies. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

MOUTON, J., AURIACOMBE, C.J. & LUTABINGWA, J. 2006. Problematic aspects of the research, design and measurement process in public administration research: Conceptual considerations. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):547-587.

NCHOLO, P., MACADI, M., HOLTZMAN, Z. & ISAACS, S. 1994. Towards' a democratic policing. Safety is a human right. Bellville: Esquire Press.

NCHONA, P. 1994. Towards a South African student volunteers organisation. Pretoria: Centre for Human Rights.

NEALER, J. 2009. Research methodology. Potchefstroom: NWU, Potchefstroom Campus. (Study guide PUMA 611 PE).

NEWTON, K. 1969. A Critique of the pluralist model. *Acta Sociologica (Taylor & Francis Ltd)*, 12(4):209-233.

NNADOZIE, U.P., EMEKA, M.M., CHIEDO, A. & JUMARE, F. 2014. Effective community policing: A panacea to in-efficiency and impunity in Nigerian police. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4(6):292-299.

PATEN, M.L. 2004. Understanding research methods: An overview of the essentials. 4th ed. Glendale: Pytczak.

PEAK, K.J. & GLENSOR, R.W. 1996. Community policing and problem solving. Strategies and practices. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

PETTINGER, R. 2009. Competitive strategy for dummies. Chichester: John Willey.

PHIYEGA, R. 2014. SAPS launch a national community programme. 27 January 2014. Pretoria.

PIETERSE, E. 2002. Participatory local governance in the making: Opportunities, constraints and prospects. (in Pornell, S., Pieterse, E., Swilling, M. & Woolridge, D. eds.

Democratising local government: The South African experiment). Cape Town: UCT Press.

PLANACT. 1992. The reorganisation of Local government in South Africa. Johannesburg: s.n.

POTGIETER, P.J. & MERSHAM, G.M. 2002. The role of media in community policing. *Acta criminologica*, 15(2):55-68.

PRISCOLI, J.D. 2004. What is public participation in water resources management and why is it important? *Water international*, 4(2):221-227.

PUTU, M. 2006. The role of ward committees in enhancing public participation in Rustenburg Local Municipality: A critical evaluation. *Citizen leadership unit, IDASA*, 1-35.

RANNEY, A. 1971. The governing of men. 3rd ed. Dryden: Illinois.

REIDEL, J.A. 1972. Citizen participation: Myths and realities. *Public Administration Review*, 25(2):119-136.

REYNECKE, F. 1996. Creating a culture of entrepreneurship in the SAPS. *Praetor*, 8(5):11-14.

ROBERTS, G. & EDWARDS, A. 1991. A new dictionary of political analysis. London: Edward Arnold.

ROBERTS, N. 2003. Direct citizen participation: Building a theory. Paper presented to the 7TH National management research conference held at the Georgetown University-Washington DC on 9-11 October 2003. Online: <http://teep.tamu.edu/npmrc/Roberts.pdf>
Date of access: 22 July 2014.

ROHE, W.M. 2001. Community policing and planning. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 67(1):1-20.

SAGRAVE, M. & RATCLIFFE, J. 2004. Community policing: A descriptive overview. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

- SALOMANE, K.E. 2010. The place and role of CPF's in Merafong local municipality (MLM) area. Potchefstroom: North-West University (Mini-dissertation MOD).
- SCHURINK, E. 2010. The importance of theorising in proposal writing. *Journal of Public Administration*, 45(3):420-434.
- SCHURINK, E. & AURIACOMBE, C.J. 2010. Theory development: Enhancing the quality of the case study as research strategy in qualitative research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 45(3):435-455.
- SCHUTTE, N.E. 2006. The dendrogram technique as a tool to development questionnaires. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):616-630.
- SCHUTTE, N.E. 2003. Development of a strategic management model for the SAPS (Free State province). Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. (Mini-dissertation MOD).
- SEBOLA, M.P. 2014. The community policing philosophy and the right to public protest in South Africa: Are the positive developments after two decades of democracy? *Journal of Public Administration*, 49(1):300-313.
- SEVERIN, W.J. & TANKARD, J.W. 2001. Communication theory. 5th ed. New York, NY: Longman.
- SHEHU, M., MAJLINDA, D.P. & GJUTA, D. 2013. Citizen participation and local good governance: Case study of the Kukes region. *Albanian Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, 12(4):675-684.
- SINGH, D. 2005. Resorting to community justice when state policing falls. *Acta criminologica*, 18(3):43-50.
- SMITH, B.L. 2003. Public policy and public participation: Engaging citizens and community in the development of public policy. Halifax: Population and Public Press.
- SMITH, L. & VAWDA, A. 2003. Citizen vs customer: Different approaches to public participation in service delivery in Cape Town. *Urban forum*, 14(1):26-52.
- SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF POLICE. 2013. Green Paper on Policing. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF POLICE. 2014. Top 1500 SAPS managers' conference at Birchwood hotel, Boksburg. The road to a safer South Africa. 18 January 2013: Pretoria.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC SERVICE AND ADMINISTRATION. 2003. *Batho-pele* handbook: A service delivery improvement guide. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF SAFETY AND SECURITY. 1996. National crime prevention strategy. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF SAFETY AND SECURITY. 1997. Community policing policy framework and guidelines 1997. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF SAFETY AND SECURITY. 2000. A manual for community based crime prevention 2000. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF SAFETY AND SECURITY. 2006. National Instruction 1/2006. Research in the Service. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF SAFETY AND SECURITY. 2014. National Instruction 1/2014. Protection of elderly people. Pretoria.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1997. White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 2005. Department of Provincial and Local government. Integrated development planning (IDP) guide pack: Generic overview. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1993. Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1995. South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1997. White Paper on Safety and Security. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1997. White Paper on Transformation of Public Service 1997. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1998. Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1998. White Paper on Local Government. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1998. White Paper on Safety and Security. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 2000. Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 2003. Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 2005. Department of provincial and local government 2005. Regulatory guidelines on ward committees. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 2006. The Older Persons Act 13 of 2006. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA. 2012. National Development Plan: Vision 2030. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT ASSOCIATION. 2011. About SALGA. On line: <http://salga.org.za/pages/About-SALGA/Provinces/North-West> Overview. Date of access 2015-08-21.

SOUTH AFRICA. SOUTH AFRICA POLICE SERVICE. 2013. National instruction on sector policing. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SPIEGEL, H. 1968. Citizen participation in urban development, volume 1: Concepts and issues. Washington: Institute for Applied Behavioural Science.

- STEVENS, P. & YACH, M.D. 1995. Community policing in action: A practitioners' guide. Kenwyn: Juta.
- STIPAK, B. 1994. Are you really doing community policing? *The police chief*, 61(10):115-123.
- SULAIMAN, A.H., OTHMAN, J., HAMSAN, H.H., SAMAH, B.A. & D'SILVA, J.L. 2012. Community development and its influence on community policing. *Journal of Applied Science*, 9(9):68-973.
- SULAIMAN, A.H., SULAIMAN, S., OTHMAN, J. & D'SILVA, J.L. 2013. Perceived effectiveness of a community policing program in Malaysia: A comparison of social demographic factors. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 13(4):536-545.
- SWAPAN, M.S.H. 2014. Realities of community participation in metropolitan planning in Bangladesh: A comparative study of citizens and planning practitioners' perceptions. *Habitat international*, 4(3):191-197.
- TERSCH, R. 1990. Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools. Falmer: Bristol PA.
- THOMAS, A.R. & SMITH, P.J. 2003. Spotlight on social research. Boston: Person.
- THOMPSON, J. & MARTIN, F. 2005. Strategic management awareness and change. 5th ed. London: Cengage Learning.
- THORNHILL, C. 1995. Local government: Government closer to the people. Pretoria: Human Science Research Council.
- THORNHILL, C. 2006. The domain of public administration. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(41):793-806.
- THORNHILL, C. 2008. Local government after 15 years: Issues and challenges. Johannesburg: Konrad-Adenauer Stiftung.
- TIEDKE, K., FREEMAN, C. & SOWER, J.H. 1957. Community involvement. Glencoe: The Free Press.

- TILLEY, N. 2008. Modern approach to policing, problem oriented and intelligence-led in the new burn handbook of policing. Willan: Cullompton.
- TLHOALELE, C., NETHOZHE, T. & LUTABINGWA, J. 2007. Foundational considerations in selecting research topic and writing a thesis or dissertation proposal. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42(6):549-564.
- TROJANOWICZ, R. & BUCQUEROUX, B. 1994. Community policing: How to get started. Carolina: Anderson.
- TROJANOWICS, R., KAPPLER, V.E., GAINES, L.K. & BUCQUEROUX, B. 1998. Community policing: A contemporary perspective. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.
- TROJANOWICZ, R.C. & DIXON, S.L. 1974. Criminal justice and the community. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- TSHABALALA, M.J.P. 2007. Ward committees as a mechanism for public participation on local government level: The case study of Emfuleni local municipality. Vaal: North-West University. (Mini-dissertation: *Magister Atrium*-unpublished).
- VAN AS, M. & VAN SCHALKWYK, M. 2001. Research and information management 4 and research methodology. Florida: Technikon RSA.
- VAN DIJK, H.G. 2012. Research methodology. Potchefstroom: North-West University. Potchefstroom Campus. (Study guide MPMA 811 PEC).
- VAN DER WALDT, G. 2002. Strategic management: Realising your institution's future through transformational leadership. Centre for Governance, Potchefstroom: North-west University, (Unpublished).
- VAN DER WALDT, G. 2004. Managing performance in the public sector. Cape Town: Juta.
- VAN DER WALDT, G. 2007. Fostering local democracy. (in Van der Waldt, G., ed. *Municipal Management: Serving the people*). Cape Town: Juta.
- VAN DER WALDT, G. 2008. A guide to project management. Cape Town: Juta.

- VAN DER WALDT, G. 2010. Core theories for the teaching of local democracy. *Administratio Publica*, 18(1):12-29.
- VAN DER WALDT, G. 2011. Research methodology: A guide for the preparation of a research proposal. Potchefstroom: North-West University. (Study guide MPMA 811).
- VAN DER WALDT, G. & KNIPE, A. 1998. Project management for strategic changes and upliftment. Johannesburg: International Thomson.
- VAN DER WALDT, G. & KNIPE, A. 2002. Project management for strategic change and upliftment. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- VAN DER WALT, C. 2002. Key challenges facing managers in a new dispensation for local government: The case of Potchefstroom local municipality. Potchefstroom: North-West University. (Mini-dissertation MPMAG).
- VAN ROOYEN, E.J. 2003. A new approach to managing community participation and stakeholder negotiation in South African local government. *South African journal of economic and management sciences*, 6(1):126-142.
- VAN ROOYEN, H.J.N. 1994. Community policing. s.l.: Primedia.
- VAN HANEN, T. 1990. The process of democratisation: A comparative study of 147 states. New York, NY: Crane Russak.
- VILLIAN, M. & VOGT, P. 2011. The SAGE handbook of innovations in social research. London: SAGE.
- WADDINGTON, P.A.J. 1993. Calling the police. Avebury: Ashgate.
- WEBB, W. & AURIACOMBE, C.J. 2006. Research design in public administration: Critical consideration. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):588-602.
- WELMAN, J.C. & KRUGER, S.J. 1999. Research methodology for the business administrative science. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- WESSELS, E. 1993. Democracy in South Africa: Party-political viewpoints. Pretoria: Die Suid-Afrikaan.

- WILLIAMS, R. 2005. Strategies of public participation in local governance: A case study of the Nelson Mandela metropolitan municipality presented at the GCIS/ DPLG/ SALGA national consultative workshop, 27-28 July. Benoni.
- WINDHAL, S., SIGNITZER, B. & OLSON, J.T. 1992. Using communication theory: An introduction to planned communication. London: SAGE.
- WINDAHL, S., SIGNITZER, B. & OLSON, J.T. 2010. Using communication theory: An introduction to planned communication. 2nd ed. London: SAGE.
- WISSINK, H.F. 1990. Policy analysis in public administration. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University Publishers.
- WONG, K.C. 2001. The philosophy of community policing in china police. *Police Quarterly*, 4(1):186-214.
- YANG, J.A & GRABE, M.E. 2014. At the intersection of the Digital Devine and the Knowledge Gap. Do Knowledge, Domains and Measure matter? The information society: *An International Journal*, 30(5):310-322.
- YERO, A., OTHMAN, J., SAMAH, B.A., D'SILVA, J.L. & SULAIMAN, A.H. 2012. Re-visiting concept and theories of community policing. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 4(4):51-55.
- YOUNG, S.C. 2000. Promoting participation and community based partnership in the context of local agenda: A report for practitioners. Manchester: Manchester University.
- ZAAIMAN, Z.J. 2009. Workshop notes (MPMA 811). North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). Potchefstroom.

ANNEXURE A

RESEARCH PARTICIPATION CONSENT FORM

TOPIC : APUBLIC PARTICIPATION STRATEGY FOR COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS (CPF) . THE CASE OF TLOKWE LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

Dear Respondent

My name is Tsietsi John Morebodi. I am currently studying for a Master's degree in Public Management with North West University. As part of completing the degree, I am required to conduct a study which involves an investigative research. You have been selected to participate in the study. The selection is based on your involvement in CPF matters or you being the resident of Tlokwe Local municipality.

For members of the SAPS and CPF, approval for you to participate in the study has been obtained from the Provincial Commissioner North West, Lt Gen Mbombo. See attached approval letter for easier reference.

The primary objective of the study is to develop or update a public participation strategy for community policing forum in the Tlokwe Local Municipality. Interview will be conducted with you in order to validate the results of the study. Please note that the interview will compromise of open-ended questions which will afford you an opportunity to elaborate more on the questions asked. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

The information obtained from the study will be kept confidential and used only for the purpose of what it is intended. The results of the study will thus be used in an aggregate format and as such the anonymity of your response will be maintained.

PARTICIPATION DECLARATION

I _____ as _____ hereby voluntarily grant permission for participation in the study and that the information furnished should be treated as confidential.

ANNEXURE B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE STATION COMMANDER

**Title of research: Public Participation Strategy for community policing forums:
The case of Tlokwe Local Municipality**

Biographical detail:

1. How long have you been in SAPS?

2. How long have you been a station commander?

3. For how long are you a resident of Tlokwe?

Questions

4. What are the main challenges facing station commanders in facilitating public participation with regard to CPFs? (eg. resources, attitude of community, SAPS capacity, etc.)

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

5. In your opinion is there a culture and ethos of openness and transparency in SAPS to facilitate community participation in crime prevention imperatives?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6. Are there any public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police? Please explain your response.

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

7. What are the main benefits that public participation initiatives in the CPF have brought for the police? Please substantiate and elaborate.

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. Does the police station employ “*Batho-Pele*” principles to foster public participation? Why do you say so?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

9. Is there a detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. If so, does the community know about it? If not, why not?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

11. If a participation strategy exists, what are the challenges associated with its implementation and how can it further is improved?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

12. Do the police officials under you command know, understand and embrace the concept of public participation?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

13. How are CPF members empowered or disempowered to ensure meaningful participation?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your participation!!!

ANNEXURE C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR MEMBERS OF THE CPF

**Title of research: Public Participation Strategy for community policing forums:
The case of Tlokwe Local Municipality**

Biographical details:

1. For how long are you a resident of the Tlokwe community?

2. What is your gender?

3. How old you are?

4. What is your level of education?

Questions:

5. How long have you been a member of the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....

6. How and why did you become involved in the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....

.....
.....

7. In your opinion, what are the main challenges facing the forum in facilitating public participation?

Please elaborate.

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. In your opinion, what are the main contributions and successes of the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

9. Are there any public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. Is there a detailed and documented public participation strategy for your CPF? If so, does the community know about it? If not, why not?

Please elaborate:

.....
.....

.....
.....

11. If such a participation strategy for the CPF is in place, what are the challenges associated with its implementation and how can it further be improved?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

12. If a participation strategy is not in place, what would you say should be included in such a strategy? How would you rate the level of co-operation between (a) the police and the community, (b) the police and the CPF, and (c) between the community and the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

13. How communication is (written and verbal) distributed and facilitated in the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....

14. In your opinion, is there any conducive environment to foster and further facilitate public participation? Why do you say so?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your participation!!!

ANNEXURE D

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR CPO AND ORDINARY POLICE OFFICIALS

**Title of research: Public Participation Strategy for community policing forums:
The case of Tlokwe Local Municipality**

Biographical details:

1. For how long are you a member of SAPS?

2. What is your current position/rank?

3. For how long are you a resident in the Tlokwe community?

Questions

4. What is your opinion about community involvement in police work?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

5. As a police official, how do you see the police and the community benefiting in a mutual relationship?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

6. In your view who should participate in the CPF and why do you think so?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

7. Are there any public participation initiatives having negative effects on the work of the police?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. What are the main challenges with regard to facilitating public participation in CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

9. Is there a detailed and documented public participation strategy for CPF? If so, does the community know about it? If not, why not?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. If such a participation strategy for the CPF is in place, what are the challenges associated with its implementation and how can it further be improved?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

11. If a participation strategy is not in place, what would you say should be included in such a strategy?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

12. What is your opinion about the concept of community policing?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

13. How is communication and information dissemination facilitated between the police and the community to foster public participation in the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

14. How are members of the community empowered to facilitate meaningful participation?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your participation!!!

ANNEXURE E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR ORDINARY CITIZENS

**Title of research: Public Participation Strategy for community policing forums:
The case of Tlokwe local Municipality**

Biographical details:

1. For how long are you a resident of the Tlokwe community?

2. What is your gender?

3. How old are you?

4. What is your level of education?

Questions

5. Are you aware of the existence of community policing forums? If yes, what are their main purposes?

Please elaborate:

.....
.....

.....
.....

6. If you are familiar with a CPF, how do you interact with the members thereof?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

7. In your view who should participate in the CPF? Why do you think so?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. What are the main challenges with regard to facilitating public participation in police affairs in general and CPFs in particular?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

9. Are you aware of a public participation strategy for CPF? Are you familiar with any mechanisms used for public participation in the CPF?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. How can community participation in crime prevention in general and in police affairs in particular be further promoted?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

11. Any further comments?

Motivate:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your participation!!!